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# Perfect Equitable Isolate Dominations in Graphs

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**Abstract.** A subset  $S \subseteq V(G)$  is said to be a perfect equitable isolate dominating set of a graph G if it is both perfect equitable dominating set of G and isolate dominating set of G. The minimum cardinality of a perfect equitable isolate dominating set is called perfect equitable isolate domination number of G and is denoted by  $\gamma_{pe0}(G)$ . A perfect equitable isolate dominating set S of G is called  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. In this paper, the authors give characterizations of a perfect equitable isolate dominating set of G. In this paper, the authors give characterizations of a perfect equitable isolate dominating set of some graphs and graphs obtained from the join and corona of two graphs. Furthermore, the perfect equitable isolate domination numbers of these graphs is determined, and the graphs with no perfect equitable isolate dominating sets are investigated.

2020 Mathematics Subject Classifications: 05C69, 05C38, 05C76

**Key Words and Phrases**: perfect domination, equitable domination, perfect equitable domination, isolate domination, perfect equitable isolate domination

# 1. Introduction

Recently, there has been a growing interest in the applications of one of the widest research topics in graph theory, the study of domination in graphs, which was developed by Claude Berge in 1958 when he introduced the coefficient of external stability known today as domination [2]. Due to the richness of the research and applications to graphs, many variants of domination started to prosper and some of these variants are the isolate domination and perfect equitable domination in graph.

The concept of perfect domination was first introduced by Livingston and Stout [16] as an answer to the problem of the supplement study conducted by the same authors in [15]. This notion has been celebrated for years, and many studies of this kind have been introduced. Caay and Palahang [6] introduced the notion of perfect independent domination of graphs where they joined the notion of perfect domination and independent domination and investigate the existence of such variant and the corresponding number to graph. There are also many variants of perfect dominations of graphs which are found

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in the paper of [16], [10] and [11]. Another variant of domination is the equitable domination graph. The concept of equitable domination was believed to have been introduced by A. Anitha, et.al. in [8] and it was also discussed in the paper of G. Deepak, et.al. in [9]. This concept has extended further and so Caay and Durog in [5] introduced the notion of independent equitable domination in graphs. Furthermore, this concept has also been developed by Caay and Arugay when they introduced the notion of perfect equitable domination in [4] which studied about the domination that is perfect and equitable at the same time. Furthermore, in 2024, Caay in [3] introduced the notion of equitable rings domination in graphs.

In 2013, the concept of Isolate domination in graphs was studied by Hamid and Balamurugan [13]. Because this study gives a lot of opportunity to see many research topics, a lot of mathematician studied many variants of this. Armada and Hamja in [1] studied the perfect isolate domination in graphs where they defined a domination to be perfect and isolate at the same time. Many authors also have made a lot of studies on this different variants and can be found in [17].

In this paper, we study the perfect equitable isolate domination in graphs. A subset  $S \subseteq V(G)$  is said to be a perfect equitable isolate dominating set if it is a isolate dominating set and if it is perfect equitable dominating set. To give clarity, the flow of our paper is as follows: in Section 2, we introduce the necessary notations and basic concepts that are used in this study. We also introduce the isolate domination and perfect equitable dominations, and some of their results from the references that are used in the discussion of the study. We also established the case when these two dominations imply each other and so we come up with our formal working definition. In Section 3, we show our results of our study.

#### 2. Preliminaries and the working definitions

Throughout this paper, the graph we consider here is a connected simple graph. That means, there are no loops and multiple edges. A pair G = (V(G), E(G)) is called a graph (on V). The elements of V(G) are called the vertices of G and the elements of E(G) are called the edges of G. If no confusion arises, we can use V and E to denote the set of vertices and set of edges of G, respectively. Suppose  $v \in V$ , the neighborhood of v is the set  $N_G(v) = \{u \in V : uv \in E.\}$ . Given  $D \subseteq V$ , the set  $N_G(D) = N(D) = \bigcup_{v \in D} N_G(v)$ and the set  $N_G[D] = N[D] = D \bigcup N(D)$  are the open neighborhood and the closed neighborhood of D respectively. In this paper, we denote  $\Delta(G)$  and  $\delta(G)$  to be the minimum and maximum degree of G, respectively. We denote  $P_n, C_n, K_n, T_n$  for the path graph, cycle graph, complete graph and trees of order n, respectively.

