

## ON DISTANCES IN SIERPIŃSKI GRAPHS: ALMOST-EXTREME VERTICES AND METRIC DIMENSION

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Sierpiński graphs  $S_p^n$  form an extensively studied family of graphs of fractal nature applicable in topology, mathematics of the Tower of Hanoi, computer science, and elsewhere. An almost-extreme vertex of  $S_p^n$  is introduced as a vertex that is either adjacent to an extreme vertex of  $S_p^n$  or is incident to an edge between two subgraphs of  $S_p^n$  isomorphic to  $S_p^{n-1}$ . Explicit formulas are given for the distance in  $S_p^n$  between an arbitrary vertex and an almost-extreme vertex. The formulas are applied to compute the total distance of almost-extreme vertices and to obtain the metric dimension of Sierpiński graphs.

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Sierpiński graphs  $S_p^n$  were introduced for at least three reasons. In [18], they were motivated by topological studies of universal spaces (cf. [17]) and the fact that the base-3 Sierpiński graphs  $S_3^n$  are isomorphic to the Tower of Hanoi graphs on 3 pegs. Independently, a class of graphs called WK-recursive networks was introduced in computer science in [3], see also [5]. WK-recursive networks are very similar to Sierpiński graphs, they can be obtained from Sierpiński graphs by adding a link (an open edge) to each of its extreme vertices.

Graphs  $S_p^n$  were studied by now from numerous points of view, the reader is invited to read the recent paper [12] about colorings of these graphs and references therein; see also [6] for more coloring results. Of the many other investigations, we only mention a few explicitly. An appealing application of Sierpiński graphs is

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due to ROMIK [23] who designed, based on Sierpiński labelings, a finite automaton particularly useful for the Tower of Hanoi problem. In [19] the structure of Sierpiński graphs was the key to determine for the first time the exact genus of infinite families of fractal graphs. Recently, the hub number of Sierpiński-like graphs was determined in [15].

Metric issues received a special attention on Sierpiński graphs. This is in particular due to the fact that shortest paths in the base-3 Sierpiński graphs correspond to optimal solutions in the Tower of Hanoi puzzle. In the seminal paper [18] a formula for the distance between vertices in  $S_p^n$  was proved, we state it as Theorem 2. Then, in [11], additional metric properties of these graphs were investigated, in particular establishing a connection with Stern's diatomic sequence. PARISSÉ [20] followed with a paper in which he studied, among other matters, the diameter, the eccentricity, the radius, and the center of these graphs. WIESENBERGER [25] obtained a formula for the average distance in  $S_p^n$ . The formula is far from being trivial, it extends over several lines! Very recently, HINZ and PARISSÉ [13] succeeded in determining the average eccentricity and its standard deviation for all Sierpiński graphs.

The metric dimension of a graph turned out to be a natural concept while studying several different problems and was consequently also reinvented in numerous disguises. (An impressive list of its applications can be found in [10]) It is thus clear that this dimension presents an intrinsic graph invariant. For the first time it was independently introduced in 1974 and 1975 by HARARY and MELTER [9] and SLATER [24], respectively. We refer to the recent semi-survey paper of BAILEY and CAMERON [1] for a great source on historical developments, connections to other invariants, non-standard terminology, and a long list of references. Another survey source for the dimension is [7]. Here we just recall that the metric dimension has been studied on Cartesian products of graphs [2, 22], distance-regular graphs [8], and circulant graphs [14].

Our paper is organized as follows. In the next section definitions, concepts, and results needed in this paper are given. Then, in Section 3, we obtain distances between almost-extreme vertices and other vertices. The advantage of the new formulas compared to Theorem 2 is that we do not need to compute the minima of related expressions. As a by-product the metric dimension of the Sierpiński graphs is determined. We point out here that in general it is very difficult to determine the exact metric dimension, see [10] and references therein for complexity issues on metric dimension. In the final section we use the derived formulas to compute the total distance of almost-extreme vertices.

