## CLAW-FREE 3-CONNECTED P<sub>11</sub>-FREE GRAPHS ARE HAMILTONIAN

#### TOMASZ ŁUCZAK AND FLORIAN PFENDER

ABSTRACT. We show that every 3-connected claw-free graph which contains no induced copy of  $P_{11}$  is hamiltonian. Since there exist non-hamiltonian 3-connected claw-free graphs without induced copies of  $P_{12}$  this result is, in a way, best possible.

#### 1. Statement of the main result

A graph G is  $\{H_1, H_2, \ldots, H_k\}$ -free if G contains no induced subgraphs isomorphic to any of the graphs  $H_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ . A graph without induced copies of  $K_{1,3}$  is called claw-free, and a graph containing no copies of  $K_3$  is triangle-free.

Broersma and Veldman [3] showed the following theorem. (Here and below  $P_k$  denotes the path on k vertices.)

**Theorem 1.** If G is a 2-connected  $\{K_{1,3}, P_6\}$ -free graph, then G is hamiltonian.

Bedrossian [1] characterized all pairs of forbidden subgraphs X, Y, such that every 2-connected  $\{X, Y\}$ -free graph is hamiltonian. Later, Faudree and Gould [6] extended that list under the extra condition that the graph has at least ten vertices.

In the above results, it is natural to consider 2-connected graphs, as this is a neccessary condition for hamiltonicity. In this paper we study 3-connected graphs instead to see what kind of results we can achieve with this extra condition. We show the following result analogous to Theorem 1.

# **Theorem 2.** Every 3-connected $\{K_{1,3}, P_{11}\}$ -free graph is hamiltonian.

This extends a result from Brousek *et al.* [5], who showed as a corollary of a result about 2-connected claw-free graphs that every 3-connected  $\{K_{1,3}, P_7\}$ -free graph is hamiltonian.

<sup>1991</sup> Mathematics Subject Classification. 05C45.

Key words and phrases. Hamilton cycle, claw-free graphs, forbidden subgraphs.

Furthermore, in the last section of the paper, we give an example of an infinite family of non-hamiltonian 3-connected  $\{K_{1,3}, P_{12}\}$ -free graphs.

#### 2. Closure, cycle closure and line graphs

We start with some definitions and notation (for terminology not defined here we refer the reader to [2]). For a graph G which contains at least one cycle the *circumference* of G, denoted by c(G), is the length of a longest cycle contained in G. We denote the *neighborhood* of a set of vertices  $X \subseteq V(G)$  in a graph G by N(X). Similarly, the *closed neighborhood* of a set of vertices  $X \subseteq V(G)$  is  $N[X] = X \cup N(X)$ . We write L(G) for the *line graph* of G. A graph G is *essentially kedge-connected* if the deletion of less than k edges leaves at most one component with more than one vertex. In this paper by *circuit* we mean a closed trail, possibly of length zero. A circuit C is *dominating* if every edge in G is incident to at least one vertex of C.

The closure cl(G) of a graph G is the minimal  $(K_4 - e)$ -free graph containing G as a spanning subgraph. This notion was introduced by Ryjáček [10], who also characterized basic properties of the closure operation.

**Theorem 3.** Let G be a claw-free graph. Then:

- (i) cl(G) is uniquely determined by G,
- (ii) there is a (unique) triangle-free graph H such that cl(G) = L(H),
- (iii)  $c(\operatorname{cl}(G)) = c(G),$
- (iv) G is hamiltonian if and only if cl(G) is hamiltonian.

A claw-free graph G is *closed*, if cl(G) = G. By (ii), all closed graphs consist of a collection of maximal cliques, each two of which share at most one vertex. A class  $\mathcal{P}$  of graphs is called *stable under* cl, if  $G \in \mathcal{P}$ implies  $cl(G) \in \mathcal{P}$  for every claw-free graph G. Brousek *et al.* [5] showed the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.** The class of  $\{K_{1,3}, P_\ell\}$ -free graphs is stable under cl for any  $\ell \geq 3$ .

Broersma and Ryjáček [4] expanded on the closure operation and introduced the *cycle closure* of a claw-free graph G,  $cl_C(G)$ , as follows.

Let G be a closed claw-free graph and let C be an induced cycle of length k. We say that the cycle C is *eligible in* G if  $4 \le k \le 6$  and if the k-cycle  $L^{-1}(C)$  in  $H = L^{-1}(G)$  contains at least k - 3 nonconsecutive vertices of degree two in H.

