

On Resolvability of Graphs Associated with Vector Spaces

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ABSTRACT

Let V be a n -dimensional vector space over the field F with a basis $\mathfrak{B} = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$. In this paper, we obtain the resolving parameters like metric dimension and partition dimension of graphs associated with vector space. Also, found the values of metric-locating-domination number, locating-domination number, and bipartite decomposition of kind of graph associated with vector space.

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Introduction

Let \mathbb{F} be a finite dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} with with $\mathfrak{B} = \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ as a basis. Any vector $v \in V$ can be expressed uniquely as a linear combination $v = a_1\alpha_1 + a_2\alpha_2 + \dots + a_n\alpha_n$ where $a_i \in \mathbb{F}$ and the same is denoted by $v = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$. The skeleton of $v \in V \setminus \{0\}$ with respect to \mathfrak{B} is defined as $S_{\mathfrak{B}}(v) = \{\alpha_i : a_i \neq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

The non-zero component union graph $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ of V respect to \mathfrak{B} is the simple graph with vertex set $V = V \setminus 0$ and two distinct non-zero vectors $u, v \in V$ are adjacent if and only if $S_{\mathfrak{B}}(u) \cup S_{\mathfrak{B}}(v) = \mathfrak{B}$ g. This graph is introduced and studied by A Das in [1], in [2] the author's found the Topological indices of non-zero component union graph and in [3] The author's produce the result related to the genus of non-zero component union graphs of vector spaces. Also, he constructed nonzero component graph of finite dimensional vector space in [4] and resolving properties of nonzero component graph are obtained by U Ali in [5].

S Maity and AK Bhuniya was defined and studied the linear dependent graph of vector space, whose vertex set is V and edge set is defined as two vertices are adjacent if and only if they are linearly dependent [6]. The linear dependent graph of vector space is denoted by $\Gamma(V)$. In [6], the completeness, diameter, independent number, clique number, chromatic, Eulerian, vertex connectivity and edge connectivity of linear dependent graph of vector space are studied.

A graph $G = (V, E)$ be a simple graph with non-empty vertex set V and edge set E . The number of elements in V is called order of G and the number of elements in E is called the size of G . A graph

G is said to be complete if any pair of distinct vertices is adjacent in G . we denote the complete graph of order n by K_n . One point union of n copies of a graph G is defined as all the vertices in n copies of graph G is adjacent to new vertex and it is denoted by G^n . A graph G is bipartite if the vertex V can be partitioned into two disjoint subsets with no pair of vertices in one subset is adjacent. A star graph is a bipartite graph with any one of the partitions containing a single vertex and the same is called as the center of the star graph. A graph G is connected if there exists a path between every pair of distinct vertices in G . The degree of the vertex $v \in V$, denoted by $d(v)$, is the number of edges in G which are incident with v . A graph G is said to be r -regular if the degree of all the vertices in G is r . The diameter of a connected graph is supreme of shortest distance between vertices in G and is denoted by $diam(G)$. The girth of G is defined as length of the shortest cycle in G and is denoted by $gr(G)$. If G contains no cycles then, $gr(G) = \infty$. A walk in a graph G is a finite non-null sequence

$W = v_0 e_1 v_1 e_2 \dots e_k v_k$, whose terms are alternatively vertices and edges, such that, for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and ends of e_i are v_{i-1} and v_i . The walk W is said to be a trail if the edges e_1, \dots, e_k of the walk W are distinct. Further if vertices v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k are also distinct, then W is called a path. The distance between two vertices $u, v \in V$ is the length of a shortest path between them and it is denoted by $d(u, v)$. Given a vertex u in a graph G , the open neighborhood of u in G is the set $\{v \in V \mid d(u, v) = 1\}$ and it is denoted by $N(u)$. The closed neighborhood of u in G denoted by $N[u]$ is the set $\{v \in V \mid d(u, v) = 1\} \cup u$. For two vertices u and v in a graph G , denoted by $N[u]$ is the set $\{v \in V \mid d(u, v) = 1\} \cup u$. For two vertices u and v in a graph G , denoted by $N[u]$ is the set $\{v \in V \mid d(u, v) = 1\} \cup u$. For two vertices u and v in a graph G , define $u \equiv v$ if $N[u] = N[v]$ or $N[u] = N[v]$. Equivalently, $u \equiv v$ if and only if $N(u) \setminus \{u\} = N(v) \setminus \{u\}$. The relation \equiv is an equivalence relation (see [10]). If $u \equiv v$, then u and v are called twins. The set of vertices is called a twin-set if any two of its vertices are twins.