**Theorem 1.** [7] A graph G is a cycle graph if and only if every vertex of G is adjacent to two other vertices.

**Definition 1.** [7] A spanning subgraph of a graph G is a subgraph obtained by deleting some edges of G with the same vertex set.

**Example 1.** A cycle  $C_n$  is a spanning subgraph of a complete graph  $K_n$ .

The following are the definitions of the binary operations in graphs used in this study: join, corona and cartesian product.

**Definition 2.** [14] The join G + H of the two graphs G and H is the graph with vertex set

$$V(G+H) = V(G) + V(H)$$

and the edge set

$$E(G+H) = E(G) \cup E(H) \cup \{uv : u \in V(G), v \in V(H)\}.$$

**Definition 3.** [12] The corona  $G \circ H$  of two graphs G and H is the graph obtained by taking one copy of G of order n and n copies of H, and then joining the *i*th vertex of G to every vertex in the *i*th copy of H.

In [2], a subset S of V(G) is a *dominating set* of G if for every  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$ , there exists  $u \in S$  such that  $uv \in E(G)$ . That is, N[S] = V(G). The minimum cardinality of the dominating set S of G is called a *domination number* of G and is denoted by  $\gamma(G)$ . In this case, S is called  $\gamma$ -set of G.

In [16], a dominating set S of G is said to be a perfect dominating set of G if every vertex  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$  is dominated by exactly one vertex  $u \in S$ . The minimum cardinality of a perfect dominating set S of G is called a perfect domination number of G and is denoted by  $\gamma_p(G)$ . In this case, we say S a  $\gamma_p$ -set of G.

In [8] and [9], a dominating set S of G is said to be an equitable dominating set of G if for every  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$ , there exists  $u \in S$  with  $uv \in E(G)$  such that  $|\deg(u) - \deg(v)| \leq 1$ . The minimum cardinality of an equitable dominating set S of G is called an equitable domination number of G and is denoted by  $\gamma_e(G)$ . In this case, we say S a  $\gamma_e$ -set of G.

Caay and Arugay in [4] introduced the notion of perfect equitable domination. A dominating set S of G is said to be a *perfect equitable dominating set* of G if for it is both perfect and equitable dominating set. The minimum cardinality of a perfect equitable dominating set S of G is called a *perfect equitable domination number* of G and is denoted by  $\gamma_{pe}(G)$ . In this case, we say S a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set of G.

Finally, in [13], a dominating set  $S \subseteq V(G)$  is said to be an *isolate dominating set* of G if there exists  $u \in S$  such that  $uv \notin E(G)$  for all  $v \in S$ . The minimum cardinality of an equitable dominating set S of G is called an *isolate domination number* of G and is denoted by  $\gamma_0(G)$ . In this case, we say S a  $\gamma_0$ -set of G.

**Theorem 2.** [13] A dominating set S of G is a minimal dominating set if and only if for every  $u \in S$ , u is an isolate of  $\langle S \rangle$ . In particular,  $S = \{u\}$  is a  $\gamma$ -set of G if and only if S is a  $\gamma_0$ -set of G.

**Theorem 3.** [16] If  $\Delta(G) = n - 1$  for any graph G of order n, then  $\gamma_p(G) = 1$ . In other words,  $S = \{u\}$  is a  $\gamma$ -set of G if and only if S is a  $\gamma_p$ -set of G.

