

# The metric dimension problem in geometry, combinatorics and algebra

Robert Bailey  
*University of Regina*

*Prairie Network for Research in the Mathematical Sciences*  
30 April 2011

## Lost in a Saskatchewan wheatfield



## Lost in a Saskatchewan wheatfield

- ▶ You're lost in a big, wide, flat, empty space.

## Lost in a Saskatchewan wheatfield

- ▶ You're lost in a big, wide, flat, empty space.
- ▶ Worse, you're blindfolded and don't know where you are.

## Lost in a Saskatchewan wheatfield

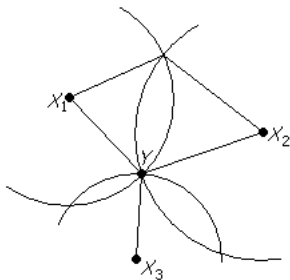
- ▶ You're lost in a big, wide, flat, empty space.
- ▶ Worse, you're blindfolded and don't know where you are.
- ▶ However, you know where your friends are, and they each can tell you how far away they are.

## Lost in a Saskatchewan wheatfield

- ▶ You're lost in a big, wide, flat, empty space.
- ▶ Worse, you're blindfolded and don't know where you are.
- ▶ However, you know where your friends are, and they each can tell you how far away they are.
- ▶ How many friends do you need to figure out where you are?

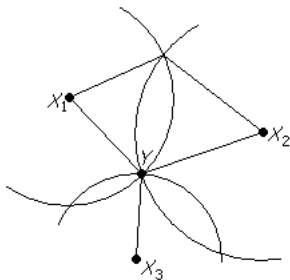
# Trilateration

- ▶ The answer, of course, is three:



# Trilateration

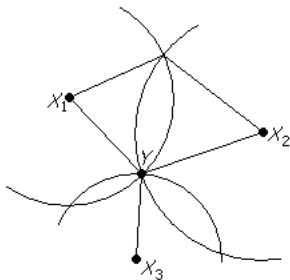
- ▶ The answer, of course, is three:



- ▶ The process of solving this is called *trilateration*: it works if and only if the friends are not collinear.

# Trilateration

- ▶ The answer, of course, is three:



- ▶ The process of solving this is called *trilateration*: it works if and only if the friends are not collinear.
- ▶ In three dimensions, we would need four friends.

## Trilateration in metric spaces

- ▶ Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.

## Trilateration in metric spaces

- ▶ Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.
- ▶ A finite subset  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\} \subseteq X$  is a *resolving set* for  $X$  if, for every point  $y \in X$ , the list of distances

$$(d(y, x_1), d(y, x_2), \dots, d(y, x_k))$$

is unique.

## Trilateration in metric spaces

- ▶ Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.
- ▶ A finite subset  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\} \subseteq X$  is a *resolving set* for  $X$  if, for every point  $y \in X$ , the list of distances

$$(d(y, x_1), d(y, x_2), \dots, d(y, x_k))$$

is unique.

- ▶ The *metric dimension* of  $X$ , denoted  $\mu(X)$ , is the smallest size of a resolving set for  $X$ .

## Trilateration in metric spaces

- ▶ Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.
- ▶ A finite subset  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\} \subseteq X$  is a *resolving set* for  $X$  if, for every point  $y \in X$ , the list of distances

$$(d(y, x_1), d(y, x_2), \dots, d(y, x_k))$$

is unique.

- ▶ The *metric dimension* of  $X$ , denoted  $\mu(X)$ , is the smallest size of a resolving set for  $X$ .
- ▶ **Example:** if  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ , the metric dimension is  $n + 1$  (the *affine dimension* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ).

## Trilateration in metric spaces

- ▶ Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space.
- ▶ A finite subset  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\} \subseteq X$  is a *resolving set* for  $X$  if, for every point  $y \in X$ , the list of distances

$$(d(y, x_1), d(y, x_2), \dots, d(y, x_k))$$

is unique.

- ▶ The *metric dimension* of  $X$ , denoted  $\mu(X)$ , is the smallest size of a resolving set for  $X$ .
- ▶ **Example:** if  $X = \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $d(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ , the metric dimension is  $n + 1$  (the *affine dimension* of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ).
- ▶ So metric dimension is a generalization of affine dimension to arbitrary metric spaces (provided a resolving set exists).

## Discrete metric spaces

- ▶ A metric space is *discrete* if the metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  takes only integer values.

## Discrete metric spaces

- ▶ A metric space is *discrete* if the metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  takes only integer values.
- ▶ A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is the best example of a discrete metric space, where  $d(u, v)$  is the least number of edges in a path from  $u$  to  $v$ .

