

TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY MUNICH

Master Thesis

On the Parametrized Complexity of Semitotal Domination on Graph Classes

Lukas Retschmeier





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Author: Lukas Retschmeier

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Debarghya Ghoshdastidar (TUM)

Advisor: Prof. Dr. Paloma T. Lima (ITU)

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I confirm that this master thesis is my own work and I hand material used.	nave documented all sources
København, September 6, 2022	Lukas Retschmeier



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ABSTRACT

Abstract all the way

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Parametrized Complexity emerging branch. Books about that Semitotal domination introduced by

1.1 Content of the thesis

In this thesis we continue the systematic analysis of the Semitotal Dominating Set problem by focusing on the parametrized complexity of the problem.

Although the problem already had a lot of attention regarding classical complexity (CITE), only few results are currently known for the parametrized variant.

As far as we have seen, even the w-hardness of the general case has not been explicitely been proofen in the literature.

In this thesis we continue the journey towards a systematic analysis by stating some hardness results for specific graph classes for the problem.

Our contributions Our main contributations consist of first showing the w[2]-hardness of Semitotal Dominating Set for XXXX graphs.

As the Dominating Set problem and the Total Dominating Set problem both admit a linear kernel for planar graphs, it is interesting to analyse wether this results also holds for the Semitotal Dominating Set problem which lays in between these two.

Having these kernels also for other variants like Edge Dominating Set, Efficient Dominating Set, Connected Dominating Set, Planar Red-Blue Dominating Set lent us a great confidence that the result will also work for Semitotal Dominating Set on planar graphs.

Following the approach from ... which alraedy relies on the technique given in, we give some simple data reduction rules for Semitotal Dominating Set on planar

graphs leading to a linear kernel. More precisely, we are going to proof the following central theorem of this thesis:

With some modifications we were able to transfer the approach given by Garnero and Stau in [GS18] to the Semitotal Dominating Set problem.

Theorem 1. The Semitotal Dominating Set problem parametrized by solution size admits a linear kernel on planar graphs. There exists a polynomial-time algorithms that given a planar graph (G,k), either correctly reports that (G,k) is a NO-instance or returns an equivalent instance (G',k) such that XXX.

Dominating Set problem and Total Dominating Set problem, both already

CHAPTER 2

PRELIMINARIES

We start by recapping some basic notation in Graph Theory and Parametrized Complexity.

Continuing an intensive study of parametrized complexity of that problem.

2.1 Graph Theory

We quickly state the following definitions given by [Die10, p. xxx].

Definition 1 (Graph [Die10, p. 3]). A graph is a pair G = (V, E) of two sets where V denotes the vertices and $E \subseteq V \times C$ the edges of the graph. A vertex $v \in V$ is incident with an edge $e \in E$ if $v \in e$. Two vertices x, y are adjacent, or neighbours, if $\{x, y\} \in E$.

Definition 2 (Special Graph Notations [Die10, p. 27]). A simple Graph

A directed Graph is a graph A Multi Graph A Planar Graph

Definition 3 (Closed and Open Neighborhoods [BR12]). Let G = (V, E) be a (non-empty) graph. The set of all neighbors of v is the open neighborhood of v and denoted by N(v); the set $N[v] = N(v) \cup \{v\}$ is the closed neighborhood f v in G. When G needs to be made explicit, those open and closed neighborhoods are denoted by $N_G(v)$ and $N_G[v]$.

Definition 4 (Induced Subgraph). asd

Definition 5 (Isomorphic Graph). asd

Special Graph Classes

We call the class of graphs without any special restrictions "General Graphs".

Definition 6 (r-partite Graphs). Let $r \ge 2$ be an integer. A Graph G = (V, E) is called "r-partite" if V admits a parititon into r classes such that every edge has its ends in different classes: Vertices in the same partition class must not be adjacent.

For the case r = 2 we say that the G is "bipartite"

Definition 7 (Chordal Graphs).

Definition 8 (Split Graphs).

2.2 Parametrized Complexity

2.2.1 Fixed Parameter Tractability

Fixed Parameter Intractability: The W Hierarchy

2.2.2 Kernelization

CHAPTER 3

ON PARAMETRIZED SEMITOTAL DOMINATION

3.1 Semitotal Domination

Semitotal Dominating Set Definition, dominating number

Complexity Status of Semitotal Dominating Set

3.2 w[i]-Intractibility

Now some w[i] hard classes.

