# A STUDY OF A COMBINATION OF DISTANCE DOMINATION AND RESOLVABILITY IN GRAPHS 

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#### Abstract

For $k \geq 1$, in a graph $G=(V, E)$, a set of vertices $D$ is a distance $k$ dominating set of $G$, if any vertex in $V \backslash D$ is at distance at most $k$ from some vertex in $D$. The minimum cardinality of a distance $k$-dominating set of $G$ is the distance $k$-domination number, denoted by $\gamma_{k}(G)$. An ordered set of vertices $W=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{r}\right\}$ is a resolving set of $G$, if for any two distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ in $V \backslash W$, there exists $1 \leq i \leq r$ such that


$d_{G}\left(x, w_{i}\right) \neq d_{G}\left(y, w_{i}\right)$. The minimum cardinality of a resolving set of $G$ is the metric dimension of the graph $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{dim}(G)$. In this paper, we introduce the distance $k$-resolving dominating set which is a subset of $V$ that is both a distance $k$-dominating set and a resolving set of $G$. The minimum cardinality of a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G$ is called the distance $k$-resolving domination number and is denoted by $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$. We give several bounds for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$, some in terms of the metric dimension $\operatorname{dim}(G)$ and the distance $k$-domination number $\gamma_{k}(G)$. We determine $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ when $G$ is a path or a cycle. Afterwards, we characterize the connected graphs of order $n$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ equal to $1, n-2$, and $n-1$, for $k \geq 2$. Then, we construct graphs realizing all the possible triples $\left(\operatorname{dim}(G), \gamma_{k}(G), \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)\right)$, for all $k \geq 2$. Later, we determine the maximum order of a graph $G$ having distance $k$-resolving domination number $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma_{k}^{r} \geq 1$, we provide graphs achieving this maximum order for any positive integers $k$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}$. Then, we establish Nordhaus-Gaddum bounds for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$, for $k \geq 2$. Finally, we give relations between $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ and the $k$-truncated metric dimension of graphs and give some directions for future work.
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## 1. Introduction

In this paper, we study finite, simple, and undirected graphs. For graph terminology, we refer to [9].

In 1975, Meir and Moon [28] studied a combination of two concepts distance and domination in graphs. For $k \geq 1$, we call a distance $k$-dominating set in a graph $G=(V, E)$, a subset $D$ of the vertex set $V$ such that for any vertex $v \in V \backslash D$, we have $d_{G}(v, D)=\min \left\{d_{G}(v, x): x \in D\right\} \leq k$, where $d_{G}(v, x)$ is the distance in $G$ between the vertex $v$ and $x$. The minimum cardinality overall distance $k$-dominating sets of $G$, is the distance $k$-domination number and is denoted by $\gamma_{k}(G)$. When $k=1$, the distance 1-domination number is the well-known domination number of the graph denoted by $\gamma(G)$. Distance $k$-dominating sets find multiple applications in problems involving graphs like communication networks [31], geometric problems [26], facility location problems [19]. Results about this well-studied concept can be found surveyed in a recent book chapter [18].

Another concept associated with distance in graphs is resolvability and the metric dimension of graphs, introduced by Harary and Melter [17] and Slater [30]. Let $W=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{r}\right\}$ be an ordered set of vertices in a graph $G$, the metric representation of $v$ with respect to $W$ is the $r$-vector $c(v \mid W)=$ $\left(d_{G}\left(v, w_{1}\right), d_{G}\left(v, w_{2}\right), \ldots, d_{G}\left(v, w_{r}\right)\right)$. The set $W$ is a resolving set of $G$, if for
every two distinct vertices $v, u \in V \backslash W, c(v \mid W) \neq c(u \mid W)$. The minimum cardinality of a resolving set of $G$ is the metric dimension of $G$, and is denoted $\operatorname{dim}(G)$. Due to their important role from both a theoretical and a practical point of view, resolving sets and the metric dimension of graphs attracted attention these past years (see surveys [2, 32]). Resolving sets find many applications in several areas like network verification [3], robot navigation [25], pharmaceutical chemistry [8], coin weighing problems, Mastermind game (see references in $[6,23]$ ) and more.

The problems of finding $\gamma_{k}(G)$ and $\operatorname{dim}(G)$ are both NP-Hard problems in general, see respectively [7] and [25].

To join the utility of resolving sets and distance $k$-dominating sets, we study a set satisfying the two properties.

Definition 1.1. A distance $k$-resolving dominating set is a set $S \subseteq V$, where $S$ is both a resolving set and a distance $k$-dominating set of $G$. The distance $k$ resolving domination number, denoted by $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$, is the minimum cardinality of a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G$, i.e., $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\min \{|S|: S$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G\}$.

A situation where the uses of resolving sets and distance $k$-dominating sets are both needed could represent a possible application of distance $k$-resolving dominating sets. For example, consider a network of vehicles. We want to identify the position of each vehicle, where the detection range within the network is not limited, and every position must be within a specific distance of a station that provides a service, such as energy supply or maintenance. The distance $k$-resolving dominating sets are required.

Resolving sets that satisfy additional properties are known and studied. For example, independent resolving set [11], is a resolving set that is also an independent set. Connected resolving set [29], is a resolving set that is also a connected set. For $k=1$, the distance 1 -resolving dominating set is a resolving set that is also a dominating set, the minimum cardinality of such set was first studied under the name of resolving domination number in [4], while it appeared as metric-location-domination number in [20]. More studies were done about that case relating it with other graph parameters, see for example [5, 16, 22]. Here we use the name resolving domination number and denote by $\gamma^{r}(G)$.

For $k \geq 1$ and $v, u \in V$, let $d_{k}(v, u)=\min \left\{d_{G}(v, u), k+1\right\}$. A variation of the metric dimension that could be related to $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ is the $k$-truncated metric dimension, $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$, defined as the minimum cardinality of a $k$-truncated resolving set of $G$, which is a set $W \subseteq V$ verifying for any two distinct vertices $v, u \in V$, there exists a vertex $x$ in $W$ such that $d_{k}(v, x) \neq d_{k}(u, x)$. The $k$-truncated metric dimension was first studied when $k=1$ in [24], also called adjacency dimension, where it was used to investigate the metric dimension of lexicographic product of graphs. For $k \geq 1$, the $k$-truncated metric dimension coincides with
the $(1, k+1)$-metric dimension of graphs in [13]. Results on $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$ can be found in $[14,15,33]$.

In Section 2, we give sharp bounds for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ in terms of the metric dimension, the distance $k$-domination number, the order, the diameter, the radius, and the girth of the graph. Also, we give the distance $k$-resolving domination number of the families of paths and cycles. In Section 3 , for all $k \geq 1$, we show that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ is equal to 1 if and only if $G$ is a path of order at most $k+1$. For $k \geq 2$, we show an equivalence between $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ and $\operatorname{dim}(G)$, which we use to characterize all graphs of order $n$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ equal to $n-1$ and $n-2$. In Section 4, we determine all the realizable triples of positive integers $(\beta, \gamma, \alpha)$ by a graph $G$ having $\operatorname{dim}(G)=\beta$, $\gamma_{k}(G)=\gamma$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\alpha$ when $k \geq 2$, in particular the graphs we construct realizing these values are all trees. In Section 5 , for all $k \geq 1$, we show that a graph $G$ having distance $k$-resolving domination number $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma_{k}^{r} \geq 1$, has a maximum order of $\gamma_{k}^{r}+\gamma_{k}^{r} \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{r}-1}$. Also, we construct graphs attaining this maximum order for any arbitrary positive integers $k$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}$. Section 6 is devoted to Nordhaus-Gaddum bounds for the distance $k$-resolving domination number of graphs for $k \geq 2$. Finally, in Section 7, we discuss relations between $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$, we then conclude with some open questions.

## 2. Preliminary Results and Bounds for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$

Every superset of a distance $k$-dominating set is a distance $k$-dominating set. It is true also for resolving sets. This means that every superset of a distance $k$-resolving dominating set is also a distance $k$-resolving dominating set. We give the following bounds that extend bounds given for $k$ equal to 1 and 2, in [5] and [34] respectively to all $k \geq 1$.

Proposition 2.1. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 2$. For $k \geq 1$, we have

$$
\max \left\{\gamma_{k}(G), \operatorname{dim}(G)\right\} \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \min \left\{\gamma_{k}(G)+\operatorname{dim}(G), n-1\right\} .
$$

Proof. Let $S$ be a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G$. Since $S$ is both a resolving set and a distance $k$-dominating set, then $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq|S|$, and $\gamma_{k}(G) \leq|S|$. Thus $\max \left\{\gamma_{k}(G), \operatorname{dim}(G)\right\} \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$.

Let $D$ and $W$ be respectively a minimum distance $k$-dominating set and a minimum resolving set of $G$. The set $S=D \cup W$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality $|S|=\gamma_{k}(G)+\operatorname{dim}(G)$. Also, any subset of $V$ of cardinality $n-1$ is both a resolving set and a distance $k$-dominating set. Then we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \min \left\{\gamma_{k}(G)+\operatorname{dim}(G), n-1\right\}$.

For any two positive integer $k$ and $k^{\prime}$ such that $k \geq k^{\prime} \geq 1$, every distance $k^{\prime}$ dominating set is a distance $k$-dominating set. Therefore any distance $k^{\prime}$-resolving
dominating set is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set.
Observation 2.2. For $k \geq k^{\prime} \geq 1$, if $G$ is a connected graph, then we have $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \gamma_{k^{\prime}}^{r}(G) \leq \gamma^{r}(G)$.

