



INVERSE CLOSED DOMINATION ON THE UNITARY CAYLEY GRAPHS

Edward M. Kiunisala and Cristopher John S. Rosero

Mathematics Department
College of Arts and Sciences
Cebu Normal University, 6000
Cebu City, Philippines

Abstract: Let $(\Gamma, *)$ be a finite group and e be its identity. Let S be a generating set of G such that $e \neq S$ and $a^{-1} \in S$ for all $a \in S$. Then the Cayley Graph is defined by $G = (V, E)$, where $V = \Gamma$ and $E = \{(x, x * a) | x \in V, a \in S\}$, denoted by $Cay(\Gamma, S)$. The *Unitary Cayley Graph*, $X_n = Cay(\mathbb{Z}_n, U_n)$ is defined by the additive group of the ring \mathbb{Z}_n of integers modulo n and the multiplicative group of U_n of its units. If we represent the elements of \mathbb{Z}_n by the integers $0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, then it is known that $U_n = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n | \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$. So X_n has a vertex set $V(X_n) = \mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ and the edge set $E(X_n) = \{(a, a + b) | a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } b \in U_n\}$.

In this paper, the domination in graph is extended to a Unitary Cayley graphs, in particular the inverse closed domination on the Unitary Cayley Graphs.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Domination as a graph theoretic concept was first introduced by C. Berge in 1958 and O. Ore in 1962. It was O. Ore [12] who introduced the term dominating set and domination number. In 1977, E.J. Cockayne and S.T. Hedetniemi [5] presented a survey on published works in domination. Since a publication of the said survey, domination theory has been studied extensively. In their book, T.W. Haynes, S.T. Hedetniemi and P.J. Slater listed in [8] over 1200 references in this topic including over 75 variations. The paper of Kulliam and Sigarkanti [11] in 1991 which initiated the study of inverse domination in graphs and further read in [7, 10, 14]. In this study we introduced a new domination parameter, the inverse closed domination in graphs and give some important results.

A dominating set is called a *closed dominating set* if given a graph G , choose $v_1 \in V(G)$ and put $S_1 = \{v_1\}$. If $N_G[S_1] \neq V(G)$, choose $v_2 \in V(G) \setminus S_1$ and put $S_2 = \{v_1, v_2\}$. Where possible, $k \geq 3$, choose $v_k \in V(G) \setminus N_G[S_{k-1}]$ and put $S_k = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$. There exists a positive k such that $N_G[S_k] = V(G)$. The smallest cardinality of a closed dominating set is called the *closed domination number* of G , and denoted by $\bar{\gamma}(G)$. A closed dominating set of cardinality $\bar{\gamma}(G)$ is called $\bar{\gamma}$ -set of G . A closed dominating set S is said to be in its canonical form if it is written as $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ where the vertices v_k satisfy the properties given above.

Let D be a minimum dominating set in G . The dominating set $S \subseteq V(G) \setminus D$ is called an *inverse dominating set* with respect to D . The minimum cardinality of inverse dominating set is called an *inverse domination number* of G and is denoted by $\gamma^{-1}(G)$. An inverse dominating set of cardinality $\gamma^{-1}(G)$ is called γ^{-1} -set of G . Motivated by the definition of inverse domination in graph, we define a new domination parameter. Let C be a minimum closed dominating set in G . The closed dominating set $S \subseteq V(G) \setminus C$ is called an *inverse closed dominating set* with respect to C . The minimum cardinality of an inverse closed dominating set is called an *inverse closed domination number* of G and is denoted by $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}$. An inverse closed dominating set of cardinality $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(G)$ is called $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}$ -set of G .

In this paper, the domination in graph is extended to a Unitary Cayley graphs, in particular the inverse closed domination of the Unitary Cayley Graphs. Let $(\Gamma, *)$ be a finite group and e be its identity. Let S be a generating set of Γ such that $e \notin S$ and $a^{-1} \in S$ for all $a \in S$. Then the Cayley Graph is defined by $G = (V, E)$, where $V = \Gamma$ and $E = \{(x, x * a) | x \in V, a \in S\}$ denoted by $Cay(\Gamma, S)$. The *Unitary Cayley Graph* $X_n = Cay(\mathbb{Z}_n, U_n)$ is defined by the additive group of the ring \mathbb{Z}_n , of integers modulo n and the multiplicative group of U_n of its units. If we represent the elements of \mathbb{Z}_n by the integers $0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$, then it is known that

$U_n = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$. So X_n has a vertex set $V(X_n) = \mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$ and the edge set $E(X_n) = \{\{a, a + b\} \mid a \in \mathbb{Z}_n \text{ and } b \in U_n\}$. TamizhChelvam and Rani [15] obtained the connected domination numbers for certain Cayley Graphs constructed on \mathbb{Z}_n for some generating set of \mathbb{Z}_n .