3.2.1 Warm-Up: W[2]-hard on General Graphs

As any bipartite graphswith bipartition can be split further into r-partite graphsthis results also implies the w[1]-hardness of r-partite graphs

3.2.2 W[2]-hard on Bipartite Graphs

Definition 9 (Bipartite Graph, [BM08, p.5]). A bipartite graphs is a Graph G whose vertex set can be partitioned into two subsets X and Y, so that each edge has one end in X and one end in Y. Such a partition (X,Y) is called a bipartition of G.

Theorem 2. Semitotal Dominating Set is $\omega[2]$ hard for bipartite Graphs

Proof. Given a bipartite Graph $G = (\{X \cup Y\}, E)$, we construct a bipartite Graph G' in the following way:

1. For each vertex $x_i \in X$ we add a new vertex x_i' and an edge (x_i, x_i') in between.

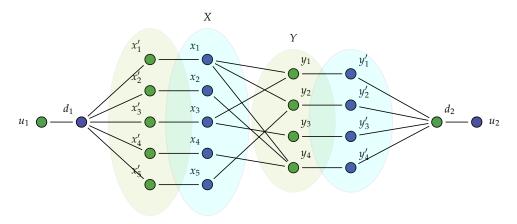


Figure 3.1: Constructing G' from a bipartite Graph G by duplicating the vertices and adding a dominating tail

- 2. For each vertex $y_i \in Y$ we add a new vertex y_i' and an edge (y_i, y_i') in between.
- 3. We add two P_1 , namely (u_1, d_1) and (u_2, d_2) , and connect them with all (d_1, x_i') and (d_2, y_i') respectively.

Observation: G' is clearly bipartite as all y'_j and x'_i form again an Independent Set. Setting $X' = X \cup \{u_2\} \cup \bigcup y'_i$ and $Y' = Y \cup \{u_1\} \cup \bigcup x'_i$ form the partitions of bipartite G'.

Corollary 1. *G* has a Dominating Set of size k iff G has a Semitotal Dominating Set of size k' = k + 2

 \Rightarrow : Asume there exists a Dominating Set D in G with size k. $DS = D \cup \{d_1, d_2\}$ is a Semitotal Dominating Set in G' with size k' = k + 2, because d_1 dominates u_1 and all x_i' ; d_2 dominates u_2 and all y_i' . Hence, it is a Semitotal Dominating Set, because $\forall v \in (D \cap X) : d(v, d_1) = 2$ and $\forall v \in (D \cap Y) : d(v, d_2) = 2$

 \Leftarrow : On the contrary, asume any Semitotal Dominating Set SD in G' with size k'. WLOG we can asume that $u_1, u_2 \notin DS$.

Our construction forces d_1 , $d_2 \in DS$. Because all x_i' are only important in dominating x_i (y_i' for y_i resp.) as $d_1, d_2 \in DS$. If $x_i' \in DS$ we simply exchange it with x_i (for y_i' and y_i respectively) in our DS keeping the size of the dominating set. $D = DS \setminus \{d_1, d_2\}$ give us a Dominating Set in G with size k = k' - 2

As G' can be constructed in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ and parameter k is only blown up by a constant, this reduction is a FPT reduction. As Dominating Set is w[2] hard for bipartite Graphs¹ so is Semitotal Dominating Set.

¹Citation needed!

- 3 On Parametrized Semitotal Domination
- 3.2.3 W[2]-hard on Chordal Graphs
- 3.2.4 W[2]-hard on Split Graphs

CHAPTER 4

A LINEAR KERNEL FOR PLANAR SEMITOTAL DOMINATION

The best way to explain it is to do it.

Lewis Caroll, Alice in Wonderland

We are now building up towards a linear kernel for the Semitotal Dominating Set problem. In order to achieve this, we will first split up the neighborhood of one vertice and a pair of vertices into three distinct subsets, give some nice properties on them and then state the corresponding reduction rules.

But first, we would like to define what we consider to be a reduced graph.

