

# Locating Chromatic Number of Banana Tree

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## Abstract

Locating chromatic number of a graph  $G$ , denoted by  $\chi_L(G)$  is a combination of two concepts, namely coloring and partition dimension of graph. On the locating chromatic number of  $G$ , every vertex is partitioned into color classes. The distance of every vertex to the color classes is considered to produce a different color code. In this paper will be discussed about the locating chromatic number of banana tree.

**Mathematics Subject Classification:** 05C12, 05C15

**Keywords:** locating-chromatic number, color classes, banana tree

## 1 Introduction

Let  $G$  be a simple connected graph. Let  $c$  be a proper coloring of a graph  $G$  using  $k$  colors ( $k$ -coloring) for some positive integer  $k$ , where  $c(v) \neq c(w)$  for adjacent vertices  $v$  and  $w$  in  $G$ . Let  $\Pi = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k\}$  be a partition of  $V(G)$  induced by  $c$  on  $V(G)$ , where the vertices of  $C_i$  are colored  $i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . The *color code* of  $u$ ,  $c_\Pi(u) = (d(u, C_1), d(u, C_2), \dots, d(u, C_k))$ , where  $d(u, C_i) = \min\{d(u, x) | x \in C_i\}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . If distinct vertices of  $V(G)$  have distinct color codes, then  $c$  is called a  *$k$ -locating coloring* of  $G$ . A *minimum  $k$ -locating coloring* is the *locating chromatic number*, denoted by  $\chi_L(G)$ .

The locating-chromatic number was introduced by Chartrand *et al.* [6] in 2002. The locating-chromatic number of a graph is an interesting topic to study because there has been no general theorem to determine the locating chromatic number of an arbitrary graph. Specially for tree, in 2011, Asmiati *et al.* [4] studied the locating-chromatic number for amalgamation of stars. Next, Asmiati *et al.* [3] determined the locating-chromatic number of firecracker graph and in 2014, Asmiati [2] discussed the locating chromatic number for non homogeneous amalgamation of stars, and last in 2016, Asmiati [1] determined locating chromatic numbers for non homogeneous caterpillars and firecracker graphs. Next, for characterization E.T. Baskoro and Asmiati [5] characterized trees whose locating-chromatic number three. Motivated by this, in this paper we determine the locating-chromatic number of banana tree.

The following definition of banana tree is taken from [7]. A *banana tree*,  $B_{n,k}$  is a graph obtained by connecting one leaf of each  $n$  copies of an  $k$ -star graph ( $S_k$ ) to a new vertex. We denote the new vertex as *root vertex*, denoted  $x$ . The vertices of distance 1 from the root vertex as the *intermediate vertices* (denoted by  $m_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). The *center* of every  $S_k$  is denoted by  $l_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . We denote the  $j$ -th leaf of the center  $l_i$  by  $l_{ij}$  ( $j = 1, 2, \dots, m - 2$ ).

**Theorem 1.1** [6] *Let  $G$  be a simple connected graph and  $c$  be a locating coloring of  $G$ . If  $v, w \in V(G)$  and  $v \neq w$  such that  $d(v, x) = d(w, x)$  for all  $x \in V(G) - \{v, w\}$ , then  $c(v) \neq c(w)$ . In particular, if  $v$  and  $w$  are non adjacent vertices of  $G$  such that neighborhood of  $v$  is equal to neighborhood of  $w$ , then  $c(v) \neq c(w)$ .*

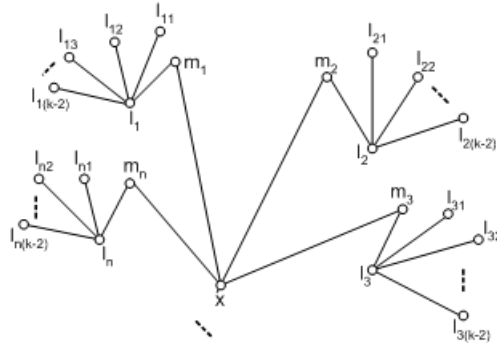
**Corollary 1.2** [6] *If  $G$  is a simple connected graph containing a vertex that is adjacent to  $k$  leaves of  $G$ , then  $\chi_L(G) \geq k + 1$ .*

## 2 Main Results

We know that for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $B_{n,1}$  is a star graph on  $n + 1$  vertices. Then from Corollary 1,  $\chi_L(B_{n,1}) = n + 1$ . It is clearly that  $\chi_L(B_{1,2}) = \chi_L(B_{1,3}) = 3$ . The following result is about locating-chromatic number of  $B_{n,k}$ , namely  $k \geq 2$ .

