

Silver block intersection graphs of Steiner 2-designs

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Abstract

For a block design \mathcal{D} , a series of block intersection graphs G_i , or i -BIG(\mathcal{D}), $i = 0, \dots, k$ is defined in which the vertices are the blocks of \mathcal{D} , with two vertices adjacent if and only if the corresponding blocks intersect in exactly i elements. A silver graph G is defined with respect to a maximum independent set of G , called an α -set. Let G be an r -regular graph and c be a proper $(r + 1)$ -coloring of G . A vertex x in G is said to be *rainbow* with respect to c if every color appears in the closed neighborhood $N[x] = N(x) \cup \{x\}$. Given an α -set I of G , a coloring c is said to be *silver* with respect to I if every $x \in I$ is rainbow with respect to c . We say G is *silver* if it admits a silver coloring with respect to some I . Finding silver graphs is of interest, for a motivation and progress in silver graphs see [7] and [15]. We investigate conditions for 0-BIG(\mathcal{D}) and 1-BIG(\mathcal{D}) of Steiner 2-designs $\mathcal{D} = S(2, k, v)$ to be silver.

keywords: Silver coloring, Block intersection graph, Steiner 2-design, and Steiner triple system

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1 Introduction and preliminaries

We follow standard notations and concepts from design theory. For these, one may refer to, for example, [5] and [14].

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A $2-(v, k, \lambda)$ design ($2 < k < v$) is a pair (V, \mathcal{B}) where V is a v -set and \mathcal{B} is a collection of b k -subsets of V (blocks) such that any 2-subset of V is contained in exactly λ blocks. A $2-(v, k, 1)$ design is called **Steiner 2-design** and is denoted by $S(2, k, v)$. An $S(2, 3, v)$ is a **Steiner triple system** or $\text{STS}(v)$. A design with $b = v$ is a **symmetric** (v, k, λ) -**design**. A symmetric $S(2, k, v)$ is called a **projective plane**. If k is the size of the blocks then $n := k - 1$ is called the order of the plane. This design is usually denoted by $\text{PG}(2, n)$. A $2-(n^2, n, 1)$ design is called an **affine plane**. For such design we use the notation $\text{AG}(2, n)$.

A **partial parallel class** is a set of blocks that contains no element of the design more than once. A **parallel class** (PC) or a **resolution class** in a design is a set of blocks that partition the set of elements V . A **near parallel class** is a partial parallel class missing a single element. A **resolvable balanced incomplete block design** is a $2-(v, k, \lambda)$ design whose blocks can be partitioned into parallel classes. The notation $\text{RBIBD}(v, k, \lambda)$ is commonly used. An affine plane of order n is an $\text{RBIBD}(n^2, n, 1)$. A resolvable $\text{STS}(v)$ together with a resolution of its blocks is called a **Kirkman triple system**, $\text{KTS}(v)$.

Given a design \mathcal{D} , a series of **block intersection graphs** G_i , or i -BIG, $i = 0, \dots, k$ can be defined in which the vertices are the blocks of \mathcal{D} , with two vertices are adjacent if and only if the corresponding blocks intersect in exactly i elements.

Example 1 For $\text{STS}(7)$, 0-BIG is empty graph and 1-BIG is K_7 . For $\text{STS}(9)$, 0-BIG is disconnected and consists of four disjoint K_3 's and 1-BIG is $K_{3,3,3,3}$.

The study of i -BIG(\mathcal{D}) is useful in characterizing block designs. Some researchers have studied properties of various kinds of block intersection graphs, see for example [1], [2], [4], [8], [9], [10], [16], and [17].

A graph of order v is **strongly regular**, denoted by $\text{SRG}(v, k, \lambda, \mu)$, whenever it is not complete or edgeless and, (i) each vertex is adjacent to k vertices, (ii) for each pair of adjacent vertices there are λ vertices adjacent to both, (iii) for each pair of non-adjacent vertices there are μ vertices adjacent to both.

Remark 1 Let G_i be the i -block intersection graph of an $S(2, k, v)$. Then for each $i = 2, 3, \dots, k$, the graph G_i is empty. So we consider only G_0 and G_1 . Graphs G_0 and G_1 are complements of each other. G_1 is an $\text{SRG}(b, k(r-1), r-2 + (k-1)^2, k^2)$ and G_0 is an $\text{SRG}(b, b - k(r-1) - 1, b - 2k(r-1) + k^2 - 2, b - 2kr + k^2 + r - 1)$ (see Chapter 21 of [14]).