For an eligible cycle C in G set  $B_C = \{uv \mid u, v \in N_G[C], uv \notin E(G)\}$ . The graph  $G'_C$  with vertex set  $V(G'_C) = V(G)$  and edge set  $E(G'_C) = E(G) \cup B_C$  is called the C-completion of G at C.

**Definition 1.** Let G be a claw-free graph. We say that a graph H is a cycle closure of G, denoted  $H = cl_C(G)$ , if there is a sequence of graphs  $G_1, \ldots, G_t$  such that

- (i)  $G_1 = \operatorname{cl}(G)$ ,
- (ii)  $G_{i+1} = \operatorname{cl}((G_i)'_C)$  for some eligible cycle C in  $G_i$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, t 1$ ,
- (iii)  $G_t = H$  contains no eligible cycles.

For the cycle closure, the following is true.

**Theorem 5.** [4] Let G be a claw-free graph. Then

(i)  $cl_C(G)$  is well defined (i.e. uniquely determined),

(ii)  $c(G) = c(cl_C(G)).$ 

We will start by showing the following theorem about the cycle closure.

**Theorem 6.** The class of  $\{K_{1,3}, P_\ell\}$ -free graphs is stable under  $cl_C$  for any  $\ell \geq 3$ .

*Proof.* By Theorems 4 and 5, it is sufficient to show that  $G'_C$  is  $P_{\ell}$ -free for every  $\{K_{1,3}, P_{\ell}\}$ -free graph G, and any eligible cycle C.

Suppose, to the contrary, that  $G'_C$  contains an induced  $P_\ell$ ,  $P = x_1x_2...x_\ell$ . Since G is  $P_\ell$ -free and  $E(G'_C) = E(G) \cup B_C$ , E(P) contains at least one edge of  $B_C$ . Since  $G'_C[N[C]]$  is complete, E(P) contains at most two vertices in N[C]. Thus, E(P) contains exactly one edge  $e \in B_C$ , say  $e = x_i x_{i+1}$ , and  $V(P) \cap N[C] = \{x_i, x_{i+1}\}$ . Take a shortest path R in G from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1}$  using only vertices from V(C) as internal vertices to create a path  $P' = x_1 \dots x_i R x_{i+1} \dots x_\ell$ . As  $V(P) \cap N[C] = \{x_i, x_{i+1}\}$ , P' is induced, contradicting the fact that G is  $P_\ell$ -free. This proves the theorem.

Let G be a 3-connected claw-free graph closed under  $cl_C$ . Let  $L^{-1}(G)$  be the unique line graph original, i.e. the unique graph whose line graph is identical with G, guaranteed by Theorem 3(ii). Similarly, let F be a claw-free graph closed under  $cl_C$ .

The following are well known facts about line graphs:

Fact 7. If G is a line graph, the following are true:

(i) G is k-connected if and only if  $L^{-1}(G)$  is essentially k-edgeconnected.

- (ii) [8] G is hamiltonian if and only if  $L^{-1}(G)$  has a dominating circuit.
- (iii) F is an induced subgraph of G if and only if  $L^{-1}(F)$  is a (not necessarily induced) subgraph of  $L^{-1}(G)$ .

Let  $\overline{L}(G)$  be the graph obtained from  $L^{-1}(G)$  after deleting all vertices of degree one and after replacing all vertices of degree two by edges between their two neighbors. Let  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}(\overline{L}(G)) \subseteq V(\overline{L}(G))$ be the set of vertices which were neighbors of vertices of degree less or equal two in  $L^{-1}(G)$ . From Fact 7, we get the following statements about  $\overline{L}(G)$ .

Fact 8. The following are true:

- (i)  $\overline{L}(G)$  is well defined.
- (ii)  $\overline{L}(G)$  is triangle-free.
- (iii)  $\overline{L}(G)$  is 3-edge-connected.
- (iv) G is hamiltonian if and only if  $\overline{L}(G)$  has a dominating circuit covering all vertices in  $\mathcal{M}$ .

*Proof.* By Fact 7(i),  $L^{-1}(G)$  is essentially 3-edge-connected, therefore the vertices of degree less than 3 form an independent set in  $L^{-1}(G)$ , and the graph  $\overline{L}(G)$  resulting from their deletion/replacement contains no vertices of degree less than three. Furthermore, there are no triangles or multiple edges in  $\overline{L}(G)$  as G is closed under  $cl_C$ , and  $L^{-1}(G)$ thus contains no induced k-cycles with at least k-3 vertices of degree two, where  $3 \leq k \leq 6$ . This establishes (i) and (ii).