## 2. PRELIMINARIES

The graphs considered are simple and connected. The *distance*  $d_G(u, v)$  between vertices  $u$  and  $v$  in a graph  $G$  is the standard shortest path distance. For a vertex  $u$  of  $G$  the *total distance*  $d_G(u)$  of  $u$  is  $d_G(u) = \sum_{v \in V(G)} d_G(u, v)$ . Whenever  $G$

is clear from the context we write  $d(u, v)$  and  $d(u)$  instead of  $d_G(u, v)$  and  $d_G(u)$ , respectively.

The set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  is shortly denoted by  $[n]$  and the set  $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$  by  $[n]_0$ .

Let  $G$  be a graph, then  $R \subseteq V(G)$  is a *resolving set* if each vertex of  $G$  is uniquely determined by the distances to the vertices of  $R$ . More precisely, let  $R = \{u_1, \dots, u_k\}$ ,  $k \geq 1$ , then  $R$  is resolving if  $(d(x, u_1), \dots, d(x, u_k)) \neq (d(y, u_1), \dots, d(y, u_k))$  holds for any two distinct vertices  $x, y \in V(G)$ . In other words, any two distinct vertices  $x, y \in V(G)$  are resolved by some vertex of  $R$ , that is, there exists a vertex  $u_i \in R$  such that  $d(x, u_i) \neq d(y, u_i)$ . The *metric dimension* of  $G$ , denoted  $\mu(G)$ , is the size of a minimum resolving set.

Let  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $p \geq 2$ , throughout. For  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$  the *Sierpiński graph*  $S_p^n$  is defined on the vertex set  $[p]^n$ . Two vertices, written as  $s = s_n \dots s_1$  and  $t = t_n \dots t_1$ , are adjacent if and only if they are of the form  $s = \underline{s}s_\delta t_\delta^{\delta-1}$ ,  $t = \underline{t}t_\delta s_\delta^{\delta-1}$  with  $\delta \in [n]$ ,  $\underline{s} \in [p]^{n-\delta}$ , and  $s_\delta \neq t_\delta$ .

Note that  $S_p^0 \cong K_1$ ,  $S_p^1 \cong K_p$  for any  $p$  and that  $S_2^n \cong P_{2^n}$  for every  $n$ . For  $S_5^3$  see Figure 1. For  $i \in [p]$ , let  $iS_p^n$  be the subgraph of  $S_p^{n+1}$  induced by the vertices of the form  $s = is_n \dots s_1$ ; this subgraph is isomorphic to  $S_p^n$ .

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $S_p^n$  contains  $p$  *extreme vertices* of the form  $i \dots i = i^n$ ; they have degree  $p-1$ , while all the other vertices are of degree  $p$ . We also introduce *almost-extreme vertices* of  $S_p^{n+1}$  as those vertices which are either of the form  $i^n j$  or  $i j^n$ , where  $i \neq j$ . In Figure 1 the extreme vertices of  $S_5^3$  are emphasized with filled circles and the almost-extreme vertices are emphasized as triangles (vertices of the form  $i j^2$ ) and as diamonds (vertices of the form  $i^2 j$ ).

Obviously, for  $n \geq 2$  the graph  $S_p^{n+1}$  contains  $p(p-1)$  vertices of the form  $i^n j$  and also  $p(p-1)$  vertices of the form  $i j^n$ . The almost-extreme vertex  $i^n j$  is adjacent to the extreme vertex  $i^{n+1}$  and the almost-extreme vertex  $i j^n$  is incident with the edge between  $iS_p^n$  and  $jS_p^n$ . Thus, there are  $2p(p-1)$  almost-extreme vertices. For  $n = 1$  the vertices  $i^n j$  and  $i j^n$  coincide, hence in  $S_p^2$  there are exactly  $p(p-1)$  almost-extreme vertices and any vertex is either extreme or almost-extreme.

The distance between a vertex of  $S_p^n$  and an extreme vertex can be computed as follows, where we use Iverson's convention that  $(X) = 1$ , if statement  $X$  is true, and  $(X) = 0$ , if  $X$  is false.