## Discrete metric spaces

- ▶ A metric space is *discrete* if the metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  takes only integer values.
- ▶ A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is the best example of a discrete metric space, where  $d(u, v)$  is the least number of edges in a path from  $u$  to  $v$ .
- ▶ Note that not every discrete metric space can be represented as a graph.

## Discrete metric spaces

- ▶ A metric space is *discrete* if the metric  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\geq 0}$  takes only integer values.
- ▶ A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is the best example of a discrete metric space, where  $d(u, v)$  is the least number of edges in a path from  $u$  to  $v$ .
- ▶ Note that not every discrete metric space can be represented as a graph.
- ▶ Another example is an *error-correcting code*, where  $d$  is the *Hamming distance*.

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.
- ▶ It was introduced in the 1970s by Harary and Melter, and (independently) by Slater.

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.
- ▶ It was introduced in the 1970s by Harary and Melter, and (independently) by Slater.
- ▶ Metric dimension of graphs has a variety applications, including:

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.
- ▶ It was introduced in the 1970s by Harary and Melter, and (independently) by Slater.
- ▶ Metric dimension of graphs has a variety applications, including:
  - ▶ pharmaceutical chemistry

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.
- ▶ It was introduced in the 1970s by Harary and Melter, and (independently) by Slater.
- ▶ Metric dimension of graphs has a variety applications, including:
  - ▶ pharmaceutical chemistry
  - ▶ robot navigation

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.
- ▶ It was introduced in the 1970s by Harary and Melter, and (independently) by Slater.
- ▶ Metric dimension of graphs has a variety applications, including:
  - ▶ pharmaceutical chemistry
  - ▶ robot navigation
  - ▶ optimization

# Metric dimension of graphs

- ▶ The metric dimension problem has been studied most widely for graphs.
- ▶ It was introduced in the 1970s by Harary and Melter, and (independently) by Slater.
- ▶ Metric dimension of graphs has a variety applications, including:
  - ▶ pharmaceutical chemistry
  - ▶ robot navigation
  - ▶ optimization
  - ▶ sonar

## Examples

- ▶ Complete graphs:  $\mu(K_n) = n - 1$ .

## Examples

- ▶ Complete graphs:  $\mu(K_n) = n - 1$ .
- ▶ Complete bipartite graphs:  $\mu(K_{m,n}) = m + n - 2$ .

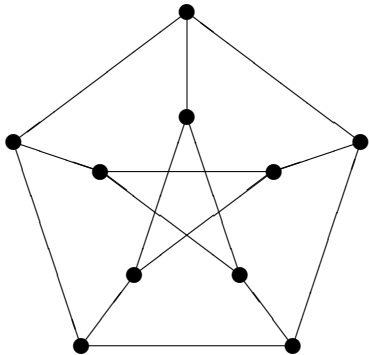
## Examples

- ▶ Complete graphs:  $\mu(K_n) = n - 1$ .
- ▶ Complete bipartite graphs:  $\mu(K_{m,n}) = m + n - 2$ .
- ▶ Trees: a precise formula due to Slater.

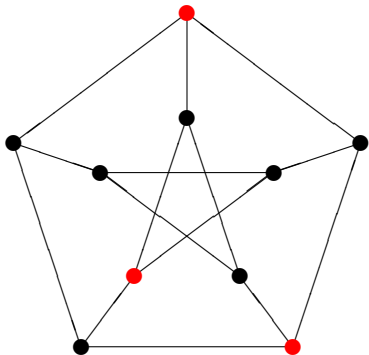
## Examples

- ▶ Complete graphs:  $\mu(K_n) = n - 1$ .
- ▶ Complete bipartite graphs:  $\mu(K_{m,n}) = m + n - 2$ .
- ▶ Trees: a precise formula due to Slater.
- ▶ Petersen graph:  $\mu(P) = 3$ .

## Example: Petersen graph



## Example: Petersen graph



## Basic properties

- ▶ If a graph  $G$  has  $n$  vertices, diameter  $d$  and metric dimension  $\mu(G) = k$ , then

$$n \leq k + d^k.$$

## Basic properties

- ▶ If a graph  $G$  has  $n$  vertices, diameter  $d$  and metric dimension  $\mu(G) = k$ , then

$$n \leq k + d^k.$$

- ▶ This gives an approximate lower bound of

$$\mu(G) \gtrsim \log_d n.$$

## Basic properties

- ▶ If a graph  $G$  has  $n$  vertices, diameter  $d$  and metric dimension  $\mu(G) = k$ , then

$$n \leq k + d^k.$$

- ▶ This gives an approximate lower bound of

$$\mu(G) \gtrsim \log_d n.$$

- ▶ Also, a graph has metric dimension  $n - 1$  iff it is complete, so for non-complete graphs,

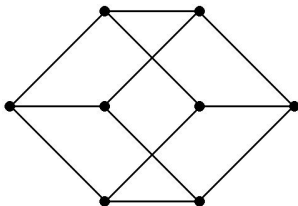
$$\mu(G) \leq n - 2.$$

# Hypercubes

- ▶ The  $m$ -dimensional hypercube  $H(m, 2)$  has binary  $m$ -tuples as vertices, and two  $m$ -tuples are adjacent if they differ in exactly one position.

