# Domination Mappings into the Hamming Ball: Existence, Constructions, and Algorithms 

Yeow Meng Chee<br>School of Physical and Mathematical Sciences<br>Nanyang Technological University<br>21 Nanyang Link, Singapore 637371<br>ymchee@ntu.edu.sg

Tuvi Etzion<br>Department of Computer Science<br>Technion - Israel Institute of Technology<br>Technion City, Haifa 32000, Israel<br>etzion@cs.technion.ac.il

Alexander Vardy<br>Department of Computer Science and Engineering<br>University of California San Diego<br>9500 Gilman Drive, La Jolla, CA 92093<br>avardy@ucsd.edu

July 12, 2018


#### Abstract

The Hamming ball of radius $w$ in $\{0,1\}^{n}$ is the set $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ of all binary words of length $n$ and Hamming weight at most $w$. We consider injective mappings $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$ with the following domination property: every position $j \in[n]$ is dominated by some position $i \in[m]$, in the sense that "switching off" position $i$ in $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ necessarily switches off position $j$ in its image $\varphi(\boldsymbol{x})$. This property may be described more precisely in terms of a bipartite domination graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ with no isolated vertices; for all $(i, j) \in E$ and all $x \in\{0,1\}^{m}$, we require that $x_{i}=0$ implies $y_{j}=0$, where $y=\varphi(\boldsymbol{x})$. Although such domination mappings recently found applications in the context of coding for highperformance interconnects, to the best of our knowledge, they were not previously studied.

In this paper, we begin with simple necessary conditions for the existence of an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$. We then provide several explicit constructions of such mappings, which show that the necessary conditions are also sufficient when $w=1$, when $w=2$ and $m$ is odd, or when $m \leqslant 3 w$. One of our main results herein is a proof that the trivial necessary condition $|\mathcal{B}(n, w)| \geqslant 2^{m}$ is, in fact, sufficient for the existence of an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping whenever $m$ is sufficiently large. We also present a polynomial-time algorithm that, given any $m, n$, and $w$, determines whether an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists for a domination graph with an equitable degree distribution.


## 1. Introduction

Given a binary word $\boldsymbol{y}=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$, the Hamming weight of $\boldsymbol{y}$ is the number of nonzero positions in $\boldsymbol{y}$. Explicitly, $\mathbf{w t}(\boldsymbol{y}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{j \in[n]: y_{j} \neq 0\right\}$. The Hamming ball of radius $w$ in $\{0,1\}^{n}$ is the set $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ of all words of weight at most $w$. Explicitly, $\mathcal{B}(n, w) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{\boldsymbol{y} \in\{0,1\}^{n}: \mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{y}) \leqslant w\right\}$. Given $m \leqslant n$, we are interested in injective mappings $\varphi$ from $\{0,1\}^{m}$ into $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ that establish a certain domination relationship between positions in $x \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ and positions in its image $y=\varphi(x)$. Specifically, one should be able to "switch off" every position $j \in[n]$ in $y$ (that is, ensure that $y_{j}=0$ ) by switching off a corresponding position $i \in[m]$ in $x$ (that is, setting $x_{i}=0$ ). More precisely, let $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ be a bipartite graph with $m$ left vertices and $n$ right vertices. If $G$ has no isolated right vertices, we refer to $G$ as a domination graph.

Definition 1. Given an injective map $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$ and a graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$, we say that $\varphi$ is a G-domination mapping, or G-dominating in brief, if

$$
\begin{aligned}
\forall\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right) & \in\{0,1\}^{m}, \forall(i, j) \in E: \\
& \text { if } \varphi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right) \text { and } x_{i}=0, \text { then } y_{j}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

We say that $\varphi$ is an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping if there exists a domination graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$, with no isolated right vertices, such that $\varphi$ is G-dominating.

Example 1. Let $m=3, n=4, w=2$, and consider the injective map $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{3} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(4,2)$ given by

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
\varphi(000)=0000 & \varphi(010)=0010 & \varphi(100)=0100 & \varphi(110)=1000  \tag{1}\\
\varphi(001)=0001 & \varphi(011)=0011 & \varphi(101)=0101 & \varphi(111)=1001
\end{array}
$$

It is easy to verify by inspection that $\varphi$ is $G$-dominating, where $G=([3] \cup[4], E)$ can be chosen as any one of the following three domination graphs:


Note that the requirement of no isolated right vertices in Definition 1 means that every position $j \in[n]$ in the image of $\varphi$ is dominated by some position $i \in[\mathrm{~m}]$ of its domain. This is motivated by the application to thermal-management coding for high-performance interconnects [2,3], briefly described in what follows.

### 1.1. Applications to coding for interconnects

Given an interconnect (bus) consisting of $n$ wires, it is desirable to control its average power consumption. This can be achieved by making sure that, during each synchronized transmission, the total number of transitions on the $n$ wires is below a specified threshold $w$. As shown in [2], the above translates directly into the requirement that the transmitted binary word $y$ is in the Hamming ball $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$. It is also desirable to control the peak temperature of an interconnect by effectively cooling its hottest wires. That is, given an arbitrary subset $S$ of $[n]$, which corresponds to the positions of the hottest wires, we wish to transmit a word $\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ such that $y_{j}=0$ for all $j \in S$. The cooling codes of [2] provide an elegant solution to this problem using spreads or partial spreads [4, 12]. Domination mappings were introduced in [3] in order to simultaneously achieve both of these desirable properties. Given a subset $S$ of $[n]$, one can follow the edges of
the domination graph $G$ to find a subset $S^{\prime}$ of $[m]$ so that every position in $S$ is dominated by some position in $S^{\prime}$. Then, using spreads as described in [2], one can produce a binary word $\boldsymbol{x}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right)$ such that $x_{i}=0$ for all $i \in S^{\prime}$. If $\varphi$ is a $G$-dominating mapping from $\{0,1\}^{m}$ into $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$, the transmitted word $\boldsymbol{y}=\varphi(\boldsymbol{x})$ satisfies $\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{y}) \leqslant w$ and $y_{j}=0$ for all $j \in S$. Since $\varphi$ is injective, $\boldsymbol{x}$ can be recovered from $\boldsymbol{y}$ at the receiver. For more details on this encoding/decoding procedure, we refer the reader to [2,3].

In the context of coding for high-performance interconnects, the parameters $m$ and $w$ would be usually given, and one would like to use an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping with the lowest possible $n$, in order to minimize the redundancy $n-m$ of the encoding procedure. We note that although domination mappings were defined in [3], they were not studied therein. In particular, it is not clear when such mappings exist.

### 1.2. Our contributions

Our primary objective in this paper is to answer the following question: for which parameters $m, n, w$, do ( $m, n, w)$-domination mapping exist? A secondary objective is to study the structure of such mappings and provide explicit constructions for them. We believe that, aside from their applications to coding for interconnects, these problems are also interesting in their own right, from the combinatorial perspective.

One of our main results is the following theorem, which shows that if the domain $\{0,1\}^{m}$ is sufficiently large with respect to $w$, then domination mappings always exist.
Theorem 1. For every $w \geqslant 1$, there is a constant $m_{0}(w)$ with the following property: for all $m \geqslant m_{0}(w)$, if $|\mathcal{B}(n, w)| \geqslant 2^{m}$, then an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists.

Thus, for sufficiently large $m$, whenever injections from $\{0,1\}^{m}$ into $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ exist at all, one of these injections is necessarily an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping. This is somewhat surprising; it is certainly not true for small $m$. To prove Theorem 1 , we introduce a certain bipartite graph with vertex set $\{0,1\}^{m} \cup \mathcal{B}(n, w)$, which we call the compatibility graph. We then use Hall's marriage theorem [5] to show that the compatibility graph has a perfect matching, when $m$ is sufficiently large. The fact that the conditions of Hall's marriage theorem are satisfied in this graph is established in a long and elaborate sequence of lemmas in Section6.

The other contributions in this paper are organized as follows. We begin in the next section by establishing some basic properties of domination graphs and domination mappings. In particular, we consider certain restrictions of a domination mapping $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$ to a subset of the $m$ positions of its domain. We will show that all such restrictions are also domination mappings. In Section 3 , we use some of these results to derive necessary conditions for the existence of an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping. In particular, we show that $n \geqslant 2 m-w$ in any such mapping. In Section 4 , we present several explicit constructions of domination mappings. In particular, we introduce the product construction; given any two ( $m_{1}, n_{1}, w_{1}$ )-domination and $\left(m_{2}, n_{2}, w_{2}\right)$-domination mappings, this construction produces an $\left(m_{1}+m_{2}, n_{1}+n_{2}, w_{1}+w_{2}\right)$-domination mapping. We also construct perfect $(m, n, 1)$-domination mappings with $n=2^{m}-1$, so that $|\mathcal{B}(n, 1)|=2^{m}$ and $\varphi$ is a bijection. We furthermore describe another construction for $w=2$ and $m$ odd; it appears that already in this case, the construction problem is far from trivial. In Section 5 , we present a polynomial-time algorithm that, given any $m, n$, and $w$, determines whether an ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping exists for a domination graph $G$ with an equitable degree distribution (that is, the degree of all the left vertices in $G$ is either $\lfloor n / m\rfloor$ or $\lceil n / m\rceil$ ). To this end, we apply the König-Egeváry theorem [7] to the bipartite compatibility graph in order to conclude that the maximum matching and the maximum fractional matching in this graph have the same size. This leads to a linear program with an exponential number of variables, but we use symmetries of the compatibility graph to show that this problem can be solved in polynomial time.

One consequence of our constructions in Section4 is that the necessary conditions in Section 3 are also sufficient for all $m \leqslant 3 w$. This resolves the existence problem for $(m, n, w)$-domination mappings for small
values of $m$. As a consequence of Theorem 1 , this problem is also resolved for large $m$. For intermediate values of $m$, we can determine whether an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists in polynomial time using the algorithm of Section 5 - albeit only for an equitable domination graph. We believe, however, that the decision produced by the polynomial-time algorithm of Section 5 holds unconditionally (cf. Conjecture 1 .

## 2. Basic Properties of Domination Mappings

We begin with some basic properties and notation for domination graphs. Recall that, by definition, a domination graph is a bipartite graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ with no isolated vertices on the right side of the bipartition. The following lemma shows that $G$ cannot have isolated vertices on the left side either.

Lemma 2. Let $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ be a domination graph. If there is a vertex of degree zero in $[m]$, then a G-domination mapping does not exist.

Proof. Assume to the contrary that $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$ is a $G$-domination mapping. Since every position in $[n]$ is dominated by some position in $[m]$, we have $\varphi(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}$, where $\mathbf{0}$ denotes the all-zero word of the appropriate length. Suppose that the vertex $i \in[m]$ has degree zero, and let $\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ be the word of weight one with the single nonzero in position $i$. Then $\varphi\left(\boldsymbol{e}_{i}\right)=\mathbf{0}$ since if $\operatorname{deg}(i)=0$, every position in $[n]$ is dominated by a position in $[m]$ other than $i$. Thus $\varphi\left(\boldsymbol{e}_{i}\right)=\varphi(\mathbf{0})$, contradicting the fact that $\varphi$ is injective.

In view of Lemma2, we henceforth assume w.l.o.g. that the degree of every vertex in a domination graph is at least one. In fact, we can furthermore assume that the degree of all the vertices on the right side of the bipartition is exactly one. Indeed, let $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ be a domination graph, let $\varphi$ be a $G$-domination mapping, and suppose that a vertex $j \in[n]$ has degree $\delta>1$. We construct $G^{\prime}$ from $G$ by removing, arbitrarily, some $\delta-1$ of the $\delta$ edges incident upon $j$. Then, obviously, $\varphi$ is $G^{\prime}$-dominating as well (cf. Example 1 ). It follows that any $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping is $G$-dominating for some graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ with $n$ edges and $\operatorname{deg}(j)=1$ for all $j \in[n]$. Up to a permutation of $[n]$, any such domination graph $G$ is uniquely described by the degrees $\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \ldots, \delta_{m}$ of its left vertices. We say that $\left(\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \ldots, \delta_{m}\right)$ is the degree sequence $\boldsymbol{o f} G$, and further assume (w.l.o.g., up to a permutation of $[m]$ ) that $\delta_{1} \leqslant \delta_{2} \leqslant \cdots \leqslant \delta_{m}$. With this assumption, a domination graph $G$ can be also specified in terms of its degree distribution $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{\Delta}\right)$, where $d_{i}$ is the number of left vertices of degree $i$ and $\Delta \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max \left\{\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \ldots, \delta_{m}\right\}$. Clearly,

$$
\begin{equation*}
d_{1}+d_{2}+\cdots+d_{\Delta}=m \quad \text { and } \quad d_{1}+2 d_{2}+\cdots+\Delta d_{\Delta}=n \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

A domination graph is said to be equitable if $\lfloor n / m\rfloor=\delta_{1} \leqslant \delta_{2} \leqslant \cdots \leqslant \delta_{m}=\lceil n / m\rceil$. Equitable domination graphs play an important role in the study of domination mappings. In fact, we conjecture as follows.

Conjecture 1. An $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists if and only if there exists a mapping from $\{0,1\}^{m}$ to $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ that is $G$-dominating for an equitable graph $G$.

