Iterated Colorings of Graphs

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Abstract

For a graph property P, in particular maximal independence, minimal domination and maximal irredundance, we introduce iterated P-colorings of graphs. The six graph parameters arising from either maximizing or minimizing the number of colors used for each property, are related by an inequality chain, and in this paper we initiate the study of these parameters. We relate them to other well-studied parameters like chromatic number, give alternative characterizations, find graph classes where they differ by an arbitrary amount, investigate their monotonicity properties, and look at algorithmic issues.

1 Introduction

An (undirected) graph G = (V, E) consists of a finite, nonempty set V of vertices, and a set E of unordered pairs of vertices called edges. Two distinct vertices u and v are adjacent if $(u, v) \in E$, and we say that u is a neighbor of v and v is a neighbor of u.

Various properties can be associated with subsets of the vertices of a graph. A set $S \subseteq V$ of vertices is said to be *independent* if no two vertices in S are adjacent. A set $S \subseteq V$ is called a *dominating* set if for all vertices $u \notin S$, there is a vertex $v \in S$ such that $(u, v) \in E$.

For vertex $v \in V$, the open neighborhood of v, denoted N(v), is the set of vertices $u \neq v$ that are adjacent to v. We define the closed neighborhood of v as $N[v] = N(v) \cup \{v\}$. The open neighborhood of set S N(S) (resp. closed neighborhood N[S]) is the union of all the open neighborhoods N(v) (resp. closed neighborhoods N[v]) of vertices $v \in S$. Given a set $S \subseteq V$, the subgraph of S induced by S is the graph S is t

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A set $S \subseteq V$ is said to be an *irredundant* set if for every vertex $u \in S$, $N[u] - N[S - \{u\}] \neq \emptyset$, that is, each vertex $v \in S$ either has no neighbor in S or has at least one neighbor $w \in V - S$ that is not a neighbor of any other vertex in S. We refer to such a vertex w as a *private neighbor* of v, and if v has multiple private neighbors, we refer to these vertices as the *private neighbor set* of v.

Let P be a property associated with a vertex set. We refer to a set having property P as a P-set. We will assume that for all properties P of interest, an isolated set of vertices S has property P. We are often interested in finding either a maximum or a minimum cardinality P-set in graph G, or perhaps only the cardinality of a maximum or minimum P-set. Whether we are interested in a maximum or a minimum P-set depends on the property P. If P is the property of being an independent set or an irredundant set, then the minimum P-set is simply the empty set \emptyset , so maximum P-set are of interest. If P is the property of being a dominating set, the maximum P-set is the entire set V, so we are interested in minimum dominating sets.

In addition to maximum and minimum P-sets, we can define maximal and minimal P-sets. A P-set S is maximal if no proper superset of S is a P-set, and is minimal if no proper subset of S is a P-set.

The vertex independence number of G is the maximum cardinality of an independent set of G, and is denoted $\beta_0(G)$. Because any maximal independent set is also a dominating set, we refer to the minimum cardinality of a maximal independent set as the independent domination number of G, denoted i(G).

The domination number $\gamma(G)$ of G is the minimum cardinality of a dominating set of G. The maximum cardinality of a minimal dominating set of G is called the *upper domination number* of G and is denoted $\Gamma(G)$.

Finally, the *irredundance number* ir(G) is the minimum cardinality of a maximal irredundant set of G, and the *upper irredundance number* IR(G) of G is the maximum cardinality of an irredundant set of G.

A well-known relationship between all of these parameters is given in the following theorem by Cockayne, Hedetniemi and Miller in 1978 [5].

Theorem 1 For any graph G, $ir(G) \leq \gamma(G) \leq i(G) \leq \beta_0(G) \leq \Gamma(G) \leq IR(G)$.

For a complete discussion of this inequality chain, the reader is referred to the book by Haynes, Hedetniemi and Slater on domination in graphs [9].

A k-coloring of a graph G is simply an assignment $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ of k colors (i.e. the integers 1, 2, ..., k) to the vertices of G. A coloring f is called proper if adjacent vertices are always assigned different colors.

Equivalently, a k-coloring is a partition $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ of V(G) into color classes V_i , where every vertex in V_i is assigned the color i. In a proper coloring each color class V_i is an independent set. The minimum number of colors in a proper coloring of a graph G is called the *chromatic number* of G, and is denoted $\chi(G)$. More generally, a P-coloring is a partition $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ of V(G) into colors V_i is a partition V_i in V_i is a partition V_i .

 $\{V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k\}$ of V(G) such that for every $i, 1 \leq i \leq k, V_i$ is a P-set. In the following we shall speak of k-colorings either as functions f or as partitions Π , and we shall require that V_i is a P-set in the graph remaining after removing V_1, \ldots, V_{i-1} .

2 Iterated Coloring Algorithm

In this paper we examine some different types of P-colorings that arise from the Iterated Coloring Algorithm (ICA) given below, which was also studied in [12]. Let P be some property associated with a set of vertices in a graph G = (V, E). Algorithm ICA repeatedly removes a set S of vertices having property P and assigns the same color to every vertex in S. Each successive set S is selected with respect to the graph that remains after the vertices up to and including the most recent set S have been removed. These sets form color classes V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k , where k, the number of colors used, is the number of sets removed before the graph becomes empty.

Iterated Coloring Algorithm (ICA)

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Input: graph G = (V, E), property P

Output: P-coloring \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}

i = 0;

while (V \text{ is not empty}) \{

find an arbitrary P-set S \text{ in } G[V];

i++;

V_i = S;

V = V - S;

\{V = i;
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Notice the inherent nondeterminism in Algorithm ICA. Since it removes an arbitrary P-set during each iteration of the **while**-loop, many different outcomes are possible for a given graph G. We will be interested in the set of all possible outcomes for a graph G, that is, in the set of all possible P-colorings that Algorithm ICA can create for a given graph G.

Let P be the property of being a maximal independent set; we write P = maximal-independent, for shorthand. Let G be the graph shown in Figure 1. The numbers assigned to the vertices represent two possible colorings that can be created by Algorithm ICA with G and P = maximal independent as input.

An assignment of colors to the vertices of any graph G by Algorithm ICA with P = maximal-independent is called an *iterated maximal-independent coloring* of G, or a *independent coloring, for short [read: 'star' independent coloring]. A *independent coloring is a partition of V into independent color

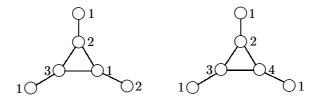


Figure 1: Colorings created with P = maximal-independent

classes $\{V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k\}$, where each V_i is a maximal independent set in the graph $G_i = G - V_1 - V_2 - \cdots - V_{i-1}$. These colorings were first defined by Prins in 1963 [11], who called them Type-1 colorings. The minimum number of colors used over all runs of Algorithm ICA, with inputs G and P = maximal independent, is called the iterated independent domination number of G, and is denoted by $i^*(G)$. The maximum number of colors used over all runs of Algorithm ICA, with G and P = maximal independent as input, is denoted $\beta_0^*(G)$, and is called the iterated independence number of G.

Theorem 2 For any graph G, $i^*(G) = \chi(G)$.

Proof. Because a *independent coloring is a proper coloring, it follows that $\chi(G) \leq i^*(G)$.

Conversely, it can be shown that for any proper coloring of a graph G with k colors, there exists a *independent coloring of G with at most k colors. Let $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k\}$ be any proper coloring of a graph G. If V_1 is not a maximal independent set of G, then create a maximal independent set containing V_1 by moving vertices in V_2 , if any, that are not adjacent to any vertices in V_1 into V_1 . Call the resulting set V_{12} . Next, move any vertices in V_3 into V_{12} if they are not adjacent to any vertices in V_{12} . Call the resulting set V_{13} . Repeat this process iteratively for every set V_4 through V_k . At this point the resulting set V_{1k} will be a maximal independent set of G.

Next, let V_2' be the set of vertices in V_2 that remain after the process of creating V_{1k} . Repeat the process of moving vertices from higher indexed sets into V_2' if possible, resulting in a set V_{2k} which is maximal independent in the graph $G_1 = G - V_{1k}$. This process can be continued for all remaining sets. The resulting coloring will then be a *independent coloring with at most k colors.

It follows from this argument, that if the original proper coloring had been a coloring with $k = \chi(G)$ colors, then the resulting *independent coloring will have at most $\chi(G)$ colors. Thus, $i^*(G) \leq \chi(G)$, and hence, $i^*(G) = \chi(G)$. \square

We can also equate the iterated independence number, $\beta_0^*(G)$ with a well-known coloring invariant. Let $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ be any proper coloring of a graph, and let $v \in V_j$, for some index j. We say that v is a *Grundy vertex* if it is adjacent to at least one vertex $u \in V_i$, for every i, $1 \le i < j$. Notice that every vertex in V_1 is a Grundy vertex. We say that a proper coloring Π is a Grundy coloring if every vertex is a Grundy vertex. The maximum number of colors

used in a Grundy coloring of a graph G is called the *Grundy coloring number* of G, and is denoted GN(G). The Grundy number of a graph is well-studied, see [8, 4, 3, 7, 10], for example.

