RECOGNIZING SELF-CLIQUE GRAPHS

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Abstract

The clique graph K(G) of a graph G is the intersection graph of all the (maximal) cliques of G. A connected graph G is self-clique if $G \cong K(G)$. Self-clique graphs have been studied since 1973. We proposed recently a hierarchy of self-clique graphs: Type $3 \subsetneq \text{Type } 2 \subsetneq \text{Type } 1 \subsetneq \text{Type } 0$. Here we study the computational complexity of the corresponding recognition problems. We show that recognizing graphs of Type 0 and Type 1 is polynomially equivalent to the graph isomorphism problem. Partial results for Types 2 and 3 are also presented.

1 Preliminaries

Self-clique graphs, discovered by Escalante in [7], have also been studied in [1, 4, 6, 11–13]. Hedman [10] asked if such graphs can be characterized. We refer to [15] for the bibliography on clique graphs. We learned recently that Balconi [2] also has related results. Our few undefined terms and symbols are standard and can be found in [5, 8, 9].

If G is a (finite, simple) graph and $X \subseteq V(G)$, we denote by G[X] the subgraph of G induced by X, and we usually identify X with G[X]. In particular we often write $x \in G$ instead of $x \in V(G)$, and identify the cliques of G (which are maximal complete subgraphs) with their vertex sets.

We denote the distance between two vertices $x, y \in G$ by d(x, y) or $d_G(x, y)$. The disk of radius r centered at x in G is denoted by $D_G^r(x) = \{y \in G : d(x, y) \leq r\}$. When r = 1, $D_G^1(x) = N_G[x]$ is the closed neighbourhood of x. On the other hand, the neighbourhood $N_G(x)$ is the set of all neighbours of x in G.

Keywords: clique graphs, self-clique graphs, vertex-clique bipartite graph, computational complexity, graph isomorphism problem.

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We say that a vertex $v \in G$ is dominated $(by \ w)$ if $N_G[v] \subseteq N_G[w]$ for some $w \neq v$ in G. For instance, in a triangleless graph, dominated means terminal. The n-th power graph G^n has $V(G^n) = V(G)$, $E(G^n) = \{\{x,y\} : d_G(x,y) \leq n\}$.

A family \mathcal{F} of subsets of a set $X \neq \emptyset$ is Helly if $\cap \mathcal{S} \neq \emptyset$ for any pairwise intersecting subfamily $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. A graph G is Helly if the family of cliques of G is Helly. For instance, every triangleless graph is Helly.

The vertex-clique bipartite graph (see [18]) BK(G) of G has $V(BK(G)) = V(G) \cup V(K(G))$ and $E(BK(G)) = \{\{x,Q\} : x \in Q\}$. The neighbourhoods in BK(G) are as follows: $N(Q) = Q \subseteq V(G)$ for $Q \in K(G)$ and $N(v) = v^* \subseteq V(K(G))$ for $v \in G$. Here $v^* = \{Q \in K(G) : v \in Q\}$ is the star of v.

Let's recall the hierarchy of self-clique graphs studied in [11]. A graph G is of $Type\ 0$ if it is self-clique: connected and $G\cong K(G)$. A graph G is of $Type\ 1$ if it is a Helly self-clique graph. The distinction between Helly and non-Helly self-clique graphs was already made by Escalante in [7]. A connected graph G is involutive or of $Type\ 2$ if B=BK(G) has a part-switching involution, that is, B has an automorphism $\varphi:B\to B$ such that $\varphi(V(G))=V(K(G))$, $\varphi(V(K(G)))=V(G)$ and $\varphi^2=\mathrm{id}$. It was shown in [11] that all previously published graphs of Type 1 were indeed of Type 2. Finally, a connected graph G is said to be clique-disk or of $Type\ 3$ if G does not have dominated vertices and there is a graph G such that $G=R^2$ and the cliques of G are precisely the disks of radius 1 of G, in symbols: $V(K(G))=\bigcup_{x\in G}\{N_R[x]\}$.

In this paper we are interested in the time complexity of recognizing whether a given graph G is of Type N for N = 0, 1, 2, 3. We shall use the following tags for the indicated decision problems:

- ISO: Graph isomorphism problem.
- SELF: Self-clique graph recognition.
- HSELF: Helly self-clique graph recognition.
- INVO: Involutive graph recognition.
- CDISK: Clique-disk graph recognition.

Our graphs are usually loopless, but for auxiliary purposes we also use possibly loopy graphs (always called H) that are allowed to have at most one loop at each vertex. Notice that under these circumstances, $x \in N_H(x)$ iff H has a loop at x. For such a possibly loopy graph we define the strict square $H^{[2]}$ as the (loopless) graph that has the same vertex set as H and in which two vertices x, y are adjacent iff they can be joined by two distinct edges $\{x, u\}$ and

 $\{u, y\}$ of H (here a loop counts as an edge).