Definition 10 (Reduced Graph [GS18, p. 13] and [GST17b]). A Graph G is reduced under a set of rules if either none of these rules can be applied to G or the application of any of them creates a graph isomorphic to G.

In our case, we say G is reduced if none of the Rules 1 to 3 are modifying G any more.

This differs from the definition usually giving in literature where a graph G is *reduced* under a set of reduction rules, if none of them can be applied to G anymore (Compare e.g. [Fom+19]). The reason is that we are giving reduction rules (see Rule 1 or Rule 2) that could be applied *ad infinitum* sending us into an endless loop without ever changing G any more. Our definition guarantees termination in that case.

From an algorithmic point of view, all our given reduction rules are local and only concern the neighborhood of at most two vertices and replace them partially with gadgets of constant size. Now checking wether a graph after applying the rule has beein changed can be trivially be accomplished in constant time.

4.1 The Main Idea and The Big Picture

[TODO SUM UP THE STRATEGY]

4.2 Definitions

In this section we are giving some key definitions that are used in our reduction rules for obtaining the linear kernel. These as inspired by those given by Garnero and Stau (Planbar Total Dominating Set in [GS14] or Planar Red-Blue Dominating Set in [GST17a]) and already relied on those given by Alber et al. in [AFN04] for Planar Dominating Set.

The idea is to split up the neighborhood of a single vertex and a pair of vertices into three (disjoint) subsets that make a statement about how strongly the neighborhood is connected with the rest of the graph.

Definition 11. Let G = (V, E) be a graph and let $v \in V$. We denote by $N(v) = \{u \in V : \{u, v\} \in E\}$ the neighborhood of v. We split N(v) into three subsets:

$$N_1(v) = \{ u \in N(v) : N(u) \setminus N[v] \neq \emptyset \}$$

$$(4.1)$$

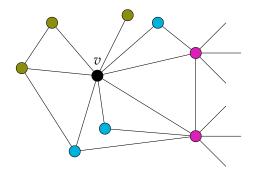
$$N_2(v) = \{ u \in N(v) \setminus N_1(v) : N(u) \cap N_1(v) \neq \emptyset \}$$

$$(4.2)$$

$$N_3(v) = N(v) \setminus (N_1(v) \cup N_2(v))$$

$$\tag{4.3}$$

In order to inhance future readability, for $i, j \in [1, 3]$, we denote $N_{i,j}(v) := N_i(v) \cup N_j(v)$.



The neighborhood of a vertex splitted to $N_1(v)$ (blue), $N_2(v)$ (purple) and $N_3(v)$ (green). Note that all purple vertices have at least one blue neighbor making setting them in-between the green and blue vertices.

Intuitvely, these sets are classifying neighbors of v by how much they can interact with the rest of the graph and how much they are locally centered around v:

 $N_1(v)$ are all neighbors of v which have at least one adjacent vertex that is outside of N(v) and therefore connect v with the rest of the graph. They could possible belong to a solution.

 $N_2(v)$ are all neighbors of v that have at least one neighbor from $N_1(v)$. These vertices do not have any function as a dominating vertex and can be seen as a *buffer* bridging $N_1(v)$ -vertices with those from $N_3(v) \cup \{v\}$. Furthermore, they are useless as witnesses, because either we can replace them by v (sharing the same neighborhood) or when being a witness for v, we replace it by one $z \in N_1(v)$.

Vertices from $N_3(\mathbf{v})$ are unmitigated sealed off from the rest of the graph. They are useless as dominating vertices: For all $z \in N_3(v)$ it holds that $N(z) \subseteq N(v)$ by definition and thus, we would always prefer v as a dominating vertex instead of z. Nevertheless, they can be important as a witness for v in the case that $N_1(v) \cup N_2(v) = \emptyset$. We are using this observation in Rule 1 where we shrink $|N_3(v)| \le 1$

In the following we are going to further extend this definition to a pair of vertices. Using this, Rule 2 will later try to reduce the neighborhood of two vertices and similar to 11, we can deduce some properties.

