



Unique Metro Domination of a Ladder

John Sherra* and Badekara Sooryanarayana†

Abstract

A dominating set D of a graph G which is also a resolving set of G is called a metro dominating set. A metro dominating set D of a graph $G(V, E)$ is a unique metro dominating set (in short an UMD-set) if $|N(v) \cap D| = 1$ for each vertex $v \in V - D$ and the minimum cardinality of an UMD-set of G is the unique metro domination number of G . In this paper, we determine unique metro domination number of $P_n \times P_2$.

Keywords: domination, metric dimension, metro domination, uni-metro domination

Mathematics Subject Classification (2010): 05C20, 05C26

1. Introduction

All the graphs considered in this paper are simple, connected and undirected. The length of a shortest path between two vertices u and v in a graph G is called the distance between u and v and is denoted by $d(u, v)$. For a vertex $v \in V(G)$, the closed neighborhood of v is given by $N[v] = \{u \in V(G) : d(u, v) \leq 1\}$.

Let $G(V, E)$ be a graph. For each ordered subset $S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k\}$ of V , each vertex $v \in V$ can be associated with a vector of distances denoted by $\Gamma(v/S) = (d(v_1, v), d(v_2, v), \dots, d(v_k, v))$. The set S is said to be a *resolving set* of G , if $\Gamma(v/S) \neq \Gamma(u/S)$, for every $u, v \in V - S$. A resolving set of minimum cardinality is a *metric basis* and cardinality of a metric basis is the *metric dimension* of G . The k -tuple, $\Gamma(v/S)$ associated to the vertex $v \in V$ with respect to a Metric basis S , is referred as a *code generated by S* for that vertex v . If $\Gamma(v/S) = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k\}$, then c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are called components of the code of v generated by

*Department of Mathematics, St. Aloysius College (Autonomous), Mangaluru; johnsherra@gmail.com

†Department of Mathematics, Dr. Ambedkar Institute of Technology (Autonomous), Bengaluru; dr_bsnrao@yahoo.co.in

S and in particular c_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$, is called i^{th} -component of the code of v generated by S .

A dominating set D of a graph $G(V, E)$ is the subset of V having the property that for each vertex $v \in V - D$ there exists a vertex u in D such that $uv \in E$. A dominating set D of G which is also a resolving set of G is called a *metro dominating set* or in short an *MD-set*. A metro dominating set D of a graph $G(V, E)$ is a *unique metro dominating set* (in short an *UMD-set*) if $|N(v) \cap D| = 1$ for each vertex $v \in V - D$ and the minimum of cardinalities of *UMD-sets* of G is the *unique metro domination number* of G , denoted by $\gamma_{ub}(G)$.

The *Cartesian product* of the graphs G_1 and G_2 denoted by $G_1 \times G_2$, is the graph G such that $V(G) = V(G_1) \times V(G_2)$ and $E(G) = \{(u_1, v_1), (u_2, v_2)\} : \text{either } [u_1 = u_2 \text{ and } v_1v_2 \in E(G_2)] \text{ or } [v_1 = v_2 \text{ and } u_1u_2 \in E(G_1)]\}$

Metric dimensions and locating dominating sets of certain classes of graphs were studied in [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]. In this paper we determine unique metro domination number of a ladder $P_n \times P_2$.

2. Dominance in Ladder

For convenience, we represent the vertex (g_i, h_k) of a Cartesian product $G \times H$ as $v_{i,k}$. The graph $P_n \times P_2$ is called a ladder. Let D be a minimal dominating set for $P_n \times P_2$.

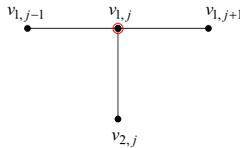


Figure 1: $v_{1,j}$ dominates at most three other vertices

Let $v_{1,j} \in D$, $2 \leq j < n$. Then $v_{1,j}$ can dominate $v_{1,j-1}, v_{1,j+1}$ and $v_{2,j}$. Further $P_n \times P_2$ contains $2n$ vertices. Hence $|D| + 3|D| \geq 2n \Rightarrow |D| \geq \frac{n}{2}$. Thus we have the following lemma:

Lemma 2.1. *If D is a minimal dominating set for $P_n \times P_2$, then $|D| \geq \frac{n}{2}$.*

Let P and P' be two distinct uv -paths between two vertices u, v in $P_n \times P_2$. The vertices u and v are said to be neighboring vertices if u and v are the only vertices of D contained in one of the paths P, P' . If P (or P') is the path containing only u, v from D , then the set of all vertices of $P - \{u, v\}$ is called a gap of D determined by u and v and is denoted by γ . The number of vertices in the gap is called order of the gap and is denoted by $o(\gamma)$.