We say that a possibly loopy graph H is good iff the family of neighbourhoods $\{N_H(x): x \in H\}$ is Helly and no neighbourhood is contained in another one: $N_H(x) \subseteq N_H(y) \Rightarrow x = y$. We shall use the following theorems proved in [11]:

Theorem 1.1 [11] BK(G) is good if and only if G is Helly without dominated vertices.

Theorem 1.2 [11] A graph G is involutive if and only if $G \cong H^{[2]}$ for some possibly loopy, good, connected, non-bipartite graph H.

Theorem 1.3 (The Hierarchy Theorem [11]) The following proper containment relations among the classes of self-clique graphs hold:

Type
$$3 \subsetneq Type \ 2 \subsetneq Type \ 1 \subsetneq Type \ 0$$

2 Self-Clique Graphs

Let G be a graph, with p vertices, q edges and μ maximal independent sets. Tsukiyama, Ide, Ariyoshi and Shirakawa [17] presented an algorithm (which we shall call the TIAS algorithm) that can compute all the maximal independent sets of G in $O(pq\mu)$ time. Indeed this algorithm computes a new maximal independent set within every O(pq) time interval.

Since we can complement a graph in $O(p^2)$ time, it follows that we can compute a polynomial number of cliques in polynomial time. In particular, given a graph G we can determine if it has exactly |G| cliques (and compute them) in $O(p^2(p^2-q))$ time. Thus, in order to decide whether G is self-clique or not, we can compute K(G) (or stop with answer "no" if $|K(G)| \neq |G|$) in polynomial time and then apply an isomorphism test. It follows that SELF is polynomially reducible to ISO. Since we know by Szwarcfiter [16] that Hellyness is polynomially verifiable, it is clear that HSELF is also polynomially reducible to ISO. We shall see here that the converses also hold.

We subdivide a graph G by replacing each edge by a new path of length 2. If \widetilde{G} is the subdivision of G, then \widetilde{G} is bipartite and has a natural bipartition $\{X,Y\} = \{\text{old vertices, new vertices}\}$. If G is connected so is \widetilde{G} and its bipartition is unique, so given \widetilde{G} and the fact that the part X contains an old vertex (hence all) one recovers G by $G = \widetilde{G}^{[2]}[X]$. Note that, since every new vertex

in \widetilde{G} has degree 2, whenever G is connected and not a cycle it is quite easy to see which part contains the old vertices.

Let G_1 and G_2 be any two disjoint graphs. Take G_1 and add three extra vertices $\{x_1, y_1, z_1\}$, make x_1 adjacent to every vertex in $G_1 \cup \{y_1, z_1\}$ and make y_1 adjacent to every vertex in $G_1 \cup \{x_1, z_1\}$. Call the resulting graph G'_1 . Now subdivide G'_1 to obtain G''_1 . Do the same to G_2 with three other extra vertices $\{x_2, y_2, z_2\}$ to obtain G''_2 and then subdivide to get G''_2 . Then G''_1 and G''_2 are connected, triangleless (therefore Helly) and without dominated (i.e. terminal) vertices. We also have that G''_1 and G''_2 are isomorphic iff G_1 and G_2 are so: Indeed, the only maximal-degree vertices in G''_i are the extra vertices x_i and y_i , so any isomorphism $G''_1 \to G''_2$ induces an isomorphism $G'_1 \to G'_2$ and so $G_1 \cong G_2$.

Now define a new graph G_{12} by $V(G_{12}) = V(G_1'') \cup V(K(G_2''))$ and $E(G_{12}) = E(G_1'') \cup E(K(G_2'')) \cup \{\{z_1, Q\} : Q \in K(G_2'') \text{ and } z_2 \in Q\}$. This is just the disjoint union of G_1'' and $K(G_2'')$ plus 2 specific edges.

Theorem 2.1 Given any two graphs G_1 and G_2 , construct G_{12} as above. Then the following conditions are equivalent:

- 1. G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic.
- 2. G_{12} is involutive.
- 3. G_{12} is Helly self-clique.
- 4. G_{12} is self-clique.

Proof: (1) \Rightarrow (2): If $G_1 \cong G_2$, there is an isomorphism $\tau: G_1'' \to G_2''$ satisfying $\tau(z_1) = z_2$. Then $\tau_K: K(G_1'') \to K(G_2'')$, defined by $\tau_K(Q) = \{\tau(x) : x \in Q\}$, is also an isomorphism. We know by 1.1 that $BK(G_1'')$ is good. Now attach a loop at z_1 to $BK(G_1'')$ to obtain H. It is easy to check that H is still good, and it is clearly connected and non-bipartite. Since $H^{[2]} \cong G_{12}$ via the isomorphism defined by $\varphi(x) = x$ for $x \in G_1''$ and $\varphi(Q) = \tau_K(Q)$ for $Q \in K(G_1'')$, G_{12} is involutive by 1.2.