**Lemma 1.** [18] *For any  $j \in [p]$  and any vertex  $s = s_n \dots s_1$  of  $S_p^n$ ,*

$$d(s, j^n) = \sum_{d=1}^n (s_d \neq j) \cdot 2^{d-1}.$$

*Moreover, there is exactly one shortest path between  $s$  and  $j^n$ .*

An immediate consequence of Lemma 1 is that for any vertex  $s$  of  $S_p^n$ ,

$$(1) \quad \sum_{i=1}^p d(s, i^n) = (p-1)(2^n - 1).$$

(Cf. also [20, Proposition 2.5].) It follows that  $\{i^n \mid i \in [p-1]\}$  is a resolving set for  $S_p^n$  (cf. [21, Lemme 3.5]): let  $s$  and  $t$  be vertices with  $d(s, i^n) = d(t, i^n)$  for all  $i \in [p-1]$ , such that by (1) also  $d(s, p^n) = d(t, p^n)$  holds; but then, by the formula in Lemma 1,  $s = t$ .

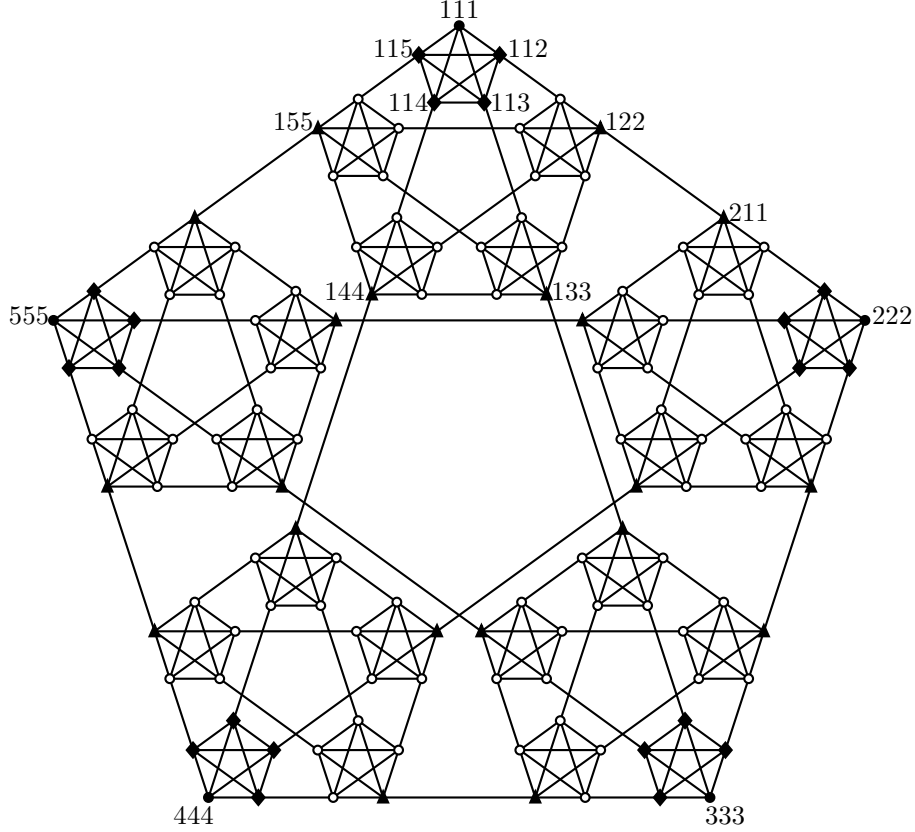


Figure 1.  $S_3^3$  with its extreme and almost-extreme vertices emphasized

Note further that  $d(i^n, j^n) = 2^n - 1$  for any  $i \neq j$ . More generally, the distance between arbitrary vertices of  $S_p^n$  can be determined in the following way:

**Theorem 2.** [18] For  $i, j \in [p]$ ,  $i \neq j$ ,  $\delta \in [n]$ ,  $\bar{s}, \bar{t} \in [p]^{\delta-1}$ , and  $\underline{s} \in [p]^{n-\delta}$ , let

$$d_0(\underline{s}i\bar{s}, \underline{s}j\bar{t}) = d(\bar{s}, j^{\delta-1}) + 1 + d(\bar{t}, i^{\delta-1}),$$

$$\forall \ell \in [p] : d_\ell(\underline{s}i\bar{s}, \underline{s}j\bar{t}) = d(\bar{s}, \ell^{\delta-1}) + 1 + 2^{\delta-1} + d(\bar{t}, \ell^{\delta-1}).$$

