

Graph coloring with cardinality constraints on the neighborhoods

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ABSTRACT

Extensions and variations of the basic problem of graph coloring are introduced. The problem consists essentially in finding in a graph G a k -coloring, i.e., a partition V^1, \dots, V^k of the vertex set of G such that, for some specified neighborhood $\tilde{N}(v)$ of each vertex v , the number of vertices in $\tilde{N}(v) \cap V^i$ is (at most) a given integer h_v^i . The complexity of some variations is discussed according to $\tilde{N}(v)$, which may be the usual neighbors, or the vertices at distance at most 2, or the closed neighborhood of v (v and its neighbors). Polynomially solvable cases are exhibited (in particular when G is a special tree).

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1. Introduction

Various extensions of the basic graph coloring model (see [1]) have been studied by many authors from a theoretical point of view and also with a motivation stemming from applications in communication systems, operations scheduling, course timetabling, tomography, etc.

Here we shall consider a few variations of the vertex coloring problem which consist essentially in restricting the number of occurrences of the different colors in a given collection \mathcal{P} of subsets P_i of vertices.

In [2], a formulation extending the basic image reconstruction problem in discrete tomography was discussed where the subsets P_i were chains in the underlying graph G . It was motivated by a simple maintenance scheduling problem in a city metro network.

Here we shall essentially consider colorings, i.e., partitions of the vertex set of a graph, such that, in some generalized neighborhood of each vertex x , the number of occurrences of each color i is a given integer h_x^i .

More precisely, we are given an undirected connected graph $G = (V, E)$ with n vertices and m edges. Given two vertices x and y , we denote by $d(x, y)$ the distance between x and y (the length of a shortest x - y path). We denote by $N_d(x)$ the d -neighborhood of $x \in V$ that is the set of vertices y such that $d(x, y) = d$. In the case where $d = 1$ we simply write $N(x)$ for the 1-neighborhood (or neighborhood, as usual) of x , i.e., the set of vertices y such that $[x, y] \in E$. We also define $N_{\leq d}(x) = \bigcup_{0 \leq l \leq d} N_l(x)$ as the set of vertices at distance at most d from x (with $N_0(x) = \{x\}$).

We are also given a set of colors $1, 2, \dots, k$ as well as a set $H = \{h(x) = (h_x^1, \dots, h_x^k) \in \mathbb{N}^k \mid x \in V\}$.

In the first problem, we have to find a k -partition V^1, V^2, \dots, V^k of V such that

$$\left| N(x) \cap V^i \right| = h_x^i \quad \text{for all } x \in V \text{ and all } 1 \leq i \leq k. \quad (1)$$

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We call this problem $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$. In addition, in case we want to obtain a proper coloring (two adjacent vertices must be in two distinct sets V^i and V^j) we let $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, k)$ denote the corresponding problem.

We will also study the *bounded* version of these problems: we have to find a k -partition V^1, V^2, \dots, V^k of V such that

$$|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq h_x^i \quad \text{for all } x \in V \text{ and all } 1 \leq i \leq k. \tag{2}$$

We will call these problems $\mathcal{BP}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, k)$, respectively.

Our second problem is to find a k -partition V^1, V^2, \dots, V^k of V such that

$$|N_{\leq 1}(x) \cap V^i| = h_x^i \quad \text{for all } x \in V \text{ and all } 1 \leq i \leq k. \tag{3}$$

We call this problem and its proper coloring version $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k)$, respectively.

We will also be interested in $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{P}_2^*(G, H, k)$, the problems of finding a k -partition, respectively a proper coloring, V^1, V^2, \dots, V^k of V such that

$$|N_2(x) \cap V^i| = h_x^i \quad \text{for all } x \in V \text{ and all } 1 \leq i \leq k. \tag{4}$$

Notice that our formulation includes the so-called cardinality constrained coloring problem which consists in determining if a graph $G = (V, E)$ has a proper k -coloring (V^1, \dots, V^k) with given cardinality s_i for each color class V^i (see [3–7] for results on this problem): it suffices to take any d larger than or equal to the diameter of G in the set $N_{\leq d}(x)$ defined above (since then $\bigcup_{l=0}^d N_l(x) = V$ for each x) with $h_x^i = s_i$ for all x and all $1 \leq i \leq k$.