We now consider certain basic properties of $(m, n, w)$-domination mappings. The following easy lemma shows that the existence problem for such mappings is "monotonic" in both $n$ and $w$.

Lemma 3. If an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists, then there also exist an $(m, n+1, w)$-domination mapping and an $(m, n, w+1)$-domination mapping.

Proof. Given an $(m, n, w)$-domination map $\varphi$, we construct an injective map $\varphi^{\prime}:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n+1, w)$ as follows: $\varphi^{\prime}(\boldsymbol{x})=(\varphi(\boldsymbol{x}), 0)$, where $(\cdot, \cdot)$ stands for string concatenation. Clearly, $\varphi^{\prime}$ is an $(m, n+1, w)$ domination mapping. The other claim follows trivially from the fact that $\mathcal{B}(n, w) \subseteq \mathcal{B}(n, w+1)$.

We next show that every $G$-domination mapping gives rise to a multitude of derived domination mappings corresponding to subgraphs of $G$ induced by subsets of $[m]$.

Lemma 4. Let $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$ be a $G$-domination mapping. Fix an arbitrary left vertex $i$ of $G$, and let $G^{\prime}$ be the induced subgraph of $G$ obtained by removing $i$ and all vertices adjacent to $i$. Then $\varphi$ induces a $G^{\prime}$-domination mapping $\varphi^{\prime}$ from $\{0,1\}^{m-1}$ to $\mathcal{B}(n-\delta, w)$, where $\delta=\operatorname{deg}(i)$.

Proof. The mapping $\varphi^{\prime}:\{0,1\}^{m-1} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n-\delta, w)$ is derived from $\varphi$ as follows. Given an arbitrary word $x^{\prime}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m-1}\right)$ in $\{0,1\}^{m-1}$, we first extend it to $\boldsymbol{x}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{i-1}, 0, x_{i}, \ldots, x_{m-1}\right) \in\{0,1\}^{m}$. Let $\{j, j+1, \ldots, j+\delta-1\} \in[n]$ be the set of positions dominated by the vertex $i$ (where we have assumed w.l.o.g. that these positions are consecutive). Then $\boldsymbol{y}=\varphi(\boldsymbol{x})$ is of the form

$$
\boldsymbol{y}=(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{j-1}, \underbrace{0,0, \ldots, 0}_{\delta \text { zeros }}, y_{j+\delta}, \ldots, y_{n}),
$$

and we set $\varphi^{\prime}\left(x^{\prime}\right)=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{j-1}, y_{j+\delta}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$. It is easy to see that the mapping $\varphi^{\prime}$ thereby defined is an injection from $\{0,1\}^{m-1}$ to $\mathcal{B}(n-\delta, w)$, and $\varphi^{\prime}$ is $G^{\prime}$-dominating.

The construction of the derived mapping $\varphi^{\prime}$ in Lemma4 4 is akin to the process of shortening linear codes in coding theory [ 8$]$. We restrict both the domain and the range of $\varphi$ to subsets thereof consisting of those words that contain zeros in specified positions, then puncture out these all-zero positions to obtain $\varphi^{\prime}$. Iterating this construction, a single ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping gives rise to $2^{m}$ derived domination mappings (some of which may be isomorphic or trivial) corresponding to all subsets of $[\mathrm{m}]$.

An immediate consequence of Lemma 4 is that the existence problem for domination mappings is also monotonic in $m$. That is, for all $m \geqslant 2$, if an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists, we can use Lemma4 (in conjunction with Lemma 3 ) to construct an $(m-1, n, w)$-domination mapping. In view of this monotonicity, it is natural to define the following parameters:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mu(n, w) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max \{m \in \mathbb{Z}: \text { an }(m, n, w) \text {-domination mapping exists }\} \\
& \nu(m, w) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \min \{n \in \mathbb{Z}: \text { an }(m, n, w) \text {-domination mapping exists }\}
\end{aligned}
$$

We say that an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping is optimal if $n=\nu(m, w)$. We next discuss necessary conditions for the existence of an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping, which can be regarded as bounds on $\nu(m, w)$.

## 3. Necessary Conditions

An $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping is injective by definition, so the size of its domain $\{0,1\}^{m}$ cannot exceed the size of its range $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$. While trivial, this necessary condition is fundamental; we state it as follows.

Lemma 5. For any ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{m} \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{n}{j} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In conjunction with the shortening procedure in Lemma4, the trivial necessary condition of Lemma5 5 leads to a considerably more elaborate bound on the parameters of an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping.

Lemma 6. Let $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ be a domination graph with degree distribution $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{\Delta}\right)$. Then for any $G$-domination mapping $\varphi:\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}(n, w)$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \leqslant \min _{t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{\Delta}}\left\{\left(t_{1}+t_{2}+\cdots+t_{\Delta}\right)+\log _{2} \sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{n-t_{1}-2 t_{2}-\cdots-\Delta t_{\Delta}}{j}\right\} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the minimum is taken over all nonnegative integers $t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{\Delta}$ with $t_{i} \leqslant d_{i}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, \Delta$.
Proof. Given $t_{1}, t_{2}, \ldots, t_{\Delta}$, we invoke Lemma 4 iteratively to obtain a domination graph $G^{\prime}$ with degree distribution $\left(d_{1}-t_{1}, d_{2}-t_{2}, \ldots, d_{\Delta}-t_{\Delta}\right)$ and a $G^{\prime}$-domination mapping $\varphi^{\prime}$ with parameters ( $\left.m^{\prime}, n^{\prime}, w\right)$, where $m^{\prime}=m-\left(t_{1}+t_{2}+\cdots+t_{\Delta}\right)$ and $n^{\prime}=n-t_{1}-2 t_{2}-\cdots-\Delta t_{\Delta}$. Applying Lemma5 5 to $\varphi^{\prime}$ establishes (5).

Observe that the minimization in (5) can be reduced to the minimum of at most $m$ terms, parametrized by $s=t_{1}+t_{2}+\cdots+t_{\Delta}$ with $s \leqslant m-1$. The following lemma is an important special case of Lemma6. This lemma shows, in particular, that the trivial necessary condition of Lemma[5is, in general, not sufficient.

Lemma 7. For any ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping, we have $n \geqslant 2 m-w$.
Proof. Set $t_{1}=0$ and $t_{i}=d_{i}$ for $i=2,3, \ldots, \Delta$ in Lemma6. Then $n-t_{1}-2 t_{2}-\cdots-\Delta t_{\Delta}=d_{1}$ while $t_{1}+t_{2}+\cdots+t_{\Delta}=m-d_{1}$ in view of (3), and the bound in (5) reduces to

$$
d_{1} \leqslant \log _{2} \sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{d_{1}}{j}
$$

This is only possible if $w \geqslant d_{1}$. Now, again in view of (3), we have $n \geqslant d_{1}+2\left(d_{2}+\cdots+d_{\Delta}\right)=2 m-d_{1}$, and the lemma follows.

The bounds on $\nu(m, w)$ resulting from Lemma 5 and Lemma 7 are illustrated in Figure 1 for $w=3$, and we can see that neither of them implies the other. In fact, for all $w$, it can be readily shown that Lemma 7 is tighter than Lemma 5 whenever $w<m \leqslant 3 w$, whereas Lemma 5 is tighter when $m$ is large.

We next investigate the conditions under which equality can hold in the bounds of Lemma 5 and Lemma 7 . A domination mapping that establishes a bijection between $\{0,1\}^{m}$ and $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ will be called perfect; clearly an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping is perfect if and only if its parameters satisfy $2^{m}=\sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{n}{j}$. There are only four known cases where (an incomplete) sum of binomial coefficients gives a power of 2 . The ( $m, n, w$ ) triples for these four cases are given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
(m, m+1, m / 2) \text { for } m \text { even, } \quad\left(m, 2^{m}-1,1\right), \quad(12,90,2), \quad(11,23,3) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

All these cases were discovered in the context of perfect error-correcting codes [6, 11] in the 1960s, and none were found since. It is well known that perfect binary codes - that is, partitions of $\{0,1\}^{n}$ into translates of the Hamming ball $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$ - exist in only three of the four cases (it is not possible to partition $\{0,1\}^{90}$ into Hamming balls). Remarkably, we have found perfect domination mappings for each of the four triples listed in (6). The first set of parameters is attained for $m=2$ by the ( $2,3,1$ )-domination mapping with degree sequence ( 1,2 ), given by

$$
\varphi(00)=000, \quad \varphi(01)=010, \quad \varphi(10)=100, \quad \varphi(11)=001
$$

By Lemma 7, there are no $(m, m+1, m / 2)$-domination mappings for $m \geqslant 4$. In Section 4.2 , we explicitly construct perfect ( $m, 2^{m}-1,1$ )-domination mappings for all $m \geqslant 1$. Finally, perfect domination mappings with parameters $(12,90,2)$ and $(11,23,3)$ were found by computer search using the methods of Section 5 .


Figure 1. Bounds, constructions, and existence of $(m, n, w)$-domination mappings for $w=3$.

In contrast to equality in (4), which is quite rare, equality in Lemma7] can be achieved much more easily. The next lemma gives necessary and sufficient conditions for this.

Lemma 8. Let $\varphi$ be an $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping. Then $n=2 m-w$ if and only if the degree distribution of the underlying domination graph is $d_{1}=w, d_{2}=m-w$, and $d_{i}=0$ for $i \geqslant 2$.

Proof. It suffices to show that the conditions on the degree distribution are necessary, since the fact that they are sufficient is trivial from (3). Suppose $n=2 m-w$. Then (3) implies that

$$
2 m-w \geqslant d_{1}+2 d_{2}+3\left(d_{3}+d_{4}+\cdots+d_{\Delta}\right)=d_{1}+2 d_{2}+3\left(m-d_{1}-d_{2}\right)=3 m-2 d_{1}-d_{2}
$$

which simplifies to $2 d_{1}+d_{2} \geqslant m+w$. Now, it follows from (the proof of) Lemma 7 that $d_{1} \leqslant w$ in any ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping. Hence $2 d_{1}+d_{2} \geqslant m+w$ further implies $d_{1}+d_{2} \geqslant m$. But this is only possible if $d_{1}+d_{2}=m$ and $d_{3}+d_{4}+\cdots+d_{\Delta}=0$. Finally, if $d_{1}<w$, then $n \geqslant 2 m-d_{1}>2 m-w$.

In the next section, for all $m$ in the range $w \leqslant m \leqslant 3 w$, we present an explicit construction of domination mappings whose degree distribution satisfies the conditions of Lemma 8 . By Lemma 7, such mappings are optimal, and therefore $\nu(m, w)=2 m-w$ when $w \leqslant m \leqslant 3 w$ and $w \geqslant 3$.

Finally, we note that the case $m \leqslant w$ is trivial. In this case, Lemma5 reduces to $n \geqslant m$. Thus $\nu(m, w)=m$ and the optimal $(m, m, w)$-domination mapping is the identity map from $\{0,1\}^{m}$ to itself.

## 4. Constructions

In this section, we present several explicit constructions of (optimal) domination mappings. These results are distinct from our results in Sections 5 and 6 , which are concerned solely with the existence of such mappings.

### 4.1. Product construction

We begin with a simple and effective recursive construction that combines any two domination mappings $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ to produce another domination mapping $\varphi$. Notably, if the mappings $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ attain the bound of Lemma7, then so does the mapping $\varphi$ obtained from this construction.

Let $\varphi_{1}:\{0,1\}^{m_{1}} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}\left(n_{1}, w_{1}\right)$ and $\varphi_{2}:\{0,1\}^{m_{2}} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}\left(n_{2}, w_{2}\right)$ be arbitrary domination mappings. Then their product $\varphi=\varphi_{1} \times \varphi_{2}$ is a mapping from $\{0,1\}^{m_{1}+m_{2}}$ into $\mathcal{B}\left(n_{1}+n_{2}, w_{1}+w_{2}\right)$ defined as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\left(\varphi_{1}\left(x_{1}\right), \varphi_{2}\left(x_{2}\right)\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $x_{1} \in\{0,1\}^{m_{1}}, x_{2} \in\{0,1\}^{m_{2}}$, and $(\cdot, \cdot)$ stands for string concatenation. That is, in order to find the image of a word $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{0,1\}^{m_{1}+m_{2}}$ under $\varphi$, we first parse $\boldsymbol{x}$ as $\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{2}\right)$, then apply $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ to the two parts.
Theorem 9. If $\varphi_{1}$ is an ( $m_{1}, n_{1}, w_{1}$ )-domination mapping and $\varphi_{2}$ is an ( $m_{2}, n_{2}, w_{2}$ )-domination mapping, then their product $\varphi=\varphi_{1} \times \varphi_{2}$ is an ( $m_{1}+m_{2}, n_{1}+n_{2}, w_{1}+w_{2}$ )-domination mapping.

Proof. The parameters of $\varphi$ and the fact that $\varphi$ is injective are obvious from (7). Thus it remains to show that every position $j \in\left[n_{1}+n_{2}\right]$ is dominated by some position $i \in\left[m_{1}+m_{2}\right]$. But this is easy. Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be the domination graphs for $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$, respectively. If $j \leqslant n_{1}$, we follow the corresponding edge of $G_{1}$ to find $i$. If $j>n_{1}$, we follow the edge of $G_{2}$ that corresponds to $j-n_{1}$ to find $i^{*}$, then set $i=i^{*}+m_{1}$.

