# EXPONENTIAL DOMINATION OF TREE RELATED GRAPHS 

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#### Abstract

The well-known concept of domination in graphs is a good tool for analyzing situations that can be modeled by networks. Although a vertex in the graph can exert influence on, or dominate, all vertices in its immediate neighbourhood, in some real world situations, this can be change. The vertex can also influence all vertices within a given distance. This situation is characterized by distance domination. The influence of the vertex in the graph doesn't extend beyond its neighbourhood and even this influence decreases with distance. Up to the present, no framework for this situation has been put forward yet. The dominating power of the vertex in the graph decreases exponentially, with distance by the factor $1 / 2$. Hence a vertex $v$ can be dominated by a neighbour of $v$ or by a number of vertices that are not too far from $v$. In this paper, we study the vulnerability of interconnection networks to the influence of individual vertices, using a graph-theoretic concept of exponential domination number as a measure of network robustness.


Keywords: Graph vulnerability, Network design and communication, Domination, Exponential domination number, Trees.

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## 1. Introduction

Network designers attach importance of reliability and stability of a network. If the network begins losing communication links or processors, then there is a loss in its effectiveness. This event is called as vulnerability of communication networks[11, 12]. The vulnerability of communication networks measures the resistance of a network to a disruption in operation after the failure of certain processors and communication links. Network designs require greater degrees of stability and reliability or less vulnerability in communication networks.
Graph theory has become one of the most powerful mathematical tools in the analysis and study of the architecture of an interconnection network. It is well known that the underlying topology of an interconnection network is modeled by the graph. Throughout this paper, all graphs considered are simple and connected. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a simple

[^0]connected graph with a vertex set $V=V(G)$ and an edge set $E=E(G)$. For any vertex $v \in V(G)$, the open neighbourhood of $v$ is $N(v)=\{u \in V(G) \mid u v \in E(G)\}$ and closed neighborhood of $v$ is $N[v]=N(v) \cup\{v\}$. The degree of $v$ in $G$ denoted by $\operatorname{deg}(v)$, is the size of its open neighborhood. The distance $d(u, v)$ between two vertices $u$ and $v$ in $G$ is the length of a shortest path between them. The diameter of $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{diam}(G)$ is the largest distance between two vertices in $V(G)[13,27]$.
Many graph theoretical parameters such as connectivity, toughness, integrity, binding number, domination number etc., have been used in the past to describe the stability of communication networks $[2,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,24,25,26]$.
Domination in graphs is one of the concepts in graph theory which has attracted many researchers to work on it because of its many and varied applications in such fields as linear algebra and optimization, design and analysis of communication networks, and social sciences and military surveillance [23]. A set $S \subseteq V(G)$ is a dominating set if every vertex in $V(G)-S$ is adjacent to at least one vertex in $S$. The minimum cardinality taken over all dominating sets of $G$ is called the domination number of $G$ and is denoted by $\gamma(G)$. Many variants of dominating models are available in the existing literature. The exponential domination number is one of these. It has been defined recently by Dankelmann et al. [16]. In their model, the dominating power of a vertex decreases exponentially, with distance by the factor $1 / 2$. Hence a vertex $v$ can be dominated by a neighbour of $v$ or by a number of vertices that are not too far from $v$. Such a model could be used, for example, for the analysis of dissemination of information in social networks, where the impact of the information decreases every time it is passed on.
Let $S \subseteq V(G)$. For each vertex $u \in S$ and for each $v \in V(G)-S$, we define $\bar{d}(u, v)$ to be the length of a shortest $u-v$ path in $V(G)-(S-\{u\})$ if such a path exists, and $\infty$ otherwise. If, for each $v \in V(G)$ we have
\[

w_{s}(v)= $$
\begin{cases}\sum_{u \in S} 1 / 2^{\bar{d}(u, v)-1}, & \text { if } v \notin S \\ 2, & \text { if } v \in S\end{cases}
$$
\]