The eccentricity of a vertex $v$ in $G$ is the maximum distance between $v$ and any other vertex in $G$. The maximum and minimum eccentricity in $G$ are respectively the diameter and the radius of $G$ denoted respectively $\operatorname{diam}(G)$ and $\operatorname{rad}(G)$.
Lemma 2.3. Let $G$ be a connected graph. For $k \geq \operatorname{diam}(G), \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(G)$.
Proof. If $k \geq \operatorname{diam}(G)$, then any non-empty set of vertices in $V$ is a distance $k$-dominating set. Hence any resolving set is also a distance $k$-dominating set of $G$. Therefore, $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \operatorname{dim}(G)$. From Proposition 2.1 it follows that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=$ $\operatorname{dim}(G)$.

Let $P_{n}$ denote the path graph with $V\left(P_{n}\right)=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ and $E\left(P_{n}\right)=$ $\{i(i+1): 1 \leq i \leq n-1\}$. It is proved that $\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{n}\right)=1[8]$, and for $k \geq 1$, $\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil[12]$. The values of the distance $k$-resolving domination number of $P_{n}$ for $k$ equal to 1 and 2 are given respectively in [4] and [34]. In the following we give $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Proposition 2.4. For $k \geq 1$ and $n \geq 2$,

$$
\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } k \geq n-1, \\ 2, & \text { if }\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \leq k \leq n-2 \\ \left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil, & \text { if } 1 \leq k \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1\end{cases}
$$

Proof. In [8], we have $\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{n}\right)=1$. So by Proposition 2.1, $\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right) \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right) \leq$ $\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)+1$. Also, for $1 \leq i, j \leq n$, with $i \neq j$, we have $d_{P_{n}}(i, j)=|i-j|$. Then any resolving set of cardinality 1 must be $\{1\}$ or $\{n\}$.

- For $k \geq n-1$, since $\operatorname{diam}\left(P_{n}\right)=n-1$, it follows from Lemma 2.3 that $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{n}\right)=1$.
- For $\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \leq k \leq n-2$, based on [12] $\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=1$, then $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)$ is equal to 1 or 2. It is clear that an end-vertex is not distance $k$-dominating. Thus, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)+1=2$.
- For $1 \leq k \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1$, in [12] we have $\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil \geq 2$. Also, any set $S$ consisting of two or more distinct vertices in $V\left(P_{n}\right)$ is a resolving set of $P_{n}$. Thus, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil$.
The path $P_{n}$ is a graph achieving the bounds in Proposition 2.1. For $k \geq n-1$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{n}\right)$. For $1 \leq k \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1, \gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)$, and for $\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \leq k \leq n-2, \gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=\gamma_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)+\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{n}\right)$.

Let $C_{n}$ denote the cycle graph with $n \geq 3$, where $V\left(C_{n}\right)=\{0,1, \ldots, n-1\}$ and $E\left(C_{n}\right)=\{i(i+1)(\bmod n): 0 \leq i \leq n-1\}$. We have $\operatorname{dim}\left(C_{n}\right)=2[10]$, and for $k \geq 1, \gamma_{k}\left(C_{n}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil[12]$.

Proposition 2.5. For $k \geq 1$ and $n \geq 3$,

$$
\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}2, & \text { if } 4 k+1 \geq n, \\ 3, & \text { if } 4 k+2=n, \\ \left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil, & \text { if } 4 k+3 \leq n\end{cases}
$$

Proof. We have $d_{C_{n}}(i, j)=\min \{|i-j|, n-|i-j|\}$.
Claim 2.6. For $n \geq 2 k+2$ and $n \neq 4 k+2$, the set of vertices $W=\{0,2 k+1\}$ is a resolving set of $C_{n}$.

Proof. Let $i, j \in V\left(C_{n}\right) \backslash W$, with $i \neq j$. If $d_{C_{n}}(i, 0) \neq d_{C_{n}}(j, 0)$, then $S$ is a resolving set. We suppose that $d_{C_{n}}(i, 0)=d_{C_{n}}(j, 0)$, then either $d_{C_{n}}(i, 0)=i$ and $d_{C_{n}}(j, 0)=n-j$ or $d_{C_{n}}(i, 0)=n-i$ and $d_{C_{n}}(j, 0)=j$. Without loss of generality we suppose that $d_{C_{n}}(i, 0)=i$ and $d_{C_{n}}(j, 0)=n-j$, which means that $i+j=n$. If $d_{C_{n}}(i, 2 k+1)=d_{C_{n}}(j, 2 k+1)$, then $\min \{|2 k+1-i|, n-|2 k+1-i|\}=$ $\min \{|2 k+1-j|, n-|2 k+1-j|\}$. Since $\min \{x, y\}=\frac{x+y-|x-y|}{2}$, it follows that $|n-2(|2 k+1-i|)|=|n-2(|2 k+1-j|)|$.

We suppose that $n-2|2 k+1-i|=n-2|2 k+1-j|$, which means that $|2 k+1-i|=|2 k+1-j|$. Since $i \neq j$, necessarly $2 k+1-i=j-2 k-1$. It follows that $i+j=4 k+2=n$, a contradiction since $n \neq 4 k+2$.

Otherwise if $n-2|2 k+1-i|=2|2 k+1-j|-n$, then $n=|2 k+1-i|+|2 k+1-j|$. If $|2 k+1-i|=2 k+1-i$ and $|2 k+1-j|=2 k+1-j$, then $n=2 k+1-i+2 k+1-j$. Assuming that $i+j=n$, it means that $n=2 k+1$, a contradiction.

Now if $|2 k+1-i|=i-(2 k+1)$ and $|2 k+1-j|=j-(2 k+1)$, then $n=i+j-2(2 k+1)$. Since $i+j=n$, it means that $k=0$, a contradiction.

Finally if $|2 k+1-i|=i-(2 k+1)$ or $|2 k+1-j|=j-(2 k+1)$, we suppose that $|2 k+1-i|=i-(2 k+1)$ and $|2 k+1-j|=2 k+1-j$. Then we get that $n=i-j$, again a contradiction.

It follows that $d_{C_{n}}(i, 2 k+1) \neq d_{C_{n}}(j, 2 k+1)$. So for $i, j \in V\left(C_{n}\right) \backslash W$, if $i \neq j$, then $c(i \mid W) \neq c(j \mid W)$.

- If $2 k+1 \geq n$, then $k \geq \operatorname{diam}\left(C_{n}\right)$. By Lemma $2.3, \gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{n}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(C_{n}\right)$. Since $\operatorname{dim}\left(C_{n}\right)=2$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{n}\right)=2$.

If $4 k+1 \geq n \geq 2 k+2$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{n}\right) \geq \operatorname{dim}\left(C_{n}\right)=2$. From Claim 2.6, the set $\{0,2 k+1\}$ is a resolving set of $C_{n}$, it is also a distance $k$-dominating set of $C_{n}$ for $4 k+1 \geq n \geq 2 k+2$. Therefore $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{n}\right)=2$.

- If $4 k+2=n$, based on [12] we have $\gamma_{k}\left(C_{4 k+2}\right)=2$, then by Proposition 2.1, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{4 k+2}\right) \geq 2$. By using contradiction we suppose that $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{4 k+2}\right)=2$, and let
$S$ be a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality 2 . Since all the vertices have degree 2 , if a vertex $i$ is in a distance $k$-dominating set of cardinality 2 , then the set contains necessarily $i+2 k+1(\bmod n)$. Since the cycle $C_{n}$ is vertextransitive, we suppose without loss of generality that $S=\{0,2 k+1\}$. If we take the vertices 1 and $4 k+1$, then clearly $c(1 \mid S)=c(4 k+1 \mid S)$. It follows that $S$ is not a resolving set of $C_{4 k+2}$. Hence $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{4 k+2}\right)>2$.

Now, let us consider the set $S=\{0,1,2 k+1\}$, we will show first that $\{0,1\} \subset$ $S$ is a resolving set of $C_{4 k+2}$. For $i \in V\left(C_{n}\right) \backslash S$, we have $c(i \mid\{0,1\})=(\min \{i, n-$ $i\}, \min \{i-1, n-i+1\})$. For $i, j \in V\left(C_{n}\right) \backslash S$, if $c(i \mid\{0,1\})=c(j \mid\{0,1\})$, it means that $\min \{i, n-i\}=\min \{j, n-j\}$ and $\min \{i-1, n-i+1\}=\min \{j-1, n-j+1\}$. Since $\min \{x, y\}=\frac{x+y-|x-y|}{2}$, it follows that $|n-2 i|=|n-2 j|$ and $\mid n-2(i-$ $1)|=|n-2(j-1)|$. Assuming that $i \neq j$, then necessarily $n-2 i=2 j-n$ and $n-2(i-1)=2(j-1)-n$, which is impossible. Then if $i \neq j$, we have $c(i \mid\{0,1\}) \neq c(j \mid\{0,1\})$. Therefore $\{0,1\}$ is a resolving set of $C_{4 k+2}$.

Since $\{0,2 k+1\}$ is a distance $k$-dominating set of $C_{4 k+2}$, it follows that $S=\{0,1,2 k+1\}$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $C_{4 k+2}$. Therefore $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{4 k+2}\right)=3$.

- If $4 k+3 \leq n$, in [12] we have $\gamma_{k}\left(C_{n}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil$. Let us consider the set $S=\left\{i(2 k+1): 0 \leq i \leq\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil-1\right\}$, we have $|S|=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil$. Claim 2.6 shows that the set $\{0,2 k+1\} \subset S$ is a resolving set of $C_{n}$. Also, it is easy to see that the set $S$ is a distance $k$-dominating set of $C_{n}$. It follows that $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(C_{n}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil$.

Proposition 2.7. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph such that $\operatorname{rad}(G) \leq k$ or $\operatorname{diam}(G)=k+1$. Then we have $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \operatorname{dim}(G)+1$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $\operatorname{rad}(G) \leq k$. This means that $\gamma_{k}(G)=$ 1. Then by Proposition 2.1, we have $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \operatorname{dim}(G)+1$.