Observe that the proof of Theorem 9 relates the degree distribution $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{\Delta}\right)$ of (the domination graph for) the product $\varphi=\varphi_{1} \times \varphi_{2}$ to the degree distributions $\left(d_{1}^{\prime}, d_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, d_{\Delta^{\prime}}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(d_{1}^{*}, d_{2}^{*}, \ldots, d_{\Delta^{*}}^{*}\right)$ of the constituent mappings $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$. Clearly $\Delta=\max \left\{\Delta^{\prime}, \Delta^{*}\right\}$ and $d_{i}=d_{i}^{\prime}+d_{i}^{*}$ for all $i$.
Corollary 10. For all $w \geqslant 3$, the product construction yields $a(3 w, 5 w, w)$-domination mapping.
Proof. Using computer search, we found domination mappings $\varphi_{3}, \varphi_{4}$, and $\varphi_{5}$ with parameters $(9,15,3)$, $(12,20,4)$, and $(15,25,5)$, respectively. Since any $w \geqslant 3$ is an integer linear combination of 3,4 , and 5 , a $(3 w, 5 w, w)$-domination mapping can be constructed as the appropriate product of $\varphi_{3}, \varphi_{4}$, and $\varphi_{5}$.

## Theorem 11.

$$
\nu(m, w)=2 m-w \quad \text { for all } w \geqslant 3 \text { and } w \leqslant m \leqslant 3 w
$$

Proof. In view of Lemma7, it suffices to show that an $(m, 2 m-w, w)$-domination mapping exists for the specified ranges of $m$ and $w$. We begin with the $(3 w, 5 w, w)$ mapping constructed in Corollary 10 . Note that the degree distribution of this mapping is $(w, 2 w)$ by Lemma 8 . Thus for all $i=1,2, \ldots, 2 w$, we can invoke Lemma 4 to remove $i$ vertices of degree 2 , thereby producing a ( $3 w-i, 5 w-2 i, w$ )-domination mapping.

We observe that optimal domination mappings that attain the bound of Lemma 7 also exist beyond the $m=3 w$ threshold. For example, there exists an optimal ( $13,22,4$ )-domination mapping with degree distribution $(4,9)$. Taking this mapping as both $\varphi_{1}$ and $\varphi_{2}$ in the product construction, we obtain a $(26,44,8)$ domination mapping with degree distribution $(8,18)$. This mapping is again optimal by Lemma 8 .

The product construction further implies the following immediate upper bound on $\nu(m, w)$.
Lemma 12. If $\nu\left(m_{1}, w_{1}\right) \leqslant n_{1}$ and $\nu\left(m_{2}, w_{2}\right) \leqslant n_{2}$, then $\nu\left(m_{1}+m_{2}, w_{1}+w_{2}\right) \leqslant n_{1}+n_{2}$.

Using Lemma 12, we can find an upper bound on $\nu(m, w)$ for all admissible parameters. We can write $m=m_{1}+m_{2}$ and $w=w_{1}+w_{2}$ and use the related upper bounds on $\nu\left(m_{1}, w_{1}\right)$ and $\nu\left(m_{2}, w_{2}\right)$ and apply Lemma 12. Hence, we can obtain recursively upper bounds on $\nu(m, w)$ for any triple $(m, n, w)$.

### 4.2. Domination mappings into the Hamming ball of small radius

Perfect domination mappings for $w=1$ are easily constructed. By Lemma5 , we have $\nu(m, 1) \geqslant 2^{m}-1$ for $w=1$. For a given $m \geqslant 1$, we will construct a perfect $\left(m, 2^{m}-1,1\right)$-domination mapping with degree sequence $\left(\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \ldots, \delta_{m}\right)$, where $\delta_{i}=2^{i}$ for all $i$. It should be noted that we can shorten this domination mapping to obtain a perfect $\left(m^{\prime}, 2^{m^{\prime}}-1,1\right)$-domination mapping for any $m^{\prime}<m$. The ( $m, 2^{m}-1,1$ )domination mapping $\varphi$ is quite simple; in fact, many such mappings exist. Clearly, $\varphi(\mathbf{0})=\mathbf{0}$. Now, for an integer $j \in\left[2^{m}-1\right]$, let $\boldsymbol{b}(j)$ be the binary word of length $m$ which forms the binary representation of $j$. We then define $\varphi(\boldsymbol{b}(j))=\boldsymbol{y}$, where $\boldsymbol{y}$ is the binary word of length $2^{m}-1$ and weight one, with the single nonzero in its $j$-th position. The proof of correctness for this construction can be given by induction on $m$ or a related argument. This is summarized with the following theorem.

Theorem 13. There exists a perfect $\left(m, 2^{m}-1,1\right)$-domination mapping for all $m \geqslant 1$. Hence $\nu(m, 1)=$ $2^{m}-1$ and $\mu(n, 1)=\left\lceil\log _{2}(n+1)\right\rceil$.

A construction of domination mappings for $w=2$ is given in Appendix A.2. This construction attains the bound of Lemma 5 when $m$ is odd. In fact, using these results and Section 6 , we determine $\nu(m, 2)$ for all $m$.

## 5. Polynomial-Time Algorithm

In this section, we present a polynomial-time algorithm that, given any $m, n$, and $w$, determines whether an ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping exists for a domination graph $G$ with an equitable degree distribution. To do so, we introduce a certain bipartite graph associated to $G$, which we call the compatibility graph.

Definition 2. Given a domination graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$, the compatibility graph defined by $G$ is the bipartite graph whose vertex set is $\{0,1\}^{m} \cup \mathcal{B}(n, w)$. There is an edge from $\boldsymbol{x} \in\{0,1\}^{m}$ to $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{B}(n, w)$ if and only if for $(i, j) \in E$, we have that $x_{i}=0$ implies $y_{j}=0$.

Fix a domination graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$. For brevity, we write $\mathcal{S} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\{0,1\}^{m}$ and $\mathcal{R} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \mathcal{B}(n, w)$. Also, for $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{R}$, we say that $x$ dominates $\boldsymbol{y}$ if and only if for $(i, j) \in E$, we have that $x_{i}=0$ implies $y_{j}=0$. Hence, the compatibility graph defined by $G$ has vertex set $\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}$ and $x \in \mathcal{S}$ is adjacent to $y \in \mathcal{R}$ if and only if $x$ dominates $y$. The next theorem states that the existence of a $G$-domination mapping is equivalent to a certain graph theoretic property of the compatibility graph defined by $G$.

Theorem 14. Let $H$ be the compatibility graph defined by domination graph $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$. There exists a $G$-domination mapping if and only if there exists a subgraph of $H$ such the degree of each vertex in $\mathcal{S}$ is exactly one and the degree of each vertex in $\mathcal{R}$ is at most one.

Proof. Let $\varphi: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ be a $G$-dominating mapping. We define the subgraph $H^{\prime}=\left(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}, E^{\prime}\right)$ where $E^{\prime}=\{(x, \varphi(x)): x \in \mathcal{S}\}$. Since $x$ dominates $\varphi(x), H^{\prime}$ is a subgraph of $H$. Clearly, the degree of every vertex in $\mathcal{S}$ is exactly one. Since $\varphi$ is an injection, the degree of every vertex in $\mathcal{R}$ is at most one.

Conversely, suppose that there exists such a subgraph $H^{\prime}=\left(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}, E^{\prime}\right)$. For each $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{S}$, define $\varphi(\boldsymbol{x})$ to be the unique vertex in $\mathcal{R}$ adjacent to $x$. Then it is readily verified that $\varphi$ is a $G$-domination mapping.

Therefore, following Theorem 14, our task is reduced to determining the existence of a perfect matching in the bipartite compatibility graph defined by G. To this end, we recall the famous König-Egeváry theorem [7] for general graphs. Let $\mathcal{G}=(V, E)$ be a graph and we define the following quantities via certain integer optimization problems.

$$
\begin{align*}
& M(\mathcal{G}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max \left\{\sum_{e \in E} X_{e}: X_{e} \in\{0,1\} \text { for all } e \in E, \sum_{e \text { incident to } v} X_{e} \leqslant 1 \text { for all } v \in V\right\},  \tag{8}\\
& C(\mathcal{G}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \min \left\{\sum_{v \in V} Y_{v}: Y_{v} \in\{0,1\} \text { for all } v \in V, \sum_{v \text { incident to } e} Y_{v} \geqslant 1 \text { for all } e \in E\right\} . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Then $M(\mathcal{G})$ and $C(\mathcal{G})$ correspond to the sizes of the maximum matching and minimum vertex cover, respectively. Via weak duality, we have that $M(G) \leqslant C(G)$. Next, we consider the relaxed or fractional versions of the optimization problems.

$$
\begin{align*}
& M^{*}(\mathcal{G}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max \left\{\sum_{e \in E} X_{e}: 0 \leqslant X_{e} \leqslant 1 \text { for all } e \in E, \sum_{e \text { incident to } v} X_{e} \leqslant 1 \text { for all } v \in V\right\}  \tag{10}\\
& C^{*}(\mathcal{G}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \min \left\{\sum_{v \in V} Y_{v}: 0 \leqslant Y_{v} \leqslant 1 \text { for all } v \in V, \sum_{v \text { incident to } e} Y_{v} \geqslant 1 \text { for all } e \in E\right\} \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

We refer to $M^{*}(\mathcal{G})$ and $C^{*}(\mathcal{G})$ as the maximum fractional matching and minimum fractional vertex cover, respectively. Then we have the following inequality, $M(\mathcal{G}) \leqslant M^{*}(\mathcal{G}) \leqslant C^{*}(\mathcal{G}) \leqslant C(\mathcal{G})$.

For bipartite graphs, König-Egeváry theorem [7] states that $M(G)=C(G)$. In other words, the maximum matching and the maximum fractional matching in a bipartite graph have the same size. Specifically,

$$
M(\mathcal{G})=M^{*}(\mathcal{G})=C^{*}(\mathcal{G})=C(\mathcal{G})
$$

### 5.1. Maximum matching in compatibility graphs

Recall that the vertex set in our compatibility graph is $V=\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}$ while the edge set is $E=\{(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \in$ $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}: u$ dominates $\boldsymbol{v}\}$. Then the size of maximum matching is given by the following linear program

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max \left\{\sum_{e \in E} X_{e}: A X \leqslant 1, X \geqslant 0\right\} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A$ is a matrix whose rows are indexed by $V$ and columns are indexed by $E$. Here, $A(v, e)=1$ if $v$ is incident to $e$, and $A(v, e)=0$, otherwise.

Example 1. Set $m=2, n=4$, and $w=1$. Then $\mathcal{R}=\{00,01,10,11\}$ and $\mathcal{S}=\{0000,0001,0010,0100,1000\}$. Here, $V=\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}$, and $E=\left\{e_{i}: i \in[12]\right\}$, where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
e_{1} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(00,0000), \\
e_{2} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(01,0000), & e_{3} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(01,0001), \\
e_{4} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(01,0010) \\
e_{5} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(10,0000), & e_{6} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(10,0100), \\
e_{7} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(10,1000) \\
e_{8} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(11,0000), & e_{9} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(11,0001), \\
e_{10} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(11,0010), \quad e_{11} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(11,0100), \quad e_{12} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}(11,1000) .
\end{array}
$$

Then the matrix $A$ is given by

$$
\boldsymbol{A}=\left(\begin{array}{llllllllllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

Set

$$
X=\left(1,0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}\right)
$$

We check that $\boldsymbol{X}$ is indeed a feasible vector whose objective value is four. Since the size of a matching in the compatibility graph is at most four, we find that size of maximum matching in this graph is four.

Unfortunately, the number of variables in the program (12) is given by $|E|=\Theta\left(2^{2 m-1}\right)$ when $m \geqslant 2 w$. Indeed, for $\boldsymbol{u} \in\{0,1\}^{m}$, when $\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u}) \geqslant w, \boldsymbol{u}$ dominates all words in $\mathcal{B}(n, w)$. Since $|\mathcal{R}|=|\mathcal{B}(n, w)| \geqslant$ $\left|\{0,1\}^{m}\right|=2^{m}$, we have that $|E| \geqslant\left(\sum_{j=w}^{m}\binom{m}{j}\right)|\mathcal{R}| \geqslant 2^{m-1} \cdot 2^{m}=2^{2 m-1}$. In other words, to determine the existence of a mapping by solving this linear programme requires time exponential in $m$. In what follows, we reduce the running time to polynomial in $m$ and $w$.

In do so, we notice that many entries in the optimal solution of Example 1 are identical. This hints that we may reduce the number of variables in the program and we do so by exploiting certain symmetries of the linear program.

### 5.2. Symmetries of the linear program

Let $M$ and $N$ be integers and let $A$ be an $M \times N$ matrix. Consider a linear program of the form

$$
\max \left\{\sum_{i \in[N]} x_{i}: A \boldsymbol{x} \leqslant \mathbf{1}, \boldsymbol{x} \geqslant \mathbf{0}\right\}
$$

Let $\pi:[N] \rightarrow[N]$ be a permutation on the set of $N$ variables. For any vector $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$, let $\boldsymbol{x}^{\pi}$ denote the vector whose $i$ th component is given by $x_{\pi(i)}$. Let $P_{\pi}$ denote the binary matrix that represents the permutation $\pi$ and hence, by definition, we have that $P_{\pi} x=x^{\pi}$.