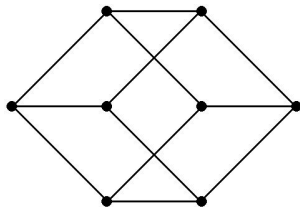
# Hypercubes

- ▶ The  $m$ -dimensional hypercube  $H(m, 2)$  has binary  $m$ -tuples as vertices, and two  $m$ -tuples are adjacent if they differ in exactly one position.
- ▶ Example:



# Hypercubes

- ▶ The  $m$ -dimensional hypercube  $H(m, 2)$  has binary  $m$ -tuples as vertices, and two  $m$ -tuples are adjacent if they differ in exactly one position.
- ▶ Example:



- ▶ Erdős/Rényi, Lindström (1960s); Sebő/Tannier (2004): for the hypercube  $H(m, 2)$ ,

$$\mu(H(m, 2)) = \frac{2m}{\log_2 m} (1 + o(1)).$$

# Hamming graphs

- ▶ If we replace the binary alphabet with an alphabet of size  $q$ , we obtain the *Hamming graph*  $H(m, q)$ .

# Hamming graphs

- ▶ If we replace the binary alphabet with an alphabet of size  $q$ , we obtain the *Hamming graph*  $H(m, q)$ .
- ▶ Chvátal (1983): where  $m > m_\varepsilon$  and  $q < m^{1-\varepsilon}$ ,

$$\mu(H(m, q)) \leq (2 + \varepsilon)m \frac{1 + 2 \log_2 q}{\log_2 m - \log_2 q}.$$

# Hamming graphs

- ▶ If we replace the binary alphabet with an alphabet of size  $q$ , we obtain the *Hamming graph*  $H(m, q)$ .
- ▶ Chvátal (1983): where  $m > m_\varepsilon$  and  $q < m^{1-\varepsilon}$ ,

$$\mu(H(m, q)) \leq (2 + \varepsilon)m \frac{1 + 2 \log_2 q}{\log_2 m - \log_2 q}.$$

- ▶ Chvátal was actually studying strategies for the game *Mastermind*.

## Johnson and Kneser graphs

- ▶ Let  $V$  denote the collection of all  $k$ -subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ .

## Johnson and Kneser graphs

- ▶ Let  $V$  denote the collection of all  $k$ -subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ .
- ▶ There are two important ways of making a graph with  $V$  as a vertex set.

# Johnson and Kneser graphs

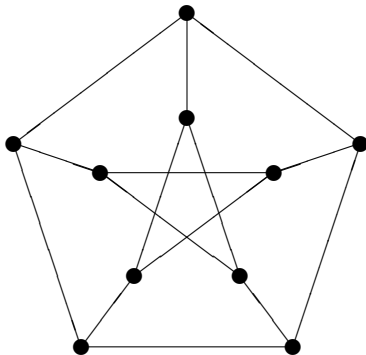
- ▶ Let  $V$  denote the collection of all  $k$ -subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ .
- ▶ There are two important ways of making a graph with  $V$  as a vertex set.
- ▶ The *Johnson graph*  $J(n, k)$ : join two  $k$ -subsets if they intersect in  $k - 1$  points.

## Johnson and Kneser graphs

- ▶ Let  $V$  denote the collection of all  $k$ -subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ .
- ▶ There are two important ways of making a graph with  $V$  as a vertex set.
- ▶ The *Johnson graph*  $J(n, k)$ : join two  $k$ -subsets if they intersect in  $k - 1$  points.
- ▶ The *Kneser graph*  $K(n, k)$ : join two  $k$ -subsets if they are disjoint.