These problems are close to the well known $L(h, k)$ -Labelling problems (see [8] for a survey). The problem consists in an assignment of nonnegative integers to the vertices of a graph such that adjacent vertices get colors which differ by at least h and vertices joined by a chain of length 2 receive colors differing by at least k (even if there is an edge joining these vertices). Applications to channel assignment or to multihop radio networks are mentioned in [8]. Under the assumption $h_x^i = 1$, for all i and for all x , the colorings of $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, k)$ and those of $L(1, 1)$ -Labelling satisfy the same requirements: adjacent vertices have different colors and vertices linked by a chain of length 2 (i.e., common neighbors of a single vertex) have different colors. It is also close to the so-called star coloring problem studied in [9], and to the frugal coloring problem studied in [10]. Related work has been carried out recently by several authors (see [11–16]) including dramatic applications of coloring (see [17]).

One should also recall that nonproper coloring models have been used under the name of defective coloring in [18] in a frequency assignment context where interferences had to be minimized. Applications to scheduling are also discussed there.

For graph theoretical terms not defined here, the reader is referred to [1]. For complexity theory, the reader is referred to [19].

Let us denote by $s(z) = \{i : h_z^i > 0\}$, $z \in V$, the set of colors required to occur in $N(z)$. Then the set of possible colors for a vertex x is given by $L(x) = \bigcap_{z \in N(x)} s(z)$. We have the following facts which will be used implicitly in the algorithms of the following sections.

Fact 1.1. *If $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$ has a solution, then $L(x) \neq \emptyset$ for all $x \in V$.*

Fact 1.2. *If, for a given $x \in V$, $L(x) = \{i\}$, then in any solution of $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$ we have $x \in V^i$.*

Notice that these facts also hold for $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, k)$.

Fact 1.3. *If $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k)$ has a solution, then for every vertex x there is a color i such that $h_x^i = 1$.*

Fact 1.4. *If $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k)$ has a solution, then for each color i and each vertex x such that $h_x^i \neq 1$ we have $x \notin V^i$.*

2. NP-completeness results

We shall study here the complexity status of problems $\mathcal{P}(G, H, 2)$, $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, 3)$, $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 3)$, $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 4)$, $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, 2)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, 3)$.

Theorem 2.1. *$\mathcal{P}(G, H, 2)$ is NP-complete even if G is 3-regular planar bipartite.*

Proof. We use a transformation from the CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT problem which is known to be NP-complete (see [20]). In this problem we are given a set X of variables and a set C of clauses of the form $(a \vee b \vee c)$ where a , b and c are distinct variables without negation such that the underlying bipartite graph $G = (X \cup C, E) = (X \cup C, \{\{x_i, \hat{c}\} | x_i \text{ occurring in clause } \hat{c} \in C\})$ is 3-regular and planar. The question is to decide whether there exists a truth assignment such that exactly one variable in each clause is true.

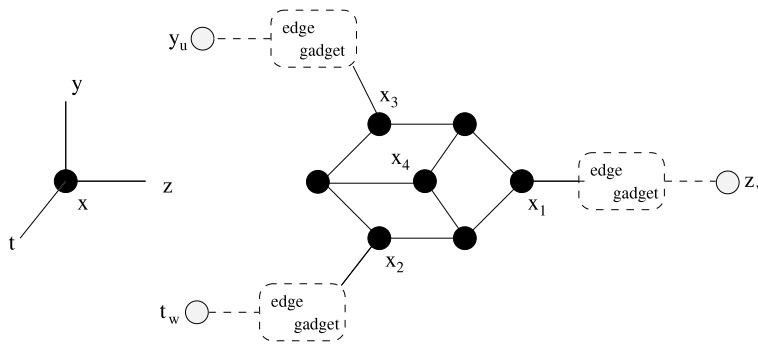


Fig. 1. The vertex gadget replacing a vertex x .

Consider an instance of *CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT* as well as its corresponding graph G . For each vertex \hat{c} , representing a clause, we set $h(\hat{c}) = (1, 2)$, and for each vertex x , representing a variable x , we set $h(x) = (3, 0)$.

Consider a positive instance of *CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT*. Then for each variable x , if x is true, we assign x to V^1 and if x is false, we assign x to V^2 . All the vertices representing clauses are assigned to V^1 . Thus we get a positive answer for the corresponding instance of $\mathcal{P}(G, H, 2)$. Conversely, if an instance of $\mathcal{P}(G, H, 2)$ is positive, then by setting x to true if x has color 1 and to false if x has color 2, the corresponding instance of *CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT* is true: all vertices corresponding to clauses \hat{c} are in V^1 since $h(x) = (3, 0)$ for all vertices x . Every x will be in V^1 or V^2 . Since $h(\hat{c}) = (1, 2)$, clause \hat{c} will have exactly one variable x occurring in V^1 , i.e., one variable which is true. \square

Theorem 2.2. $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, 3)$ is NP-complete even if G is 3-regular planar bipartite.

