# Upper Domination and Upper Irredundance Perfect Graphs 

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#### Abstract

Let $\beta(G), \Gamma(G)$ and $I R(G)$ be the independence number, the upper domination number and the upper irredundance number, respectively. A graph $G$ is called $\Gamma$ perfect if $\beta(H)=\Gamma(H)$, for every induced subgraph $H$ of $G$. A graph $G$ is called $I R$-perfect if $\Gamma(H)=I R(H)$, for every induced subgraph $H$ of $G$. In this paper, we present a characterization of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs in terms of some family of forbidden induced subgraphs, and show that the class of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs is a subclass of $I R$-perfect graphs and that the class of absorbantly perfect graphs is a subclass of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs. These results imply a number of known theorems on $\Gamma$-perfect graphs and $I R$-perfect graphs. Moreover, we prove a sufficient condition for a graph to be $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect which improves a known analogous result.


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## 1 Introduction

All graphs will be finite and undirected, without loops and multiple edges. If $G$ is a graph, $V(G)$ denotes the set, and $|G|$ the number, of vertices in $G$. Let $N(x)$ denote the neighborhood of a vertex $x$, and let $\langle X\rangle$ denote the subgraph of $G$ induced by $X \subseteq V(G)$. Also let $N(X)=\cup_{x \in X} N(x)$ and $N[X]=N(X) \cup X$. Denote by $\delta(G)$ the minimal degree of vertices in $G$.

A set $X$ is called a dominating set if $N[X]=V(G)$. The independence number $\beta(G)$ is the maximum cardinality of an independent set, and the upper domination number $\Gamma(G)$ is the maximum cardinality of a minimal dominating set of $G$. A minimal dominating set of order $\Gamma(G)$ is called a $\Gamma$-set. A set $X$ is irredundant if for every vertex $x \in X$,

$$
I(x, X)=N[x]-N[X-\{x\}] \neq \emptyset
$$

[^0]The maximum cardinality of an irredundant set is the upper irredundance number $\operatorname{IR}(G)$. It is well known [2] that for any graph $G$,

$$
\beta(G) \leq \Gamma(G) \leq I R(G)
$$

A graph $G$ is called upper domination perfect ( $\Gamma$-perfect) if $\beta(H)=\Gamma(H)$, for every induced subgraph $H$ of $G$; $G$ is minimal $\Gamma$-imperfect if $G$ is not $\Gamma$-perfect and $\beta(H)=\Gamma(H)$, for every proper induced subgraph $H$ of $G$. A graph $G$ is called upper irredundance perfect (IR-perfect) if $\Gamma(H)=I R(H)$, for every induced subgraph $H$ of $G$. The classes of $\Gamma$ perfect graphs and $I R$-perfect graphs in a sense are dual to the well known classes of domination perfect graphs (for a short survey, see [10]) and irredundance perfect graphs [5], respectively.

In this paper, we present a characterization of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs in terms of some family of forbidden induced subgraphs, and show that the class of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs is a subclass of $I R$-perfect graphs. We also show that the class of absorbantly perfect graphs introduced by Hammer and Maffray [4] is a subclass of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs. These results imply a number of known theorems on the above classes of graphs, for example, the theorem of Cheston and Fricke [1] and Jacobson and Peters [6] that any strongly perfect graph is $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect and the theorem of Golumbic and Laskar [3] that any circular arc graph is $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect. Moreover, we prove a sufficient condition for a graph to be $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect which essentially improves a sufficient condition for a graph to be $I R$-perfect of Cockayne, Favaron, Payan and Thomason [2].

## 2 Main Results

We say that the graph $G$ belongs to the class $\mathcal{W}$ if $G$ is a connected graph, has $|G| \geq 10$ and $\delta(G) \geq 2$, and its vertex set $V(G)$ has a partition $V(G)=A \cup B$ such that $|A|=$ $|B|=\beta(G)+1$ and the only edges between $A$ and $B$ are a perfect matching.

