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A note on *k*-primitive directed graphs

LeRoy B. Beasley ^a, Steve Kirkland ^{b,*,1}

^aDepartment of Mathematics, Utah State University, Logan, UT 84322-3900, USA ^bDepartment of Mathematics and Statistics, University of Regina, Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada S4S 0A2

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Abstract

We consider the problem of which primitive directed graphs can be *k*-colored to yield a *k*-primitive directed graph. If such a *k*-coloring exists, then certainly such a graph must have at least *k* cycles. We prove that any primitive directed graph admits a 2-coloring that is 2-primitive. By contrast, for each $k \ge 4$, we construct examples of primitive directed graphs having *k* cycles for which no *k*-coloring is *k*-primitive. We also give some partial results for the case that k = 3.

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1. Introduction and preliminaries

Suppose that *G* is a simple directed graph on at least two vertices, possibly with loops. *G* is *primitive* if there is some $r \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for any pair of vertices *u*, *v* of *G*, there is a walk from *u* to *v* of length *r*. It is well-known (see [1], for example) that *G* is primitive if and only if it is strongly connected and the greatest common divisor of its cycle lengths is 1. Observe that the directed graph consisting of a loop at a single vertex can also be thought of as 'primitive'. However, in this paper it will be terminologically convenient to exclude that graph from consideration as primitive; that convention will help to avoid some trivialities in our discussion.

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-306-585-4352; fax: +1-306-585-4020.

E-mail address: kirkland@math.uregina.ca (S. Kirkland).

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A *k*-coloring of *G* is a *k*-tuple of spanning subgraphs (G_1, \ldots, G_k) such that the subgraphs G_1, \ldots, G_k partition the arcs of *G* into *k* (nonempty) subsets. We think of each G_i as containing the arcs given color *i* in the directed graph *G*. In parallel with the notion of primitivity for *G*, we say that the *k*-coloring (G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_k) is *k*-primitive if there is a *k*-tuple of positive integers (r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_k) such that between any pair of vertices *u*, *v* of *G*, there is a walk from *u* to *v* in *G* having exactly r_i arcs of color *i* for each $i, i = 1, \ldots, k$ (equivalently, that walk has exactly r_i arcs of color *i* for each $i = 1, \ldots, k$).

Evidently the case k = 1 corresponds to the definition of primitivity given above. Further, it is clear that if there is a *k*-coloring of *G* that is *k*-primitive, then *G* itself must be a primitive directed graph. In this paper we deal with the following natural question: Given a primitive directed graph *G*, under what circumstances is there a *k*-coloring of *G* that is *k*-primitive?

Fortunately, there is a matrix theoretic technique that enables one to determine whether a specific k-coloring is k-primitive. Suppose that we have a directed graph G with k-coloring (G_1, \ldots, G_k) . Label the cycles of G by C_1, \ldots, C_l , and construct the $k \times l$ matrix $M = [m_{i,j}]$, where $m_{i,j}$ denotes the number of arcs on cycle j having color i. The following result, found in [2], shows how M can be used to determine whether or not the coloring is k-primitive.

Theorem 1.1 [2]. Let G be a directed graph, and suppose that (G_1, \ldots, G_k) is a k-coloring of G. Then G is k-primitive if and only if the $k \times k$ minors of M are relatively prime.

From Theorem 1.1 we see that if *G* admits a *k*-primitive *k*-coloring, then necessarily *G* must have at least *k* cycles. In this paper, we show any primitive directed graph admits a 2-primitive 2-coloring. Further, for each $k \ge 4$, we provide an example of a primitive directed graph having exactly *k* cycles, but which cannot be *k*-colored to be *k*-primitive. Finally, we present a few partial results dealing with the case k = 3.

2. The case k = 2

Lemma 2.1. Let G be a directed graph with two cycles labeled C_1 and C_2 whose lengths are l_1 and l_2 , respectively. Suppose that $l_2 \ge l_1 + 1$, and let a and b be the smallest positive integers such that $al_2 - bl_1 = \pm \gcd(l_1, l_2)$. There is a coloring of C_1 and C_2 which colors a arcs of C_1 color 1, b arcs of C_2 color 1, and the remaining arcs of these two cycles color 2.