Clearly,  $\overline{L}(G)$  is essentially 3-edge-connected, since  $L^{-1}(G)$  is essentially 3-edge-connected, and each edge cut in  $\overline{L}(G)$  induces an edge cut of the same size in  $L^{-1}(G)$ . Again, there are no vertices of degree less than three in  $\overline{L}(G)$ , so this implies (iii).

Finally, it is easy to see that every dominating circuit in  $L^{-1}(G)$ induces a dominating circuit covering all vertices in  $\mathcal{M}$  in  $\overline{L}(G)$  and vice versa, together with Fact 7(ii) this establishes (iv).

**Fact 9.** If G is  $P_{\ell}$ -free for some  $\ell \geq 3$  and G is non-hamiltonian, then  $\overline{L}(G)$  contains none of the following as a (not necessarily induced) subgraph:

- (i)  $P_{\ell+1}$ ,
- (ii)  $P_{\ell} = x_1 x_2 \dots x_{\ell}$  with  $x_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ ,
- (iii)  $P_{\ell-1} = x_1 x_2 \dots x_{\ell-1}$  with  $x_1, x_{\ell-1} \in \mathcal{M}$ .

*Proof.* If  $\overline{L}(G)$  contains a  $P_{\ell+1}$  or a  $P_{\ell} = x_1 x_2 \dots x_{\ell}$  with  $x_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ , then  $L^{-1}(G)$  contains a  $P_{\ell+1}$ , which contradicts the fact that G is  $P_{\ell}$ -free by Fact 7(iii).

Thus, assume that  $\overline{L}(G)$  contains a path  $P_{\ell-1} = x_1 x_2 \dots x_{\ell-1}$  with  $x_1, x_{\ell-1} \in \mathcal{M}$ . Let v be a vertex in  $N_{L^{-1}(G)}(x_1)$  with  $d(v) \leq 2$ , and let u be a vertex in  $N_{L^{-1}(G)}(x_{\ell-1})$  with  $d(u) \leq 2$ . If  $u \neq v$ , then the path in  $L^{-1}(G)$  which corresponds to  $vx_1x_2 \dots x_{\ell-1}u$  contains a path of length  $\ell + 1$ , which, again, is not possible. Therefore, u = v, d(u) = 2 and  $x_1x_2 \dots x_{\ell-1}x_1$  is a cycle in  $\overline{L}(G)$ . As G is not hamiltonian,  $x_1x_2 \dots x_{\ell-1}x_1$  is not a dominating circuit covering  $\mathcal{M}$  in  $\overline{L}(G)$  by Fact 8(iv). Thus, there is another vertex  $y \in V(\overline{L}(G))$ , connected to some  $x_k$ . Now the path in  $L^{-1}(G)$  corresponding to  $yx_k \dots x_{\ell-1}ux_1 \dots x_{k-1}$  contains a path of length  $\ell + 1$ , the final contradiction.

Thus, Theorem 2 will follow from Fact 9 and the following lemma.

**Lemma 10.** Let G be a triangle-free 3-edge-connected graph and let  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq V(G)$  be a subset of its vertices. Then G contains one of the following:

- (i) a dominating circuit containing all vertices in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,
- (ii)  $P_{12}$ ,
- (iii)  $P_{11} = v_1 v_2 \dots v_{11}$  with  $v_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ ,
- (iv)  $P_{10} = v_1 v_2 \dots v_{10}$  with  $v_1, v_{10} \in \mathcal{M}$ .

#### 3. Graphs without long paths

In this section we prove Lemma 10. Our argument includes an elementary but laborious analysis of cases, so we start with stating a few simple facts we shall repeatedly use in this part of the paper.

**Fact 11.** Let  $P = v_1 v_2 \dots v_\ell$  be a longest path in a connected graph G.

- (i)  $N(v_1) \subseteq V(P)$ . Moreover,  $v_{\ell} \notin N(v_1)$  unless P is a hamiltonian path.
- (ii) If some  $v_i$ ,  $2 \le i \le \ell 2$ , has a neighbor outside V(P), then  $v_{i+1} \notin N(v_1)$ .
- (iii) If  $w \notin V(G) \setminus V(P)$  is adjacent to  $v_2$  and  $v_j$  for some  $2 \le i < j \le \ell 1$ , then  $v_{j-1} \notin N(v_1)$ .