Proposition 2.1 If $G \in \mathcal{W}$, then $\Gamma(G)=\beta(G)+1$.
Proof: Since $A$ is a minimal dominating set, we have $\Gamma(G) \geq|A|$. Let $X$ be a $\Gamma$-set of $G$. If $x$ is a non-isolated vertex of $\langle X\rangle$, then there exists a vertex $y \notin X$ such that $y$ is not adjacent to any vertex of $X-x$. If $x$ is an isolated vertex of $\langle X\rangle$, then there is a vertex $y \notin X$ such that $x y$ is an edge of the perfect matching of $G$. Thus for each vertex of $X$ we can indicate a vertex not in $X$ and obviously different vertices of $X$ result in different vertices of $V(G)-X$. Thus, $\Gamma(G) \leq \frac{1}{2}|G|=|A|$.

The class $\mathcal{W}$ contains an infinite subclass consisting of minimal $\Gamma$-imperfect graphs. The graph $H(k, l, m)$ is constructed from two disjoint cycles $C=C_{4 k+1}(k \geq 1)$ and $C^{\prime}=C_{4 l+1}$ $(l \geq 1)$ by adding the chain $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{2 m}\right)(m \geq 1)$ joining the vertex $v_{1} \in V(C)$ and $v_{2 m} \in V\left(C^{\prime}\right)$. Thus, $|H(k, l, m)|=4 k+4 l+2 m \geq 10$. It is not difficult to see that $H(k, l, m)$ belongs to the class $\mathcal{W}$. By Proposition 2.1, the graph $H(k, l, m)$ is not $\Gamma$ perfect. Moreover, it is possible to show that $H(k, l, m)$ is minimal $\Gamma$-imperfect graph for any $k, l$, and $m$.

The following theorem gives a characterization of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs in terms of the forbidden induced graphs in Figure 1 and the graphs from the class $\mathcal{W}$.

Theorem 2.2 A graph $G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect if and only if $G$ does not contain the graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$ in Figure 1 and any member of $\mathcal{W}$ as induced subgraphs.

Proof: The necessity follows from Proposition 2.1 and the fact that $\beta\left(G_{i}\right)<\Gamma\left(G_{i}\right)$, $1 \leq i \leq 15$. The dotted edges in Figure 1 mean the following: $G_{2}$ has none of the dotted edges, $G_{3}$ has one of the dotted edges, $G_{4}$ has both of the dotted edges, and so on. To prove the sufficiency, let $F$ be a minimum counterexample, i.e., the graph $F$ does not contain the graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$ and any graph from the family $\mathcal{W}$ as induced subgraphs, $\beta(F)<\Gamma(F)$, and $F$ has minimum order. The graph $F$ is connected, since otherwise one of the component $F^{\prime}$ satisfies $\beta\left(F^{\prime}\right)<\Gamma\left(F^{\prime}\right)$, contrary to the minimality of $F$. Let $X$ be a $\Gamma$-set of $F$ such that the number of edges in $\langle X\rangle$ is minimum, and let $Y=V(F)-X$. Denote all isolated vertices of the graph $\langle X\rangle$ by $X_{2}$ and let $X_{1}=X-X_{2}$. Since $X$ is a minimal dominating set, it follows that $I(x, X) \neq \emptyset$ for any $x \in X$. If $x \in X_{1}$, then $I(x, X) \subset Y$. For each vertex $x \in X_{1}$, take one vertex from the set $I(x, X)$ and form the set $Y_{1} \subset Y$.

Suppose that $Y_{2}=V(F)-\left(X \cup Y_{1}\right) \neq \emptyset$ and consider the graph $F-Y_{2}$. We have

$$
\beta\left(F-Y_{2}\right) \leq \beta(F)<\Gamma(F) \leq \Gamma\left(F-Y_{2}\right),
$$

a contradiction, since the graph $F$ is a minimum counterexample. Therefore $V(F)=X \cup Y_{1}$. Now suppose that there is a vertex $x \in X_{2}$. Since $Y=Y_{1}$ and $Y_{1}$ consists of vertices from $I(x, X)$, it follows that $x$ is an isolated vertex of $F$. This is a contradiction, since $F$ is a connected graph and $F \neq K_{1}$.

Thus, the graph $\langle X\rangle$ does not contain isolated vertices and all edges between the sets $X$ and $Y$ form a perfect matching. If $y$ is an isolated vertex of $\langle Y\rangle$, then form the set $(X-x) \cup\{y\}$, where $x$ is the vertex from $X$ adjacent to $y$. This set is a $\Gamma$-set and contains fewer edges than $\langle X\rangle$, contrary to hypothesis. Therefore, $\delta(F) \geq 2$.

