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## **RELATIONS BETWEEN PACKING AND COVERING NUMBERS OF A TREE**

A. MEIR AND JOHN W. MOON

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Let  $P_k$  denote the size of the largest subset of nodes of a tree  $T$  with  $n$  nodes such that the distance between any two nodes in the subset is at least  $k + 1$ ; let  $C_k$  denote the size of the smallest subset of nodes of  $T$  such that every node of  $T$  is at distance at most  $k$  from some node in the subset. We determine various relations involving  $P_k$  and  $C_k$ ; in particular, we show that  $P_k + kC_k \leq n$  if  $n \geq k + 1$  and that  $P_{2k} = C_k$ .

1. Introduction. The distance between nodes  $x$  and  $y$  in a graph  $G$  is the number  $d(x, y)$  of edges in any shortest path in  $G$  that joins  $x$  and  $y$ . (For definitions not given here see [1] or [5].) A subset  $\mathcal{P}$  of nodes of  $G$  is a  $k$ -packing if  $d(x, y) > k$  for all pairs of distinct nodes  $x$  and  $y$  of  $\mathcal{P}$ ; the  $k$ -packing number of  $G$  is the number  $P_k = P_k(G)$  of nodes in any largest  $k$ -packing in  $G$ . A subset  $\mathcal{C}$  of nodes of  $G$  is a  $k$ -covering if for every node  $x$  in  $G$  there is at least one node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{C}$  such that  $d(x, y) \leq k$ ; the  $k$ -covering number of  $G$  is the number  $C_k = C_k(G)$  of nodes in any smallest  $k$ -covering of  $G$ .

Our object here is to establish various relations between  $P_k(T)$  and  $C_k(T)$  when  $T$  is a tree with  $n$  nodes. We consider the case  $k = 1$  in §2 and determine those values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  for which there exists a tree  $T$  such that  $P_1(T) = \alpha$  and  $C_1(T) = \beta$ . We derive upper bounds for  $P_k(T)$  and  $C_k(T)$  in §3. In §4 we show that  $P_k(T) + kC_k(T) \leq n$  for any tree  $T$  with  $n$  nodes when  $n \geq k + 1$  and we show that this inequality is, in a sense, best possible. Finally, in §5 we show that  $P_{2k} = C_k$ .

The quantities  $P_1(G)$  and  $C_1(G)$  have been considered before under different names. For example,  $P_1(G)$  and  $C_1(G)$  are called the independence number and the domination number of  $G$  in [5; Chap. 13]; and they are called the coefficients of internal and external stability in [1; Chap. 4]. Some inequalities for  $P_1(G)$  and  $C_1(G)$  are given in [2; Chaps. 13 and 14] but some of these are unnecessarily weak when  $G$  is a tree.

2. Relations between  $P_1$  and  $C_1$ . In what follows  $T$  will always denote an arbitrary tree with  $n$  nodes. For convenience, we shall frequently write  $P$  and  $C$  for  $P_1(T)$  and  $C_1(T)$ .

**THEOREM 1.** *If  $n \geq 2$ , then  $P + C \leq n$ .*

*Proof.* If  $\mathcal{P}$  denotes a 1-packing of  $P$  nodes in  $T$  then each node of  $\mathcal{P}$  must be joined to at least one node not in  $\mathcal{P}$  if  $n \geq 2$ . Thus the  $n - P$  nodes not in  $\mathcal{P}$  constitute a 1-covering of  $T$ . Hence,  $C \leq n - P$ , as required.

**COROLLARY 1.** *If  $n \geq 2$ , then  $1 \leq C \leq (1/2)n \leq P \leq n - 1$ .*

*Proof.* It is obvious that  $C \geq 1$  and  $P \leq n - 1$  when  $n \geq 2$ . The remaining inequalities follow from Theorem 1 and the easily established fact that  $C \leq P$  (see [5; p. 211]); they may also be proved directly by observing that the sets of nodes of  $T$  whose distances from a given node  $x$  are odd or even, respectively, are both 1-packings and 1-coverings. We remark that the inequalities  $C_1(G) \leq (1/2)n \leq P_1(G)$  hold for any nontrivial connected bipartite graph  $G$  with  $n$  nodes.