Definition 12. Let G = (V, E) be a graph and $v, w \in V$. We denote by $N(v, w) = N(v) \cup N(w)$ the neighborhood of the pair v, w. We split N(v, w) into three subsets:

$$N_1(v,w) = \{ u \in N(v,w) \mid N(u) \setminus (N(v,w) \cup \{v,w\}) \neq \emptyset \}$$

$$(4.4)$$

$$N_2(v, w) = \{ u \in N(v, w) \setminus N_1(v, w) \mid N(u) \cap N_1(v, w) \neq \emptyset \}$$
 (4.5)

$$N_3(v, w) = N(v, w) \setminus (N_1(v, w) \cup N_2(v, w))$$
(4.6)

Again, for $i, j \in [1,3]$, we denote $N_{i,j}(v,w) = N_i(v,w) \cup N_j(v,w)$.

Again, $N_1(v, w)$ are those connected with the rest of the graph, $N_2(v, w)$ are a *buffer* between $N_3(v, w) \cup \{v, w\}$ and $N_3(v, w)$ are those isolated from the rest of the graph, but can still be usefull as a witness for v or w.

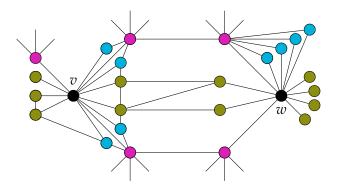


Figure 4.1: TODO

Note that for example a vertex $z \in N_1(v) \not\Longrightarrow z \in N_1(v,w)$. Figure 4.2 gives an example, where z belongs to $N_1(v)$, but not to $N_1(v,w)$.

4 A Linear Kernel for Planar Semitotal Domination

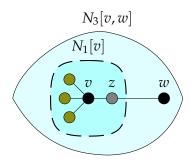


Figure 4.2: The vertex z is in $N_1(v)$, because there is an edge pointing outside of N(v) to w. Contrary, it is not in $N_1(v,w)$, but now belongs to $N_3(v,w)$, because we are considering the "shared" neighborhood

4.2.1 Regions in Planar Graphs

We will introduce a concept that leads towards a new perspective looking at planar graphs, regions

As it is possible to bound the number of total vw-regions in a planar graph, we can analyse the local impacts to these regions from our future reduction rules.

It might be interesting to note that the authors of [GST17b] have revised their original definitions to set the basic for a more formal analysis.

Definition 13. Two simple paths p_1 , p_2 in a plane graph G are confluent if:

- 1. they are vertex-disjoint
- 2. they are edge-disjoint and for every common vertex u, if v_i , w_i are the neighbors of u in p_i , for $i \in [1,2]$, it holds that $[v_1, w_1, v_2, w_2]$, or
- 3. they are confluent after contracting common edges

Definition 14. Let G = (V, E) be a plane graph and let $v, w \in V$ be two distinct vertices. A vw-region is a closed subset of the plane, such that:

- 1. the boundary of R is formed by two confluent simple vw-paths with length at most 3
- 2. every vertex in R belongs to N(v, w), and
- 3. the compliment of R in the plane is connected.

We denote by ∂R the boundary of R and by V(R) the set of vertices which lie (with the plane embedding) in R. Furthermore, we call |V(R)| the size of the region.

The poles of R are the vertices v and w. The boundary paths are the two vw-paths that form ∂R

We now have all the definitions ready to formally define a decomposition technique for planar graphs:

Definition 15. Two regions R_1 and R_2 are non-crossing, if:

- 1. $(R_1 \setminus \partial R_1) \cap R_2 = (R_2 \setminus \partial R_2) = \emptyset$, and
- 2. the boundary paths of R_1 are pairwise confluent with the ones in R_2

Definition 16. Given a plane graph G = (V, E) and $D \subseteq V$, a D – region Decomposition of G is a set \Re of regions with poles in D such that:

- 1. for any vw-region $R \in \mathfrak{R}$, it holds that $D \cap V(R) = \{v, w\}$, and
- 2. all regions are pairwise non-crossing.

We denote
$$V(\mathfrak{R}) = \bigcup_{R \in \mathfrak{R}} V(R)$$
.

A D-region decomposition is <u>maximal</u> if there is no region $R \notin \Re$ such that $\Re' = \Re \cup \{R\}$ is a D-region decomposition with $V(\Re) \subseteq V(\Re')$

Figure 4.3 gives an example on how to decompose a graph into a maximal D-region decomposition with a given Semitotal Dominating Set of size 3.