Assume that $\beta(F)<|X|-1$ and let $u v$ be any edge of the perfect matching between $X$ and $Y$. It is not difficult to see that

$$
\beta(F-\{u, v\}) \leq \beta(F)<|X|-1 \leq \Gamma(F-\{u, v\})
$$

contrary to the minimality of $F$. On the other hand, $\beta(F)<\Gamma(F)=|X|$. We get

$$
\beta(F)=|X|-1
$$

Now, if $|X| \geq 5$, then $F$ is a member of $\mathcal{W}$, a contradiction. If $|X|=2$, then $\beta(F)=1$ and $F \cong K_{4}$ which is impossile. Consequently, $3 \leq|X| \leq 4$. Consider a maximum independent set $U$ of the graph $F$. Clearly, $U$ contains vertices in both $X$ and $Y$, for otherwise some $v$ has no neighbor in $U$. Since $\beta(F)<|X|$, there is an edge $x_{1} y_{1}$ of the perfect matching such that $x_{1}, y_{1} \notin U$. In what follows, $x_{i}$ and $y_{i}$ denote vertices from $X$ and $Y$, respectively. The set $U$ is maximum independent, and thus there exist vertices $x_{3} \in U$ and $y_{2} \in U$ such that $x_{1}$ is adjacent to $x_{3}$ and $y_{1}$ is adjacent to $y_{2}$. Let $x_{2} y_{2}$ and $x_{3} y_{3}$ be edges of the perfect matching. Now consider the graph $F^{\prime}=\left\langle\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}\right\}\right\rangle$. The only edges of $F^{\prime}$ whose existence is not known yet are $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}, y_{1} y_{3}$ and $y_{2} y_{3}$. If all these edges are present in $F$, then $F^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $G_{1}$, a contradiction. Therefore, one of the above edges is absent and we have 15 possible graphs resulting from $F^{\prime}$. It is straightforward to check that each of the 15 graphs is isomorphic (with saving the
partition) to one of the 8 graphs resulting from $F^{\prime}$ by taking any combination of only the three edges $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{3}$ and $y_{2} y_{3}$. Hence we can suppose that $x_{2} x_{3} \notin E$, where $E$ is the edge set of $F$. Thus, there are 8 cases to consider. Before considering these cases we derive some facts common to all the cases. As $\left\{y_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}$ is independent in $F$ and $\beta(F)+1=|X| \leq 4$, we have $|X|=4$, i.e., $F$ contains one more edge $x_{4} y_{4}$ in the perfect matching. We shall often use the following simple but useful fact which will be called $\beta$-argument: if $x_{i} x_{j} \notin E$, then $y_{k} y_{t} \in E$ where $\{i, j, k, t\}=\{1,2,3,4\}$, for otherwise the set $\left\{x_{i}, x_{j}, y_{k}, y_{t}\right\}$ is independent which is impossible (and, analogously, if $y_{i} y_{j} \notin E$, then $x_{k} x_{t} \in E$ where $\left.\{i, j, k, t\}=\{1,2,3,4\}\right)$. Since $x_{2} x_{3} \notin E$, by $\beta$-argument we immediately conclude that $y_{1} y_{4} \in E$.

Case 1: $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{3}, y_{2} y_{3} \notin E$. Since $\delta(F) \geq 2$, we get $y_{3} y_{4} \in E$. By $\beta$-argument, $x_{1} x_{4} \in E$ and $x_{2} x_{4} \in E$. If $x_{3} x_{4} \notin E$, then $F \cong G_{2}$ or $G_{3}$ depending on the existence of the edge $y_{2} y_{4}$, a contradiction. Consequently, $x_{3} x_{4} \in E$ and we have $F \cong G_{3}$ if $y_{2} y_{4} \notin E$, and $F \cong G_{11}$ if $y_{2} y_{4} \in E$, which is impossible.

Case 2: $x_{1} x_{2} \in E$ and $y_{1} y_{3}, y_{2} y_{3} \notin E$. Analogously to Case $1, y_{3} y_{4} \in E$ and $x_{1} x_{4}, x_{2} x_{4} \in E$. We have $y_{2} y_{4} \notin E$, since otherwise $F-\left\{x_{3}, y_{3}\right\} \cong G_{1}$, a contradiction. Now, depending on the existence of $x_{3} x_{4}, F \cong G_{3}$ or $G_{4}$, a contradiction.