Then,

$$d(\underline{s}i\bar{s}, \underline{s}j\bar{t}) = \min \{d_\ell(\underline{s}i\bar{s}, \underline{s}j\bar{t}) \mid \ell \in [p+1]_0\}.$$

REMARK 3. The above minimum can be equivalently written as

$$\min \{d_\ell(\underline{s}i\bar{s}, \underline{s}j\bar{t}) \mid \ell \in [p+1]_0 \setminus \{i, j\}\}.$$

The respective paths realizing the values  $d_\ell(\underline{s}i\bar{s}, \underline{s}j\bar{t})$  are unique. The minimum can be obtained by at most one  $\ell \in [p]$ . Therefore, there are at most two shortest paths between any two vertices.

It is clear from the theorem that the distance between two vertices does not depend on a common prefix; in particular, for  $i \in [p]$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , and  $s, t \in [p]^n$ ,

$$(2) \quad d(is, it) = d(s, t).$$

### 3. DISTANCES TO ALMOST-EXTREME VERTICES

In this section we apply Theorem 2 to the case of almost-extreme vertices and begin with the almost-extreme vertices that are adjacent to extreme vertices.

**Proposition 4.** *Let  $i, j, k \in [p]$ ,  $i \neq j$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , and  $s \in [p]^n$ . Then*

$$d_{S_p^{n+1}}(is, j^nk) = d(s, j^n) + 2^n - (i = k).$$

**Proof.** We may assume that  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . By the definition of the almost-extreme vertices,  $j \neq k$ . Then, for  $\ell \in [p] \setminus \{j\}$  and using Lemma 1,

$$\begin{aligned} d_0(is, j^nk) &= d(s, j^n) + 1 + d(j^{n-1}k, i^n) = d(s, j^n) + 2^n - (i = k) \\ &\leq 2^{n+1} - 1 \leq 1 + 2^n + d(j^{n-1}k, \ell^n) \leq d_\ell(is, j^nk). \end{aligned}$$

(Here equality holds if and only if  $i \neq k = \ell$ ,  $d(s, j^n) = 2^n - 1$ , and  $d(s, \ell^n) = 0$ , i.e. for  $s = k^n$  and  $d_k$ . Only in this case there are two shortest paths between  $is$  and  $j^nk$ .)

**REMARK 5.** It follows immediately from Proposition 4 that  $d(is, j^nk) = d(is, j^{n+1})$  if  $|\{i, j, k\}| = 3$ .

This observation now allows us to approach the question of metric dimension.

**Corollary 6.** *For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ ,*

$$\mu(S_p^{n+1}) = p - 1.$$

*Moreover, if  $R$  is a minimum resolving set, then  $|R \cap jS_p^n| \leq 1$  holds for any  $j \in [p]$ .*

**Proof.** Let  $R \subset V(S_p^{n+1})$ . Assume that  $R \cap jS_p^n = \emptyset = R \cap kS_p^n$  for some  $j \neq k$ . It then follows from Remark 5 that for each  $r \in R$  we have  $d(r, j^nk) = d(r, j^{n+1})$ , such that  $R$  cannot be a resolving set for  $S_p^{n+1}$ . Hence each resolving set must contain at least  $p - 1$  elements. Since we have seen earlier that (any)  $p - 1$  extreme vertices form a resolving set, we deduce that  $\mu(S_p^{n+1}) = p - 1$  and, with recourse to the pigeonhole principle, that no  $jS_p^n$  can contain more than one element of a minimal resolving set.  $\square$

The first assertion of Corollary 6 has been found independently and at the same time by ALINE PARREAU [21, Théorème 3.6].

We now turn to the other class of almost-extreme vertices of  $S_p^{n+1}$ . To facilitate the formulation of a formula for  $d(is, jk^n)$ , we call  $s \in [p]^n$  *special* (with respect to  $i, j, k \in [p]$ ,  $|\{i, j, k\}| = 3$ , i.e. if  $p \geq 3$ ), if there is a  $\delta \in [n]$  such that  $s = \underline{s}k\bar{s}$  with  $\underline{s} \in ([p] \setminus \{j, k\})^{n-\delta}$  and  $\bar{s} \in [p]^{\delta-1}$ . Then the following holds.