In this study, we attempt to find the inverse closed dominating sets in the Unitary Cayley Graphs.

2. PRELIMINARIES

Remark 2.1 Tacbobo provided the following in [13].

(i) For a complete graph K_n with n vertices, $\bar{\gamma}(K_n) = 1$;

(ii) For a cycle C_n with n vertices, $n \geq 3$, $\bar{\gamma}(C_n) = \left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil$;

(iii) For a complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$, $\bar{\gamma}(K_{m,n}) = 2$.

Let $X_n = \text{Cay}(\mathbb{Z}_n, U_n)$ be a unitary Cayley graph.

Theorem 2.2 [6] X_n is a bipartite if n is an even number.

Theorem 2.3 [16] X_n is $\phi(n)$ -regular for all n , where $\phi(n)$ denotes the Euler function.

Theorem 2.4 [1] X_n is Eulerian for all $n \geq 3$.

The Euler's phi function $\phi(n)$, is defined to be the number of positive integers less than n that are relatively prime to n introduced by Leonhard Euler (1703-1783).

The theorem below is a formula for obtaining $\phi(n)$, based on the factorization of n as a product of primes.

Theorem 2.5 [2]

1. If p is prime number, then $\phi(p) = p - 1$.

2. If the integer $n > 1$ has the prime factorization $n = p_1^{k_1} \cdot p_2^{k_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{k_r}$, then $\phi(n) = n \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdot \dots \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_r}\right)$.

3. Let p be a prime and a be a positive integer. Then $\phi(p^a) = p^a - p^{a-1}$.

Theorem 2.6 [2] The function ϕ is a multiplicative function.

Theorem 2.7 [4] The following hold:

1. For any integer $n = 2$, $\gamma(K_n) = \gamma^{-1}(K_n) = 1$.

2. For integers $m, n \geq 2$, $\gamma(K_{m,n}) = \gamma^{-1}(K_{m,n}) = 2$.

Theorem 2.8 [4] For an integer $n \geq 3$, $\gamma(C_n) = \gamma^{-1}(C_n) = \left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil$.

3. CLOSED DOMINATION IN GRAPHS

Theorem 3.1 If n is prime, then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$.

Proof : Suppose n is prime. Let v be a vertex of the unitary Cayley graph X_n . Since $|U_n| = \phi(n)$, let $n = \{1, v_2, \dots, v_{\phi(n)-1}, v_{\phi(n)}\}$. By the definition of unitary Cayley graph, $v \in V(X_n)$ is adjacent to a vertex $u \in V(X_n)$ if and only if $(u - v, n) = 1$. Since n is prime, this implies that $u - v$ is relatively prime to n . Hence $u - v$ is a unit in the ring \mathbb{Z}_n , and u and v are adjacent. Since u and v are arbitrary, each vertex of X_n is adjacent to every other vertex, and $X_n \cong K_n$. Hence, by Remark 2.1 (i), then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$.

Theorem 3.2 Let n be an integer such that $\phi(n) = 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = \left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil$.

Proof: Suppose $\phi(n) = 2$. Then $|U_n| = 2$. Hence, X_n is 2-regular by Theorem 2.3. Since X_n is connected for all n due to Theorem 2.4, we must have $X_n \cong C_n$, a cycle with n vertices. Therefore, by Remark 2.1 (ii), $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = \lfloor \frac{n}{3} \rfloor$. ■

Theorem 3.3 *If n is an integer such that $n = 2^r, r \geq 2$, then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 2$.*