Case 3: $y_{1} y_{3} \in E$ and $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{2} y_{3} \notin E$. This case is similar to Case 2.
Case 4: $y_{2} y_{3} \in E$ and $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{3} \notin E$. By $\beta$-argument, $x_{2} x_{4} \in E$ and $y_{3} y_{4} \in E$. Suppose $y_{2} y_{4} \notin E$. If $x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E$, then $F \cong G_{2}$ (note that $G_{2}$ has two partitions $V\left(G_{2}\right)=A \cup B$ such that the only edges between $A$ and $B$ are a perfect matching). If only one edge from $\left\{x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4}\right\}$ is present in $F$, then $F \cong G_{5}$. At last, $x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E$ implies $F \cong G_{6}$. All cases yield a contradiction. Hence, $y_{2} y_{4} \in E$. Now

$$
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{7}, \quad x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{12} .
$$

If only one edge from $\left\{x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4}\right\}$ is present, then $F \cong G_{9}$, which is impossible.
Case 5: $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{3} \in E$ and $y_{2} y_{3} \notin E$. By $\beta$-argument, $x_{1} x_{4} \in E$. Also, the set $\left\{x_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4}\right\}$ cannot be independent, and therefore we may assume w.l.o.g. that $y_{3} y_{4} \in E$. We have, $x_{3} x_{4} \notin E$, since otherwise $F-\left\{x_{2}, y_{2}\right\} \cong G_{1}$. The set $\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, y_{1}\right\}$ cannot be independent, so $x_{2} x_{4} \in E$. We get $F-\left\{x_{3}, y_{3}\right\} \cong G_{1}$ if $y_{2} y_{4} \in E$, and $F \cong G_{11}$ if $y_{2} y_{4} \notin E$, a contradiction.

Case 6: $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{2} y_{3} \in E$ and $y_{1} y_{3} \notin E$. By $\beta$-argument, $x_{2} x_{4} \in E$. Suppose $y_{2} y_{4} \in E$. Then $x_{1} x_{4} \notin E$, since otherwise $F-\left\{x_{3}, y_{3}\right\} \cong G_{1}$. We have

$$
x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{3} \text { or } G_{9}, \quad x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{6} \text { or } G_{14} .
$$

This contradiction implies $y_{2} y_{4} \notin E$.
Now, if $y_{3} y_{4} \notin E$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{2}, \quad x_{1} x_{4} \in E, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{3}, \\
& x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{9}, \quad x_{1} x_{4} \notin E, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{5} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $y_{3} y_{4} \in E$, then

$$
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{5}, \quad x_{1} x_{4} \in E, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{6},
$$

$$
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{14}, \quad x_{1} x_{4} \notin E, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{13} .
$$

Both subcases yield a contradiction.
Case 7: $y_{1} y_{3}, y_{2} y_{3} \in E$ and $x_{1} x_{2} \notin E$. Since $\delta(F) \geq 2$, we have $x_{2} x_{4} \in E$. By $\beta$ argument, $y_{3} y_{4} \in E$. Now $x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E$ implies $F \cong G_{7}$ or $G_{8}$. If only one edge from $\left\{x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4}\right\}$ is present, then $F \cong G_{9}$ or $G_{10}$. At last, $x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E$ implies $F-\left\{x_{2}, y_{2}\right\} \cong$ $G_{1}$, a contradiction.

Case 8: $x_{1} x_{2}, y_{1} y_{3}, y_{2} y_{3} \in E$. The set $\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, y_{1}\right\}$ is not independent, and so w.l.o.g $x_{2} x_{4} \in E$. Suppose $y_{2} y_{4} \in E$. Since $F-\left\{x_{3}, y_{3}\right\} \not \approx G_{1}$, we have $x_{1} x_{4} \notin E$. Now, if $x_{3} x_{4} \notin E$, then $F \cong G_{4}$ or $G_{10}$, and if $x_{3} x_{4} \in E$, then $F \cong G_{14}$ or $G_{15}$. This contradiction implies $y_{2} y_{4} \notin E$.