In order to reduce $|D|$, we have to increase the order of the gaps of D . The most suitable gaps are of order 3. Consider $v_{j,1}$ and $v_{j+4,1}$, the neighboring vertices on first horizontal projection H_1 , then $v_{j+1,1}$ is dominated by $v_{j,1}$ and $v_{j+3,1}$ is dominated by $v_{j+4,1}$. The vertex $v_{j+2,1}$ in the first horizontal projection H_1 is dominated by $v_{j+2,2}$ in the second horizontal projection H_2 . Thus we have obtained a gap of order 3 on first horizontal projection H_1 .

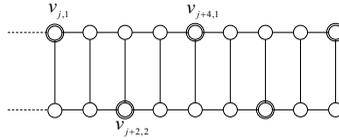


Figure 2: Illustration of an UM-Dominating vertices.

Further, if $v_{j+2,2}$ and $v_{j+6,2}$ are neighboring vertices of a gap of order 3 on second horizontal projection H_2 , then $v_{j+4,1}$ will dominate $v_{j+4,2}$, $v_{j+3,2}$ is dominated by $v_{j+2,2}$ and $v_{j+5,2}$ is dominated by $v_{j+6,2}$. This gives a gap of order 3 on second horizontal projection H_2 .

Suppose $v_{j,1}$ and $v_{j+5,1}$ are neighboring vertices of a gap of order 4. Then $v_{j+1,1}$ and $v_{j+4,1}$ are dominated by $v_{j,1}$ and $v_{j+5,1}$ respectively.

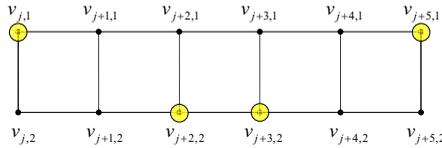


Figure 3: A UMD-set of the graph $P_6 \times P_2$

As $v_{j+2,1}$ and $v_{j+3,1} \in V - D$, it is essential to include $v_{j+2,2}$ and $v_{j+3,2}$ in D . This creates a gap of order 0 on second horizontal projection H_2 ; which in turn increases $|D|$. Thus we have the following lemma;

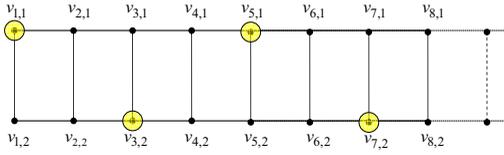
Lemma 2.2. *In order to minimize $|D|$, gaps in each of the Horizontal Projections of $P_n \times P_2$ of order 3 are suitable.*

If $\{v_{1,1}, v_{2,1}, v_{1,2}, v_{2,2}\} \cap D = \emptyset$, then $v_{1,1}$ and $v_{1,2}$ are not dominated by any vertex of D , a contradiction that D is a minimal dominating set.

Hence we have;

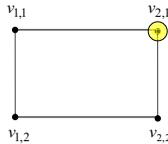
Lemma 2.3. *Let D be a minimal dominating set for $P_n \times P_2$. Then at least one of the vertices in $\{v_{1,1}, v_{1,2}, v_{2,1}, v_{2,2}\}$ must be in D .*

Suppose that $v_{1,1} \in D_1$ for some minimal dominating set D_1 , then D_1 contains $v_{3,2}, v_{5,1}, v_{7,2}, \dots$



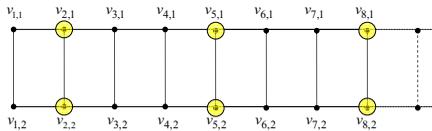
Similarly by symmetry, if $v_{1,2} \in D_2$ for some minimal dominating set, then D_2 contains $v_{3,1}, v_{5,2}, v_{7,1}, \dots$. So, if $v_{1,1} \in D_1$ and $v_{1,2} \in D_2$, for some minimal dominating set D_1 and D_2 , then $|D_1| = |D_2|$. Hence with out loss of generality we assume $v_{1,2}$ will not lie in any minimal dominating set.