Theorem 3 For any graph G, $\beta_0^*(G) = GN(G)$.

Proof. The proof is simple, since every Grundy coloring $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ of a graph G is an iterated maximal-independent coloring that can be created by Algorithm ICA. In particular, it can be seen that V_i must be a maximal independent set in $G_i = G - V_1 - V_2 - \dots - V_{i-1}$.

Conversely, it is easily seen that given any *independent coloring, every vertex is a Grundy vertex. \Box

We can create other kinds of colorings using the Algorithm ICA if we change property P. Let G be a graph and let P = minimal-dominating. An assignment of colors to the vertices of G by Algorithm ICA is called an *iterated minimal*-dominating coloring of G, or a *dominating coloring, for short. A *dominating coloring is a partition of V into color classes V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k , each of which is a minimal dominating set of vertices in the graph $G_i = G - V_1 - V_2 - \cdots - V_{i-1}$. The fewest number of colors used over all runs of Algorithm ICA is called the *iterated domination number* of G, and is denoted by $\gamma^*(G)$. The largest number of colors used is called the *iterated upper domination number* of G, and is denoted by $\Gamma^*(G)$.

Since every maximal independent set S is a minimal dominating set, we know that

$$\gamma^*(G) \le i^*(G) = \chi(G) \le \beta_0^*(G) = GN(G) \le \Gamma^*(G) \tag{1}$$

Now let P = maximal-irredundant and G be any graph. An assignment of colors to the vertices of G by Algorithm ICA is called an *iterated maximal-irredundant coloring* of G (or a *irredundant coloring, for short), and is a partition of V into color classes V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k , each of which is a maximal irredundant set in the graph $G_i = G - V_1 - V_2 - \cdots - V_{i-1}$. The largest number of colors used over all runs of Algorithm ICA is called the *iterated upper irredundance number* of G, and is denoted by $IR^*(G)$. The minimum number of colors used is called the *iterated irredundance number* of G, and is denoted by $Ir^*(G)$.

Since every minimal dominating set S is a maximal irredundant set, we have shown the following:

Theorem 4 For any graph G

$$ir^*(G) \le \gamma^*(G) \le i^*(G) \le \beta_0^*(G) \le \Gamma^*(G) \le IR^*(G)$$

3 Alternative characterizations

Two properties completely characterize iterated maximal-independent colorings. One of these properties guarantees that each of the color classes is an independent set, and the other guarantees that each independent set is maximal in the remaining graph G_i . Likewise there are two properties that characterize iterated minimal-dominating colorings; one guarantees that each of the color classes is a dominating set in G_i , and one guarantees that each dominating set is minimal. Because every maximal independent set is a minimal dominating set, the maximality property for independent colorings is very similar to the domination property for iterated minimal-dominating colorings. In similar fashion, there are two properties that characterize iterated maximal-irredundant colorings, one that guarantees irredundance and one that guarantees maximality. Since every minimal dominating set is maximal irredundant, the minimality property for iterated minimal-dominating colorings becomes the irredundance property for iterated maximal-irredundant colorings.

In order to describe the graph G as Algorithm ICA removes vertices, we use the notation $G_i = (V, E_i)$ to represent the graph remaining at the start of iteration i. The initial graph G is G_1 . The vertices in color class $V_i = S$ are removed from G_i during iteration i. The final coloring is denoted $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_k\}$.

3.1 Iterated maximal-independent colorings

In this section we describe two properties that completely characterize *independent colorings of a graph G. We shall show that these properties are both necessary and sufficient to characterize such colorings.

Lemma 1 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *independent coloring of G = (V, E). Then for any two adjacent vertices u and v, $f(u) \neq f(v)$.

Proof. Suppose there are two adjacent vertices u and v with f(u) = f(v) = i. Then color class V_i is not an independent set, which is a contradiction. \square

Lemma 2 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *independent coloring of G = (V, E). Then for every vertex $v \in V$ with f(v) > 1 and for all $i, 1 \le i < f(v)$, there is a vertex w in the neighborhood of v with f(w) = i, that is, v is a Grundy vertex.

Proof. Suppose it is not true that for every vertex $v \in V$ with f(v) > 1 there is a vertex w in the neighborhood of v with f(w) = i for all $i, 1 \le i < f(v)$. Then there must be a vertex $u \in V$ with f(u) > 1 and an $i, 1 \le i < f(u)$, such that there is no vertex $x \in N(u)$ with f(x) = i. But V_i is a maximal independent set in G_i , and as such it is also a dominating set for G_i . Since $u \in V[G_i]$, some vertex with color i dominates u, i.e., some vertex with color i is adjacent to u. This is a contradiction. \square

Theorem 5 The two properties described in Lemmas 1 and 2 are necessary and sufficient to characterize a coloring of a graph G created by Algorithm ICA when P = maximal-independent.

Proof. The lemmas given above show that the properties are necessary for a *independent coloring. We now show that they are sufficient. Given a coloring Π of graph G for which both properties hold, we must show that Π could have been created by the Algorithm ICA with P = maximal-independent. In other words, we must show that for any i, V_i is a maximal independent set for graph G_i . Suppose this is not true. If V_i is not an independent set, then there must exist two vertices in V_i that are adjacent. But Lemma 1 says that any two adjacent vertices must have different colors, which yields a contradiction. Suppose therefore that V_i is not a maximal independent set, i.e., that V_i is not a dominating set. Then there exists a vertex w in G_i that is not adjacent to any vertex colored i. This vertex w will be colored with a color greater than i. By Lemma 2, any vertex with a color greater than 1 is adjacent to vertices of all colors less than its own color, making this a contradiction. \square

3.2 Iterated minimal-dominating colorings

In this section we describe two properties that completely characterize *dominating colorings of a graph G. We show that these properties are necessary and sufficient to characterize such colorings.

Lemma 3 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *dominating coloring of G = (V, E). Then every vertex $v \in V$ is a Grundy vertex, that is, for all $i, 1 \le i < f(v)$, there is a vertex $w \in N(v)$ with f(w) = i.

Proof. Suppose it is not true that every vertex $v \in V$ is a Grundy vertex. Then there must be a vertex $u \in V$ with f(u) > 1 and an $i, 1 \le i < f(u)$, such that there is no vertex $x \in N(u)$ with f(x) = i. But V_i is a dominating set for G_i , and therefore some vertex with color i must dominate u, i.e., some vertex with color i is adjacent to u. This is a contradiction. \square

Lemma 4 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *dominating coloring of G = (V, E). If two adjacent vertices v and w are colored with the same color i < k, there must exist distinct vertices $y \in N(v)$ and $z \in N(w)$ such that f(y) and f(z) are both greater than i, and neither y nor z is adjacent to another vertex colored i.

Proof. The set V_i is a minimal dominating set of G_i . Since any minimal dominating set is also an irredundant set, if vertices v and w are adjacent, then they must each have private neighbors in G_i . \square

Theorem 6 The two properties described in Lemmas 3 and 4 are necessary and sufficient to characterize the colorings of a graph G created by Algorithm ICA when P = minimal-dominating.

Proof. Lemmas 3 and 4 show that the properties are necessary for a *dominating coloring. We now show that they are sufficient. Given a coloring $\Pi = \{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ of a graph G for which both properties hold, we must show that Π can be created by Algorithm ICA with P = minimal-dominating. In other words, we must show that for any i, V_i is a minimal dominating set for graph G_i .

Suppose this is not true. If V_i is not a dominating set, then there must exist some vertex in G_i that is not dominated by V_i . But every vertex in G_i that is not colored i must be adjacent to a vertex colored i (by Lemma 3), which yields a contradiction. Suppose V_i is not a minimal dominating set, i.e., that V_i is not irredundant. Then there exists a vertex w colored i that does not have a private neighbor. Clearly w is adjacent to some other vertex colored i, or w would have itself as a private neighbor. By Lemma 4 any two adjacent vertices of the same color have private neighbors, making this a contradiction. \square

3.3 Iterated maximal-irredundant colorings

In this section we describe two properties that completely characterize *irredundant colorings of a graph G. We shall show that these properties are both necessary and sufficient to characterize such colorings.

Lemma 5 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *irredundant coloring of G = (V, E). Then if two adjacent vertices v and w are colored with the same color i < k, there must exist distinct vertices $y \in N(v)$ and $z \in N(w)$ such that f(y) and f(z) are both greater than i, and neither y nor z is adjacent to another vertex colored i.

