

DOMINATION TOPIC

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Abstract

Graph Theory is a delightful playground for the exploration of proof techniques in discrete mathematics, and its results have applications in many areas of computing, social, and natural sciences. How can we lay cable at minimum cost to make every telephone reachable from every other? What is the fastest route from the national capital to each state capital? How can n jobs be filled by n people with maximum total utility? What is the maximum flow per unit time from source to sink in a network of pipes? How many layers does a computer chip need so that wires in the same layer don't cross? How can the season of a sports league be scheduled into the minimum number of weeks? In what order should a travelling salesman visit cities to minimum number of weeks? Can we colour the regions of every map using four colours so that neighbouring regions receive different colours? These and many other practical problems involve graph theory (D. B. West, 2002 page1).

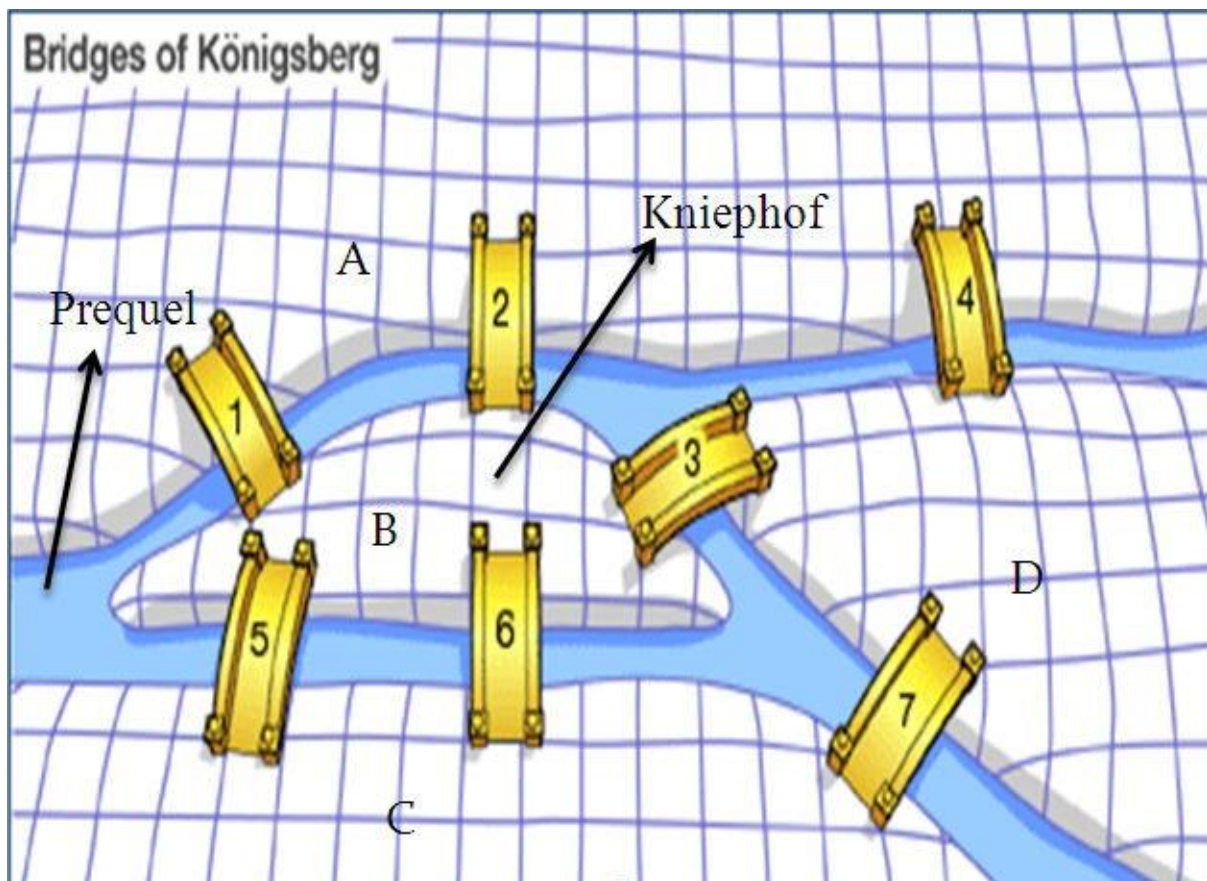
Graph Theory was born in 1936 with Euler's paper in which he solved the Konigsberg Bridge problem. The past 50 years has been a period of intense activity in graph theory in both pure and applied mathematics. Perhaps the fastest-growing area within graph theory is

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the study of domination and related subset problems, such as independence, covering, and matching.

