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# GENERALIZED LUCAS CUBES 

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#### Abstract

Let $f$ be a binary string and $d \geq 1$. Then the generalized Lucas cube $Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ is introduced as the graph obtained from the $d$-cube $Q_{d}$ by removing all vertices that have a circulation containing $f$ as a substring. The question for which $f$ and $d$, the generalized Lucas cube $Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ is an isometric subgraph of the $d$-cube $Q_{d}$ is solved for all binary strings of length at most five. Several isometrically embeddable and non-embeddable infinite series where $f$ is of arbitrary length are given. Some structural properties of generalized Lucas cubes are also presented.


## 1. INTRODUCTION

Hypercubes form one of the most applicable classes of graphs and offer challenging mathematical and computational problems. (Recall that the $d$-cube $Q_{d}$ is the graph whose vertices are all binary strings of length $d$, two vertices are adjacent if they differ in exactly one position.) In this paper we continue the research initiated in $[\mathbf{7}]$ by studying graphs that are obtained from hypercubes by removing vertices that contain forbidden substrings.

The Fibonacci cube $\Gamma_{d}$ is obtained from $Q_{d}$ by removing the vertices that contain the substring 11. Fibonacci cubes found a couple of applications $[\mathbf{6}, \mathbf{1 0}]$ and have been extensively studied, see for instance $[\mathbf{2}, \mathbf{4}, \mathbf{1 1}, \mathbf{1 2}, \mathbf{1 4}]$. For an up to date review on Fibonacci cubes see [9]. If $f$ is an arbitrary binary string, we can more generally consider the subgraph $Q_{d}(f)$ of $Q_{d}$ induced on vertices that do not contain $f$ as a substring. These graphs were introduced in [7] and named generalized Fibonacci cubes.

Lucas cubes $[\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}, \mathbf{5}, \mathbf{8}, \mathbf{1 1}, \mathbf{1 3}]$ form a class of graphs closely related to Fibonacci cubes. In fact, they are defined just as Fibonacci cubes with the

[^0]additional request that 1 cannot occur simultaneously in the first and the last position. Hence the Lucas cubes are graphs in which the substring 11 is forbidden in a circular manner.

In this paper we introduce generalized Lucas cubes in the way analogous (in view of the above remark) to the generalized Fibonacci cubes. Although these families of graphs are similar, they have several different properties. The definition of the generalized Lucas cubes is more symmetric due to the circular consideration of the strings. However, it turns out rather surprisingly that generalized Fibonacci cubes embed isometrically into the corresponding cubes much more frequently than the generalized Lucas cubes. Moreover, among the generalized Lucas cubes nonconnected graphs occur (very rarely though) and isometric embeddability of them into $Q_{d}$ may depend on the congruence of $d$ by some modulo.

The paper is organized as follows. In the rest of this section we give necessary definitions. In Section 2 we present our main results - classification of generalized Lucas cubes that embed isometrically into the corresponding cubes for all forbidden strings of length at most five. Then, in Section 3, some structural properties of generalized cubes are given. The final section contains proofs of the results from Section 2.

The Lucas cube $\Lambda_{d}, d \geq 1$, is the subgraph of $Q_{d}$ induced by the binary strings $b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{d}$ such that $b_{i} b_{i+1} \ldots b_{d} b_{1} \ldots b_{i-1}$ contains no two consecutive 1's for all $1 \leq i \leq d$. For each $1 \leq i \leq d$, call $b_{i} b_{i+1} \ldots b_{d} b_{1} \ldots b_{i-1}$ the $i$-th circulation of $b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{d}$. For $d \geq 1$ and a binary string $f$, the generalized Lucas cubes $Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ is the graph obtained from $Q_{d}$ by removing all vertices $b_{1} b_{2} \ldots b_{d}$ which have a circulation containing $f$ as a substring. Hence, $\Lambda_{d}=Q_{d}(\overline{11})$.

The distance $d_{G}(u, v)$ between vertices $u$ and $v$ of a graph $G$ is the usual shortest path distance. A subgraph $H$ of a graph $G$ is isometric if $d_{H}(u, v)=$ $d_{G}(u, v)$ for all $u, v \in V(H)$. We will write $H \hookrightarrow G$ to denote that $H$ is an isometric subgraph of $G$ and $H \nLeftarrow G$ that this is not the case. For instance, $\Lambda_{d} \rightarrow Q_{d}$, see [8]. The interval $I_{G}(u, v)$ between vertices $u$ and $v$ of a graph $G$ is the set of vertices of $G$ that lie on some shortest $u, v$-path.

For a binary string $b$, let $\bar{b}$ be the binary complement of $b$ and let $b^{R}=$ $b_{d} b_{d-1} \ldots b_{1}$ be the reverse of $b$. For binary strings $b$ and $c$ of equal length, let $b+c$ denote their sum computed bitwise modulo 2 . For $d \geq 1$ and $1 \leq i \leq d$, let $e_{i}$ be the binary string of length $d$ with 1 in the $i$-th position and 0 elsewhere. A non-extendable sequence of contiguous equal digits in a string $b$ is a block of $b$. Let $b=u v w$ be a binary string obtained by a concatenation of $u$, $v$, and $w$, where $u$ and $w$ are allowed to be the empty string. Then we say that $v$ is a factor of $b$.