If $\operatorname{diam}(G)=k+1$, let $W \subset V$ be a minimum resolving set of $G$. Let $v \in V \backslash \operatorname{dom}_{k}(W)$, where $\operatorname{dom}_{k}(W)=\left\{v \in V: d_{G}(v, W) \leq k\right\}$. Then $v$ must be at distance greater or equal to $k+1$ from all the vertices of $W$. Since $\operatorname{diam}(G)=$ $k+1$, the only possible metric representation with respect to $W$ of a vertex $v$ such that $d_{G}(v, W) \geq k+1$, is a vector having $k+1$ as a value in all its coordinates. Since $W$ is a resolving set, then there is at most one such vertex in $G$. Hence, $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \operatorname{dim}(G)+1$.

For all $k \geq 1$ both bounds in Proposition 2.7 can be achieved. For $\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \leq$ $k \leq n-2$, the graph $P_{n}$ has $\operatorname{rad}\left(P_{n}\right) \leq k$, from Proposition 2.4, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=$ $\operatorname{dim}\left(P_{n}\right)+1$. From Lemma 2.3, if $\operatorname{rad}(G) \leq \operatorname{diam}(G) \leq k$, then for any $G$ we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(G)$. The cycle graphs $C_{2 k+2}$ or $C_{2 k+3}$ according to Proposition 2.5 are examples of graphs with $\operatorname{diam}(G)=k+1$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(G)$. Also from Proposition 2.4, the path $P_{k+2}$ is a graph of $\operatorname{diam}(G)=k+1$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(G)+1$.

Lemma 2.8 [21]. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq k+1$ and diameter $\operatorname{diam}(G) \geq k$. Then there exists a minimum distance $k$-dominating set $D$ of $G$ satisfying for every vertex $v \in D$ there is a vertex $x \in V \backslash D$ such that $d_{G}(v, x)=k$ and $N_{k}(x) \cap D=\{v\}$.

The following upper bound proved for $\operatorname{dim}(G)$ in [4] is true also for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$, the proofs are similar.

Proposition 2.9. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq k+1$ with $\operatorname{diam}(G) \geq k$. Then $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq n-k \gamma_{k}(G)$, and this upper bound is achieved for any positive integers $k$ and $\gamma_{k}(G)$.

Proof. Suppose that $\gamma_{k}(G)=\gamma$. Based on Lemma 2.8, let us consider $D=$ $\{1,2, \ldots, \gamma\}$ a minimum distance $k$-dominating set such that for all $1 \leq i \leq \gamma$, there exists a vertex $w_{i, k}$ verifying that $d_{G}\left(i, w_{i, k}\right)=k$, and for $j \neq i, d_{G}\left(j, w_{i, k}\right)>$ $k$. Now let $P_{i}=i w_{i, 1} w_{i, 2} \cdots w_{i, k}$ be a shortest $\left(i, w_{i, k}\right)$-path. We can see that for $1 \leq p \leq k$, we have $d_{G}\left(i, w_{i, p}\right)=p$ and $d_{G}\left(j, w_{i, p}\right)>p$. For any two different vertices $w_{i, p}, w_{j, q}$, with $1 \leq i, j \leq \gamma$ and $1 \leq p, q \leq k$, we will check the vector of distances with respect to the set $D$, we discuss the following two cases.
(i) If $i \neq j$, we suppose without loss of generality that $q \geq p$. We have $d_{G}\left(i, w_{i, p}\right)=p$ and $d_{G}\left(i, w_{j, q}\right) \geq q+1>p$.
(ii) If $i=j$ and $p \neq q$, we have $d_{G}\left(i, w_{i, p}\right)=p$ and $d_{G}\left(i, w_{i, q}\right)=q \neq p$.

It follows that the set $D$ resolves all the vertices $w_{i, p}$, where $1 \leq i \leq \gamma$, and $1 \leq p \leq k$. Then the set $S=V \backslash \bigcup_{i=1}^{\gamma}\left\{w_{i, j}\right\}_{j=1}^{k}$ is both a distance $k$-dominating set and a resolving set. Hence $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq|S|=\left|V \backslash \bigcup_{i=1}^{\gamma}\left\{w_{i, j}\right\}_{j=1}^{k}\right|=n-k \gamma=$ $n-k \gamma_{k}(G)$.

The family of trees $\left\{T_{\gamma}: \gamma \geq 1\right\}$ illustrated as an example in Figure 1 has $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(T_{\gamma}\right)=n-k \gamma$, for $k, \gamma \geq 1$, where $\gamma_{k}\left(T_{\gamma}\right)=\gamma$. We have any distance $k$ dominating set in $T_{\gamma}$ must contain at least one vertex in each branch $i w_{i, 1} \cdots w_{i, k}$, with $1 \leq i \leq \gamma$. Also, the set of vertices $\{1,2, \ldots, \gamma\}$ is a distance $k$-dominating set of $T_{\gamma}$. Then clearly $\gamma_{k}\left(T_{\gamma}\right)=\gamma$. We can check as above that the set of vertices $\{1,2, \ldots, \gamma\}$ is a resolving set of $T_{\gamma}$. It follows from Proposition 2.1 that it is a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $T_{\gamma}$ of cardinality $n-k \gamma=n-k \gamma_{k}\left(T_{\gamma}\right)$.

For a connected graph $G$ of order $n$ and diameter $d$, we have $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq n-d$ [8]. The graphs achieving equality are characterized in [23]. This type of bound involving the order and the diameter of the graph was provided for the resolving domination number in [5]. We give a general upper bound for all $k \geq 1$.


Figure 1. Tree graph $T_{\gamma}$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(T_{\gamma}\right)=n-k \gamma_{k}\left(T_{\gamma}\right)$.

Proposition 2.10. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and diameter d. Then

$$
\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \begin{cases}n-d, & \text { if } d \leq k \\ n-d+1, & \text { if } k+1 \leq d \leq 2 k \\ n-d+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor, & \text { if } d \geq 2 k+1\end{cases}
$$

These bounds are sharp.
Proof. Let $P=(0,1, \ldots, d)$ be a diametral path in $G$, i.e., $P$ is a shortest path of length $d$. For any two vertices $i$ and $j$ in $P$, we have $d_{G}(i, j)=|i-j|$.

If $d \leq k$, then by Lemma 2.3, $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(G)$. Based on [8], we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq n-d$.

If $k+1 \leq d \leq 2 k$, we consider the set of vertices $\{k, d\}$. For $0 \leq l, m \leq d-1$, with $l \neq m$, we have $d_{G}(l, d)=|l-d| \neq|m-d|=d_{G}(m, d)$. Also, for any $0 \leq l \leq d$, we have $d_{G}(l, k)=|l-k| \leq k$. This means that the set $\{k, d\}$ is resolving and distance $k$-dominating of the vertices $i \notin\{k, d\}$. Now, let $S^{\prime}=$ $V \backslash\{i: i \notin\{k, d\}\}$. Then $S^{\prime}$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G$. Hence, $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq\left|S^{\prime}\right|=n-d+1$.

If $d \geq 2 k+1$, let us consider the set of vertices $S=\{k, k+(2 k+1), \ldots, k+$ $\left.j(2 k+1), \ldots, \min \left\{k+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor(2 k+1), d\right\}\right\}$. Let $l$ be a vertex in $P \backslash S$. If $\min \{k+$ $\left.\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor(2 k+1), d\right\}=k+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor(2 k+1)$, then either $k+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor(2 k+1)<l \leq d$ or there exists $1 \leq i \leq\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor$ such that $k+(i-1)(2 k+1)<l<k+i(2 k+1)$, or $0 \leq l<k$. In all those cases there exists a vertex in $S$ at distance less or equal to $k$ from $l$. The same can be observed when $\min \left\{k+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor(2 k+1), d\right\}=$ $d$. Furthermore, since $|S| \geq 2$ and for $0 \leq i, j \leq d, d_{G}(i, j)=|i-j|$, it is straightforward that $S$ resolves the vertices in $P \backslash S$.

If we consider the set $S^{\prime}=V \backslash\{P \backslash S\}$, then $S^{\prime}$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of the graph $G$. Hence, $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq\left|S^{\prime}\right|=n-d+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor$.

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The graph path $P_{n}$ has diameter $n-1$. From Proposition 2.4 it is a graph achieving the upper bound $n-d$ for $n \leq k+1$. It achieves the upper bound $n-d+1$ when $k+2 \leq n \leq 2 k+1$. The path graph $P_{n}$ also achieves the upper bound $n-d+\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2 k+1}\right\rfloor$ when $n \geq 2 k+2$.

If $k=1$, for a connected graph of diameter $d \geq 3$, the upper bound in Proposition 2.10 is precisely the bound given in terms of the order and the diameter in [5].

The girth of the graph is the length of a shortest cycle in the graph. The following lower bounds proved in [12] for $\gamma_{k}(G)$ holds also for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ and they are achieved.

Proposition 2.11. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph having diameter $d$, radius $r$, and girth $g$. Then we have
(1) $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \geq \frac{d+1}{2 k+1}$;
(2) $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \geq \frac{2 r}{2 k+1}$;
(3) $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \geq \frac{g}{2 k+1}$, if $g<\infty$.

These bounds are sharp.
Proof. In [12], it is shown that if $G$ is a connected graph of diameter $d$, then $\gamma_{k}(G) \geq \frac{d+1}{2 k+1}$. In the same paper we have if $G$ has radius $r$, then $\gamma_{k}(G) \geq \frac{2 r}{2 k+1}$. Also in [12], for a connected graph of girth $g<\infty$, we have $\gamma_{k}(G) \geq \frac{g}{2 k+1}$. Since $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \geq \gamma_{k}(G)$, the above lower bounds for $\gamma_{k}(G)$ are true also for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$.