In a graph $G = (V, E)$ an **independent set** is a subset of vertices no two of which are adjacent. The **independence number** $\alpha(G)$ is the cardinality of a largest set of independent vertices. We refer to any maximum independent set of a graph as an α -**set**. Let c be a proper $(r+1)$ -coloring of an r -regular graph G . A vertex x in G is said to be **rainbow** with respect to c if

every color appears in the closed neighborhood $N[x] = N(x) \cup \{x\}$. Given an α -set I of G the coloring c is said to be **silver** with respect to I if every $x \in I$ is rainbow with respect to c . We say G is silver if it admits a silver coloring with respect to some α -set. If all vertices of G are rainbow, then c is called a **totally silver** coloring of G and G is said to be totally silver. Note that the definition of silver coloring depends on the chosen α -set. For example in Figure 1, a graph G is shown which is silver when the α -set (the bold vertices) is taken as in the left, but it does not have any silver coloring with the α -set taken as on the right hand side.



Figure 1: A silver coloring of a graph

There are many different version of rainbow colorings in the literature, for example see [3], [11], [12], and [13]. For a motivation and progress in silver graphs see [7] and [15]. In fact silver graphs are closely related to a concept in graph coloring, called defining set. Let c be a proper k -coloring of a graph G and let $S \subseteq V(G)$. If c is the only extension of $c|_S$ to a proper k -coloring of G , then S is called a **defining set** of c . The minimum size of a defining set among all k -colorings of G is called a **defining number** and denoted by $\text{def}(G, k)$. A more general survey of defining sets in combinatorics appears in [6]. Let G be an r -regular graph, then G is silver if and only if $\text{def}(G, r + 1) = |V(G)| - \alpha(G)$. In [15] an open problem is raised:

Question 1 *Find classes of r -regular graphs G , for which $\text{def}(G, r + 1) = |V(G)| - \alpha(G)$, i.e. determine classes of all silver graphs.*

A silver cube is a silver graph $G = K_n^d$, the Cartesian power of the complete graph K_n . Silver cubes are generalizations of silver matrices, which are $n \times n$ matrices where each symbol in $\{1, 2, \dots, 2n - 1\}$ appears in either the i -th row or the i -th column of the matrix. In [7] some algebraic constructions and a product construction of silver cubes are given. They show the relation of these cubes to codes over finite fields, dominating sets of a graph, Latin squares, and finite geometry. In particular the Hamming codes are used to produce a totally silver cube and the bound for the best binary codes is used to prove the non-existence of silver cubes for a large class of parameters with $n = 2$.

To study Question 1, here we consider i -BIGs of designs. First we give some examples of designs with silver i -BIGs.

Example 2 In any symmetric (v, k, λ) -design \mathcal{D} , every two distinct blocks have exactly λ elements in common, so for $0 \leq i \leq k$, $i \neq \lambda$, i -BIG(\mathcal{D}) is empty graph, and λ -BIG(\mathcal{D}) is complete graph. Hence all of these graphs are totally silver. Specifically for each k and $0 \leq i \leq k+1$, i -BIG($S(2, k+1, k^2+k+1)$) is totally silver.

If \mathcal{D} is an AG(2, n), then $G_0 = 0$ -BIG(\mathcal{D}) consists of $(n+1)$ disjoint K_n 's, so it is totally silver, and $G_1 = 1$ -BIG(\mathcal{D}) = $\underbrace{K_{n, n, \dots, n}}_{n+1}$ is silver.

In this paper we prove the following results: If an $S(2, k, v)$ contains a parallel class, then a necessary condition for 1-BIG($S(2, k, v)$) to be silver is $k^2 \mid v$. For each admissible $v = 9m$ we construct a $\mathcal{D}_1 = \text{KTS}(v)$, such that 1-BIG(\mathcal{D}_1) is silver. And in general for each k and v where an AG(2, k) and an RBIBD($v, k, 1$) exist we construct a $\mathcal{D}^* = \text{RBIBD}(kv, k, 1)$ such that 1-BIG(\mathcal{D}^*) is silver. Also a lower bound for $\alpha(G_1)$ is given in order for a 1-BIG($S(2, k, v)$) to be silver. For any admissible v , the existence of a silver 1-BIG($S(2, k, v)$) which possesses a maximum possible independent set, i.e. of size $\frac{v}{k}$ or $\frac{v-1}{k}$, is settled. We prove that for $v > k^3 - 2k^2 + 2k$ there is no silver 0-BIG($S(2, k, v)$). Also we settle the question of existence of silver 0-BIG(STS(v)) for all admissible v .