*Proof.* It is easy to check that if any of the conditions (i)–(iii) fails, then G contains a path longer than P.

**Fact 12.** Let  $P = v_1 \dots v_\ell$  be a longest path in a 2-connected, 3-edgeconnected, triangle-free graph G, and let H denote the graph induced in G by  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$ .

(i) If  $\ell \leq 10$ , then  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$  is an independent set.

(ii) If ℓ = 11, then all components of H which contain more than one vertex are stars, with vertices z, y<sub>1</sub>,..., y<sub>k</sub>, such that the neighborhood of each of vertices y<sub>i</sub>, i = 1, 2, ..., k, consists of z, v<sub>4</sub>, and v<sub>8</sub>.

Proof. Suppose there exists a vertex z lying at distance two from P. Then, since G is 2-connected, there are two vertex-disjoint paths which join z with two different vertices of P, each of length at least two. Hence, for some  $k \geq 3$  and  $2 \leq i < j \leq \ell - 1$ , there exists a path  $P' = v_i w_1 \dots w_k v_j$  such that  $w_1, \dots, w_k \notin V(P)$ . Note that  $i \geq 3$ , since otherwise the path  $w_k w_{k-1} \dots w_1 v_i v_{i+1} \dots v_\ell$  is longer than P. Similarly,  $j \leq \ell - 3$ . But then the path  $v_1 \dots v_i w_1 \dots w_k v_j \dots v_\ell$  is longer than P unless k = 3 and  $\ell = 11$ . Hence, if a vertex z lies at distance two from P, then  $\ell = 11$  and all paths from z to P have length two and join z with one of the vertices  $v_4$ ,  $v_8$ . All other vertices are within distance one from P.

Let F be a component of H. If it contains a vertex which lies at distance two from P, then, as we have just proved, it must be a star of the type described above. Thus, let us assume that all vertices of F have at least one neighbor on P. Note also that F cannot contain a cycle. Indeed, since G is triangle-free, such a cycle would have at least four vertices; this would imply that two different vertices of P are connected by an "external" path P' of length at least five, which, as we have seen above, is impossible. Thus, since the minimum degree of G is three, at least two vertices of F, say, x and y, have at least two neighbors each on P. Furthermore, if x and y are not adjacent, one can argue as above that F must be a star of the type described in (ii), so we may assume that xy is an edge of G. Let W denote the set of the vertices of P which are adjacent to one of the vertices x and y. Since G is triangle-free the neighborhoods of x and y are disjoint, and so  $|W| \geq 4$ . Note also that no two vertices of W are consecutive vertices of P, and neighbors of x and y must lie at distance at least three on P, since this will lead to a longer path. Thus, at least one of the vertices  $v_2$  and  $v_{\ell-1}$  must belong to W, say,  $v_2$  is adjacent to x. But then the path  $yxv_2v_3...v_\ell$  is longer than P, contradicting the choice of P. 

We call a graph G super-eulerian if it contains a circuit which goes through every vertex of G, i.e., if it has a spanning Eulerian subgraph. The following two facts are easy consequences of the above definition.

**Fact 13.** Let G be a complete bipartite graph with bipartition  $(V_1, V_2)$ , where  $|V_1| = 3$  and  $|V_2| = k$ . Then, if  $k \ge 2$ , G contains a circuit which covers all vertices of  $V_2$ . Moreover, if  $k \ge 3$ , then for every two

different vertices  $v, v' \in V_1$  there is a trail in G which starts at v, ends in v', and covers every vertex of G.

**Fact 14.** Let  $H_1, \ldots, H_m$  be edge-disjoint subgraphs of a graph G, and let F denote the graph with vertices  $H_1, \ldots, H_m$  in which two vertices  $H_i$ ,  $H_j$  are adjacent if and only if  $V(H_i) \cap V(H_j) \neq \emptyset$ . If each  $H_i$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, m$ , is super-eulerian,  $V(G) = \bigcup_i V(H_i)$ , and F is connected, then G is super-eulerian.

In particular, if each block of a connected graph G is super-eulerian, then G is super-eulerian as well.  $\hfill \Box$ 

We shall also use the following result of Favaron and Fraisse [7], which is a consequence of the nine-point theorem by Holton *et al.* [9].