Proof. We use the same reduction as in the proof of [Theorem 2.1](#) except that we take $h(x) = (0, 0, 3)$ for each vertex x representing a variable and $h(\hat{c}) = (1, 2, 0)$ for each vertex \hat{c} representing a clause. Given a positive instance of *CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT*, each variable x which is true is assigned to V^1 ; it is assigned to V^2 if it is false. All clauses \hat{c} are assigned to V^3 . So we obtain a feasible solution of $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, 3)$. Conversely, if an instance of $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, 3)$ is positive, all vertices \hat{c} corresponding to clauses are in V^3 since $h(x) = (0, 0, 3)$ for each x representing a variable. Since $h(\hat{c}) = (1, 2, 0)$, exactly one variable x occurring in \hat{c} will be true (x will be in V^1) and two variables in \hat{c} will be false. This will give a positive instance of *CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT*. \square

Theorem 2.3. $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 4)$ is NP-complete even if G is bipartite with maximum degree 3 and $h_x^i = 1\forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$.

Proof. We use a reduction from the edge-3-coloring problem of a 3-regular graph. This problem is known to be NP-complete (see [\[21\]](#)).

Let G' be a 3-regular graph. For each vertex x of G' we introduce the vertex gadget including (among others) vertices x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 shown in [Fig. 1](#); each edge $[x, y]$ of G' corresponds to a unique edge $[x_u, y_v]$ in the new graph. We replace locally every edge $[x_u, y_v]$ by the edge gadget $J(x_u, y_v)$ given in [Fig. 2](#). The resulting graph $G = (V, E)$ is bipartite and has maximum degree 3. Consider now a coloring κ of V satisfying the constraints of $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 4)$ with $h_x^i = 1\forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. Then we clearly have the following two properties:

- (i) in any vertex gadget replacing a vertex x , $\kappa(x_1), \kappa(x_2), \kappa(x_3)$, and $\kappa(x_4)$ are all different;
- (ii) in any 4-cycle $\{[v_1, v_2], [v_2, v_3], [v_3, v_4], [v_4, v_1]\}$ with neighboring vertices w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4 such that $[v_i, w_i] \in E$, we must have $\kappa(w_1) = \kappa(v_3), \kappa(w_2) = \kappa(v_4), \kappa(w_3) = \kappa(v_1)$, and $\kappa(w_4) = \kappa(v_2)$.

Consider now an edge gadget $J(x_u, y_v)$. W.l.o.g. we may assume that $\kappa(x_4) = 4$ and $\kappa(x_u) = 1$ in the vertex gadget replacing vertex x . By property (ii), we immediately deduce that $\kappa(a) = \kappa(e) = 4, \kappa(d) = 1$, and $\kappa(b), \kappa(c) \in \{2, 3\}$. So we may assume w.l.o.g. that $\kappa(b) = 2$ and $\kappa(c) = 3$. Then by repeatedly using property (ii) we get the following: $\kappa(a_1) = \kappa(b') = \kappa(d_2) = 3, \kappa(a_2) = \kappa(c') = \kappa(d_1) = 2$. Thus $\kappa(a'), \kappa(d') \in \{1, 4\}, \kappa(a') \neq \kappa(d')$. If $\kappa(a') = 4$, then $\kappa(e') = 1$, but this will give us a contradiction, since $\kappa(e) = 4$. Hence $\kappa(a') = 1$ and $\kappa(y_v) = 1$. So we deduce that in any solution of $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 4)$ with $h_x^i = 1\forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$, and in any edge gadget $J(x_u, y_v)$, x_u and y_v get the same color.

Suppose that an instance of $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 4)$ has a solution true. By coloring each edge $[x, y]$ in G' with the color of the corresponding vertices x_u, y_v in G (remember that these two vertices have necessarily the same color $c \in \{1, 2, 3\}$), we get a feasible 3-coloring of the edges of G' .

Now suppose that we have a 3-coloring of the edges of G' . If an edge $[x, y]$ has color $c \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, then color the corresponding vertices x_u, y_v in G with color c . Once we have done this for all the edges in G' , we can complete the coloring, as explained above, using at most four colors and satisfying $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq h_x^i = 1\forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3, 4$. \square

Corollary 2.1. $L(1, 1)$ is NP-complete even in bipartite graphs with maximum degree 3 and four colors.

This result was derived in the context of total colorings in [\[22\]](#).