$w_{S}(v) \geq 1$, then $S$ is an exponential dominating set. The smallest cardinality of an exponential dominating set is the exponential domination number, $\gamma_{e}(G)$ such a set is a minimum exponential dominating set, or $\gamma_{e}$-set for short. If $u \in S$ and $v \in V(G)-S$ and $1 / 2^{\bar{d}(u, v)-1}>1$, then we say that $u$ exponentially dominates $v$. This can be thought in the following way: each vertex dominates its neighbours, $1 / 2$-dominates those at distance 2 , and so on. Note that if $S$ is an exponential dominating set, then every vertex of $V(G)-S$ is exponentially dominated, but the converse is not true $[1,16]$.
Throughout this article, the largest integer not larger than $x$ is denoted by $\lfloor x\rfloor$ and the smallest integer not smaller than $x$ is denoted by $\lceil x\rceil$.
The paper proceeds as follows. In Section 2, some known results are given. There are different classes of tree related graphs that have been studied for variety of purposes such as binomial tree, comet graph, complete $k-\operatorname{ary}$ tree, $E_{p}^{t}$ graph and regular caterpillar graph. The exponential domination number values for tree related graphs are developed in Section 3. Finally, concluding remarks of this paper are given in Section 4.

## 2. Basic Results

In this section, we give some known results on exponential domination number and definition of complementary prisms. We determine the exponential domination number of complementary prisms. We obtained new result.
The complement $\bar{G}$ of a simple graph $G$ is the simple graph with vertex set $V(G)$ defined
by $u v \in E(\bar{G})$ if and only if $u v \notin E(G)$.
Complementary prisms were first introduced by Haynes, et al. in [22]. For a graph $G$, its complementary prism, denoted by $G \bar{G}$, is formed from a copy of $G$ and a copy of $\bar{G}$ by adding a perfect matching between corresponding vertices. For each $v \in V(G)$ let $\bar{v}$ denote the vertex $v$ in the copy of $\bar{G}$. Formally $G \bar{G}$ is formed from $G \cup \bar{G}$ by adding the edge $v \bar{v}$ for every $v \in V(G)[21,22]$.
Definition 2.1. [18] The graph with $n$ vertices labeled $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}, \ldots, x_{n-1} x_{n}$ is called a path of length $n-1$, denoted $P_{n}$. The cycle of length $n, C_{n}$ is the graph with $n$ vertices $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and the edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}, \ldots, x_{n} x_{1}$.

Theorem 2.1. [16] For every positive integer $n$, $\gamma_{e}\left(P_{n}\right)=\lceil(n+1) / 4\rceil$.
Theorem 2.2. [16] For every positive integer $n \geq 3$,

$$
\gamma_{e}\left(C_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}2, & \text { if } n=4 \\ \lceil n / 4\rceil, & \text { if } n \neq 4\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 2.3. [16] If $G$ is a connected graph of diameter $d$, then $\gamma_{e}(G) \geq\left\lceil\frac{d+2}{4}\right\rceil$.
Theorem 2.4. [16] If $G$ is a connected graph of order $n$, then $\gamma_{e}(G) \leq \frac{2}{5}(n+2)$.
Theorem 2.5. [16] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and $T$ a spanning tree of $G$. Then $\gamma_{e}(G) \leq \gamma_{e}(T)$.

Theorem 2.6. [16] For every graph $G, \gamma_{e}(G) \leq \gamma(G)$. Also, $\gamma_{e}(G)=1$ if and only if $\gamma(G)=1$.

Lemma 2.1. [16] There exists a tree $T$ of order 375 with $\gamma_{e}(T)=144$.
Lemma 2.2. Let $G$ be any connected graph of order $n$. If $G$ has a vertex with degree $n-1$, then $\gamma_{e}(G)=1$

Proof. Let $S$ be $\gamma_{e}$-set of $G$. If we add the vertex $v$ with $\operatorname{deg}(v)=n-1$ to $S$, then $w_{S}(u)=1$ satisfies for all vertices of $G$. Hence, we have $\gamma_{e}(G)=1$.

Lemma 2.3. Let $G$ be any connected graph of order $n$ and diameter 2. If $G$ has not a vertex with degree $n-1$, then $\gamma_{e}(G)=2$.

Proof. Let $S$ be $\gamma_{e}$-set of $G$. Since there is not a vertex which is adjacent to all vertices of $G, d(u, v) \leq 2$ for $u$ in $V(G)-S$ and every $v$ in $S$. Hence, the vertices of $S$ contribute at least $1 / 2$ to $w_{S}(u)$. Thus, at least two vertices must be in $S$ to satisfy $w_{S}(u) \geq 1$. Then, we have $\gamma_{e}(G)=2$.