History of Graph theory

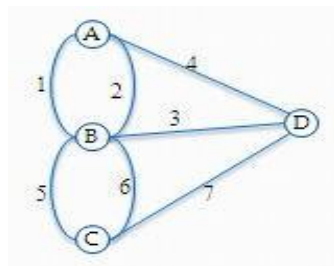
Konigsberg is a city which was the capital of East Prussia but now is known as Kaliningrad in Russia. The city is built around the River Pregel where it joins another river. An island named Kniephof is in the middle of where the two rivers join. There are seven bridges that join the different parts of the city on both sides of the rivers and the island.



People tried to find a way to walk all seven bridges without crossing a bridge twice, but no one could find a way to do it. The problem came to the attention of a Swiss mathematician named Leonhard Euler (pronounced "oiler").

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In 1735, Euler presented the solution to the problem before the Russian Academy. He explained why crossing all seven bridges without crossing a bridge twice was impossible. While solving this problem, he developed a new mathematics field called **graph theory**, which later served as the basis for another mathematical field called **topology**



Euler simplified the bridge problem by representing each land mass as a point and each bridge as a line. He reasoned that anyone standing on land would have to have a way to get on and off. Thus each land mass would need an even number of bridges. But in Königsberg, each land mass had an odd number of bridges. This was why all seven bridges could not be crossed without crossing one more than once.

The Königsberg Bridge Problem is the same as the problem of drawing the above figure without lifting the pen from the paper and without retracing any line and coming back to the starting point.

Concept of Domination in graphs

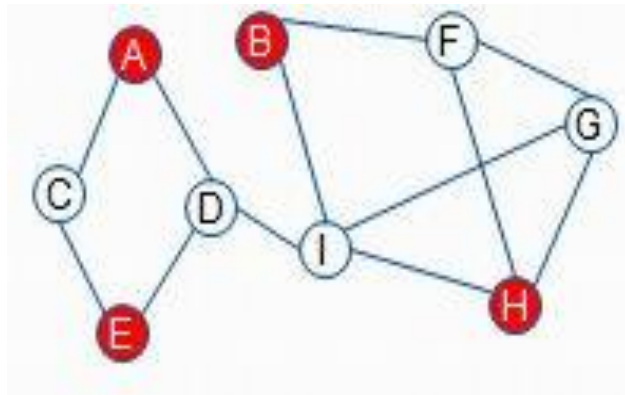
In this chapter we collect the basic definitions and theorems on domination in graphs which are needed for the subsequent chapters.

3.1 Dominating set : In graph theory, a dominating set for a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a subset D of V such that every vertex not in D (every vertex in $V - D$) is joined to at least one member of D by some edge.

(i.e.) A set D of vertices in a graph G is called a dominating set of G if every vertex in $V - D$ is adjacent to some vertex in D .

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Ex. In the following graph G



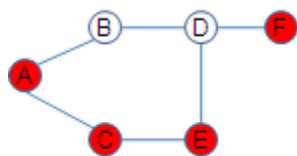
The set $D = \{A, B, E, H\}$ is one of the dominating set

Minimum Dominating set:

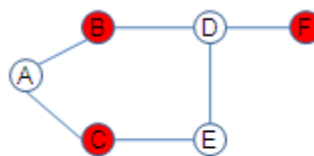
A dominating set D is said to be Minimum Dominating set if D consist of minimum number of vertices among all dominating sets..

Ex. In the following graph G

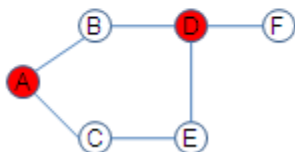
$D_1 = \{A, E, F\}$



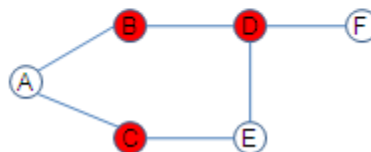
$D_2 = \{B, C, F\}$



$D_3 = \{A, D\}$



$D_4 = \{B, C\}$



Here D_3 is the minimum dominating set

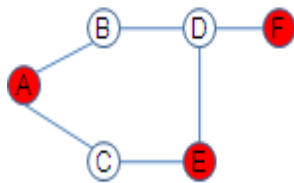
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Domination number:

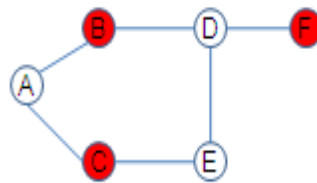
The domination number $\gamma(G)$ is the number of vertices in a smallest dominating set for G .
 (The cardinality of minimum dominating set)

Ex. In the following graph G

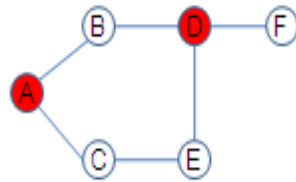
$D_1 = \{A, E, F\}$



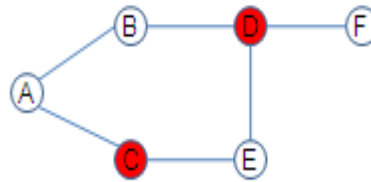
$D_2 = \{B, C, F\}$



$D_3 = \{A, D\}$



$D_4 = \{C, D\}$

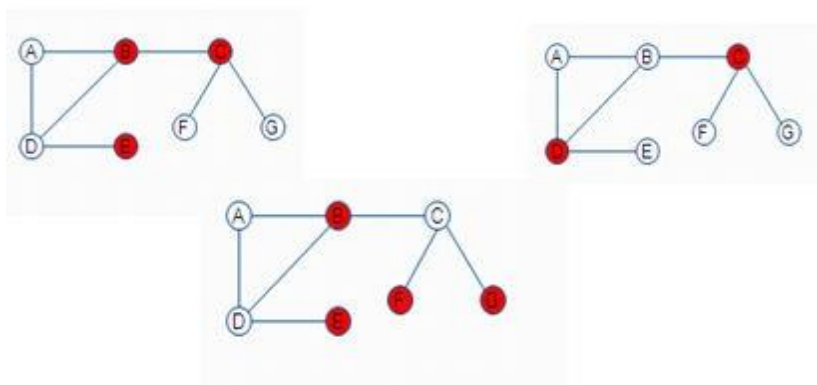


Here D_3, D_4 are the minimum dominating set. So $\gamma(G) = 2$

Minimal Dominating Set:

A dominating set D is called Minimal dominating set if no proper subset of D is a dominating set

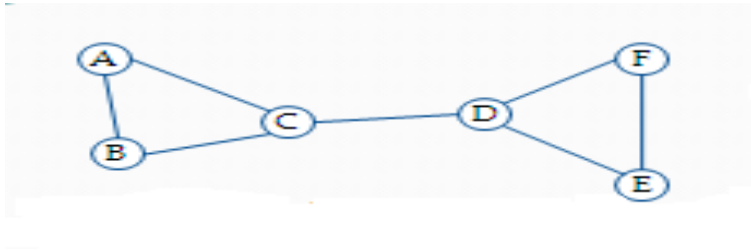
Ex.



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The sets $\{B,C,E\}$, $\{D,C\}$ and $\{B,E,F,G\}$ are Minimal dominating sets.

In the following graph



The set $D_1 = \{B, C, D\}$ is a dominating set. But D_1 is not a minimal dominating set.

$D_2 = \{C, D\}$ is a minimal dominating set. Also D_2 is a minimum dominating set.

A minimum dominating set is a minimal dominating set, but the converse is not always true.

Theorem 2.1: A dominating set D is a minimal dominating set if and only if for each vertex $v \in D$, one of the following two conditions holds:

- (a) v is an isolated vertex of D
- (b) there exists a vertex $u \in V-D$ such that $N(u) \cap D = \{v\}$.

Theorem 2.2: Every connected graph G of order $n \geq 2$ has a dominating set D whose complement $V-D$ is also a dominating set.

Changing and unchanging Domination parameters

An Important Consideration in the topological design of a network is fault tolerance, that is, the ability of the network to provide service even when it contains a faulty component or components. The behavior of a network in the presence of a fault can be analyzed by determining the effect that removing an edge (link failure) or a vertex (processor failure) from its underlying graph G has on the fault-tolerance criterion. For example, a γ -set in G represents a minimum set of processors that can communicate directly with all other processors in the system. If it is essential for file servers to have this property and that the number of processors designated as file servers be limited, then the domination number of G is the fault-tolerance criterion. In this example, It is most important that $\gamma(G)$ does not increase when G is modified by removing a vertex or an edge. From

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another perspective, networks can be made fault-tolerant by providing redundant communication links (adding edges). Hence, we examine the effects on $\Upsilon(G)$ when G is modified by deleting a vertex or deleting or adding an edge