## 2. (NON-)EMBEDDABILITY OF SHORT AND REGULAR STRINGS

In this section we give a solution to the question:

$$
Q_{d}(\bar{f}) \hookrightarrow Q_{d} ?
$$

for all strings $f$ of length at most 5. Along the way several additional (non-) embeddability results are obtained for strings of arbitrary length.

We begin with a collection of observations and leave their straightforward proofs to the reader.

## Lemma 1.

(i) Let $f$ be a binary string of length $r$ and $1 \leq d<r$. Then $Q_{d}(\bar{f})=Q_{d}$ and hence $Q_{d}(\bar{f}) \hookrightarrow Q_{d}$.
(ii) Let $f$ be a binary string and $d \geq 1$. Then $Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ is isomorphic to $Q_{d}(\overline{\bar{f}})$.
(iii) Let $f$ be a nonempty binary string and $d \geq 1$. Then $Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ is isomorphic to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{f^{R}}\right)$.
(iv) Let $f=f_{1} f_{2} \ldots f_{r}$ and $d \geq r$. Then at least one of the circulations of $a$ string $b$ contains $f$ as a factor if and only if $b^{2}$ does so. In other terms, $b \in Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ if and only if $b^{2} \in Q_{2 d}(f)$.

Because of Lemma 1(i), let us call a dimension trivial provided that it is smaller than the length of the forbidden string considered, that is, $d<r$.

Forbidden strings with one block yield isometric embeddings:
Proposition 2. Let $s \geq 1$. Then for any $d \geq 1, Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{s}}\right) \hookrightarrow Q_{d}$.
The situation with two blocks is more involved:
Theorem 3. For any nontrivial dimension d, the following statements hold.
(i) Let $r \geq 1$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r}}\right) \nLeftarrow Q_{d}$.
(ii) $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{1^{2} 0^{2}}\right) \rightarrow Q_{d}$ if and only if $d=5$.
(iii) Let $r \geq 3$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0^{2}}\right) \hookrightarrow Q_{d}$ if and only if $d=r+3$, or $d=r+4$.
(iv) Let $r, s \geq 3$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{\overline{1}^{r} 0^{s}}\right) \hookrightarrow Q_{d}$ if and only if $r+s+1 \leq d \leq 2 r+2 s-3$.

When $f$ has three blocks, we have nonisometry for all nontrivial dimensions:
Proposition 4. Let $r, s, t \geq 1$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{1^{r} 0^{s} 1^{t}}\right) \nLeftarrow Q_{d}$ for any nontrivial dimension.
To cover the cases where $f$ is of length 4 and 5 , we also need to consider $f$ 's with more than three blocks. We have the following related results:

Proposition 5. Let $s \geq 1$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{\left.(10)^{s} 1\right)} \nLeftarrow Q_{d}\right.$ for $d=2 s+1$ and for any $d \geq 4 s$.
Proposition 6. Let $r, s \geq 1$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{r} 1(10)^{s}}\right) \nLeftarrow Q_{d}$ for $d=2 r+2 s+1$ and for any $d \geq 2 r+2 s+3$.
Proposition 7. Let $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{n}, s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \geq 1$ and let $d$ be a nontrivial dimension. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r_{1}} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}}}\right) \nLeftarrow Q_{d}$ for $d \equiv 0\left(\bmod r_{1}+\cdots+r_{n}+s_{1}+\cdots+s_{n}-1\right)$.

The next result shows a striking difference between the isometry of generalized Lucas cubes and generalized Fibonacci cubes.

Theorem 8. Let $s \geq 2$. Then for any nontrivial dimension $d, Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right) \leftrightarrow Q_{d}$ if and only if $d \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2 s-1)$.

In order to complete our classification, a single forbidden factor remains that is not covered by the above results: 11010. To take care of it we prove:

Proposition 9. For every $d \geq 5$, it holds $Q_{d}(\overline{11010}) \nLeftarrow Q_{d}$.
Now everything is ready for the main results of this paper which are presented in Table 1. In view of Lemma 1(ii) and (iii) we present only nonisomorphic generalized Lucas cubes, and in view of Lemma 1(i) we state results for nontrivial dimensions only. Only strings written in bold yield isometric embeddings, while strings labeled with $*$ indicate disconnected graphs (cf. Proposition 10). We note that in all the cases when $Q_{d}(f)$ is isometric in $Q_{d}$, our proofs imply that $Q_{d}(f)$ is connected.

| length | forbidden factor |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 (Proposition 2) |
| 2 | 11 (Proposition 2) <br> 10* (Theorem 3(i)) |
| 3 | 111 (Proposition 2) <br> 110* (Theorem 3(i)) <br> 101* (Proposition 4) |
| 4 | 1111 (Proposition 2) <br> 1110* (Theorem 3(i)) <br> 1100 ( $d=5$, Theorem 3(ii)) <br> $1100(d=4$ or $d \geq 6$, Theorem 3(ii)) <br> $1010(d \leq 5$ or $d \not \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, Theorem 8) <br> $1010(d \neq 3$ and $d \equiv 0(\bmod 3)$, Proposition 7$)$ <br> $1101^{*}, 1001$ (Proposition 4) |
| 5 | 11111 (Proposition 2) <br> $11110^{*}$ (Theorem 3(i)) <br> 11100 ( $d=6,7$, Theorem 3(iii)) <br> $11100(d=5$ or $d \geq 8$, Theorem 3(iii)) <br> 11001, 11101*, $11011^{*}$, 10001 (Proposition 4) <br> 10110 (computer check for $d=6$ ) <br> $10110(d=5$ or $d \geq 7$, Proposition 6) <br> $10101(d=6,7$, by computer check) <br> $10101(d=5$ or $d \geq 8$, Proposition 5) <br> 11010 (Proposition 9) |

Table 1. Classification of embeddability of generalized Lucas cubes with forbidden factors of length at most 5

## 3. ON THE STRUCTURE OF GENERALIZED LUCAS CUBES

Note that $Q_{d}(\overline{0})$ contains only the vertex $1^{d}$. We have already mentioned that generalized Lucas cubes need not be connected, see $Q_{d}(\overline{110})$ on Figure 1.