- $(2) \Rightarrow (3) \Rightarrow (4)$: This follows from the Hierarchy Theorem 1.3.
- (4) \Rightarrow (1): Define G_{21} by $V(G_{21}) = V(G_2'') \cup V(K(G_1''))$ and $E(G_{21}) = E(G_2'') \cup E(K(G_1'')) \cup \{\{z_2, Q\} : Q \in K(G_1'') \text{ and } z_1 \in Q\}$. It is a routine verification to

check that $G_{21} \cong K(G_{12})$ via the isomorphism defined by $\varphi(z_2) = \{Q \in K(G_2'') : z_2 \in Q\} \cup \{z_1\}, \ \varphi(x) = \{Q \in K(G_2'') : x \in Q\} \text{ for } x \neq z_2, \ x \in G_2'' \subseteq G_{21} \text{ and } \varphi(Q) = Q \text{ for } Q \in K(G_1'') \subseteq G_{21}.$

Now, assuming that $G_{12} \cong K(G_{12})$, there is an isomorphism $\tau: G_{12} \to G_{21}$. By construction, G_1'' and G_2'' do not have cutpoints. Since the cliques of G_i'' are its edges, also $K(G_1'')$ and $K(G_2'')$ are cutpoint-free. Then z_1 (resp. z_2) is the only cutpoint of G_{12} (resp. G_{21}). Now $\tau(z_1) = z_2$, so $G_1'' \subseteq G_{12}$ must be mapped by τ onto $G_2'' \subseteq G_{21}$ or onto $K(G_1'') \cup \{z_2\} \subseteq G_{21}$. Since G_1'' and G_2'' are triangleless but $K(G_1'') \cup \{z_2\}$ is not, $\tau(G_1'') = G_2''$. Thus G_1'' and G_2'' are isomorphic, and so are G_1 and G_2 .

Since G_2'' has $|E(G_2'')| = 2|E(G_2)| + 4|V(G_2)| + 6$ cliques, we can construct $K(G_2'')$ and hence G_{12} in polynomial time. Then we have proved the following:

Theorem 2.2 ISO is polynomially reducible to SELF, HSELF and INVO. Furthermore, SELF and HSELF are polynomially equivalent to ISO.

The authors of [4] have recently informed us that they also independently proved that ISO and SELF are polynomially equivalent.

Problem 2.3 Determine the time complexity of INVO and CDISK.

3 Clique-Disk Graphs

By the previous section we only know that INVO is (up to a polynomial transformation) at least as difficult as ISO. But we know even less about the clique-disk recognition problem: We know nothing, apart from the obvious CDISK $\in \mathcal{NP}$. Motwani and Sudan [14] showed that computing square roots of graphs is \mathcal{NP} -hard, which seems to suggest that CDISK could be \mathcal{NP} -complete. However, all the graphs constructed by Motwani and Sudan in their proof have exponentially many cliques, so those graphs are "highly non self-clique", very far from our domain.

In [4], Bondy, Durán, Lin and Szwarcfiter introduced an important and large subclass of Type 3 (which indeed motivated the definition of Type 3 in [11]). The purpose of this section is to prove that the graphs in this subclass (which we shall call BDLS graphs) are recognizable in polynomial time.

A connected graph G is a BDLS graph if $G = R^{2k}$ for some graph R with $\delta(R) \geq 2$, $g(R) \geq 6k + 1$ and $k \geq 1$. Here g(R) is the girth of R.

Theorem 3.1 Let G be a graph. For each vertex $x \in G$ define recursively the sets $F_0 \supseteq F_1 \supseteq F_2 \supseteq \cdots$ by:

$$F_0(x) = x^* = \{Q \in K(G) : x \in Q\}$$

$$F_j(x) = \{Q \in F_{j-1}(x) : Q \subseteq \bigcup (F_{j-1}(x) \setminus \{Q\})\}.$$

If $G = R^{2k}$ is a BDLS graph, then for all $j \ge 0$ and $x \in G$ we have

$$F_j(x) = \{D_R^k(y) : y \in D_R^{k-j}(x)\}.$$

Thus: $F_{k-1}(x) = \{D_R^k(y) : y \in N_R[x]\}, F_k(x) = \{D_R^k(x)\} \text{ and } F_{k+1}(x) = \emptyset.$

Proof: Let $G = R^{2k}$ be a BDLS graph. Recall from [4] (see also [3,11]) that: The cliques of G are precisely the disks of radius k of R, the rule $x \mapsto D_R^k(x)$ is an isomorphism from G to K(G) and each $D_R^k(x)$ induces in R a tree of radius k with all the leaves at distance k from the center x.