Some graphs in Proposition 2.4 and 2.5 are examples of graphs attaining these bounds. In (1) consider the path graph of order $n=p(2 k+1)$ for $p \geq 2$, since $d=n-1$, we get that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\frac{d+1}{2 k+1}$. In (2) consider the path graph of order $n=2 p(2 k+1)$. We have $r=p(2 k+1)$, then from proposition $2.4, \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\frac{2 r}{2 k+1}$. In (3) take a cycle graph of order $n=p(2 k+1)$ for $p \geq 3$, since $g=n$, then this is a graph having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\frac{g}{2 k+1}$.

## 3. Graphs with $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ EqUaL To $1, n-2$, AND $n-1$

Further, let $K_{n}$ denote the complete graph on $n$ vertices, and let $K_{s, t}$ with $s, t \geq 1$ denote the complete bipartite graph. For two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ the disjoint union of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, denoted by $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$, is the graph with vertex set $V\left(G_{1} \cup G_{2}\right)=$ $V\left(G_{1}\right) \cup V\left(G_{2}\right)$ and edge set $E\left(G_{1} \cup G_{2}\right)=E\left(G_{1}\right) \cup E\left(G_{2}\right)$. The join graph of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, denoted by $G_{1}+G_{2}$, is the graph obtained from $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ by joining each vertex from $V\left(G_{1}\right)$ to each vertex in $V\left(G_{2}\right)$. We denote by $\bar{G}$ the complement graph of $G$.

Theorem 3.1 [8]. For a connected graph $G$ of order $n \geq 2$, we have the following.

- $\operatorname{dim}(G)=1$ if and only if $G \cong P_{n}$.
- If $n \geq 4$, then $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq\right.$ $\left.1, t \geq 2), K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$.
- $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-1$ if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

In a connected graph $G$ of order $n \geq k+1$, any subset of $V$ of order greater or equal to $n-k$ is a distance $k$-dominating set.

Lemma 3.2. Let $k \geq 2$. For $1 \leq i \leq k$, if $G$ is a connected graph of order $n \geq$ $i+2$ that is not a path graph, then $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-i$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-i$.

Proof. For all $1 \leq i \leq k$, if $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-i$, any subset of $V$ of cardinality $n-i \geq n-k$ is a distance $k$-dominating set. Then a resolving set of cardinality $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-i$ is also a distance $k$-dominating set. Therefore $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(G)=$ $n-i$.

Conversely, if $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-i$, by Proposition 2.1, we have $\operatorname{dim}(G) \leq n-i$. If $n=i+2$, then $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-i=2$. It follows that $\operatorname{dim}(G)$ is equal to 1 or 2. Based on Theorem 3.1, the only graphs with $\operatorname{dim}(G)=1$ are path graphs, it follows that $\operatorname{dim}(G)=2$.

If $n \geq i+3$, we suppose that $\operatorname{dim}(G)<n-i$. If $i \leq k-1$, then a resolving set of cardinality $n-(i+1) \geq n-k$ is also a distance $k$-dominating set. Thus $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq n-(i+1)$, which is impossible. Now if $i=k$, let $W \subseteq V$ be a resolving set of cardinality $n-(k+1)$, and let us denote $1,2, \ldots, k+1$ the vertices in $V \backslash W$. Assuming that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-k$, then there is at least one vertex $v$ in $V \backslash W$ such that $d_{G}(v, W)=k+1$. Let $w \in W$ be such that $d_{G}(v, w)=d_{G}(v, W)=k+1$, and let $Q$ be a shortest $(v, w)$-path. Since $d_{G}(v, w)=d_{G}(v, W)$, and $G$ is a connected graph, the only vertex in $W \cap Q$ is $w$. We have $|Q|=k+2$ and $|W|=n-(k+1)$, which means that the subgraph induced by the vertices $1,2, \ldots, k+1$ and $w$ is the path $Q$. Without loss of generality, we suppose that the path $Q$ is $(k+1) k \cdots 1 w$. Now, let $S=(W \backslash\{w\}) \cup\{k\}$. We have $d_{G}(k, k+1)=d_{G}(k, k-1)=1$, $d_{G}(k, w)=k \geq 2$, and if $k \geq 3$, for $1 \leq j \leq k-2$, we have $d_{G}(k, j)=k-j \geq 2$. Also $d_{G}(k+1, S \backslash\{k\}) \geq k+1$, since $G$ is a connected graph and $n \geq k+3$, then there exists a vertex $u \in S \backslash\{k\}$ such that either or both 1 and $w$ are adjacent to $u$. This means that $d_{G}(k-1, u) \leq k$. It follows that $S$ is a resolving set of $G$. Since $d_{G}(k, i) \leq k$, for $1 \leq i \leq k+1, i \neq k$, and $d_{G}(k, w)=k$, it means that the set $S$ is also a distance $k$-dominating set of $G$. Hence $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq|S|=n-(k+1)$, a contradiction. Therefore $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-k$.

By combining Theorem 3.1 and Lemma 3.2 with Proposition 2.4, we give the following characterizations.

Theorem 3.3. For any graph $G$ of order $n \geq 2$, the following statements hold.
(a) For all $k \geq 1, \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=1$ if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{i}\right\}_{i=2}^{k+1}$.
(b) If $G$ is a connected graph of order $n \geq 4, \gamma_{2}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{4}, K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq 2), K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$. For all $k \geq 3, \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq\right.$ 2), $\left.K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$.
(c) If $G$ is a connected graph, for any $k \geq 2, \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-1$ if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

Proof. (a) For $k \geq 1$, if $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=1$, then $G$ is a connected graph and from Proposition 2.1, $\operatorname{dim}(G)=1$. The equivalence is completed by Theorem 3.1 and Proposition 2.4.
(b) If $G$ is a connected graph of order $n \geq 4$ different from a path graph, then by Lemma 3.2 we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim}(G)=n-2$. Which means by Theorem 3.1 that it is equivalent to $G \in\left\{K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq\right.$ 2), $\left.K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$. From Proposition 2.4, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{n}\right)=n-2$, it occurs only when $k=2$ and $n=4$. Then $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{4}, K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq 2), K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$. Also, for $k \geq 3, \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq\right.$ 2), $\left.K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$.
(c) The only connected graphs of order 2 and 3 are respectively $K_{2}$ and $P_{3}$ or $K_{3}$. For $k \geq 2$, from Proposition 2.4 and Theorem 3.1, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(K_{2}\right)=1$, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{3}\right)=1$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(K_{3}\right)=2$. If $G$ has order $n \geq 4$, then by Lemma 3.2 and Theorem 3.1, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-1$ if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

For $k=1$, we have $\gamma^{r}(G)=n-1$ if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{1, n-1}, K_{n}\right\}$ [4, 20]. The graphs having $\gamma^{r}(G)$ equal to 2 and $n-2$ are fully determined in [5] and [20], respectively.
4. Realizable Values for $\operatorname{dim}(G), \gamma_{k}(G)$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$.

In Proposition 2.1, we have $\max \left\{\gamma_{k}(G), \operatorname{dim}(G)\right\} \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \gamma_{k}(G)+\operatorname{dim}(G)$. For $k=1$, in [5] it is shown that for any three positive integers $\beta, \gamma$, and $\alpha$, verifiying that $\max \{\gamma, \beta\} \leq \alpha \leq \gamma+\beta$, and $(\beta, \gamma, \alpha) \notin\{(1, \gamma, \gamma+1): \gamma \geq 2\}$, there is always a graph $G$ having $\operatorname{dim}(G)=\beta, \gamma(G)=\gamma$, and $\gamma^{r}(G)=\alpha$. We give a similar result for $\operatorname{dim}(G), \gamma_{k}(G)$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$, for all $k \geq 2$.

The graph families we provide in Theorem 4.2 are all trees. To determine $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ of some of these graphs, we will need the next formula for the metric dimension of trees that appeared in $[8,17,30]$. We will recall some terminology given in [8]. In a tree $T$ for $v \in V$, if the $\operatorname{degree} \operatorname{deg}(v) \geq 3$, then $v$ is called a major vertex. A leaf $l$, i.e., a vertex of degree one, in $T$ is a terminal vertex of a major vertex $v$, if $v$ is the closest major vertex in terms of distance to $l$, i.e., for $u$ a major vertex in $T$ different from $v$, we have $d_{T}(v, l)<d_{T}(u, l)$. If $v$ is a major vertex having at least one terminal vertex, then $v$ is called an exterior
major vertex. Let $L(T)$ and $E X(T)$ denote respectively the number of leaves and the number of exterior major vertices in a tree $T$.

Theorem $4.1[8,17,30]$. If $T$ is a tree that is not a path graph, then $\operatorname{dim}(T)=$ $L(T)-E X(T)$. Also, any resolving set of $T$ must contain at least one vertex from each branch at an exterior major vertex containing its terminal vertices with at most one exception.

Theorem 4.2. For any three positive integers $\beta$, $\gamma$, and $\alpha$ such that $\max \{\gamma, \beta\} \leq$ $\alpha \leq \gamma+\beta$ and $(\beta, \gamma, \alpha) \notin\{(1, \gamma, \gamma+1): \gamma \geq 2\}$, and for all $k \geq 2$, there always exists a tree graph $T$ having $\operatorname{dim}(T)=\beta, \gamma_{k}(T)=\gamma$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(T)=\alpha$. There is no graph realizing the triples $\{(1, \gamma, \gamma+1): \gamma \geq 2\}$.

Proof. Let $\beta, \gamma, \alpha \geq 1$ be such that $\max \{\gamma, \beta\} \leq \alpha \leq \gamma+\beta$. We discuss the possible values for the triple $\left(\operatorname{dim}(G), \gamma_{k}(G), \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)\right)=(\beta, \gamma, \alpha)$, according to the following cases.