**Proposition 7.** *Let  $i, j, k \in [p]$ ,  $i \neq j$ ,  $j \neq k$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and  $s \in [p]^n$ . Then*

$$d_{S_p^{n+1}}(is, jk^n) = \begin{cases} d(s, k^n) + 2^n + 1, & \text{if } s \text{ is special,} \\ d(s, j^n) + 2^n - (i = k)(2^n - 1), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

**Proof.** We have

$$d_0(is, jk^n) = d(s, j^n) + 1 + d(i^n, k^n) = d(s, j^n) + 2^n - (i = k)(2^n - 1)$$

and for  $\ell \in [p] \setminus \{i, j\}$ ,

$$d_\ell(is, jk^n) = d(s, \ell^n) + 1 + 2^n + d(\ell^n, k^n).$$

This is strictly larger than  $d_0(is, jk^n)$ , if  $\ell \neq k$ . So we may assume that  $k \neq i$  and have to compare  $d_0(is, jk^n)$  with

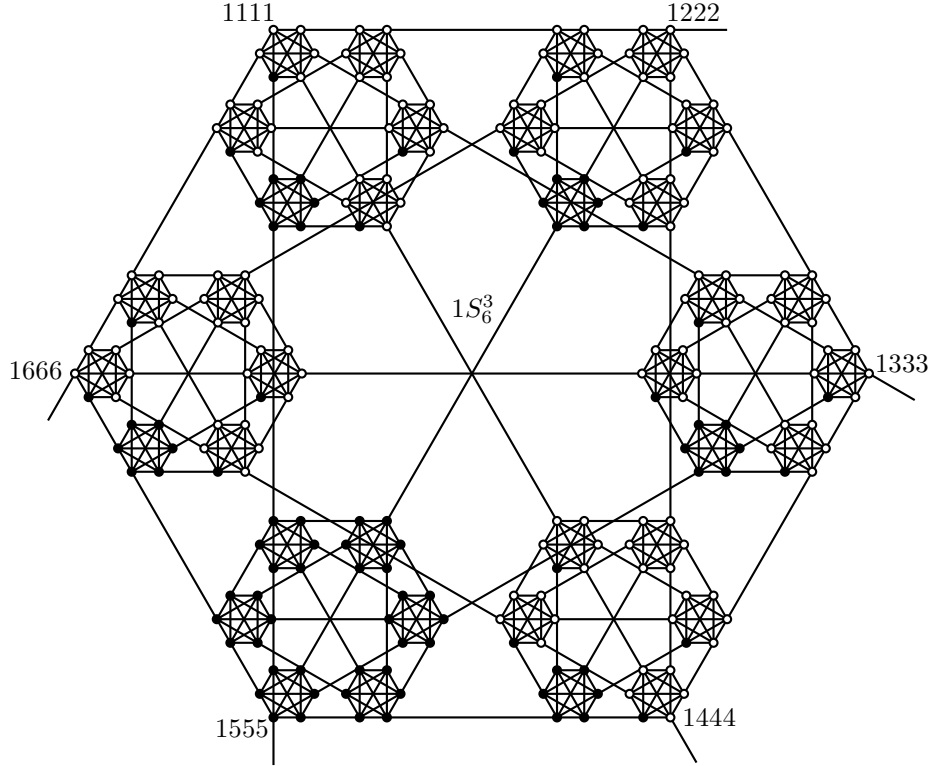
$$d_k(is, jk^n) = d(s, k^n) + 1 + 2^n$$

i.e. we look at the sign of

$$\begin{aligned} \rho(s) &:= d_0(is, jk^n) - d_k(is, jk^n) \\ &= d(s, j^n) - d(s, k^n) - 1 \\ &= \sum_{d=1}^n ((s_d = k) - (s_d = j)) \cdot 2^{d-1} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $\sum_{d=1}^n \tau_d \cdot 2^{d-1} \geq 1$ , if and only if  $\tau = \tau_n \dots \tau_1 \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^n$  has the special form  $0^{n-\delta} 1 \bar{\tau}$  with  $\bar{\tau} \in \{-1, 0, 1\}^{\delta-1}$  for some  $\delta \in [n]$  (with equality if and only if  $\bar{\tau} = (-1)^{\delta-1}$ ). This is equivalent to  $s$  being special. (Note that there are two shortest paths if and only if  $s = \underline{s}k\bar{s}$ .)  $\square$