Since every vertex of i -BIG(\mathcal{D}) corresponds to a block of \mathcal{D} , we will mostly refer to them as “blocks” rather than vertices. The following notation will be used in our discussion. Let G be a graph and I be an α -set of G . For each $i = 1, \dots, |I|$, we let

$$X_i := \{u \mid u \in V(G) \setminus I, u \text{ is adjacent to exactly } i \text{ vertices of } I\}.$$

2 One block intersection graphs

The following is a necessary condition for 1-BIG(\mathcal{D}) of a Steiner system $\mathcal{D} = S(2, k, v)$ with $\alpha(G_1) = \frac{v}{k}$, to be silver.

Theorem 1 Let \mathcal{D} be an $S(2, k, v)$, which has a parallel class, and let G_1 be 1-BIG(\mathcal{D}). A necessary condition for G_1 to be silver is $k^2 \mid v$.

Proof. G_1 is a $\frac{k(v-k)}{(k-1)}$ -regular graph. Let I be an α -set, and assume that G_1 has a silver coloring with respect to I with C as the set of colors. We have $|I| = \frac{v}{k}$, and $|C| = \frac{k(v-k)}{k-1} + 1$. Since $|C| > |I|$, a color like ι exists that is not used in I . The vertices of I are rainbow, and each vertex with color ι from $V(G_1) \setminus I$, must be adjacent to k distinct vertices of I . Therefore $|I|$ must be a multiple of k , which implies $k^2 \mid v$. ■

Example 3 *There are 80 nonisomorphic STS(15)s, where 70 of them have parallel class (see [5], page 32). So by Theorem 1, none of those 70 has silver G_1 .*

By Theorem 1, if v is not a multiple of 9, then no silver 1-BIG(KTS(v)) exists. In the next lemma we show that for the case $9 \mid v$, when a KTS(v) exists, i.e. $v = 18q + 9$, there exists a silver 1-BIG(KTS(v)). This lemma is an illustration of a general structure which will be discussed in Theorem 2.

Lemma 1 *If $v \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$, then a $\mathcal{K} = \text{KTS}(3v)$ exists such that 1-BIG(\mathcal{K}) is silver.*

Proof. Let $\mathcal{A} = \text{AG}(2, 3) = \text{STS}(9)$ with $V(\mathcal{A}) = \{(i, j) \mid 1 \leq i, j \leq 3\}$, and denote its parallel classes by:

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & \Theta_0 & \\
 & \{(1, 1), (2, 1), (3, 1)\} \\
 & \{(1, 2), (2, 2), (3, 2)\} \\
 & \{(1, 3), (2, 3), (3, 3)\} \\
 \\
 \Theta_1 & \Theta_2 & \Theta_3 \\
 a_1 = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3)\} & a_4 = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\} & a_7 = \{(1, 1), (2, 3), (3, 2)\} \\
 a_2 = \{(2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3)\} & a_5 = \{(1, 3), (2, 1), (3, 2)\} & a_8 = \{(1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 3)\} \\
 a_3 = \{(3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3)\} & a_6 = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1)\} & a_9 = \{(1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1)\}
 \end{array}$$

Consider a KTS(v) $\mathcal{D} = (V, \mathcal{B})$, $V = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_v\}$ with parallel classes $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_{\frac{v-1}{2}}$. Using its blocks we construct $\mathcal{K} = (V^*, \mathcal{B}^*)$, a KTS($3v$) in the following manner.

The set of elements of \mathcal{K} is $V^* = \{1, 2, 3\} \times V$, and the blocks are introduced in the following 4 types of parallel classes, $\Omega_{0,\beta}$, $\Omega_{1,\beta}$, $\Omega_{2,\beta}$ and $\Omega_{3,\beta}$.

- $\Omega_{0,\beta} : \left\{ \{(1, x_i), (2, x_i), (3, x_i)\} \mid 1 \leq i \leq v \right\}$.

We denote every block of \mathcal{D} by $\{x_i, x_j, x_k\}$, where $i < j < k$. In the following a label (m, β) for each block is its color, the block with label (m, β) is obtained by using the block a_m of \mathcal{A} .