A set $W \subset V$ is a resolving set if for each pair of distinct vertices $u, v \in V$ there is a vertex $w \in W$ such that $d(u, w) \neq d(v, w)$. A resolving set containing a minimum number of vertices is called a minimum

resolving set or a basis for G . The cardinality of a minimum resolving set is called the resolving number or dimension of G and is denoted by $diam(G)$. A resolving set W is said to be a star resolving set if it induces a star, and a path resolving set if it induces a path. The minimum cardinality of these sets is called the star resolving number and path resolving number its denoted respectively by $sr(G)$ and $pr(G)$. A subset $T \in V$ and a vertex v of G , the distance $d(v, T)$ between v and T is defined as $d(v, T) = \min\{d(v, x) | x \in T\}$. For an ordered k -partition

$\Pi = \{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k\}$ of V and a vertex $v \in V$, the representation of v with respect to Π is defined as k -vectors $r(v|\Pi) = (d(v, T_1), d(v, T_2), \dots, d(v, T_k))$. The partition Π is called a resolving partition if the k -vectors $r(v|\Pi), v \in V$, are distinct. The minimum k for which there is a resolving k -partition of V is the partition dimension $pd(G)$ of G .

A subset D of V is called dominating set if any vertex in $V \setminus D$ is adjacent with at least one vertex in D . The minimum cardinality of D is called domination number and it is denoted by $\gamma(G)$. The observation rules are as follows

1. Any vertex that is incident to an edge is observed.
2. Any edge joining two vertices is observed.
3. If a vertex is incident to a total of $k > 1$ edges and if $k - 1$ of these edges are observed

Then all k of these edges is observed. A set S to be a power dominating set of a graph if every vertex and every edge in the system is observed by the set S . The power domination number $\gamma_p(G)$ of a graph G is the minimum cardinality of a power dominating set of graphs G . A set of vertices of G is called a metric-locating-dominating set for G if it is resolving and dominating. The metric-locating-dominating number, denoted by mld_G , is the minimum cardinality of a metric-locating-dominating set of G . A metric-location-dominating set L is called locating-dominating set if $N(u) \cap L \neq N(v) \cap L$ for every two vertices $v, u \in V \setminus L$. The locating-domination number, denoted by ldG , is

the minimum cardinality of a locating-dominating set of G . A graph G is said to be embedded in a surface S if G can be drawn in S such that edges intersect only at vertices of G . The genus of graph G is denoted by $g(G)$, is the minimum integer n such that the graph can be embedded in S_n , where S_n denotes the sphere with n handles. For undefined terms in graph theory, we refer [7].

We list out certain existing results which will be referred in this paper.

Theorem 1.1

([1, Theorem 4.2]) Let \mathbb{V} be an n -dimensional vector space over a finite field \mathbb{F} with q elements. Then $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is complete if and only if \mathbb{V} is one-dimensional and $|\mathbb{F}|=2$.

Lemma 1.2

([8, PP. 341]) Suppose u, v are twins in a connected graph Γ and W resolves Γ . Then, u or v is in W . Moreover, if $u \in W$ and $v \notin W$, then $(W \setminus \{u\}) \cup \{v\}$ also resolves Γ .

Lemma 1.3

([9, Lemma 2.2.]) Let Π be resolving partition of the vertex set V and $u, v \in V$. if $d(u, w) = d(v, w)$ for all $v \in V \setminus \{u, v\}$, then u and v belong to different classes of Π .

Theorem 1.4

([6, Theorem 2.4]) The domination number of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is 1.

Lemma 1.5

([10, Theorem 6.38]) $g(k_n) = \left\lceil \frac{(n-3)(n-4)}{12} \right\rceil$ if $n \geq 3$. In particular $g(K_n) = 1$ if $n = 5, 6, 7$.