**Lemma 2.1** *If  $c$  is a  $(a + 2)$ -locating coloring of  $B_{n,k}$ , where  $a \geq 1$  and  $k = 2, 3$ , then  $n \leq (a + 1)^2$ .*

PROOF. Let  $c$  be a  $(a + 2)$ -locating coloring of  $B_{n,k}$ , where  $a \geq 1$  and  $k = 2, 3$ . For some  $t$ , the number of intermediate vertices  $m_i$  receiving the same color  $t$ ,  $t \neq 1$  does not exceed  $(a + 1)$ . Because one color is used for coloring the root vertex  $x$ , then the maximum number of  $n$  is  $(a + 1)^2$ . So,  $n \leq (a + 1)^2$ .  $\square$


 Figure 1: Construction of  $B_{n,k}$ 

**Theorem 2.2** *Given Banana tree  $B_{n,k}$ , where  $k \geq 2$*

- If  $a \geq 1$ ,  $a^2 < n \leq (a+1)^2$ , and  $k = 2, 3$ , then  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) = a + 2$ .*
- If  $k \geq 4$  and  $1 \leq n \leq k - 2$ , then  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) = k - 1$ , except  $B_{2,4}$ .  $\chi_L(B_{2,4}) = 4$ .*

**PROOF. Case a.** Since  $n > a^2$ , then by Lemma 2.1,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq a + 2$ . On the other hand, if  $n > (a+1)^2$ , then by Lemma 2.1,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq a + 2 + 1$ . So,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq a + 2$ , if  $a^2 \leq n \leq (a+1)^2$ .

The upper bound of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $k = 2, 3$  and  $a^2 < n \leq (a+1)^2$ . Let  $c$  be a  $(a+2)$ -coloring of  $B_{n,k}$ . Without loss of generality, we assign  $c(x) = 1$ , intermediate vertices  $m_i$  is colored by  $2, 3, \dots, a+2$ , respectively, so that the number of intermediate vertices receiving the same color  $t$ ,  $t \neq 1$  does not exceed  $(a+1)$ . We can do like that, because  $a^2 < n \leq (a+1)^2$ . Next, if  $c(m_i) = c(m_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c(l_i) \neq c(l_j)$ . Specially for  $k = 3$ ,  $c(l_{i1}) = c(m_i)$ , for every  $i$ .

We will show that color codes for every  $v \in V(B_{n,k})$  is unique.

- If  $c(x) = c(l_i)$ , then  $c_\Pi(x)$  contains at least two components of value 1, whereas for  $c_\Pi(l_i)$  contains exactly one component of value 1. So,  $c_\Pi(x) \neq c_\Pi(l_i)$ .
- If  $c(m_i) = c(m_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c(l_i) \neq c(l_j)$ . So  $c_\Pi(m_i) \neq c_\Pi(m_j)$ .
- If  $c(m_i) = c(l_j)$ , then  $c_\Pi(m_i) \neq c_\Pi(l_j)$  because their color codes are different at least in the first ordinate.
- If  $c(m_i) = c(l_{i1})$ , then  $c_\Pi(m_i) \neq c_\Pi(l_{i1})$  because  $d(x, m_i) \neq d(x, l_{i1})$ .
- If  $c(m_i) = c(l_{j1})$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_\Pi(m_i) \neq c_\Pi(l_{j1})$  because  $c(l_i) \neq c(l_j)$ .

- If  $c(l_i) = c(l_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(l_i) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_j)$  because  $c(m_i) \neq c(m_j)$ .
- If  $c(l_i) = c(l_{j1})$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(l_i) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{j1})$  because their color codes are different at least in the first ordinate.
- If  $c(l_{i1}) = c(l_{j1})$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(l_{i1}) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{j1})$  because  $c(l_i) \neq c(l_j)$ .

From all the above cases, color codes for all vertices of  $B_{n,k}$ ,  $a^2 \leq n \leq (a+1)^2$  is unique, then  $c$  is a locating-coloring. So,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \leq a+2$ ,  $a^2 \leq n \leq (a+1)^2$ .

**Case b.** The trivial lower bound trivial for  $k \geq 4$  and  $1 \leq n \leq k-2$ . Since  $l_i$ , for every  $i \in [1, n]$  adjacent to  $(k-2)$  leaves, then by Corollary 1,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq k-1$ .