Terminology:

The semi-expository paper by Carrington, Harary, and Haynes surveyed the problems of characterizing the graphs G in the following six classes. Let $G-v$ (respectively, $G-e$) denote the graph formed by removing vertex v (respectively, edge e) from G . We use acronyms to denote the following classes of graphs (C represents changing; U represents unchanging; V: vertex; E: Edge; R: removal; A: addition).

$$(CVR) \quad \gamma(G-v) \neq \gamma(G) \text{ for all } v \in V$$

$$(CER) \quad \gamma(G-e) \neq \gamma(G) \text{ for all } e \in E$$

$$(CEA) \quad \gamma(G+e) \neq \gamma(G) \text{ for all } e \in E(\square G)$$

$$(UVR) \quad \gamma(G-v) = \gamma(G) \text{ for all } v \in V$$

$$(UER) \quad \gamma(G-e) = \gamma(G) \text{ for all } e \in E$$

$$(UEA) \quad \gamma(G+e) = \gamma(G) \text{ for all } e \in E(\square G)$$

These six problems have been approached individually in the literature with other terminology. Hence we examine them and several related problems using the above “changing and unchanging” terminology first suggested by Harary [F. Harary, Changing and unchanging invariants for graphs. Bull. Malaysian Math. Soc. 5 (1982) 73-78.

It is useful to partition the vertices of G into three sets according to how their removal affects their $\gamma(G)$. Let $V = V^0 \sqcup V^+ \sqcup V^-$ for

$$V^0 = \{v \in V : \gamma(G-v) = \gamma(G)\}$$

$$V^+ = \{v \in V : \gamma(G-v) > \gamma(G)\}$$

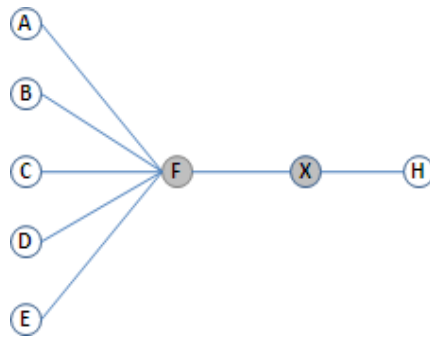
$$V^- = \{v \in V : \gamma(G - v) < \gamma(G)\}$$

Similarly, the edge set can be partitioned into

$$E^0 = \{uv \in E : \gamma(G - uv) = \gamma(G)\}$$

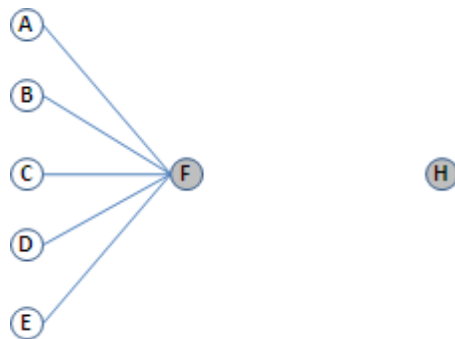
$$E^+ = \{uv \in E : \gamma(G - uv) > \gamma(G)\}$$

For Example, the graphs in the following figure G:



$$\gamma(G) = 2$$

The graph $G_1 : G - \{X\}$



$$\gamma(G-\{X\}) = 2$$

$$V^0 = \{X \square V : \gamma(G-\{X\}) = \gamma(G)\}$$

$$\text{(i.e.) } V^0 = \{A, B, C, D, E, X\} \text{-----} \square 1$$

The graph $G_2: G-\{F\}$



$$\gamma(G-\{F\}) = 6$$

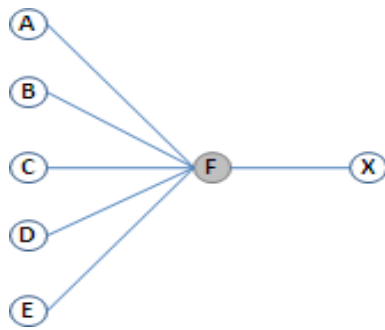
$$\gamma(G-\{F\}) > \gamma(G)$$

$$V^+ = \{F \square V : \gamma(G-\{F\}) > \gamma(G)\}$$

$$\text{(i.e.) } V^+ = \{F\} \text{-----} \square 2$$

The graph $G_3: G-\{H\}$

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$$\gamma(G - \{H\}) = 1$$

$$\gamma(G - \{H\}) < \gamma(G)$$

$$V^- = \{ H \subseteq V : \gamma(G - \{H\}) < \gamma(G) \}$$

i.e. $V^- = \{F\}$□3

From equation 1, 2 and 3

$$V = V^0 \cup V^+ \cup V^-$$

Vertex removal:

- ❖ The removal of vertex v from a graph G results a graph $G - v$ such that

$$\gamma(G - v) > \gamma(G)$$

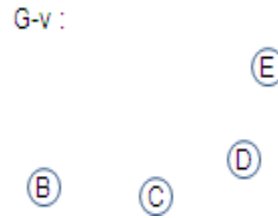
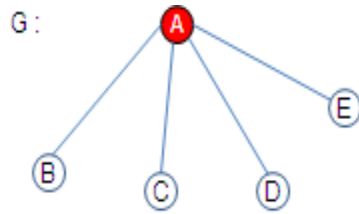
$$\gamma(G - v) < \gamma(G)$$

$$\gamma(G - v) = \gamma(G)$$

- ❖ The removal of vertex from G can increase $\gamma(G)$ by more than one

Ex. For the graph $K_{1,4}$

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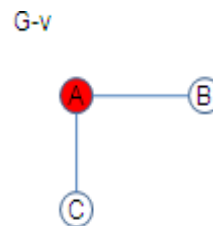
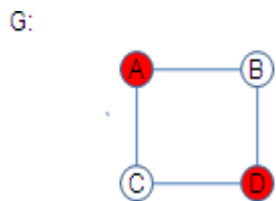
Here $\gamma(G) = 1$

$\gamma(G-A) = 4$

$$\gamma(G-A) > \gamma(G)$$

❖ But the removal of vertex from G can decrease $\gamma(G)$ by at most one

Ex. For the cyclic graph C_4



Here $\gamma(G) = 2$

$\gamma(G-v) = 1$

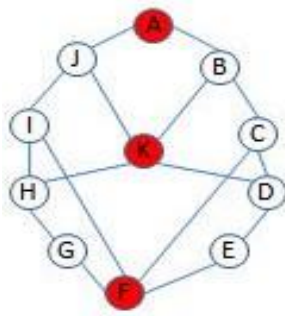
$$\gamma(G-v) < \gamma(G)$$

Edge removal:

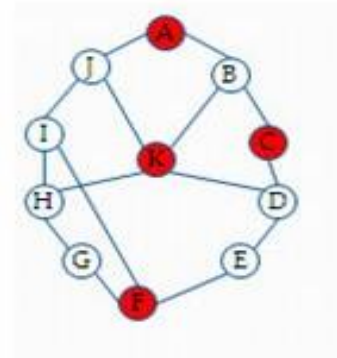
❖ The removal of an edge from a graph G can increase by the domination number by at most one and cannot decrease the domination number. (i.e.) $\gamma(G-e) = \gamma(G) + 1$

Ex. G:

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$$\gamma(G) = 3$$



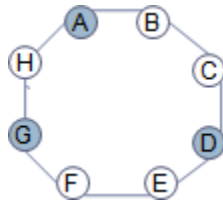
$$\gamma(G-e) = 4$$

$$\gamma(G-e) = \gamma(G) + 1$$

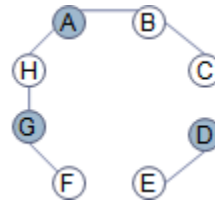
❖ The domination number is unchanged when any single edge is removed.

$$\gamma(G-e) = \gamma(G)$$

Ex. For the cyclic graph C_8



Here $\gamma(G) = 3$



$$\gamma(G-e) = 3$$

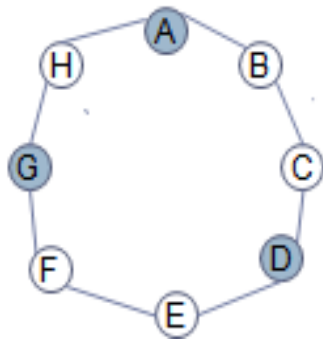
$$\gamma(G-e) = \gamma(G)$$

Vertex removal: Unchanging Domination

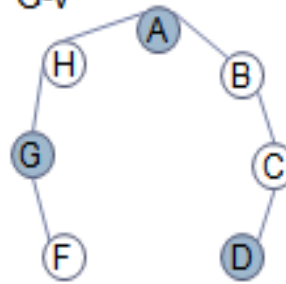
Ex. For the cyclic graph C_8

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G:



G-v



Here $\gamma(G) = 3$

$\gamma(G-v) = 3$

$$\gamma(G-v) = \gamma(G)$$

4.2 Vertex removal: Changing Domination:

The vertices in V^+ were characterized by Bauer, Harary, Nieminen and Suffel [1]

Theorem 4.1[1]: A vertex $v \in V^+$ if and only if

- (i). v is not an isolated vertex and is in every γ -set of G ,
- and (ii). no subset $S \subseteq V - N(v)$ with cardinality $\gamma(G)$ dominates $G-v$.