**Theorem 4.** [4] Given a path  $P_n$  and cycle  $C_n$ ,  $n \ge 3$ ,  $\gamma_{pe}(P_n) = \gamma_{pe}(C_n) = \left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil$ . Moreover, in path  $P_n$  and cycle  $C_n$ , consecutive vertices of  $\gamma_{pe}$ -sets are either adjacent or at a distance 3 apart

It is natural to ask if what is the relationship of the perfect equitable domination and the isolate domination in graphs in terms of cardinality. The result is negative in general. There is no general way to determine which one is larger. However, the following results will tell about the idea between the perfect equitable versus the perfect equitable isolate and the isolate versus perfect equitable isolate. Following the above definitions, we have the following results which are very obvious.

**Theorem 5.** If  $\gamma_{pe}(G) = k$  for some positive integer k and S is a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set of G such that  $\langle S \rangle$  has an isolated vertex, then  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = k$ .

**Theorem 6.** If  $\gamma_0(G) = k$  for some positive integer k and S is a  $\gamma_0$ -set of G such that every vertex  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$  is dominated by exactly one vertex in S, and  $u \in S$ , there exists  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$  with  $uv \in E(G)$  such that  $|\deg(u) - \deg(v)| \leq 1$ , then  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = k$ .

Theorems 5 and 6 give rise to the definition of the our working definition. They simply tell that a dominating set that is a perfect equitable dominating set and an isolate dominating set, then it is a perfect equitable isolate dominating set.

**Definition 4.** A dominating set  $S \subseteq V(G)$  is said to be a **perfect equitable isolate** dominating set (**PEID**) of G if it is both perfect equitable isolate dominating set. The minimum cardinality of a perfect equitable isolate dominating set S of G is called a perfect equitable isolate domination number of G and is denoted by  $\gamma_{pe0}(G)$ . In this case, we say S a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. Also, if  $u \in S$  such that  $uv \in E(G)$  for some  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$ , then either u is said to **PEIDly-dominate** v, or v is **PEIDly-dominated** by u.

**Example 2.** Consider the graph in Figure 1. Note that the set  $\{u_1, u_5\}$  and  $\{u_1, u_8\}$  are  $\gamma$ -sets. For  $\{u_4, u_5\}$ , note that  $N_G(u_4) = \{u_1, u_2, u_3, u_5\}$  and  $N_G(u_5) = \{u_4, u_6, u_7, u_8\}$ . Thus,  $N_G(u_4) \cap N_G(u_5) = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $\{u_4, u_5\}$  is a  $\gamma_p$ -set. Also, observe that

 $\begin{aligned} |\deg(u_4) - \deg(u_1)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_4) - \deg(u_2)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_4) - \deg(u_3)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_5) - \deg(u_6)| &\leq 1 \end{aligned}$ 

$$|\deg(u_5) - \deg(u_7)| \le 1$$
  
 $|\deg(u_5) - \deg(u_8)| \le 1.$ 

Thus,  $\{u_4, u_5\}$  is  $\gamma_e$ -set implying that it is a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set. However,  $u_4u_5 \in E(G)$ . This means that  $\{u_4, u_5\}$  is not a  $\gamma_0$ , and so it is not a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set.

Now for the  $\gamma$ -set  $\{u_1, u_8\}$ ,  $N_G(u_1) = \{u_2, u_3, u_4\}$  and  $N_G(u_8) = \{u_5, u_6, u_7\}$ . Thus,  $N_G(u_1) \cap N_G(U_8) = \emptyset$ . This means that  $\{u_1, u_8\}$  is a  $\gamma_p$ -set. Also, observe that

 $\begin{aligned} |\deg(u_1) - \deg(u_2)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_1) - \deg(u_3)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_1) - \deg(u_4)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_8) - \deg(u_5)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_8) - \deg(u_6)| &\leq 1\\ |\deg(u_8) - \deg(u_7)| &\leq 1. \end{aligned}$ 

Thus,  $\{u_1, u_8\}$  is  $\gamma_e$ -set implying that it is a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set. Also,  $u_1u_8 \notin E(G)$  and so  $\{u_1, u_8\}$  is  $\gamma_0$ -set. Therefore,  $\{u_1, u_8\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set. Consequently,  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 2$ .