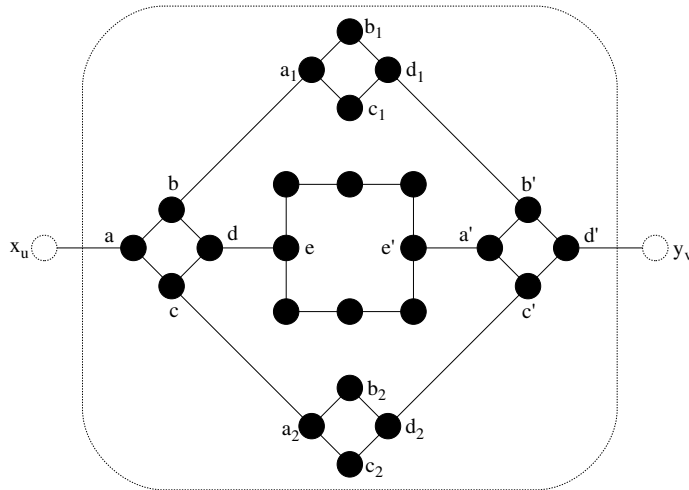


Fig. 2. The edge gadget $J(x_u, y_v)$ corresponding to an edge $[x_u, y_v]$.

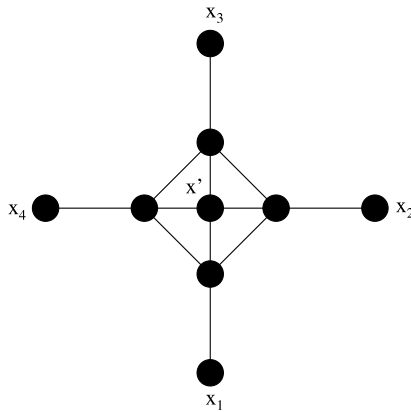


Fig. 3. The vertex gadget replacing a vertex x .

We will need the following Lemma in the proof of Theorem 2.4.

Lemma 2.1. $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 3)$ is NP-complete even if G is planar with maximum degree 4 and $h_x^i = 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$.

Proof. We use a reduction from the problem of 3-coloring a planar graph with maximum degree 4. This problem is known to be NP-complete (see [23]). Let G' be a planar graph with maximum degree 4. We replace each vertex x by the vertex gadget shown in Fig. 3 and an edge $[x, y]$ in G' will be replaced by a suitable edge $[x_u, y_v], u, v \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. We obtain a planar graph G with maximum degree 4.

Now suppose that there is a 3-coloring of G such that $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$. Necessarily x_1, x_2, x_3 and x_4 must be colored with the same color as x' . Coloring the corresponding vertex x in G' with this color will give us a 3-coloring of G' .

Conversely, suppose we have a 3-coloring of the vertices of G' . If x has color c , then color the corresponding vertices x', x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4 with this same color c in G . Then the remaining vertices can be colored using three colors in such a way that $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$. So we get a positive solution for the instance of $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 3)$. \square

Theorem 2.4. $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, 3)$ is NP-complete even if G is planar bipartite with maximum degree 4 and $h_x^i = 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$.

Proof. We use a transformation from $\mathcal{BP}^*(G', H, 3)$ which is NP-complete when G' is planar with maximum degree 4 and $h_x^i = 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$, as shown in Lemma 2.1. Let G' be a planar graph with maximum degree 4. We replace each edge $[x, y]$ by the edge gadget shown in Fig. 4. We obtain a planar bipartite graph G with maximum degree 4. Now suppose that there is a 3-coloring of G such that $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq h_x^i = 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$. Denote by c this coloring. We must have $c(a) = c(b)$, since otherwise all vertices in $N(a) \cap N(b)$ should have the same color, which would violate the requirements on $h_a^i = h_b^i = 2$; similarly $c(e) = c(f)$. So let $c(a) = c(b) = 1$ and $c(e) = c(f) = 2$. We must have $c(g) = c(x) = 3$; then

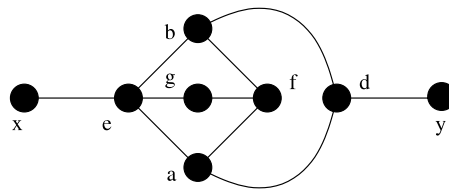


Fig. 4. The edge gadget replacing an edge $[x, y]$.

$c(d) \neq c(a) = 1$ since $d \in N(a)$ and $c(d) \neq c(f) = 2$ since $h_a^2 = 2$, so $c(d) = 3 = c(x) = c(g)$. Finally, $c(y) \neq c(d) = 3$ ($y \in N(d)$), $c(y) \neq 1$ (since $h_d^1 = 2$), so $c(y) = 2 = c(e) = c(f)$. Thus x and y get different colors. Coloring the vertices x, y in G' with the color they get in G , we obtain a 3-coloring of G' . In fact, since $c(e) = c(y)$ and $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq 2, i = 1, 2, 3$, in G , we will obtain a solution in G' satisfying the constraints $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$.