The vertices in V^- were characterized by Sampathkumar and Neeralagi.

Theorem 4.2 [2]: A vertex $v \in V^-$ if and only if $p_n[v, D] = \{v\}$ for some γ -set D containing v .

Carrington et al. determined the properties of V^+ and V^- and showed that for any graph G in changing vertex removal, $\gamma(G-v) < \gamma(G)$ for all $v \in V$, that is, $V = V^-$ and $V^+ = \emptyset$.

Theorem 4.3 [3]: For any graph G ,

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(a) If $v \in V^+$, then for every γ -set D of G , $v \in D$ and $pn[v,D]$ contains at least two non adjacent vertices,

(b) if $x \in V^+$ and $y \in V^-$, then x and y are not adjacent,

(c) $|V^0| \geq 2|V^+|$,

(d) $\gamma(G) \neq \gamma(G - v)$ for all $v \in V$ if and only if $V = V^-$, and

(e) if $v \in V^-$ and v is not an isolated vertex in G , then there exists a γ -set D of G such that v not in D

Brigham, Chinn and Dutton determined a sufficient condition to imply that $\gamma(G - v) = \gamma(G)$. They established the following theorem.

Theorem 4.4 [4]: If a graph G has a non isolated vertex v such that the subgraph induced by $N(v)$ is complete, then $\gamma(G - v) = \gamma(G)$.

Theorem 4.5[22]: If a graph $G \in CVR$ and $\gamma(G) \geq 2$, then $\text{diam}(G) \leq 2(\gamma(G) - 1)$.

Bauer et al. [1] studied a problem of determining the minimum number of vertices whose removal changes $\gamma(G)$. Let α^+ denote the minimum number of vertices whose removal increases the domination number and α^- denote the minimum number of vertices whose removal decreases the domination number. They obtained the following results.

Theorem 4.6[1]: For any tree T , $\alpha^+(T) = 2$ if and only if there are vertices u and v such that

(1) every γ -set contains either u or v .

(2) v is in every γ -set for $T-u$ and u is in every γ -set for $T-v$.

They also established the following results

Theorem 4.7[1]: For any graph

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(a) $\chi^-(G) \leq \gamma(G) + 1.$

(b) $\min \{ \chi^+(G), \chi^-(G) \} \leq \chi(G) + 1.$

(c) If G has an end vertex, then $\chi^+(G) \geq 2$ implies $\chi^-(G) \leq 2.$

(d) For $n \geq 7$, $\chi^+(P_n) + \chi^-(P_n) = 4.$

(e) For $n \geq 8$, $\chi^+(C_n) + \chi^-(C_n) = 6.$

Bauer, Harary, Nieminen and Suffel showed that V^0 is never empty for a tree. They proved the following theorem.

Conclusion: Relationships among Classes:

There are many interesting relationships among the six classes of changing and unchanging graphs. For example, the characterization of the graphs in UEA relates them to the graphs in CVR.

Observation 4.76:

(a) A graph $G \in UVR$ if and only if $V = V^0.$

(b) If a graph $G \in UER$, then $V = V^0 \cup V^\square \cup V^+.$

(c) A graph $G \in UEA$ if and only if $V = V^0 \cup V^+.$ (either V^0 or V^+ may be empty).

(d) A graph $G \in CVR$ if and only if $V = V^\square.$

(e) If a graph $G \in UVR$, then $G \in UEA.$

(f) If a graph $G \in CER \in UVR$ if and only if G is mK_2 $m \geq 2.$

(g) A graph $G \in (CER \in UEA) - UVR$ if and only if G is a galaxy with no isolated vertices and at least one star with two or more end vertices.

(h) A graph $G \in CER \in (UEA \in CEA)$ if and only if G is a galaxy with at least

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oneisolated vertex and at least two edges.

- (i) A graph $G \in \text{CER} \iff \text{CEA}$ if and only if G has $n \geq 3$ vertices and exactly one edge.
- (j) If a graph $G \in \text{CVR}$, then $G \in \text{UER}$.

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