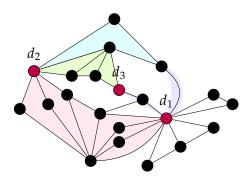


Figure 4.3: A maximal D-region decomposition, where $D = \{d_1, d_2, d_3\}$ form a Semitotal Dominating Set. There are two regions between d_2 and d_1 , one region between d_1 and d_3 and one region between d_2 and d_3 . Observe that some neighbors of d_1) are not part of any vw-region. For those, our reduction rules are going to take care about that and bound these number of vertices to obtain the kernel.

We are introducing a special subset of a region, a *simple region* where every vertex is a common neighbor of v and w. They will appear on many unexpected astonishing places and are an important tool to operate on small parts of a plane graph. The upcoming Rule 3 will bound the size of these *simple regions*.

Definition 17. A simple vw-region is a vw-region such that:

4 A Linear Kernel for Planar Semitotal Domination

- 1. its bounary paths have length at most 2, and
- 2. $V(R) \setminus \{v, w\} \subseteq N(v) \cap N(w)$.

Figure 4.4 shows an example of a simple region containing 9 vertices.

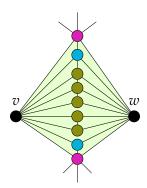


Figure 4.4: A simple region with two vertices from $N_1(v, w)$ setting the boundary, two vertices from $N_2(v, w)$ and some vertices from $N_3(v, w)$ in between

4.3 Reduction Rules

Following the approach by [GS14], we are now stating reduction rules that after exhaustive application will expose a linear kernel.

4.3.1 Reduction Rule I: Getting Rid of unneccessary $N_3(v)$ vertices

An exemplarly application of the rule is shown in figure 4.5

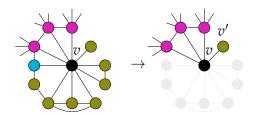


Figure 4.5: TODO

Rule 1. Let G = (V, E) be a graph and let $v \in V$. If $|N_3(v)| \ge 1$:

- remove $N_3(v)$ from G,
- add a vertex v' and an edge $\{v, v'\}$

Lemma 3. Let G = (V, E) be a a graph and let $v \in V$. If G' is the graph obtained by applying Rule 1 on V, then G has SDS of size k if and only if G' has one.

Proof. This will be the proof for this lemma X



Note, that we need our definition of a reduced instance given in 4. If Rule 3 is being applied, it will still leave us with a vertex $z \in N_3(v)$ allowing this rule to be applied again.

4.3.2 Reduction Rule II: Shrinking the Size of a Region

Extending the approach for a linear kernel for Dominating Set proposed by Alber et al. in [AFN04], Garnero and Stau transferred these results in [GS18] to the TOTAL Dominating Set problem.

Their idea was to strengthen the reduction rules in such a way that the witness properties for total domination are being preserved.

Following their approach in one of the first versions of [GS14], we stating reduction rules that. Interestingly, the reduction rules given in the latest version of this paper was not directly be transferable to Semitotal Dominating Set, but an older version giving slightly easier reduction rules could be adjusted to our problem.

which relies on the technique first introduced by Alber et al we try to reduce the neighborhood for two given vertices v and w

Before we give the concrete reduction rule, we will define three sets

$$\mathcal{D} = \{ \tilde{D} \subseteq N_{2,3}(v,w) \mid N_3(v,w) \subseteq \bigcup_{v \in \tilde{D}} N(v), \ |\tilde{D}| \le 3 \}$$

$$\tag{4.7}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_{v} = \{ \tilde{D} \subseteq N_{2,3}(v,w) \cup \{v\} \mid N_{3}(v,w) \subseteq \bigcup_{v \in \tilde{D}} N(v), \mid \tilde{D} \mid \leq 3, v \in \tilde{D} \}$$