- If $\beta=1$, then $\gamma \leq \alpha \leq \gamma+1$. Also by Theorem 3.1 we have the path graphs are the only graphs having the metric dimension equal to 1 . For $k \geq 2$, in a path graph any subset of vertices of order greater or equal to 2 is a resolving set. Then if $\gamma \geq 2$, we have $\alpha=\gamma$. This means that the triple $(1, \gamma, \gamma+1)$ is not realizable by any graph for $\gamma \geq 2$. Also, according to Proposition 2.4 the path graphs realizes the following cases. (i) If $k+1 \geq n$, then we have $\gamma=\beta=\alpha=1$. (ii) If $\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \leq k \leq n-2$, then $\gamma=\beta=1$ and $\alpha=2=\gamma+\beta$. (iii) If $1 \leq k \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1$, then $\beta=1<\gamma=\alpha=\left\lceil\frac{n}{2 k+1}\right\rceil \geq 2$.
- If $\gamma=1$, for any $\beta \geq 2$, then we have $\beta \leq \alpha \leq \beta+1$. The star graph $K_{1, \beta+1}$ has $\gamma_{k}\left(K_{1, \beta+1}\right)=1$, and from Theorem 3.1 and Theorem 3.3 we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(K_{1, \beta+1}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(K_{1, \beta+1}\right)=\beta$, for any $k \geq 2$. This means that for $k \geq 2$, the triple $(\beta, 1, \beta)$ is realized for all $\beta \geq 2$. For the case of the triple $(\beta, 1, \beta+1)$, we consider the spider tree graph, denoted by $S_{\beta+1, k}$, having one vertex $v_{0}$ of degree $\beta+1$ with $\beta+1$ leaves $l_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq \beta+1$, at distance $k$ from $v_{0}$. Note that all the vertices of $S_{\beta+1, k}$ are of degree less or equal to 2 except $v_{0}$. Clearly $\gamma_{k}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=1$, and based on Theorem 4.1, we have $\operatorname{dim}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta$. Also any resolving set must contain at least one vertex in all but one of the ( $\left.v_{0}, l_{i}\right)$-paths, where $1 \leq i \leq \beta+1$. By using contradiction, we suppose that $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta$. From Theorem 4.1, we consider that a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set $W$ of $S_{\beta+1, k}$ having cardinality $\beta$ contains one vertex in any of the $\left(v_{0}, l_{i}\right)$ paths, with $1 \leq i \leq \beta$. We have the vertex $l_{\beta+1}$ is at distance greater than $k$ from the vertices in $W$. This means that $W$ is not a distance $k$-dominating set, a contradiction. Hence, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta+1$.
- If $\beta \geq 2$ and $\gamma \geq 2$, with $\max (\gamma, \beta) \leq \alpha \leq \gamma+\beta$, then the realizable values for the triple ( $\beta, \gamma, \alpha$ ) are considered depending on the following five subcases.
(i) If $2 \leq \beta=\gamma<\alpha$, then the trees $T^{1}=\left\{T_{k, m, l}^{1}: m \geq 0, l \geq 1, k \geq 2\right\}$ in Figure 2 illustrate graphs realizing this case.

Claim 4.3. We have $\gamma_{k}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{1}\right)=\operatorname{dim}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{1}\right)=m+l$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{1}\right)=m+2 l$.
Proof. Suppose that $\gamma_{k}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{1}\right)=\gamma, \operatorname{dim}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{1}\right)=\beta$, and $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{1}\right)=\alpha$. It is clear that $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l}$ is a minimum distance $k$-dominating set. Then $\gamma=m+l$. Based on Theorem 4.1, we have $\beta=m+l$, and for each $1 \leq i \leq l$, a resolving set must contain one vertex from the set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, j}\right\}_{j=0}^{k}$. Also, for each $1 \leq i \leq m$, a resolving set must contain one vertex from the set of vertices $\left\{w_{i, j}, w_{i, j}^{\prime}\right\}_{j=0}^{k}$. Now, let $S$ be a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality $\alpha$. We suppose without loss of generality, that $S$ contain a vertex from each $\left\{v_{i, j}\right\}_{j=0}^{k}$ with $1 \leq i \leq m$, and one vertex from each $\left\{w_{i, j}\right\}_{j=0}^{k}$ with $1 \leq i \leq l$. Since $d_{G}\left(w_{i}, w_{i, k}^{\prime}\right)=k$, and for $x \notin\left\{w_{i}, w_{i, j}^{\prime}\right\}$ we have $d_{G}\left(x, w_{i, k}^{\prime}\right)>k$. Then to be a distance $k$-dominating set, $S$ must contain for each $1 \leq i \leq l$, at least $w_{i}$ or a vertex in $\left\{w_{i, j}^{\prime}\right\}_{j=0}^{k}$. Hence $\alpha \geq m+2 l$. It is easy to check that the set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, 1}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l}$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set. Thus $\alpha \leq m+2 l$. It follows that $\alpha=m+2 l$.


Figure 2. Tree $T_{k, m, l}^{1}$.
The proofs for the remaining cases use similar arguments as in the proof of Claim 4.3. In the following, we only provide examples of minimum distance $k$-dominating sets, minimum resolving sets, and minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating sets for each family of trees.
(ii) If $2 \leq \gamma \leq \beta=\alpha$, then the family of trees $T^{2}=\left\{T_{k, m, l}^{2}: m \geq 1, l \geq 1, k \geq 2\right\}$ represented in Figure 3 realizes this case. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\{w\}$ is a minimum distance $k$-dominating set of cardinality $m+1$. Also, the set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, 1}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i, 1}\right\}_{i=1}^{l}$ is both a minimum resolving set and a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality $m+l$.


Figure 3. Tree $T_{k, m, l}^{2}$.
(iii) If $2 \leq \beta<\gamma=\alpha$, then the family of trees $T^{3}=\left\{T_{k, m, l}^{3}: m \geq 1, l \geq\right.$ $1, k \geq 2\}$ represented in Figure 4 realizes this case. From Theorem 4.1, we have $\operatorname{dim}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{3}\right)=m+1$. Also, the set $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\{u\}$ is a minimum distance $k$-dominating set of $T_{k, m, l}^{3}$ of cardinality $m+l+1$. Finally, the set $\left\{v_{i, 1}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{u_{1}\right\}$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality $m+l+1$. It follows that $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{3}\right)=\gamma_{k}\left(T_{k, m, l}^{3}\right)=m+l+1$.


Figure 4. Trees $T_{k, m, l}^{3}$.
(iv) If $2 \leq \gamma<\beta<\alpha$, then the family of trees $T^{4}=\left\{T_{k, m, l, r}^{4}: m \geq 0, l \geq 0\right.$, $r \geq 3, k \geq 2\}$ represented in Figure 5 illustrates graphs realizing this case, where $(m, l) \neq(0,0)$. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{u_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{r-1}$ is a minimum resolving set of cardinality $m+l+r-1$. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{m=1} \cup\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\{u\}$ is a minimum distance $k$-dominating set of cardinality $m+l+1$. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, 1}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i, k}, w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{u_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{r-1} \cup\{u\}$ is a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality $m+2 l+r$.
(v) If $2 \leq \beta<\gamma<\alpha$, then Figure 6 illustrates a family of trees $T^{5}=\left\{T_{k, m, l, r}^{5}\right.$ : $m \geq 0, l \geq 0, r \geq 2, k \geq 2\}$ realizing this case, where $(m, l) \neq(0,0)$. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{u_{r, k}\right\}$ is a minimum resolving set of cardinality

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Figure 5. Tree $T_{k, m, l, r}^{4}$.
$m+l+1$. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{u_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{r}$ is a minimum distance $k$-dominating set of cardinality $m+l+r$. The set of vertices $\left\{v_{i, 1}\right\}_{i=1}^{m} \cup\left\{w_{i, k}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup$ $\left\{w_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{l} \cup\left\{u_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{r} \cup\left\{u_{r, k}\right\}$ is a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of cardinality $m+2 l+r+1$.


Figure 6. Tree $T_{k, m, l, r}^{5}$.

## 5. Maximum Order Graphs

The maximum order $n$ of a graph $G$ having diameter $d$ and metric dimension $\operatorname{dim}(G)=\beta$, was shown to be $\beta+d^{\beta}[8,25]$. This was proved by considering the maximum possible number of distinct metric representations with respect to a minimum resolving set. But this maximum order is only achieved when $d \leq 3$ or $\beta=1$. Later, Hernando et al. [23] proved a stronger result by showing that $n \leq\left(\left\lfloor\frac{2 d}{3}\right\rfloor+1\right)^{\beta}+\beta \sum_{i=1}^{\left\lceil\frac{d}{3}\right\rceil}(2 i-1)^{\beta-1}$, where the maximum order is achieved for any arbitrary positive integers $d$ and $\beta$.

Cáceres et al. [5] showed that for a graph $G$ of order $n$ having $\gamma^{r}(G)=\gamma^{r}$, then $n \leq \gamma^{r}+\gamma^{r} \cdot 3^{\gamma^{r}-1}$. They also provided graphs achieving this maximum order. Next, we generalize this result for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ for all $k \geq 1$.

Theorem 5.1. For $k \geq 1$, the maximum order of a connected graph $G$ having distance $k$-resolving domination number $\gamma_{k}^{r}$ is $\gamma_{k}^{r}+\gamma_{k}^{r} \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{r}-1}$. This maximum order is achieved for any $k, \gamma_{k}^{r} \geq 1$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ and let $S$ be a minimum distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G$. For any vertex $x \in V \backslash S$, let us consider $v_{i}$ a vertex in $S$ such that $d_{G}\left(x, v_{i}\right)=p \leq k$. If $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma_{k}^{r} \geq 2$, for any vertex $v_{j}$ from $S$ different from $v_{i}$, the triangle inequality gives $\left|d_{G}\left(x, v_{j}\right)-d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)\right| \leq d_{G}\left(x, v_{i}\right)=p$. It follows that the metric representation of $x$ with respect to $S$ has the coordinate corresponding to $v_{i}$ equal to $p$ and for the other coordinates there are at most $2 p+1$ possible values in each of the other $\gamma_{k}^{r}-1$ coordinates. Therefore, there are at most $(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{\gamma}-1}$ possible metric representations of $x$ with respect to the set $S$. Since $1 \leq p \leq k$, there are at most $\sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{r}-1}$ distinct metric representations for the vertices at distance less or equal to $k$ from $v_{i}$. Since $|S|=\gamma_{k}^{r}$, we have $n \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}+\gamma_{k}^{r} \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{r}-1}$.