If $y_{3} y_{4} \in E$, then

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{9}, & x_{1} x_{4} \in E, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{12}, \\
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F-\left\{x_{2}, y_{2}\right\} \cong G_{1}, & x_{1} x_{4} \notin E, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{14} .
\end{array}
$$

If $y_{3} y_{4} \notin E$, then

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E F \cong G_{3}, & x_{1} x_{4} \in E, x_{3} x_{4} \notin E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{11}, \\
x_{1} x_{4}, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{12}, & x_{1} x_{4} \notin E, x_{3} x_{4} \in E \Rightarrow F \cong G_{6} .
\end{array}
$$

This contradiction completes the proof of Theorem 2.2.
It turns out that the class of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs is a subclass of $I R$-perfect graphs.
Theorem 2.3 Any $\Gamma$-perfect graph is IR-perfect.
Proof: Let $G$ be a $\Gamma$-perfect graph and let $H$ be arbitrary induced subgraph of the graph $G$. Clearly, $H$ is also a $\Gamma$-perfect graph. Let $X$ be a maximum irredundant set of the graph $H$. Consider the induced subgraph $F=\langle N[X]\rangle$ of the graph $H$. Obviously, the set $X$ is a dominating set of the graph $F$. The set $X$ is an irredundant set of $H$, therefore $I(x, X) \neq \emptyset$ for each vertex $x \in X$ in $H$. Since $I(x, X) \subseteq N[X]$ for all $x \in X$ in $H$, we see that $I(x, X) \neq \emptyset$ for each vertex $x \in X$ in the graph $F$, i.e., the set $X$ is an irredundant set in $F$. Consequently, $X$ is a minimal dominating set of the graph $F$. Thus,

$$
\Gamma(F) \geq|X|=I R(H)
$$

Since $H$ is a $\Gamma$-perfect graph, we have

$$
\beta(H)=\Gamma(H) \quad \text { and } \quad \beta(F)=\Gamma(F) .
$$

We get

$$
I R(H) \leq \Gamma(F)=\beta(F) \leq \beta(H)=\Gamma(H) \leq I R(H)
$$

Therefore, $\Gamma(H)=I R(H)$. Thus, the graph $G$ is an $I R$-perfect graph. The proof is complete.

Theorem 2.2 implies a characterization of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs in terms of Property A defined below. Two vertex subsets $A, B$ of a graph independently match each other if $A \cap B=\emptyset,|A|=|B|$, and all edges between $A$ and $B$ in $\langle A \cup B\rangle$ form a perfect matching. We say that a graph $G$ satisfies Property $A$ if for any vertex subsets $A, B \subset V(G)$ that independently match each other, the graph $\langle A \cup B\rangle$ has an independent set of order $|A|$.

Corollary 2.4 $A$ graph $G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect if and only if $G$ satisfies Property $A$.
Proof: Let $A$ and $B$ be vertex subsets of a $\Gamma$-perfect graph $G$ independently matching each other. Since $A$ is a minimal dominating set of the graph $F=\langle A \cup B\rangle$, we have $\beta(F)=\Gamma(F) \geq|A|$, i.e., G satisfies Property A.

Let $G$ possess Property A. The graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$ in Figure 1 and the graphs from $\mathcal{W}$ do not satisfy Property A, and so they cannot be induced subgraphs of the graph $G$. By Theorem 2.2, the graph $G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect.

Jacobson and Peters [6] considered the class of graphs $G$ such that $\beta(H)=I R(H)$ for all induced subgraphs $H$ of $G$. Clearly, this class is the intersection of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs and $I R$-perfect graphs. The next result follows directly from Theorem 2.3 and Corollary 2.4 .

Corollary 2.5 (Jacobson and Peters [6]) A graph $G$ is both $\Gamma$-perfect and IR-perfect if and only if $G$ satisfies Property $A$.

We complete this section with the next simple observations following immediately from Theorem 2.2 and the definition of $\mathcal{W}$.

Corollary 2.6 Let $m$ be fixed. The class of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs having $\beta(G) \leq m$ can be characterized in terms of a finite number of forbidden induced subgraphs.

As an illustration of Corollary 2.6, we have the following result.
Corollary 2.7 $A \bar{K}_{4}$-free graph is $\Gamma$-perfect if and only if it does not contain the graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$ in Figure 1 as induced subgraphs.

## 3 Subclasses of $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect graphs

A number of well known classes of graphs are subclasses of $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect graphs. Hammer and Maffray [4] define a graph $G$ to be absorbantly perfect if every induced subgraph $H$ of $G$ contains a minimal dominating set that meets all maximal cliques of $H$.