Figure 1. Generalized Lucas cube $Q_{5}(\overline{110})$.
More generally:
Proposition 10. Generalized Lucas cubes $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 01^{s}}\right), r+s \geq 1, d \geq r+s+1$, are composed of an isolated vertex $1^{d}$ and a connected component.

Proof. The vertex $1^{d}$ is isolated, since all its neighbors have circulations containing $1^{r} 01^{s}$. We will prove that for any other vertex there is a path to the vertex $0^{d}$, which proves that the generalized Lucas cube $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 01^{s}}\right)$ has exactly two connected components. Let $b$ be an arbitrary vertex of $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 01^{s}}\right)$, different from $1^{d}$. Since $b$ contains at least one bit 0 , let $i$ be the position of the first bit which is 0 . Assume that the bits on positions $i, i+1, \ldots, j$ are all equal to 0 , while the bit on the position $j+1$ is 1 . We can change $(j+1)$-th or $(i-1)$-th bit from 1 to 0 by considering the positions by modulo $d$, and it can be easily shown that a vertex obtained in this way belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{\mathrm{i}^{r} 01^{s}}\right)$. In this way, we can increase the size of this block of zeros and finally reach the vertex $0^{d}$.

Note that $Q_{d}(\overline{10})$ contains only vertices $1^{d}$ and $0^{d}$, so that the connected component of $Q_{d}(\overline{10})$ from Proposition 10 consists of only the vertex $0^{d}$.

By Proposition 10, $H_{d}=Q_{d}(\overline{110})$ is disconnected with one isolated vertex $1^{d}$. If some vertex of $H_{d}$ contains two consecutive bits 1 , then it can be easily proved that this vertex must be equal to $1^{d}$. Therefore, for the vertices of the other connected component factor 11 is forbidden in a circular manner. Hence $V\left(H_{d}\right)=V\left(\Lambda_{d}\right) \cup\left\{1^{d}\right\}$. Using the results from [8], the following formulas hold:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left|V\left(H_{d}\right)\right|=\left|V\left(\Lambda_{d}\right)\right|+1=L_{d}+1,  \tag{1}\\
& \left|E\left(H_{d}\right)\right|=\left|E\left(\Lambda_{d}\right)\right|=d F_{n-1},  \tag{2}\\
& \left|S\left(H_{d}\right)\right|=\left|S\left(\Lambda_{d}\right)\right|, \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

where $L_{d}$ are the Lucas numbers defined with $L_{0}=2, L_{1}=1, L_{d}=L_{d-1}+L_{d-2}$ for $d \geq 2 ; F_{d}$ are the Fibonacci numbers defined with $F_{0}=0, F_{1}=1, F_{d}=F_{d-1}+F_{d-2}$ for $d \geq 2$; and $S\left(H_{d}\right)$ is the set of 4-cycles of $H_{d}$.

Among the strings of length 3,111 is the only one that gives isometric embeddings. For the Lucas cubes $Q_{d}(\overline{111})$ recurrent formulas similar to those for the generalized Fibonacci cubes $Q_{d}(111)$ [ $\left.\mathbf{7}\right]$ hold:

Proposition 11. For $d \geq 0$, let $G_{d}=Q_{d}(\overline{111})$. Then
(i) $\quad\left|V\left(G_{d}\right)\right|=\left|V\left(G_{d-1}\right)\right|+\left|V\left(G_{d-2}\right)\right|+\left|V\left(G_{d-3}\right)\right|, d \geq 6$, and $\left|V\left(G_{i}\right)\right|=1,2,4,7,11,21$, for $i=0,1, \ldots, 5$, respectively;
(ii) $\quad\left|E\left(G_{d}\right)\right|=\left|E\left(G_{d-1}\right)\right|+\left|E\left(G_{d-2}\right)\right|+\left|E\left(G_{d-3}\right)\right|+\left|V\left(G_{d-2}\right)\right|+2\left|V\left(G_{d-3}\right)\right|, d \geq 6$, and $\left|E\left(G_{i}\right)\right|=0,1,4,9,16,40$, for $i=0,1, \ldots, 5$, respectively;
(iii) $\quad\left|S\left(G_{d}\right)\right|=\left|S\left(G_{d-1}\right)\right|+\left|S\left(G_{d-2}\right)\right|+\left|S\left(G_{d-3}\right)\right|+\left|E\left(G_{d-2}\right)\right|+2\left|E\left(G_{d-3}\right)\right|+$ $\left|V\left(G_{d-3}\right)\right|$,
for $d \geq 6$, and $\left|S\left(G_{i}\right)\right|=0,0,1,3,6,25$, for $i=0,1, \ldots, 5$, respectively.