**Lemma 15.** If a graph G is 3-edge-connected, then for every nine vertices of G there is a circuit going through all these vertices.

In particular, each 3-edge-connected graph on at most nine vertices is super-eulerian.

Before we prove Lemma 10 we show the following lemma.

**Lemma 16.** Every triangle-free 3-edge-connected graph which does not contain a  $P_{10}$  as a subgraph is super-eulerian.

Proof. Let G be a triangle-free 3-edge-connected graph without a  $P_{10}$ . From Fact 14 and Lemma 15 it follows that we may assume that G is a 2-connected graph on at least ten vertices. Let  $P = v_1 \dots v_\ell$ ,  $\ell \leq 9$ , denote a longest path in G. Fact 12 implies that all vertices  $x \in V(G) \setminus V(P)$  have at least three neighbors on P. Note that since G has at least ten vertices the set  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$  is non-empty.

Since G is triangle-free, and  $v_1, v_\ell$  have no neighbors outside P (Fact 11(i)), we must have  $\ell \geq 7$ . Let us first consider the case  $\ell = 7, 8$ . Let  $x \in V(G) \setminus V(P)$  and  $v_i, v_j, v_k, 2 \leq i < i+1 < j < j+1 < k \leq \ell-1$  be neighbors of x on P. It is easy to check using Fact 11 that then the only three neighbors of  $v_1$  on P are  $v_2, v_j$  and  $v_k$ , and  $v_\ell$  can be adjacent only to  $v_i, v_j$  and  $v_{\ell-1}$ . Consequently, all vertices in  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$  must have the same neighborhood  $v_i, v_j$  and  $v_k$ . Since  $|V(G) \setminus V(P)| \geq 2$ , G contains a circuit K which covers all vertices of  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$  and uses no edges joining two vertices of P (see Fact 13 above). Note also that the circuit  $K' = v_1 v_2 \dots v_\ell v_j v_1$  contains all vertices of P. Combining K and K' we get a circuit which goes through all vertices of G, and so G is super-eulerian.

Now suppose that  $\ell = 9$ . Then we split all vertices of  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$ into two sets,  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The set  $S_1$  consists of all the vertices which are adjacent to at least one of the "odd" vertices  $v_3$ ,  $v_5$ ,  $v_7$ , while  $S_2 = V(G) \setminus (V(P) \cup S_1)$ . It is easy to verify that for any vertex  $x \in S_1$  which has neighbors  $v_i, v_j, v_k, i < j < k, v_1$  is adjacent to  $v_k, v_9$  must be adjacent to  $v_i$ , and at least one of the vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_9$  is adjacent to  $v_j$ . If  $x \in S_2$ , then we claim only that  $v_1$  is adjacent to at least two of the vertices  $v_4, v_6$  and  $v_8$ , and at least two of the vertices  $v_2, v_4, v_6$  are neighbors of  $v_\ell$ . Note however, that the above observation implies that one of the sets  $S_1, S_2$  is empty. Hence, let us consider the two following cases.

#### Case 1. $S_2 = \emptyset$ .

As we have already observed each  $x \in S_1$  determines uniquely if  $v_1$  is adjacent to  $v_7$  or  $v_8$ , and if  $v_9$  is adjacent to  $v_2$  or  $v_3$ . Thus, there are two vertices  $v_i, v_k \in V(P)$  such that for every  $x \in S_1$ ,  $v_i$  is adjacent to x and  $v_9$ , while  $v_k$  is a neighbor of both x and  $v_1$ .

Consider first the case that  $|S_1| = |V(G) \setminus V(P)|$  is odd. Then, we can cover all but one element of  $S_1$ , say x, by a circuit K which contains no edges with both ends in V(P) (Fact 13). Combining Kwith  $v_1v_2\ldots v_9v_ixv_jv_1$  proves that G is super-eulerian (Fact 14).

If  $|S_1|$  is even, then again we apply Fact 13 to find a circuit which contains all but two, say x, x', vertices of  $S_1$ , and uses only edges incident to  $S_1$ . Now it is enough to find a circuit K on vertices  $V(P) \cup$  $\{x, x'\}$ . Assume that x has neighbors  $v_i$ ,  $v_j$  and  $v_k$ , i < j < k, and  $v_j$ is adjacent to, say,  $v_1$ . Then  $K = v_1 \dots v_9 v_i x' v_k x v_j v_1$ .