A permutation on the $N$ variables can be regarded as a permutation on the $N$ columns of $A$. We also consider a permutation $\pi_{\text {row }}$ on the $M$ rows of $A$ and similarly let $P_{\pi_{\text {row }}}$ denote the binary matrix that represents the permutation $\pi_{\text {row }}$.

Definition 3. A permutation $\pi:[N] \rightarrow[N]$ is $A$-preserving if $P_{\pi_{\mathrm{row}}} A P_{\pi}=A$ for some permutation $\pi_{\text {row }}:[M] \rightarrow[M]$.

This definition of $A$-preserving permutations can be found in linear programming literature (see Margot [9], and Bődi and Herr [1]), where the authors exploit symmetries to reduce the dimension of their linear programs. In particular, Bődi and Herr demonstrated Proposition 15 in a more general setting. Independently, Fazelli et al. obtained Proposition 15 in the specialized setting of finding a fractional transversal in hypergraphs. For completeness, we rederive Proposition 15 in Appendix $B$,

Let $G_{A}$ denote a subgroup of the group of all $A$-preserving permutations and let $G_{A}$ act on $[N]$. Suppose that the collection of orbits under this action is $\mathcal{O}=\left\{O_{1}, O_{2}, \ldots, O_{n}\right\}$. A vector $\boldsymbol{x}$ is defined to be $\mathcal{O}$ regular if for all $k \leqslant N, x_{i}=x_{j}$ for all $i, j \in O_{k}$.

Proposition 15. Suppose that $A x \leqslant 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i}=\lambda$. Then there exists an $\mathcal{O}$-regular vector $x^{*}$ such that $A x^{\pi} \leqslant 1$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i}^{*}=\lambda$.

Therefore, applying Proposition 15, we establish the following equality.

$$
\max \left\{\sum_{i \in[N]} x_{i}: A x \leqslant \mathbf{1}, \boldsymbol{x} \geqslant \mathbf{0}\right\}=\max \left\{\sum_{i \in[N]} x_{i}: A \boldsymbol{x} \leqslant \mathbf{1}, \boldsymbol{x} \geqslant 0, x \text { is } \mathcal{O} \text {-regular }\right\}
$$

In other words, we reduce the number of variables from $N$ to $n$. We may then rewrite the linear program as follows:

$$
\max \left\{\sum_{i \in[n]}\left|O_{i}\right| x_{i}^{*}: A^{*} \boldsymbol{x}^{*} \leqslant \mathbf{1}, \boldsymbol{x}^{*} \geqslant \mathbf{0}\right\}
$$

where $A^{*}$ is an $M \times n$ matrix defined by

$$
A^{*}(i, k)=\sum_{j \in O_{k}} A(i, j) \text { for all } i \in[M], k \in[n]
$$

### 5.3. Reducing the dimension of the linear program defined by 12 )

To exploit the symmetries of our linear program, we consider a domination graph with an equitable degree distribution. Specifically, for given values of $m$ and $n$, we set $\delta=\lfloor n / m\rfloor$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
m_{1} & =n \bmod m, & m_{2} & =m-m_{1} \\
n_{1} & =m_{1}(\delta+1), & n_{2} & =m_{2} \delta
\end{aligned}
$$

We partition $[m]$ into $I_{1} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left[m_{1}\right]$ and $I_{2} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left[m_{1}+1, m\right]$ (here, $[i, j]$ denotes the set $\{i, i+1, \ldots, j\}$ ) and assign the vertices in $I_{1}$ and $I_{2}$ the degrees $\delta+1$ and $\delta$, respectively. Hence, in this domination graph, there are $m_{1}$ vertices of degree $\delta+1$ and $m_{2}$ vertices of degree $\delta$.

We also partition $[n]$ into $m$ groups:

$$
J_{i} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \begin{cases}{[(i-1)(\delta+1)+1, i(\delta+1)],} & \text { if } i \in\left[m_{1}\right] \\ {\left[n_{1}+\left(i-m_{1}-1\right) \delta+1, n_{1}+\left(i-m_{1}\right) \delta\right],} & \text { otherwise. }\end{cases}
$$

In other words, we partition $\left[n_{1}\right]$ into $m_{1}$ groups of size $\delta+1$ and $\left[n_{1}+1, n\right]$ into $m_{2}$ groups of size $\delta$.
Next, we define a group of $A$-preserving permutations. Here, let $S_{X}$ denote the set of permutations on the set $X$ and we first produce permutations in $S_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $S_{\mathcal{R}}$. Consider a permutation $\gamma \in \mathbb{S}_{I_{1}} \times S_{I_{2}}$. Since $I_{1}$ and $I_{2}$ partition $[m]$, the permutation $\gamma$ belongs to $S_{[m]}$ and we define $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}} \in \mathrm{S}_{\mathcal{S}}$ such that $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u})=\boldsymbol{u}^{\gamma}$ for $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{S}$. We then consider the subset

$$
\mathbb{B}=\left\{\beta \in \mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{R}}:\left.\beta(\boldsymbol{v})\right|_{J_{i}} \neq \mathbf{0} \text { if and only if }\left.\boldsymbol{v}\right|_{J_{i}} \neq \mathbf{0} \text { for all } i \in[m], \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{S}\right\}
$$

It can be verified that $\mathbb{B}$ is a subgroup of $\mathbb{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. Given $\gamma \in \mathrm{S}_{I_{1}} \times \mathrm{S}_{I_{2}}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{B}$, we define $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}} \in \mathrm{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$ to be the permutation such that $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})$ is the word obtained rearranging the $m$ subwords in $\beta(\boldsymbol{v})$ in accordance to $\gamma$. Finally, we obtain a permutation $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}$ on $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}$ by simply setting $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=\left(\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u}), \pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})\right)$. Set $\mathbb{G}=\left\{\pi_{\gamma, \beta}: \gamma \in \mathbb{S}_{I_{1}} \times S_{I_{2}}, \beta \in \mathbb{B}\right\}$. Abusing notation, we simply write $\mathbb{G}=\left(\mathrm{S}_{I_{1}} \times \mathrm{S}_{I_{2}}\right) \times \mathbb{B}$.

## Example 2.

(i) (Example 1 continued.) Consider $m=2, n=4$, and $w=1$. Then $\delta=2, m_{1}=n_{1}=0, m_{2}=2$ and $n_{2}=4$.
Label the words in $\mathcal{R}$ as follow: $v_{0}=0000, v_{1}=0001, v_{2}=0010, v_{3}=0100$, and $v_{4}=1000$. So, $\mathbb{B}=\left\{\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{0}, \boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \boldsymbol{v}_{2}, \boldsymbol{v}_{3}, \boldsymbol{v}_{4}\right),\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{0}, \boldsymbol{v}_{2}, \boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \boldsymbol{v}_{3}, \boldsymbol{v}_{4}\right),\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{0}, \boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \boldsymbol{v}_{2}, \boldsymbol{v}_{4}, \boldsymbol{v}_{3}\right),\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{0}, \boldsymbol{v}_{2}, \boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \boldsymbol{v}_{4}, \boldsymbol{v}_{3}\right)\right\}$. Since $m_{1}=0$, $\mathrm{G}=\mathrm{S}_{[2]} \times \mathbb{B}$.
Let $\gamma=(2,1)$ and $\beta=\left(v_{0}, v_{2}, v_{1}, v_{3}, v_{4}\right)$. Then $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(01)=10, \pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(0001)=1000$ and so, $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}(01,0001)=(10,1000)$. Consider the orbit of $(01,0001)$ which is $\{\pi(01,0001): \pi \in \mathbb{G}\}$. The orbit is given by

$$
\{(01,0001),(01,0010),(10,0100),(10,1000)\} .
$$

(ii) Consider $m=3, n=4$, and $w=2$. Then $\delta=1, m_{1}=1, m_{2}=2, n_{1}=2$ and $n_{2}=2$.

The orbit of $(101,0101)$ is given by $\{(101,0101),(101,1001),(110,0110),(110,1010)\}$, while the orbit of $(100,0100)$ is given by $\{(100,0100),(100,1000)\}$.

Recall that the columns of $A$ are indexed by $E \subseteq \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}$, while $G$ is a subgroup of $S_{\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}}$. In the next lemma, we show that $G$ may be regarded as a subgroup of $S_{E}$. We do this by showing that the image of $E$ under the permutation $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}$ remains as $E$.
Lemma 16. Let $\pi_{\gamma, \beta} \in \mathbb{G}, \boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{R}$. Then $\boldsymbol{u}$ dominates $\boldsymbol{v}$ if and only if $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u})$ dominates $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})$.
Proof. Since $\mathbb{G}$ is a group, it suffices to prove in one direction. Let $\operatorname{supp}_{\delta}(v) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{i \in[m]:\left.v\right|_{J_{i}} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}$. Since $\boldsymbol{u}$ dominates $\boldsymbol{v}$, we have that $\operatorname{supp}(\boldsymbol{u}) \supseteq \operatorname{supp}_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{v})$.

Since $\beta \in \mathbb{B}$, we have that $\operatorname{supp}_{\delta}(v)=\operatorname{supp}_{\delta}(\beta(v))$. From the definition of $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}$, we have that $\operatorname{supp}\left(\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u})\right)=\gamma(\operatorname{supp}(\boldsymbol{u}))$ and $\operatorname{supp}_{\delta}\left(\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})\right)=\gamma\left(\operatorname{supp}_{\delta}(\beta(\boldsymbol{v}))\right)=\gamma\left(\operatorname{supp}_{\delta}(\boldsymbol{v})\right)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{supp}\left(\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u})\right) \supseteq \operatorname{supp}_{\delta}\left(\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})\right)$ and so, $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u})$ dominates $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})$.

Therefore, since $E=\{(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \in \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}: \boldsymbol{u}$ dominates $\boldsymbol{v}\}$, we have that G is a subgroup of $\mathrm{S}_{E}$.
Lemma 17. Every permutation in $G$ is a $A$-preserving permutation.
Proof. Let $\pi=\pi_{\gamma, \beta} \in \mathbb{G}$. To show that $\pi$ is $A$-preserving, it suffices to provide a permutation $\pi_{\text {row }}$ on the rows of $A$ such that $P_{\pi_{\text {row }}} A P_{\pi}=A$, or

$$
\begin{equation*}
A P_{\pi}=P_{\pi_{\text {row }}}^{-1} A=P_{\pi_{\text {row }}^{-1}} A . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $(u, v) \in E$ and $z \in \mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}$. Let the entry of $A$ at row $z$ and column $(u, v)$, or the $(z,(u, v))$ th entry of $A$, be written as $A(z,(u, v))$. Then the $(z,(u, v))$ th entry of $A P_{\pi}$ is given by $A\left(z, \pi^{-1}(u, v)\right)$.

We next consider the permutations on the rows. Note that $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}} \in \mathrm{S}_{\mathcal{S}}$ and $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}} \in \mathrm{S}_{\mathcal{R}}$. So, let $\mathbb{G}$ act on $\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{R}$ by setting $\pi(z)=\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(z)$ when $z \in \mathcal{S}$ and $\pi(z)=\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(z)$ when $z \in \mathcal{R}$. Set $\pi_{\text {row }}=\pi^{-1}$, the inverse of $\pi$ in $G$. Then the $(z,(u, v))$ th entry of $P_{\pi_{\text {row }}^{-1}} A$ is given by $A\left(\pi_{\text {row }}^{-1}(z),(u, v)\right)=A(\pi(z),(u, v))$.

Finally, to establish (13) we show that $A\left(z, \pi^{-1}(u, v)\right)=A(\pi(z),(u, v))$. This then follows from the fact that

$$
A(z,(u, v))= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } \boldsymbol{z}=\boldsymbol{u} \text { or } \boldsymbol{z}=\boldsymbol{v} \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

We next study the orbits of $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}$ under this group action of $\mathbb{G}$. To this end, we define the ( $m_{1}, m_{2}$ )weights and the $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)$-weights of words in $\mathcal{S}$ and $\mathcal{R}$, respectively. For $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{S}$ and $v \in \mathcal{R}$, define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right) \text {, where } \sigma_{i}=\mathrm{wt}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}\right|_{I_{i}}\right) \text { for } i \in[2] \text {, } \\
& \left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right) \text {, where } \rho_{i}=\left|\left\{j \in I_{j}:\left.\boldsymbol{v}\right|_{J_{j}} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}\right| \text { for } i \in[2] \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Using these weights, we then characterise the orbits of $\mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{R}$ under this group action of $\mathbb{G}$.
Lemma 18. Let $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}),\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right) \in E .(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ and $\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)$ belong to the same orbit if and only if $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=$ $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. If $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ and $\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)$ belong to the same orbit, then $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})=\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)$ for some $\pi_{\gamma, \beta} \in \mathbb{G}$. In other words, $\pi_{\gamma}^{\mathcal{S}}(\boldsymbol{u})=\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$ and $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}^{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{v})=\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}$. Since $\gamma \in \mathrm{S}_{I_{1}} \times \mathrm{S}_{I_{2}}$, we have $\mathrm{wt}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}\right|_{I_{i}}\right)=\operatorname{wt}\left(\left.\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right|_{I_{i}}\right)$ for $i \in[2]$, and so, $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathbf{w t}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\operatorname{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)$. Similarly, since $\beta \in \mathbb{B}$, we have $\left|\left\{j \in I_{j}:\left.\boldsymbol{v}\right|_{J_{j}} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}\right|=$ $\left|\left\{j \in I_{j}:\left.v^{\prime}\right|_{j_{j}} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}\right|$ and hence, $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)$.