$$(4.8)$$

$$\mathcal{D} = \{ \tilde{D} \subseteq N_{2,3}(v,w) \mid N_3(v,w) \subseteq \bigcup_{v \in \tilde{D}} N(v), \ |\tilde{D}| \le 3 \}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_v = \{ \tilde{D} \subseteq N_{2,3}(v,w) \cup \{v\} \mid N_3(v,w) \subseteq \bigcup_{v \in \tilde{D}} N(v), \ |\tilde{D}| \le 3, \ v \in \tilde{D} \}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_w = \{ \tilde{D} \subseteq N_{2,3}(v,w) \cup \{w\} \mid N_3(v,w) \subseteq \bigcup_{v \in \tilde{D}} N(v), \ |\tilde{D}| \le 3, \ w \in \tilde{D} \}$$

$$(4.7)$$

$$\mathcal{D}_w = \{ \tilde{D} \subseteq N_{2,3}(v,w) \cup \{w\} \mid N_3(v,w) \subseteq \bigcup_{v \in \tilde{D}} N(v), \ |\tilde{D}| \le 3, \ w \in \tilde{D} \}$$

$$(4.8)$$

Rule 2. Let G = (V, E) be a graph and two distinct $v, w \in V$. If $\mathcal{D} = \emptyset$ we apply the following:

Case 1: if $\mathcal{D}_v = \emptyset$ and $D_w = \emptyset$

- Remove $N_{2,3}(v,w)$
- Add vertices v' and w' and two edges $\{v, v'\}$ and $\{w, w'\}$
- If there was a common neighbor of v and w in $N_{2,3}(v,w)$ add another vertex y and two connecting edges $\{v, y\}$ and $\{y, w\}$

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Case 2: if $\mathcal{D}_v \neq \emptyset$ and $D_w \neq \emptyset$ Do nothing¹

Case 3: if $\mathcal{D}_v \neq \emptyset$ and $D_w = \emptyset$

- Remove $N_{2,3}(v) \cap N_3(v,w)$
- Add $\{v, v'\}$

Case 4: if $\mathcal{D}_v = \emptyset$ and $\mathcal{D}_w \neq \emptyset$ This case is symmetrical to Case 3.

Before proofing Rule 2 we will deduce some *Facts* which are implied by the definitions above.

Fact 1. Let G = (V, E) be a graph, let $v, w \in V$, and let G' be the graph obtained by the application of Rule 2 on v, w. If $D = \emptyset$, then G has a solution if and only if it has a solution containing at least one of the two vertices $\{v, w\}$.

Proof. \Box

Now we are ready to proof the correctness of Rule 2

Fact 2. Let G = (V, E) be a graph, let $v, w \in V$, and let G' be the graph obtained by the application of Rule 2 on v, w. If $\mathcal{D} = \emptyset$ and $\mathcal{D}_v = \emptyset$ (resp. $\mathcal{D}_w = \emptyset$) then G' has a solution if and only if it has a solution containing v (resp. w).

 \Box

Lemma 4. Let G = (V, E) be a plane graph, $v, w \in V$ and G' = (V', E') be the graph obtained after application of Rule 2 on the pair $\{v, w\}$. Then G has SDS of size k if and only if G' has SDS of size k.

Proof. We will proof the claim by analysing the different cases seperately. \Box

4.3.3 Reduction Rule III: Shrinking Simple Regions

Rule 3. Let G = (V, E) be a plane graph, $v, w \in V$ and R be a simple region between v and w. If $|V(R) \setminus \{v, w\}| \ge 7$

- Remove $N_3(v, w)$
- Add two vertices h_1 and h_2 and four edges $\{v, h_1\}, \{v, h_2\}, \{w, h_1\}$ and $\{w, h_2\}$

¹Originally, reduce Simple Regions [STAU]

Lemma 5 (Correctness of Rule 3). Let G = (V, E) be a plane graph, $v, w \in V$ and G' = (V', E') be the graph obtained after application of Rule 3 on the pair $\{v, w\}$. Then G has SDS of size k if and only if G' has SDS of size k.

The application of Rule 3 gives us a bound on the number of vertices inside a simple region.

Corollary 2. Let G = (V, E) be a graph, $v, w \in V$ and R a simple region between v and w. If Rule 3 has been applied, this simple region has size at most 6.