Since $x \in D_R^k(y)$ if and only if $y \in D_R^k(x)$, we have $F_0(x) = \{D_R^k(y) : y \in D_R^k(x)\}$ as required for j = 0.

By induction, assume that $F_j(x) = \{D_R^k(y) : y \in D_R^{k-j}(x)\}$ for some j.

The set $D_R^{k-j}(x)$ induces a tree T_x in R, and a vertex $y \in R$ is a leaf of T_x if and only if $d_R(y,x) = k-j$. Now $y \in D_R^{k-j-1}(x) \Leftrightarrow N_R[y] \subseteq T_x \Leftrightarrow D_R^k(y) \subseteq \bigcup \{D_R^k(z) : z \in N_R[y] \cap T_x \ , \ z \neq y\} \Leftrightarrow D_R^k(y) \in F_{j+1}(x)$.

Therefore, if $G = R^{2k}$ is a BDLS graph, R and k are determined by G. Indeed: k is the number for which $|F_k(x)| = 1$ for all (or just one) $x \in G$ and we can reconstruct R by V(R) = V(G) and $\{x, y\} \in E(R)$ iff $x \neq y$ and $F_k(y) \subseteq F_{k-1}(x)$.

Now assume we want to determine whether a graph G is a BDLS graph. Thanks to the TIAS algorithm [17], we can construct each $F_0(x)$ in polynomial time (or determine that G does not have exactly |V(G)| cliques, thus answering "no" and stopping computation). Then, as described above, we can also reconstruct k and R (or determine that there are no such k and R) in polynomial time: Since we always have $F_j(x) = F_{j+1}(x)$ for some $j \leq |V(G)|$ we only have to compute (at worst) $|V(G)|^2$ of the $F_j(x)$'s. Finally, we just have to check that

 $G = R^{2k}$ (equality, not isomorphism!) $\delta(R) \geq 2$, $g(R) \geq 6k + 1$ and that R is connected. It is clear that all these operations can be carried out in polynomial time, so we have proved:

Theorem 3.2 BDLS graphs are recognizable in polynomial time.

4 Final Remarks

Given two graphs A and B, the strong product $A \boxtimes B$ is the loopless graph with vertex set $V(A \boxtimes B) = V(A) \times V(B)$ where $\{(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)\} \in E(A \boxtimes B)$ iff a_1 and a_2 are adjacent or equal AND b_1 and b_2 are adjacent or equal.

Now, take $m, n \geq 7$ and $P = C_n \boxtimes C_m$ (here C_n is a cycle of length n). A direct verification shows that $G = P^2$ satisfies $K(G) = \{N_P[v] : v \in P\}$, so it is clique-disk. If we try our BDLS graph recognizing algorithm on this one, we get that for all $v \in G$:

$$F_0(v) = \{N_P[v+\alpha] : \alpha \in \{-1,0,1\} \times \{-1,0,1\}\},$$

$$F_1(v) = \{N_P[v+\alpha] : \alpha \in \{(0,1),(0,-1),(0,0),(1,0),(-1,0)\}\} \text{ and }$$

$$F_2(v) = \{N_P[v]\}.$$

Then we define R by V(R) = V(G) = V(P) and $\{u, v\} \in E(R)$ if and only if $u - v \in \{(0, 1), (0, -1), (1, 0), (-1, 0)\}$. Since k should be 2, we observe that $\delta(R) = 4 \ge 2$, but g(R) = 4 < 6k + 1 = 13 and $G \ne R^4$.

We conclude that the BDLS class is properly contained in Type 3, and that the final verifications in our algorithm are not superfluous (at least these two: $g(R) \ge 6k + 1$ and $G = R^{2k}$).

On the other hand we note that, in this case, computing $F_2(v) = \{N_P[v]\}$ gives us the isomorphism $v \leftrightarrow N_P[v]$ between G and K(G). If this were always the case for a clique-disk graph, we would have a polynomial time algorithm for CDISK. Unfortunately this is not so, since the clique-disk graph $G = (R_8)^2$ (see Fig. 1) has

$$F_0(a_i) = \{N_{R_8}[v] : v \in \{a_{i-1}, a_i, a_{i+1}, x_{i-1}, x_i, b_i\}\},$$

$$F_1(a_i) = \{N_{R_8}[v] : v \in \{a_i, x_{i-1}, x_i, b_i\}\},$$

$$F_2(a_i) = \{N_{R_8}[a_i], N_{R_8}[b_i]\} \text{ and }$$

$$F_3(a_i) = \varnothing = F_4(a_i) = F_5(a_i) = \cdots$$

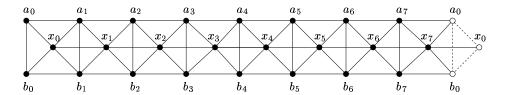


Figure 1: The graph R_8 (identify vertices with same labels).

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