Proof. The set V_i is an irredundant set for graph G_i . Thus any two adjacent vertices $v, w \in V_i$ must have private neighbors, say y and z, respectively, in G_i .

Lemma 6 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *irredundant coloring of G = (V, E). For any vertex p with f(p) > 1 and every color $1 \le i < f(p)$, at least one of the following must hold:

- 1. In graph G_i , $N[p] N[V_i] = \emptyset$, that is, vertex p and every neighbor of p colored greater than i are adjacent to some vertex colored i.
- 2. There exists a vertex q in V_i , such that in the graph G_i , $N[q]-N[V_i-\{q\}] \subseteq N[p]$. That is, there is a vertex q colored i whose entire private neighbor set is in N[p].

Proof. Consider any vertex p with f(p) > x. Since V_x is a maximal irredundant set in G_x , the set $V_x \cup \{p\}$ is not irredundant. This set is not irredundant either because vertex p would have no private neighbor with respect to V_x or because vertex p would destroy the private neighbor set for some vertex $q \in V_x$. \square

Theorem 7 The two properties described in Lemmas 5 and 6 are necessary and sufficient to characterize colorings of a graph G created by Algorithm ICA when P = maximal-irredundant.

Proof. Lemmas 5 and 6 show that the properties are necessary for a *irredundant coloring. We now show that they are sufficient. Given a coloring Π of a graph G for which both properties hold, we must show that Π can be created by Algorithm ICA with P = maximal-irredundant. In other words, we must show that for any i, V_i is a maximal irredundant set in graph G_i . Suppose this is not true. If V_i is not an irredundant set, then there must exist some vertex $w \in V_i$ that does not have a private neighbor in G_i . Clearly, w must be adjacent to some other vertex in V_i or w would have itself as a private neighbor. By Lemma 5, any two adjacent vertices of the same color have private neighbors, which yields a contradiction.

Suppose V_i is not a maximal irredundant set in G_i . Then there is some vertex w in $G_i - V_i$ such $V_i \cup \{w\}$ is irredundant. Vertex w must have a color greater than i and therefore greater than 1, so by Lemma 6 one of the following conditions must hold:

- 1. For every color j less than the color of w (this includes i), vertex w and every neighbor of w colored greater than j are adjacent to some vertex colored j. In this case, w could not be added to V_i , a contradiction.
- 2. For every color j less than the color of w there is a vertex q colored j whose entire private neighbor set is in N[w]. Similarly in this case, w could not be added to V_i , another contradiction.

4 Relationships Between Colorings

In this section we show that arbitrarily large differences can exist between each consecutive pairs of invariants in the inequality sequence:

$$ir^*(G) \le \gamma^*(G) \le i^*(G) \le \beta_0^*(G) \le \Gamma^*(G) \le IR^*(G).$$

We use the term *endvertex* to describe a vertex having only one neighbor.

Lemma 7 There can be an arbitrarily large difference between $ir^*(G)$ and $\gamma^*(G)$.

Proof. Consider the graph G on n=3q vertices, $q \geq 3$, where $V=\{a_1,a_2,\ldots,a_q,b_1,b_2,\ldots,b_q,c_1,c_2,\ldots,c_q\}$. Form a complete graph among the a-vertices and another complete graph among the b-vertices. Add the edges $\{a_i,b_i\}$ and $\{b_i,c_i\}$, for $1 \leq i \leq q$. See Figure 2. For this graph, we will show that $ir^*(G)=3$ and $\gamma^*(G)=\lfloor q/2\rfloor+2$.

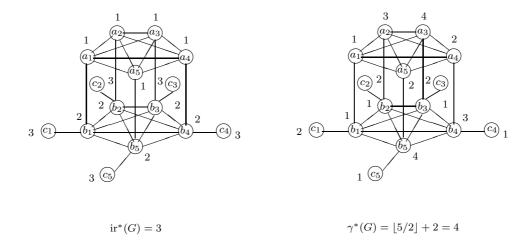


Figure 2: Graph where $\gamma^*(G)$ is greater than $ir^*(G)$.

- 1. A *irredundant coloring using three colors can be found by assigning all the a-vertices the color 1, all the b-vertices color 2, and all the c-vertices color 3. Therefore, $ir^*(G) \leq 3$. If $ir^*(G) \leq 2$, then at least two a-vertices must have the same color, and they must get their private neighbors from the b-vertices. These b-vertices are adjacent and either are assigned different colors or are assigned the same color, getting their private neighbors from the c-vertices. In either case, at least three colors must be used.
- 2. The assignment $a_1=1$; $a_i=2$, for $\lceil q/2 \rceil < i \leq q$; $a_i=i+1$, for $2 \leq i \leq \lceil q/2 \rceil$; $b_i=1$, for $1 \leq i \leq \lceil q/2 \rceil$; $b_i=i-\lceil q/2 \rceil+2$, for $\lceil q/2 \rceil < i \leq q$; $c_i=2$, for $1 \leq i \leq \lceil q/2 \rceil$; and $c_i=1$, for $\lceil q/2 \rceil < i \leq q$, is a *dominating coloring that uses $\lfloor q/2 \rfloor + 2$ colors.
- 3. Let f be a *dominating function for G. To show that $\gamma(G) \geq \lfloor q/2 \rfloor + 2$, requires several observations:
 - (a) Either $f(b_i) = 1$ or $f(c_i) = 1$, $1 \le i \le q$, otherwise vertex c_i is not dominated by V_1 . If $f(b_i) = 1$, then $f(c_i) = 2$, since vertex c_i is an isolate in G_2 .
 - (b) At most one a-vertex can be colored 1, since no b-vertex can be used as a private neighbor with respect to V_1 .
 - (c) If $\gamma(G) < q$, then at least two a-vertices must be assigned the same color, using b-vertices as private neighbors. Let x be the least color such that $f(a_i) = f(a_j) = x, a_i \neq a_j$. In this case, no b-vertices can be colored x. All remaining b-vertices must be dominated in G_x , so all must be adjacent to a-vertices that are colored x. Note that when V_x is removed, G_{x+1} will contain two disjoint cliques. Let R be the number of a-vertices colored x. All b-vertices remaining in G_x must be assigned a color greater than x, and no two vertices within a

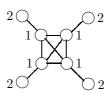


Figure 3: Graph where $\gamma^*(G) = 2$ and $i^*(G) = 4$

remaining clique can be assigned the same color. Therefore, at least one of the *b*-vertices must be assigned a color $y \ge R+2$. Considering all the *a*-vertices in G, R of these vertices are colored x, and no other vertices can have the same color. So q-R+1 colors are used for the *a*-vertices. If $R < \lfloor q/2 \rfloor$, then the *a*-clique will require at least $\lfloor q/2 \rfloor + 2$ colors. If $R \ge \lfloor q/2 \rfloor$, then the *b*-clique will require at least $\lfloor q/2 \rfloor + 2$ colors. Therefore, $\gamma^*(G) = \lfloor q/2 \rfloor + 2$.

Lemma 8 There can be an arbitrarily large difference between $\gamma^*(G)$ and $i^*(G)$.

Proof. Consider a graph G on n = 2q vertices that contains

- \bullet a clique of q vertices, and
- q endvertices, each adjacent to a distinct q clique vertex.

Figure 3 shows a graph with a clique of q=4 vertices. If we use Algorithm ICA with P=minimal-dominating, all of the vertices in the clique can be colored 1, because each of them has a private neighbor. Once the vertices in the clique are removed, we color all of the remaining single vertices 2, so $\gamma^*(G)=2$ for any such graph. However, if we use Algorithm ICA, with P=maximal-independent, on a graph of this type, we require q colors, since each of the vertices in the clique must be assigned a different color. By varying the size of the clique, we can create a graph G with an arbitrarily large difference between $\gamma^*(G)$ and $i^*(G)$. \square

Lemma 9 For any positive integer q there is a tree T on $n = 2^q$ vertices with $i^*(T) = 2$ and $\beta_0^*(T) = \log n + 1$.

Proof. Consider the binomial tree $T = B_q$ with $n = 2^q$ vertices, which can be defined iteratively as follows:

- B_0 consists of one vertex
- B_i consists of a copy of B_{i-1} with each vertex having a new endvertex as a neighbor.

Since B_q is a tree it has chromatic number $\chi(B_q) = i^*(B_q) = 2$. By the above definition it is clear that the leaves of B_q form a maximal independent set and that after removing these endvertices we are left with B_{q-1} . Since $\beta_0^*(B_0) = 1$, we have $\beta_0^*(B_q) \ge q + 1 = \log n + 1$. In fact, equality can be shown to hold. \square

Lemma 10 For any positive integer q there is a bipartite graph G on n = 2q vertices with $\beta_0^*(G) = 2$ and $\Gamma^*(G) = q + 1$.