Proof: Let $n = 2^r, r \geq 2$. Then U_n consists all the odd vertices of \mathbb{Z}_n . Since n is even, then no two even labeled vertices are adjacent. This implies that even labeled vertices and odd labeled vertices form a bipartition of the vertex set. Now let D be a $\bar{\gamma}$ -set of X_n and $i \in D$. Without loss of generality, let $i \in U_n$ that is, i is an odd labeled vertex. Then i cannot be adjacent to any $k \in U_n \setminus \{i\}$ since $i - k \notin U_n$. Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{deg}(i) &= \phi(n) \\ &= 2^r - 2^{r-1} \\ &= 2^{r-1}(2 - 1) \\ &= 2^r \cdot 2^{-1} \\ &= \frac{2^r}{2} \\ &= \frac{n}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, i is adjacent to any $j \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus U_n$, that is, i dominates all the even vertices of X_n . In a similar matter, j is adjacent to any $l \in U_n$, that is, j dominates all the odd vertices of X_n . Thus, $D = \{i, j\}$ and D is a minimum closed dominating set of X_n . Therefore, $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 2$. ■

Theorem 3.4 *If $n = 2p$ where p is prime, then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 2$.*

Proof: Let $n = 2p$. Then $\phi(n) = p - 1$ by Theorem 2.5. Since n is even, then due to Theorem 2.2, $X_n, n \geq 2$ is bipartite, i.e., even labeled vertices and the odd labeled vertices form a bipartition of the vertex set. Let D be a $\bar{\gamma}$ -set of X_n . Now, let $i \in D$ such that i is odd labeled vertex in X . Then $\text{deg}(i) = p - 1$ by Theorem 2.3. Since the number of even labeled vertices is p , then there exists an even labeled vertex say j , such that i and j are not adjacent. Thus i dominates all even labeled vertices except j . Similarly, we can show that j dominates all odd vertices except i . Thus, $D = \{i, j\}$ and D is a minimum dominating set of X_n . Therefore, $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = |D| = 2$. ■

Theorem 3.5 *If p and q are distinct odd primes and $n = pq$, then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = p$, where $p < q$.*

Proof: Let $n = pq$, where p and q are two distinct odd primes and $p < q$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(n) &= \phi(p)\phi(q) \\ &= (p - 1)(q - 1) \\ &= |U_n| \end{aligned}$$

by Theorem 2.6. Now, for $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$, we define each partite set as $A_i = \{x \in V(X_n) : x \equiv i \pmod{p}\}$. Then $A_0 \cup \dots \cup A_{p-1} = V(X_n)$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, i \neq j, 1 \leq j \leq i$, which implies that

A_i forms an independent set because they are equivalence class modulo p . Thus, for any $v \in A_i, v$ is not adjacent to $u \in A_i \setminus \{v\}$. Therefore, X_n forms a p -partition.

Let D be a $\bar{\gamma}$ -set of X_n and $v \in D$. Let $l_r = \{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\}$. If $v \in A_i$ for any $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$, then there exists a $w_j \in A_j, j \neq i, 0 \leq j \leq p - 1$ such that $w_j = qr + v$ where $r \in l_r$, that is $\text{gcd}(v - w, n) \neq 1$. Hence, there exists $w_j \in A_j$ such that v and w are not adjacent. Thus, $w_j \in D$. Since, $j \neq i$ and $0 \leq j \leq p - 1, |D| = p$ and D is a minimum dominating set. Therefore, $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = p$. ■

Theorem 3.6 *If $n = p^\alpha$ where p is prime, $\alpha \geq 2$, then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 2$.*

Proof: Suppose $n = p^\alpha$ where p is prime, $\alpha \geq 2$, and $v \in V(X_n)$. Then $\text{deg}(v) = \phi(n) = p^\alpha - p^{\alpha-1}$. For $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$, we define each partite set as $A_i = \{x \in V(X_n) : x \equiv i \pmod{p}\}$. Then $A_0 \cup \dots \cup A_{p-1} = V(X_n)$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, i \neq j, 1 \leq j \leq i$, which implies that A_i forms an independent set because they are equivalence class modulo p . Hence, for any $v \in A_i, v$ is not adjacent to $u \in A_i \setminus \{v\}$. Therefore, X_n forms a partition.

Let D be a $\bar{\gamma}$ -set of X_n and $v \in D$. Without loss of generality, let $v \in A_i$ for $0 \leq i \leq p - 1$. Since $\text{deg}(v) = p^\alpha - p^{\alpha-1} = p^\alpha \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$, then v dominates $V(X_n) \setminus A_i$ that is v is adjacent to any vertex $V(X)$ except for the elements of A_i other than v itself. Take $u \in A_j$ where $j \neq i$ and $0 \leq j \leq p - 1$. In the same way, u dominates $V(X_n) \setminus A_j$ and that includes A_i . Thus, $D = \{u, v\}$ and D is a minimum dominating set. Consequently, $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = |D| = 2$. ■

4. INVERSE CLOSED DOMINATION IN GRAPHS

Theorem 4.1 If n is prime, then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) = 1$.