#### Case 2. $S_1 = \emptyset$ .

As before our aim is to show that one can cover all vertices of G by a number of edge-disjoint circuits (note that each circuit must contain at least two vertices from V(P)).

Let us partition  $S_2$  into sets  $S'_2$  and  $S''_2$ , where  $S'_2$  consists of all vertices which are adjacent to both vertices  $v_4$  and  $v_6$ , while  $S''_2 = S \setminus S'_2$ . We show first that for every  $x \in S_2$  there exists a circuit with vertex set  $V(P) \cup \{x\}$ . Let us consider two subcases.

## Case 2a. $x \in S'_2$ .

One can verify using Fact 11 that there are two neighbors  $v', v'' \in V(P)$  of x such that  $v_1$  is adjacent to v' and  $v_9$  is adjacent to v''. Hence  $v_1v_2 \ldots v_9v''xv'v_1$  is a circuit we are looking for.

## Case 2b. $x \in S_2''$ .

Let us assume that x is adjacent to  $v_2$ ,  $v_4$  and  $v_8$  (the symmetric case in which x is adjacent to  $v_2$ ,  $v_6$  and  $v_8$  can be dealt with in a similar way). If there are two neighbors v' and v'' of x such that  $v_1$  is adjacent to v' and  $v_9$  is adjacent to v'' we can proceed as in the previous case. Thus, assume that it is not the case. Then both vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_9$  are adjacent to both  $v_4$  and  $v_6$ . Hence  $v_1v_6v_7v_8xv_2\ldots v_6v_9v_4v_1$  is a circuit we are looking for.

Now suppose  $|S_2| = |V(G) \setminus V(P)| \ge 2$ . Each two vertices x, y, from  $S_2$  share at least two neighbors, hence, they lie on a cycle of length four. Consequently, if  $|S_2|$  is odd, then we can cover all but one vertex (say, x) of  $S_2$  by edge-disjoint cycles and combine them with a circuit with vertex set  $V(P) \cup \{x\}$  to show that G is super-eulerian. An analogous argument can be used to prove that G is super-eulerian if  $|S_2|$  is even and the vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_9$  have a common neighbor on P. Thus, let us assume that  $|S_2| \geq 2$  is even and the vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_9$  share no neighbors. We cover all but two, say  $x_1$ ,  $x_2$ , vertices of  $S_2$  by edgedisjoint cycles of length four. Then it is easy to see that among the vertices  $v_2$ ,  $v_4$ ,  $v_6$  and  $v_8$  we find three, say v', v'', and v''', such that for some  $\alpha \in \{1, 2\}$ , v' is adjacent to both  $v_1$  and  $x_{\alpha}$ , v'' is adjacent to both  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ , and v''' is adjacent to both  $x_{3-\alpha}$  and  $v_9$ . Then, the circuit  $v_1v_2\ldots v_9v'''x_{3-\alpha}v''x_{\alpha}v'v_1$  covers all vertices from  $V(P)\cup\{x_1,x_2\}$ , and so G is super-eulerian.  $\square$ 

Proof of Lemma 10. Let G be a 3-edge-connected graph such that the vertex set of G is partitioned into two classes: the set  $\mathcal{M}$  (the major vertices) and the set  $V(G) \setminus \mathcal{M}$  (the minor vertices). Let  $\ell$  be the number of vertices in a longest path in G and let  $P = v_1 \dots v_\ell$  denote a longest path for which the set  $\{v_1, v_\ell\}$  contains the maximum number of major vertices. We show that if either

•  $\ell \leq 10$  and at least one of the vertices  $v_1, v_\ell$  is minor,

•  $\ell = 11$  and both vertices  $v_1, v_\ell$  are minor,

or

then there exists a dominating circuit K which contains all major vertices of G.

Note that we may assume that G is 2-connected (Fact 14) and  $\ell \geq 10$  (Lemma 16).

Case 1.  $\ell = 10$  and at least one of the vertices  $v_1$ ,  $v_{10}$ , say  $v_1$ , is minor.