Let $k$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}$ be two arbitrary positive integers, we will prove that there exists a graph having distance $k$-resolving domination number $\gamma_{k}^{r}$ and order $\gamma_{k}^{r}+$ $\gamma_{k}^{r} \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{r}-1}$.

If $\gamma_{k}^{r}=1$, then from Theorem 3.3 the graph $G$ is a path graph of maximum order $k+1$, which coincides with the maximum order bound. If $\gamma_{k}^{r}=r \geq 2$, we consider the following subsets of $\mathbb{Z}^{r}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q_{0}=\{ & (0,2 k+1,2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1),(2 k+1,0,2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1), \ldots, \\
& (2 k+1,2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1,0)\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For all $1 \leq i \leq r$,
$Q_{i}=\left\{\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right): 1 \leq q_{i} \leq k\right.$, and for $\left.j \neq i, 2 k-q_{i}+1 \leq q_{j} \leq 2 k+q_{i}+1\right\}$.
Let $G_{r}$ be the graph whose vertex set is $V\left(G_{r}\right)=\bigcup_{i=0}^{r} Q_{i}$. For which two vertices $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right)$ and $q^{\prime}=\left(q_{1}^{\prime}, q_{2}^{\prime}, \ldots, q_{r}^{\prime}\right)$ are adjacent if and only if $\left|q_{j}-q_{j}^{\prime}\right| \leq 1$ for each $1 \leq j \leq r$.

Claim 5.2. The graph $G_{r}$ is a connected graph.
Proof. If $q_{i, 0}, q_{j, 0} \in Q_{0}$, where $q_{i, 0}$ has the $i$-th element equal to 0 and $q_{j, 0}$ has the $j$-th element equal to 0 , we construct a ( $q_{i, 0}, q_{j, 0}$ )-path as following,

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$$
\begin{aligned}
& (2 k+1, \ldots, \underset{i}{0}, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1)(2 k+1, \ldots, \underset{i}{1}, 2 k+1, \ldots, \underset{j}{2 k}, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1) \\
& \left(2 k+1, \ldots,{ }_{i}, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k-1,2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1\right) \ldots \ldots \\
& (2 k+1, \ldots, \underset{i}{k}, 2 k+1, \ldots, k+\underset{j}{j}, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1)(2 k+1, \ldots, k+1,2 k+1, \ldots, k, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1) \\
& (2 k+1, \ldots, k+2,2 k+1, \ldots, k-1,2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1) \ldots \ldots \\
& \left(2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k_{i}^{i}, 2 k+1 \ldots, 1,2 k+1 \ldots, 2 k+1\right)(2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1,2 k+1, \ldots, \underset{j}{j}, 2 k+1, \ldots, 2 k+1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, for each $1 \leq i \leq r$, if $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right) \in Q_{i}$, it is easy to see from the definition of the adjacency in $G_{r}$, that there is a $\left(q, q_{i, 0}\right)$-path. Hence, the graph $G_{r}$ is a connected graph.

For $1 \leq i \leq r$ and $q \in V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$, we denote $L_{i}(q)=\left(f_{i}\left(q_{1}\right), f_{i}\left(q_{2}\right), \ldots\right.$, $f_{i}\left(q_{r}\right)$ ), where $f_{i}$ is an integer-valued function defined as following.

If $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right) \in Q_{s}$, with $s \neq i$.

- For $j \notin\{s, i\}, f_{i}\left(q_{j}\right)= \begin{cases}q_{j}, & \text { if } q_{j}=2 k+1, \\ q_{j}-1, & \text { if } q_{j}>2 k+1, \\ q_{j}+1, & \text { if } q_{j}<2 k+1 .\end{cases}$
- $f_{i}\left(q_{s}\right)= \begin{cases}q_{s}, & \text { if } q_{s}=k, \\ q_{s}+1, & \text { if } q_{s}<k \text { or } q_{i}=k+1 .\end{cases}$
- $f_{i}\left(q_{i}\right)=q_{i}-1$.

If $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right) \in Q_{i}$.

- For $j \neq i, f_{i}\left(q_{j}\right)= \begin{cases}q_{j}, & \text { if } q_{j}=2 k+1, \\ q_{j}-1, & \text { if } q_{j}>2 k+1, \\ q_{j}+1, & \text { if } q_{j}<2 k+1 .\end{cases}$
- $f_{i}\left(q_{i}\right)=q_{i}-1$.

For $t \geq 1$, we define $L_{i}^{t}(q)$ with $L_{i}^{1}(q)=L_{i}(q)$. For $t \geq 2, L_{i}^{t}(q)=$ $L_{i}\left(L_{i}^{t-1}(q)\right)=\left(f_{i}^{t}\left(q_{1}\right), f_{i}^{t}\left(q_{2}\right), \ldots, f_{i}^{t}\left(q_{r}\right)\right)$, where $f_{i}^{t}$ is the $t$-th iterated function of $f_{i}$, i.e., $f_{i}^{t}=\underbrace{f_{i} \circ f_{i} \circ \cdots \circ f_{i}}_{\mathrm{t} \text { times }}$.
Claim 5.3. For all $1 \leq i \leq r$, for any vertex $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right) \in V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$, we have $L_{i}(q) \in V\left(G_{r}\right)$. Also, $L_{i}(q)$ is adjacent in $G_{r}$ to $q$, and $L_{i}^{q_{i}}(q)=q_{0, i}$.

Proof. Let $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right) \in V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$. For $1 \leq i \leq r$, we have $L_{i}(q)=$ $\left(f_{i}\left(q_{1}\right), f_{i}\left(q_{2}\right), \ldots, f_{i}\left(q_{r}\right)\right)$. If $q \in Q_{s}$, where $s \neq i$, for $j \neq s$, we have $2 k-q_{s}+1 \leq$ $q_{j} \leq 2 k+q_{s}+1$ and $1 \leq q_{s} \leq k$. We discuss the membership of $L_{i}(q)$ according to the following cases.
(i) If $q_{s}<k$, then we have $f_{i}\left(q_{s}\right)=q_{s}+1 \leq k, f_{i}\left(q_{i}\right)=q_{i}-1 \geq 2 k-q_{s}$, and for $j \notin\{i, s\}, 2 k-q_{s}+2 \leq f_{i}\left(q_{j}\right) \leq 2 k+q_{s}$. So $L_{i}(q)=\left(f_{i}\left(q_{1}\right), f_{i}\left(q_{2}\right), \ldots, f_{i}\left(q_{r}\right)\right)$ $\in Q_{s}$.
(ii) If $q_{s}=k$ and $q_{i}>k+1$, then $f_{i}\left(q_{i}\right)=q_{i}-1 \geq k+1, f_{i}\left(q_{s}\right)=k$, and for $j \notin\{i, s\}, k+1 \leq f_{i}\left(q_{j}\right) \leq 3 k+1$. So $L_{i}(q)=\left(f_{i}\left(q_{1}\right), f_{i}\left(q_{2}\right), \ldots, f_{i}\left(q_{r}\right)\right) \in Q_{s}$.
(iii) If $q_{i}=k+1$, then $q_{s}=k$. It follows that $f_{i}\left(q_{i}\right)=k, f_{i}\left(q_{s}\right)=k+1$, and for $j \notin\{i, s\}, k+1 \leq f_{i}\left(q_{j}\right) \leq 3 k+1$. Therefore, $L_{i}(q) \in Q_{i}$.

Now, if $q \in Q_{i}$, from the definition of $f$ it is easy to see that $L_{i}(q) \in Q_{i}$. Hence, for any vertex $q \in V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$, we have $L_{i}(q) \in V\left(G_{r}\right)$. Moreover, for $q \in V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$, and all $1 \leq i, j \leq r$, we have $\left|f_{i}\left(q_{j}\right)-q_{j}\right| \leq 1, f_{i}^{q_{i}}\left(q_{i}\right)=0$, and for $j \neq i, f_{i}^{q_{i}}\left(q_{j}\right)=2 k+1$. Thus, $L_{i}(q) q \in E\left(G_{r}\right)$, and $L_{i}^{q_{i}}(q)=q_{0, i}$.

Claim 5.4. For all $1 \leq i \leq r$, for any vertex $q=\left(q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{r}\right) \in V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$, $d_{G^{r}}\left(q, q_{0, i}\right)=q_{i}$.

Proof. Based on Claim 5.3 for $1 \leq i \leq r$, we have $q L_{i}(q) L_{i}^{2}(q) \cdots L_{i}^{q_{i}}(q)=q_{0, i}$ is a $\left(q, q_{0, i}\right)$-path in $G_{r}$ of length $q_{i}$. Hence $d_{G^{r}}\left(q, q_{0, i}\right) \leq q_{i}$. Since $q_{0, i}$ and $q$ are vertices having respectively 0 and $q_{i}$ at the $i$-th coordinate and any two vertices in $G_{r}$ can be adjacent only if the difference between the respective coordinates is at most 1 , it follows that $d_{G^{r}}\left(q, q_{0, i}\right) \geq q_{i}$. Therefore, $d_{G^{r}}\left(q, q_{0, i}\right)=q_{i}$.