Proof. The initial conditions can be easily checked. Consider the generalized Fibonacci cube $G_{d}^{\prime}=Q_{d}(111)$. To get the generalized Lucas cube $G_{d}$ from $G_{d}^{\prime}$, we need to exclude the following sets of vertices $A=\left\{110 v 01 \mid v \in Q_{d-5}(111)\right\}$, $B=\left\{10 v 011 \mid v \in Q_{d-5}(111)\right\}$ and $C=\left\{110 v 011 \mid v \in Q_{d-6}(111)\right\}$, since the vertices of these sets have circulations containing 111. It follows that

$$
\left|V\left(G_{d}\right)\right|=\left|V\left(G_{d}^{\prime}\right)\right|-2\left|V\left(G_{d-5}^{\prime}\right)\right|-\left|V\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|
$$

Since $\left|V\left(G_{d}^{\prime}\right)\right|=\left|V\left(G_{d-1}^{\prime}\right)\right|+\left|V\left(G_{d-2}^{\prime}\right)\right|+\left|V\left(G_{d-3}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ holds for $d \geq 3$ (see [7]), we get (i). For the number of edges, we need to exclude the edges from $G_{d}^{\prime}$ where at least one vertex belongs to $S=A \cup B \cup C$.

We claim that there are exactly $6\left|V\left(G_{d-5}^{\prime}\right)\right|+2\left|V\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ edges that connect one vertex from $S$ and one vertex from $V\left(G_{d}\right)$. Consider the vertex $110 \ldots 01$ from $A$. It has neighbors $010 \ldots 01,100 \ldots 01$, and $110 \ldots 00$ (and $110 \ldots 011$, but this vertex is from $C$, and we will count these edges in the second part). Therefore, the number of edges with one vertex in $A$ or $B$ and the other one in the Lucas cube is equal to $6\left|V\left(G_{d-5}^{\prime}\right)\right|$. Next consider the vertex $110 \ldots 011$ from $C$. It has neighbors $010 \ldots 011$ and $110 \ldots 010$ (the neighbors $100 \ldots 011$ and $110 \ldots 001$ are from the set $B$ and $A$, respectively). Therefore, the number of edges with one vertex in $C$ and the other one in the Lucas cube is equal to $2\left|V\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ and the claim is proved.

Moreover, there are $2\left|E\left(G_{d-5}^{\prime}\right)\right|+\left|E\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|+2\left|V\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ edges that connect two vertices from $S$ (the factor $2\left|V\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ corresponds to the edges connecting the set $C$ with sets $A$ and $B$ ). Finally, this gives

$$
\left|E\left(G_{d}\right)\right|=\left|E\left(G_{d}^{\prime}\right)\right|-2\left|E\left(G_{d-5}^{\prime}\right)\right|-\left|E\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right|-6\left|V\left(G_{d-5}^{\prime}\right)\right|-4\left|V\left(G_{d-6}^{\prime}\right)\right| .
$$

Using a recurrent formula for $\left|E\left(G_{d}^{\prime}\right)\right|$ we get (ii). Similarly we derive the formula for the number of squares.

## 4. PROOFS

Proof of Proposition 2. For $s=1$ we have $Q_{d}(\overline{1})=K_{1}$ and there is nothing to be proved. Let $s \geq 2$ and consider arbitrary vertices $b$ and $c$ of $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{s}}\right)$ with $d_{Q_{d}}(b, c)=r \geq 1$. We need to show that $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{s}}\right)}(b, c)=r$ as well.

Let $b_{j}=1$ and $c_{j}=0$ for $j=i_{1}, \ldots, i_{p}$ and $b_{j}=0$ and $c_{j}=1$ for $j=i_{p+1}, \ldots, i_{r}$. Recalling that + stands for the sum computed bitwise modulo 2 we then infer that

$$
P: b \rightarrow\left(b+e_{i_{1}}\right) \rightarrow\left(b+e_{i_{1}}+e_{i_{2}}\right) \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow\left(b+e_{i_{1}}+e_{i_{2}}+\ldots+e_{i_{r}}\right)
$$

is a $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$ of length $r$. The path $P$ starts at $b$; then visits the vertices obtained from $b$ by changing one by one the 1 bits of $b$ such that the bits of $c$ in the same positions are 0 ; then $P$ traverses the vertices obtained from $b$ by changing one by one the 0 bits of $b$ whose corresponding bits of $c$ are 1 ; in this way $P$ finally reaches $c$. Now, if a circulation of some vertex of $P$ would contain $1^{s}$ as a factor, $1^{s}$ would also be a factor of a circulation of $c$. Since this is not the case we conclude that $P$ lies entirely in $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{s}}\right)$.

Note that the proof of Proposition 2 implies that $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{s}}\right)$ is connected.
Proof of Theorem 3. (i) $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0}\right)$ is not connected by Proposition 10.
(ii) We checked by computer that $Q_{5}\left(\overline{1^{2} 0^{2}}\right) \hookrightarrow Q_{5}$ holds. Dimension 6 will be covered by (the proof of) Proposition 7. Assume $d=7$. Select vertices $b=1^{2} 1010^{2}$ and $c=1^{2} 0100^{2}$. Note that $b, c \in Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{2} 0^{2}}\right)$ and that they differ in three bits, that is, $d_{Q_{d}}(b, c)=3$. The only neighbors of $b$ in $I_{Q_{d}}(b, c)$ are $1^{2} 0010^{2}, 1^{2} 1110^{2}$, and $1^{2} 1000^{2}$, but none of them belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{2} 0^{2}}\right)$. This implies that $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{\left.1^{2} 0^{2}\right)}\right.}(b, c)>3$. Attaching an appropriate number of 1 's to the front of $b$ and $c$, the above construction applies to $d>7$ which proves (ii).