Conversely, suppose that $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}\right)=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$ and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=$ $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)=\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right)$. Consider the words

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{u}^{*} & =\overbrace{00 \cdots 0 \underbrace{11 \cdots 1}_{\sigma_{1}}}^{m_{1}} \overbrace{0 \cdots 0 \underbrace{11 \cdots 1}_{\sigma_{2}}}^{m_{2}}, \\
\boldsymbol{v}^{*} & =\underbrace{\overbrace{0 \cdots 0}^{\delta+1} \cdots \overbrace{0 \cdots 0}^{\delta+1}}_{m_{1}-\rho_{1}} \underbrace{\overbrace{\cdots 01}^{\delta+1}}_{\rho_{1}} \cdots \overbrace{0 \cdots 01}^{\delta+1} \underbrace{\underbrace{\delta}_{0 \cdots 0}}_{m_{2}-\rho_{2}} \overbrace{0 \cdots 0}^{\delta} \underbrace{0_{\cdots 01}^{\delta}}_{\rho_{2}} \cdots \overbrace{0 \cdots 01}^{\delta}
\end{aligned} .
$$

Then $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{*}\right)=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$ and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{v}^{*}\right)=\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right)$. We find a permutation in $\mathbb{G}$ that maps $\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{*}, \boldsymbol{v}^{*}\right)$ to $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$. Let $\gamma^{-1}$ be a permutation in $\gamma \in \mathrm{S}_{I_{1}} \times \mathrm{S}_{I_{1}}$ that rearranges the coordinates the $m$ coordinates of $u$ and the $m$ subwords of $v$ such that $\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\gamma^{-1}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{v}}\right)$ is the lexicographical smallest amongst all permutations. Let $\beta \in \mathbb{B}$ be a permutation that maps $\boldsymbol{v}^{*}$ to $\hat{v}$. Then $\pi_{\gamma, \beta}\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{*}, \boldsymbol{v}^{*}\right)=(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$. Since G is a subgroup of $\mathrm{S}_{E}$, we can then find a permutation that maps $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ to $\left(\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}, \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right)$.

Following Lemma 18, we can then index each orbit with the quadruple ( $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \rho_{1}, \rho_{2}$ ), where ( $\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}$ ) = $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})$ and $\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right)=\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})$ for some $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ in the orbit. In particular, the index set is given by

$$
\Omega \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right): 0 \leqslant \sigma_{i} \leqslant m_{i} \text { for } i \in[2], 0 \leqslant \rho_{1} \leqslant \min \left\{\sigma_{1}, w\right\}, 0 \leqslant \rho_{2} \leqslant \min \left\{\sigma_{2}, w-\rho_{1}\right\}\right\}
$$

Hence, the number of variables is reduced to $O\left(m^{2} w^{2}\right)$. Besides reducing the number of variables, the group action also identifies certain constraints. In particular, the $2^{m}+\sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{n}{j}$ constraints are reduced to $O\left(m^{2}+w^{2}\right)$ constraints. Then by the equivalence of the linear programs, we are able to determine the existence of the desired mapping in time polynomial in $m$ and $w$.

Next, we compute the size of the orbits and then state the reduced linear program. Let $0 \leqslant \rho_{1}, \rho_{2} \leqslant w$ and $0 \leqslant \rho_{1}+\rho_{2} \leqslant w$ and define the quantity

$$
C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}} \xlongequal{\text { def }} \sum_{\substack{\left.w_{1}^{(1)}+\cdots+w_{\rho_{1}}^{(1)}+w_{1}^{(2)}\right)+\cdots+w_{\rho_{2}}^{(2)} \leqslant w \\ w_{j}^{(1)} \geqslant 1}} \prod_{j=1}^{\rho_{1}}\binom{\delta+1}{w_{j}^{(1)}} \prod_{j=1}^{\rho_{2}}\binom{\delta}{w_{j}^{(2)}} .
$$

Here, $C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}}$ computes the number of words $v$ in $\mathcal{R}$ such that $\left\{j \in I_{1}:\left.v\right|_{J_{j}} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}=L_{1}$ and $\left\{j \in I_{2}:\left.v\right|_{J_{j}} \neq\right.$ $\mathbf{0}\}=L_{2}$ for some $\rho_{1}$-subset $L_{1}$ of $I_{1}$ and $\rho_{2}$-subset $L_{2}$ of $I_{2}$.

Lemma 19. Fix $\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right) \in \Omega$.
(i) The number of pairs $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v})$ in $E$ with $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$ and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right)$ is $\left(\begin{array}{l}\binom{m_{1}}{\sigma_{1}}\binom{m_{2}}{\sigma_{2}}\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\rho_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{2}} C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}} . . . . ~ . ~\end{array}\right.$
(ii) Fix $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\operatorname{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$. The number of words $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{R}$ that are dominated by $\boldsymbol{u}$ with $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right)$ is $\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\rho_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\rho_{2}} C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}}$.
(iii) Fix $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{R}$ with $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$. The number of words $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathcal{S}$ that dominates $\boldsymbol{v}$ with $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$ is $\binom{m_{1}-\rho_{1}}{\sigma_{1}-\rho_{1}}\binom{m_{2}-\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{2}-\rho_{2}}$.

Proof. For $(\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v}) \in E$, we set $K_{i}$ to be the support of $\left.\boldsymbol{u}\right|_{I_{i}}$ and $L_{i}=\left\{j \in I_{i}:\left.\boldsymbol{v}\right|_{J_{j}} \neq \mathbf{0}\right\}$ for $i \in[2]$. Note that if $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$ and $\left(n_{1}, n_{2} ; \delta\right)-\mathrm{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=\left(\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right)$, then $\left|K_{i}\right|=\sigma_{i}$ and $\left|L_{i}\right|=\rho_{i}$ for $i \in[2]$.
(i) There are $\binom{m_{1}}{\sigma_{1}}\binom{m_{2}}{\sigma_{2}}$ to choose words $\boldsymbol{u}$ with $\left(m_{1}, m_{2}\right)-\operatorname{wt}(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}\right)$. Since $\boldsymbol{u}$ dominates $\boldsymbol{v}$, we have $\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\rho_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\rho_{2}}$ choices for $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$. For fixed $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$, there are $C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}}$ choices for $\boldsymbol{v}$. Therefore, the total number of pairs is $\binom{s_{1}}{\sigma_{1}}\binom{s_{2}}{\sigma_{2}}\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\rho_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{2}} C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}}$.
(ii) When $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ are fixed, the previous argument demonstrates that there are $\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\sigma_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\rho_{2}} C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}}$ choices for $v$.
(iii) When $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ are fixed, there are $\binom{m_{1}-\rho_{1}}{\sigma_{1}-\rho_{1}}$ and $\binom{m_{2}-\rho_{2}}{\sigma_{2}-\rho_{2}}$ choices for $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$, respectively. Therefore, the desired number is $\binom{s_{1}-\rho_{1}}{\sigma_{1}-\rho_{1}}\binom{s_{2}-\sigma_{2}}{\sigma_{2}-\rho_{2}}$.

Finally, we state the reduced linear program.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max \sum_{\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right) \in \Omega}\binom{m_{1}}{\sigma_{1}}\binom{m_{2}}{\sigma_{2}}\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\rho_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\rho_{2}} C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}} X_{\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \rho_{1} \rho_{2}} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

subject to the following constraints.
(I) $\mathcal{S}$-side constraints:

$$
\sum_{\rho_{1}=0}^{\min \left\{\sigma_{1}, w\right\}} \sum_{\rho_{2}=0}^{\min \left\{\sigma_{2}, w-\rho_{1}\right\}}\binom{\sigma_{1}}{\rho_{1}}\binom{\sigma_{2}}{\rho_{2}} C_{\rho_{1} \rho_{2}} X_{\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \rho_{1} \rho_{2}} \leqslant 1 \text { for all } 0 \leqslant \sigma_{1} \leqslant m_{1}, 0 \leqslant \sigma_{2} \leqslant m_{2}
$$

(II) $\mathcal{R}$-side constraints:

$$
\sum_{\sigma_{1}=\rho_{1}}^{m_{1}} \sum_{\sigma_{2}=\rho_{2}}^{m_{2}}\binom{m_{1}-\rho_{1}}{\sigma_{1}-\rho_{1}}\binom{m_{2}-\rho_{2}}{\sigma_{2}-\rho_{2}} X_{\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \rho_{1} \rho_{2}} \leqslant 1 \text { for all } 0 \leqslant \rho_{1} \leqslant m_{1}, 0 \leqslant \rho_{2} \leqslant m_{2}, 0 \leqslant \rho_{1}+\rho_{2} \leqslant w .
$$

(III) Variable constraints:

$$
0 \leqslant X_{\sigma_{1} \sigma_{2} \rho_{1} \rho_{2}} \leqslant 1 \text { for all }\left(\sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}, \rho_{1}, \rho_{2}\right) \in \Omega
$$

There exists a mapping if and only if the objective value achieves $2^{m}$. Furthermore, we know that the objective value attains $2^{m}$ if and only if the $\mathcal{S}$-side constraints are active, or met with equality.

## Example 3.

(i) (Example 1 continued.) Consider $m=2, n=4$, and $w=1$. Then $\delta=2, m_{1}=n_{1}=0, m_{2}=2$, $n_{2}=4$.

Hence, $E$ is partitioned into the orbits
$\mathcal{O}=\left\{O_{(0,0)}=\left\{e_{1}\right\}, O_{(1,0)}=\left\{e_{2}, e_{5}\right\}, O_{(1,1)}=\left\{e_{3}, e_{4}, e_{6}, e_{7}\right\}, O_{(2,0)}=\left\{e_{8}\right\}, O_{(2,1)}=\left\{e_{9}, e_{10}, e_{11}, e_{12}\right\}\right\}$,
with

$$
\Omega=\{(0,0),(1,0),(1,1),(2,0),(2,1)\} .
$$

Then $A^{*}$ is given by the $5 \times 5$ matrix

$$
A^{*}=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 \\
1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right)
$$

(ii) Consider $m=3, n=4$, and $w=2$. Then $\delta=1, m_{1}=1, m_{2}=2, n_{1}=2$ and $n_{2}=2$. Here,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Omega=\{ & (0,0,0,0),(0,1,0,1),(0,1,0,1),(0,2,0,0),(0,2,0,1),(0,2,0,2),(1,0,0,0),(1,0,1,0), \\
& (1,1,0,0),(1,1,0,1),(1,1,1,0),(1,1,1,1),(1,2,0,0),(1,2,0,1),(1,2,0,2),(1,2,1,0),(1,2,1,1)\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $A^{*}$ is given by the $11 \times 17$ matrix

$$
A^{*}=\left(\begin{array}{lllllllllllllllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\
1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right) .
$$

We summarize the results in this section with the following theorem.
Theorem 20. Let $G=([m] \cup[n], E)$ be an equitable domination graph. The linear program defined by (14) is equivalent to (12) and has $O\left(m^{2} w^{2}\right)$ variables and $O\left(m^{2}+w^{2}\right)$ constraints. Therefore, we can determine the existence of an $G$-domination mapping in time polynomial in $m$ and $w$.

## 6. Existence Proof

In this section, we prove Theorem 1 . In particular, we show that for sufficiently large $m$, an $(m, n, w)$ domination mapping exists whenever $|\mathcal{B}(n, w)| \geqslant 2^{m}$. From Theorem 14 , this is equivalent to finding a perfect matching in the associated compatibility graph. To this end, we invoke the celebrated Hall's marriage theorem [5].

Theorem 21. Consider a bipartite graph with $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ as its left and right vertices, and $\left|V_{1}\right| \leqslant\left|V_{2}\right|$. There is a matching of size $\left|V_{1}\right|$ (i.e. a perfect matching) if and only if for each subset $X$ of $V_{1}$, the number of vertices in the neighborhood of $X$ has at least $|X|$ vertices.

In what follows, we study the suffciency condition of Theorem 21 for our compatibility graph. In particular, a set of vertices $X \subset \mathcal{S}$ is called a bad set if its neighbourhood $N(X)$ in $\mathcal{R}$ has size less than $|X|$. In other words, $|X|>|N(X)|$. We examine properties of bad sets and find compatibility graphs that contain no bad sets. Therefore, in such compatibility graphs, the condition of Theorem 21 is satisfied and hence the corresponding ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping exists.

For our exposition, we define certain quantities and properties for sets of vertices in $\mathcal{S}$. First, we define the notion of descendant-closed.