- $\Omega_{1,\beta} : \left\{ \{(1, x_i), (1, x_j), (1, x_k)\}_{(1,\beta)}, \{(2, x_i), (2, x_j), (2, x_k)\}_{(2,\beta)}, \{(3, x_i), (3, x_j), (3, x_k)\}_{(3,\beta)} \mid \{x_i, x_j, x_k\} \in \pi_\beta \right\}, \text{ for } 1 \leq \beta \leq \frac{v-1}{2},$
- $\Omega_{2,\beta} : \left\{ \{(1, x_i), (2, x_j), (3, x_k)\}_{(4,\beta)}, \{(1, x_k), (2, x_i), (3, x_j)\}_{(5,\beta)}, \{(1, x_j), (2, x_k), (3, x_i)\}_{(6,\beta)} \mid \{x_i, x_j, x_k\} \in \pi_\beta \right\}, \text{ for } 1 \leq \beta \leq \frac{v-1}{2},$

- $\Omega_{3,\beta}$: $\left\{ \{(1, x_i), (2, x_k), (3, x_j)\}_{(7,\beta)}, \{(1, x_j), (2, x_i), (3, x_k)\}_{(8,\beta)}, \{(1, x_k), (2, x_j), (3, x_i)\}_{(9,\beta)} \mid \{x_i, x_j, x_k\} \in \pi_\beta \right\}$, for $1 \leq \beta \leq \frac{v-1}{2}$.

Figures 2 and 3 demonstrate the 4 types of blocks.

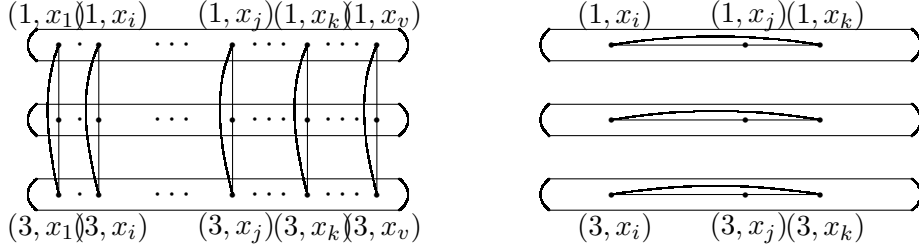


Figure 2: Blocks of $\Omega_{0,\beta}$ and $\Omega_{1,\beta}$

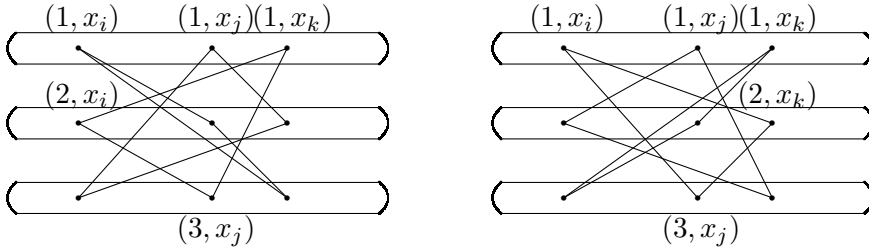


Figure 3: Blocks of $\Omega_{2,\beta}$ and $\Omega_{3,\beta}$

We note that there is only one parallel class in $\Omega_{0,\beta}$, but there are $\frac{v-1}{2}$ parallel classes in each of other types, so we have $\frac{3v-1}{2}$ parallel classes and each class has v blocks.

Clearly, \mathcal{K} is a $\text{KTS}(3v)$. The number of colors needed in a silver coloring of $1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{K})$ is equal to $\frac{9v-7}{2}$. We color 0 the vertices corresponding to the blocks in $\Omega_{0,\beta}$ class. The label of each block in other classes, which is shown as its index, is the color of its corresponding vertex in $1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{K})$: (m, β) , $1 \leq m \leq 9$, $1 \leq \beta \leq \frac{v-1}{2}$. It is easy to check that this is a proper coloring and all vertices in $\Omega_{0,\beta}$ class, i.e. the α -set, are rainbow. ■

Next theorem is a generalization of the construction introduced in Lemma 1.

Theorem 2 *Assume there exist an affine plane $\mathcal{A} = \text{AG}(2, k)$, and a resolvable balanced incomplete block design $\mathcal{D} = \text{RBIBD}(v, k, 1)$. Then there exists a $\mathcal{D}^* = \text{RBIBD}(kv, k, 1)$ where $1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D}^*)$ is silver.*

Proof. Let $V(\mathcal{A}) = \{(i, j) \mid 1 \leq i, j \leq k\}$ and denote its parallel classes by $\Theta_0, \Theta_1, \dots, \Theta_k$. Specifically we let

$$\Theta_0 = \left\{ \{(1, j), (2, j), \dots, (k, j)\} \mid j = 1, 2, \dots, k \right\}.$$

Also we let $V(\mathcal{D}) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_v\}$ with parallel classes $\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_{\frac{v-1}{k-1}}$.