Lemma 1.6

([11, Lemma 1]) if G_1, G_2 and G are connected graphs such that $G = G_1 \cup G_2 = v$ (a vertex of G), then $g(G) \leq g(G_1) + g(G_2)$

Lemma 1.7

([11, Lemma 2]) if is a connected graph having a subgraph G_1 and a block G_2 such that $G = G_1 \cup G_2 = V$ (a vertex of G), then $g(G) \geq g(G_1) + g(G_2)$.

Metric Dimension of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$

In this section, we found the values of resolving number, metric-locating-domination number, locating-domination number of non-zero component union graph vector space $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$

Lemma 2.1: The equivalence relations \cong are same in $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$.

Proof

Let $u, v \in \mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}}$ with $u \cong v$. Then, $S_u = S_v$. Hence any vertex w is adjacent to u in $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ if and only if w is adjacent to v . Since,

$S_u \cup S_w = S_v \cup S_w = \mathfrak{B}$. Conversely, Let $u \equiv v$. Then,

$N(u) \setminus \{v\} = N(v) \setminus \{u\}$. We have to show that Suppose, we assume that $S_u \neq S_v$, exit some $\alpha_i \in S_u$ with $\alpha_i \in S_v$. Now consider the vertex w with $S_w = \mathfrak{B} \setminus S_u$. If $w = \emptyset$ consider the vertex w with S_w is adjacent to u but not v . Otherwise, w is adjacent to u but not v . The above two cases we get contradiction. Hence $S_u = S_v$.

Lemma 2.2

Let \mathbb{V} be an $n \geq 2$ dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} of order 2 with the basis $\mathfrak{B} = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ and $X = \{v_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ where $S_{(v_i)} = \mathfrak{B} \setminus \{\alpha_i\}$. Then $X \setminus \{v_k\}$ is contained in any resolving set of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$. Also $X \setminus \{v_k\}$ is not a resolving set.

Proof

For $q = 2$, a twin-set C_v is of length 1 for every element of \mathbb{V} . Let W is resolving set of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ $X = \{v_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ where

$S_{(v_i)} = \mathfrak{B} \setminus \{\alpha_i\}$ and v be the vertex whose skeleton is $S_v = \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$,

i.e. $v = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_n$. Suppose any two elements v_i and v_j in X is not in W . Then (α_i, α_j) has no resolving element in W . Since, (α_i, α_j) is resolved by either v_i or v_j and $N(\alpha_i) = v_j$. Which is a contradiction. Hence $X \setminus \{v_k\}$ is contained in any resolving set. Also $X \setminus \{v_k\}$ is not a resolving set, since there is no resolving element of

$(v, v_k) \text{ in } X \setminus \{v_k\}$ for some $v_k \in X$

Theorem 2.3

Let n, q be integers. Let \mathbb{V} be an n dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} with q elements. We have the following

1. If $n = 1$ then $\dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = q - 1$.
2. If $q = 2$ and $n \geq 2$, then $\dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = n$.
3. If $q > 2$ and $n \geq 2$ then $\dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} ((q-1)k - 1)$.

Proof

1). By Theorem 1.1 $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is complete graph of order $q-1$. Hence, $\dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = q - 1$.

2). For $q = 2$, a twin-set C_v is of length 1 for every element v if \mathbb{V} . Let $X = \{v_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$ where $S_{(v_i)} = \mathfrak{B} \setminus \{\alpha_i\}$. Now every two elements from $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is resolved by some $v_k \in X$. By Lemma 2.2

$dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} \geq n$. Hence, we conclude that X is minimum resolving set of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ and $dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = n$.

3). For $q > 2$, a twin-set C_v is of minimum length 2 for every element v of \mathbb{V} . By Lemma 1.2, a resolving set must contain all vertices, except one, in every twin set C_v . For fixed $k (1 \leq k \leq n)$ there are

$\binom{n}{k}$ distinct twin sets and each twin sets have $(q-1)^k$ elements.

Since $q-1$ choices and k places. Hence any resolving set in $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$

must contain at least $\sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} ((q-1)^k - 1)$ elements. By Lemma

1.2 resolving set W contains $Y = \{v_i : S_{(v_i)} = \mathfrak{B} \setminus \{\alpha_i\}\}$ for some $\alpha_j \in \mathbb{F}$. Since, any two vertices with different skeleton is resolved

by some $v_i \in Y$. Therefore $dim_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} ((q-1)k - 1)$.