Suppose $v_{1,1}$ and $v_{1,2}$ both are not in D , then both $v_{2,1}$ and $v_{2,2}$ are in D ; for if $v_{2,1} \in D$ and $v_{2,2} \notin D$, then $v_{1,2}$ is not dominated by any vertex in D . This leads to ;



Lemma 2.4. *If D is any minimal dominating set of $P_n \times P_2$ such that $v_{1,1}, v_{1,2} \notin D$, then D contains both $v_{2,1}$ and $v_{2,2}$.*

Now, if both $v_{2,1}$ and $v_{2,2}$ are in a minimal dominating set D of minimum cardinality, then $D = \{v_{2+3k,1}, v_{2+3k,2} \mid k = 0, 1, \dots, \} \subseteq V(P_n \times P_2)$.



Lemma 2.5. *If D_1 and D_2 are minimal dominating sets of $P_n \times P_2$ such $v_{1,1} \in D_1$ and $v_{2,1} \in D_2$, then $|D_1| \leq |D_2|$.*

Proof. Even though $v_{1,1} \in D_1$ dominates only two vertices $v_{1,2}$ and $v_{2,1}$ in $V - D_1$, other vertices $v_{2,3}, v_{1,5}, v_{2,7}, \dots$ of D_1 dominates 3 distinct vertices of $V - D_1$. But each vertex of D_2 dominates two vertices of $V - D_2$. Hence, $|D_2| \geq |D_1|$. \square

In view of Lemma 2.4 and Lemma 2.5, here onwards we consider only such D of $P_n \times P_2$ with $v_{1,1} \in D$ and for such a set D , we get the following result;

Lemma 2.6. *The set D is $\{v_{1+4i,1}, v_{3+4j,2} : 0 \leq 1 + 4i \leq n, 0 \leq 3 + 4j \leq n\}$. If $n = 1 + 4k$, then $|D| = \frac{n+1}{2}$.*

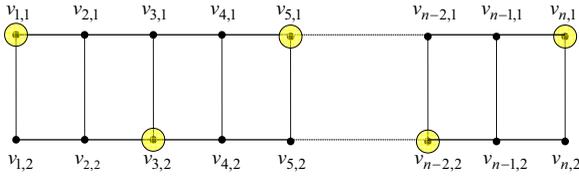


Figure 4: When $n = 4k + 1$.

Proof. On the first horizontal projection H_1 , when $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \frac{n-1}{4}$; $k + 1$ vertices $v_{1,1}, v_{5,1}, \dots, v_{n,1}$ are in D . On the second horizontal projection H_2 when $j = 0, 1, \dots, \frac{n-1}{4} - 1$; k vertices $v_{3,2}, v_{7,2}, \dots, v_{n-2,2}$ are in D . Thus, D has $k + 1 + k$ vertices. Therefore, $|D| = 2k + 1 = 2\left(\frac{n-1}{4}\right) + 1 = \frac{n+1}{2}$. \square

Lemma 2.7. In Lemma 2.6, if $n = 4k + 3$, then $|D| = \frac{n+1}{2}$.

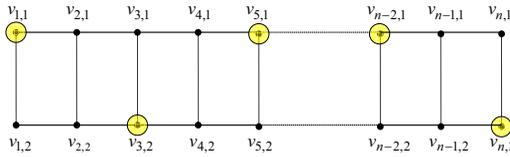


Figure 5: When $n = 4k + 3$.