Definition 4. Let $\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{S}$. Recall that $\boldsymbol{v} \prec \boldsymbol{u}$ if $\operatorname{supp}(\boldsymbol{v}) \subseteq \operatorname{supp}(\boldsymbol{u})$ and call $\boldsymbol{v}$ a descendant of $\boldsymbol{u}$. A set $X$ is descendant-closed or $\boldsymbol{d}$-closed if for all $\boldsymbol{u} \in X, \boldsymbol{v} \prec \boldsymbol{u}$ implies that $\boldsymbol{v} \in X$.

Given any bad set, we are always able to construct a (possibly different) d-closed bad set with the same cardinality.

Lemma 22 (Closure Lemma). If $X$ is a bad set, then there exists a d-closed bad set $X^{\prime}$ for which $|X|=\left|X^{\prime}\right|$.
Proof. Suppose $X$ is not d-closed. Then there exists $\boldsymbol{u} \in X$ and $v \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $v \prec u$ but $v \notin X$. Set $X^{(1)}=X \cup\{\boldsymbol{v}\} \backslash\{\boldsymbol{u}\}$. Then $\left|X^{(1)}\right|=|X|$ and $\left|N\left(X^{(1)}\right)\right| \leqslant|N(X)|<|X|=\left|X^{(1)}\right|$. Hence, $X^{(1)}$ is a bad set with the same size as $X$. If $X^{(1)}$ is not d-closed, then we similarly construct $X^{(2)}$ such that $\left|X^{(2)}\right|=|X|$ and $X^{(2)}$ is bad. Since this process is finite, we eventually obtain a d-closed set $X^{(m)}$ such that $\left|X^{(m)}\right|=|X|$ and $X^{(m)}$ is bad.

Next, we define the notion of balanced sets.
Definition 5. Let $i \in[m]$. We say that $X$ is $i$-balanced if the following holds. If $\boldsymbol{a b} \in X$ with $|\boldsymbol{a}|=i$, then $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{b} \in X$ for all $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} \in\{0,1\}^{i}$.

Observe that if $X$ is $i$-balanced, then $X$ is $j$-balanced for all $j \leqslant i$. As a convention, we say that all sets $X$ are 0-balanced. Finally, we look at certain collection of bad sets that are both d-closed and balanced.

Definition 6. Let $0 \leqslant i \leqslant s$. Let $\mathcal{X}_{i}$ be the collection of all bad sets that are $d$-closed and $i$-balanced.
Our proof on the non-existence of bad sets follows an induction strategy.
(I) Assume that there exists a bad set $X_{0}$.
(II) Base case. Using the closure lemma, we may modify $X_{0}$ so that $X_{0}^{\prime}$ is both d-closed and 0 -balanced. This implies that $\mathcal{X}_{0}$ is nonempty.
(III) Induction step. Let $1 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. By induction hypothesis, we have that $\mathcal{X}_{i-1}$ is nonempty. Pick $X \in \mathcal{X}_{i-1}$ with the smallest cardinality. We then construct a set $X^{\prime}$ such that $X^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{i}$. This implies that $\mathcal{X}_{i}$ is nonempty.
(IV) Therefore, $\mathcal{X}_{m}$ is nonempty and $X \in \mathcal{X}_{m}$ implies that $X=\mathcal{S}$. This contradicts the fact that $|\mathcal{S}| \leqslant$ $|\mathcal{R}|=|N(\mathcal{S})|$.

In what follows, we focus on the induction step. We fix $X \in \mathcal{X}_{i-1}$ and augment $X$ so that the resulting $X^{\prime}$ is in $\mathcal{X}_{i}$. To ensure that $X^{\prime}$ is bad, we need to compute the increase in the size of the neighbourhood. Formally, we have the following definition.

Definition 7. Let $U, V \subseteq \mathcal{S}$. Set $\Xi_{U}(V) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}|N(U \cup V)|-|N(U)|$. In other words, $\Xi_{U}(V)$ is the number of additional neighbours that $V$ adds when adjoined to $U$.

When $X$ is the smallest set in $\mathcal{X}_{i-1}$, we have the following property of $\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y)$ for certain subset $Y \subseteq X$.
Lemma 23 (Removal Lemma). Let $X$ be the smallest set in $\mathcal{X}$. Let $Y \subseteq X$ such that $X \backslash Y$ is both d-closed and i-balanced. Then $|Y|>\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y)$.

Proof. Since $X$ is a bad set, ww have that $|X|>|N(X)|$. By the minimality of $X$, we have that $X \backslash Y$ is not a bad set, because $X \backslash Y$ is both d-closed and $i$-balanced and $|X \backslash Y|<|X|$. Therefore, $|X \backslash Y| \leqslant$ $|N(X \backslash Y)|$. Hence, $|Y|=|X|-|X \backslash Y|>|N(X)|-|N(X \backslash Y)|=\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y)$.

Next, we describe how we augment $X$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& Y=\left\{\boldsymbol{u} \in X: u_{i}=0, \boldsymbol{u}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \notin X\right\}, \text { and } \\
& Z=Y+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have the following lemmas on $X \cup Z$ and $X \backslash Y$.
Lemma 24. If $X$ is $d$-closed and $(i-1)$-balanced, then $X \cup Z$ is both d-closed and $i$-balanced.
Proof. First, we show that $X \cup Z$ is d-closed. Let $\boldsymbol{u} \in X \cup Z$ and $v \prec \boldsymbol{u}$. If $\boldsymbol{u} \in X$, then $v \in X \subseteq X \cup Z$ since $X$ is d-closed. Otherwise, $\boldsymbol{u} \in Z$ and hence, $\boldsymbol{u}=\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i}$ with $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime} \in X$. If $v_{i}=0$, then $\boldsymbol{v} \prec \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$ and so, $\boldsymbol{v} \in X$ since $X$ is d-closed. Hence, $\boldsymbol{v} \in X \cup Z$. If $v_{i}=1$, then $\boldsymbol{v}-\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \prec \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}$ and so, $\boldsymbol{v}-\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in X$. Hence, $v=\left(v-e_{i}\right)+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in Z \subseteq X \cup Z$. Thus, $X \cup Z$ is d-closed.

Next, we show that $X \cup Z$ is $i$-balanced. Let $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b} \in X \cup Z$ with $|\boldsymbol{a}|=i$ and let $\boldsymbol{c} \in\{0,1\}^{i}$. Let $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime}$ be the first $i-1$ symbols of $\boldsymbol{a}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$, respectively. So, $\boldsymbol{a}=\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} a_{i}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}=\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} c_{i}$. Since $X \cup Z$ is d-closed, it suffices to consider the case, $c_{i}=1$.

In other words, we want to show that $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} 1 \boldsymbol{b} \in X \cup Z$. We distinguish between two cases:
(a) $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} 1 \boldsymbol{b} \in X$. Since $X$ is $(i-1)$-balanced, we have $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} 1 \boldsymbol{b} \in X \subseteq X \cup Z$.
(b) $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} 1 \boldsymbol{b} \notin X$. This implies that $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} 0 \boldsymbol{b} \in X$ by the definition of $Y$ and $Z$. Again, since $X$ is $(i-1)$-balanced, we have $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} 0 \boldsymbol{b} \in X$ and so, $\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} 1 \boldsymbol{b}=\boldsymbol{c}^{\prime} 0 \boldsymbol{b}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in X \cup Z$.

Thus, $X \cup Z$ is $i$-balanced.
Lemma 25. If $X$ is $d$-closed and $(i-1)$-balanced, then $X \backslash Y$ is both d-closed and $(i-1)$-balanced.
Proof. First, we show that $X \backslash Y$ is d-closed. Let $\boldsymbol{u} \in X \backslash Y$ and $\boldsymbol{v} \prec \boldsymbol{u}$. Since $\boldsymbol{u} \notin Y$, either $u_{i}=1$ or $\boldsymbol{u}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in X$. Hence, set $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{u}$ if $u_{i}=1$ and $\boldsymbol{u}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{u}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i}$ otherwise. If $v_{i}=0$, then $\boldsymbol{v}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \prec \boldsymbol{u}^{\prime} \in X$, and so, $v+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in X$. Hence, $v \notin Y$. If $v_{i}=1$, then $v \notin Y$ by definition. In both cases, $v \notin Y$. Since $X$ is d-closed, $v \in X$ and therefore, $v \in X \backslash Y$. Thus, $X \backslash Y$ is d-closed.

Next, we show that $X \backslash Y$ is $(i-1)$-balanced. Let $\boldsymbol{a b} \in X \backslash Y$ with $|\boldsymbol{a}|=i-1$ and let $\boldsymbol{c} \in\{0,1\}^{i-1}$. Since $X$ is $(i-1)$-balanced, we have that $\boldsymbol{c b} \in X$. When $b_{1}=0$, we have by definition of $Y$ that $\boldsymbol{a b}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in$ $X$ since $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b} \notin Y$. Since $X$ is $(i-1)$-balanced and $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in X$, we have that $\boldsymbol{c b}+\boldsymbol{e}_{i} \in X$ and so, $\boldsymbol{c} \boldsymbol{b} \notin Y$. When $b_{1}=1$, we have that $\boldsymbol{c b} \notin Y$ by definition. Therefore, since $\boldsymbol{c} \boldsymbol{b} \in X$, it follows that $\boldsymbol{c} \boldsymbol{b} \in X \backslash Y$. Thus, $X \backslash Y$ is $(i-1)$-balanced.

Finally, we have the following lemma that reduces the induction step to demonstrating inequality (15).
Lemma 26. If $X$ is and-closed, $(i-1)$-balanced and bad set, and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Xi_{X}(Z) \leqslant \Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $X \cup Z$ is a d-closed, i-balanced and bad set. In other words, $X \cup Z \in \mathcal{X}_{i}$.
Proof. By Lemma 24, it remains to show that $X \cup Z$ is a bad set.
Since $X \backslash Y$ is both d-closed and $(i-1)$-balanced by Lemma 25, we apply the removal lemma to have that $|Y|>\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y)$. Futhermore, we have that $|X|+|Z|=|X \cup Z|$ and $|Z|=|Y|$. Combining these inequalities and equalities, we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
|X \cup Z| & =|X|+|Z| \\
& =|X|+|Y| \\
& >|N(X)|+\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y) \\
& \geqslant|N(X)|+\Xi_{X}(Z)=|N(X \cup Z)|
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $X \cup Z$ is a bad set.
In view of Lemma 26, our goal is to show that (15) holds. To this end, let us first introduce more notation.
Definition 8. For any vector $v \in S$, we let $\Psi(v)$ denote the additional neighbourhood of $v$, i.e.

$$
\Psi(\boldsymbol{v}) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \mid\left\{\boldsymbol{u} \in N(\boldsymbol{v}): \boldsymbol{u} \notin N\left(\boldsymbol{v}^{\prime}\right) \text { for all proper descendant } \boldsymbol{v}^{\prime} \prec \boldsymbol{v}\right\} \mid .
$$

For a set $V \subseteq S$, define $\Psi(V)=\sum_{v \in V} \Psi(v)$.
The definition of $\Psi$ is useful for computing the size of certain neighbourhoods.
Lemma 27. For any d-closed set, we have that $|N(V)|=\Psi(V)$.

Proof. Suppose $V=\left\{\boldsymbol{v}_{1}, \boldsymbol{v}_{2}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{m}\right\}$, where $\operatorname{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{j}\right) \leqslant \operatorname{wt}\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{j+1}\right)$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, m-1$. That is, we have ordered the vectors in $V$ by weight. Let $V \stackrel{\text { def }}{=}\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{j}\right\}$ for $j=1,2, \ldots, m$ with the convention that $V_{0}=\varnothing$. Then

$$
|N(V)|=\sum_{j=1}^{m} \Xi_{V_{j-1}}\left(V_{j}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{m} \Psi\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{j}\right)=\Psi(V)
$$

$\Xi_{V_{j-1}}\left(V_{j}\right)=\Psi\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{j}\right)$ follows from the fact that any proper descendant of $\boldsymbol{v}_{j}$ is contained in $V_{j-1}$.
Lemma 28. Suppose a subset $U \cup V$ of $\mathcal{S}$ is $d$-closed. Then

$$
\Xi_{U}(V)=\Psi(V)
$$

provided that the sets $U$ and $V$ are disjoint, and $U$ does not contain an ancestor of any vector in $V$. Hence, if $U \cup V$ and $U$ are d-closed and $U$ and $V$ are disjoint, then $\Xi_{U}(V)=\Psi(V)$.

Proof. Similar to Lemma27, we adjoin the vectors in $V$ to $U$ in the order of their weight and define $V_{0}=U$ by convention. Then

$$
\Xi_{U}(V)=\sum_{j=1}^{m} \Xi_{V_{j-1}}\left(V_{j}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{m} \Psi\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{j}\right)=\Psi(V)
$$

as before. To see that $\Xi_{V_{j-1}}\left(V_{j}\right)=\Psi\left(\boldsymbol{v}_{j}\right)$, we note the following. First, when $\boldsymbol{v}_{j}$ is adjoined to $V_{j-1}$, all of its descendants of $\boldsymbol{v}_{j}$ are already in $V_{j-1}$ since $U \cup V$ is d-closed. Moreover, $\boldsymbol{v}_{j}$ is not in $V_{j-1}$ and none of its ancestors are in $V_{j-1}$.

Lemma 28 then allows us to compute the $\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y)$ and $\Xi_{X}(Z)$ by simply evaluating $\Psi$.