The upper bound of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $1 \leq n \leq k-2$ . Let  $c$  be a  $(k-1)$ -coloring of  $B_{n,k}$ . We assign color:  $c(x) = 1$ , center  $l_i$ ,  $c(l_i) = i+1$  for every  $i \in [1, n]$ . Intermediate vertices  $m_i$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , colored one color of  $\{2, 3, 4, \dots, k-1\} \setminus \{c(l_i)\}$ , and for leaves,  $\{l_{ij} | j = 1, 2, \dots, k-2\}$ , we give color  $\{1, 2, \dots, k-1\} \setminus \{c(l_i)\}$  for any  $i$ . Set  $c(l_i) \neq 1$ , since if  $c(l_i) = 1$ , then color code of  $m_i$  will be the same with one of leaves  $l_i$ . We will show that color codes for every  $v \in V(B_{n,k})$  are different.

- If  $c(x) = c(l_{ik})$ , we divide two cases.
  1. For  $n = 1$  and  $c(l_i) = p$ . Then  $c_{\Pi}(x) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{ik})$ , the color codes are different at least in the  $p$  th-ordinate, since  $d(x, l_i) = 2$ , whereas  $d(l_i, l_{ik}) = 1$ .
  2. For  $n \geq 2$ , there exists  $c(m_i) \neq c(m_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(x)$  contains at least two components have value 1, whereas  $c_{\Pi}(l_{ij})$  contains exactly one component of value 1. So,  $c_{\Pi}(x) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{ij})$ . If  $c(m_i) = q$  for every  $i$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(x) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{ik})$  since they are different at least in the  $q$  th-ordinate.
- If  $c(m_i) = c(l_{ij})$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(m_i)$  contains exactly two components of value 1, whereas  $c_{\Pi}(l_{ij})$  contains exactly one component of value 1. Thus,  $c_{\Pi}(m_i) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{ij})$ .
- If  $c(m_i) = c(m_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(m_i) \neq c_{\Pi}(m_j)$ , since  $c(l_i) \neq c(l_j)$ .
- If  $c(m_i) = c(l_j)$ ,  $i \neq j$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(m_i)$  contains exactly two components of value 1, whereas  $c_{\Pi}(l_j)$  contains at least three components of value 1. So,  $c_{\Pi}(m_i) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_j)$ .
- If  $c(l_i) = c(l_{st})$ ,  $i \neq s$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(l_i)$  contains at least three components of value 1, whereas  $c_{\Pi}(l_{sj})$  contains exactly one component of value 1. Thus,  $c_{\Pi}(l_i) \neq c_{\Pi}(l_{sj})$ .

- If  $c(l_{ik}) = c(l_{st})$  and  $c(l_i) = x, c(l_s) = y$ , then  $c_{\Pi}(l_{ij})$  and  $c_{\Pi}(l_{st})$  are different in  $x$ th and  $y$ th-ordinate.

Since the color codes for each vertex in  $B_{n,k}$  is unique, then  $c$  is a locating-coloring. So,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \leq k - 1$ , for  $1 \leq n \leq k - 2$ .

Next, we will show that  $\chi_L(B_{2,4}) = 4$ . Since for every  $l_i$  have two leaves, then by Corollary 1,  $\chi_L(B_{2,4}) \geq 3$ . For a contrary, suppose there exists a 3-locating coloring  $c$  on  $B_{2,4}$ . Since  $c(x) = 1$ , then  $c(m_1) = 2$  dan  $c(m_2) = 3$ . Thus,  $c(l_1) = 3$  and  $c(l_2) = 2$ . As a result,  $c_{\Pi}(m_1) = c_{\Pi}(l_2)$  and  $c_{\Pi}(m_2) = c_{\Pi}(l_1)$ , a contradiction. So,  $\chi_L(B_{2,4}) \geq 4$ . If we assign a coloring like that and we change  $c(m_1) = 4$ , then color codes for every vertex of  $B_{2,4}$  are different. Thus,  $\chi_L(B_{2,4}) \leq 4$ . So,  $\chi_L(B_{2,4}) = 4$ .  $\square$

Let  $S_k^i$  be a star graph  $i$ th- $S_k$  in  $B_{n,k}$  and  $A_i = \{c(v) \mid \text{for every } v \in V(S_k^i)\}$ .

**Lemma 2.3** *Let  $c$  be a  $(k + a)$ -coloring of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $k \geq 4$  and  $n \geq k - 1$ . Assume that all colors used in vertices  $m_i$ .*

- $c(m_i) = c(m_j), i \neq j \Rightarrow c(l_i) \neq c(l_j)$ .
- $c(l_i) = c(l_j), i \neq j \Rightarrow A_i \neq A_j$ .