**THEOREM 2.** *If  $n \geq 1$ , then  $P + 2C \geq n + 1$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{C}$  denote a 1-covering of  $C$  nodes of  $T$  and let  $R$  denote the subgraph determined by the  $n - C$  nodes not in  $\mathcal{C}$ . If  $R$  has  $j$  components and  $e$  edges then  $e = n - C - j$  (see [5; p. 68]) and it is easy to see that  $P \geq j$ . Since each node of  $R$  is joined to at least one node of  $\mathcal{C}$  and since  $T$  has  $n - 1$  edges altogether it follows that

$$e \leq (n - 1) - (n - C) = C - 1.$$

Hence,

$$P \geq j = n - C - e \geq (n - C) - (C - 1) = n - 2C + 1,$$

as required. (It will follow from Theorem 3 that the inequalities  $1/2(n + 1 - P) \leq C \leq n - P$ , implied by Theorems 1 and 2 are, in a sense, best possible.)

The next result is obtained by combining the inequalities  $P \geq (1/2)n$  and  $P + 2C \geq n + 1$ .

**COROLLARY 2.** *If  $n \geq 1$  and  $0 \leq \lambda \leq 2$ , then*

$$P + \lambda C \geq \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \right) n + \frac{1}{2} \lambda;$$

*in particular,*

$$P + C \geq \left\{ \frac{3}{4} n + \frac{1}{2} \right\},$$

where  $\{x\}$  denotes the least integer not less than  $x$ .

It is not difficult to construct trees for which equality holds in the last inequality. We remark that it follows from results in [3] and [4] that the average value of  $P + C$  over the  $n^{n-2}$  trees with  $n$  labelled nodes is approximately  $.927n$  for large values of  $n$ .

**THEOREM 3.** *If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are positive integers such that*

$$(1) \quad \alpha \geq \frac{1}{2}n,$$

$$(2) \quad \alpha + \beta \leq n,$$

and

$$(3) \quad \alpha + 2\beta \geq n + 1,$$

then there exists a tree  $T$  with  $n$  nodes such that  $P(T) = \alpha$  and  $C(T) = \beta$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\nu = n - \alpha - \beta$ . It follows from (1) that  $\beta + \nu \leq (1/2)n$  and this implies that  $n + 1 - 2\beta - 2\nu \geq 1$ ; furthermore, it follows from (3) that  $\nu \leq \beta - 1$  or  $\beta - 1 - \nu \geq 0$ . Let  $T$  denote the tree constructed as follows:  $n - 1$  nodes are split into  $\nu$  sets of four nodes,  $\beta - 1 - \nu$  sets of two nodes, and  $n + 1 - 2\nu - 2\beta$  sets consisting of a single node; a path is formed on the nodes in each set and the node at one end of each of these paths is joined to an  $n$ th node. (The tree arising when  $n = 13$ ,  $\alpha = 7$ , and  $\beta = 4$  is illustrated in Figure 1.) It is not difficult to verify that this construction

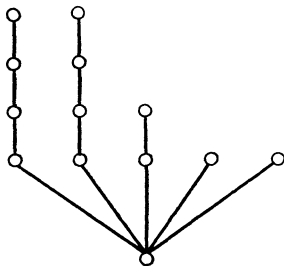


FIGURE 1

is indeed possible and that

$$P(T) = 2\nu + (\beta - 1 - \nu) + (n + 1 - 2\nu - 2\beta) = n - \beta - \nu = \alpha$$

and

$$C(T) = 1 + \nu + (\beta - 1 - \nu) = \beta,$$

as required.

3. **Upper bounds for  $P_k$  and  $C_k$ .** In what follows  $k$  and  $n$  will denote arbitrary positive integers.