From above we can conclude that for any two different vertices $q$ and $q^{\prime}$ in $V\left(G_{r}\right) \backslash Q_{0}$, there exists $1 \leq i \leq r$ such that $d_{G^{r}}\left(q, q_{0, i}\right)=q_{i} \neq d_{G^{r}}\left(q^{\prime}, q_{0, i}\right)=q_{i}^{\prime}$. It follows that the set of vertices $Q_{0}$ is a resolving set of $G_{r}$. Also, for all $1 \leq i \leq r$, and any vertex $q \in Q_{i}, d_{G^{r}}\left(q, q_{0, i}\right)=q_{i} \leq k$. Hence, the set $Q_{0}$ is as well a distance $k$-dominating set of $G_{r}$. Hence, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right) \leq\left|Q_{0}\right|=r$.

Suppose that $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right) \leq r-1$. We have the order of the graph $G_{r}$ is $\left|G_{r}\right|=r+$ $r \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{r-1}$. Also the maximum order of a graph having $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right) \leq r-1$ was previously proved to be less or equal to $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right)+\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right) \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right)-1} \leq$ $(r-1)+(r-1) \sum_{p=1}^{k}(2 p+1)^{r-2}$, it is a contradiction. Therefore, $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(G_{r}\right)=r$.

For $k=1$, the maximum order in Theorem 5.1 is precisely the maximum order given in [5].

## 6. Nordhaus-Gaddum Type Bounds

Nordhaus-Gaddum bounds are sharp bounds on the sum or the product of a parameter of a graph $G$ and its complement $\bar{G}$. The survey [1] contains a bibliography of these types of bounds for some graph parameters. Hernando et al. [22] found Nordhaus-Gaddum type of bounds for the metric dimension and the resolving domination number. We provide those bounds for the distance $k$-resolving domination number for $k \geq 2$.

Theorem 6.1. For any graph $G$ of order $n \geq 2$, we have the following.

- If $k=2$, then

$$
3 \leq \gamma_{2}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-1 \text { and } 2 \leq \gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq n(n-1) .
$$

The lower bounds are attained if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{2}, \bar{K}_{2}, P_{3}, \bar{P}_{3}\right\}$.
The upper bounds are attained if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{n}, \bar{K}_{n}\right\}$.

- If $k \geq 3$, then

$$
2 \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-1 \text { and } 1 \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq n(n-1) .
$$

The lower bounds are attained if and only if $G \cong P_{4}$.
The upper bounds are attained if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{n}, \bar{K}_{n}\right\}$.
Proof. If $k=2$, then we have from Theorem $3.3(a), \gamma_{2}^{r}(G)=1$ if and only if $G$ is $K_{2}$ or $P_{3}$. Also, for any other graph $G$, we have $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \geq 2$. This means that $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 3$ and $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 2$. Since $\gamma_{2}^{r}\left(\bar{K}_{2}\right)=2$ and $\gamma_{2}^{r}\left(\bar{P}_{3}\right)=2$, we can conclude that these lower bounds are attained if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{2}, \bar{K}_{2}, P_{3}, \bar{P}_{3}\right\}$.

If $k \geq 3$, then based on Theorem $3.3(a)$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=1$ if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{2}, P_{3}, \ldots, P_{k+1}\right\}$. The graph $P_{4}$ is a self-complementary graph, i.e., $\bar{P}_{4} \cong P_{4}$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(\bar{P}_{4}\right)=\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{4}\right)=1$. Also, $P_{4}$ is the only graph whose complement is also a path and has a distance $k$-resolving domination number equal to 1 . Therefore $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 2$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 1$, also these lower bounds are achieved if and only if $G$ is $P_{4}$.

Otherwise, for $k \geq 2$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n$ if and only if $G$ is the empty graph on $n$ vertices $\bar{K}_{n}$, whose complement graph is the complete graph $K_{n}$. According to Theorem $3.3(c)$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(K_{n}\right)=n-1$. Therefore, for any graph $G$ of order $n \geq 2$, for $k \geq 2$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-1$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq n(n-1)$. Moreover, these upper bounds are achieved if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{n}, \bar{K}_{n}\right\}$.

Let $G$ be a connected graph with $V(G)=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. The graph $G\left[H^{i}\right]$ is the graph obtained from $G$ by replacing the vertex $i$ with a graph $H$ and joining each vertex of $H$ to every vertex adjacent to $i$ in $G$. Let $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ be two graphs, the graph $G\left[H_{1}^{i}, H_{2}^{j}\right]$ is the graph obtained from $G$ by replacing the vertex $i$ (respectively, $j$ ) with the graph $H_{1}$ (respectively, $H_{2}$ ) and joining each vertex of $H_{1}$ (respectively, $H_{2}$ ) to every vertex adjacent to $i$ (respectively, $j$ ) in $G$. If $i$ and $j$ are adjacent in $G$, join every vertex of $H_{1}$ to every vertex of $H_{2}$. The Bull graph $B$ is the graph with vertex set $V(B)=\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ and edge set $V(B)=\{12,13,23,14,25\}$. The graph $B$ is a self-complementary graph, i.e., $\bar{B} \cong B$.

Theorem 6.2. If $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are both connected graphs of order $n \geq 4$, we have the following.

- If $k=2$, then

$$
4 \leq \gamma_{2}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-4 \text { and } 4 \leq \gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq(n-2)^{2} .
$$

The upper bounds are attained if and only if $G \cong P_{4}$.

- If $k \geq 3$, then

$$
2 \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-6 \text { and } 1 \leq \gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq(n-3)^{2} .
$$

The lower bounds are attained if and only if $G \cong P_{4}$.
The upper bounds are attained if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{4}, C_{5}, B\right\} \cup\left\{P_{4}\left[K_{n-3}^{1}\right]\right.$, $\left.P_{4}\left[\bar{K}_{n-3}^{1}\right], P_{4}\left[K_{n-3}^{2}\right], P_{4}\left[\bar{K}_{n-3}^{2}\right]\right\} \cup\left\{P_{4}\left[K_{r}^{1}, K_{n-r-2}^{2}\right]: 1 \leq r \leq n-3\right\} \cup\left\{P_{4}\left[\bar{K}_{r}^{1}\right.\right.$, $\left.\left.\bar{K}_{n-r-2}^{3}\right]: 1 \leq r \leq n-3\right\}$.

Proof. For $k=2$, let $G$ be a graph such that $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are connected graphs. From Theorem $3.3(a), \gamma_{2}^{r}(G)=1$ if and only if $G$ is either $K_{2}$ or $P_{3}$. Then both $G$ and $\bar{G}$ have distance 2-resolving domination number greater or equal to 2 . Hence, $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 4$ and $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 4$. Also based on Proposition 2.9 we have $\gamma_{2}^{r}\left(P_{4}\right)=\gamma_{2}^{r}\left(\bar{P}_{4}\right)=2$, then the lower bounds are sharp.

Otherwise, we have from Theorem $3.3(c), K_{n}$ is the only connected graph with distance 2 -resolving domination number equal to $n-1$. Since the complement of the complete graph is disconnected, it follows that $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \leq n-2$. Moreover, from Theorem $3.3(b)$, for $n \geq 4, \gamma_{2}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G$ is either $P_{4}, K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq 2)$, or $K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)$. The only graph from these graphs whose complement graph is also connected is the path $P_{4}$. Since $P_{4}$ is self-complementary, we can conclude that $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-4$ and $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq(n-2)^{2}$, where the equality holds if and only if $G \cong P_{4}$.

For $k \geq 3$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{4}\right)=1$. The graph $P_{4}$ is self-complementary and is the only graph in Theorem 3.3 (a) whose complement is a path graph having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G})=1$. Then $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 2$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \geq 1$, and these lower bounds are achieved if and only if $G$ is $P_{4}$.

Otherwise, we have from Theorem $3.3(c), \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-1$ if and only if $G$ is a complete graph. It follows that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq n-2$. Furthermore, in Theorem 3.3 (b), $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G$ is either $K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq 2)$, or $K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)$. Since the complements of these graphs are all disconnected, it follows that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq n-3$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq n-3$. Therefore, for $k \geq 3, \gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq 2 n-6$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G}) \leq(n-3)^{2}$. The only connected graph of order 4 whose complement graph is also a connected graph is $P_{4}$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{4}\right)=\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(\bar{P}_{4}\right)=1$. Also for $n \geq 5$, based on Lemma 3.2, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G})=n-3$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim}(G)=\operatorname{dim}(\bar{G})=n-3$. It follows that $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{k}^{r}(\bar{G})=2 n-6$ if and only if $\operatorname{dim}(G)+\operatorname{dim}(\bar{G})=2 n-6$. In [22], if $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are both conncted graphs, we have $\operatorname{dim}(G)+\operatorname{dim}(\bar{G})=2 n-6$ if and only if

## 7. Some Relations Between $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$

For $k \geq 1$, let $W$ be a $k$-truncated resolving set of a graph $G$. For any two distinct vertices $v, u \in V$, there exists a vertex $x$ in $W$ such that $d_{k}(v, x)=$ $\min \left\{d_{G}(v, x), k+1\right\} \neq d_{k}(u, x)=\min \left\{d_{G}(u, x), k+1\right\}$. We have $W$ is a resolving set of $G$. Also, at least one of $u$ and $v$ is at distance at most $k$ from $x$. Based on this observation we get the following upper bound for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ in terms of $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$.

Proposition 7.1. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph. Then we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq$ $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)+1$.

Proof. Let $W$ be a minimum $k$-truncated resolving set of $G$. Then there is at most one vertex $v$ in $V$ such that $d_{G}(v, W)>k$. Otherwise, if $v$ and $u$ are two distinct vertices at distance greater than $k$ from $W$, then $d_{k}(v, x)=d_{k}(u, x)=$ $k+1$, for every $x \in W$. Now, suppose that there exists a vertex $v$ such that $d_{G}(v, W)>k$, then the set $W \cup\{v\}$ is a distance $k$-dominating set of $G$. Since $W$ is a resolving set of $G$, we have $W \cup\{v\}$ is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set of $G$. Thus, $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq|W|+1=\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)+1$.