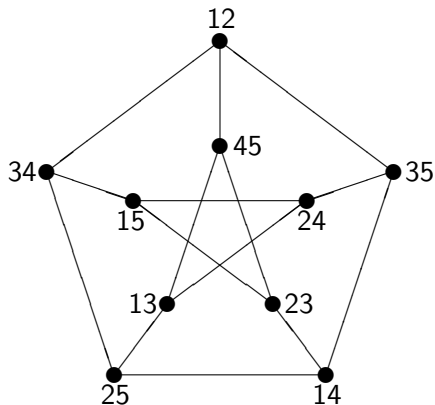
## The Petersen graph again

**Example:** the Kneser graph  $K(5, 2)$  is the Petersen graph:



## The Petersen graph again

**Example:** the Kneser graph  $K(5, 2)$  is the Petersen graph:



The Johnson graph  $J(5, 2)$  is its complement.

## Johnson and Kneser graphs, II

- ▶ **Theorem (BCGGMMP):** For the metric dimension of Johnson and Kneser graphs, we have

$$\mu(J(n, k)) \leq k \left\lceil \frac{n}{k+1} \right\rceil$$

## Johnson and Kneser graphs, II

- ▶ **Theorem (BCGGMMP):** For the metric dimension of Johnson and Kneser graphs, we have

$$\mu(J(n, k)) \leq k \left\lceil \frac{n}{k+1} \right\rceil$$

and

$$\mu(K(n, k)) \leq \left( \binom{2k-1}{k} - 1 \right) \left\lceil \frac{n}{2k-1} \right\rceil.$$

## Johnson and Kneser graphs, III

Idea of proof:

- ▶ For  $J(n, k)$ , cut up  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  into pieces of size  $k + 1$ .

## Johnson and Kneser graphs, III

Idea of proof:

- ▶ For  $J(n, k)$ , cut up  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  into pieces of size  $k + 1$ .
- ▶ Take all but one of the  $k$ -subsets of each part. Together, these form a resolving set.

## Johnson and Kneser graphs, III

Idea of proof:

- ▶ For  $J(n, k)$ , cut up  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  into pieces of size  $k + 1$ .
- ▶ Take all but one of the  $k$ -subsets of each part. Together, these form a resolving set.
- ▶ For  $K(n, k)$ , do the same, but cut into pieces of size  $2k - 1$  instead.

# Johnson graphs and incidence matrices

- ▶ For Johnson graphs, we also have a different approach.

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices

- ▶ For Johnson graphs, we also have a different approach.
- ▶ The *incidence vector* of a  $k$ -subset  $X \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  is the 0/1 vector  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ , where

$$v_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \in X \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices

- ▶ For Johnson graphs, we also have a different approach.
- ▶ The *incidence vector* of a  $k$ -subset  $X \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  is the 0/1 vector  $v = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ , where

$$v_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \in X \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ The *incidence matrix* of a family of subsets  $\mathcal{S} = \{X_1, \dots, X_m\}$  is the matrix whose rows are the incidence vectors of  $X_1, \dots, X_m$ .

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, II

- ▶ The distance between two vertices  $U, W$  of  $J(n, k)$  is  $n - |U \cap W|$ .

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, II

- ▶ The distance between two vertices  $U, W$  of  $J(n, k)$  is  $n - |U \cap W|$ .
- ▶ So a set of vertices  $\mathcal{S} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m\}$  of  $J(n, k)$  is a resolving set if, for every vertex  $Y$ , the list of intersection sizes

$$(|X_1 \cap Y|, |X_2 \cap Y|, \dots, |X_m \cap Y|)$$

is unique.

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, II

- ▶ The distance between two vertices  $U, W$  of  $J(n, k)$  is  $n - |U \cap W|$ .
- ▶ So a set of vertices  $\mathcal{S} = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m\}$  of  $J(n, k)$  is a resolving set if, for every vertex  $Y$ , the list of intersection sizes

$$(|X_1 \cap Y|, |X_2 \cap Y|, \dots, |X_m \cap Y|)$$

is unique.

- ▶ Notice that  $|U \cap W|$  can be calculated by the dot product of their incidence vectors.

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, III

- ▶ The vector of intersection sizes for  $Y$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{S}$  can be calculated by multiplying the incidence vector of  $Y$  by the incidence matrix  $M$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ .

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, III

- ▶ The vector of intersection sizes for  $Y$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{S}$  can be calculated by multiplying the incidence vector of  $Y$  by the incidence matrix  $M$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ . (Eureka moment!)

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, III

- ▶ The vector of intersection sizes for  $Y$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{S}$  can be calculated by multiplying the incidence vector of  $Y$  by the incidence matrix  $M$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ . (Eureka moment!)
- ▶ So if that matrix has rank  $n$ , the linear transformation represented by  $M$  will be one-to-one, and each “intersection vector” will be unique.
- ▶ In particular, if  $M$  is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\mathcal{S}$  is a resolving set for  $J(n, k)$ .