Definition 2.2. [19] The corona $\left(G_{1} \circ G_{2}\right)$ of two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is defined as the graph $G$ obtained by taking one copy of $G_{1}$ (which has $p_{1}$ points) and $p_{1}$ copies of $G_{2}$, and then joining the ith point of $G_{1}$ to every point in the ith copy of $G_{2}$.

Definition 2.3. [20] Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be two graphs with vertex sets are $V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $V\left(G_{2}\right)$; edge sets are $E\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $E\left(G_{2}\right)$ respectively. Then, the join of $G_{1}+G_{1}$ of two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is the graph with vertex set $V\left(G_{1}+G_{2}\right)=V\left(G_{1}\right) \cup V\left(G_{2}\right)$ and edge set $E\left(G_{1}+G_{2}\right)=E\left(G_{1}\right) \cup E\left(G_{2}\right) \cup\left\{u v: u \in V\left(G_{1}\right), v \in V\left(G_{2}\right)\right\}$.
Theorem 2.7. [3] Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be any two graphs. Let $\left(G_{1} \circ G_{2}\right)$ and $\left(G_{1}+G_{2}\right)$ be corona and join operations of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, respectively.
a) For any two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}, \gamma_{e}\left(G_{1} \circ G_{2}\right) \geq\left\lceil\frac{\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{1} \circ G_{2}\right)}{2}\right\rceil$.
b) Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be any two graphs. If $\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{1}\right)<\operatorname{diam}\left(G_{2}\right)$, then $\gamma_{e}\left(G_{1}+G_{2}\right)=\gamma_{e}\left(G_{1}\right)$.

Theorem 2.8. [13, 27] If $G$ is a simple graph and diam $(G) \geq 3$, then $\operatorname{diam}(\bar{G}) \leq 3$.
Corollary 2.1. [13, 27] If the diameter of $G$ is at least 3, then $\gamma(\bar{G}) \leq 2$.
Theorem 2.9. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices. The exponential domination number for $G \bar{G}$ with $2 n$ vertices is 2.

Proof. The graph $G \bar{G}$ contains two subgraphs $G$ and $\bar{G}$. Although the graph $G$ is connected, the complement graph $\bar{G}$ can be disconnected. There are two important cases for creating $\gamma_{e}-$ set of $G \bar{G}$. Let $S$ be a $\gamma_{e}-$ set of $G \bar{G}$. (1) The vertices of $S$ are selected from the vertices of connected subgraphs $G$ or $\bar{G}$, that is $S \subseteq V(G)$ or $S \subseteq V(\bar{G})$. (2) If both of subgraphs $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are connected, then diameters of these subgraphs are compared. If $\operatorname{diam}(G)<\operatorname{diam}(\bar{G})$, then $S \subseteq V(G)$, otherwise $S \subseteq V(\bar{G})$. Hence, we have two cases depending on $\operatorname{diam}(G)$.
Case 1: If $\operatorname{diam}(G) \geq 3$, then we get $\operatorname{diam}(\bar{G}) \leq 3$ by Theorem 2.8. Thus, vertices of $S$ must be selected from $\bar{G}$ due to the above mentioned cases for creating $S$. It is clear that $\gamma(\bar{G}) \leq 2$ by Corollary 2.1. Hence, $|S| \leq 2$ by Theorem 2.6. But, $S$ can not contain only one vertex. Because, the shortest path between a vertex $u$ in $V(G)$ and a vertex $\bar{v}$ in $V(\bar{G})-\{\bar{u}\}$ is 2 . Thus, it is clear that $|S|=2$. Hence, we get $\gamma_{e}(G \bar{G})=2$.
Case 2: If $\operatorname{diam}(G) \leq 2$, then we have the following subcases.
Subcase 2.1. If there is a vertex that is adjacent to all vertices in the graph $G$, then $\bar{G}$ is disconnected. Hence, $S$ is obtained from $V(G)$. The distance between two vertices in $V(G)$ and the distance between the vertices of $V(G)$ and $V(\bar{G})$ is at most two. That is, $d(u, v)=2$ for $u \in V(G)$ and $v \in\{V(G \bar{G})-N(\bar{u})\}$, where $\bar{u} \in V(\bar{G})$. Hence, if $v \notin S$, then $S$ contributes $1 / 2$ to $w_{S}(v)$ and the condition $w_{S}(v) \geq 1$ does not satisfy. So, we must add one more vertex to $S$. Hence, we have $\gamma_{e}(G \bar{G})=2$.