Theorem 3.1 An absorbantly perfect graph is $\Gamma$-perfect and IR-perfect.
Proof: Let $G$ be an absorbantly perfect graph and suppose that the sets $A, B \subset V(G)$ independently match each other. The graph $H=\langle A \cup B\rangle$ contains a minimal dominating set $X$ that meets all maximal cliques of $H$. Since all the edges of the perfect matching $P$ of $H$ are maximal cliques, we have $|X| \geq|A|$, and for any edge $a b$ of the perfect matching $P$ at least one of the vertices $a, b$ belongs to $X$. Let $Z$ denote all isolated vertices in $\langle X\rangle$ and $Y=X-Z$. Since $X$ is a minimal dominating set of $H$, we have $I(y, X) \neq \emptyset$ for any vertex $y \in Y$. Denote $I=\cup_{y \in Y} I(y, X)$. Suppose that there is an edge $u v$ such that $u \in Y$, $v \in I$ and $u v$ is not an edge of $P$. Then there exists an edge $v w$ of $P$ such that $w \in X$, contrary to the definition of $I(u, X)$. Thus, the edges between $Y$ and $I$ are edges of $P$, and $|I|=|Y|$. By the definition of $I$, there are no edges between $I$ and $Z$. Suppose now
that the set $I$ is not independent, i.e., there is an edge $e$ in $\langle I\rangle$, and consider the maximal clique $C$ containing $e$. The set $X$ meets all maximal cliques, so $X \cap C \neq \emptyset$. Consequently, a vertex $x \in X \cap C$ is incident to $e$, contrary to the definition of $I$. Thus, the set $I \cup Z$ is an independent set and

$$
|I \cup Z|=|I|+|Z|=|Y|+|Z|=|X| \geq|A| .
$$

Therefore, $G$ satisfies Property A and the result now follows from Corollary 2.4 and Theorem 2.3.

A set of vertices $S$ in a graph $G$ is called a stable transversal if $|S \cap C|=1$ for any maximal clique $C$ of $G$. Obviously, a stable transversal is a maximal independent set. A graph $G$ is strongly perfect if every induced subgraph of $G$ has a stable transversal. Since any maximal independent set is a minimal dominating set, strongly perfect graphs form a subclass of absorbantly perfect graphs, and the inclusion is strict (see [4]). A graph $G$ is called strongly $\Gamma$-perfect if $G$ is both perfect and $\Gamma$-perfect. It is proved in [4] that every absorbantly perfect graph is perfect. Using Theorem 3.1 we get that absorbantly perfect graphs form a subclass of strongly $\Gamma$-perfect graphs. Take the graph $G_{1}$ in Figure 1 and make a subdivision by two vertices of an edge not belonging to a $C_{3}$. The resulting graph shows that the above inclusion is strict. By the definition, strongly $\Gamma$-perfect graphs are a subclass of $\Gamma$-perfect graphs and this inclusion is strict, since $C_{5}$ is $\Gamma$-perfect but not strongly $\Gamma$-perfect. Using Theorem 2.3 and taking into account that $G_{1}$ in Figure 1 is $I R$-perfect and is not $\Gamma$-perfect, we get the following chain of strict inclusions:
$\{$ Strongly perfect graphs $\} \subset\{$ Absorbantly perfect graphs $\} \subset$
$\{$ Strongly $\Gamma$-perfect graphs $\} \subset\{\Gamma$-perfect graphs $\} \subset\{I R$-perfect graphs $\}$.
Corollary 3.2 (Cheston and Fricke [1], Jacobson and Peters [6]) A strongly perfect graph is $\Gamma$-perfect and IR-perfect.

The same result is valid for bipartite graphs [2] and chordal graphs [7], since they are strongly perfect. Moreover, the class of strongly perfect graphs contains perfectly orderable graphs, comparability graphs, peripheral graphs, complements of chordal graphs, Meyniel graphs, parity graphs, $i$-triangulated graphs, cographs, permutation graphs, and thus graphs in all these classes are $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect.

Recall that a graph $G$ is called circular arc if $G$ can be represented as the intersection graph of arcs on a circle.

Corollary 3.3 (Golumbic and Laskar [3]) A circular arc graph is $\Gamma$-perfect and IRperfect.