**THEOREM 4.** *If  $n \geq [1/2(k + 3)]$  then*

$$(4) \quad P_k \leq [2n/(k + 2)]$$

*if  $k$  is even, and*

$$(5) \quad P_k \leq [(2n - 2)/(k + 1)]$$

*if  $k$  is odd.*

*Proof.* If  $x$  is any node in any  $k$ -packing  $\mathcal{P}$  with  $P_k$  nodes of  $T$ , let  $N(x) = \{u: u \in T \text{ and } d(x, u) \leq j\}$  where  $j = [(1/2)k]$ . Since the tree  $T$  is connected and has at least  $[1/2(k + 3)] \geq j + 1$  nodes, it follows that  $|N(x)| \geq j + 1$  for all  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ . Furthermore, the sets  $\{N(x): x \in \mathcal{P}\}$  are disjoint; for if  $u \in N(x) \cap N(y)$  where  $x \neq y$ , then  $d(x, y) = d(x, u) + d(u, y) \leq 2j \leq k$  and this would contradict the definition of  $\mathcal{P}$ . Hence,

$$n \geq \sum_{x \in \mathcal{P}} |N(x)| \geq P_k \cdot (j + 1)$$

and this implies inequality (4).

If  $k = 2j + 1$  we may further assert that no edge joins a node  $u$  of any set  $N(x)$  to a node  $v$  of any other set  $N(y)$  where  $x \neq y$ ; for if there were such an edge, then  $d(x, y) = d(x, u) + d(u, v) + d(v, y) \leq 2j + 1 = k$  and this would again contradict the definition of  $\mathcal{P}$ . If  $P_k = 1$  inequality (5) certainly holds. If  $P_k \geq 2$  there must exist at least one node of  $T$  that is not in any set  $N(x)$ , where  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ , for  $T$  would not be connected otherwise. Hence,

$$n \geq 1 + \sum_{x \in \mathcal{P}} |N(x)| \geq 1 + P_k \cdot (j + 1)$$

when  $k = 2j + 1$ , and this implies inequality (5).

If  $\mathcal{P}$  is any maximal  $k$ -packing of  $P_k$  nodes in a tree  $T$ , then  $\mathcal{P}$  is also a  $k$ -covering of  $T$ ; for if there were a node  $x$  in  $T$  such that  $d(x, y) > k$  for each node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}$  then  $\mathcal{P} \cup \{x\}$  would be a larger  $k$ -packing in  $T$  which is impossible. This implies that  $C_k \leq P_k$  for any tree  $T$  (this result is given in [5; p. 211] when  $k = 1$ , as was mentioned earlier). Hence, Theorem 4 provides an upper bound for  $C_k$  also; a better bound is given in the following result.

**THEOREM 5.** *If  $n \geq k + 1$ , then*

$$(6) \quad C_k \leq [n/(k+1)].$$

*Proof.* Suppose one of the longest paths in  $T$  joins nodes  $x$  and  $y$ . Let

$$D_i = \{u: u \in T \text{ and } d(x, u) \equiv i \pmod{(k+1)}\}$$

for  $0 \leq i \leq k$ . We may assume  $D_i \neq \emptyset$  for each  $i$ , for otherwise the node  $x$  itself would constitute a  $k$ -covering and inequality (6) would certainly hold. We now show that each set  $D_i$  is a  $k$ -covering of  $T$ .

Let  $z$  denote any node of  $T$  and suppose  $d(x, z) = l$ . If  $l \geq i$  then  $i + m(k+1) \leq l < i + (m+1)(k+1)$  for some nonnegative integer  $m$ . Let  $u$  denote the unique node on the path joining  $x$  and  $z$  such that  $d(x, u) = i + m(k+1)$ ; then  $u \in D_i$  and  $d(u, z) \leq k$  as required. If  $l < i$  let  $v$  denote the unique node on the path joining  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $d(x, v) = i$ ; then  $v \in D_i$  and

$$d(z, v) = d(z, y) - d(v, y) \leq d(x, y) - d(v, y) = d(x, v) = i \leq k,$$

as required.