Proof. Consider the complete bipartite graph $K_{q,q}$. It has only two maximal independent sets, namely the two vertex partition classes. After removing any of these, we are left with a graph without any edges, and thus $\beta_0^*(K_{q,q}) = 2$. On the other hand, any pair of adjacent vertices form a minimal dominating set of $K_{q,q}$. After removal of such a pair, we are left with $K_{q-1,q-1}$. Since $\Gamma^*(K_{1,1}) = 2$, we have $\Gamma^*(K_{q,q}) \geq q+1$. In fact, equality can be shown to hold.

Lemma 11 For any positive integer q there is a graph G on n = 2q vertices with $\Gamma^*(G) = 3$ and $IR^*(G) = q + 1$.

Proof. Consider the graph G_q with two non-adjacent vertices each of degree q-1 and 2q-2 vertices of degree two, obtained for example by starting with a two-vertex graph with q-1 multiple edges connecting these two vertices and then subdividing each edge twice. The degree two vertices induce a matching on q-1 edges. Any minimal dominating set of G_q must for each edge uv in this matching contain either u or v or both of the degree q-1 vertices. After removing such a set, the components of the remaining graph consists of star graphs $K_{1,i}$ with a center and i leaves, $0 \le i \le q-2$. Since a minimal dominating set in a star graph consists either of the center or all of the leaves, we have $\Gamma^*(G_q) = 3$. On the other hand, any two adjacent degree-two vertices u and v of G_q form a maximal irredundant set, since taking any additional vertex would leave either u or v without a private neighbor. After removal of u and v we are left with G_{q-1} . Since G_2 is a path on four vertices, we have $IR^*(G_2) = 3$ so that $IR^*(G_q) \ge q+1$, and, in fact, equality can be shown to hold. \square

The following result was observed by Fricke and Hedetniemi but has never been published:

Lemma 12 For every tree T, $\beta_0^*(T) = \Gamma^*(T)$.

Proof. Assume the contrary. Let T^0 be a smallest tree for which $\beta_0^*(T) < \Gamma^*(T)$. Let S be a minimal dominating set of T^0 whose removal results in a forest F such that $\Gamma^*(T^0) = 1 + \Gamma^*(F)$. Let T_1 be a tree in F such that $\Gamma^*(T_1) = \Gamma^*(F)$. Since T_1 is smaller than T^0 , $\beta_0^*(T_1) = \Gamma^*(T_1)$.

Let Y be the set of all vertices in S that are adjacent to vertices in T_1 . Notice that $|Y| \geq |T_1|$, since every vertex of T_1 is adjacent to a distinct vertex in Y. No two vertices in Y can be adjacent else T^0 contains a cycle. Now let S^0 be any maximal independent set of T^0 containing Y. Notice that $S^0 = T - T_1$ and that T_1 is a tree in $T - S^0$. Thus, $\beta_0^*(T) \geq 1 + \beta_0^*(T_1) = \Gamma^*(T)$; i.e., $\beta_0^*(T) = \Gamma^*(T)$. \square

5 Monotonicity Properties of Parameters

It is well-known that removing edges from a graph cannot increase its chromatic number. We say that a graph parameter is *monotone* if it has this property: its value for a graph H is at least as much as its value for any subgraph of H. In this section we study the monotonicity of iterated coloring parameters, and show that i^* and Γ^* are monotone, while ir^* , γ^* , β_0^* and IR^* are not monotone.

Lemma 13 The iterated independent domination number i^* and the iterated upper domination number Γ^* are monotone.

Proof. Since i^* is equal to the chromatic number it is a monotone parameter. We prove that Γ^* is monotone.

Claim: For any graph G=(V,E), supergraph $H=(V\cup W,E\cup F)$ and minimal dominating set S of G, there exists a minimal dominating set S' of H such that $S'\cap V\subseteq S$.

We first show that if this claim holds, then the lemma follows. Let $\Gamma^*(G) = k$ and let $V_1, V_2, ..., V_k$ be a corresponding partition of V with V_i a minimal dominating set of G_i , the graph remaining after the removal of $V_1, V_2, ..., V_{i-1}$. The claim states that in the supergraph H of G we can find a minimal dominating set V_1' of H with $V_1' \cap V \subseteq V_1$. After the removal of V_1' from H we have a supergraph H_1 of G_1 , and again the claim states the existence of a minimal dominating set V_2' of H_1 with $V_2' \cap V \subseteq V_2$. Repeatedly applying this argument we can conclude that $\Gamma^*(H) \geq \Gamma^*(G)$, showing that Γ^* is a monotone parameter.

Proof of claim: We remove vertices from $S \cup (W - V)$ to give us S' by executing the following procedure, where all neighborhood references are to the supergraph H:

- Set $S' = S \cup (W V)$
- while $\exists v \in S'$ such that $N(v) \cap S' \neq \emptyset$ and v has no private neighbor in V S'

do remove v from S'

The **while**-loop clearly has the invariant: S' is a dominating set of H, since initially $S \subseteq S'$, S is a dominating set of the subgraph G, and any vertex of H not in G is in S'. The invariant is maintained since whenever we remove a vertex v from S' it has a neighbor in S' and any of its neighbors also have

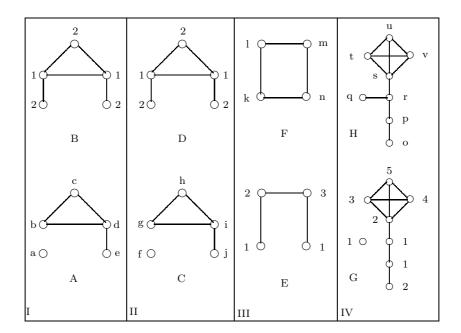


Figure 4: Examples of non-monotonicity. The vertex numbering shows that $ir^*(B) = 2$, $\gamma^*(D) = 2$, $\beta_0^*(E) = 3$ and $IR^*(G) = 5$. We prove that $ir^*(A) = 3$, $\gamma^*(C) = 3$, $\beta_0^*(F) = 2$ and $IR^*(H) = 4$.

another neighbor in S'. Moreover, upon termination of the **while**-loop we know that S' is a minimal dominating set, since there are no vertices triggering the condition in the **while**-loop, so that all vertices in S' have a private neighbor. Equivalently, upon termination the remaining set S' satisfies both Lemma 3 and Lemma 4. \square

Lemma 14 The iterated irredundance number ir^* , the iterated domination number γ^* , the iterated independence number β_0^* , and the iterated upper irredundance number IR^* are **not** monotone.

Proof. See the graphs in Figure 4 which show the non-monotonicity properties. In the bottom row are subgraphs with a higher iterated numbers than the graphs in the top row. The example for ir* in I, for γ^* in II, for β_0^* in III and for IR* in IV.

Since ir* and γ^* are minimization invariants we give an iterated coloring for the graphs B and D, showing that $\operatorname{ir}^*(B) = \gamma^*(D) = 2$. We show that the subgraphs A and C need at least three colors. Any irredundant set in A contains at most one vertex of b, c, d, since otherwise not all vertices of the irredundant set will have a private neighbor. After removal of an irredundant set we are therefore left with at least one edge, and indeed $\operatorname{ir}^*(A) = 3$. Since A and C are isomorphic we know that also $\gamma^*(C) \geq \operatorname{ir}^*(C) = \operatorname{ir}^*(A) = 3$, and in fact equality holds.

Since β_0^* and IR* are maximization invariants, we have indicated an iterated coloring for the subgraphs E and G, showing that $\beta_0^*(E) = 3$ and IR*(G) = 5. We have $\beta_0^*(F) = 2$, since any independent dominating set in F must include two non-adjacent vertices of the 4-cycle, so that after removal no edges are left. The argument for showing that IR* $(H) \leq 4$ is slightly longer. Let S be a maximal irredundant set of H. If $r \in S$ then $q \notin S$, so r has a private neighbor and at least one of $\{s,t,u,v\}$, say u, is in S. But after the removal of S we would then be left with isolated vertices, edges and a 3-cycle on $\{s,t,v\}$, and could remove only three more maximal irredundant sets. On the other hand, if $r \notin S$, then $q \in S$ and at least one of $\{s,t,u,v\}$ and one of $\{o,p\}$ is in S. After removal of S we are then left with, say, the graph on $\{p,r,s,t,v\}$. In this graph a maximal irredundant set must include one of $\{t,u,v\}$ and one of $\{p,r\}$. After its removal we are left with, say, the 3-path on $\{r,s,t\}$ from which at most two more irredundant sets can be removed. The other possibilities are even easier to argue, and we conclude that IR*(H) = 4. \square

6 Algorithmic issues

In the first two subsections below we show, respectively, that for a fixed value of k, the problems of deciding if a graph G has a *dominating coloring that uses at most k colors, or a *irredundant coloring that uses at most k colors, is polynomial-time solvable for k < 3 and NP-complete for $k \ge 3$.