## Corollary 29.

$$
\Xi_{X \backslash Y}(Y)=\Psi(Y), \text { and } \Xi_{X}(Z)=\Psi(Z)
$$

Combining Lemma 26 and Corollary 29, to complete the induction step, it is sufficient to show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Psi(Z) \leqslant \Psi(Y) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 6.1. Equitable domination graphs

We complete the proof of Theorem 1. To this end, we consider an equitable domination graph. If we set $\delta=\lfloor n / m\rfloor$, then the left vertices in the domination graph have degrees $\delta$ and $\delta+1$.

We have the following characterization of $\Psi(v)$ in terms of its weight.
Lemma 30. For $v \in\{0,1\}^{m}$, let the weight of $v$ be $\ell$. Then for sufficiently large $m$ (which implies suffciently large $\delta$ ), there exist constants $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{w}$ such that

$$
\Psi(v)= \begin{cases}c_{\ell} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right), & \text { if } \ell \leqslant w \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Furthermore, when $\operatorname{wt}(\boldsymbol{v})=w$, we have that $\Psi(\boldsymbol{v})=\delta^{j}(\delta+1)^{w-j} \geqslant \delta^{w}$ for some $0 \leqslant j \leqslant w$.
Proof. It suffices to consider the case where $\ell \leqslant w$. Let $j$ be the number of vertices in $\operatorname{supp}(v)$ with degree $\delta$. Then the number of vertices in $\operatorname{supp}(v)$ with degree $\delta+1$ is $\ell-j$ and we have that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi(v) & =\sum_{\substack{i_{1}+i_{2}+\cdots+i_{\ell} \leqslant w \\
i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}>0}}\binom{\delta}{i_{1}}\binom{\delta}{i_{2}} \cdots\binom{\delta}{i_{j}}\binom{\delta+1}{i_{j+1}}\binom{\delta+1}{i_{j+2}}\binom{\delta+1}{i_{\ell}} \\
& =\sum_{\substack{i_{1}+i_{2}+\ldots+i_{\ell}=w \\
i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}>0}}\left(\lambda_{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right)\right)+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right)=c_{\ell} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $c_{\ell}=\sum_{\substack{i_{1}+i_{2}+\cdots+i_{k}=w \\ i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}>0}} \lambda_{i_{1}, i_{2}, \ldots, i_{\ell}}$. When $\ell=w$, the only index for the summand is $i_{1}=i_{2}=\cdots=i_{\ell}=1$ and hence, $\Psi(v)=\delta^{j}(\delta+1)^{w-j} \geqslant \delta^{w}$. Thus, the proof is completed.

In addition, we introduce the notion of maximal-support words.
Definition 9. Given $V \subseteq \mathcal{S}$, we say that $\boldsymbol{v} \in V$ is maximal-support in $V$ (or a maximal-support word of $V$ ) if $V$ does not contain a proper ancestor of $v$.

Recall that $X$ is the smallest set in $\mathcal{X}_{i-1}$. We have the following technical lemmas.
Lemma 31. Any maximal-support word in $X$ is of the form $\mathbf{1 b}$, where $\mathbf{1}$ is the all-ones vector of length $i-1$.
Lemma 32. A maximal-support word in $X$ has weight at least $w+1$.

Proof. It suffices to consider the case $i-1 \leqslant w$. We prove by contradiction and assume that $\boldsymbol{u}=\mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{b}$ is a maximal-support word of weight at most $w$. and where $\mathbf{1}$ is the all-ones vector of length $i-1$.

Consider the set $U=\left\{\boldsymbol{a b}: \boldsymbol{a} \in\{0,1\}^{i-1}\right\}$. We claim that $X \backslash U$ is both $(i-1)$-balanced and d-closed.
Since both $U$ and $X$ are $(i-1)$-balanced, it follows that $X \backslash U$ is $(i-1)$-balanced.
On the other hand, consider any word $\boldsymbol{a b}$ in $U$ and suppose $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime} \in X$ is an ancestor of $\boldsymbol{a b}$. In other words, $\boldsymbol{b} \prec \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}$. Since $\mathbf{1} \boldsymbol{b}$ is a maximal-support word, we have that $\boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}=\boldsymbol{b}$ and so, $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime} \in U$. Hence, $X \backslash U$ is d-closed.

Since all words in $U$ have weight at most $w, \Psi(v) \geqslant 1$ for all $v \in U$. Therefore, $\Xi_{X \backslash U}(U)=\Psi(U) \geqslant$ $|U|$, contradicting the removal lemma.

Lemma 33. Given $w$ and $m \geqslant 2 w$, if

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta^{w} \geqslant 2^{2 w-1} \sum_{j=0}^{w-1}\binom{m-w}{j} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

then any word $\boldsymbol{u}$ of weight at most $w$ is contained in some maximal-support word of weight at least $2 w$.

Proof. We prove by contradication, i.e. suppose that all maximal-support words have weight at most $2 w-$ 1. From Lemma 32, we have that $u \prec v$ for some word $v$ with weight $w$. Write $v=v_{a} v_{b}$ with $\left|v_{a}\right|=i-1$.

As before, we set $U=\left\{\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b} \in X: \boldsymbol{a} \in\{0,1\}^{i-1}, \boldsymbol{v}_{b} \prec \boldsymbol{b}\right\}$. We claim that $X \backslash U$ is both $(i-1)$-balanced and d-closed.

Since both $U$ and $X$ are ( $i-1$ )-balanced, it follows that $X \backslash U$ is $(i-1)$-balanced.
On the other hand, consider any word $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b}$ in $U$ and suppose $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime} \in X$ is an ancestor of $\boldsymbol{a} \boldsymbol{b}$. In other words, $\boldsymbol{b} \prec \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}$ and so, $\boldsymbol{v}_{b} \prec \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime}$. Therfore, $\boldsymbol{a}^{\prime} \boldsymbol{b}^{\prime} \in U$, and hence, $X \backslash U$ is d-closed.

Next, we provide an upper bound for the set $|U|$. Consider $\boldsymbol{a b} \in U$. Since all maximal-support words of $v$ has weight at most $2 w-1$, the weight of $\boldsymbol{b}$ is at most $2 w-i$. Let the weight of $\boldsymbol{v}_{b}$ be $w_{b}$ and so, $w_{b} \geqslant w-i+1$. Since $\boldsymbol{v}_{b} \prec \boldsymbol{b}$, the number of choices for $\boldsymbol{b}$ is

$$
\sum_{j=0}^{2 w-i-w_{b}}\binom{m-w_{b}-i+1}{j} \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{w-1}\binom{m-w}{j} .
$$

Hence, $|U| \leqslant 2^{i-1} \sum_{j=0}^{w-1}\binom{m-w}{j} \leqslant 2^{2 w-1} \sum_{j=0}^{w-1}\binom{m-w}{j}$.
On the other hand, since $X \backslash U$ is d-closed, we have $\Xi_{X \backslash U}(U)=\Psi(U) \geqslant \Psi(v) \geqslant \delta^{w}$. Then (17) contradicts the removal lemma that states $|U|>\Xi_{X \backslash U}(U)$.

Given the existence of such maximal-support words, we now make estimates on $\Psi(Y)$ and $\Psi(Z)$. For convenience, we partition $Y=\bigcup_{\ell=0}^{m-1} Y_{\ell}$ and $Z=\bigcup_{\ell=1}^{m} Z_{\ell}$ such that $Y_{\ell}$ and $Z_{\ell}$ are words of weight $\ell$ in $Y$ and $Z$, respectively.

The following lemma is an immediate consequence from the definition of $Y$ and $Z$.
Lemma 34. For $0 \leqslant \ell \leqslant m-1,\left|Y_{\ell}\right|=\left|Z_{\ell+1}\right|$. The number of words with weight $\ell$ in $Y$ is equal to the number of words with weight $\ell+1$ in $Z$.

The following lemma is a consequence from Lemma 33
Lemma 35. If (17) holds, then for $1 \leqslant \ell \leqslant w$, we have that $\left|Y_{\ell}\right|>\left|Y_{\ell-1}\right|$.

Proof. We form a bipartite graph $\mathcal{G}=\left(Y_{\ell} \cup Y_{\ell-1}, E\right)$. Two vertices $v_{1} \in Y_{\ell}$ and $v_{2} \in Y_{\ell-1}$ are connected by an edge if $v_{2} \prec v_{1}$. Observe that the degree of a vertex in $Y_{\ell}$ is at most $\ell$. On the other hand, the degree of a vertex $u$ in $Y_{\ell-1}$ is at least $2 w-\ell+1>\ell$ since Lemma 33 provides a maximal support word $v$ of weight at least $2 w$ such that $u \prec v$. Since the sum of degrees in $Y_{\ell}$ is equal the sum of degrees in $Y_{\ell-1}$ and each vertex in $Y_{\ell}$ has a smaller degree than a vertex in $Y_{\ell-1}$, it follows that $\left|Y_{\ell}\right|>\left|Y_{\ell-1}\right|$.

Corollary 36. If (17) holds, then for $1 \leqslant \ell \leqslant w$, we have that $\left|Y_{\ell}\right|>\left|Z_{\ell}\right|$.
We now prove the main result on asymptotic existence.
Proof of Theorem 1 Applying Lemma 30, we have that

$$
\Psi(Y)=\sum_{\ell=0}^{m} \sum_{v \in Y_{\ell}} \Psi(v)=\sum_{\ell=0}^{w}\left|Y_{\ell}\right|\left(c_{\ell} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right)\right) \geqslant \sum_{\ell=1}^{w}\left|Y_{\ell}\right|\left(c_{\ell} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right)\right) .
$$

Similar manipulations yield

$$
\Psi(Z)=\sum_{\ell=1}^{w}\left|Z_{\ell}\right|\left(c_{\ell} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right)\right) .
$$

Since $\left|Y_{\ell}\right|-\left|Z_{\ell}\right| \geqslant 1$, we estimate the difference $\Psi(Y)-\Psi(Z)$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Psi(Y)-\Psi(Z) \geqslant \sum_{\ell=1}^{w} c_{\ell} \delta^{w}+O\left(\delta^{w-1}\right) . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, for fixed values of $w$, if we choose $m$ sufficiently large such that (17) holds and the right hand side(18) is nonnegative, we have that $\Psi(Z) \leqslant \Psi(Y)$. In other words, we establish (16) and complete our induction argument. Hence, no bad sets exist in the associated compatibility graph and a perfect matching or an ( $m, n, w$ )-domination mapping exists.

Unfortunately, estimating the values of $c_{\ell}$ is difficult and hence, we are unable to estimate a lower bound of $m$ for which domination mapping exists. Nevertheless, for the remaining part of the section, we consider the case when $m$ divides $n$ and demonstrate that the requirement defined by (17) is mild. In this case, the domination graph is regular where each vertex in $[m]$ has degree exactly $\delta$. Then it follows from symmetry that $\Psi(v)$ is dependent only on the weight of $v$. In other words, for any word $v$ of weight $\ell$, we can write $\Psi(v)$ as $\Psi_{\ell}$. Therefore,

$$
\Psi(Y)=\sum_{\ell=0}^{w}\left|Y_{\ell}\right| \Psi_{\ell} \geqslant \sum_{\ell=1}^{w}\left|Y_{\ell}\right| \Psi_{\ell}>\sum_{\ell=1}^{w}\left|Z_{\ell}\right| \Psi_{\ell}=\Psi(Z) .
$$

Hence, we have the following corollary.
Corollary 37. If (17) holds, then $\Psi(Z)<\Psi(Y)$.
The next theorem provide certain sufficient numerical conditions for the existence of $(m, \delta m, w)$-domination mappings and imply Theorem 1 .
Theorem 38. Let $w \geqslant 3$. Let $\epsilon>0$ and set $N_{\epsilon}$ such that $m^{\epsilon /(1+\varepsilon)} \geqslant 1+\log m$ for $m \geqslant N_{\epsilon}$. If

$$
\begin{align*}
m & \geqslant \max \left\{(2 w)^{1+\epsilon}, N_{\epsilon}\right\},  \tag{19}\\
2^{m} & \leqslant \sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{\delta m}{j} \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

then (17) holds and therefore, an $(m, \delta m, w)$-domination mapping exists.

Proof. Since $m \geqslant 2 w$, observe that $\sum_{j=0}^{w}\binom{\delta m}{j} \leqslant(w+1)\binom{\delta m}{w}=(w+1)(\delta m)^{w} / w$ ! . Hence, 20) implies that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta^{w} \geqslant 2^{m} \frac{(w+1)!}{w m^{w}} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, (19) implies that

$$
m=m^{\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}} m^{\frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon}} \geqslant 2 w(1+\log m) \geqslant 2 w \log (2 m)
$$

Hence, $2^{m} \geqslant(2 m)^{2 w}$. Together with (21), we have

$$
\delta^{w} \geqslant 2^{2 w} \frac{w!m^{w}}{(w+1)} \geqslant 2^{2 w-1} \frac{w m^{w}}{(w-1)!} \geqslant 2^{2 w-1} w\binom{m-w}{w-1} \geqslant 2^{2 w-1} \sum_{j=0}^{w-1}\binom{m-w}{j} .
$$

Note that $2 w!/(w+1) \geqslant w /(w-1)!$ for $w \geqslant 3$. Therefore, (17) holds as desired. Corollary 37 then yields (16), which in turn completes our induction argument.