Figure 1: Example of  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set in a graph G.

The following propositions follow directly from Definition 4.

**Proposition 1.** Let S be a  $\gamma_0$ -set of G. Then S is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set if and only if for every  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$ ,  $N_G(v) \cap S = \{u\}$  for some  $u \in S$  and for every  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$ , there exists  $u \in S$  with  $uv \in E(G)$  such that  $|\deg(u) - \deg(v)| \leq 1$ 

**Proposition 2.** If S is  $\gamma$ -set, or a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set, or a  $\gamma_0$ -set of G with |S| = 1, then S is  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. In particular,  $\gamma(G) = \gamma_{pe}(G) = \gamma_0(G) = 1$  if and only if  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 1$ .

# 3. PEID in Some Graphs

In this section, we present the results for Equitable Isolate dominations in graphs. The minimality of a perfect equitable isolate dominating set S follows from the paper of [8],

[4] and [16], with the additional property that it acquires at least one vertex in S that is not adjacent to the other vertices in S [13].

**Proposition 3.** Given a path  $P_n$  and cycle  $C_n$ ,  $n \ge 6$ ,  $\gamma_{pe0}(P_n) = \gamma_{pe0}(C_n) = \left\lceil \frac{n}{3} \right\rceil$ .

*Proof.* The proof follows from Theorem 4.

**Corollary 1.** There does not exist  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of  $C_4$  and  $C_5$ .

**Theorem 7.** Let G be any connected graph of order  $n \ge 2$ . If  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 1$ , then  $\Delta(G) = n-1$ . Conversely, if  $\Delta(G) = n-1$  and  $\delta(G) \ge n-2$ , then  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 1$ .

Proof. Suppose that  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 1$ . Let  $S = \{u\}$  be the  $\gamma_{pe0} - set$  of G. If G is trivial, then we are done. Assume G is nontrivial. Then every vertex  $v \in V(G) \setminus S$  is adjacent to  $u \in S$ . Hence,  $\deg(u) = n - 1$ . This means that  $\Delta(G) = n - 1$ . Conversely, suppose  $\Delta(G) = n - 1$  and  $\delta(G) \ge n - 2$ . Then the vertices of G are either of degree n - 1 or n - 2. Without loss of generality, take a vertex of degree n - 1, say  $u \in V(G)$ . Then u dominates all other vertices of G. Since other vertices of G are either of degree n - 1 or n - 2, it follows that for every  $v \in V(G)\{u\}$ ,  $|\deg(v) - \deg(u)| \le 1$ . Take  $S = \{u\}$  and so it follows that  $\{u\}$  is  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. This proves the claim.  $\Box$ 

**Corollary 2.** Given a complete graph  $K_n$ ,  $n \ge 3$ ,  $\gamma_{pe0}(K_n) = 1$ .

**Proposition 4.** Let  $G_{n,m}$  is a complete bipartite graph. If  $|n-m| \leq 1$ . Then there exists a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set of G but there does not exist  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G, or there does exists  $\gamma_{e0}$ -set of G, but there does not exist  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. Moreover,  $\gamma_{pe}(G_{n,m}) = 2$  or  $\gamma_{pe0}(G_{n,m}) = \min\{n,m\}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  be the vertex partitions of a complete bipartite graph G such that  $|P_1| = n$  and  $|P_2| = m$ . Let  $u_1 \in P_1$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and  $v_j \in P_2$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . Note that  $u_i$  dominates  $v_j$  for all  $u_i \in P_1$  and for all  $v_j \in P_2$  with  $i = 1, \dots, n$  and  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . Since  $|n - m| \leq 1$ ,  $|\deg(u_1) - \deg(v_j)| \leq 1$ , for all  $u_i \in P_1$  and  $v_j \in P_2$ .

Note that  $u_i u_j \notin E(G)$  for all  $i \neq j$  and  $u_i$  and  $u_j$  are in  $P_1$ . Thus,  $P_1$  is a  $\gamma_{e0}$ -set of G. However, every  $v_j \in P_2$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m$  is dominated by all vertices of  $P_1$ , it follows that  $P_1$  is not  $\gamma_p$ -set and so it is not a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. Moreover,  $\gamma_{e0}(G) = \min\{n, m\}$ .