Let n, q be integers. Let \mathbb{V} be an n dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} with q elements. We have the following

1. If $n = 1$ then $ld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = q - 1$
2. If $q = 2$ and $n \geq 2$, then $ld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = n$
3. If $q > 2$ and $n \geq 2$ $ld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} ((q-1)k - 1)$.

Proof

1). By first part of Theorem 2.3 and Theorem 1.1 we get

$$ld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = q - 1.$$

2). Let X as defined in the second part of the proof in theorem 2.3 is minimum resolving set and also every element of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is adjacent to at least one element in c . Hence c is also a dominating

set so $ld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = n$.

(3). Let c as defined in the third part of proof of the theorem 2.3 is dominating set. Since, every element of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is adjacent to at least one element in Y . Hence, $ld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} ((q-1)k - 1)$.

By definition of metric dimension, metric-locating-dominating set and locating-dominating set we observe that $dim_G \leq mld_G \leq ld_G$. This relation proves the following corollary.

Corollary 2.5

Let n, q be integers. Let \mathbb{V} be an n dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} with q elements. We have the following

- (1) If $n=1$, then $mld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = q - 1$.
- (2) If $q = 2$ and, then $mld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = n$.
- (3) If $q > 2$ and $n > 2$, then $mld_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n}{k} ((q-1)k - 1)$.

Theorem 2.6

Let $n \geq 3, q \geq 2$ be integers. Let \mathbb{V} be an n dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} with q elements then,

$$pd_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} = n + (q + 1)n.$$

Proof

By Lemma 1.3 vertices form one twin-set is present in different partition of any resolving partition. The largest twin-set in \mathbb{V} is skeleton of the vertices is \mathfrak{B} and cardinality of the set is $(q+1)^n$.

Thus $pd_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} \geq (q+1)n$. Consider the partition $\Pi = \{\{v_1\}, \{v_2\}, \dots, \{v_n\}, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{(q+1)^n}\}$ where $v_i = \sum_{j \neq i} \alpha_j$ and each P_i contains exactly one vertex v from the twin-set of vertices having the skeleton \mathfrak{B} . All other vertices of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is distributed using Lemma 1.3. Further, any two vertices from the same class of Π can be resolved by some v_i . Thus, Π is a resolving partition and $pd_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} \leq n + (q+1)n$. Next, we have to prove that $pd_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} \geq n + (q+1)n$. Let $\Pi = \{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{(q+1)^n}\}$ be resolving partition. $pd_{\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})} \geq (q+1)n$, one need to show that $n' \geq n$. Suppose any $v_i \in P_j$ with $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $1 \leq j \leq (q+1)^n$. Then there exists one element $u \in P_j$ with $S_u = \mathfrak{B}$. Now we have $r(u|\Pi) = r(v_i|\Pi)$ which is a contradiction to fact that Π is resolving partition. Suppose V_i and V_k are in same partition we get $r(v_i|\Pi) = r(v_k|\Pi)$ which is a contradiction. Hence each v_i in distinct partition other than P_j . Hence $n' \geq n$ this proves the theorem.

Decomposition of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$

A decomposition of a graph G is a collection of edge-disjoint subgraphs H_1, H_2, \dots, H_i of G belongs to exactly one H_i . For in this section we produce the results related to possible decomposition of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$.

Theorem 3.1

Let $n \geq 1, q \geq 1$ be integers. Let \mathbb{V} be an n dimensional vector space over the field \mathbb{F} with q elements then, $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_{\mathfrak{B}})$ is decomposed into complete bipartite graphs.

Proof

Consider the partition of V is $V_i = \{v \in V : |S_v| = i\}$ where $1 \leq i \leq n$. Now consider the following three cases,

Case 1

This case we characterize all the edges inside each V_i where $1 \leq i \leq n-1$

Subcase i

For $1 \leq i \leq \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$ each element in V_i has no edge relation inside V_i .

Subcase ii

For $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \leq i \leq n-1$, now each V_i has $\binom{n}{i}$ twin sets with each twin set have $q-1$ elements. Elements of each twin set has adjacent to

every element in $\binom{i}{n-i}$ twin sets. Hence every twin set form the

$\binom{i}{n-i}$ times $K_{(q-1)^i, (q-1)^i}$. Therefore inside V_i is decomposed into

$$\frac{\binom{n}{i} \binom{i}{n-i}}{2} \text{ times } K_{(q-1)^i, (q-1)^i}.$$

Case 2

This case we characterize all the edges outside each V_i where

$\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor \leq i \leq n-1$. Since there is edge relation between V_i for $1 \leq i \leq \frac{n}{2}$.