Proof: Let $G$ be a minimal $\Gamma$-imperfect graph and suppose that $G$ is a circular arc graph. By Theorem 2.2, $G \in \mathcal{W}$ or $G \cong G_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq 15$. In both cases there is a partition $V(G)=A \cup B$ as in the definition of $\mathcal{W}$. The graph $G$ contains an induced odd cycle $C_{m}$, since otherwise $G$ is a bipartite graph and hence $\beta(G)=|A|$, a contradiction. The cycle $C_{m}$ is odd, and hence $C_{m}$ contains consecutive vertices $u, v, w$ such that $\{u, v, w\} \subset A$ (w.l.o.g). Let $I_{u}, I_{v}$ and $I_{w}$ be circular arcs corresponding to $u, v, w$. Assume that $m \geq 5$.

Clearly, the arcs of $C_{m}$ cover the circle and $I_{u} \nsubseteq I_{v}, I_{w} \nsubseteq I_{v}$. By the definition of $\mathcal{W}, v$ is adjacent to $b \in B$ not adjacent to $u$ and $w$, so $I_{b} \subseteq I_{v}$. This is a contradiction, since $\delta(G) \geq 2$ and $b$ is adjacent to $b^{\prime} \in B$ not adjacent to $v$. It remains to consider the case when $m=3$ and the arcs of $C_{m}$ do not cover the circle, i.e., $I_{u} \cap I_{v} \cap I_{w} \neq \emptyset$. Clearly, one of the arcs, say $I_{v}$, is contained in $I_{u} \cup I_{w}$. This is a contradiction, since $v$ is adjacent to $b \in B$ not adjacent to $u$ and $w$.

Volkmann [9] generalized the above mentioned result from [2] that every bipartite graph is $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect, and also the result of Topp [8] that each unicycle graph is $\Gamma$ perfect and $I R$-perfect.

Corollary 3.4 (Volkmann [9]) If $G$ is a graph such that all cycles of odd length contain a common vertex, then $G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect and IR-perfect.

Proof: Suppose that $A, B \subset V(G)$ independently match each other. If $H=\langle A \cup B\rangle$ is bipartite, then $H$ has an independent set of order $|A|$. If $H$ is not bipartite, then it contains a vertex $v$, a common vertex of all odd cycles. Now the graph $H^{\prime}=H-\{v\}$ is bipartite and we have

$$
\beta(H) \geq \beta\left(H^{\prime}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2}(|V(H)|-1)=|A|-\frac{1}{2} .
$$

Thus, $G$ satisfies Property A and the result follows from Corollary 2.4 and Theorem 2.3.
Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a family of connected graphs of Figure 2 having independence number four.
Theorem 3.5 If a graph $G$ does not contain the graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$ in Figure 1 and any member of $\mathcal{P}$ as induced subgraphs, then $G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect and IR-perfect.

Proof: Let $G$ not contain the graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$ and any member of $\mathcal{P}$ as an induced subgraph. Suppose that $G$ contains a graph $H \in \mathcal{W}$ as an induced subgraph, and consider a maximum independent set $U$ of the graph $H$. By the definition of $\mathcal{W}, \beta(H)<|A|=|B|$, and therefore there is an edge $a_{1} b_{1}$ of the perfect matching $\left(a_{1} \in A, b_{1} \in B\right)$ such that $a_{1} \notin U$ and $b_{1} \notin U$. The set $U$ is maximum independent, and thus there exist vertices $a_{2} \in U \cap A$ and $b_{3} \in U \cap B$ such that $a_{1}$ is adjacent to $a_{2}$ and $b_{1}$ is adjacent to $b_{3}$. Let $a_{2} b_{2}$ and $a_{3} b_{3}$ be edges of the perfect matching. Now consider the graph $H^{\prime}=\left\langle\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{3}\right\}\right\rangle$. The only edges whose existence is not known yet are $a_{1} a_{3}, a_{2} a_{3}, b_{1} b_{2}$ and $b_{2} b_{3}$. If all these edges are present in $H$, then $H^{\prime} \cong G_{1}$, a contradiction. Using the same argument as in the proof of Theorem 2.2, we can suppose that $a_{2} a_{3} \notin E(H)$. Since $H \in \mathcal{W}$, we have $|H| \geq 10$, and $H$ is a connected graph. Hence there is the edge $a_{4} b_{4}$ of the perfect matching, and $a_{4} b_{4}$ is not an isolated edge in the graph $F=\left\langle\left\{a_{i}, b_{i}: 1 \leq i \leq 4\right\}\right\rangle$. Clearly, $\Gamma(F)=4$ and $F$ is a connected graph. If $\beta(F)<4$, then $F$ is not $\Gamma$-perfect, and by Theorem 2.2, $F$ contains an induced subgraph from $G_{1}-G_{15}$, a contradiction. Therefore, $\beta(F)=4$ and $F \in \mathcal{P}$, a contradiction. Thus, $G$ does not contain any member of $\mathcal{W}$ as an induced subgraph and also does not have the induced $G_{1}-G_{15}$. By Theorems 2.2 and $2.3, G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect and $I R$-perfect.