Now suppose we pick one  $u_i \in P_1$  and one  $v_j \in P_2$ . Then every vertices in  $P_2$  is dominated by  $u_i$  for some *i* and every vertices in  $P_1$  is dominated by  $v_j$  for some *j*. Thus,  $\{u_i, v_j\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set for some *i* and *j*. However,  $u_i v_j \in E(G)$  and so  $\{u_i, v_j\}$  is not a  $\gamma_0$ -set. Hence,  $\{u_i, v_j\}$  is not a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set. Moreover,  $\gamma_{pe}(G) = 2$ .

This proves the claim.

**Theorem 8.** Let  $G = G_{P_1, \dots, P_k}$  be a k-partite graph. Then G has a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set if there exists a vertex partition  $P_j$  with  $|P_j| = 1$  and  $|P_k| \leq 2$ , for all  $i \neq j$ . Moreover,  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 1$ .

*Proof.* Without loss of generality, let  $P_1$  be such partition with  $|P_1| = 1$ . Then for partitions  $P_i$  with  $i \neq 1$ , either  $|P_i| = 1$  or  $|P_i| = 2$ . Let  $u \in P_1$ . Then  $\deg(u) \leq 2k$ . Also,  $\deg(v) \leq 2k+1$  for all  $v \neq u$ . Thus,  $|\deg(v) - \deg(u)| \leq 1$ . This means that  $\{u\}$  is a  $\gamma$ -set. Since u dominates all vertices of G,  $\{u\}$  is also a  $\gamma_p$ -set and so it is a  $\gamma_{pe}$ -set. By Theorem 2,  $\{u\}$  is a  $\gamma_0$ -set of G. Therefore,  $\{u\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G. Consequently,  $\gamma_{pe0}(G) = 1$ .  $\Box$ 

**Theorem 9.** There does not exist  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of  $G_{P_1,\dots,P_k}$  for any non-trivial partition  $P_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .

*Proof.* Suppose on the contrary that there exists a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set S of  $G = G_{P_1, \dots, P_k}$ , and let  $u \in S$  such that  $u \in P_k$  for some kth vertex-partition of G. Then u dominates  $v_i$  for all  $v_i \notin P_k$ . Since  $P_k$  is non-trivial, there exists  $u_j \in P_k$  with  $u_j \neq u$  such that u does not dominate  $u_j$ . Thus, either  $u_j \in S$  or  $u_j \notin S$ .

If  $u_j \in S$ , then  $u_j$  must dominate  $v_j$  for all  $v_j \notin P_k$ . This is a contradiction to being  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set since  $v_j$  is dominated by u, for all  $v_j \notin P_k$ . If  $u_j \notin S$ , then there must be  $v_s \notin P_k$  such that  $u_j v_s \in E(G)$ . But  $v_s$  is adjacent to some  $v_t \notin P_k$  which are also dominated by u. This is also a contradiction to being  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set.

Therefore, there does not exist  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of  $G_{P_1,\dots,P_k}$  for any non-trivial partition  $P_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .

#### 4. PEID in the Join of Graphs

The following proposition is an obvious result.

**Proposition 5.** There does not exist a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of the following graphs below:

- i. Wheel graph,  $W_n = K_1 + C_{n-1}, n \ge 6$
- ii. Star graph,  $S_n = K_1 + \overline{K_{n-1}}, n \ge 4$
- iii. Fan graph,  $F_n = K_1 + P_{n-1}, n \ge 5$
- iv. Friendship graph,  $Fr_n = K_1 + nP_2$ ,  $n \ge 2$
- v. Windmill graph  $W_m^n = K_1 + C_{n-1}, n \ge 2, m \ge 3$