We next show that the smallest nontrivial dimension in (iii) and in (iv) does not give isometry. So to show that $Q_{r+s}\left(\overline{\overline{1}^{r} 0^{s}}\right) \nLeftarrow Q_{r+s}$, select vertices $b=11^{r-1} 10^{s-1}$ and $c=01^{r-1} 00^{s-1}$. Their common neighbors in $I_{Q_{r+s}}(b, c)$ are $01^{r-1} 10^{s-1}$ and $11^{r-1} 00^{s-1}$ but none of them belongs to $Q_{r+s}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0^{s}}\right)$.
(iii) The case $d=r+2$ has already been treated above, hence assume that $d \geq r+3$. For $d=r+5$, consider the vertices $b=1^{r} 10100$ and $c=1^{r} 01100$ from $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)$, that are at distance 2 . For higher dimensions, attach an appropriate number of 1 's to the front of $b$ and $c$.

Assume that $r+3 \leq d \leq r+4$. Let $b$ and $c$ be vertices of $Q_{d}\left(\overline{\overline{1}^{r} 00}\right)$ with $p=$ $d_{Q_{d}}(b, c)$. We proceed by induction on $p$ and need to prove that $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)}(b, c)=p$ as well. If $p=1$, that is, $d_{Q_{d}}(b, c)=1$, then by definition, $b$ is adjacent to $c$ in $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)$. Let $p \geq 2$ and let $b$ and $c$ differ on the position $i$. We may without loss of generality assume that $b_{i}=1$ and $c_{i}=0$. Let $b^{\prime}=b+e_{i}$. If $b^{\prime} \in Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)$ then we are
done by the induction assumption because $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)}\left(b^{\prime}, c\right)=p-1$. Hence assume that $b^{\prime} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)$. Then $b$ has $1^{r}$ as a prefix. Furthermore, we can assume that $b$ starts with $1^{r} 10$ while $c$ starts with $1^{r} 01$, i.e. $i=r+1$. Notice that the $(r+3)$-th bit in $b$ must be 1 , because otherwise $b$ has a circulation that contains $1^{r} 00$ as a factor. Since $d \leq r+4$, the vertex $b^{\prime \prime}=b+e_{i+1}$ has at most one 0 , and thus belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)$. Since $d_{Q_{d}}\left(b^{\prime \prime}, c\right)=p-1$, by induction assumption $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 00}\right)}\left(b^{\prime \prime}, c\right)=p-1$ also holds, hence we conclude that $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{\left.1^{r} 00\right)}\right.}(b, c)=p$.
(iv) The case $d=r+s$ has already been treated above. Let $d=2 r+2 s-2$. Then vertices $b=1^{r} 0^{s-2} 101^{r-2} 0^{s}$ and $c=1^{r} 0^{s-2} 011^{r-2} 0^{s}$ do the job, as well as the vertices with 1 's attached in front do for higher dimensions.

Assume that $r+s+1 \leq d \leq 2 r+2 s-3$. Let $b$ and $c$ be vertices of $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0^{s}}\right)$ with $p=d_{Q_{d}}(b, c)$. We proceed by induction on $p$, the base case $p=1$ is clearly true. Let $p \geq 2$ and let $b$ and $c$ differ on position $i$. We may without loss of generality assume that $b_{i}=1$ and $c_{i}=0$. Let $b^{\prime}=b+e_{i}$. If $b^{\prime} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0^{s}}\right)$, then $b$ has $1^{r}$ as a prefix. Furthermore, we can assume that $b$ starts with $1^{r} 0^{x} 10^{s-1-x}$ while $c$ starts with $1^{r} 0^{x} 0$, i.e. $i=r+x+1$. Notice that $c$ cannot have $1^{r} 0^{s}$ as prefix, and therefore the vertex $c$ must start with $1^{r} 0^{x} 00^{y} 1$, where $x+1+y<s$. Let $b^{\prime \prime}=b+e_{r+x+y+2}$.

If $x=0$, the vertex $b$ has to start with $1^{r} 10^{s-1} 1$, while we have that $b^{\prime \prime}$ starts with $1^{r} 10^{y} 10^{s-2-y} 1$, and this prefix clearly does not have a block of size $s$ with consecutive zeros. In order to $b^{\prime \prime}$ have a circulation that contains $1^{r} 0^{s}$ as a factor, we need to have $s-2-y=0$, and $1^{r-2} 0^{s}$ appears after position $r+s+1$. But then $d \geq(r+s+1)+(r+s-2)=2 r+2 s-1$, which is impossible. Therefore, in this case $b^{\prime \prime}$ belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0^{s}}\right)$. If $s>x+y+2$, the vertex $b^{\prime \prime}$ starts with $1^{r} 0^{x} 10^{y} 10^{s-x-y-2}$, and similarly $b^{\prime \prime} \in Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r} 0^{s}}\right)$.