Note first that Lemma 15 implies that there is a circuit K covering the vertices  $\{v_2, \ldots, v_9\}$ . Since it follows from Fact 11(i) and Fact 12 that the set  $V(G) \setminus \{v_2, \ldots, v_{10}\}$  is independent, either  $V(G) \setminus V(K)$  is an independent set which consists of minor vertices and we are done, or the set S of all major vertices in  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$  is non-empty. Since the minimum degree of G is three, each vertex  $x \in S$  is adjacent to at least three vertices on P. Note however, that x is not adjacent to  $v_2$  since otherwise the path  $xv_2v_3...v_{10}$  has the same length but more major ends than P. Furthermore, if  $v_i$  is a neighbor of x, not only  $v_{i+1}$  is not adjacent to  $v_1$  (see Fact 11(iii)) but  $v_{i+2}$  is not a neighbor of  $v_1$  either. Indeed, in this case P can be replaced by a path  $xv_iv_{i-1}...v_1v_{i+2}v_{i+3}...v_{10}$  which starts at the major vertex x. Finally, if x is adjacent to  $v_{\ell-1} = v_9$ , then  $v_2$  cannot be a neighbor of  $v_{\ell} = v_{10}$ , since otherwise the path  $v_{10}v_2v_3...v_9x$  has one more major end than P.

There are ten possible ways of choosing three neighbors of x among the vertices  $v_3, v_4, \ldots, v_9$  in such a way that none of them are consecutive. However, using Fact 11 and the observations mentioned above, one can check by a direct inspection that in seven of these cases connecting the vertex  $v_1$  with two vertices in  $\{v_4, \ldots, v_9\}$  immediately leads either to a longer path, or to a path of the same length as P but with more major ends. The three remaining cases are as follows:

- x is adjacent to  $v_3$ ,  $v_7$  and  $v_9$ . This forces  $v_1$  to be adjacent to  $v_7$  and  $v_9$ , while  $v_{10}$  is adjacent to  $v_3$  and  $v_7$ .
- x is adjacent to  $v_4$ ,  $v_6$  and  $v_9$ . Then  $v_1$  is adjacent to  $v_4$  and  $v_9$ , while  $v_4$  and  $v_6$  are neighbors of  $v_{10}$ .
- x is adjacent to  $v_4$ ,  $v_7$  and  $v_9$ . Then  $v_4$  and  $v_7$  are neighbors of  $v_1$ , while  $v_{10}$  is adjacent to  $v_4$  and  $v_7$ .

Furthermore, in all the cases, the degree of both  $v_1$  and  $v_{10}$  is three. Thus, since in each of the above cases  $v_1$  has a different neighborhood, all vertices of S must have the same neighbors on P.

Suppose that  $|S| \geq 2$ . Then, Fact 13 implies the existence of a circuit K which uses only edges incident to S and covers all vertices of S. Moreover,  $v_1$  and  $v_{10}$  have a common neighbor  $v' \in V(P)$ , so all vertices of P lie at the circuit  $K' = v_1 \dots v_{10} v' v_1$ . Combining K and K' we obtain a dominating circuit which contains all major vertices of G.

Now suppose that  $S = \{x\}$ . Then, from the description of the three cases we deal with, we infer that x has two different neighbors on P, say v' and v'', such that v' is adjacent to  $v_1$ , while v'' is a neighbor of  $v_{10}$ . Hence the circuit  $v_1 \ldots v_{10}v''xv'v_1$  contains all major vertices of G and, since it contains all vertices of P, is dominating in G.

Case 2.  $\ell = 11$  and both vertices  $v_1, v_{11}$ , are minor.

It follows from Lemma 15 that G contains a circuit K which goes through all the vertices  $v_2, \ldots, v_{10}$ . Observe that without loss of generality we may assume that K contains all vertices of G which belong to non-trivial components of the graph H induced by  $V(G) \setminus V(P)$ . Indeed, it is enough to note that a graph induced by such a component and the vertices  $v_4$  and  $v_8$  contains both a spanning circuit as well as a spanning trail which starts at  $v_4$  and ends at  $v_8$  (Fact 14), which is easy to see with Fact 12(ii) (with the notation from Fact 12(ii),  $v_4y_1zy_2v_4y_3v_8y_4v_4...$  and  $v_4y_1zy_2v_8y_3v_4y_4v_8...$  would be a spanning trail and a spanning circuit, respectively). Thus, the set S of all major vertices of G which have at least three neighbors on P must be nonempty; otherwise K would be a dominating circuit which contains all major vertices.