**Theorem 10.** Let G and H be any graphs of order n and m, respectively, with  $\gamma_{pe}(G) = 1$ or  $\gamma_{pe}(H) = 1$ . Then  $\gamma_{pe0}(G + H) = 1$  if and only if either  $S_1 = \{u\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G and  $\deg(v) \ge m - 2$  for all  $v \in V(H)$ , or  $S_2 = \{x\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of H and  $\deg(y) \ge n - 2$ for all  $y \in V(G)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\gamma_{pe0}(G + H) = 1$ . By Theorem 7,  $\Delta(G + H) = (n + m) - 1$ . Suppose  $S = \{u\} \subseteq V(G)$  be a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G + H. This means that for every  $v \in V(G + H)$  with  $v \neq u$ , we have

$$1 \ge |\deg(u) - \deg(v)|$$

$$\geq |(n+m) - 1 - \deg(v)| \\\geq |n+m-1| - |\deg(v)|.$$

Thus,  $\deg(v) \ge (m+n) - 1 - 1 = (m+n) - 2$ . This means that  $\deg(v) \ge m - 2$  on H for all  $v \in V(H)$ . Similarly, if  $S = \{x\} \subseteq V(H)$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G + H, then  $\deg(y) \ge n - 2$  on G for all  $y \in V(G)$ .

Conversely, suppose  $S_1 = \{u\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G and  $\deg(v) \ge m-2$  for all  $v \in V(H)$ . Since  $S_1 = \{u\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G, by Theorem 7,  $\Delta(G) = n-1$ . This means that  $\deg(u) = n-1+m$  in G+H. Also,  $\deg(v) \ge m-2$  for every  $v \in V(H)$  implies that  $\deg(v) \ge m-2+n$  in G+H. Thus,

$$|\deg(u) - \deg(v)| \le |(n - 1 + m) - (m - 2 - n)| = 1.$$

Hence,  $S = \{u\}$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G + H implying  $\gamma_{pe0}(G + H) = 1$ . The same argument with the other case.

The next corollary is a very obvious result as a consequence of Theorem 10.

**Corollary 3.** Let G and H be any graphs of degree n and m, respectively. If  $\Delta(G) = n-1$ and  $\delta(G) \ge n-2$ , and  $\deg(u) \ge m-2$  for all  $u \in V(H)$ . Then  $\gamma_{pe0}(G+H) = 1$ .

**Theorem 11.** Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be the minimal nontrivial  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -sets of G and H, respectively. That is,  $|S_1| \neq 1$  and  $|S_2| \neq 1$ . Then  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is a not a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of G + H but a  $\gamma_e$ -set of G + H.

Proof. Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be the minimal nontrivial  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -sets of G and H, respectively. Then for every  $u \in V(G) \setminus S_1$ , there exists exactly  $v \in S_1$  such that  $uv \in E(G)$  and  $|\deg(u) - \deg(v)| \leq 1$ , and there exists  $v_i \in S_1$  such that  $v_i v \notin E(G)$  for some  $v \in S_1$ . Similarly, for every  $x \in V(H) \setminus S_2$ , there exists exactly  $y \in S_2$  such that  $xy \in E(G)$  and  $|\deg(x) - \deg(y)| \leq 1$ , and there exists  $y_j \in S_2$  such that  $y_j y \notin E(G)$  for some  $y \in S_1$ . Then  $S_1 \cup S_2 := \{v_i, y_j, v_i \in S_1, y_j \in S_2$ , for some  $i, j\} \subseteq V(G + H)$ . Thus, for all  $w \in V(G + H) \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2)$ , there exists  $z \in S_1 \cup S_2$  such that  $wz \in E(G + H)$  and  $|\deg(w) - \deg(z)| \leq 1$ . Hence,  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is a  $\gamma_e$ -set of G + H.