In the final subsection, we show NP-hardness of the problem of finding the $largest\ k$ such that a graph G has a *dominating, a *irredundant, or a *independent coloring, respectively.

6.1 Iterated minimal-dominating k-colorings

ITERATED MINIMAL-DOMINATING k-COLORING (*DOMk)

INSTANCE: Graph G.

QUESTION: Does G have an iterated minimal-dominating coloring that uses at most k colors?

It is well known that a graph can be properly colored with two colors if and only if it is bipartite. This is the same as saying that bipartite graphs can be colored using two colors by Algorithm ICA with $P = maximal \ independent$. Bipartite graphs can also be colored using two colors by Algorithm ICA with $P = minimal \ dominating$. However, some graphs that are not bipartite can also be 2-colored with $P = minimal \ dominating$. For example, consider the graph in Figure 3. In this case we will say that a graph is *dominating 2-colorable, or equivalently, that $\gamma^*(G) = 2$, and such a P-coloring is called a *dominating 2-coloring.

The following polynomial algorithm determines whether or not $\gamma^*(G) = 2$, for any connected graph G of order n > 1. For these graphs it is also true that G

is *dominating 2-colorable by Algorithm ICA with P = minimal dominating. This algorithm makes use of a known polynomial algorithm for solving the following decision problem:

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2-SATISFIABILITY (2SAT)
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INSTANCE: Collection $C = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m\}$ of two-literal clauses on a finite set U of variables.

QUESTION: Is there a truth assignment for U that satisfies all the clauses in C?

Algorithm *dominating-2-colorable

Input: A connected graph G.

Output: A Boolean variable: decision that is **true** if G is $2-\gamma^*$ colorable and **false** otherwise; and a $2-\gamma^*$ coloring of G if G is $2-\gamma^*$ colorable.

- 1. Color all vertices that are adjacent to endvertices: blue.
- 2. Color all edges between two blue vertices: blue.
- 3. Let B equal the set of blue edges.
- 4. if the graph G' = (V, E B) is not bipartite
 - (a) then /* G is not $2 \gamma^*$ colorable */
 set decision = false;
 exit:
 - (b) else /* G' = (V, E B) is bipartite */
 - i. for each connected component C_i of G' do
 - A. let $\{V_1, V_2\}$ be a proper 2-coloring of C_i ;
 - B. assign the value c_i to each vertex in V_1 ;
 - C. assign the value $\overline{c_i}$ to each vertex in V_2 ;
 - ii. create a two-literal clause corresponding to each *blue* edge, for example, (c_i, c_j) or $(\overline{c_i}, c_k)$, this creates an instance 2SAT(G) of the 2-satisfiability problem;
 - iii. if 2SAT(G) is not satisfiable then decision = false; exit;
 - iv. else decision = true; solve the 2SAT(G) problem; assign color 1 to all vertices whose corresponding literal is true; assign color 2 to all vertices whose corresponding literal is false; exit.

The graph in Figure 5 is *dominating 2-colorable. The clauses that result from the *blue* edges are (\bar{c}_1, \bar{c}_2) and (\bar{c}_2, \bar{c}_2) . We can solve the 2-SATISFIABILITY problem by letting c_1 be **true** and c_2 be **false**. Then all the vertices colored c_1 and \bar{c}_2 are assigned color 1, while all other vertices are assigned color 2.

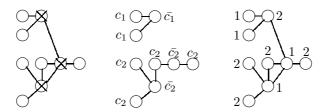


Figure 5: 2-colorable graph (P = minimal dominating).

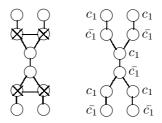


Figure 6: Graph that is not *dominating 2-colorable).

The graph in Figure 6 is not $2 - \gamma^*$ colorable, however. The clauses that result from the *blue* edges are (c_1, c_1) and $(\bar{c_1}, \bar{c_1})$. This 2-SATISFIABILITY problem is not solvable.

Lemma 15 When **Algorithm *dominating-2-colorable** executes instruction 4.(b).iv, it produces a *dominating 2-coloring.

Proof. No two vertices colored 2 are adjacent, that is, the set of vertices colored 2 is independent. Therefore, any vertex colored 2 must be adjacent to a vertex colored 1. If two adjacent vertices are colored 1, they must be connected by a *blue* edge, which means that each of them is adjacent to an endvertex colored 2. \Box

Lemma 16 If a graph G has a *dominating 2-coloring, then **Algorithm *dominating-**2-colorable produces a *dominating 2-coloring of G.

Proof. Let G be a graph that has a *dominating 2-coloring, and assume that **Algorithm *dominating-2-colorable** cannot 2-color G. There are two stages where the algorithm could determine that G is not 2-colorable. The first occurs when all blue edges are removed from G, and the resulting graph G' = (V, E - B) is not bipartite. If G' is not bipartite, then there is an odd cycle in G', and two adjacent vertices in this cycle must be assigned the same color. These two vertices cannot both be colored 2 because by Lemma 4 they would then have to be adjacent to vertices of a higher color, and there are only two colors. However, they also cannot both be colored 1 because both vertices would need endvertices as private neighbors. If both had adjacent endvertices, then the edge between them would have been colored blue by the algorithm.

The second stage where the algorithm could fail to 2-color a graph is when the 2-SATISFIABILITY problem has no solution (i.e. there is no way to assign colors to vertices incident with the *blue* edges, such that at least one of the vertices is colored 1). Note that no two adjacent vertices in G' can be colored the same color. Therefore, if there is a 2-coloring for G, then the colors assigned to vertices incident with *blue* edges (1 - **true**, 2 - **false**) should be a satisfiable truth assignment. \Box

Theorem 8 The decision problem *DOMk is polynomial-time solvable for k = 2 and NP-complete for any fixed $k, k \geq 3$.

The case k = 2 has just been shown. For lack of space the NP-completeness reduction, from the well-known SAT problem, is given in an appendix.

Let us merely mention the following lemmas required for the NP-completeness proof, that may be of independent interest:

Lemma 17 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *dominating coloring for G. Then for any two adjacent vertices p and q, if f(p) = f(q), there exists some vertex $w \in N[p] - N[q]$, with f(w) > f(p).

Proof. By Lemma 4, vertex p must be adjacent to a vertex with a higher label that no other vertex with label f(p) is adjacent to. All neighbors of vertex p that are not in N[p] - N[q] are also adjacent to vertex q. \square

Lemma 18 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *dominating k-coloring for G. Then for any two vertices p and q, if f(p) = f(q), then $N[p] - N[q] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof. If $N[p] - N[q] = \emptyset$, then vertices p and q must be adjacent. By Corollary 17, if two adjacent vertices p and q are given the same label, then $N[p] - N[q] \neq \emptyset$. \square

Lemma 19 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *dominating k-coloring for G. Then for any vertex p, the degree of p is greater than or equal to f(p) - 1.

Proof. This follows from Lemma 3. A vertex p with a label f(p) > 1 must be adjacent to vertices with labels 1..p - 1. \square

6.2 Iterated maximal-irredundant *k*-colorings

ITERATED MAXIMAL-IRREDUNDANT k-COLORING (*IRRk) INSTANCE: graph G = (V, E)

QUESTION: does G have an iterated maximal-irredundant coloring that uses at most k colors?

Lemma 20 If G is 2-colorable with property P = maximal irredundant, then G is also 2-colorable with P = minimal dominating.

Proof. Let G be a graph with $ir^*(G) = 2$, and let Π be a *irredundant 2-coloring of G. Then Π is also a *dominating 2-coloring. Note that a vertex v colored 2 must be adjacent to some other vertex in G, as all isolates in G must be colored 1. Vertex v cannot be adjacent to any other vertex colored 2, otherwise V_2 is not irredundant. Therefore, vertex v is adjacent to a vertex colored 1. Lemma 3 is satisfied. We do not have to check Lemma 4, since it is also a requirement for *irredundant colorings (see Lemma 5.) \square

Theorem 9 The decision problem *IRRk is polynomial-time solvable for k = 2 and NP-complete for any fixed $k, k \geq 3$.

The case k=2 has just been shown. The NP-completeness proof is for space reasons to be found in the appendix. We mention an observation used in the proof that may be of independent interest.

Corollary 1 Let $f: V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$ be a *irredundant k-coloring for G. Then for any two adjacent vertices p and q, if f(p) = f(q), there exists some vertex $w \in N[p] - N[q]$, with f(w) > f(p).