Proof. Clearly, if $|V(R) \setminus \{v, w\}| < 7$ then the rule would not have changed G and the size of the region would already be bounded by 6. Assuming $|V(R) \setminus \{v, w\}| \ge 7$ we note that every simple region can have at most two distinct vertices from $N_1(v, w)$ and two distinct ones from $N_2(v, w)$ without breaking planarity. These vertices are not touched by the reduction. Adding the two vertices that are being added between v and w gives us the desired upper bound.

4.3.4 Computing Maximal Simple Regions between two vertices

For the sake of completeness, we state an algorithm how a maximal simple regionbetween two vertices $v, w \in V$ can be computed in time $\mathcal{O}(d(v) + d(w))$:

4.4 Bounding the Size of the Kernel

We are now putting all our pieces together in order to proof our main result: A linear bound on the kernel size. In order to do so, we distinguish between those vertices that are covered by a maximal *D-region decomposition* and those that are not. In both cases our reduction rules bound the number of vertices to a consant size which means the kernel size does only depend on the number of regions of this decomposition. Lemma 4.3 states that for any solution D, we only have a linear number of regions that cover the whole graph.

4.4.1 Bounding the Size of a Region

We start are more fine-grained analysis of the impact of the different cases of Rule 2 on a vw-region. The main idea is to count the number of simple regions in the vw-region and than use the bound on the size of a simple region after Rule 3 was applied exhaustively and which was obtain obtained in Lemma 2.

Lemma 6. Given a plane Graph G = (V, E) reduced under Rule 2 and a region R(v, w), if $\mathcal{D}_v \neq (resp. \ \mathcal{D}_w \neq \emptyset)$, $N_3(v, w) \cap V(R)$ can be covered by:

1. 11 simple regions if $\mathcal{D}_w \neq \emptyset$,

4 A Linear Kernel for Planar Semitotal Domination

2. 14 simple regions if $N_{2,3}(v) \cap N_3(v,w) = \emptyset$

Note, that the first case applies, when Case 2 & 3 of Rule 2 have been applied and the second one, when Case 4 of Rule 2 was applied.

Proof. \Box

Lemma 7 (#Vertices inside a Region after Rules 1 to 3). Let G = (V, E) be a plane graph reduced under Rules 1 to 3. Furthermore, let D be a SDS of G and let $v, w \in D$. Any vw-region R contains at most XXX vertices distinct from its poles.

Proof. Adapt proof given in [GST17b]

4.4.2 Number of Vertices outside the Decomposition

Lemma 8. [AFN04] Every vertex in $u \in V \setminus V(\mathfrak{R})$ is either in D or belongs to a set $N_2(v) \cup N_3(v)$.

Proof. \Box

Lemma 9 (#Vertices outside a Region). Let G = (V, E) be a plane graph reduced under Rules 1 and 2 and let D be a SDS of G. If R has a maximal D-region decomposition, then XXX

In the following, we define $d_{G_{\Re}}(v) = |R(v, w) \in \Re, w \in D|$ to be the number of regions in \Re adjacent to a vertex v.

Corollary 3. Let G = (V, E) be a graph and D be a set. For any maximal D-region decomposition \mathfrak{R} on G it holds that $\sum_{v \in D} d_{G_{\mathfrak{R}}}(v) \leq 2 \cdot |\mathfrak{R}|$.

Proof. By definition, we know that each region \widetilde{R} has exactly two poles, thus there can only exist at most two sets from $d_{G_{\Re}}(v_i)$ containing \widetilde{R} . Hence, the claim follows.

With some slightly modifications, the proof given in [GS14] will also hold in our case. Note that although assuming the graph to be reduced, the following proof only relies on Rules 1 and 2. It is a very interesting observation that N_2

Proof. Again, we will follow the proof proposed by Alber et al. [AFN04, Proposition 2]. The proof does only rely on Rules 1 and 2 and we can use the number of vertices in a simple region we have proofen in 2. In particular, we are going to proof that $V \setminus V(\mathfrak{R}) \leq XX \cdot |\mathfrak{R}| + 2 \cdot |D|$. Directly placing in Lemma 10 will give as the desired bound.