Proposition 7 is illustrated in Figure 2 on  $S_6^4$ . The subgraph  $1S_6^3$  is drawn explicitly and special vertices with respect to  $i = 1$ ,  $j = 2$ ,  $k = 5$  are drawn with filled circles.

Figure 2. Illustration of Proposition 7 on  $S_6^4$ 

#### 4. TOTAL DISTANCE OF ALMOST-EXTREME VERTICES

The total distance of a vertex in particular plays an important role in mathematical chemistry, cf. [16], because it is a building block for the extensively investigated Wiener index of a graph. In this section we determine the total distance of almost-extreme vertices of Sierpiński graphs. To make the paper self-contained we first reprove the following result that can be found in [25] as well as in the proof of [20, Corollary 2.6].

**Lemma 8.** For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and each  $i \in [p]$ ,

$$d_{S_p^n}(i^n) = p^{n-1}(p-1)(2^n - 1).$$

**Proof.** Since for every  $d \in [p]$  there are  $p^{n-1}(p-1)$  vertices  $s = s_n \dots s_1$  with  $s_d \neq i$ ,  $i \in [p]$ , it follows by Lemma 1

$$\sum_{s \in [p]^n} d(s, i^n) = \sum_{s \in [p]^n} \sum_{d=1}^n (s_d \neq i) \cdot 2^{d-1} = \sum_{d=1}^n \left( \sum_{s \in [p]^n} (s_d \neq i) \right) \cdot 2^{d-1}$$

$$= p^{n-1}(p-1) \sum_{d=1}^n 2^{d-1} = p^{n-1}(p-1)(2^n - 1).$$

**Theorem 9.** *Let  $j, k \in [p]$ ,  $j \neq k$ , and  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then*

$$d_{S_p^{n+1}}(j^n k) = \frac{p-1}{p}(2p)^{n+1} - \left(1 + \frac{1}{p(p-1)}\right)p^{n+1} + \frac{p}{p-1}.$$

**Proof.** Set  $x_0 = 1$  and  $x_{n+1} = d_{S_p^{n+1}}(j^n k)$ ,  $n \geq 0$ . Then, using (2), Proposition 4, and Lemma 8,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n+1} &= \sum_{i \in [p]} \sum_{s \in [p]^n} d(is, j^n k) \\ &= \sum_{s \in [p]^n} d(js, j^n k) + \sum_{s \in [p]^n} d(ks, j^n k) + \sum_{i \in [p] \setminus \{j, k\}} \sum_{s \in [p]^n} d(is, j^n k) \\ &= x_n + \frac{2p-1}{p}p^n(2^n - 1) + (p-2) \left( \frac{2p-1}{p}(2p)^n - \frac{p-1}{p}p^n \right) \\ &= x_n + \frac{(2p-1)(p-1)}{p}(2p)^n - \left(1 + \frac{(p-1)^2}{p}\right)p^n. \end{aligned}$$

A straightforward calculation leads to the desired result.

REMARK 10. The expression of Theorem 9 can be further transformed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} d_{S_p^{n+1}}(j^n k) &= \frac{p-1}{p}(2p)^{n+1} - \left(1 + \frac{1}{p(p-1)}\right)p^{n+1} + \frac{p}{p-1} \\ &= p^n(p-1)2^{n+1} - p^n(p-1) + p^n(p-1) - p^{n+1} - \frac{p^n}{p-1} + \frac{p}{p-1} \\ &= p^n(p-1)(2^{n+1} - 1) - p \cdot \frac{p^n - 1}{p-1} \\ &= d_{S_p^{n+1}}(j^{n+1}) - \sum_{\ell=1}^n p^\ell. \end{aligned}$$

This alternative way to calculate  $d_{S_p^{n+1}}(j^n k)$  can be interpreted as  $d_{S_p^{n+1}}(j^{n+1})$  minus the additional step to all the vertices reachable directly from  $j^n k$  and there are  $p + p^2 + p^3 + \dots + p^n$  such vertices.