For each block $b = \{x_{s_1}, x_{s_2}, \dots, x_{s_k}\}$ of \mathcal{D} we consider an ordering on b such that

$$x_{s_i} \prec x_{s_j} \iff s_i < s_j,$$

and define a function:

$$\Psi_b : V(\mathcal{A}) \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, k\} \times \{x_{s_1}, x_{s_2}, \dots, x_{s_k}\}$$

$$\Psi_b(i, j) = (i, x_{s_j}).$$

We extend Ψ_b for each block a of \mathcal{A} as $\Psi_b(a) = \{\Psi_b(i, j) \mid (i, j) \in a\}$.

Now we construct a design $\mathcal{D}^* = (V^*, \mathcal{B}^*)$, as in the following:

$$V^* = \{1, 2, \dots, k\} \times V(\mathcal{D}).$$

$$\mathcal{B}^* = \{\Psi_b(a) \mid b \text{ and } a \text{ are blocks of } \mathcal{D} \text{ and } \mathcal{A}, \text{ respectively}\}.$$

See Figure 4.

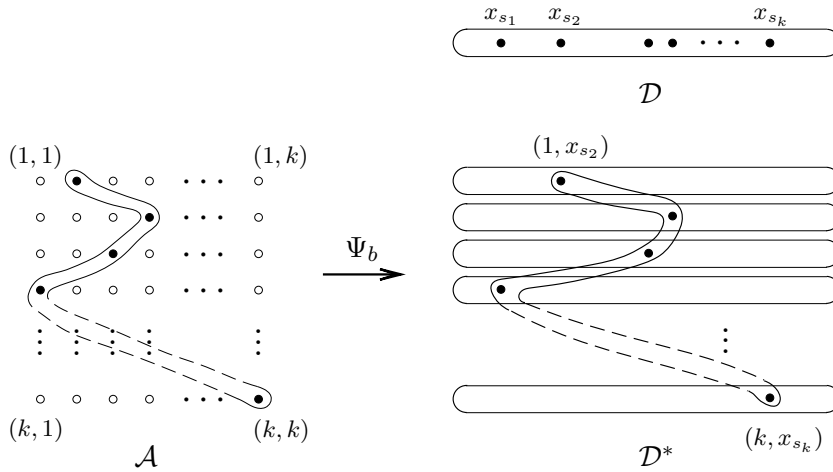


Figure 4: Blocks of \mathcal{D}^* are constructed by using blocks of \mathcal{A}

\mathcal{D}^* is an RBIBD with the following parallel classes:

$$\Omega_{\alpha, \beta} = \{\Psi_b(a) \mid a \in \Theta_\alpha, b \in \pi_\beta\}, \text{ for each } 0 \leq \alpha \leq k \text{ and } 1 \leq \beta \leq \frac{v-1}{k-1}.$$

Note that:

$$\Omega_{0,1} = \Omega_{0,2} = \dots = \Omega_{0, \frac{v-1}{k-1}} = \left\{ \{(1, x_s), (2, x_s), \dots, (k, x_s)\} \mid s = 1, 2, \dots, v \right\}.$$

We show that $1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D}^*)$ is silver with respect to the α -set

$$\begin{aligned} I^* &= \{\Psi_b(a) \mid a \in \Theta_0 \text{ and } b \text{ is a block of } \mathcal{D}\} \\ &= \left\{ \{(1, x_s), (2, x_s), \dots, (k, x_s)\} \mid s = 1, 2, \dots, v \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

by the following coloring:

$$c : \mathcal{B}^* \longrightarrow \{0\} \cup \{(a, \beta) \mid a \text{ is a block of } \mathcal{A} \setminus \Theta_0 \text{ and } 1 \leq \beta \leq \frac{v-1}{k-1}\}$$

$$\Psi_b(a) \longmapsto \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a \in \Theta_0, \\ (a, \beta) & \text{if } a \notin \Theta_0, \text{ and } b \in \pi_\beta. \end{cases}$$

We show that c is a proper coloring and any vertex $b^* \in I^*$ is rainbow. Note that all the vertices of I^* have color 0. Let $\Psi_{b_1}(a_1)$ and $\Psi_{b_2}(a_2)$ be two blocks of \mathcal{D}^* with the same color (a, β) . Then we have $b_1, b_2 \in \pi_\beta$. Therefore b_1 and b_2 are disjoint blocks of \mathcal{D} , so $\Psi_{b_1}(a_1)$ and $\Psi_{b_2}(a_2)$ are disjoint. Thus c is proper.

To show silverness, for a fixed s let $b_s^* = \{(1, x_s), (2, x_s), \dots, (k, x_s)\}$ be a block of I^* . By definition, for any given nonzero color like (a, β) we have $a \notin \Theta_0$, and there exists a unique block b of π_β which contains x_s and the color of $\Psi_b(a)$ is (a, β) . Since in \mathcal{A} , the block a intersects each block of Θ_0 , thus by definition of \mathcal{B}^* , $\Psi_b(a)$ intersects b_s^* in \mathcal{D}^* , so the color (a, β) appears in the neighborhood of b_s^* . ■

In the next theorem for any $\mathcal{D} = S(2, k, v)$, we show a lower bound for $\alpha(G_1)$, in order $G_1 = 1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D})$ to be silver.