Proof. By Lemma 4, vertex p must be adjacent to a vertex with a higher color that no other vertex with color f(p) is adjacent to. All neighbors of vertex p that are not in N[p] - N[q] are also adjacent to vertex q. \square

6.3 Iterated Independence, Upper Domination and Upper Irredundance

ITERATED UPPER IRREDUNDANCE

INSTANCE: graph G = (V, E)

QUESTION: does G have an iterated maximal-irredundant coloring

using at least k colors?

Theorem 10 ITERATED UPPER IRREDUNDANCE is NP-complete.

The proof can be found in the appendix.

ITERATED MAXIMUM INDEPENDENCE

INSTANCE: Graph G, positive integer k.

QUESTION: Does G have an iterated maximal-independent coloring

that uses at least k colors?

ITERATED UPPER DOMINATION

INSTANCE: Graph G, positive integer k.

QUESTION: Does G have an iterated minimal-dominating coloring

that uses at least k colors?

Theorem 11 ITERATED MAXIMUM INDEPENDENCE and ITERATED UPPER DOMINATION are NP-complete.

Proof. Clearly, the two problems are in NP. We use the same construction as for ITERATED MAXIMUM IRREDUNDANCE. As shown in Theorem 10, if the G3C instance is 3-colorable, then G' would have a *independent, and *dominating, k-coloring. If G' has an *independent (or *dominating) k-coloring, then it has a *irredundant k-coloring, and by the theorem, the G3C instance is 3-colorable. \square

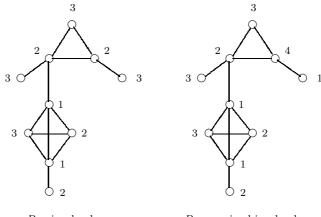
7 Open Problems

Many problems and questions have been raised by our study of iterated colorings of graphs. We conclude by providing a list of some of the most interesting ones.

1. What can you say about $\gamma^*(G)$ and $ir^*(G)$ for planar graphs? Since $i^*(G) = \chi(G)$, we know from the Four Color Theorem [1, 2] that if G is planar, then

$$ir^*(G) \le \gamma^*(G) \le i^*(G) = \chi(G) \le 4.$$

Can you prove that, for planar graphs G, $\gamma^*(G) \leq 4$, without using the Four Color Theorem? Failing this, can you prove that $ir^*(G) \leq 4$, for planar graphs G, without using the Four Color Theorem?



P = irredundance P = maximal irredundance

Figure 7: This graph requires 3 colors if P = irredundant, but 4 colors if P = maximal irredundant.

- 2. Investigate property P = irredundant, rather than $P = maximal\ irredundant$. The graph in Figure 7 can be 3-colored with P = irredundant, but requires four colors if $P = maximal\ irredundant$.
- 3. What can you say about iterated coloring numbers for such properties as $P = maximal \ 2$ -packing or P = G[S] is acyclic.
- 4. What are the effects of adding or removing edges from G on $ir^*(G)$ and $\gamma^*(G)$. Adding edges to a graph cannot reduce $i^*(G)$, but adding edges can reduce $ir^*(G)$ or $\gamma^*(G)$. In Figure 7 we see that $ir^*(G) = 4$, but if we add the new edge shown in Figure 8, $ir^*(G) = 3$. In Figure 9 we show that $\gamma^*(G)$ can be reduced from 4 to 3 by the addition of a new edge.

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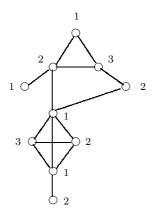


Figure 8: $ir^*(G)$ is reduced from 4 to 3 by the addition of a new edge (see previous figure).

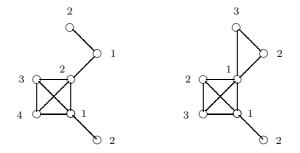


Figure 9: Here we have reduced $\gamma^*(G)$ from 4 to 3 by the addition of a new edge.

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8 APPENDIX

We first give the NP-completeness reduction completing the proof of Theorem 8.

Proof. Clearly *DOMk is in NP. We need only guess a coloring Π , and in O(E) time, using Lemmas 3 and 4, it can be verified that Π is a *dominating k-coloring that uses at most k colors.

A transformation from the well-known SAT problem to *DOMk is given below. We show that given an arbitrary instance of SAT, we can transform the instance into a graph G, such that there exists a satisfiable truth assignment for the SAT instance if and only if there exists a *dominating coloring of G with at most k colors, where k > 2 is fixed.

Let an arbitrary instance of SAT be represented by a set of variables $U = \{u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_n\}$ and a set of clauses $C = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_m\}$. Our transformation has three components: variable components, clause components, and a communication component.

- 1. Variable components: For each variable u_i in the SAT instance, create a variable component. Start with a complete graph K_k on k vertices and identify any two vertices in K_k , labeling them p_i and \bar{p}_i . Create two new vertices labeled u_i and \bar{u}_i . Connect u_i to all vertices in K_k except for p_i , and connect \bar{u}_i to all vertices in K_k , except for \bar{p}_i
- 2. Clause components: For each clause c_j in the SAT instance, create a clause component, consisting of a path on three vertices, with the first vertex in the path labeled c_j . Connect each c_j vertex to the u variable vertices whose names correspond to the literals in the clause c_j .
- 3. Communication component: Create a complete graph K_{2k-2} on 2k-2 vertices, and label k-1 of the vertices with labels $r_1...r_{k-1}$. Add k-1 additional vertices $s_1...s_{k-1}$ along with the edges (r_i, s_i) , $1 \le i \le k-1$. Add two more vertices x_1 and x_2 and the two edges (x_1, s_1) and (x_1, x_2) . Form a complete graph among the s vertices and the s vertices from the clause components.

Clearly, this construction is polynomial with respect to the size of the SAT input. The remainder of the proof requires two parts. First, we show that if the SAT instance has a satisfiable truth assignment, then G has a *dominating coloring that uses at most k colors. Given a satisfiable truth assignment g, an iterated dominating coloring function f can be found in this manner:

- 1. Variable components: if SAT variable u_i is assigned **true**, then $f(u_i) = f(p_i) = 1$ and $f(\bar{u}_i) = f(\bar{p}_i) = 3$; otherwise if SAT variable u_i is assigned **false**, then $f(u_i) = f(p_i) = 3$ and $f(\bar{u}_i) = f(\bar{p}_i) = 1$. Assign the colors 2, 4, ..., k to the other k-2 vertices in the variable component using a different label for each of these vertices.
- 2. Clause components: assign all c_j variables the color 2, and the middle vertices in the component paths the color 3, and assign the color 1 to all the end-vertices in the paths.

3. Communication component: Assign all r vertices the color 1, and assign to the other k-1 vertices in the complete graph the colors $2, 3, 4, 5, \ldots, k$, using a different label for each of these vertices. Let $f(x_1) = 3$ and $f(x_2) = 1$. Let $f(s_i) = i + 1$, for $1 \le i \le k - 1$.

We consider each vertex in turn to show that this assignment is a valid *dominating coloring.

- 1. No two adjacent vertices in a variable component have the same color, and every vertex is in a complete graph with k vertices, all which have different colors. Therefore, every vertex i with color f(i) > 1 is adjacent to some vertex with color f(j), for any j, $1 \le j < i$. Note also that no u_i or $\bar{u_i}$ variable has the same color as a c_i variable.
- 2. In the clause components, no vertices, other than the c_j vertices are adjacent to any vertices with the same color. The vertices colored 3 are adjacent to vertices colored 1 and 2. All c_j vertices are colored 2, and they are adjacent to a u or \bar{u} vertex that is colored 1; note this u or \bar{u} vertex corresponds to a true literal from the SAT instance. Each c_j vertex is adjacent to a vertex colored 3 (the vertex in the middle of the path) that no other vertex colored 2 is adjacent to.
- 3. In the communication component, the x_1 and x_2 variables are not adjacent to any vertices that match their own color. Furthermore, x_1 is adjacent to a vertex colored 1 and a vertex colored 2. Other than s_1 , no s_i variable is adjacent to a variable with the same color as its own, and each s_i is adjacent to some vertex of every other color between 1 and k inclusive. Vertex s_1 is the only vertex with color 2 adjacent to x_1 , so it can get a private neighbor from x_1 . Finally, consider the vertices in the 2k-2 clique. The r vertices have private neighbors of the corresponding s vertices. The other vertices in the clique are not adjacent to any other vertex with the same color, but they are adjacent to all colors other than their own.