Finally, let $s=x+y+2$ and $x>0$. The vertices $b$ and $c$ start with $1^{r} 0^{x} 10^{s-2-x} 0$ and $1^{r} 0^{x} 00^{s-2-x} 1$, respectively. In order to $b^{\prime \prime}$ have a circulation that contains $1^{r} 0^{s}$ as a factor, we need to have $s-2-x=0$, and $1^{r-2} 0^{s}$ appears after position $r+s$. But then $d \geq(r+s)+(r+s-2)=2 r+2 s-2$, which is impossible. Since $d_{Q_{d}}\left(b^{\prime \prime}, c\right)=p-1$, this completes the inductive proof and the proof of Theorem 3.
Proof of Proposition 4. When $d=r+s+t$, note that $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{1^{r} 0^{s} 1^{t}}\right)=Q_{d}\left(\overline{1^{r+t} 0^{s}}\right)$ and hence nonisometry follows from Theorem 3.

Suppose $d=r+s+t+1$. Then vertices $b=1^{r} 10^{s-1} 11^{t}$ and $c=1^{r} 00^{s-1} 01^{t}$ from $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{1^{r} 0^{s} 1^{t}}\right)$ demonstrate nonisometry. For higher dimensions proceed as in similar cases above.

Proof of Proposition 5. The case $s=1$ has already been treated in Proposition 4. Assume in the rest that $s \geq 2$. For $d=2 s+1$ select $b=(10) 100(10)^{s-2}$, $c=(10) 111(10)^{s-2}$ and argue as above that $b, c \in Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s} 1}\right)$ but their common neighbors (10)110(10) ${ }^{s-2}$ and (10)101(10) ${ }^{s-2}$ are not vertices of $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s} 1}\right)$.

For $d=4 s$ consider $b=(10)^{s-1} 100(10)^{s-1} 1$ and $c=(10)^{s-1} 111(10)^{s-1} 1$. The common neighbors $(10)^{s-1} 110(10)^{s-1} 1=(10)^{s-1} 1(10)^{s} 1$ and $(10)^{s-1} 101(10)^{s-1} 1=$
$(10)^{s} 1(10)^{s-1} 1$ do not belong to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s} 1}\right)$. For $d>4 s$ attach an appropriate number of 1 's to the front of $b$ and $c$.
Proof of Proposition 6. Let $d=2 r+2 s+1$. Then $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{r} 1(10)^{s}}\right)=Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{r+s} 1}\right)$ and the assertion follows from Proposition 5.

Let $d=2 r+2 s+3$. Select $b=(10)^{r} 100(10)^{s}$ and $c=(10)^{r} 111(10)^{s}$ to reach the desired conclusion. Again, for any $d>2 r+2 s+3$ attach the appropriate number of 1 's to the front of $b$ and $c$.

Proof of Proposition 7. Let $f=1^{r_{1}} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}}$. Select vertices

$$
b=\left(11^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)^{k}=\left(1^{r_{1}} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)^{k}
$$

and

$$
c=\left(01^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)^{k}=0\left(1^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}}\right)^{k-1} 1^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1} .
$$

Note that $b$ and $c$ differ in $k$ bits. The only neighbors of $b$ in $I_{Q_{d}}(b, c)$ are

$$
\left(11^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)^{x}\left(01^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)\left(11^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)^{k-x-1}
$$

for some $0 \leq x \leq k-1$. But none of them belongs to $Q_{d}(\bar{f})$.
We still need to show that $b, c \in Q_{d}(\bar{f})$. In our earlier proofs this was straightforward, but now the task is more complicated.

Suppose by way of contradiction that $b \notin Q_{d}(\bar{f})$. Considering the length of $f$ and the structure of $b$, we infer in the spirit of Lemma 1(iv) that a circulation of $\left(1^{r_{1}} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1}\right)^{2}$ and hence

$$
g=1^{r_{n-l+1}} 0^{s_{n-l+1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}-1} 1^{r_{1}} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n-l}} 0^{s_{n-l}} 1^{r_{n-l+1}} 0^{s_{n-l+1}},
$$

where $\ell \geq 1$, contains $f=1^{r_{1}} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}}$ as a factor. Note that the indices of $f$ and $g$ coincide except that $g$ could have more 1's at the front and more 0 's at the end. Note also that we could define $g$ by ending it with $1^{r_{n-l}} 0^{s_{n-l}}$ if $s_{n}>1$. We distinguish two cases.

Case 1. $s_{n}>1$. Then there is an index $\ell, 1 \leq \ell<n$, such that

$$
s_{i}= \begin{cases}s_{i+\ell-n} ; & n-\ell+1 \leq i<n, \\ s_{\ell}+1 ; & i=n, \\ s_{i+\ell} ; & 1 \leq i<n-\ell,\end{cases}
$$

and $s_{n-\ell} \geq s_{n}$. Let $n=\tilde{n} \ell+u$ for some $0 \leq u<\ell$.
If $u=0$, then $s_{n}-1=s_{\ell}=s_{2 \ell}=\cdots=s_{(\tilde{n}-1) \ell} \geq s_{n}$, a contradiction. Assume $u>0$. Let $g$ be the greatest common divisor of $\ell$ and $u$. Set $\ell=\ell_{1} g$ and $u=u_{1} g$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
s_{n}-1 & =s_{(\tilde{n}) \ell=n-u} \\
& =s_{n-u+\ell-n} \quad(\text { as } n-\ell+1 \leq n-u<n) \\
& =s_{n-u+2 \ell-n}=\cdots=s_{n-u+\tilde{n} \ell-n=n-2 u}\left(=s_{n+\ell-2 u} \text { if } n+\ell-2 u<n\right) \\
& =\cdots=s_{n-\ell} u=n-u_{1} \ell=s_{n-\left(u_{1}-1\right) \ell}=\cdots=s_{n-l} \geq s_{n},
\end{aligned}
$$