Theorem 3 *Let \mathcal{D} be an $S(2, k, v)$, and $G_1 = 1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D})$. If $\alpha(G_1) > k \lfloor \frac{v(v-1)}{k^2v-k^3+k^2-k} \rfloor$, then G_1 is not silver.*

Proof. G_1 is a $\frac{k(v-k)}{(k-1)}$ -regular graph with $\frac{v(v-1)}{k(k-1)}$ vertices. Let I be an α -set, and assume that G_1 has a silver coloring with respect to I with C as the set of colors, $|C| = \frac{k(v-k)}{k-1} + 1$. A color like ι exists that is used in the coloring of at most $\lfloor \frac{|V(G_1)|}{|C|} \rfloor = \lfloor \frac{v(v-1)}{k^2v-k^3+k^2-k} \rfloor$ vertices of G_1 . For a set $X \subseteq V(G_1)$ we denote the set of vertices with color ι in X by $X(\iota)$. By counting the number of appearances of color ι in I and in the neighborhood of I we obtain,

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha(G_1) &= |I(\iota)| + |X_1(\iota)| + 2|X_2(\iota)| + \dots + k|X_k(\iota)| \\ &\leq k(|I(\iota)| + |X_1(\iota)| + |X_2(\iota)| + \dots + |X_k(\iota)|) \\ &\leq k \lfloor \frac{v(v-1)}{k^2v-k^3+k^2-k} \rfloor \\ &< \alpha(G_1). \end{aligned}$$

A contradiction. ■

Example 4 *It is easy to check that for any of two STS(13)s, $\alpha(G_1) = 4$. For 80 nonisomorphic STS(15)s, we have $\alpha(G_1) = 4$ or 5 (see [5], page 32). Also there are 18 nonisomorphic $S(2, 4, 25)$ (see [5], page 34), by a computer search they have $\alpha(G_1) = 5$ or 6. So by Theorem 3 none of them has a silver G_1 .*

Remark 2 Let G_1 be the 1-block intersection graph of an $S(2, k, v)$ with a parallel class. Then $\alpha(G_1) = \frac{v}{k}$, and all the elements of V appear in the blocks corresponding to each α -set. Let I be an α -set for G_1 , therefore any vertex of $V(G_1) \setminus I$ is adjacent to k vertices of I . Thus $|X_1| = |X_2| = \dots = |X_{k-1}| = 0$, $|X_k| = \frac{v(v-k)}{k(k-1)}$.

If an $S(2, k, v)$ has a near parallel class, then $\alpha(G_1) = \frac{v-1}{k}$, and each α -set contains all the elements of V except one. Hence in this case any vertex of $V(G_1) \setminus I$ is adjacent to either $(k-1)$ or k vertices of I , and $|X_1| = |X_2| = \dots = |X_{k-2}| = 0$, $|X_{k-1}| = \frac{v-1}{k-1}$, $|X_k| = \frac{(v-1)(v-2k+1)}{k(k-1)}$.

Theorem 4 Let \mathcal{D} be an $S(2, k, v)$, with a near parallel class. Then $G_1 = 1\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D})$ is not silver.

Proof. Let I be an α -set for G_1 . Assume that G_1 has a silver coloring with respect to I and C is the set of colors. G_1 is $\frac{k(v-k)}{k-1}$ -regular, $|C| = \frac{k(v-k)}{k-1} + 1$ and $|I| = \frac{v-1}{k}$. By Remark 2, $|X_{k-1}| = \frac{v-1}{k-1}$ and $|X_k| = \frac{(v-1)(v-2k+1)}{k(k-1)}$. Since $|C| > |I \cup X_{k-1}|$, a color like ι exists that is used only in the coloring of vertices of X_k . The vertices of I are rainbow, so each of the vertices of X_k that have color ι , must be adjacent to k different vertices of I . Thus $|I|$ is a multiple of k , say $|I| = mk$.