Proof. Let $q_1 = l_1/\gcd(l_1, l_2)$ and $q_2 = l_2/\gcd(l_1, l_2)$, and note that $aq_2 - bq_1 = \pm 1$. We claim that $a \leq q_1$. To see the claim, suppose to the contrary that $a \geq q_1 + 1$. Then we have $bq_1 = aq_2 \mp 1 \geq aq_2 - 1 \geq q_1q_2 + q_2 - 1 \geq q_1q_2 + 1$, the last

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inequality since $q_2 \ge 2$. Thus we find that $b \ge q_2 + 1/q_1 > q_2$. Since *b* and q_2 are integers, we see that $b \ge q_2 + 1$. But then letting $a' = a - q_1$ and $b' = b - q_2$, we have $a'q_2 - b'q_1 = \pm 1$, so that $a'l_2 - b'l_1 = \pm \gcd(l_1, l_2)$, contradicting the fact *a* and *b* were chosen as the smallest positive integers such that $al_2 - bl_1 = \pm \gcd(l_1, l_2)$. Consequently we have $a \le q_1$, as claimed.

Next we claim that $a \leq b$. To see the claim, suppose to the contrary that $a \geq b + 1$. Then we have $aq_2 - bq_1 \geq (b+1)(q_1+1) - bq_1 = b + q_1 + 1 > 1$, which contradicts the fact that $aq_2 - bq_1 = \pm 1$. We thus conclude that $a \leq b$, as claimed.

Let *r* denote the number of arcs common to C_1 and C_2 (here we admit the possibility that r = 0). If r < a, then we can obtain the desired coloring as follows: color the *r* shared arcs color 1, the a - r unshared arcs of C_1 color 1, the b - r unshared arcs of C_2 color 1, and all other arcs color 2.

Suppose now that $r \ge a$. We claim that $l_2 - l_1 + 1 \ge b - a$. To see the claim, note that $aq_2 - bq_1 \ge -1$, so that $a(q_2 - q_1) \ge (b - a)q_1 - 1$, which yields $q_2 - q_1 \ge (b - a)(q_1/a) - (1/a) \ge b - a - 1$, the last inequality following from the fact that $1 \le a \le q_1$. If we have $q_2 - q_1 \ge b - a$, then certainly $l_2 - l_1 + 1 > q_2 - q_1 \ge b - a$. On the other hand, if $q_2 - q_1 = b - a - 1$, then note that $\pm 1 = aq_2 - bq_1 = a(q_1 + b - a - 1) - bq_1 = (a - b)(q_1 - a) - a$. Since $a \le q_1$ and $a \le b$, we thus have $aq_2 - bq_1 = \pm 1 = (a - b)(q_1 - a) - a \le -a$. Evidently this is possible only if a = 1 and $aq_2 - bq_1 = -1$. Solving that last equation for b yields $b = (q_2 + 1)/q_1$. But then we have $l_2 - l_1 + 1 \ge q_2 - q_1 + 1 \ge (q_2 - q_1 + 1)/q_1 = b - a$. In either case, we see that $l_2 - l_1 + 1 \ge b - a$, as claimed.

From the claim, we see that since $r \leq l_1 - 1$, we have $b - a \leq l_2 - r$. We can now obtain the desired coloring as follows: color *a* of the shared arcs color 1, b - aof the unshared arcs of C_2 color 1 (this is possible to do since $b - a \leq l_2 - r$), and all other arcs color 2.

Thus we see that in either case, it is possible to produce a coloring of C_1 and C_2 with the desired properties. \Box

Remark 2.1. The coloring produced in Lemma 2.1 does indeed use both colors. To see this fact, first note that since both a and b are positive, at least one arc in the graph is given color 1. Further, there are $l_1 - a$ arcs of C_1 given color 2, and $l_2 - b$ arcs of C_2 given color 2. If $l_1 - a$ is positive, then at least one arc is given color 2, and so both colors are used.