and we get a contradiction.
Case 2. $s_{n}=1$. Then there is an index $\ell, 1 \leq \ell<n$, such that

$$
r_{i}= \begin{cases}r_{i+\ell-n} ; & n-\ell+2 \leq i \leq n-1, \\ r_{\ell}-r_{1} ; & i=n, \\ r_{i+\ell-1} ; & 2 \leq i \leq n-\ell+1,\end{cases}
$$

and $r_{n} \geq r_{1}$. Let $n=\tilde{n}(\ell-1)+u$ for some $0 \leq u<\ell-1$.
Let $r=r_{n}+r_{1}$. If $u=0$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r & =r_{\ell}=r_{\ell+(\ell-1)}=\cdots=r_{(\tilde{n}-1)(\ell-1)+1=n-\ell+2} \\
& =r_{n-\ell+2+\ell-n=2}=r_{n-\ell+3}=r_{3}=\cdots=r_{n-1}=r_{\ell-1}=r_{n-\ell+1}=r_{n},
\end{aligned}
$$

a contradiction.
Assume $u>0$. Then $r=r_{\ell}=r_{\tilde{n}(\ell-1)+1=n-u+1}$. If $u=1$, then $r=r_{n}$, a contradiction. Assume $u \geq 2$. Let $g$ be the greatest common divisor of $\ell-1$ and $u-1$. Set $\ell-1=\ell_{1} g$ and $u-1=u_{1} g$. Then
$r=r_{n-u+1+\ell-n=\ell-u+1=\ell-1-u+2}=r_{\tilde{n}(\ell-1)-u+2=n-2 u+2}\left(=r_{n-2 u+2+\ell-1}\right.$ if $\left.n-2 u+2 \leq n-\ell\right)$.
Note that $n-2 u+2 \neq n-\ell+1$ as otherwise $r=r_{n}$, a contradiction. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
r & =r_{n-2 u+2+(\ell-1)+l-n=(\ell-1)-2 u+3+(\ell-1)}=r_{n-u-2 u+3=n-3 u+3} \\
& =\cdots=r_{n-\ell}(u-1)=n-(\ell-1) u_{1}=r_{n-(\ell-1)\left(u_{1}-1\right)}=\cdots=r_{n-(\ell-1)}=r_{n},
\end{aligned}
$$

and we get a contradiction. This proves that $b \in Q_{d}(\bar{f})$.
Suppose $c \notin Q_{d}(\bar{f})$. Let $\tilde{c}=\left(1^{r_{1}-1} 0^{s_{1}} \ldots 1^{r_{n}} 0^{s_{n}}\right)^{k}$. Then $\tilde{c}$ is a circulation of $c$ and hence $\tilde{c} \notin Q_{d}(\bar{f})$ either. Therefore $\tilde{c}^{R}=\left(0^{s_{n}} 1^{r_{n}} \ldots 0^{s_{1}} 1^{r_{1}-1}\right)^{k}$ contains $f^{R}=0^{s_{n}} 1^{r_{n}} \ldots 0^{s_{1}} 1^{r_{1}}$ as a factor. By a similar argument which we used for $b$ we get contradictions and conclude that $c \in Q_{d}(\bar{f})$.

Proof of Theorem 8. By Proposition $7, Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right) \nLeftarrow Q_{d}$ if $d \equiv 0(\bmod 2 s-1)$. It is enough to show that $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right) \rightarrow Q_{d}$ if $d \neq 0(\bmod 2 s-1)$, hence assume in the rest of the proof that $d \equiv 0(\bmod 2 s-1)$.

Let $b$ and $c$ be vertices of $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{(10)^{s}}\right)$ with $p=d_{Q_{d}}(b, c)$. We proceed by induction on $p$ and note that it is clear for $p=1$. Let $p \geq 2$ and let $i<j$ be indices of bits such that $b_{i} \neq c_{i}, b_{j} \neq c_{j}$, and $b_{r}=c_{r}$ for all $i<r<j$. Also let

$$
k(i)= \begin{cases}\max \left\{r \mid 0<r<i \text { s.t. } b_{r} \neq c_{r}\right\} ; & \text { if the set is not empty, } \\ \max \left\{r-d \mid r \geq j \text { s.t. } b_{r} \neq c_{r}\right\} ; & \text { otherwise },\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
\ell(i)= \begin{cases}k(i) ; & k(i) \geq 1 \\ k(i)+d ; & k(i) \leq 0\end{cases}
$$

Let $b^{\prime}=b+e_{i}$. If $j-i \geq 2 s$ and $i-k(i) \geq 2 s$, then $b^{\prime}$ belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\widetilde{\left.(10)^{s}\right)}\right.$ for otherwise $c \notin Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$. Since $b^{\prime}$ differs from $c$ in $p-1$ bits, induction assumption implies that there exists a $b^{\prime}, c$-path in $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ of length $p-1$ and hence there exists a $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ of length $p$.

Assume $j-i \leq 2 s-1$. Without loss of generality let $b_{i}=1$ and $c_{i}=0$. If any of $b^{\prime}, c^{\prime}=c+e_{i}, b+e_{j}$, and $c+e_{j}$ lies in $Q_{d}\left(\widetilde{(10)^{s}}\right)$, we can proceed by induction. Hence assume that none of them belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$. Then $b_{i}^{\prime}$ is preceded by 1 and $c_{i}^{\prime}$ is followed by 0 . We distinguish two cases. In the arguments we give, we will consider $c_{i-1}$. If, however, $i-1=0$, then instead of $c_{i-1}$ consider $c_{d}$.