## A. Constructions and Descendant Arrays

## A.1. Descendant arrays

We will now make use of a different representation of $(m, n, w)$-domination mappings. For two vectors of the same length $v$ and $u$ we say that $v$ covers $u$ (or $v$ dominates $u$; or $u$ is a descendant of $v$ ) and denote it by $u \prec v$ if $u$ has a zero in each entry in which $v$ has a zero. In other words, the value of $u$ in each position is less or equal from the value of $v$ in the same position. Let $A$ be an $r \times \ell_{1}$ binary array and $B$ be an $r \times \ell_{2}$ binary array, $\ell_{2} \geqslant \ell_{1}$. If for each column in $B$ there exists a column in $A$ which dominates it, then $(A, B)$ is called a pair of $\left(\ell_{1}, \ell_{2}\right)$-descendant arrays. Let $A$ be a $2^{m} \times m$ matrix which contains all the binary words of length $m$ (in lexicographic order) and let $B$ be a $2^{m} \times n$ matrix which contains distinct binary words of length $n$ and weight at most $w$. This pair of arrays is called a pair of $(n, m, w)$-descendant arrays if $(A, B)$ is a pair of $(n, m)$-descendant arrays. By definition we infer that

Lemma 39. An $(m, n, w)$-domination mapping exists if and only if there exists a pair of $(m, n, w)$-descendant arrays.

Proof. This is an immediate observation from the definition of the domination graph and defining $\varphi\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{m}\right)=\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$, where $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{m}\right)$ and $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)$ are the $j$ th words of the matrices $A$ and $B$, respectively.

The description which leads to Lemma 39 can be used as an alternative way to define the injective mapping $\varphi(m, n, w)$ and to verify whether such a mapping is a domination mapping.

## A.2. Construction of domination mappings for $w=2$

In this appendix we consider ( $m, n, 2$ )-domination mappings for which $n=\nu(m, w)$ if $m$ is odd and discuss the case of even $m$. We start with odd $m$. We claim that for odd $m=2 \ell+1$ there exists a $\left(2 \ell+1,2^{\ell+1}, 2\right)-$ domination mapping. Note, that $\sum_{i=0}^{2}\binom{2^{\ell+1}}{i}=2^{2 \ell+1}+2^{\ell}+1$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{2}\left({ }^{2^{\ell+1}-1} i_{i}\right)=2^{2 \ell+1}-2^{\ell}+1$, and hence by Lemma 5 we have that a $\left(2 \ell+1,2^{\ell+1}, 2\right)$-domination mapping is optimal. A recursive construction for such a domination mapping will be given. We start with the (3,4,2)-domination mapping from Example 1 .

Assume now that there exists a $\left(2 \ell-1,2^{\ell}, 2\right)$-domination mapping $\varphi$ with the degree sequence $\left(1,1,2,2,2,4,4,8,8, \ldots, 2^{\ell-3}, 2^{\ell-3}, 2^{\ell-2}, 2^{\ell-2}\right)$. We will construct a $\left(2 \ell+1,2^{\ell+1}, 2\right)$-domination mapping $\varphi^{\prime}$ with the degree sequence $\left(1,1,2,2,2,4,4,8,8, \ldots, 2^{\ell-2}, 2^{\ell-2}, 2^{\ell-1}, 2^{\ell-1}\right)$.

Let $(A(\varphi), B(\varphi))$ be a pair of $\left(2 \ell-1,2^{\ell}, 2\right)$-descendant arrays related to the domination mapping $\varphi$. We will describe now a construction for a pair of $\left(2 \ell+1,2^{\ell+1}, 2\right)$-descendant arrays $\left(A\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right), B\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)\right)$ from which $\varphi^{\prime}$ can be derived. Let $A_{1} A_{2}$ be a $2^{2 \ell-1} \times(2 \ell+1)$ matrix, where $A_{1}$ has two columns and $A_{2}$ has $2 \ell-1$ columns; $A_{1} A_{2}$ represents a quarter of the matrix $A\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)$, i.e. $A_{1}$ has one of the for values 00,01 , 10 , or 11 , and $A_{2}$ has $2^{2 \ell-1}$ rows with exactly all the words in $\mathbb{F}_{2}^{2 \ell-1}$ in the lexicographic order. Let $B_{1} B_{2}$ be a $2^{2 \ell-1} \times 2^{\ell+1}$ matrix, where $B_{1}$ has $2^{\ell}$ columns and $B_{2}$ has $2^{\ell}$ columns; $B_{1} B_{2}$ represents a quarter of the matrix $B\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)$. Furthermore, let $B_{1}=B_{1}^{0} B_{1}^{1}$, where $B_{1}^{0}$ and $B_{1}^{1}$ are $2^{2 \ell-1} \times 2^{\ell-1}$ matrices. The $i$ th row of $A_{1} A_{2}$ will be mapped by $\varphi^{\prime}$ to the $i$ th row of $B_{1} B_{2}$. We distinguish now between four cases related to the values of the two columns of $A_{1}$.
[D1] If the two columns of $A_{1}$ are 00 , then $B_{1}$ is the all-zeroes matrix and $\left(A_{2}, B_{2}\right)$ is a pair of (2 $1,2^{\ell}, 2$ )-descendant arrays with the degree sequence $\left(1,1,2,2,2,4,4,8,8, \ldots, 2^{\ell-3}, 2^{\ell-3}, 2^{\ell-2}, 2^{\ell-2}\right)$.
[D2] If the two columns of $A_{1}$ are 11 , then $B_{2}$ is the all-zeroes matrix, and $B_{1}$ can be any matrix whose rows are different, $2^{2 \ell-1}-2^{\ell-1}$ rows have weight two, $2^{\ell-1}$ rows have weight one ( $2^{\ell-2}$ of these ones in the last $2^{\ell-2}$ columns of $B_{1}^{0}$ and the other $2^{\ell-2}$ ones in the last $2^{\ell-2}$ columns, which are the most significant bits, of $B_{1}^{1}$ ). Simple enumeration yields that there are $2^{2 \ell-1}$ such possible different rows as required.
[D3] If the two columns of $A_{1}$ are 01 then the matrix $B_{2}$ is chosen in a way that each column, except for the first one (least significant bit) has exactly $2^{\ell-1}$ ones and the first column has $2^{\ell-2}$ ones; each row, except for $2^{\ell-2}$ rows of $B_{2}$, has exactly one one and these $2^{\ell-2}$ rows are all-zeroes rows. The distribution of the ones is done in a way that the requirements of the related domination graph, i.e. the degree sequence of $\left(A_{2}, B_{2}\right)$ as a pair of $\left(2 \ell-1,2^{\ell}\right)$-descendant arrays is $\left(1,1,2,2,2,4,4,8,8, \ldots, 2^{\ell-3}, 2^{\ell-3}, 2^{\ell-2}, 2^{\ell-2}\right)$. For each $2^{\ell-1}$ ones in the same column of $B_{2}$, the corresponding $2^{\ell-1}$ rows in $B_{1}$ have unique ones in different $2^{\ell-1}$ columns in the last $2^{\ell-1}$ columns of $B_{1}$. The same is done for the first column of $B_{2}$ for which the all-zeroes rows are added. The concrete definition will be left as an exercise (not completely trivial).
[D4] If the two columns of $A_{1}$ are 10 then $B_{2}$ is exactly as in the case where the two columns of $A_{1}$ are 01 , In $B_{1}$ the first $2^{\ell-1}$ columns are swapped with the last $2^{\ell-1}$ columns compared to the matrix $B_{1}$ in the case where the first two columns of $A_{1}$ are 01 , i.e. $B_{1}^{0}$ is swapped with $B_{1}^{1}$.

Finally, $A\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)$ consists of the four matrices $A_{1} A_{2}$ of these four cases and $B\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)$ are the related four matrices $B_{1} B_{2}$. The construction leads to the following result.

Theorem 40. If $(A(\varphi), B(\varphi))$ is a pair of $\left(2 \ell-1,2^{\ell}, 2\right)$-descendant arrays then $\left(A\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right), B\left(\varphi^{\prime}\right)\right)$ are two $\left(2 \ell+1,2^{\ell+1}, 2\right)$-descendant arrays.

Theorem 40 implies the existence of a $\left(2 \ell+1,2^{\ell+1}, 2\right)$-domination mapping for odd $m$. What about an $(m, n, 2)$-domination mapping for even $m$. The following $(m, n)$ pairs were found by computer search to form optimal $(m, n, 2)$-domination mappings: $(4,6),(6,11),(8,23),(10,45),(12,90),(14,181),(16,362)$, $(18,724),(20,1448),(22,2896),(24,5793),(26,11585),(28,23170)$, and so on. For $m \geqslant 6$, these mappings attains the bound of Lemma[5] In this sequence of optimal domination mappings one can observe that
there is no obvious rule and a hence a recursive construction for optimal domination mapping won't be an easy task. But, optimal domination mappings exist and an existence proof for such mappings can be given similarly (but with a simpler proof) to the existence proof in Section 6 .

## B. Proof of Proposition 15

We provide a detailed proof of Proposition 15. To this end, we need the following lemmas.
Lemma 41. The set of all $A$-preserving permutations is a subgroup of the set of permutations on $[N]$.
Lemma 42. Suppose that $\pi$ is $A$-preserving. Then $A x^{\pi} \leqslant \mathbf{1}$ if and only if $A \boldsymbol{x} \leqslant \mathbf{1}$.
Proof. Since the set of all $A$-preserving permutations form a group, it suffices to show one direction.
Suppose that $A x \leqslant 1$. Since $P_{\pi_{\mathrm{row}}} A P_{\pi}=A$ for some permutation $\pi_{\mathrm{row}}:[M] \rightarrow[M]$, we have that

$$
\mathbf{1} \geqslant A \boldsymbol{x}=P_{\pi_{\mathrm{row}}} A P_{\pi} \boldsymbol{x}=P_{\pi_{\mathrm{row}}} A \boldsymbol{x}^{\pi} .
$$

Hence, $A \boldsymbol{x}^{\pi} \leqslant P_{\pi_{\text {row }}}^{-1} \mathbf{1}=\mathbf{1}$.
Proof of Proposition 15. Set

$$
x^{*}=\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x^{\pi}}{\left|G_{A}\right|} .
$$

By Lemma 42, we have that $A \boldsymbol{x}^{\pi} \leqslant \mathbf{1}$ for all $\pi \in G_{A}$. Therefore, $A \boldsymbol{x}^{*} \leqslant \mathbf{1}$. It is also readily verified that $\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_{i}^{*}=\lambda$

Finally, we show that $x^{*}$ is $\mathcal{O}$-regular. For all $k \leqslant N$ and $i, j \in O_{k}$, we have that

$$
x_{i}^{*}=\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x_{i}^{\pi}}{\left|G_{A}\right|}=\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x_{\pi(i)}}{\left|G_{A}\right|} .
$$

On the other hand, since $i, j \in O_{k}$, there exists a $\pi^{*}$ such that $\pi^{*}(j)=i$. Hence,

$$
x_{j}^{*}=\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x_{j}^{\pi}}{\left|G_{A}\right|}=\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x_{\pi(j)}}{\left|G_{A}\right|}=\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x_{\pi \circ \pi^{*}(j)}}{\left|G_{A}\right|}==\frac{\sum_{\pi \in G_{A}} x_{\pi(i)}}{\left|G_{A}\right|} .
$$

Therefore, $x_{i}^{*}=x_{j}^{*}$.

## References

[1] R. BÖDI and K. HERR, Symmetries in linear and integer programs, arXiv:0908.3329 preprint, (2009).
[2] Y.M. Chee, T. Etzion, H.M. Kiah, and A.Vardy, Cooling codes: Thermal-management coding for high-performance interconnects, IEEE Trans. Inform. Theory, 64 (2018), 3062-3085.
[3] Y.M. Chee, T. Etzion, H.M. Kiah, A.Vardy, and H. Wei, Low-power cooling codes with efficient encoding and decoding, Proc. International Symp. Inform. Theory, Vail, CO, (2018), 1655-1659.
[4] T. Etzion and L. Storme, Galois geometries and coding theory, Designs, Codes, Crypto., 78 (2016), 311-350.
[5] P. Hall, On representatives of subsets, J. London Math. Society, 10 (1935), 26-30.
[6] O. Heden, A survey of perfect codes, Adv. Math. Commun. 2(2) (2008), 223-247.
[7] D. König, Gráfok és mátrixok, Matematikai és Fizikai Lapok, 38 (1931), 116-119.
[8] F. J. MacWilliams and N. J.A. Sloane, The Theory of Error-Correcting Codes. Amsterdam: North Holland Publishing Company, May 1978.
[9] F. Margot, Exploiting orbits in symmetric ILP, Mathematical Programming, 98(1) (2003), 3-21.
[10] Sagemath, Sage Mathematics Software System (Version 7.6), Sage Developers, 2017, http://www.sagemath.org
[11] F.I. Solov' eva, On perfect binary codes, Discr. Applied Math. 152(9) (2008), 1488-1498.
[12] E. NĂSTASE and P. Sissokho, The maximum size of a partial spread in a finite projective space, $J$. Combin. Theory Ser. A, 152 (2017), 353-362.