Proof. On the first horizontal projection H_1 , $v_{1,1}, v_{5,1}, \dots, v_{4k+1,1}$ are in D and on the second horizontal projection H_2 , $v_{3,2}, v_{7,2}, \dots, v_{4k+3,2}$ are in D . Thus, $k + 1$ vertices on the first horizontal projection H_1 and $k + 1$ vertices on the second horizontal projection H_2 are in D . Hence $|D| = 2k + 2 = \frac{n-3}{2} + 2 = \frac{n+1}{2}$. \square

Lemma 2.8. In Lemma 2.6, if $n = 4k + 2$, then $|D| = \frac{n}{2} + 1$.

Proof. By Lemma 2.6, D contains $v_{1+4i,1}, 0 \leq i \leq \frac{n-2}{4}$ and $v_{3+4j,2}, 0 \leq j \leq \frac{n-2}{4}$. The vertex $v_{n-1,1}$ on the first horizontal projection H_1 is in D as $n - 1 = 1 + 4k$ and the vertex $v_{n-3,2}$ on the second horizontal projection H_2 belongs to D as $n - 3 = 4j + 3$.

Observe that $v_{n,1}, v_{n-2,1}$ and $v_{n-1,2}$ are dominated by $v_{n-1,1}$. The vertex $v_{n-2,2}$ is dominated by $v_{n-3,2}$. But $v_{n,2}$ is not dominated by any vertex in D . Hence it is required to include one more vertex in D . We include $v_{1,n}$ in D . Thus D contains $k + 1 = \frac{n-2}{4} + 1$ vertices from first horizontal projection H_1 and $k + 1$ vertices from second horizontal projection H_2 . Thus, $|D| = 2k + 2 = 2\frac{n-2}{4} + 2 = \frac{n}{2} + 1$. Hence the lemma \square

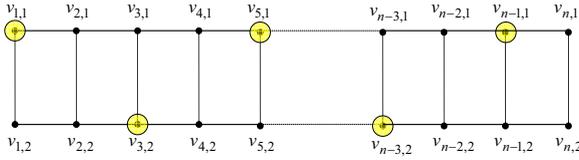


Figure 6: When $n = 4k + 2$.

When $n = 4k$, D contains $v_{1+4i,1}$, $0 \leq i \leq \frac{n-4}{4}$ and $v_{3+4j,2}$, $0 \leq j \leq \frac{n-4}{4}$. Hence $v_{n-3,1}$ and $v_{n-1,2}$ are in D . But then $v_{n,1}$ is not dominated by any vertex in D . Hence we include $v_{n,2}$ in D . Therefore, the set D will have k vertices from first horizontal projection and $k + 1$ vertices from the second horizontal projection. Thus, $|D| = k + k + 1 = 2k + 1 = \frac{n}{2} + 1$. This leads to the lemma

Lemma 2.9. In Lemma 2.6, if $n = 4k$, then $|D| = \frac{n}{2} + 1$.

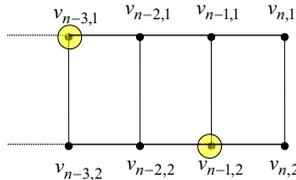


Figure 7: When $n = 4k$.

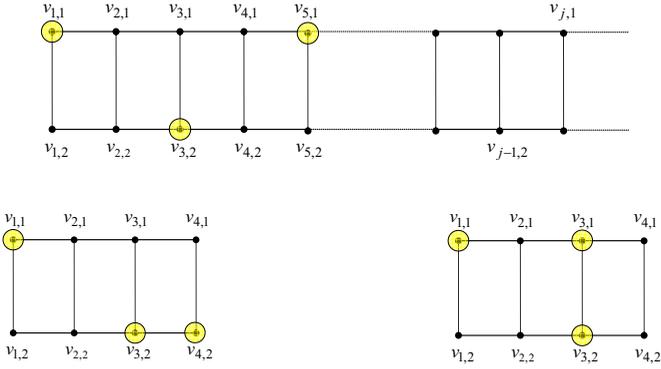
When $n = 4k + 1$, from Lemma 2.6, $|D| = \frac{n+1}{2} = \lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \rfloor$. When $n = 4k + 3$, from Lemma 2.7, $|D| = \lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \rfloor$. From lemma 2.8, when $n = 4k + 2$, $|D| = \frac{n}{2} + 1 = \lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \rfloor$ and from Lemma 2.9 when $n = 4k$, $|D| = \frac{n}{2} + 1 = \lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \rfloor$. Thus in all the cases we conclude

$$\gamma(P_n \times P_2) = \left\lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \right\rfloor$$

Lemma 2.10. For an integer $n \geq 5$, the vertices $v_{1,1}, v_{3,2}$ and $v_{5,1}$ of $P_n \times P_2$ resolves all the vertices of $V - D$.