Conversely, suppose that there is a 3-coloring of G' with $|N(x) \cap V^i| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i = 1, 2, 3$. Then by coloring the corresponding vertices in G with the same colors and by applying the rules mentioned above for the remaining vertices, we get a feasible 3-coloring of G . \square

Theorem 2.5. $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, 2)$ is NP-complete even if G is planar bipartite of maximum degree 4.

Proof. We use a transformation from $\mathcal{P}(G', H, 2)$ for a 3-regular planar bipartite graph G' (see Theorem 2.1). From G' we build a graph G as follows: for each vertex x' of G' , we introduce a new vertex x ; x and x' are linked by the edge $[x, x']$; every edge $[x', y']$ of G' is also an edge of G . Thus G is planar bipartite with maximum degree 4. Now, for each new vertex x we set $h(x) = (1, 1)$, and if we have $h(x') = (a, b)$ in the instance of $\mathcal{P}(G', H, 2)$ we set $h(x') = (a + 1, b + 1)$ for its corresponding instance $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, 2)$. Let V^1, V^2 be a 2-coloring of G' ; then we obtain a 2-coloring for G as follows: the twin x of x' is introduced into V^2 if $x' \in V^1$, and vice versa. Conversely, if we have a 2-coloring of G , then by deleting the new vertices we obtain a 2-coloring of G' . \square

Theorem 2.6. $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, 3)$ is NP-complete even if G is planar bipartite of maximum degree 4.

Proof. We use a reduction from CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT. Let G be the 3-regular planar bipartite graph associated with this problem. For each vertex x in G representing a variable, we introduce a new vertex x' and an edge $[x, x']$. We obtain a planar bipartite graph with maximum degree 4. We set $h(x) = (1, 1, 3)$, $h(x') = (1, 1, 0)$, and for the vertices \hat{c} representing the clauses we set $h(\hat{c}) = (1, 2, 1)$.

Suppose that an instance of CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT has a solution true. Then for each variable x which is true, we assign x to V^1 and x' to V^2 , and for each variable x which is false, we assign x to V^2 and x' to V^1 . All the vertices \hat{c} representing a clause are assigned to V^3 . Thus we get a positive answer to the corresponding instance of $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, 3)$.

Conversely, assume that an instance of $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, 3)$ has a value true; then, since $h(x') = (1, 1, 0)$, vertices x, x' cannot be in V^3 ; one will be in V^1 , and the other in V^2 . Since every x must have exactly three neighbors in V^3 , all vertices \hat{c} representing clauses are necessarily in V^3 . Setting x to true if x has color 1 and to false if x has color 2, we get a positive answer to the instance of CUBIC PLANAR MONOTONE 1-in-3SAT. \square

3. The special case of trees

We shall now give a general dynamic programming algorithm which will show that $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k), \mathcal{P}^*(G, H, k), \mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, k), \mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k), \mathcal{BP}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{BP}^*(G, H, k)$ can be solved in polynomial time when G is a tree. A version adapted to $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$ will be described and we will show later how it can be modified to handle the other problems.

We consider a tree $T = (V, E)$ on n vertices. We root T at an arbitrary leaf r , i.e., a vertex of degree 1. For any vertex x of T we denote by $T(x)$ the subtree of T rooted at vertex x . By extension $T(x)$ will also be the set of vertices in $T(x)$. Let $f(x)$ denote the father of $x, x \neq r$, and let $S(x)$ denote the set of sons of x in T . Also, let $T'(x), x \neq r$, be the subtree of T with vertex set $T(x) \cup \{f(x)\}$. Now we define for each vertex $x \neq r$ a set $F(x) = \{(b, c) : \exists \text{ a coloring } \kappa \text{ of } T'(x) \text{ such that } \kappa(x) = b, \kappa(f(x)) = c\}$. If $F(x) = \emptyset$ for some vertex x , then clearly there is no solution to $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$.

If x is a leaf in the rooted tree, then $F(x) = \{(b, c) : b \in s(f(x)), h_x^c = 1\}$; note that the set $F(x)$ can be determined in constant time. In order to determine $F(x)$ for any vertex x which is neither a leaf nor the root r , we shall use an auxiliary graph. Given such a vertex x , we define for each $b \in L(x)$, and each $c \in L(f(x))$ a bipartite graph $B(x, b, c)$ as follows: $B(x, b, c) = (V_1, V_2, E)$ with $V_1 = S(x), V_2 = W_1 \cup W_2 \cup \dots \cup W_k$, where $W_i = \{i_j : j = 1, 2, \dots, h_x^i\}$ for $i \neq c$, and $W_c = \{c_l : l = 1, \dots, h_x^c - 1\}$. We introduce an edge $[z, w], z \in V_1, w \in V_2$, if and only if $(a, b) \in F(z)$ and $w \in W_a$. Then clearly a coloring κ of $T'(x)$ with $\kappa(x) = b$ and $\kappa(f(x)) = c$ corresponds to a perfect matching in $B(x, b, c)$.