Theorem 3.5 essentially improves the known sufficient condition for a graph to be $I R$ perfect (Corollary 3.7). To show this, we weaken the conditions of Theorem 3.5:

Corollary 3.6 If $G$ does not contain the graphs $P_{5}$ and $G_{1}$ in Figure 1 as induced subgraphs, then $G$ is $\Gamma$-perfect and IR-perfect.

Proof: All the graphs $G_{2}-G_{15}$ in Figure 1 contain $P_{5}$ as an induced subgraph. Let us show that any graph of the family $\mathcal{P}$ contains induced $P_{5}$. In fact, the family $\mathcal{P}$ is determined by the connected graph $F$ in the proof of Theorem 3.5. Suppose that $F$ does not contain induced $P_{5}$. We know that $a_{2} a_{3} \notin E(F)$. If $a_{1} a_{3} \notin E(F)$, then $\left\langle\left\{a_{2}, a_{1}, b_{1}, b_{3}, a_{3}\right\}\right\rangle \cong P_{5}$, and hence $a_{1} a_{3} \in E(F)$. We have $b_{2} b_{3} \in E(F)$, for otherwise $\left\langle\left\{b_{2}, a_{2}, a_{1}, a_{3}, b_{3}\right\}\right\rangle \cong P_{5}$. Now $b_{3} b_{4} \notin E(F)$, for otherwise $\left\langle\left\{a_{2}, a_{1}, a_{3}, b_{3}, b_{4}\right\}\right\rangle \cong P_{5}$, and $b_{2} b_{4} \notin E(F)$, for otherwise $\left\langle\left\{a_{3}, a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{2}, b_{4}\right\}\right\rangle \cong P_{5}$. Also, $\left\langle\left\{b_{2}, b_{3}, a_{3}, a_{4}, b_{4}\right\}\right\rangle \not \equiv P_{5}$ implies $a_{3} a_{4} \notin E(F),\left\langle\left\{b_{3}, b_{2}, a_{2}, a_{4}, b_{4}\right\}\right\rangle \not \approx P_{5}$ implies $a_{2} a_{4} \notin E(F),\left\langle\left\{b_{2}, b_{3}, a_{3}, a_{1}, a_{4}\right\}\right\rangle \not \equiv P_{5}$ implies $a_{1} a_{4} \notin E(F)$, and $\left\langle\left\{a_{4}, b_{4}, b_{1}, b_{3}, a_{3}\right\}\right\rangle \not \not P_{5}$ implies $b_{1} b_{4} \notin E(F)$. Hence the edge $a_{4} b_{4}$ is isolated in $F$, a contradiction. Thus, if $G$ does not contain induced $P_{5}$, then $G$ also does not contain the graphs $G_{2}-G_{15}$ and any member of $\mathcal{P}$ as induced subgraphs. The result now follows by Theorem 3.5.

Corollary 3.7 (Cockayne, Favaron, Payan and Thomason [2]) If $G$ does not contain $P_{5}, C_{5}, G_{1}-v$ and the 5-vertex graph with edge set $\{a b, b c, c d, d e, b d\}$ as induced subgraphs, then $G$ is IR-perfect.

Proof: This follows directly from Corollary 3.6.
Notice that the list of forbidden subgraphs in Corollary 3.7 consists of four $\Gamma$-perfect graphs while Corollary 3.6 contains only one $\Gamma$-perfect graph from this list and one minimal $\Gamma$-imperfect graph.

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$G_{1}$

$G_{2}, G_{3}, G_{4}$

$G_{5}, G_{6}$

$G_{7}, G_{8}$

$G_{9}, G_{10}$

$G_{11}, G_{12}$

$G_{13}, G_{14}, G_{15}$

FIGURE 1. Minimal $\Gamma$-imperfect graphs $G_{1}-G_{15}$


FIGURE 2


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