The  $k$ -coverings  $\{D_i: 0 \leq i \leq k\}$  are disjoint and together they exhaust the nodes of  $T$ ; hence, at least one of them has at most  $[n/(k+1)]$  nodes. This suffices to complete the proof of the theorem.

It is not difficult to construct trees for which equality holds in (4), (5), and (6) for all admissible values of  $k$  and  $n$ .

#### 4. A relation between $P_k$ and $C_k$ .

**THEOREM 6.** *If  $n \geq k+1$ , then*

$$(7) \quad P_k + kC_k \leq n.$$

*Proof.* If  $k=1$  this is the same as Theorem 1, so we shall assume henceforth that  $k \geq 2$ .

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote a  $k$ -packing of  $P_k$  nodes in  $T$ . If  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  let  $E(x) = \{u: u \in T \text{ and } d(u, x) = 1\}$ ; these sets are nonempty and disjoint when  $k \geq 2$  and no edge joins two nodes of the same set  $E(x)$ . Select one node  $u_x$  from each set  $E(x)$  and let  $R$  denote the graph obtained from  $T$  as follows: remove each node  $x$  of  $\mathcal{P}$  and all edges incident with  $x$ , and insert new edges joining each node  $u_x$  to each of the other nodes of  $E(x)$ . It is not difficult to see that  $R$  is a tree with  $n - P_k$  nodes.

If  $r$  and  $s$  are nodes in  $E(x)$  and  $E(y)$ , respectively, where  $x \neq$

$y$ , then  $d(r, s) \geq k - 1$ ; for, if  $d(r, s) \leq k - 2$  then  $d(x, y) \leq k$  and this would contradict the definition of  $\mathcal{S}$ . This implies the following observation:

(\*) If a path in  $R$  of length at most  $k - 1$  contains a new edge of the type  $ru_x$  where  $r \in E(x)$ , then the path does not contain any nodes of any other set  $E(y)$  where  $y \neq x$ .

Let  $\mathcal{C}$  denote any smallest  $(k - 1)$ -covering of  $R$ . We shall show that the nodes of  $\mathcal{C}$  constitute a  $k$ -covering of  $T$ . Let  $z$  denote any node of  $T$ . If  $z \notin \mathcal{S}$  then  $z \in R$  and there exists a node  $v \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $d(v, z) \leq k - 1$  in  $R$ . If there are no new edges in the path  $p(v, z)$  from  $v$  to  $z$  in  $R$  then all the edges of  $p(v, z)$  are in  $T$  and  $d(v, z) \leq k - 1$  in  $T$  also. If there is just one new edge in the path  $p(v, z)$  of the type  $ru_x$  where  $r \in E(x)$ , then  $d(v, z) \leq k$  in  $T$  since the edge  $ru_x$  can be replaced by the two edges  $rx$  and  $xu_x$  in  $T$ . If there is more than one new edge in the path  $p(v, z)$  then these new edges must all join pairs of nodes from the same set  $E(x)$ , in view of observation (\*). But all new edges of this type are incident with the node  $u_x$ . Hence, there can be only two such edges in  $p(v, z)$ , they must occur consecutively, and they must be of the form  $ru_x$  and  $u_x s$ . But then  $d(v, z) \leq k - 1$  in  $T$  also since the edges  $ru_x$  and  $u_x s$  in  $p(v, z)$  can be replaced by the edges  $rx$  and  $xs$  in  $T$ .

If  $z \in \mathcal{S}$  then there exist nodes  $r \in E(z)$  and  $v \in \mathcal{C}$  such that  $d(v, r) \leq k - 1$  in  $R$  and the path  $p(v, r)$  from  $v$  to  $r$  does not pass through any other nodes of  $E(z)$ . This path cannot contain any new edges by observation (\*). Hence,  $d(v, z) = d(v, r) + 1 \leq k$  in  $T$ , as required.

