# 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 $V^{1}, \ldots, V^{k}$ 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 $\mathscr{P}$ 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 $N_{\leq d}(x)=\cup_{0 \leq l \leq d} N_{l}(x)$ 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 $1,2, \ldots, k$ as well as a set $H=\left\{h(x)=\left(h_{x}^{1}, \ldots, h_{x}^{k}\right) \in \mathbb{N}^{k} \mid x \in V\right\}$.
In the first problem, we have to find a $k$-partition $V^{1}, V^{2}, \ldots, V^{k}$ of $V$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|N(x) \bigcap V^{i}\right|=h_{x}^{i} \quad \text { for all } x \in V \text { and all } 1 \leq i \leq k \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]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 $V^{1}, V^{2}, \ldots, V^{k}$ of $V$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|N(x) \bigcap V^{i}\right| \leq h_{x}^{i} \quad \text { for all } x \in V \text { and all } 1 \leq i \leq k \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will call these problems $\mathfrak{B} \mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, k)$, respectively.
Our second problem is to find a $k$-partition $V^{1}, V^{2}, \ldots, V^{k}$ of $V$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|N_{\leq 1}(x) \bigcap V^{i}\right|=h_{x}^{i} \quad \text { for all } x \in V \text { and all } 1 \leq i \leq k \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

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, $V^{1}, V^{2}, \ldots, V^{k}$ of $V$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|N_{2}(x) \bigcap V^{i}\right|=h_{x}^{i} \quad \text { for all } x \in V \text { and all } 1 \leq i \leq k \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

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 $\left(V^{1}, \ldots, V^{k}\right)$ 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 $\mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, k)$ 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 $s(z)=\left\{i: h_{z}^{i}>0\right\}, z \in V$, 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 $\mathscr{P}_{\leq 1}^{*}(G, H, k)$ 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 $\mathcal{P}(G, H, 2), \mathscr{P}^{*}(G, H, 3), \mathscr{B}^{*}(G, H, 3), \mathscr{B P}^{*}(G, H, 4)$, $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, 2)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^{*}(G, H, 3)$.

Theorem 2.1. $\mathcal{P}(G, H, 2)$ is $N P$-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 $G=(X \cup C, E)=(X \cup$ $C,\left\{\left[x_{i}, \hat{c}\right] \mid x_{i}\right.$ occurring in clause $\left.\hat{c} \in C\right\}$ ) 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.

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.

Theorem 2.3. $\mathscr{B}^{*}(G, H, 4)$ is $N P$-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 $G^{\prime}$ be a 3-regular graph. For each vertex $x$ of $G^{\prime}$ 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 $G^{\prime}$ corresponds to a unique edge $\left[x_{u}, y_{v}\right]$ in the new graph. We replace locally every edge $\left[x_{u}, y_{v}\right]$ by the edge gadget $J\left(x_{u}, y_{v}\right)$ given in Fig. 2. The resulting graph $G=(V, E)$ is bipartite and has maximum degree 3. Consider now a coloring $\kappa$ of $V$ satisfying the constraints of $\mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, 4)$ 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 $x, \kappa\left(x_{1}\right), \kappa\left(x_{2}\right), \kappa\left(x_{3}\right)$, and $\kappa\left(x_{4}\right)$ are all different;
(ii) in any 4-cycle $\left\{\left[v_{1}, v_{2}\right],\left[v_{2}, v_{3}\right],\left[v_{3}, v_{4}\right],\left[v_{4}, v_{1}\right]\right\}$ with neighboring vertices $w_{1}, w_{2}, w_{3}, w_{4}$ such that $\left[v_{i}, w_{i}\right] \in E$, we must have $\kappa\left(w_{1}\right)=\kappa\left(v_{3}\right), \kappa\left(w_{2}\right)=\kappa\left(v_{4}\right), \kappa\left(w_{3}\right)=\kappa\left(v_{1}\right)$, and $\kappa\left(w_{4}\right)=\kappa\left(v_{2}\right)$.
Consider now an edge gadget $J\left(x_{u}, y_{v}\right)$. W.l.o.g. we may assume that $\kappa\left(x_{4}\right)=4$ and $\kappa\left(x_{u}\right)=1$ 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: $\kappa\left(a_{1}\right)=\kappa\left(b^{\prime}\right)=\kappa\left(d_{2}\right)=3, \kappa\left(a_{2}\right)=\kappa\left(c^{\prime}\right)=\kappa\left(d_{1}\right)=2$. Thus $\kappa\left(a^{\prime}\right), \kappa\left(d^{\prime}\right) \in\{1,4\}, \kappa\left(a^{\prime}\right) \neq \kappa\left(d^{\prime}\right)$. If $\kappa\left(a^{\prime}\right)=4$, then $\kappa\left(e^{\prime}\right)=1$, but this will give us a contradiction, since $\kappa(e)=4$. Hence $\kappa\left(a^{\prime}\right)=1$ and $\kappa\left(y_{v}\right)=1$. So we deduce that in any solution of $\mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, 4)$ with $h_{x}^{i}=1 \forall x \in V, i=1,2,3,4$, and in any edge gadget $J\left(x_{u}, y_{v}\right), x_{u}$ and $y_{v}$ get the same color.