Thus $F(x), x \neq r$, can be characterized recursively as follows:

- (i) if x is a leaf, then $F(x) = \{(b, c) : b \in s(f(x)), h_x^c = 1\}$;
- (ii) otherwise $F(x) = \{(b, c) : \exists \text{ perfect matching in } B(x, b, c)\}$.

Then we get the following algorithm:

- Algorithm.** 1. Number the vertices in reverse order of Breadth First Search (the leaves come first, the root is at the end).
 Let x_1, \dots, x_n be the vertices.
 2. For $i = 1$ to $n - 1$ compute $F(x_i)$. If $F(x_i) = \emptyset$ for some vertex x_i , there is no solution to $\mathcal{P}(T, H, k)$.
 3. If there exists c such that for each $x \in S(r)$ $(c', c) \in F(x)$, then there exists a coloring κ such that $\kappa(r) = c$; else there is no solution to $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$.
 4. Construct the feasible coloring of $\mathcal{P}(T, H, k)$ starting from the root r and recalling the pairs $(c, c') \in F(x_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$.

Theorem 3.1. *The above algorithm solves problem $\mathcal{P}(T, H, k)$ in $O(k^2 n^{2.5})$ time.*

Proof. When $(c, c') \in F(x)$ it means that there is a feasible solution for the problem associated with the subtree $T(x)$ where x has color c and its father $y = f(x)$ has color c' . Since, for each x , all pairs (c, c') are examined we will obtain a solution whenever one exists. If there exists c such that for each $x \in S(r)$ $(c', c) \in F(x)$, assign color c to r ; then for each arc (y, x) where y is colored with color c (x is not yet colored) and $(c', c) \in F(x)$, assign color c' to x ; x is then colored.

Let us now analyse the complexity of this dynamic programming approach. For each vertex x in T we have $O(k^2)$ pairs of colors (c, c') for which we have to check whether they belong to $F(x)$. A perfect matching can be determined in $O(n^{2.5})$ in a bipartite graph with n vertices (see [24]). In our case the auxiliary bipartite graph $B(x, b, c)$ which we construct for a vertex x of T contains $2(d(x) - 1)$ vertices, where $d(x) = |N(x)|$, and hence a perfect matching can be computed in $O(d(x)^{2.5})$ time. Thus the values of F for each vertex and each pair of colors can be obtained in $O(k^2 \sum_{x \in T} d(x)^{2.5})$ time, i.e., our algorithm has a complexity of $O(k^2 n^{2.5})$. \square

We will now explain how the previous algorithm can be adapted to the problems $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, k)$, $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k)$, $\mathcal{B}\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{B}\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, k)$:

- $\mathcal{P}^*(G, H, k)$
 We just have to add the constraint that $b \neq c$ in the definition of F ; in this way we avoid having two adjacent vertices which will be colored with the same color.
- $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k)$
 First we have to adapt the definition of $L(x)$, i.e., $L(x) = \bigcap_{z \in N_{\leq 1}(x)} S(z)$. Then we must modify the computation of F in the following way:
 1. if x is a leaf, $(c, c') \in F(x)$ iff
 - (a) $h_x^c = h_x^{c'} = 1$, with $c \neq c'$
 or
 - (b) $h_x^c = 2$, with $c = c'$
 2. if x is not a leaf, $(c, c') \in F(x)$ iff

$\forall z \in S(x)$ there exists a color c'' such that $(c'', c) \in F(z)$ and there exists a partition U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k of $S(x)$ such that

 - (a) $|U_i| = h_x^i$ if $i \neq c, c'$
 - (b) $|U_c| = h_x^c - 1$, and $|U_{c'}| = h_x^{c'} - 1$, if $c \neq c'$
 - (c) $|U_c| = h_x^c - 2$, if $c = c'$.

In the auxiliary graph $B(x, b, c)$ constructed as before we introduce $h_x^c - 1$ vertices for color c (instead of h_x^c as used in $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$).
- $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^*(G, H, k)$
 We use the version for $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, k)$ and add the constraint that $b \neq c$ in the definition of F .
- For all bounded problems $\mathcal{B}\mathcal{P}$, we adapt the above procedure as follows: instead of constructing a perfect matching in $B(x, b, c)$, we simply determine a matching saturating all vertices in V_1 . It need not be a perfect matching since we must have at most h_x^i vertices of color i in the neighborhood of x but not necessarily exactly h_x^i .