Proof: Suppose n is prime. Then by Theorem 3.1 $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$, since the graph X_n is isomorphic to K_n with n vertices. Therefore by Theorem 2.7, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) = 1$. ■

Theorem 4.2 Let $n \geq 3$ be an integer such that $\phi(n) = 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) = \lfloor \frac{n}{3} \rfloor$.

Proof: Suppose $\phi(n) = 2$. Then by the proof of Theorem 3.2, $X_n \cong C_n$, a cycle with n vertices. Since X_n is isomorphic to C_n , then by Theorem 2.8, we must have $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) = \lfloor \frac{n}{3} \rfloor$. ■

Theorem 4.3 If n is an integer such that $n = 2^r$, $r \geq 2$, then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) = 2$.

Proof: Let $n = 2^r$, $r \geq 2$. Then X_n consists of all the odd vertices of \mathbb{Z}_n . Since n is even, then no two even labeled vertices are adjacent. This implies that even labeled vertices and odd labeled vertices form a bipartition of the vertex set, i.e. X_n is isomorphic to $K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$. Hence, X_n is a complete bipartite graph. Therefore by Theorem 2.7, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) = 2$. ■

Remark 4.4 Let $n \geq 2$. Then

$$(i) \quad 1 \leq \bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) < n;$$

$$(ii) \quad \gamma(X_n) \leq \bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n) \leq \gamma^{-1}(X_n).$$

Remark 4.5 Let $n \geq 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) \leq \bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n)$.

The Join of two graphs G and H is the graph $G + H$ with vertex-set $V(G + H) = V(G) \cup V(H)$ and edge-set $E(G + H) = E(G) \cup E(H) \cup \{uv : u \in V(G), v \in V(H)\}$.

Clearly, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + K_1) = \bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n)$. We consider $X_n + H$ with nontrivial graphs H . For any $u \in V(X_n)$ and $v \in V(H)$, the set $\{u, v\}$ is a closed dominating set in $X_n + H$. Thus, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) \leq 2$.

Lemma 4.6 For nontrivial graph H and $n \geq 2$, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) \leq 2$.

Proof: By the preceding remark, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) \leq 2$. First, we consider the case where $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$, and suppose that $S = \{v\}$ is a closed dominating set in $X_n + H$. Assume $v \in V(X_n)$. Take $u \in V(X_n) \setminus \{v\}$ and $w \in V(H)$. Then $D = \{u, w\} \subseteq V(X_n + H) \setminus S$ and D is a closed dominating set in $X_n + H$. Thus $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) \leq |D| = 2$. Next, we assume that $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 2$. Pick any $u \in V(X_n)$ and $v \in V(H)$. Then $S = \{u, v\}$ is a $\bar{\gamma}$ -set in $X_n + H$. Thus, for any $x \in V(X_n) \setminus S$ and $y \in V(H) \setminus S$, the set $D = \{x, y\}$ is a $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}$ -set in $X_n + H$. Since X_n and H are nontrivial graphs, such D exists. Thus $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = |D| = 2$. ■

Theorem 4.7 Let H be a nontrivial graph and $n \geq 2$. If $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$, then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$ or $\bar{\gamma}(H) = 1$. The converse, however, is not necessarily true.

Proof: The assumption implies that $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$. Therefore, $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$ or $\bar{\gamma}(H) = 1$.

To prove the second statement, consider the graph $K_{1,5} + P_7$. Note that $\bar{\gamma}(K_{1,5}) = 1$ but $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(K_{1,5} + P_7) = 2$. ■

Theorem 4.8 Let H be a nontrivial graph and $n \geq 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$ if and only if one of the following is true:

$$(i) \quad \bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1 \text{ and } \bar{\gamma}(H) = 1;$$

$$(ii) \quad \bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1 \text{ and } X_n \text{ has at least two minimum } \bar{\gamma}\text{-sets};$$

$$(iii) \quad \bar{\gamma}(H) = 1 \text{ and } H \text{ has at least two minimum } \bar{\gamma}\text{-sets};$$