Now if  $v_i \in S_1$  is an isolated vertex of  $S_1$ , then  $v_i u_j \in E(G + H)$  for all  $u_j \in S_2$ , and  $v_k u_j \in E(G + H)$ , for all  $v_k \in S_1$  with  $v_i \neq v_k$ . This means that  $v_i$  is no longer isolated. Since  $v_i$  is arbitrary, this holds for all isolated dominating vertices. Hence,  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is not  $\gamma_{e0}$ -set of G + H. Moreover, for every  $u \in V(G) \setminus S_1$ , there exists exactly one  $v \in S_1$  such that  $uv_1 \in E(G)$  However, u is adjacent to vertices of H. This means that u is adjacent to some  $w_j \in S_2$ . Hence,  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is not  $\gamma_{p0}$ -set of G + H.

This proves the claim.

**Remark 1.**  $S_1 \cup S_2$  is a  $\gamma_e$ -set of G + H of Theorem 11 is not necessarily minimal.

### 5. PEID in the Corona of Graphs

# **Theorem 12.** There does not exist a $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of $G \circ H$ for any non-trivial graphs G and H.

*Proof.* Suppose on the contrary that there exists a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set *S* of *G* ◦ *H*. Then either  $S \subseteq V(G)$  or  $S \subseteq V(H)$  or  $S \subseteq V(G + H)$ . Suppose  $S \subseteq V(G)$  and let  $u \in S$ . Then  $u \in V(G)$ . This means that the degree of *u* in *G* + *H* is equal to the degree of *u* in *G* plus the cardinality of *H*. Since *G* is nontrivial, deg(u) ≥ 1 in *G*. Thus, deg(u) ≥ 1 + *m* in *G* + *H*. But every vertex  $v \in V(H)$  has at most m - 1 degree. Hence, it follows that  $|\deg(u) - \deg(v)| \ge 1$ , a contradiction. Similarly, assume  $S \subseteq V(H)$  and let  $w \in S$ . Then  $w \in V(H)$ . This means that the degree of *w* in *G* + *H* is equal to the degree of *w* in *H* plus the cardinality of *G*. Since *H* is nontrivial, deg(w) ≥ 1 in *H*. Thus, deg(w) ≥ 1 + *n* in *G* + *H*. But every vertex  $z \in V(G)$  has at most n - 1 degree. Hence, it follows that  $|\deg(w) - \deg(z)| \ge 1$ , a contradiction. Lastly, suppose  $S \subseteq V(G + H)$ . Then there exist  $u_1, u_2 \in S$  such that  $u_1 \in V(G)$  and  $u_2 \in V(H)$ . Since every vertices in *H* are adjacent to  $u_1$ , this means that there are vertices in *H* adjacent to both  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ , a contradiction. Hence, all of the cases lead to contradiction. Therefore, there does not exist a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of  $G \circ H$  for any non-trivial graphs *G* and *H*.

**Theorem 13.** Let G and H be any graphs having  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -sets. Then  $G \circ H$  does not have  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set, but G + H has a  $\gamma_e$ -set.

Proof. Suppose  $u \in S^1 \subseteq V(G)$ . Then  $uv_i \in E(G \circ H)$  for all  $v_i \in V(H) \setminus S^2$ , where  $S^2$  is a  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -set of H. But  $v_iv_j \in E(G \circ H)$  for some  $v_j \in S^2$ ,  $i \neq j$ . This means that  $S^1 \cup S^2$  is no longer  $\gamma_p$ -set. Moreover, by Theorem 12,  $S^1$  and  $S^2$  are no longer  $\gamma_{pe0}$ -sets. Consequently,  $S^1, S^2$  and  $S^1 \cup S^2$  are no longer  $\gamma_0$ -sets since the elements are adjacents. Lastly, since every vertices in  $V(G \circ H) \setminus (S^1 \cup S^2)$ , it follows that  $S^1 \cup S^2$  is  $\gamma_e$ -set. This proves the claim.

**Remark 2.** The  $\gamma_e$ -set of  $G \circ H$  of Theorem 13 is not necessarily minimal.

**Proposition 6.** Let G be a trivial graph. Then  $\gamma_{pe0}(G \circ K_n) = \gamma_{pe0}(K_n \circ G) = 1$ .

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