Since $|X_{k-1}| = \frac{v-1}{k-1} > |I|$, a color like ι' exists that is used in the coloring of vertices of X_{k-1} but is not used in I . The induced subgraph on X_{k-1} is a clique, so ι' appears only in one vertex of X_{k-1} and it has $(k-1)$ neighbors in I . Thus $|I| - k + 1$ vertices of I , each must have a neighbor in X_k with color ι' . Again vertices from X_k that have color ι' , each must be adjacent to k different vertices of I . Therefore $|I| - k + 1 = (m-1)k + 1$ is also a multiple of k . This is impossible. ■

Example 5 The 1-block intersection graph of any Hanani triple system (see [5], page 67 for the definition) is not silver.

Note that by Theorems 1, 2, 3, and 4, for any admissible v the problem of existence of a silver $1\text{-BIG}(S(2, k, v))$ which possesses maximum possible independent set is settled.

3 Zero block intersection graphs

In this section we discuss 0-block intersection graphs of $S(2, k, v)$.

Notation 1 Let x be a given element of $S(2, k, v)$, and denote by $T(x)$ the set of $\frac{v-1}{k-1}$ blocks containing x .

It is trivial that $T(x)$ is an independent set for G_0 , thus $\alpha(G_0) \geq \frac{v-1}{k-1}$.

Lemma 2 Let \mathcal{D} be an $S(2, k, v)$, and $G_0 = 0\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D})$. If $v > k^3 - 2k^2 + 2k$ then any maximum independent set of G_0 is of the form $T(x)$, therefore $\alpha(G_0) = \frac{v-1}{k-1}$.

Proof. Let I be an α -set of G_0 . Suppose I is not of the form $T(x)$. There exists an element x_0 of \mathcal{D} which appears in at least two blocks of I . Let $I_1 = \{B_1, B_2, \dots, B_p\} = \{B \mid B \in I \cap T(x_0)\}$, and $I \setminus I_1 = \{B_{p+1}, B_{p+2}, \dots, B_{p+q}\}$. Since $\lambda = 1$, for $1 \leq i < j \leq p$, $(B_i \setminus \{x_0\}) \cap (B_j \setminus \{x_0\}) = \emptyset$. Every two blocks in I have one intersection. So, for each block $B \in I \setminus I_1$ we have $B \cap B_i = \{a_i\}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, p$. So $p \leq |B| = k$.

Now suppose $B_1, B_2 \in I_1$. There exist exactly $(k-1)^2$ pairs $\{x, y\}$ where $x \in B_1 \setminus \{x_0\}$ and $y \in B_2 \setminus \{x_0\}$, and each of these pairs appears at most in one of the blocks of $I \setminus I_1$. Thus $q \leq (k-1)^2$.

So $|I| = p + q \leq k + (k-1)^2$. But since $v > k^3 - 2k^2 + 2k$, for each x we have $|T(x)| = \frac{v-1}{k-1} > k + (k-1)^2 \geq |I|$. Hence the statement follows. ■

Theorem 5 Let \mathcal{D} be an $S(2, k, v)$. For $v > k^3 - 2k^2 + 2k$, $G_0 = 0\text{-BIG}(\mathcal{D})$ is not silver.

Proof. G_0 is a $\frac{v^2+k^3-v(k^2+1)-k^2+k}{k(k-1)}$ -regular graph (Remark 1). Let I be any α -set for G_0 . By Lemma 2, $I = T(x)$ and $|I| = \alpha(G_0) = \frac{v-1}{k-1}$. Since each block out of I intersects exactly k blocks of I , each vertex of $V(G_0) \setminus I$ is adjacent to $\frac{v-1}{k-1} - k = \frac{v-1-k^2+k}{k-1}$ vertices of I . Then $V(G_0) = I \cup X_{\frac{v-1-k^2+k}{k-1}}$ and $|X_{\frac{v-1-k^2+k}{k-1}}| = \frac{(v-1)(v-k)}{k(k-1)}$.

To the contrary, G_0 has a silver coloring with respect to I . Let C be the set of colors, $|C| = \frac{v^2-v-k^2v+k^3}{k(k-1)}$. Since $|C| > \frac{v-1}{k-1}$, a color like ι exists that is not used in the coloring of I . The vertices of I are rainbow, and the vertices from $X_{\frac{v-1-k^2+k}{k-1}}$ that have color ι , each must be adjacent to $\frac{v-1-k^2+k}{k-1}$ different vertices of I . Therefore $|I|$ must be divisible by $\frac{v-1-k^2+k}{k-1}$, then $(v - k^2 + k - 1) \mid (v - 1)$ which is impossible, since $v > k^3 - 2k^2 + 2k$. Therefore graph G_0 is not silver with respect to any α -set. ■

3.1 0-BIG for Steiner triple systems

Both $0\text{-BIG}(\text{STS}(v))$ for $v = 7$ and $v = 9$, by Example 2, are totally silver.