Proof. Observe that $d(v_{1,1}, v_{j,1}) = d(v_{1,1}, v_{j-1,2}) = j - 1$. If $j \geq 4$, then $d(v_{3,2}, v_{j,1}) = j - 2$ and $d(v_{3,2}, v_{j-1,2}) = j - 4$. Hence $d(v_{3,2}, v_{j,1}) \neq d(v_{3,2}, v_{j-1,2})$. Thus $v_{3,2}$ resolves all vertices with $j \geq 4$.

If $j \leq 3$, then $v_{5,1}$ resolves these vertices, for; $d(v_{5,1}, v_{j,1}) = 5 - j$ and $d(v_{5,1}, v_{j-1,2}) = 6 - j$ and hence $d(v_{5,1}, v_{j,1}) \neq d(v_{5,1}, v_{j-1,2})$. Thus, $v_{5,1}$ resolves the vertices with $j \leq 3$. \square

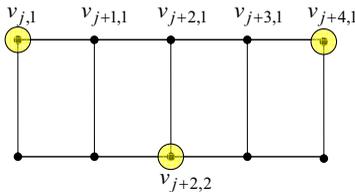


When $n = 4$, by Lemma 2.9, $D = \{v_{1,1}, v_{3,2}, v_{4,2}\}$. But then, D does not resolve $V - D$. Code of $v_{2,1}$ is $(1, 2, 3)$ and code of $v_{1,2}$ is also $(1, 2, 3)$. Further code of $v_{3,1}$ is $(2, 1, 2)$ and code of $v_{2,2}$ is also $(2, 1, 2)$. Therefore, we delete $v_{4,2}$ from D . Then $v_{4,1}$ is not dominated by D . If $v_{4,1}$ is included in D , then $v_{4,2}$ is not uniquely dominated by D . If we take $D = \{v_{1,1}, v_{3,2}, v_{3,1}\}$, then D is a dominating set. Codes of $v_{2,1}, v_{1,2}, v_{2,2}, v_{4,1}$ and $v_{4,2}$ are respectively $(1, 2, 1), (1, 2, 3), (2, 1, 2), (3, 2, 1)$ and $(4, 1, 2)$, which are all distinct.

Lemma 2.11. *When $n = 4$, the vertices $v_{1,1}$ and $v_{4,1}$ resolves all vertices of $V - D$.*

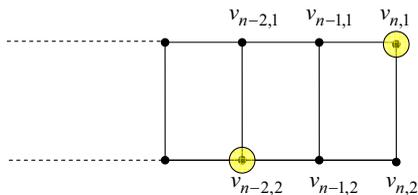
Remark 2.12. *We note that when $n = 4$, $D = \{v_{1,1}, v_{3,2}, v_{3,1}\}$ is a UMD-set with $|D| = 3$ and $\lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \rfloor = 3$.*

Now, consider the minimal dominating sets used in Lemma 2.6 to Lemma 2.9. Take any gap of order 3, say, with neighboring vertices $v_{1,j}$ and $v_{1,j+4}$. Then $v_{1,j}, v_{1,j+4}$ and $v_{2,j+2}$ are in D .

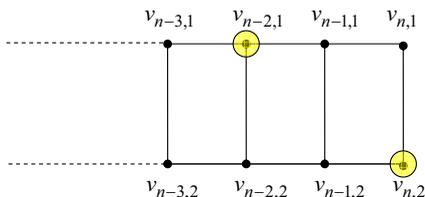


The vertex in the gap $v_{j+1,1}, v_{j+2,1}$ and $v_{j+3,1}$ are uniquely dominated. Further $v_{1,2}$ and $v_{2,2}$ are not in any gap of order 3 (in all cases, lemma 2.6 to 2.9). However, $v_{1,2}$ is dominated uniquely by $v_{1,1}$ and $v_{2,2}$ is dominated uniquely by $v_{3,2}$.