Case 1. $b_{j}=0$ and $c_{j}=1$. As $c+e_{j} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{(10)^{s}}\right), c_{j}$ is preceded by 1 .
If $c_{i-1}=1$, then as $c^{\prime} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{(10)^{s}}\right), c_{i}^{\prime}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$. If $c_{i-1}=0$, then $k(i)=i-1$ and $c+e_{l(i)}$ is on a shortest $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$. The only possibility that $c+e_{l(i)}$ would not belong to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ is that $c_{l(i)}$ is preceded by 0 and in this case the only possibility that $c^{\prime}$ does not belong to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{\left.(10)^{s}\right)}\right)$ is that $c_{i}^{\prime}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$. Therefore in any case, $c+e_{l(i)}$ which is on a shortest $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$ belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ or $c_{i}^{\prime}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$. In the former case we can proceed by induction and in the latter case $j-i \geq 2 s+1$ as $c_{j-1}=c_{j}=1$, and we get a contradiction.

Case 2. $b_{j}=1$ and $c_{j}=0$. As $c+e_{j} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right), c_{j}$ is followed by 0 . Similarly as in Case $1, c+e_{l(i)}$ which is on a shortest $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$ would belong to $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{(10)^{s}}\right)$ or $c_{i}^{\prime}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$. In the former case we can proceed by induction and in the latter case $j-i \geq 2 s-1$ as $c_{j}=c_{j+1}=0$. Assume the latter case. Then $j-i=2 s-1$ and $b_{i}^{\prime}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$ as $c_{i}^{\prime}$ is. As $b^{\prime} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right), b_{i}^{\prime}$ is preceded by $(10)^{s-1} 1$ and as $c+e_{j} \notin Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right), c_{j}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$. If $i-k(i) \geq 2 s$, then $c$ would not belong to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ as $b^{\prime}$ does not either and we get a contradiction. Therefore $i-k(i) \leq 2 s-1$. If $b_{l(i)}=0$, then $b+e_{l(i)}$ which is on a shortest $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$ belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ and we can proceed by induction. If $b_{l(i)}=1$, then replacing $i$ and $j$ by $k(i)$ and $i$, respectively leads to $i-k(i)=2 s-1, b_{l(i)}$ is preceded by $(10)^{s-1} 1$ and $c_{l(i)}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$.

By Case 1 and Case 2, we conclude that if for some index $t, b_{t}=b_{t+2 s-1}=1$, $c_{t}=c_{t+2 s-1}=0$ and $b_{r}=c_{r}$ for all $t<r<t+2 s-1$, then two cases follow. In the first case, at least one neighbor of $b$ or $c$ on a shortest $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$ belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overline{(10)^{s}}\right)$ and we can proceed by induction. In the second case, $k(t)=t-(2 s-1)$, $b_{l(t)}=1, c_{l(t)}=0, b_{l(t)}$ is preceded by $(10)^{s-1} 1$ and $c_{l(t)}$ is followed by $0(10)^{s-1}$. As $d \not \equiv 0(\bmod 2 s-1)$, in repeating this procedure there is an index $t_{0}$ such that $k\left(t_{0}\right) \neq t_{0}-(2 s-1)$. Thus, at least one neighbor of $b$ or $c$ on a shortest $b, c$-path in $Q_{d}$ belongs to $Q_{d}\left(\overleftarrow{(10)^{s}}\right)$ and hence $d_{Q_{d}\left(\overline{\left.(10)^{s}\right)}\right.}(b, c)=p$ by induction.

Proof of Proposition 9. We will distinguish three cases based on the residue of $d$ modulo 3 .

Case 1. $d=3 k$. Consider two vertices $b=(001)^{k}$ and $c=(101)^{k}$ of $Q_{d}(\overline{11010})$. They differ in $k$ bits and changing any of these bits in $b$ from 0 to 1 yields a circulation which has 11010 as a factor. It follows that $d_{Q_{d}(\overline{11010})}(b, c)>k$.

Case 2. $d=3 k+1$. Consider $b=(001)^{k-1} 0101$ and $c=(101)^{k-1} 1101$ of $Q_{d}(\overleftarrow{11010})$. They differ in $k$ bits and changing any of these bits in $b$ from 0 to 1 yields a circulation which has 11010 as a factor. It follows that $d_{Q_{d}(\overline{11010})}(b, c)>k$.

Case 3. $d=3 k+2$. For $d=5$, consider 00101 and 11101 of $Q_{d}(\overline{11010})$, while for $d>5$, vertices $(001)^{k-2} 00101$ and (101) $)^{k-2} 11101$ do the job.

Acknowledgements. This work was supported by Research Grants 174010 and 174033 of Serbian Ministry of Education and Science, and by the Research Grant P1-0297 of Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology Slovenia. The work was partially done during a visit of A.I. at the University of Ljubljana supported by the grant P1-0297 of Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology Slovenia and during a sabbatical visit of Y.R. at the Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, University of Ljubljana.

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[^0]:    2010 Mathematics Subject Classification. 05C12, 05C75
    Keywords and Phrases. Hypercube, Lucas cube, generalized Lucas cube, isometric embedding.