Second, we must show that if G has a *dominating coloring f using k or fewer colors, then the SAT instance is satisfiable. Given a *dominating coloring for G with k or fewer colors, a truth assignment g can be found for the SAT instance in this manner: if $f(u_i) = 1$, then $g(u_i) = \mathbf{true}$, otherwise $g(u_i) = \mathbf{false}$. We show this is a valid truth assignment by proving that each c_j vertex is adjacent to a u-vertex with a \mathbf{true} label 1. We also show that it is not possible that $f(u_i) = f(\bar{u}_i) = 1$. This requires several observations.

1. Consider the vertices in the 2k-2 clique in the communication component. The k-1 unlabeled vertices all share the same closed neighborhoods, so by Corollary 18, they must all be different colors. Also, no unlabeled vertex can have the same color as any one of the r vertices because the closed neighborhood of any unlabeled vertex is a subset of the closed neighborhood of any r vertex. Since only k colors are used for G, it follows that all r vertices are colored the same, and that they must get private

- neighbors from the s-vertices. Since the s-vertices are private neighbors, each must have a color greater than 1.
- 2. Two vertices s_i and s_j , i < j, cannot have the same color because $N[j] N[i] = \{r_j\}$, and r_j cannot be a private neighbor for s_j , since s_j is a private neighbor for r_j . Therefore all s-vertices must have different colors other than 1, necessarily 2..k. These vertices are private neighbors for r vertices which all must have been colored 1.
- 3. We now show that the c vertices must all be colored 2. Note that the c vertices must have the same color as s_1 :
 - (a) vertex c_j cannot have a color of 1, because the s vertices are private neighbors of the r vertices that are colored 1.
 - (b) vertex c_j cannot have the same color as any of the s_i vertices i > 1, since $N[s_i] N[c_j] = \{r_i\}$ and r_i cannot be a private neighbor for s_i .
 - (c) There is only one color possible for c_j and that is s_1 's color. Vertex s_1 will get its private neighbor from x_1 and x_1 must be colored 3: vertex x_1 cannot be colored lower than 3 and be a private neighbor for s_1 , and it cannot have a higher color than 3 since it is adjacent to only two vertices.
- 4. In any vertex component, either the k-clique is colored with k colors or the k-clique is colored with k-1 colors and the two labeled vertices are colored the same color (this is because all vertices in the clique have neighborhoods that are contained in the neighborhood of any unlabeled vertex). If the k-clique is colored with k-1 colors then the two u-vertices must be private neighbors for the labeled vertices, and their color must be the same as the color missing in the clique.
- 5. The two u-vertices in a vertex component must not both be assigned 1; otherwise the k-clique would have to be colored with k colors, and the k-clique vertex colored 1 would have no private neighbor.
- 6. If a u-vertex is assigned a color greater than 1, then the k-1 vertex component clique vertices that it is joined to must be all different colors, and these colors must be different from u, otherwise either the u vertex or the two clique vertices would not have private neighbors in the case of a match.
- 7. No c_i clause vertex can use a u-vertex as a private neighbor, because if the u-vertex is assigned a color other than 1, then it is adjacent to a vertex colored 2 in its component's clique. Therefore all c_i vertices get their private neighbors from the center vertices in the paths. These center vertices are colored 3. Each c_i clause vertex must be adjacent to a vertex colored 1. These must come from the u-vertices.

We now give the NP-completeness reduction completing the proof of Theorem 9.

Proof. Clearly *IRRk is in NP. We need only guess a coloring f, and in O(E) time, using Lemmas 5 and 6, it can be verified whether f is a *irredundant coloring that uses at most k colors.

A transformation from the Exact Cover by 3-Sets problem (X3C) from [6] to *IRRk is given below. We show that given an arbitrary instance of X3C, we can transform the instance into a graph G, such that there exists a satisfiable truth assignment for the X3C instance if and only if there exists an iterated irredundance coloring of G with at most k colors, where k > 2 is fixed.

EXACT COVER BY 3-SETS

INSTANCE: Set X of elements, |X| = 3q, and a collection C of 3-element subsets of X.

QUESTION: Does C have an exact cover C'; i.e., every element of X appears in exactly one subset in C'?

Let a set of elements $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_{3q}\}$ and a collection of subsets $C = \{c_1, c_2, c_3, ..., c_m\}$ be an arbitrary instance of X3C. Our transformation has two types of components: element components and subset components.

- 1. Element components: For each element x_i in the X3C instance, create an element component. Start with a complete graph on k+1 vertices and select any two vertices in the complete graph, labeling them x_i and y_i . Create another vertex labeled p_i , and add the edge $\{p_i, y_i\}$.
- 2. Subset components: For each subset c_j in the X3C instance, create a subset component. For the subset components, again begin with a complete graph on k+1 vertices, and select any three vertices in the complete graph labeling them $c_{j,1}$, $c_{j,2}$, and $c_{j,3}$ / Create three new vertices $q_{j,1}$, $q_{j,2}$, $q_{j,3}$ and add edges $\{q_{j,1}, c_{j,1}\}$, $\{q_{j,2}, c_{j,2}\}$ and $\{q_{j,3}, c_{j,3}\}$. Connect $c_{j,1}$, $c_{j,2}$, and $c_{j,3}$ to the x_i element vertices whose names correspond to the elements in the subset c_j .

Clearly, this construction is polynomial with respect to the size of the X3C input. Figure 10 illustrates the construction described above for k = 4.

In this part of the proof, we will use the notation c_{j*} to refer to an arbitrary vertex from c_{j1} , c_{j2} , or c_{j3} . Similarly, the notation q_{j*} will be used. Also, the term xvertex will refer to any vertex labeled x_i . First we show that if the X3C instance has an exact cover, then G has a *irredundant coloring that uses at most k colors. Given an exact cover C', a *irredundant coloring f can be found in this manner:

1. Subset components: If c_j is a subset in the exact cover, let $f(c_{j1}) = f(c_{j2}) = f(c_{j3}) = 2$, and $f(q_{j1}) = f(q_{j2}) = f(q_{j3}) = 3$, and assign the colors $3, 4, \ldots, k$ to the other k-2 vertices in the subset component using a different color for each of these vertices. If c_j is not a subset in the exact cover, let $f(c_{j1}) = f(c_{j2}) = f(c_{j3}) = 1$, and $f(q_{j1}) = f(q_{j2}) = f(q_{j3}) = 2$, and assign the colors $2, 3, \ldots, k-1$ to the other k-2 vertices in the

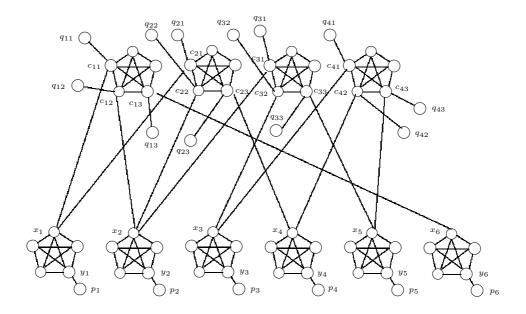


Figure 10: Transformation to *IRRk from X3C where $X = \{x_1, x_2, ..., x_6\}$ and $C = \{\{x_1, x_2, x_6\}, \{x_1, x_2, x_4\}, \{x_2, x_3, x_5\}, \{x_3, x_4, x_5\}\}.$

complete graph in the subset component using a different color for each of these vertices.

2. Element components: For each element component assign x_i and y_i the value 1, and p_i the value 2. Assign $2, 3, 4, \ldots, k$ to the other k-1 vertices in the complete graph.

We consider each vertex in turn to show that this assignment is a valid *irredundant coloring.

- 1. The only two adjacent vertices in an element component that have the same color are x_i and y_i . The y_i vertices will have the p_i vertices as private neighbors, and the x_i vertices will have private neighbors in the c_j component that covers it from the exact cover. No vertex in an element component can be given a lower value because it would not have a private neighbor with respect to that value.
- 2. In the subset component, all vertices have private neighbors within the subset component. In the components where the corresponding subsets form the exact cover, the $c_{j,*}$ vertices are being used as private neighbors by some x vertices, and so no vertices in these subset components can be colored 1. No vertex can be given a lower color greater than 1 because it would not have a private neighbor with respect to that color.

Now we must show that if G has a *irredundant coloring f using k or fewer colors that the X3C instance has an exact cover. Given a *irredundant coloring

for G with k or fewer colors, an exact cover C' can be found for the X3C instance in this manner: if $f(q_{1j}) > 2$, then c_j is in C'; otherwise c_j is not in C'. We show this is a valid exact cover by proving that each of the x_i vertices is colored 1 and must get its private neighbor from a c_{j*} vertex. Further we show that if a c_{j*} vertex is used as a private neighbor, then c_{j1} , c_{j2} , and c_{j3} must all be used as sole private neighbors for some x vertices. This is the only case in which $f(q_{1j}) > 2$.

This requires several observations.