Suppose that an instance of $\mathscr{B} \mathscr{P}^{*}(G, H, 4)$ has a solution true. By coloring each edge $[x, y]$ in $G^{\prime}$ 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 $G^{\prime}$.

Now suppose that we have a 3-coloring of the edges of $G^{\prime}$. 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 $G^{\prime}$, we can complete the coloring, as explained above, using at most four colors and satisfying $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq h_{x}^{i}=1 \forall x \in V, i=1,2,3,4$.

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 $J\left(x_{u}, y_{v}\right)$ corresponding to an edge $\left[x_{u}, y_{v}\right]$.


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. $\mathcal{B P}^{*}(G, H, 3)$ is $N P$-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 $N P$-complete (see [23]). Let $G^{\prime}$ 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 $G^{\prime}$ will be replaced by a suitable edge $\left[x_{u}, y_{v}\right], u, v \in\{1,2,3,4\}$. We obtain a planar graph $G$ with maximum degree 4 .

Now suppose that there is a 3-coloring of $G$ such that $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i=1,2$, 3 . Necessarily $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}$ and $x_{4}$ must be colored with the same color as $x^{\prime}$. Coloring the corresponding vertex $x$ in $G^{\prime}$ with this color will give us a 3-coloring of $G^{\prime}$.

Conversely, suppose we have a 3-coloring of the vertices of $G^{\prime}$. If $x$ has color $c$, then color the corresponding vertices $x^{\prime}, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}$ with this same color $c$ in $G$. Then the remaining vertices can be colored using three colors in such a way that $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i=1,2,3$. So we get a positive solution for the instance of $\mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, 3)$.

Theorem 2.4. $\mathscr{B} \mathscr{P}^{*}(G, H, 3)$ is $N P$-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 $\mathscr{B} \mathscr{P}^{*}\left(G^{\prime}, H, 3\right)$ which is $N P$-complete when $G^{\prime}$ 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 $G^{\prime}$ 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 $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq h_{x}^{i}=2 \forall x \in V, i=1,2$, 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 $\left.h_{d}^{1}=2\right)$, so $c(y)=2=c(e)=c(f)$. Thus $x$ and $y$ get different colors. Coloring the vertices $x, y$ in $G^{\prime}$ with the color they get in $G$, we obtain a 3-coloring of $G^{\prime}$. In fact, since $c(e)=c(y)$ and $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq 2, i=1,2$, 3 , in $G$, we will obtain a solution in $G^{\prime}$ satisfying the constraints $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i=1,2,3$.

Conversely, suppose that there is a 3-coloring of $G^{\prime}$ with $\left|N(x) \cap V^{i}\right| \leq 2 \forall x \in V, i=1,2$, 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 $G$.

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

Theorem 2.6. $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^{*}(G, H, 3)$ is $N P$-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 $x^{\prime}$ and an edge $\left[x, x^{\prime}\right]$. We obtain a planar bipartite graph with maximum degree 4 . We set $h(x)=(1,1,3), h\left(x^{\prime}\right)=(1,1,0)$, 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 $x^{\prime}$ to $V^{2}$, and for each variable $x$ which is false, we assign $x$ to $V^{2}$ and $x^{\prime}$ 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 $h\left(x^{\prime}\right)=(1,1,0)$, vertices $x, x^{\prime}$ 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.