If $l_1 - a$ is 0, then q_1 must be 1, since it is a factor of $aq_2 - bq_1$, so that $l_1 = \gcd(l_1, l_2)$. Thus the equation $aq_2 - bq_1 = \pm 1$ yields $b = bq_1 = aq_2 \mp 1 = l_1q_2 \mp 1 = \gcd(l_1, l_2)q_2 \mp 1 = l_2 \mp 1$. Since b is the smallest positive integer satisfying $al_2 - bl_1 = \mp \gcd(l_1, l_2)$, we conclude that $b = l_2 - 1$. But then $l_2 - b$ is positive, and again, both colors are used.

Theorem 2.1. If G is a primitive directed graph, then there is a 2-coloring of G that is 2-primitive.

Proof. Suppose that *G* has *k* cycles C_1, \ldots, C_k , say of lengths l_1, \ldots, l_k . Since *G* is primitive, we have $gcd(l_1, \ldots, l_k) = 1$. In particular, there are at least two distinct cycle lengths. We assume that those cycles are C_1 and C_2 , with lengths l_1 and l_2 , respectively; without loss of generality, we take $l_2 \ge l_1 + 1$.

Select the smallest positive integers *a* and *b* such that $|al_2 - bl_1| = \gcd(l_1, l_2) \equiv g$. Applying Lemma 2.1 to C_1 and C_2 , we find that there is a coloring of those two cycles such that *a* arcs of C_1 have color 1, *b* arcs of C_2 have color 1, and the remaining arcs on C_1 and C_2 have color 2. We complete the coloring of *G* with colors 1 and 2 by letting any remaining arcs be colored arbitrarily.

That coloring leads us to the following matrix:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c_3 & \cdots & c_k \\ l_1 - a & l_2 - b & l_3 - c_3 & \cdots & l_k - c_k \end{bmatrix},$$

where c_3, \ldots, c_k denote the numbers of arcs of color 1 on the cycles C_3, \ldots, C_k , respectively.

Let $d_{i,j} = \det M[1, 2 | i, j]$ and let $z = \gcd\{d_{i,j} | 1 \le i < j \le k\}$. Then $z | d_{1,2}$ so that $z | l_1$ and $z | l_2$ since $d_{1,2} = |al_2 - bl_1| = g$. Also, for any $i \ge 3$, $z | d_{1,i}$ so that $z | al_i - c_i l_1$. It follows that $z | al_i$ for all i. Further, $z | d_{2,i}$ for all $i \ge 3$ so that $z | bl_i$ for all i. Suppose that $z \ne 1$, and let p be a prime divisor of z. Since the cycle lengths are relatively prime, there is some j such that $p \nmid l_j$. It follows that p | a and p | b. But then, $p | (a(l_2/g) - b(l_1/g))$ and since $a(l_2/g) - b(l_1/g) = \pm 1$, we have p = 1. We conclude that z must be 1. Thus we see that the collection of 2×2 minors of M has greatest common divisor 1, and so by Theorem 1.1, we see that our 2-coloring of G is 2-primitive. \Box

Example 2.1. We illustrate the coloring technique of Theorem 2.1 on the graph constructed as follows: begin with a directed path on 15 vertices, say $i \rightarrow i + 1$, i = 1, ..., 14, then add in the arcs $15 \rightarrow 1, 10 \rightarrow 1$ and $6 \rightarrow 1$. The resulting graph *G* has three cycles: a 6-cycle on vertices 1, ..., 6, a 10-cycle on vertices 1, ..., 10, and a Hamilton cycle.