Subcase 2.2. If there is not any vertex that is adjacent to all vertices in the graph $G$, then $\operatorname{diam}(G \bar{G})=2$ or $\operatorname{diam}(G \bar{G})=3$. If $\operatorname{diam}(G \bar{G})=2$, then we have $\gamma_{e}(G \bar{G})=2$ by Lemma 2.3. If $\operatorname{diam}(G \bar{G})=3$, then $\bar{G}$ is disconnected. Hence, the vertices of $S$ are selected from $G$. In this case, $\operatorname{diam}(G)=2$. Therefore, all the vertices of $G \bar{G}$ are exponentially dominated by two vertices of $G$ and we get $\gamma_{e}(G \bar{G})=2$.
By case 1 and case 2, the exponential domination number of $G \bar{G}$ is $\gamma_{e}(G \bar{G})=2$. This completes the proof.

## 3. Exponential Domination Number in Trees

In this section, we calculate exponential domination number of trees and some related networks namely binomial tree, comet graph, complete $k$-ary tree, and $E_{p}^{t}$ graph.
Definition 3.1. [13] The binomial tree $B_{n}$ is an ordered tree defined recursively. The binomial tree $B_{0}$ consists of a single vertex. The binomial tree $B_{n}$ consists of two binomial trees $B_{n-1}$ that are linked together: the root of one is the leftmost child of the root of the other. The tree $B_{0}$ as a single vertex, and then the rooted tree $B_{n+1}$ is obtained by taking one copy of each of $B_{0}$ through $B_{n}$, adding a root, and making the old roots the children of the new root.

Theorem 3.1. Let $B_{n}$ be a binomial tree with $n \geq 3$. Then, $\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right)=2^{n-2}+1$.
Proof. The binomial tree $B_{n}$ has $2^{n}$ vertices and $B_{n}$ contains previous two subgraphs $B_{n-1}$. Also, $B_{n-1}$ contains previous two subgraphs $B_{n-2}$. Finally, if we continue with this manner, we see that the graph $B_{n}$ contains all previous binomial trees except $B_{0}$ and $B_{1}$.


Figure 1. Binomial tree $B_{n}$
Hence, the resursive formula for $B_{n}$ is

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{n} & =2\left(B_{n-1}\right) \\
& =2\left(2\left(B_{n-2}\right)\right)=2^{2}\left(B_{n-2}\right) \\
& =2^{2}\left(2\left(B_{n-3}\right)\right)=2^{3}\left(B_{n-3}\right) \\
& \cdots \\
& =2^{n-3}\left(2\left(B_{n-(n-2)}\right)\right) \\
& =2^{n-2}\left(B_{n-(n-2)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we obtain $B_{n}=2^{i}\left(B_{n-i}\right)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n-2$. The proof of exponential domination number of $B_{n}$ is examined depending on the value $n$. For $n<3, \gamma_{e}\left(B_{0}\right)=\gamma_{e}\left(B_{1}\right)=1$ and since $B_{2} \cong P_{4}$ by Theorem 2.1 we have $\gamma_{e}\left(B_{2}\right)=\gamma_{e}\left(P_{4}\right)=2$.


Figure 2. Graph $B_{2}$
From Figure 2, we can easily see that $\gamma_{e}-$ set $S$ of $B_{n}$ is $\left\{v_{2}, v_{3}\right\}$. Actually, these vertices are root vertices of $B_{2}$.


Figure 3. Graph $B_{3}$

From Figure 3, we can easily see that $B_{3}$ includes two subgraphs $B_{2}$. We assume that $\gamma_{e}-$ set $S^{\prime}$ of $B_{3}$ is formed by the minimum exponential dominating set of $B_{2}$. That is, the root vertices of each subgraph $B_{2}$ are in $S$. Hence, $S^{\prime}=\left\{v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{6}, v_{7}\right\}$ and $w_{S^{\prime}}(v) \geq 1$ for all vertices of $B_{3}$. But, in this case $S^{\prime}$ is not minimum set. Since the vertices $v_{3}, v_{7} \in S$ are adjacent, we must remove any one from the $S$. Hence, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(B_{3}\right)=2\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{2}\right)-1\right)+1=3$.
For $n>3$, in a similar manner, the minimum exponential domination number of $B_{n}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right)=2\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-1}\right)-1\right)+1 \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