## 3. The special case of trees

We shall now give a general dynamic programming algorithm which will show that $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k), \mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, k)$, $\mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}(G, H, k), \mathcal{P}_{\leq 1}^{*}(G, H, k), \mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathscr{B}^{*}(G, H, k)$ 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 $T^{\prime}(x), x \neq r$, be the subtree of $T$ with vertex set $T(x) \cup\{f(x)\}$. Now we define for each vertex $x \neq r$ a set $F(x)=\left\{(b, c): \exists\right.$ a coloring $\kappa$ of $T^{\prime}(x)$ 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 $F(x)=\left\{(b, c): b \in s(f(x)), h_{x}^{c}=1\right\}$; 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: $B(x, b, c)=\left(V_{1}, V_{2}, E\right)$ with $V_{1}=S(x), V_{2}=W_{1} \cup W_{2} \cup \ldots \cup W_{k}$, where $W_{i}=\left\{i_{j}: j=1,2 \ldots, h_{x}^{i}\right\}$ for $i \neq c$, and $W_{c}=\left\{c_{l}: l=1, \ldots, h_{x}^{c}-1\right\}$. 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 $\kappa$ of $T^{\prime}(x)$ 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 $F(x)=\left\{(b, c): b \in s(f(x)), h_{x}^{c}=1\right\}$;
(ii) otherwise $F(x)=\{(b, c): \exists$ 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 $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ be the vertices.
2. For $i=1$ to $n-1$ compute $F\left(x_{i}\right)$. If $F\left(x_{i}\right)=\emptyset$ for some vertex $x_{i}$, there is no solution to $\mathcal{P}(T, H, k)$.
3. If there exists $c$ such that for each $x \in S(r)\left(c^{\prime}, c\right) \in F(x)$, then there exists a coloring $\kappa$ 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 $\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \in F\left(x_{i}\right)$ for $i=$ $1, \ldots, n-1$.

Theorem 3.1. The above algorithm solves problem $\mathcal{P}(T, H, k)$ in $O\left(k^{2} n^{2.5}\right)$ time.
Proof. When $\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \in F(x)$ 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 $c^{\prime}$. Since, for each $x$, all pairs $\left(c, c^{\prime}\right)$ are examined we will obtain a solution whenever one exists. If there exists $c$ such that for each $x \in S(r)\left(c^{\prime}, c\right) \in F(x)$, assign color $c$ to $r$; then for each arc $(y, x)$ where $y$ is colored with color $c\left(x\right.$ is not yet colored) and $\left(c^{\prime}, c\right) \in F(x)$, assign color $c^{\prime}$ 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 $O\left(k^{2}\right)$ pairs of colors ( $c, c^{\prime}$ ) for which we have to check whether they belong to $F(x)$. A perfect matching can be determined in $O\left(n^{2.5}\right)$ 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 $O\left(d(x)^{2.5}\right)$ time. Thus the values of $F$ for each vertex and each pair of colors can be obtained in $O\left(k^{2} \sum_{x \in T} d(x)^{2.5}\right)$ time, i.e., our algorithm has a complexity of $O\left(k^{2} n^{2.5}\right)$.

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

- $\mathcal{P}^{*}(G, H, k)$

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, $\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \in F(x)$ iff
(a) $h_{x}^{c}=h_{x}^{c^{\prime}}=1$, with $c \neq c^{\prime}$
(b) $h_{x}^{c}=2$, with $c=c^{\prime}$
2. if $x$ is not a leaf, $\left(c, c^{\prime}\right) \in F(x)$ iff
$\forall z \in S(x)$ there exists a color $c^{\prime \prime}$ such that $\left(c^{\prime \prime}, c\right) \in F(z)$ and there exists a partition $U_{1}, U_{2}, \ldots, U_{k}$ of $S(x)$ such that
(a) $\left|U_{i}\right|=h_{x}^{i}$ if $i \neq c, c^{\prime}$
(b) $\left|U_{c}\right|=h_{x}^{c}-1$, and $\left|U_{c^{\prime}}\right|=h_{x}^{c^{\prime}}-1$, if $c \neq c^{\prime}$
(c) $\left|U_{c}\right|=h_{x}^{c}-2$, if $c=c^{\prime}$.

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 $\mathcal{P}(G, H, k))$.

- $\mathcal{P}_{<1}^{*}(G, H, k)$

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 $\mathscr{B} \mathcal{P}$, 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 $\mathscr{P}_{2}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathscr{P}_{2}^{*}(G, H, k)$

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

Proposition 4.1. Given a star $S\left(y ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ with a collection $H$ of nonnegative integral vectors $h(x)=\left(h_{x}^{1}, h_{x}^{2}, h_{x}^{3}, \ldots, h_{x}^{k}\right)$ for each external vertex $x$, the following statements are equivalent:
(a) $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ has a unique coloring with $h_{i}$ vertices of color $i$;
(b) (1) for each external vertex $x, h_{x}^{1}+h_{x}^{2}+h_{x}^{3}+\cdots+h_{x}^{k}=n-1$;
(2) for each color $i$,
$n-h_{i}$ external vertices $x$ have $h_{x}^{i}=h_{i}$ and
$h_{i}$ vertices $x$ have $h_{x}^{i}=h_{i}-1$;
(3) for each color $i$ let $V(i)=\left\{x \mid h_{x}^{i}=h_{i}-1\right\}$; then $V(i) \cap V(j)=\emptyset$ for all $i, j$ with $i \neq j$.