If there exists a minimum $k$-truncated resolving set $W$ of a connected graph $G$ such that $d_{G}(v, W) \leq k$ for any $v \in V$, then necessarily $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$.

In the following, we show that every $k$-truncated resolving set is a distance $(k+1)$-resolving dominating set.

Proposition 7.2. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph. Then we have $\gamma_{k+1}^{r}(G) \leq \operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$.

Proof. Let $W$ be a minimum $k$-truncated resolving set of $G$. Suppose that there is a vertex $v$ in $V$ such that $d_{G}(v, W) \geq k+2$. Let $u$ be a vertex adjacent to $v$. Then necessarily $d_{G}(u, W) \geq k+1$, otherwise $d_{G}(v, W) \leq k+1$. This means that $d_{k}(v, x)=d_{k}(u, x)=k+1$, for all $x \in W$, a contradiction. Therefore $d_{G}(v, W) \leq k+1$, for any vertex $v$ in $V$. Thus $W$ is a distance $(k+1)$-resolving dominating set. Hence $\gamma_{k+1}^{r}(G) \leq|W|=\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$.

For $k \geq 1$, for a connected graph $G$ of order $n$, we have $1 \leq \operatorname{dim}_{k}(G) \leq n-1$. A characterization of connected graphs of order $n$ having $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G) \in\{1, n-2$, $n-1\}$ is given in the following.

Theorem 7.3. For a connected graph $G$ of order $n \geq 2$, the following statements hold.
(a) [13] For $k \geq 1, \operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=1$ if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{i}\right\}_{i=2}^{k+2}$.
(b) [14] For $n \geq 4, \operatorname{dim}_{1}(G)=n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{P_{4}, K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\right.$ $\left.\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq 2), K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$. For $k \geq 2$ and $n \geq 4, \operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=$ $n-2$ if and only if $G \in\left\{K_{s, t}(s, t \geq 1), K_{s}+\bar{K}_{t}(s \geq 1, t \geq 2), K_{s}+\left(K_{1} \cup\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.K_{t}\right)(s, t \geq 1)\right\}$.
(c) [14] For $k \geq 1, \operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=n-1$ if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

In Theorems 3.3 and 7.3 , if $G$ is a connected graph of order $n \geq 2$, we can see that for $k \geq 1$ and $r \in\{1, n-2, n-1\}$, we have $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=r$ if and only if $\gamma_{k+1}^{r}(G)=r$.

Proposition 7.4. For $k \geq 1$, and any positive integers $\beta \geq 1$ and $\beta \leq \gamma \leq \beta+1$, there exists a connected graph $G$ having $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=\beta$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma$. For $\beta \geq 2$, the pair $(\beta, 1)$ is not realizable.

Proof. Let $\beta \geq 1$ and $\beta \leq \gamma \leq \beta+1$. If $\gamma=\beta \geq 1$, we have $\gamma^{r}\left(K_{\beta+1}\right)=\beta$ [4]. By Theorem 3.3 and Theorem 7.3, for $k \geq 1, \operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(K_{\beta+1}\right)=\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(K_{\beta+1}\right)=\beta$.

If $\gamma=\beta+1$, then for $k \geq 1$, if $\beta=1$, according to Theorem 7.3 and Proposition 2.4, the path graph $P_{k+2}$ has $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(P_{k+2}\right)=1$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(P_{k+2}\right)=2$. Now let $k \geq 1$ and $\beta \geq 2$. Let $S_{\beta+1, k}$ be the spider tree graph considered in the proof of Theorem 4.2 having one vertex $v_{0}$ of degree $\beta+1$ and $\beta+1$ leaves at distance $k$ from $v_{0}$. As shown previously in Theorem 4.2, we have $\operatorname{dim}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta+1$. Let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{\beta+1}$ be the neighbors of $v_{0}$ in $S_{\beta+1, k}$ and let $W=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{\beta}\right\}$. It is easy to check that $W$ is a $k$-truncated resolving set of $S_{\beta+1, k}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right) \leq|W|=\beta$. Since $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right) \geq \operatorname{dim}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta$, it follows that $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(S_{\beta+1, k}\right)=\beta$.

From Theorem 3.3, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=1$ if and only if $G$ is a path graph of order at most $k+1$. If $n \leq k+1$, in Theorem 7.3 , we have $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=1$. Therefore, there is no connected graph $G$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=1$ and $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G) \geq 2$.

The case $\gamma=\beta+1$, in Proposition 7.4, proves the sharpness of the upper bound in Proposition 7.1.

To provide examples of connected graphs having $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)>\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$, we give the $k$-truncated metric dimension of path graphs which appeared in [14].

Theorem 7.5 [14]. For $k \geq 1$, we have

- $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=1$ for $2 \leq n \leq k+2$;
- $\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)=2$ for $k+3 \leq n \leq 3 k+3$;
- for $n \geq 3 k+4$, we have

$$
\operatorname{dim}_{k}\left(P_{n}\right)= \begin{cases}\left\lfloor\frac{2 n+3 k-1}{3 k+2}\right\rfloor, & \text { if } n \equiv 0,1, \ldots, k+2 \quad(\bmod (3 k+2)), \\ \left\lfloor\frac{2 n+4 k-1}{3 k+2}\right\rfloor, & \text { if } n \equiv k+3, \ldots,\left\lceil\frac{3 k+5}{2}\right\rceil-1 \quad(\bmod (3 k+2)), \\ \left\lfloor\frac{2 n+3 k-1}{3 k+2}\right\rfloor, & \text { if } n \equiv\left\lceil\frac{3 k+5}{2}\right\rceil, \ldots, 3 k+1 \quad(\bmod (3 k+2)) .\end{cases}
$$

From Theorem 7.5 and Proposition 2.4, we can see, for example, that if $G$ is a path graph of order $6 k+3$, then $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=4>\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=3$. Moreover, we remark that the difference $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)-\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ can be arbitrarily large.

Proposition 7.6. Let $k \geq 1$. For any positive integer $N$ there exists a connected graph $G$ with $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)-\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)>N$.

Proof. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a path graph of order $n=i(3 k+2)$ where $i \geq 1$. Based on Theorem 7.5, we have $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=2 i$. From Proposition 2.4, $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=$ $\left\lceil\frac{i(3 k+2)}{2 k+1}\right\rceil<\frac{i(3 k+2)}{2 k+1}+1 \leq \frac{5}{3} i+1$. It follows that $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)-\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)>2 i-\frac{5}{3} i-1=$ $\frac{1}{3} i-1 \rightarrow \infty$ as $i \rightarrow \infty$.

The upper bound in Proposition 2.9 holds for $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$ the proofs are similar.
Proposition 7.7. For $k \geq 1$, let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq k+1$, with $\operatorname{diam}(G) \geq k$. Then $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G) \leq n-k \gamma_{k}(G)$.

## 8. Concluding Remarks

The study of the distance $k$-resolving domination number could be extended to other graph families and operations on graphs not discussed here. For example for trees, a formula in [20] is provided to compute efficiently $\gamma^{r}(T)$ for any tree $T$. We ask if it would be possible also for $\gamma_{k}^{r}(T)$ when $k \geq 2$. Also, it would be interesting to investigate the following questions.

- Is there a characterization of graphs achieving the bounds in Proposition 2.1?
- For $k \geq 1$ and $2 \leq \gamma \leq n-3$, can we characterize the connected graphs $G$ of order $n$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma$ ?
A characterization of connected graphs $G$ with $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G)=2$ will provide all the graphs having $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G)+\gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G})=4$ and $\gamma_{2}^{r}(G) \cdot \gamma_{2}^{r}(\bar{G})=4$ in Theorem 6.2, where $G$ and $\bar{G}$ are both connected graphs.

In view of the discussion in Section 7 the following questions naturally arise.

- What is a sharp upper bound for $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$ in terms of $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ and what can be said about the ratio $\frac{\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)}{\gamma_{k}^{k}(G)}$ for a connected graph $G$ ?
- Is there a characterization of graphs $G$ having $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)+1$ or $\gamma_{k+1}^{r}(G)=\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)$ ?
- For which pair $\beta, \gamma$ of positive integers with $\gamma<\beta$ does there exist a connected graph $G$ such that $\operatorname{dim}_{k}(G)=\beta$ and $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)=\gamma$ ?
For $k \geq 1$, we denote $N_{k}(v)=\left\{x \in V: 0<d_{G}(v, x) \leq k\right\}$, the open $k$ neighborhood of a vertex $v$ in $V$. The $k$-locating-dominating set defined as a set $X \subseteq V$, verifying for every $v, u \in V \backslash X$, we have $\emptyset \neq N_{k}(v) \cap X \neq N_{k}(u) \cap X \neq \emptyset$. The minimum cardinality of such set is called the $k$-locating-domination number denoted by $L D_{k}(G)$. Results about the $k$-locating-domination number can be found surveyed in [27]. Necessarily every $k$-locating-dominating set is a distance $k$-resolving dominating set, the opposite is not true. Therefore for all $k \geq 1$, we have $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G) \leq L D_{k}(G)$. For $k=1$, in [5] it is shown that $L D_{1}(T) \leq 2 \gamma^{r}(T)-2$ for any tree $T$ different from $P_{6}$. In [16], it is proved that $L D_{1}(G) \leq\left(\gamma^{r}(G)\right)^{2}$ for any graph $G$ not containing $C_{4}$ or $C_{6}$ as a subgraph. Finding an upper bound for $L D_{1}(G)$ in terms of $\gamma^{r}(G)$ for graphs in general is still open, it is shown [16] that such an upper bound is at least exponential in terms of $\gamma^{r}(G)$. Is it possible to find upper bounds for $L D_{k}(G)$ in terms of $\gamma_{k}^{r}(G)$ when $k \geq 2$ for graphs?


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