Similarly as in the previous case one needs to examine all possible neighborhoods of  $x \in S$ , but now we can make use of the fact that both  $v_1$  and  $v_{11}$  are minor so, for instance, no vertex from S is adjacent to  $v_{10}$ . It turns out that inspecting all possible candidates for neighbors of  $v_1$ and  $v_{11}$  one can eliminate all but one case and infer that all vertices  $x \in S$  must be adjacent to  $v_3$ ,  $v_6$  and  $v_9$ . This, in turn, forces  $v_1$  to be adjacent to  $v_6$  and  $v_9$ , and  $v_{11}$  to have  $v_4$  and  $v_6$  as its neighbors. But then the argument identical to that given in Case 1 shows that there exists in G a dominating circuit K which contains all major vertices. This completes the proof of Case 2 and Lemma 10.

# 4. A non-hamiltonian 3-connected $P_{12}$ -free claw-free graph

We conclude the paper by giving an example of a graph F which is claw-free and contains no induced copy of  $P_{12}$ , yet it is not hamiltonian, which shows that Theorem 2 is, in a way, best possible.

Let H be the graph obtained from the Petersen graph by attaching a pendant edge to each of its vertices. Let F = L(H).

# **Fact 17.** The graph F is claw-free, 3-connected and non-hamiltonian. Moreover, it contains no induced copy of $P_{12}$ .

*Proof.* Clearly, F is claw-free like every line graph. Furthermore, F is 3-connected since H is essentially 3-edge-connected. As the Petersen graph is 3-regular, a dominating circuit of H would be in fact a dominating cycle. Since the Petersen graph is non-hamiltonian, such a cycle can not exist, and thus, F is non-hamiltonian by Fact 7(ii).

Moreover, H does not contain  $P_{13}$  as a subgraph, and therefore, F contains no induced copy of  $P_{12}$  by Fact 7(iii).

Finally we remark that in the construction of H one can add more pendant edges to each of the ten vertices of the Petersen graph without making the graph F = L(H) hamiltonian or creating any induced  $K_{1,3}$  or  $P_{12}$ 's in F. Therefore, there are non-hamiltonian 3-connected  $\{K_{1,3}, P_{12}\}$ -free graphs on n vertices for every  $n \geq 25$ . Acknowledgments: We wish to thank the referees for their comments and suggestions.

#### References

- 1. P. Bedrossian, Forbidden subgraph and minimum degree conditions for hamiltonicity, Thesis, Memphis State University, USA, 1991.
- 2. B. Bollobás, "Modern Graph Theory," Springer Verlag, New York, 1998.
- H.J. Broersma, H.J. Veldman, Restrictions on induced subgraphs ensuring Hamiltonicity or pancyclicity of K<sub>1,3</sub>-free graphs. In: "Contemporary Methods in Graph Theory" (R. Bodendiek, ed.), BI-Wiss.-Verlag, Mannheim, 1990, 181–194.
- H.J. Broersma, Z. Ryjáček, Strengthening the closure concept in claw-free graphs, Discrete Math., 223 (2001), 55–63.
- J. Brousek, Z. Ryjáček, O. Favaron, Forbidden subgraphs, hamiltonicity and closure in claw-free graphs, Discrete Math., 196 (1999), 29–50.
- R.J. Faudree, R.J. Gould, Characterizing forbidden pairs for hamiltonian properties, Discrete Math. 173 (1997), 45–60.
- O. Favaron, P. Fraisse, Hamiltonicity and minimum degree in 3-connected clawfree graphs, J. Combin. Theory Ser. B, 82 (2001), 297–305.
- F. Harary, C.St.J.A. Nash-Williams, On eulerian and hamiltonian graphs and line graphs, Canad. Math. Bull., 8 (1965), 701–710.
- D.A. Holton, B.D. McKay, M.D. Plummer, C. Thomassen, A nine point theorem for 3-connected graphs, Combinatorica 2 (1982), 53–62.
- Z. Ryjáček, On a closure concept in claw-free graphs, J. Combin. Theory, Ser. B 70 (1997), 217–224.

DEPARTMENT OF DISCRETE MATHEMATICS, ADAM MICKIEWICZ UNIVERSITY, 61-614 POZNAŃ, POLAND

AND

Department of Mathematics and Computer Science, Emory University, Atlanta, GA 30322

*E-mail address*: <tomasz@amu.edu.pl>

DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS AND COMPUTER SCIENCE, EMORY UNIVER-SITY, ATLANTA, GA 30322

*E-mail address*: <fpfende@mathcs.emory.edu>