When $n = 4k + 1$ (as in lemma 2.6), $v_{n-1,2}$ and $v_{n,2}$ are not in a gap of order 3. There are uniquely dominated by the vertices $v_{n-2,2}$ and $v_{n,1}$ respectively.

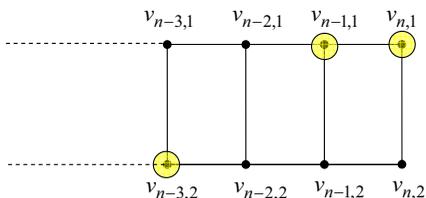


When $n = 4k + 3$ (as in lemma 2.7), $v_{n-1,1}$ and $v_{n,1}$ are the vertices which are not in a gap of order 3. The vertices $v_{n-2,1}$ and $v_{n,2}$ in D (respectively) uniquely dominate them.



When $n = 4k + 2$ (as in lemma 2.8), $v_{2,1}$ and $v_{2,2}$ are uniquely dominated.

Note that $v_{n-1,1}$, $v_{n,1}$ and $v_{n-3,2}$ are in D . The vertex $v_{n-2,2}$ is uniquely dominated by $v_{n-3,2}$, the vertex $v_{n-1,2}$ is uniquely dominated by $v_{n-1,1}$ and the vertex $v_{n,2}$ is uniquely dominated by $v_{n,1}$.



When $n = 4k$, the vertices $v_{n-3,1}$, $v_{n-1,2}$ and $v_{n,2}$ are in D and they uniquely dominate the vertices $v_{n-2,1}$, $v_{n-1,1}$ and $v_{n,1}$ respectively. Hence D is a UMD-set in all the four cases. Finally, when $n = 3$, the set $D = \{v_{1,1}, v_{3,2}\}$ is a unique dominating set but does not resolve $V - D$. Similarly, by Symmetry, $D = \{v_{1,2}, v_{3,1}\}$ is also not an UMD-set. The set $D = \{v_{2,1}, v_{2,2}\}$ is a unique dominating set (UD-set) but does not resolve $V - D$.

If D consists of any two adjacent vertices, then it is not a dominating set. As gaps of order 1 are not allowed, no set with 2 vertices can be a UMD-set. Therefore, $|D| > 2$ for a UMD-set. We now observe that $D = \{v_{1,1}, v_{2,1}, v_{3,1}\}$ is a UMD-set. Therefore, $\gamma_{\mu\beta}(P_3 \times P_2) = 3$. Lastly, when $n = 2$, the graph is isomorphic to the cycle C_4 , hence it follows that its Unique metro domination number is 2.

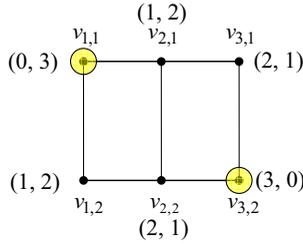


Figure 8: An UD-set but not a resolving set of the case $n = 3$.

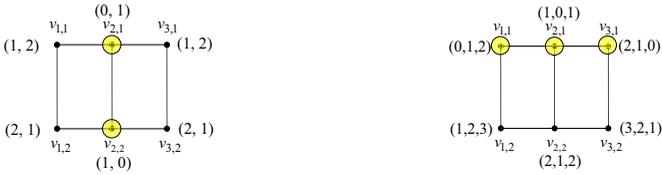


Figure 9. An UD-set but not a resolving set of the case $n = 3$. **Figure 10.** An UD-set but not a resolving set of the case $n = 3$.

The fact that $\gamma_{\mu\beta}(P_m \times P_2) \geq \gamma(P_m \times P_2)$ and the discussions we had so far leads to the theorem,

Theorem 2.13. For any integer $n \geq 2$,

$$\gamma_{\mu\beta}(P_n \times P_2) = \begin{cases} 3, & \text{if } n = 3 \\ \lfloor \frac{n+2}{2} \rfloor, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

3. Conclusion

We intend to find unique metrodomination number of $C_n \times P_2$. Finding unique upper metrodomination number also is a big task.

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