When we use this result in recursive formula which we have obtained for $B_{n}$, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right)=2^{i}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-i}\right)-1\right)+1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n-2$. We must prove this formula by induction on $i$. Let $\forall n \in Z^{+}$and $n \geq 3$.
When $i=1$, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right)=2\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-1}\right)-1\right)+1$ and it is true by (1). We assume that the result is true for $i=k$ and prove it for $i=k+1$. By induction hypothesis and (1), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right) & =2^{k}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-k}\right)-1\right)+1 \\
& =2^{k}\left(2\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-k-1}\right)-1\right)+1-1\right)+1 \\
& =2^{k}\left(2\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-k-1}\right)-1\right)\right)+1 \\
& =2^{k+1}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-k-1}\right)-1\right)+1
\end{aligned}
$$

That is, the formula is true for $i=k+1$. Hence, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right)=2^{i}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-i}\right)-1\right)+1$ for $1 \leq i \leq n-2$. Initial condition $n=2$ is achieved for $i=n-2$. We obtain the following formula.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n}\right) & =2^{i}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-i}\right)-1\right)+1 \\
& =2^{n-2}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{n-(n-2)}\right)-1\right)+1 \\
& =2^{n-2}\left(\gamma_{e}\left(B_{2}\right)-1\right)+1 \\
& =2^{n-2}(2-1)+1 \\
& =2^{n-2}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof is completed.
Definition 3.2. [15] For integer $t \geq 2$ and $r \geq 1$, the comet graph $C_{t, r}$ is defined to be the graph of order $t+r$ obtained from disjoint union of a star $K_{1, t-1}$ and a path $P_{r}$ with $r$ vertices by adding an edge joining the central vertex of the star with an end-vertex of the path.

Theorem 3.2. The exponential domination number of a comet graph is given by $\gamma_{e}\left(C_{t, r}\right)=$ $\gamma_{e}\left(P_{r+2}\right)=\lceil(r+3) / 4\rceil$.

Proof. Comet graph $C_{t, r}$ includes the subgraphs $P_{r+2}$ and $K_{1, t-1}$. One of $P_{r+2}$ is center vertex $c \in V\left(K_{1, t-1}\right)$ and the other one is pendant vertex $v \in V\left(K_{1, t-1}\right)$. We know that, there is only center vertex $c$ in $\gamma_{e}-s e t$ of $K_{1, t-1}$ and $\gamma_{e}\left(K_{1, t-1}\right)=1$. Also, we know that by Theorem 2.1, the exponential domination number of $P_{r+2}$ is $\lceil(r+3) / 4\rceil$. If one of the vertices of $\gamma_{e}-s e t$ of $C_{t, r}$ is $c \in V\left(K_{1, t-1}\right)$, then all vertices of $K_{1, t-1}$ and $P_{r+2}$ are exponentially dominated. Hence, we have

$$
\gamma_{e}\left(C_{t, r}\right)=\lceil(r+3) / 4\rceil
$$

The proof is completed.

Definition 3.3. [16] The complete $k$-ary tree $H_{n}^{k}$ of depth $n$ is the rooted tree in which all vertices at level $n-1$ or less have exactly $k$ children, and all vertices at level $n$ are leaves.

Theorem 3.3. The exponential domination number of a complete $k$-ary tree $H_{n}^{k}$ is given by $\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right)=k^{n-1}$.

Proof. The graph $H_{n}^{k}$ has $k$ children for every vertices except leaves. For example, the graph $H_{2}^{k}$ is obtained by combining $k$ graphs $H_{1}^{k}$ with a root vertex. Similarly, the graph $H_{3}^{k}$ is obtained by combining $k$ graphs $H_{2}^{k}$ with a root vertex. If we continue in a similar manner, we can easily see that the graph $H_{n}^{k}$ is obtained by combining $k$ graphs $H_{n-1}^{k}$ with a root vertex. Hence, the graph $H_{n}^{k}$ contains previous $k^{i}$ graphs $H_{n-i}^{k}$ for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. Then, we have the following generalized formula.

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{n}^{k} & =k H_{n-1}^{k} \\
& =k\left(k\left(H_{n-2}^{k}\right)\right) \\
& =k\left(k\left(k\left(H_{n-3}^{k}\right)\right)\right) \\
& \cdots \\
& =k^{i}\left(H_{n-i}^{k}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

So, we obtain $H_{n}^{k}=k^{i}\left(H_{n-i}^{k}\right)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. The proof of exponential domination number of $H_{n}^{k}$ is examined on the value $n$.