Proof. $(\mathrm{a}) \Rightarrow(\mathrm{b}): \sum_{i=1}^{k} h_{x}^{i}$ is the number of colors (with their multiplicities) which have to occur at distance 2 from $x$. Since $\left|N_{2}(x)\right|=n-1$ for each external vertex $x$, (1) holds. An external vertex of color $i$ (resp. color $j \neq i$ ) will have $h_{i}-1$ (resp. $h_{i}$ ) 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.

Remark 4.1. If $G$ is a star, then the treatments of $\mathscr{P}_{2}(G, H, k)$ and $\mathcal{P}_{2}^{*}(G, H, k)$ are similar. We just have to assign any color $c \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ to the central vertex $y$ for $\mathscr{P}_{2}(G, H, k)$ and any color $c \in\{1, \ldots, k\}$ 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 $\mathcal{P}\left(G^{\prime}, H, k\right)$ when $G^{\prime}$ 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 $G^{\prime}$ 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 $\mathscr{P}_{2}(G, H, k)$.

We define a quaternary 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 $S_{h}\left(y ; x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ in a quatree $Q$ is the subgraph induced by the vertex set $\{y\} \cup N(y)$ where $N(y)=$ $\left\{x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ 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 $S_{h}\left(y ; x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ 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 $h\left(x_{p}\right)=h\left(x_{q}\right)$ or $\left|h_{x_{p}}^{c}-h_{x_{q}}^{c}\right| \leq 1$ for each color $c$ and there are exactly two colors, say $c$ and $c^{\prime}$, such that $h_{x_{p}}^{c} \neq h_{x_{q}}^{c}$ and $h_{x_{p}}^{c^{\prime}} \neq h_{x_{q}}^{c^{\prime}}$.
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 $\left|h_{x_{p}}^{c}-h_{x_{q}}^{c}\right| \geq 2$ 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.

Proposition 4.3. Let $S_{h}\left(y ; x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ 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 $h\left(x_{p}\right)=h\left(x_{q}\right)$ 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 $c^{\prime} \neq c$ such that, for each $x, h_{x}^{c^{\prime}}=1$ and thus $x_{0}$ must get color $c^{\prime}$. In the second case, all external vertices $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ necessarily have color $c$.

In the case where there exist two vertices $x_{p}, x_{q}$ with $h\left(x_{p}\right) \neq h\left(x_{q}\right)$, 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 $c^{\prime}$ with $h_{x_{p}}^{c^{\prime}}=h_{x_{q}}^{c^{\prime}}+1$ and $x_{q}$ must have color $c^{\prime}$. For each external vertex $x_{f}$, $f \neq p, q$, since $h\left(x_{p}\right) \neq h\left(x_{q}\right)$ we have $h\left(x_{f}\right) \neq h\left(x_{p}\right)$ or $h\left(x_{f}\right) \neq h\left(x_{q}\right)$. 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 $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and this coloring is unique.

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 $S_{h}\left(y ; x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ do
2.1 if the condition of Proposition 4.2 is not satisfied then there is no solution
2.2 color $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ according to $h\left(x_{1}\right), \ldots, h\left(x_{n}\right)$
2.3 if the coloring fails, there is no solution
2.4 update $h\left(x_{0}\right)$ according to the (unique) coloring constructed $G \leftarrow G \backslash\left\{y, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$
3. if $G$ is a star, then color $x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$
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 $S_{h}\left(y ; x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)$, 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 $O\left(\sum_{y} d(y)\right)=O(n)$ since $Q$ is a quatree.

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 quatree. 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 quatrees; 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 $\mathscr{P}_{1}\left(G^{\prime}, H^{\prime}, k\right)$, where $G^{\prime}$ 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 $\mathscr{P}_{1}(G, H, k)$ for the white vertices and the first run of the algorithm of $\mathcal{P}_{2}(G, H, k)$ in quatrees 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 quatrees. These are generally $N P$-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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