4. The case of $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{P}_2^*(G, H, k)$

Here we will consider a special case of trees for which $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{P}_2^*(G, H, k)$ can be solved in linear time. We will first give conditions of a solution for a star. We recall that a star $S(y; x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is a tree with $n \geq 2$ such that $E = \{[y, x_i] : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. y is the center of the star and the x_i 's are the external vertices.

Proposition 4.1. *Given a star $S(y; x_1, \dots, x_n)$ with a collection H of nonnegative integral vectors $h(x) = (h_x^1, h_x^2, h_x^3, \dots, h_x^k)$ for each external vertex x , the following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ has a unique coloring with h_i vertices of color i ;
- (b) (1) for each external vertex x , $h_x^1 + h_x^2 + h_x^3 + \dots + h_x^k = n - 1$;
 (2) for each color i ,
 $n - h_i$ external vertices x have $h_x^i = h_i$ and
 h_i vertices x have $h_x^i = h_i - 1$;
- (c) for each color i let $V(i) = \{x | h_x^i = h_i - 1\}$; then $V(i) \cap V(j) = \emptyset$ for all i, j with $i \neq j$.

Proof. (a) \Rightarrow (b): $\sum_{i=1}^k h_x^i$ is the number of colors (with their multiplicities) which have to occur at distance 2 from x . Since $|N_2(x)| = n - 1$ for each external vertex x , (1) holds. An external vertex of color i (resp. color $j \neq i$) will have $h_i - 1$ (resp. h_j) vertices at distance 2 with color i , so (2) will hold. The set of external vertices with color i will be $V(i)$, and (3) holds.

(b) \Rightarrow (a): For each i we color the h_i vertices x of $V(i)$ with color i and this will give us the required coloring which is uniquely defined. \square

Remark 4.1. If G is a star, then the treatments of $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{P}_2^*(G, H, k)$ are similar. We just have to assign any color $c \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ to the central vertex y for $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ and any color $c \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ not used in $N(y)$ (if there is one) for $\mathcal{P}_2^*(G, H, k)$.

Remark 4.2. $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ when G is a star with $n \geq 2$ external vertices is the same problem as $\mathcal{P}(G', H, k)$ when G' is a complete graph of order n ; if we consider the pairs of external vertices x_p, x_q ($1 \leq p, q \leq n$) in a star, they are all at distance 2. In a complete graph G' all pairs of vertices are at distance 1. Hence the announced equivalence.

For a special case of trees, we give a complete description of a simple algorithm which will determine in linear time whether a solution exists or not for $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$.

We define a *quatery tree* (or shortly *quatree*) as a tree where all internal vertices (i.e., non leaves) have degree at least 4. Let (B, W) be the bipartition of the vertex set V (B is the set of black vertices and W of white vertices). The reader will find more about special trees in [25].

A *pendent star* $S_h(y; x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ in a quatree Q is the subgraph induced by the vertex set $\{y\} \cup N(y)$ where $N(y) = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ and x_1, \dots, x_n are leaves of Q . Q being a quatree, we have $n \geq 3$. So S_h is a star for which at least three external vertices are leaves of Q . Notice that x_0 is generally not a leaf (except when Q itself is a star).

Proposition 4.2. Let $S_h(y; x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be a pendent star. A necessary condition for a coloring of $N(y)$ to exist is that for any two external vertices x_p, x_q either $h(x_p) = h(x_q)$ or $|h_{x_p}^c - h_{x_q}^c| \leq 1$ for each color c and there are exactly two colors, say c and c' , such that $h_{x_p}^c \neq h_{x_q}^c$ and $h_{x_p}^{c'} \neq h_{x_q}^{c'}$.

Proof. As for the case of a star (see proof of Proposition 4.1) in any coloring there is no pair of external vertices x_p, x_q with $|h_{x_p}^c - h_{x_q}^c| \geq 2$ for some color c . We have necessarily $\sum_{i=1}^k h_x^i = n$, so we cannot have exactly one color c such that $h_{x_p}^c \neq h_{x_q}^c$. Now suppose that there are at least three colors c_1, c_2, c_3 with $h_{x_p}^{c_i} \neq h_{x_q}^{c_i}, i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. As for the case of a star (see the proof of Proposition 4.1), if $h_{x_p}^{c_i} = h_{x_q}^{c_i} - 1, x_p$ must have color c_i . It follows that x_p or x_q has at least two distinct colors, which is a contradiction. \square

Proposition 4.3. Let $S_h(y; x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be a pendent star. If there is a coloring of S_h , it is unique.