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, III

- ▶ The vector of intersection sizes for  $Y$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{S}$  can be calculated by multiplying the incidence vector of  $Y$  by the incidence matrix  $M$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ . (Eureka moment!)
- ▶ So if that matrix has rank  $n$ , the linear transformation represented by  $M$  will be one-to-one, and each “intersection vector” will be unique.
- ▶ In particular, if  $M$  is an invertible  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\mathcal{S}$  is a resolving set for  $J(n, k)$ .
- ▶ This gives a bound on the metric dimension of  $J(n, k)$ ,

$$\mu(J(n, k)) \leq n.$$

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, IV

- ▶ OK, so this bound isn't that different from the other one.

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, IV

- ▶ OK, so this bound isn't that different from the other one.
- ▶ But it gives a way of showing that lots of interesting set systems can be used as resolving sets.....

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, IV

- ▶ OK, so this bound isn't that different from the other one.
- ▶ But it gives a way of showing that lots of interesting set systems can be used as resolving sets.....
- ▶ A *projective plane* is a collection of *points* and *lines*, with the property that:

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, IV

- ▶ OK, so this bound isn't that different from the other one.
- ▶ But it gives a way of showing that lots of interesting set systems can be used as resolving sets.....
- ▶ A *projective plane* is a collection of *points* and *lines*, with the property that:
  - ▶ any pair of points line on a unique line;

## Johnson graphs and incidence matrices, IV

- ▶ OK, so this bound isn't that different from the other one.
- ▶ But it gives a way of showing that lots of interesting set systems can be used as resolving sets.....
- ▶ A *projective plane* is a collection of *points* and *lines*, with the property that:
  - ▶ any pair of points line on a unique line;
  - ▶ any pair of lines meet at a unique point.

# What combinatorialists do at the beach

Example:



## Projective planes as resolving sets

- ▶ In a finite projective plane, there are  $q^2 + q + 1$  points and  $q^2 + q + 1$  lines, and each line contains  $q + 1$  points (for some integer  $q$ , the *order* of the plane).

## Projective planes as resolving sets

- ▶ In a finite projective plane, there are  $q^2 + q + 1$  points and  $q^2 + q + 1$  lines, and each line contains  $q + 1$  points (for some integer  $q$ , the *order* of the plane).
- ▶ Very well-known fact: the incidence matrix of a finite projective plane is invertible.

## Projective planes as resolving sets

- ▶ In a finite projective plane, there are  $q^2 + q + 1$  points and  $q^2 + q + 1$  lines, and each line contains  $q + 1$  points (for some integer  $q$ , the *order* of the plane).
- ▶ Very well-known fact: the incidence matrix of a finite projective plane is invertible.
- ▶ So, if there exists a projective plane of order  $q$ , we can use it as a resolving set for  $J(q^2 + q + 1, q + 1)$ .

## Projective planes as resolving sets

- ▶ In a finite projective plane, there are  $q^2 + q + 1$  points and  $q^2 + q + 1$  lines, and each line contains  $q + 1$  points (for some integer  $q$ , the *order* of the plane).
- ▶ Very well-known fact: the incidence matrix of a finite projective plane is invertible.
- ▶ So, if there exists a projective plane of order  $q$ , we can use it as a resolving set for  $J(q^2 + q + 1, q + 1)$ .
- ▶ Example: the Fano plane can be used as a resolving set of size 7 for  $J(7, 3)$ .

## Where's the algebra?

- ▶ There are connections between metric dimension and group theory.

## Where's the algebra?

- ▶ There are connections between metric dimension and group theory.
- ▶ Babai (1981) used a parameter similar to metric dimension to obtain ground-breaking bounds on the orders of finite primitive permutation groups.

## Where's the algebra?

- ▶ There are connections between metric dimension and group theory.
- ▶ Babai (1981) used a parameter similar to metric dimension to obtain ground-breaking bounds on the orders of finite primitive permutation groups.
- ▶ Babai's work gives bounds on metric dimension of distance-regular graphs.

## Where's the algebra?

- ▶ There are connections between metric dimension and group theory.
- ▶ Babai (1981) used a parameter similar to metric dimension to obtain ground-breaking bounds on the orders of finite primitive permutation groups.
- ▶ Babai's work gives bounds on metric dimension of distance-regular graphs.
- ▶ See the following survey paper for details:  
R. F. Bailey and P. J. Cameron, Base size, metric dimension and other invariants of groups and graphs, *Bull. London Math. Soc.* **43** (2011), 209–242.

# THE END

Wheatfield photograph from Flickr, available under Creative Commons licence.