Consider the 6-cycle and the 10-cycle. The greatest common divisor of their lengths is 2, and in the notation on Lemma 2.1, we have a = 1 and b = 2. Color the arcs $1 \rightarrow 2$ and $9 \rightarrow 10$ with color 1, and color the arcs $i \rightarrow i + 1$, i = 2, ..., 8, $6 \rightarrow 1$ and $10 \rightarrow 1$ all with color 2. Finally, of the remaining arcs $i \rightarrow i + 1$, i = 10, ..., 14 and $15 \rightarrow 1$, fix some *j* between 0 and 6, and color *j* of them with color 1 and the rest with color 2.

This coloring leads us to the matrix

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & j+2 \\ 5 & 8 & 13-j \end{bmatrix},$$

whose minors are -2, 3 - 6j and 10 - 10j. Since the first two minors are mutually prime, we find that our coloring of G is indeed 2-primitive.





By way of contrast with Theorem 2.1, in this section we give some examples to show that for each $k \ge 4$, there are primitive directed graphs having k cycles for which no k-coloring is k-primitive.

Our first example deals with the case k = 4.

Example 3.1. Consider the directed graph *G* shown in Fig. 1. Evidently *G* has exactly four cycles, of lengths 4, 5, 5, and 6. In particular *G* is primitive. Observe also that each arc of *G* is either contained in just two cycles, or in all four of the cycles. Suppose that we have a 4-coloring of *G*, say (G_1, \ldots, G_4) , and form the corresponding 4×4 matrix *M* of Theorem 1.1. From that result, the 4-coloring (G_1, \ldots, G_4) is 4-primitive if and only if $\det(M) = \pm 1$. Since adding columns together does not affect the determinant, we see that if \tilde{M} is the matrix formed from *M* by replacing its first column by the vector of row sums of *M*, then $\det(M) = \det(\tilde{M})$. For each arc *a* of *G*, let n_a denote the number of cycles in which *a* is contained. Letting r_i denote the *i*th row sum of *M*, we find that for each $i = 1, \ldots, 4, r_i = \sum_{a \in G_i} n_a$. In particular, since each n_a is even, we see that each entry in the first column of \tilde{M} is divisible by 2. Consequently, $\det(M)$ is divisible by 2, from which we conclude that the 4-coloring of *G* is not 4-primitive.

Next, we use Example 3.1 to help in discussing the case $k \ge 5$.

Example 3.2. In this example, we use *G* of Fig. 1 to construct, for each $k \ge 5$, a primitive directed graph having *k* cycles for which no *k*-coloring is *k*-primitive. To do so, start with *G*, and at one of the vertices of degree 2, say *v*, attach k - 4 2-cycles each having *v* as a vertex. The resulting graph *H* has *k* cycles, and k + 2 vertices. Label the cycles of *H* that are inherited from *G* by C_1, \ldots, C_4 , and note that each arc of *H* which is inherited from *G* is contained in either two or four of the cycles C_1, \ldots, C_4 .

Suppose now that we have a k-coloring of H, and construct the $k \times k$ matrix M of Theorem 1.1. Let \tilde{M} be formed from M by replacing its first column by the sum

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of its first four columns (which correspond to the cycles C_1, \ldots, C_4). As in Example 3.1, we find that each entry in the first column of \tilde{M} is divisible by 2, so that $\det(\tilde{M})$ is also divisible by 2. Since $\det(M) = \det(\tilde{M})$, we find from Theorem 1.1 that the *k*-coloring of *H* cannot be *k*-primitive.

Our last example provides a different kind of construction from that used above.

Example 3.3. Suppose that $n \ge 3$ is an odd integer and consider the directed graph D on n vertices labeled $1, \ldots, n$, with arcs $i \rightarrow i + 1 \pmod{n}$ and $i \rightarrow i - 1 \pmod{n}$, for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. Then we find that D has two cycles of length n and n cycles of length 2, for a total of n + 2 cycles. Note that D is primitive (since n and 2 are mutually prime) and that each arc of D is contained in exactly two cycles. It follows as in Example 3.1 that for any n + 2-coloring of D, the corresponding matrix M has each row sum divisible by 2. (Indeed the sum of row i is twice the number of arcs with color i.) We thus conclude that no n + 2-coloring of D is n + 2-primitive.