Figure 4. Graph $H_{1}^{2}$
From Figure 4, we can easily see that $\gamma_{e}-\operatorname{set} S$ of $H_{1}^{2}$ is $\left\{v_{1}\right\}$. This vertex is also the root vertex.


Figure 5. Graph $H_{2}^{2}$
From Figure 5 , we can easily see that $H_{2}^{2}$ includes two subgraphs $H_{1}^{2}$. $\gamma_{e}-$ set of $H_{2}^{2}$ is $\left\{v_{2}, v_{3}\right\}$. The vertices of this set are the vertices of $\gamma_{e}-$ set of two $H_{1}^{2}$. Hence, for $n \geq 1$ and $1 \leq i \leq n-1$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right)=k \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-1}^{k}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

When we use this result in recursive formula which obtained for $H_{n}^{k}$, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right)=$ $k^{i} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-i}^{k}\right)$ for $n \geq 1$ and $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. We must prove this formula by induction for every value $i$. Let $\forall n \in Z^{+}$and $n \geq 1$.

When $i=1$, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right)=k . \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-1}^{k}\right)$ and it is true by (2). We assume that the result is true for $i=5$ and prove it for $i=s+1$. By induction hypothesis and (2), we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right) & =k^{s} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-s}^{k}\right) \\
& =k^{s}\left(k \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-s-1}^{k}\right)\right) \\
& =k^{s+1} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-s-1}^{k}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

That is, the formula is true for $i=s+1$. Hence, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right)=k^{i} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-i}^{k}\right)$ for $n \geq 1$ and $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. Initial condition $n=1$ is achieved for $i=n-1$. Hence, we obtain the following formula.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma_{e}\left(H_{n}^{k}\right) & =k^{i} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-i}^{k}\right) \\
& =k^{n-1} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{n-(n-1)}^{k}\right) \\
& =k^{n-1} \gamma_{e}\left(H_{1}^{k}\right) \\
& =k^{n-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

The proof is completed.
Definition 3.4. [17]
A tree $T$ is called a caterpillar, if removal of all its pendant vertices results in a path called the spine of $T$, denoted by $\operatorname{sp}(T)$. If all vertices of $\operatorname{sp}(T)$ have equal number of pendant vertices, then the resulting graph is called a regular caterpillar. A regular caterpillar can also be defined as the corona of two special graph types. That is, if $T_{n, m}$ is a regular caterpillar, then $T_{n, m} \cong P_{n} \circ m K_{1}$.

Theorem 3.4. The exponential domination number of regular caterpillar $T_{n, m}$ is given by $\gamma_{e}\left(T_{n, m}\right)=\lceil(n+1) / 2\rceil$.

Proof. Regular caterpillar $T_{n, m}$ has vertices of $P_{n}$ (or the spine) and $m$ the pendant vertices that attached each vertex of $P_{n}$. Let $S$ be $\gamma_{e}-\operatorname{set}$ of $T_{n, m}$. Assume that, we add all vertices of $P_{n}$ to $S$ to dominate all pendant vertices. Hence, the condition $w_{S}(v) \geq 1$ satisfy for all pendant vertices. But this set is not minimum exponential dominating set. Thus, $S$ must consist of the vertices with $\bar{d}(u, v)=2$ in $<V\left(T_{n, m}\right)-(S-\{u\})>$, where $u \in S$, $v \in V\left(T_{n, m}\right)-S$. If $\bar{d}(u, v)=2$, we must add a vertex $w$ in $P_{n}$ to $S$ that this vertex is at distance 2 from $u$. Hence, the condition $w_{S}(v)=1$ satisfy.
If $n$ is odd, it is clear to see that the vertices which generate $S$ are also the vertices of independent set of the spine graph $P_{n}$. Hence, for every vertex $x$ in $V\left(P_{n}\right)-S, w_{S}(x)=1$. We have $\gamma_{e}\left(T_{n, m}\right)=\lceil n / 2\rceil=(n+1) / 2=\lceil(n+1) / 2\rceil$.
If $n$ is even, unlike the previous condition it is not enough to exponential dominate the last vertex $v_{n}$ of spine graph $P_{n}$ with $\lceil n / 2\rceil$ vertices from the graph $P_{n}$. Because, the weight of $S$ at the vertex $v_{n}$ is $1 / 2$. Hence, we must also add $v_{n}$ to $S$. Thus, we have $\gamma_{e}\left(T_{n, m}\right)=\lceil n / 2\rceil+1=n / 2+1=n / 2+2=\lceil(n+1) / 2\rceil$.
Whether $n$ is odd or even, combining two cases we have, $\gamma_{e}\left(T_{n, m}\right)=\lceil(n+1) / 2\rceil$.
The proof is completed.
Definition 3.5. [14] The graph $E_{n}^{t}$ is a tree which has $t$ legs and each leg has $n$ vertices. Thus, $E_{n}^{t}$ has $n t+2$ vertices. We have labeled the vertices of $E_{n}^{t}$ as follows.