If  $n = k + 1$  then  $C_k = P_k = 1$  and inequality (7) certainly holds. If  $n \geq k + 2$ , it follows from Theorem 4 that  $n - P_k \geq k$ . Hence, when  $n \geq k + 2$ , we may apply Theorem 5 to the tree  $R$  and conclude that  $|\mathcal{C}| \leq (n - P_k)/k$ . Since  $C_k \leq |\mathcal{C}|$ , this implies that  $P_k + kC_k \leq n$ , as required.

We now show that inequality (7) is best possible when  $n = m(k + 1)$  for  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ . Let  $H$  denote the tree with  $n$  nodes constructed as follows: the  $n$  nodes are split into  $m$  sets of  $k + 1$  nodes each; a path of length  $k$  is formed on the nodes in each set; and, finally, the nodes at one end of these paths are joined so as to form a path of length  $m - 1$ . (The tree  $H$  arising when  $n = 20$  and  $k = 3$  is illustrated in Figure 2.) It is not difficult to verify that  $P_k + kC_k = m + km = n$  for the tree  $H$ . We leave it as an exercise for the reader to show that there exists a tree with  $n$  nodes for which  $C_k =$

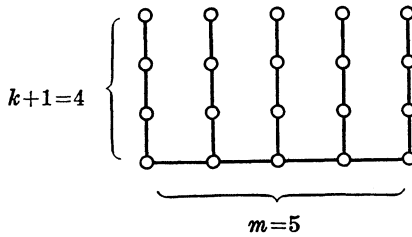


FIGURE 2

$[(n - P_k)/k]$  for arbitrary values of  $n$  and  $k$  such that  $n \geq k + 1$ .

No inequality of the type

$$(1 + \varepsilon)P_k + (k - \varepsilon)C_k \leq n ,$$

where  $\varepsilon$  is any positive constant, can be valid for all trees with sufficiently many nodes. To show this let  $J$  denote the tree with  $n = m(k + 1) + 1$  nodes formed by joining a new node to one of the nodes of  $H$  in the way illustrated in Figure 3 when  $n = 21$  and  $k = 3$ . It is easy to see that

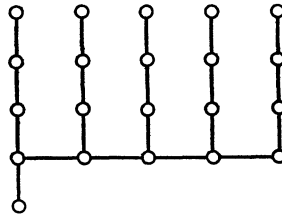


FIGURE 3

$$(1 + \varepsilon)P_k + (k - \varepsilon)C_k = (1 + \varepsilon)(m + 1) + (k - \varepsilon)m = n + \varepsilon$$

for the tree  $T$ . It might be of some interest to determine best possible upper bounds in terms of  $n$  for  $lP_k + (k + 1 - l)C_k$  when  $l > 1$ .

It might also be of some interest to determine best possible upper bounds in term of  $n$  for  $P_k + C_k$ . It follows from Theorems 4 and 6 that  $P_k + C_k \leq 3n/(k + 2)$  when  $k$  is even, but this is probably not best possible in general.

There does not seem to be any natural nontrivial analogue of Theorem 2 when  $k \geq 2$ , at least one that does not involve additional parameters or assumptions, since it is easy to construct trees for which  $P_k = C_k = 1$  when  $k \geq 2$ .

5. The equality of  $P_{2k}$  and  $C_k$ .



THEOREM 7. *If  $k \geq 1$ , then  $P_{2k} = C_k$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{P}$  denote a  $2k$ -packing consisting of  $P_{2k}$  nodes of the tree  $T$  and let  $\mathcal{C}$  denote a  $k$ -covering consisting of  $C_k$  nodes of  $T$ . It is easy to see that for each node  $x$  in  $\mathcal{C}$  the set  $N(x) = \{u: u \in T \text{ and } d(x, u) \leq k\}$  contains at most one node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}$ . Since every node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}$  belongs to at least one set  $N(x)$  it follows that  $P_{2k} \leq C_k$ . It remains to show that  $P_{2k} \geq C_k$ .