Next, we give a few partial results on the problem of determining which primitive directed graphs having at least three cycles can be 3-colored to yield a 3-primitive graph.

Theorem 3.1. Suppose that G is a primitive directed graph having at least three cycles. Suppose that there is a nonempty subset of arcs of G, say A, such that $G' \equiv G \setminus A$ can be written as the union of a primitive directed graph and a (possibly empty) collection of isolated vertices. Then G admits a 3-coloring that is 3-primitive.

Proof. Denote the primitive component of G' by H (possibly they are equal). By Theorem 2.1, there is a 2-coloring of H, say using colors 1 and 2, that is 2-primitive. We now complete this to a 3-coloring of G by selecting a single arc $e \in A$ and giving it color 3, while coloring the arcs of $A \setminus e$ arbitrarily with colors 1 and 2.

We claim that this 3-coloring of G is 3-primitive. To see this, form the matrix M of Theorem 1.1 for the coloring of G. Let M_H denote the corresponding matrix arising from our 2-coloring of H. Observe that M contains a submatrix of the following form:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} M_H & x \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

where the last column corresponds to a cycle containing the arc *e*. Observe that each 2×2 minor of M_H is equal to a 3×3 minor of *S*, and since those 2×2 minors are relatively prime, we conclude that the 3×3 minors of *S* (and hence of *M*) are relatively prime. Thus our coloring is 3-primitive. \Box

The following result is similar in spirit to that above.

Theorem 3.2. Let G be a primitive directed graph with at least three cycles. Suppose that there are two cycles C_1 , C_2 with lengths l_1 , l_2 , respectively, such that l_1

and l_2 are relatively prime, and such that there is at least one arc of G not contained in $C_1 \cup C_2$. Then G admits a 3-coloring that is 3-primitive.

Proof. Let *a* and *b* be the smallest positive integers such that $al_2 - bl_1 = \pm 1$. By Lemma 2.1 there is a coloring of $C_1 \cup C_2$ that gives *a* arcs of C_1 and *b* arcs of C_2 color 1, and the rest color 2. Since there is an arc *e* of *G* (say on cycle C_3) that is not contained in $C_1 \cup C_2$, we can give *e* color 3, and color the remaining arcs of *G* arbitrarily with colors 1, 2 and 3. As in Theorem 3.1, we find that the matrix *M* corresponding to our coloring has a 3×3 submatrix of the following form:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ l_1 - a & l_2 - b & l_3 - c - 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since det(*S*) = ± 1 , we conclude that our 3-coloring is 3-primitive. \Box

Example 3.4. Observe that neither Theorem 3.1 nor Theorem 3.2 applies to the graph *G* of Example 2.1, since that graph has no primitive subgraphs, and every pair of cycle lengths has a proper divisor. Nevertheless, we can produce a 3-coloring of *G* that is 3-primitive. For example, give the arc $9 \rightarrow 10$ color 1, give the arcs $6 \rightarrow 1$, $10 \rightarrow 1$, $14 \rightarrow 15$ and $15 \rightarrow 1$ color 2, and give all remaining arcs color 3. The resulting matrix *M* of Theorem 1.1 is

	0	1	1	
M =	1	1	2	
	5	8	12_	

Since det(M) = 1, we see that the coloring is 3-primitive.

Informed by our work in Section 2, and by Example 3.4, we formulate the following.

Conjecture 3.1. Suppose that G is a primitive directed graph with cycles C_1 , C_2 and C_3 whose lengths are l_1 , l_2 and l_3 , respectively. Let the greatest common divisor of l_1 , l_2 and l_3 be g. Then there is a 3-coloring of G with corresponding matrix M such that

$$M[1, 2, 3 | 1, 2, 3] = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \\ x & y & z \\ l_1 - a - x & l_2 - b - y & l_3 - c - z \end{bmatrix}$$

has determinant $\pm g$ *.*

Evidently the confirmation of this conjecture would be a key step in proving that every primitive directed graph with at least three cycles admits a 3-coloring that is 3-primitive.

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