Figure 6. Tree $E_{n}^{t}$
Theorem 3.5. The exponential domination number of tree $E_{n}^{t}$ is given by
$\gamma_{e}\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{l}\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\lceil n+1 / 4\rceil t, & \text { if } t \leq 2^{n} \\ \lceil n+1 / 4\rceil 2^{n}, & \text { if } t>2^{n}\end{array} \quad, n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)\right.\end{array} \begin{cases}\lfloor n+1 / 4\rfloor t+1, & \text { if } t<2^{d\left(u_{1}, v\right)} \\ \lfloor n+1 / 4\rfloor t, & \text { if } 2^{d\left(u_{1}, v\right)} \leq t<2^{n+d\left(u_{2}, v\right)-1} \quad, n \equiv 0,1,3(\bmod 4) \\ \lfloor n+1 / 4\rfloor 2^{n+d\left(u_{2}, v\right)-1}, & \text { if } t \geq 2^{n+d\left(u_{2}, v\right)-1}\end{cases}\right.$
where,

$$
d\left(u_{1}, v\right)= \begin{cases}3, & \text { if } n \equiv 3(\bmod 4) \\ 4, & \text { if } n \equiv 0(\bmod 4) \\ 5, & \text { if } n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)\end{cases}
$$

and,
$d\left(u_{2}, v\right)=d\left(u_{1}, v\right)-1$,
where $u_{1}, u_{2}$ vertices not in legs of $E_{n}^{t}$ and $v$ is vertex of legs.
Proof. Let $S$ be $\gamma_{e}-$ set of $E_{n}^{t}$. For the vertex $v_{\text {in }}(1 \leq i \leq t)$ on all legs, $\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{i n}\right)=1$. The vertex $v_{i n-1}$ of some legs must be added to $S$ to exponentially dominate the vertex $v_{i n}$. Each leg has the path graph $P_{n}$. The proof can be proved as the proof of Theorem 2.1. We start constructing $S$ starting with the vertex $v_{\text {in-1 }}(i=1)$ on the first leg and take each vertex at distance 4 from selecting vertex on the leg. Hence, we add $\lceil(n+1) / 4\rceil$ vertices to $S$ from the first leg in $E_{n}^{t}$. We use similar argument for other legs. Thus, we have four cases depending on $\left|V\left(P_{n}\right)\right|$ in the graph $E_{n}^{t}$.
For $n \equiv 0,1,3(\bmod 4)$, we get same results. Therefore we examine the proof into two cases.
Case 1: Let $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$.
If $S$ is constructed as described above for any leg of $E_{n}^{t}$, then we get $S=\left\{v_{i n-1}, \ldots, v_{i 5}, v_{i 1}\right\}$. Similar argument is not applied for each leg in $E_{n}^{t}$. Because, this approach is contradict with the definition of the minimum exponential dominating set.
It is easy to see that $u_{2} \in V\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)$ is adjacent to $v_{i 1} \in S$ in Figure 5. Therefore, $v_{i 1}$ dominates $u_{2}$. Since the distance between $u_{1}$ and $v_{i 1}$ is 2 , we must add a vertex $v_{i 1}$ except $v_{11}$
to $S$. Therefore, the vertices of $S$ should be taken from a certain number of legs in $E_{n}^{t}$. So, every vertex of $V\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)-S$ is exponentially dominated by $S$. This value depends on the distance between vertices of different legs.
Let $v_{i n}$ and $v_{j 1}$ be the vertices of the $i$ th and $j$ th legs, respectively, where $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, t\}, i \neq$ $j$. Note that $d\left(v_{j 1}, v_{i n}\right)=n-1+d\left(u_{2}, v_{j 1}\right)+1$. Since, $d\left(u_{2}, v_{j 1}\right)=1$, we get $d\left(v_{j 1}, v_{i n}\right)=$ $n+1$. Hence, we have two subcases depending on the number of legs in $E_{n}^{t}$.