Let  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m\}$  denote the nodes of any longest path in the tree  $T$ . If  $m \leq 2k$ , then  $P_{2k} = C_k = 1$ ; so we may suppose that  $m \geq 2k + 1$ . Let  $T'$  denote the smallest subtree of  $T$  containing all nodes  $z$  of  $T$  such that  $d(x_k, z) > k$ ; that is,  $T'$  is the subtree determined by all nodes  $v$  of  $T$  such that either  $d(x_k, v) > k$  or there exists some node, say  $z_v$ , such that  $d(x_k, z_v) > k$  and the unique path joining  $z_v$  and  $x_m$  in  $T$  contains  $v$ . The subtree  $T'$  is nonempty since  $d(x_k, x_m) > k$ .

Let  $\mathcal{P}'$  denote a largest  $2k$ -packing consisting of  $P'_{2k}$  nodes of  $T'$  and let  $\mathcal{C}'$  denote a smallest  $k$ -covering consisting of  $C'_k$  nodes of  $T'$ . It is easy to see that  $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C}' \cup \{x_k\}$  is a  $k$ -covering of  $T$ ; consequently,

$$(8) \quad C_k \leq C'_k + 1.$$

Suppose there exists a node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}'$  such that  $d(x_k, y) \leq k$ . Let  $B_y$  denote the subtree of  $T'$  determined by all nodes  $s$  of  $T'$  such that the unique path from  $s$  to  $x_m$  contains  $y$ ; in particular, the node  $z_y$ , defined earlier, is in  $B_y$ . We assert that  $y$  is the only node of  $\mathcal{P}'$  in  $B_y$ . For, if there were a second such node, say  $w$ , then  $d(w, y) \geq 2k + 1$ ; this would imply that

$$\begin{aligned} d(w, x_m) &= d(w, y) + d(y, x_m) \geq 2k + 1 + d(x_k, x_m) - d(y, x_k) \\ &\geq 2k + 1 + m - k - k = m + 1, \end{aligned}$$

contradicting the assumption that  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m\}$  was a longest path in  $T$ .

The foregoing observations imply that we may replace each node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}'$  for which  $d(x_k, y) \leq k$  by a node  $z_y$  in  $T'$  for which  $d(x_k, z_y) > k$  and still have a  $2k$ -packing. We may thus suppose, without loss of generality, that  $d(x_k, y) > k$  for every node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}'$ ; this implies that  $d(x_0, y) > 2k$  for every node  $y$  in  $\mathcal{P}'$ . Thus the set  $\mathcal{P}' \cup \{x_0\}$  is a  $2k$ -packing of  $T$  and, consequently,

$$(9) \quad P_{2k} \geq P'_{2k} + 1.$$

The tree  $T'$  has fewer nodes than  $T$  so we may assume, as our

induction hypothesis, that

$$(10) \quad P'_{2k} \geq C'_k .$$

It now follows, by inequalities (8), (9), and (10) that  $P_{2k} \geq C_k$ , as required, and this completes the proof of the theorem.

Theorems 6 and 7 imply the following result.

**COROLLARY 3.** *If  $n \geq k + 1$ , then*

$$P_k + kP_{2k} \leq n ;$$

*if  $n > 2k + 1$ , then*

$$C_k + 2kC_{2k} \leq n .$$

We remark that in general these packing and covering sets are not identical; in particular, for arbitrary  $k$  it is easy to construct a tree none of whose largest  $2k$ -packings are smallest  $k$ -coverings. Furthermore, trees are not the only graphs  $G$  with the property that  $P_{2k}(G) = C_k(G)$  for all  $k$ . For example, any graph with a node joined to all the remaining nodes has this property. It seems difficult to characterize such graphs in general.

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