Proof. Suppose that the condition of Proposition 4.2 is satisfied.

In the case where $h(x_p) = h(x_q)$ for each $1 \leq p, q \leq n$, each external vertex x has the same color c . Then for each $x, h_x^c = n - 1$ or $h_x^c = n$. In the first case, there is a color $c' \neq c$ such that, for each $x, h_x^{c'} = 1$ and thus x_0 must get color c' . In the second case, all external vertices x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n necessarily have color c .

In the case where there exist two vertices x_p, x_q with $h(x_p) \neq h(x_q)$, there is a color c such that $h_{x_p}^c = h_{x_q}^c - 1$. Thus x_p has necessarily color c . So there is another color c' with $h_{x_p}^{c'} = h_{x_q}^{c'} + 1$ and x_q must have color c' . For each external vertex $x_f, f \neq p, q$, since $h(x_p) \neq h(x_q)$ we have $h(x_f) \neq h(x_p)$ or $h(x_f) \neq h(x_q)$. So as above we obtain the color of vertex x_f . In this way we can assign a color to each external vertex x . If an external vertex x receives two distinct colors, clearly there is no solution. Now, from each vector $h(x)$, we determine a unique color of x_0 . If there are distinct colors assigned to x_0 , there is no solution; otherwise we obtain a coloring for x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n and this coloring is unique. \square

Theorem 4.1. $\mathcal{P}_2(Q, H, k)$ can be solved in linear time when Q is a quatree. Moreover, if there is a coloring, it is unique.

Proof. In the following algorithm, we will start by coloring the vertices of W and a similar second run will color the vertices of B . W.l.o.g. we may remove all black leaves for the first run of the algorithm.

- Algorithm.**
1. $G \leftarrow Q$
 2. while $G \neq \emptyset$ or G is not a star
 - for each pendent star $S_h(y; x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$ do
 - 2.1 if the condition of Proposition 4.2 is not satisfied then there is no solution
 - 2.2 color x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n according to $h(x_1), \dots, h(x_n)$
 - 2.3 if the coloring fails, there is no solution
 - 2.4 update $h(x_0)$ according to the (unique) coloring constructed
 - $G \leftarrow G \setminus \{y, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$
 3. if G is a star, then color x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n
 - if the coloring fails, then there is no solution.

In step 2.2 the unique coloring is obtained as described in the proof of Proposition 4.3.

Applying the algorithm to B , we finally obtain a unique coloring of Q if such a coloring exists.

For each pendent star $S_h(y; x_0, x_1, \dots, x_d)$, the condition of Proposition 4.2 can be checked in time $O(d(y))$ and its coloring (Proposition 4.3) can be obtained in time $O(d(y))$. It follows that the whole complexity is $O(\sum_y d(y)) = O(n)$ since Q is a quatee. \square

From the previous result we conclude the following.

Corollary 4.1. $\mathcal{P}_2^*(Q, H, k)$ can be solved in linear time when Q is a quatee. Moreover, if there is a coloring, it is unique.

A (unique) coloring exists if there exist a coloring of the white vertices and a coloring of the black vertices and if both colorings are compatible (no two adjacent vertices get the same color).

We have restricted ourselves to the case of quatees; this has allowed us to obtain a simple linear algorithm. Notice first that if all internal black vertices in a tree have degree 2, then the problem of coloring the white vertices is equivalent to $\mathcal{P}_1(G', H', k)$, where G' is the tree obtained by removing each black vertex linked to two white vertices w_1, w_2 and introducing an edge $[w_1, w_2]$.

In addition (i.e., besides having all internal black vertices with degree 2), if we have a degree at least 4 for each internal white vertex, then one can solve the coloring problem by using the algorithm of $\mathcal{P}_1(G, H, k)$ for the white vertices and the first run of the algorithm of $\mathcal{P}_2(G, H, k)$ in quatees for the black vertices.

For the general case where G is a tree, the algorithms proposed here do not seem easy to be adapted to handle this case even if a single color class (B or W) has at the same time internal vertices of degree 2 and internal vertices with degree at least 4.

5. Conclusion

We have studied some problems which could be solved in polynomial time for trees or sometimes for a subclass of trees: the quatees. These are generally NP-complete for more general graphs. It would be interesting to examine some extensions of these problems in the case of general trees; in particular, considering generalized neighborhoods like $N_{\leq d}(v)$ (with $d \geq 2$) could lead to further results.

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