Sub Case i

Suppose n is odd, let $1 \leq i \leq \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$ each vertex in V_i is center of

star graph with $\sum_{k=0}^{n-i-1} (q-1)^k$ Pendent vertices. Hence, all the edges outside V_i is decomposed into $\bigcup_{i=\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}^{n-1} (q-1)^i S \sum_{k=1}^{n-i-1} \binom{i}{k} (q-1)^k$

Sub Case ii

Suppose n is even, let $1 \leq i \leq \frac{n}{2}-1$ each vertex in V_i is center of star graph with pendent $\sum_{k=0}^{n-i-1} (q-1)^k$ vertices. Hence, all the edges outside are decomposed into $\bigcup_{i=\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor}^{n-1} (q-1)^i S \sum_{k=1}^{n-i-1} \binom{i}{k} (q-1)^k$

Case 3

Let $i = n$ every element in V_i is adjacent to all other all elements in \mathbb{V} . Since, all the above cases all the edges are decomposed into union of $(q-1)^n$ star graph with each of order (q^n-1)

Hence, $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}_s)$ is decomposed into complete bipartite graphs.

Results on $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$

In this section, we found the structure of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ and genus of linear dependent graph of vector space. Also, we found the power domination number of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$.

Theorem 4.1: $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is isomorphic to $K_{q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+1}$

Proof

We observe that 0 is adjacent to all the vertices of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$. Each one-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{V} form a complete subgraph of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$. Also 1 is in every subspace of \mathbb{V} . Since total number of one-dimensional subspaces of \mathbb{V} is $q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+1$. Therefore $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is one point union of $q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+1$ copies complete graph of order $q-1$. Hence $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is isomorphic to $K_{q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+1}$.

Note that the eccentricity of $0 \in \Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is 1 and the eccentricity of nonzero element of $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is 2. By Theorem 4.1 we have the following theorems.

Corollary 4.2: $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is decomposed into star and complete graph.

By the observation 1 in [2] is any graph $G, 1 \leq \gamma_p(G) \leq \gamma(G)$ and by Theorem 1.4, we have the following theorem.

Theorem 4.3: Power domination number $\gamma_p(\Gamma(\mathbb{V}))$ is 1.

Theorem 4.4: Radius of the graph $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is 1.

Theorem 4.5: $g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) = (q^{n-1} + q^{n-2} + \dots + 1) \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil$

Proof

By Theorem 4.1 $\Gamma(\mathbb{V})$ is $K_{q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+1}$. Let $G_1 = K_q$ (elements of \mathbb{V} generated by single element some $v \in \mathbb{V}$) and

$G_2 = K_{q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+2}$. Hence we get $\Gamma(\mathbb{V}) = G_1 \cup G_2$ and $G_1 \cap G_2 = \emptyset$

then $g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) \leq g(G_1) + g(G_2)$. By theorem 1.5 $g(G_1) = \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil$

and $g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) \leq \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil + g(G_2)$. Now to find $g(G_2)$ Let $H_1 = K_q$ and $H_2 = K_{q^{n-1}+q^{n-2}+\dots+1-2}$ Hence we get $G_2 = H_1 \cup H_2$ and $H_1 \cap H_2 = \emptyset$

then $g(G_2) \leq g(H_1) + g(H_2)$. By Theorem 1.3, $g(H_1) = \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil$ and

$g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) \leq 2 \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil + g(H_2)$. Now find $g(H_2)$ continuing this

process up to $q^{n-1} + q^{n-2} + \dots + 1$ we get $g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) \leq (q^{n-1} + q^{n-2} + \dots + 1) \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil$

Similarly, we can prove $g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) \geq (q^{n-1} + q^{n-2} + \dots + 1) \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil$ by using

lemma 1.7. $g(\Gamma(\mathbb{V})) = (q^{n-1} + q^{n-2} + \dots + 1) \left\lceil \frac{(q-3)(q-4)}{12} \right\rceil$.

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