If (1) and (2) are required then  $c$  is a  $(k + a)$ -locating coloring of  $B_{n,k}$ .

**Lemma 2.4** *If  $c$  is a  $(k + a)$ -locating coloring of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $a \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 4$ , then  $n \leq (k + a - 1)^2$ .*

PROOF. Let  $c$  be a  $(k + a)$ -locating coloring of  $B_{n,k}$ ,  $k \geq 4$ . Since one color is used by  $x$ , then for  $c(m_i)$ , we need  $(k + a - 1)$  colors. Next, there exists  $(k + a - 1)$  possibilities for coloring  $l_i$ . As a result,  $n \leq (k + a - 1)^2$ . So, the maximum number of  $n$  is  $(k + a - 1)^2$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.5** *Locating-chromatic number of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $a \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 4$  is*

$$\chi_L(B_{n,k}) = \begin{cases} k & ; k - 1 \leq n \leq (k - 1)^2, \\ k + a & ; (k + a - 2)^2 < n \leq (k + a - 1)^2. \end{cases}$$

PROOF. We will determine the lower bound of  $B_{n,k}$ , where  $k - 1 \leq n \leq (k - 1)^2$ . Suppose that there exists  $(k - 1)$ -locating coloring of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $n \geq k - 1$ . Since  $n \geq k - 1$ , then  $c(x) = c(l_i)$ , for some  $i$ . Thus, the color codes of  $m_i$  will be the same with one of  $\{l_{ij} \mid j = 1, 2, \dots, k - 2\}$ , a contrary. So,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq k$ .

The upper bound of  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \leq k$  for  $k - 1 \leq n \leq (k - 1)^2$ . Let  $c$  be a  $k$ -coloring. Assign coloring as follows:  $c(x) = 1$ ; intermediate vertices  $m_i$ ,

is given color  $2, 3, \dots, k$  such that the maximum number of  $m_i$  are given the same color is  $(k - 1)$ . Center  $l_i$  given a color among  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, k\} \setminus c(m_i)$  colors. Leaves,  $l_{ij}$  colored with  $(k - 2)$  colors among  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\} \setminus c(l_i)$  colors. To make sure that two centers receiving the same color will have color code different, then can be set  $A_i \neq A_j$ . By Lemma 2.3,  $c$  is a locating-coloring.

The lower bound of  $B_{n,k}$  for  $(k+a-2)^2 < n \leq (k+a-1)^2$ . Since  $n > (k+a-2)^2$ , by Lemma 2.4,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq k + a$ . On the other hand if  $n > (k + a - 1)^2$ , then by Lemma 2.4,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq k + a + 1$ . So,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \geq k + a$ , if  $(k + a - 2)^2 < n \leq (k + a - 1)^2$ .

The upper bound of  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \leq k+a$  for  $(k+a-2)^2 < n \leq (k+a-1)^2$ . Without loss of generality, Let  $c(x) = 1$  and intermediate vertices  $m_i$  are colored by  $2, 3, \dots, k + a$ , such that the intermediate vertices number are colored by  $t$  does not exceed of  $(k+a-1)$ , for some  $t$ . We can do like that, because  $(k+a-2)^2 < n \leq (k+a-1)^2$ . Leaves  $l_i$ , colored among  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, k+a\} \setminus c(m_i)$  colors. As a result, if  $c(l_i) = c(l_n), i \neq n$ , then we can be set  $A_i \neq A_n$ . By Lemma 2.3,  $c$  is a locating-coloring. So,  $\chi_L(B_{n,k}) \leq k+a$  for  $(k+a-2)^2 < n \leq (k+a-1)^2$ .  $\square$

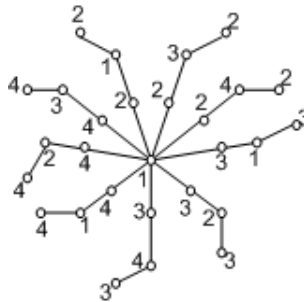


Figure 2: A minimum of locating coloring of  $B_{9,2}$

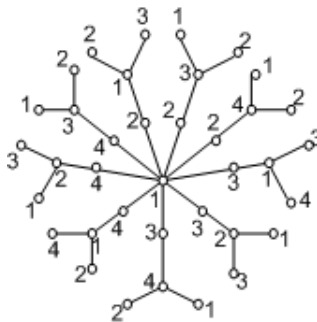


Figure 3: A minimum of locating coloring of  $B_{9,3}$

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**Received: November 12, 2016; Published: January 9, 2017**