Now let \mathfrak{R} be a maximal *D-region decomposition* and let $v \in D$. Since D dominates V and therefore every non-dominating vertex in the graph has at least one neighbor in D, we can consider V as $\bigcup_{v \in D} N(v)$ and thus, we only need to bound the sizes of $N_1(v)$, $N_2(v)$ and $N_3(v)$ MINUS R separately. let $v \in D$ in the following:

 $\mathbf{N_3}(\mathbf{v})$: As we know that Rule 1 has exhaustively applied, we trivially see that $|N_3(v)| \le 1$. Hence, $|\bigcup_{v \in D} N_3(v) \setminus V(\mathfrak{R})| \le |D|$

 $\mathbf{N_2}(\mathbf{v})$: According to Alber et al. ([AFN04]), we know that $N_2(v) \setminus V(\mathfrak{R})$ can be covered by at most $4d_{G_{\mathfrak{R}}}(v)$ simple regionsbetween v and some vertices from $N_1(v)$ on the boundary of \mathfrak{R} . Intuitively, we know that every region v can be a pole of (which it is as $v \in D$) has at most four $N_1(v)$ -vertices to which the $N_2(v)$ -vertices can be connected. Note that if there had been any intervening $N_3(v)$ -vertices, they would have been reduce. Figure 4.6 shows an example. By lemma 2 we know that a simple region can only have at least 6 vertices distinct from its poles. Hence, $|\bigcup_{v \ inD} N_2(v) \setminus \mathfrak{R} \leq 6 \sum_{v \in D} 4 \cdot d_{G_{\mathfrak{R}}}(v)| =$

$$24 \cdot \sum_{v \in D} d_{G_{\mathfrak{R}}}(v) \stackrel{\text{Corollary 4.4.2}}{\leq} 48 |\mathfrak{R}|$$

 $N_1(v)$: By Lemma XX, we know that $N_1(v) \subseteq V(\mathfrak{R})$ and hence

$$\left|igcup_{v\in D}N_1(v)\setminus V(\mathfrak{R})
ight|=0$$

Summing up these three upper bounds for each $v \in D$ we obtain $V \setminus V(\mathfrak{R}) \le 48|\mathfrak{R} + |D||$

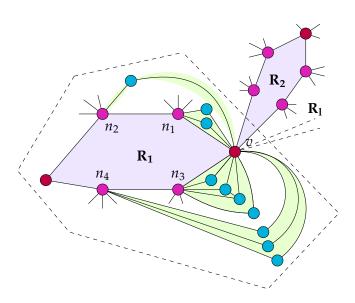


Figure 4.6: Bounding the number of $N_2(v)$ -vertices around a dominating vertex v. v is a pole of $R_1, R_2, ...R_j$ and can span simple regions with the help of $N_2(v)$ -vertices to at most $4l \ N_1(v)$ -vertices. These regions are being reduced by Rule 3.

4.4.3 Bounding the Number of Regions

Alber et al. [AFN04, p.] constructed a greedy algorithm to construct a maximal Dregion decomposition for a Dominating Set. Building up on these results, Garnero and Stau gave decomposition procedures for Planar Red-Blue Dominating Set ([GST17a]) and Total Dominating Set ([GS18]), both relying on the same technique.

Garnero and Stau ([GS14, p. 15]) already mention that the decomposition does not rely on the

At the same time, we are going to upper-bound the number of v-w-regions D can span. Will will now proof that this claim also holds for Semitotal Dominating Set.
Lemma 10 ([GS14, Proposition 1]). Let G be a reduced plane graph and let D be a SEMITOTAL DOMINATING SET with $ D \ge 3$. There is a maximal D-region decomposition of G such that $ R \le 3 \cdot D - 6$
Proof. \Box
Lemma 11 (Running Time of Reduction Procedure). TODO Runsi in polynomial Time.
Proof.
We now have all the weapons set up to proof the Theorem 1:
Theorem 1. The Semitotal Dominating Set problem parametrized by solution size admits a linear kernel on planar graphs. There exists a polynomial-time algorithms that given a planar graph (G,k) , either correctly reports that (G,k) is a NO-instance or returns an equivalent instance (G',k) such that XXX.
Proof. \Box

CHAPTER 5

OPEN QUESTIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

^{*} Chordal Bipartite Grap hs a very interesting case. * Improve the Kernel Bound

5 Open Questions and Further Research

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