Subcase 1.1. If $t<2^{d\left(v_{j 1}, v_{i n}\right)-1}$, that is $t<2^{n}$ then the vertices of $S$ should be taken from each leg. Hence, we have $w_{s}(z) \geq 1$ for every $z$ in $V\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)$. So, we obtain $|S|=\lceil(n+1) / 4\rceil t$.

Subcase 1.2. If $t \geq 2^{n}$, then the vertices of $S$ should be taken from only $2^{n}$ legs. Hence, we get $|S|=\lceil(n+1) / 4\rceil 2^{n}$.
Case 2: Let $n \equiv 0,1,3(\bmod 4)$.
If $S$ is constructed as in Case 1 , then we get three different $S$ sets depending on $n \bmod 4$. These set are
$S=\left\{v_{i n-1}, \ldots, v_{i 7}, v_{i 3}\right\}$ or $S=\left\{v_{i n-1}, \ldots, v_{i 8}, v_{i 4}\right\}$ or $S=\left\{v_{i n-1}, \ldots, v_{i 6}, v_{i 2}\right\}$.
Hence, we must get $\lfloor(n+1) / 4\rfloor$ vertices to $S$ from only one leg in $E_{n}^{t}$. The minimum distance between $u_{1} \in V\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)$ and $v_{i 2} \in S$ or $v_{i 3} \in S$ or $v_{i 4} \in S$ is $d\left(u_{1}, v_{i 2}\right)=3$, $d\left(u_{1}, v_{i 3}\right)=4$ and $d\left(u_{1}, v_{i 4}\right)=5$. The rest of the proof is performed as in Case1.
Note that, $d\left(v_{i n}, v_{j 2}\right)=n-1+d\left(u_{2}, v_{j 2}\right)+1, d\left(v_{i n}, v_{j 3}\right)=n-1+d\left(u_{2}, v_{j 3}\right)+1, d\left(v_{i n}, v_{j 4}\right)=$ $n-1+d\left(u_{2}, v_{j 4}\right)+1$.
We denote the vertices $v_{j 2}, v_{j 3}$ and $v_{j 4}$ by $v$ to give a generalized formula. So, we have three subcases depending on the number of legs.

Subcase 2.1. If $t<2^{d\left(u_{1}, v\right)}$, then the vertices of $S$ should be taken from each leg. In this case, $w_{S}\left(u_{1}\right) \geq 1$ for $u_{1}, u_{2} \in V\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)$ and the condition $w_{S}\left(u_{2}\right) \geq 1$ is not satisfied. Hence, we must add the vertex $u_{1}$ or $u_{2}$ to $S$. Therefore, we get $|S|=\lfloor(n+1) / 4\rfloor t+1$.
Subcase 2.2. If $2^{d\left(u_{1}, v\right)} \leq t \leq 2^{n+d\left(u_{2}, v\right)-1}$ then the vertices of $S$ should be taken from each leg. Thus, $w_{S}(z) \geq 1$ satisfies for every $z$ in $V\left(E_{n}^{t}\right)$. We obtain $|S|=\lfloor(n+1) / 4\rfloor t$.

Subcase 2.3. If $t \geq 2^{n+d\left(u_{2}, v\right)-1}$, then the proof is similar to Subcase 1.2. Hence, we get $|S|=\lfloor(n+1) / 4\rfloor 2^{n+d\left(u_{2}, v\right)-1}$.
Summing Case 1 and Case 2, we obtain exponential domination number of $E_{n}^{t}$.
The proof is completed.

## 4. Conclusion

The vulnerability of a communication can be measured by the exponential domination number of the graph describing the network. The exponential domination number has been studied as a vulnerability parameter introduced in [16]. Calculation of the exponential domination number for simple graph is important because if one can break a more complex network into smaller networks, then under some conditions the solutions for the optimization problem on the smaller networks can be combined to a solution for the optimization problem on the larger network.

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