Proof: Suppose that (i) holds and $\{v\} \subseteq V(X_n)$ and $\{w\} \subseteq V(H)$ are closed dominating sets in X_n and H , respectively. Then $\{v\}$ and $\{w\}$ are minimum closed dominating sets in $X_n + H$. The conclusion follows from the fact that since $\{v\} \subseteq V(X_n + H) \setminus \{w\}$, $\{v\}$ is a $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}$ -set in $X_n + H$. Now, suppose that (ii) holds and let $\{u\}$ and $\{v\}$ be closed dominating sets in X_n . Then $\{u\}$ and $\{v\}$ are closed dominating sets in $X_n + H$. Since $\{u\} \subseteq V(X_n + H) \setminus \{v\}$, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$. Similarly, if (iii) holds, then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$. ■

Theorem 4.9 Let $n \geq 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$ if and only if $X_n = K_p$, $p \geq 2$, or $X_n = H + K$ for some nontrivial graphs H and K satisfying one of the following:

(i) $\bar{\gamma}(H) = 1$ and $\bar{\gamma}(K) = 1$

(ii) $\bar{\gamma}(H) = 1$ and H has at least two minimum $\bar{\gamma}$ -sets;

(iii) $\bar{\gamma}(K) = 1$ and K has at least two minimum $\bar{\gamma}$ -sets.

Proof: First, note that $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(K_p) = 1$ for all $p \geq 2$. Suppose that X_n is a noncomplete graph. Suppose, further, that $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(K_p) = 1$. Then there exist two distinct vertices u and v of X_n such that $\{u\}$ and $\{v\}$ are $\bar{\gamma}$ -sets in X_n . Moreover, $uv \in E(G)$. Put $H = \langle\{u, v\}\rangle$ and $K = \langle X_n - \{u, v\} \rangle$. Then $X_n = H + K$. Furthermore, $\{u\}$ and $\{v\}$ are two distinct $\bar{\gamma}$ -sets in H . Consequently, (ii) holds. The converse follows immediately from Theorem 4.8. ■

Theorem 4.10 Let H be a nontrivial graph and $n \geq 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 2$ if and only if any of the following is true:

(i) $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) \geq 2$ and $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$

(ii) $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$ and $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$ but $X_n \neq K_1 + (K_1 + \cup_j X_{n_j})$ for any graphs X_{n_j} .

Proof: Suppose that $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 2$. Then either $\bar{\gamma}(X_n + H) = 1$ or $\bar{\gamma}(X_n + H) = 2$. It is clear that if $\bar{\gamma}(X_n + H) = 2$ then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) \geq 2$ and $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$. Suppose that $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = 1$. Then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$ or $\bar{\gamma}(H) = 1$. Assume that $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$. Then $X_n = \{v\} + \cup_j X_{n_j}$ for some components X_{n_j} of X_n . Thus,

$$\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = \bar{\gamma}(H + \cup_j X_{n_j}) = 2.$$

Necessarily, $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$ and $\bar{\gamma}(\cup_j X_{n_j}) \geq 2$. This means that, in particular, $X_n \neq K_1 + (K_1 + \cup_j X_{n_j})$.

To prove the converse, we first consider the case where $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) \geq 2$ and $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$. Then $\bar{\gamma}(X_n + H) = 2$. Since $\bar{\gamma}(X_n + H) \leq \bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H)$, then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) \geq 2$. Now pick $u \in V(X_n)$ and $v \in V(H)$, and let $x \in V(X) \setminus \{u\}$ and $y \in V(H) \setminus \{v\}$. Then $S = \{u, v\}$ is a minimum dominating set in $X_n + H$ so that $D = \{x, y\}$ is a $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}$ -set in $X_n + H$. Thus $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) \leq 2$. Accordingly, $\bar{\gamma}^{-1} = 2$.

Next, we proceed with the case where $\bar{\gamma}(X_n) = 1$ and $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$ but $X_n \neq K_1 + (K_1 + \cup_j X_{n_j})$. Let $S = \{u\} \subseteq V(X_n)$ be a closed dominating set in X_n . Then S is a closed dominating set in $X_n + H$. We consider

$$(X_n + H) - u = (X_n - u) + H$$

The condition for X_n implies that $X_n - u \neq K_1 + \cup_j X_{n_j}$ for any components of X_{n_j} of X_n . Thus, $\bar{\gamma}(X_n - u) \geq 2$. If $\bar{\gamma}(X_n - u) \geq 2$ and $\bar{\gamma}(H) \geq 2$, then $\bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n + H) = \bar{\gamma}^{-1}(X_n - u) = 2$. ■

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