- 1. Consider the vertices in the k+1 clique in an element component. To color these vertices with k colors, two vertices must be the same color, and the private neighbors must come from outside the clique. Therefore the two vertices with the same color are x_i and y_i . Every other vertex inside the clique will use itself as a private neighbor with respect to its color set. The vertex p_i is a private neighbor for y_i , so clearly $f(p_i) > 1$. By Lemma 2, if $f(p_i) > 1$, then either p(i) would have to be adjacent to a vertex colored 1, or it would have to destroy a private neighbor set for a vertex colored 1. This can only occur if $f(y_i) = 1$.
- 2. Consider a vertex c_{j*} that is used as a private neighbor for some vertex x_i . We show that all three of c_{j1} , c_{j2} , and c_{j3} must be used as sole private neighbors for some x vertices.
 - First, no vertex in the c_j clique can be colored 1, otherwise $c_{j,*}$ could not be used as a private neighbor for the x_i vertex. It follows that the k+1 vertices in the subset clique are assigned from the k-1 colors $\{2,3,4,\ldots,k\}$. The k-2 unlabeled vertices in the clique must all have different colors, and these must be colored differently than the labeled vertices. Therefore, all the labeled vertices in the c_j component must be the same color. The labeled clique vertices must have private neighbors from the q vertices. Note then that the q vertices in this component must have colors greater than 2. By Lemma 6, we know that a vertex colored greater than 2 must either have no private neighbor with respect to V_1 or must be adjacent to all private neighbors of some vertex in V_1 . A q vertex in this component is not adjacent to any vertex with value one, so it must destroy the private neighbor set of some vertex with color 1, namely an x vertex. Therefore it must be that c_{j1} , c_{j2} , and c_{j3} are all needed as a sole private neighbor for some x vertex.
- 3. Using the reasoning from above, if $f(q_{j1} > 2)$, then either $c_{j1} = 1$ or vertex c_{j1} is used as a unique private neighbor for an x_i vertex. If $f(c_{j1}) = 1$, then q_{j1} is an isolate in G_2 and must be colored 2, a contradiction. Therefore, if $f(q_{j1}) > 2$, then c_{j1} , c_{j2} , and c_{j3} must all be used as sole private neighbors for x vertices.
- 4. We have shown that each of the x vertices (and there are 3q of these vertices) must have a private neighbor from a c vertex. These private neighbors must be sole private neighbors, and must be from a subset



Figure 11: Vertex-edge component.

component where all three c vertices are used as sole private neighbors. Therefore there are exactly q subset components with $f(q_{j1}) > 2$, and the corresponding subsets form an exact cover C'.

We give the proof of Theorem 10:

Proof. Clearly ITERATED UPPER IRREDUNDANCE is in NP. We need only guess a coloring f, and in polynomial time verify that f is a *irredundant coloring that uses at least k colors.

Given an arbitrary instance G of Graph 3-Colorability, we transform the instance into a graph G' and positive integer k, such that there exists a (proper) 3-coloring for G if and only if there exists a *irredundant k-coloring for G'.

First, create a graph G'' by adding a disjoint K_2 to G. Label the K_2 vertices with $v_{|V|+1}$ and $v_{|V|+2}$ and the edge with $e_{|E|+1}$. We will transform G'' to a graph G' that has two types of components: vertex-edge components and edge components.

- 1. Vertex-edge components: For each vertex v_i in G'' create a tree as shown in Figure 11, rooting the tree at v_i . For each edge e_j in graph G'', add the same tree as shown in Figure 11, rooting the tree at $v_{|V''|+j}$.
- 2. Edge components: For each edge e_j in G'', create an additional vertex e_j . Three edges will be added from this vertex to the vertex-edge components: add edges from this vertex to the two v-vertices that are endpoints of the edge and also to the $v_{|V''|+j}$ vertex from the vertex-edge component. Form a clique among the e_j vertices.
- 3. Let k = |E''| + 3.

Clearly, this construction is polynomial with respect to the size of the G3C input.

First we show that if G has a 3-coloring, then G' has a *irredundant coloring that uses k colors. Given a 3-coloring g for G, an iterated irredundance coloring function f can be found in this manner:

1. Vertex-edge components: Let $f(v_i) = g(v_i)$, for $i \leq |V|$. Let $f(v_{|V|+1}) = 1$ and $f(v_{|V|+2}) = 2$. For each v_i vertex, i = |V''| + j, representing an edge e_j with endpoints v_a and v_b in G'', let $f(v_{|V|+j}) = 6 - g(v_a) - g(v_b)$; in

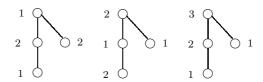


Figure 12: Coloring a vertex-edge component.

other words either 1, 2, or 3, whichever of those colors is not used for its endpoints v_a and v_b . Color the other vertices in the vertex-edge trees corresponding to the tree in Figure 12 that has the same root color as $f(v_i)$.

2. Edge components: Let $f(e_i) = 3 + j$.

It is easy to see that this assignment is a valid *irredundant k-coloring. Each color class C_i is a maximal independent set (and therefore maximal irredundant) with respect to the graph G'_i . Note that each e_j vertex is adjacent to vertices colored 1, 2, and 3 from the vertex-edge component.

Now we must show that if G' has an iterated irredundance coloring f using k or more colors, then the G3C instance has a proper 3-coloring. Given a *irredundant coloring f for G' with k or more colors, a proper 3-coloring g for G can be found by letting $g(v_i) = f(v_i)$ for each vertex v_i in G. We will show that this is a proper 3-coloring.

This requires several observations.

- 1. In each vertex-edge component tree, at least one of the vertices v_i , w_i , or x_i must be colored 1. Otherwise C_1 is not a maximal irredundant set.
- 2. If two adjacent vertices in a vertex-edge component tree are the same color, then the two vertices must be v_i and w_i . In this case, v_i and w_i must be colored 1, and both can get private neighbors from within the tree. No vertex outside the clique will have its private neighborhood set contained within the clique.
- 3. Every vertex p in the clique must be adjacent to vertices colored m, for $1 \leq m < f(p)$. Otherwise $C_m \cup p$ is irredundant in G_m , contradicting the maximality of C_m .
- 4. Since there are k-3 vertices in the clique, and k colors used to color G', there are at least three colors missing from the clique. Consider the largest color m missing in the clique, and let y be a vertex with f(y) = m. Then for every other missing color in the clique, y must be adjacent to some vertex of that color, otherwise y could be given a lower color. Since no non-clique vertex is adjacent to more than two other non-clique vertices, there are only three colors missing from the clique, and all vertices in the clique have a different color.

- 5. Let $c_1 \leq c_2 \leq c_3$ be the three colors missing from the clique. Let y be any vertex not in the clique. Then if $f(y) > c_1$, then y must be adjacent to a vertex colored c_1 , if $f(y) > c_2$, then y must be adjacent to a vertex colored c_2 , and if $f(y) > c_3$, then y must be adjacent to a vertex colored c_3 . Note that no vertex outside the clique can have a value greater than c_3 , because its degree outside the clique is at most 2.
- 6. Consider a vertex y with value c_3 . It is adjacent to two vertices outside the clique, so y must either be a v or w vertex from a vertex-edge component. If y is a v vertex, then the w vertex is colored c_2 and the other two vertices in the tree component are colored c_1 . If y is a w vertex, then the v vertex is colored c_2 . In either case, $c_1 = 1$.
- 7. Let y be a vertex with $f(y) = c_3$ in a vertex-edge component with root v_i (possibly $v_i = y$). Let p be any clique vertex that is not adjacent to v_i . Then, $f(p) > f(w_i)$; otherwise $C_{f(p)} \cup w_i$ would be irredundant in G_p . Therefore, $f(p) > c_2$. Further, $f(p) > c_3$, otherwise $C_{f(p)} \cup y$ would be irredundant in G_p . Note that p cannot be adjacent to another vertex colored p (all clique vertices are different colors, and an adjacent v_j vertex colored f(p) would have to be adjacent to a c_1 and c_2 by (4) above and could not get a private neighbor with respect to $C_{f(p)}$.
- 8. Let p be any clique vertex. If $f(p) < c_3$, then p must be adjacent to all vertex-edge components that contain a vertex colored c_3 . Also, if $f(p) > c_3$, then p must be adjacent to some vertex-edge component colored c_3 . Consider the clique vertex that represents the K_2 edge added to make G''. Its neighborhood outside the clique is disjoint from any other clique vertex. Therefore, no clique vertex can be adjacent to all vertex-edge components containing c_3 vertices. The clique vertices are colored 4..|E''|, and each must be adjacent to a vertex colored 1, 2, 3 and 3.
- 9. The function g will employ only the colors 1, 2, and 3. Also, any two endpoints of an edge in G will be colored differently.