Based on (2), Lemma 8, and Proposition 7, the corresponding result for the other almost-extreme vertices reads as follows.

**Theorem 11.** *Let  $j, k \in [p]$ ,  $j \neq k$ , and  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then*

$$d_{S_p^{n+1}}(jk^n) = \frac{p^2-2}{p(p+2)}(2p)^{n+1} - \frac{p-2}{2p}p^{n+1} - \frac{p}{2(p+2)}(p-2)^{n+1}.$$



**Proof.** Let us first calculate

$$\begin{aligned} d_0(jk^n) &:= \sum_{is \in [p]^{n+1}} d_0(is, jk^n) = d(k^n) + d(j^n) + p^n + (p-2)(d(j^n) + (2p)^n) \\ &= (2p-3)(2p)^n - (p-2)p^n. \end{aligned}$$

However, if  $p \geq 3$ , this value over-estimates  $d(jk^n)$ , because we did not take into account the smaller distance between  $is$  and  $jk^n$  if  $s$  is special with respect to  $i, j, k$ . We therefore have to calculate the sum  $P := \sum \rho(s)$  over all such special  $s$  and, for symmetry reasons, a fixed  $i \in [p] \setminus \{j, k\}$  with  $\rho$  defined as in the proof of Proposition 7. We get

$$P = \sum_{\delta=1}^n \left( (p-2)^{n-\delta} p^{\delta-1} (2^{\delta-1} - 1) + \sum_{\bar{s} \in [p]^{\delta-1}} \sum_{d=1}^{\delta-1} ((\bar{s}_d = k) - (\bar{s}_d = j)) \cdot 2^{d-1} \right).$$

The sum inside the large brackets is zero, because  $\bar{s}_d$  is equal to  $k$  as often as it is equal to  $j$ . Therefore,

$$P = \sum_{\delta=1}^n (p-2)^{n-\delta} (2p)^{\delta-1} - \sum_{\delta=1}^n (p-2)^{n-\delta} p^{\delta-1} = \frac{1}{p+2} (2p)^n - \frac{1}{2} p^n + \frac{p}{2(p+2)} (p-2)^n.$$

The statement of the theorem now follows from  $d(jk^n) = d_0(jk^n) - (p-2)P$ .  $\square$

Note that for  $n = 2$ , both kinds of almost-extreme vertices coincide and their total distances must be equal. Indeed, for  $n = 2$ , Theorems 9 and 11 both give the value  $d_{S_p^2}(jk) = p(3p-4)$ . We also add that the expression of Theorem 11 can be rewritten as follows:

$$d_{S_p^{n+1}}(jk^n) = \frac{1}{2} p^n (p-2) (2^{n+1} - 1) + \frac{p}{2} \sum_{\ell=0}^n (2p)^{n-\ell} (p-2)^\ell.$$

In this case, however, we have no interpretation for the formula such as in Remark 10.

For the classical case  $p = 3$ , where  $S_3^n$  is isomorphic to the Hanoi graph  $H_3^n$  with extreme vertices mapped onto perfect ones and almost-extreme vertices being transformed into vertices of the same form, we finally obtain from Lemma 8 and Theorems 9 and 11:

**Corollary 12.** *Let  $i, j, k \in [p]$ ,  $j \neq k$ , and  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned} d_{S_3^n}(i^n) &= \frac{2}{3} 3^n (2^n - 1) = d_{H_3^n}(i^n). \\ d_{S_3^{n+1}}(j^n k) &= \frac{2}{3} \cdot 6^{n+1} - \frac{7}{6} \cdot 3^{n+1} + \frac{3}{2} = d_{H_3^{n+1}}(j^n k), \\ d_{S_3^{n+1}}(jk^n) &= \frac{7}{15} \cdot 6^{n+1} - \frac{1}{6} \cdot 3^{n+1} - \frac{3}{10} = d_{H_3^{n+1}}(jk^n). \end{aligned}$$

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