Theorem 6 For any admissible $v > 9$, $G_0 = 0\text{-BIG}(\text{STS}(v))$ is not silver.

Proof. For $v > 15$, it follows by Theorem 5.

If $v \leq 15$, then suppose I is an α -set of G_0 , and I is not of the form $T(x)$. Then it is easy to check that, each element of $\text{STS}(v)$ appears at most in 3 blocks of I . If it has 3 blocks containing an element x , then such a set has at most 7 blocks, and they are contained in I_1 , where:

$$I_1 = \{\{x, a, b\}, \{x, c, d\}, \{x, e, f\}, \{a, c, f\}, \{a, d, e\}, \{b, c, e\}, \{b, d, f\}\} \approx \text{STS}(7).$$

Now we discuss possible cases.

$v = 15$:

For $v = 15$ an α -set, I , may be of the form $T(x)$ or it may come from a subsystem $\text{STS}(7)$, in either case $\alpha(G_0) = 7$. From 80 non-isomorphic $\text{STS}(15)$ s, 23 of them have a subsystem $\text{STS}(7)$ ([5], page 32). It is straightforward to check that in all of $\text{STS}(15)$ s for any α -set I , each block out of I has intersection with exactly three blocks of I . So each vertex in $V(G_0) \setminus I$ is adjacent to exactly four vertices of I . In any silver coloring with C as the set of colors of G_0 , we have $|C| = 17 > 7 = |I|$. So there exists a color ι which is not used in I . Every vertex with the color ι has exactly 4 neighbors in I , therefore 7 must be a multiple of 4. So G_0 does not have a silver coloring.

$v = 13$:

For $v = 13$ there are two non-isomorphic $\text{STS}(13)$ s. No $\text{STS}(13)$ has a subsystem of $\text{STS}(7)$, even no $\text{STS}(13)$ has 6 blocks of an $\text{STS}(7)$. So, in G_0 for both of them, the sets of the form $T(x)$, are the only α -sets and $\alpha(G_0) = 6$. Suppose I is any α -set.

First, we show that it is always possible to find three vertices in I with no common neighbor:

- One of two $\text{STS}(13)$ s, Type 1, has a cyclic automorphism, and we can construct its blocks on $\{1, 2, \dots, 13\}$ by the following base blocks:

$$\{1, 2, 5\}, \quad \{1, 3, 8\} \quad \text{mod } 13.$$

If $I = T(1)$, then $B_1 = \{1, 2, 5\}$, $B_2 = \{1, 3, 8\}$, and $B_3 = \{1, 10, 11\}$ do not have common neighbor. Let $x \neq 1$ be a given element of $\text{STS}(v)$, and $I = T(x)$. Three vertices of I , B'_1, B'_2, B'_3 are obtained by adding $(x - 1)$ to all members of blocks B_1, B_2, B_3 , do not have common neighbor.

- The other $\text{STS}(13)$ is non-cyclic and we can construct its blocks from Type 1 by

replacing four blocks of trade T_1 with four blocks of trade T_2 as follows:

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 & 1 & 2 & 5 \\
 T_1 : & 1 & 3 & 8 \\
 & 10 & 2 & 8 \\
 & 10 & 3 & 5
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{rcl}
 & 1 & 2 & 8 \\
 T_2 : & 1 & 3 & 5 \\
 & 10 & 2 & 5 \\
 & 10 & 3 & 8
 \end{array}$$

Let $I = T(x)$ for some x . If x is an element of T_2 , i.e. $x \in \{1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 10\}$, then there are two blocks say B_1 and B_2 of T_2 which contain x . There exists one element y , such that $y \in T_2$ but $y \notin B_1 \cup B_2$. We consider B_3 , the block containing x and y . Then these three blocks do not have common neighbor. If x is not in T_2 , then we consider several cases for $I = T(x)$, and show that there exist three vertices of I , which do not have common neighbor.

Now, assume for some STS(13), $G_0 = 0\text{-BIG}(\text{STS}(13))$ is silver with respect to some α -set $I = T(x) = \{B_1, B_2, B_3, B_4, B_5, B_6\}$. The color of all neighbors of B_i , $i = 1, \dots, 6$, must be distinct. Assume $\{B_1, B_2, B_3\} \subset I$ do not have common neighbor. Let $N(B_i)$ be the set of neighbors of B_i . $G_0 = \text{SRG}(26, 10, 3, 4)$, so $|N(B_1) \cap N(B_2)| + |N(B_2) \cap N(B_3)| + |N(B_1) \cap N(B_3)| = 12$. Thus the color of these vertices must be distinct, while we have only 11 colors. Therefore G_0 does not have a silver coloring. ■

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