



# **Covers have structure**

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# **Ulmer Informatik-Berichte**

Nr. 2008-08 Juli 2008

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July 8, 2008

#### Abstract

We establish a new connection between the theory of Berge graphs (perfect graphs) and communication complexity. We discover a new class of square-free Berge graphs, the class of *beautiful graphs*, and make progress towards their characterization: on the one hand, we give a complete list of forbidden induced subgraphs of order  $\leq 7$ , on the other hand, we show that every square-free bipartite graph is beautiful, and, as the main result, we characterize the beautiful line graphs of square-free bipartite graphs.

# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Theory of perfect graphs

Shannon [11, 12] considered zero-error data transmission and reduced the problem of determining the zero-error channel capacity to a problem in graph theory, namely calculating  $\sup_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \omega(G^n)$  (now called Shannon zero-error capacity), where G is a graph associated with the given channel,  $G^n$  is its n-th graph power, and  $\omega(G)$  is the clique number of G. The n-th graph power  $G^n$  is the strong graph product of n copies of g; given graphs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  the strong graph product is a graph with vertex set  $V(G_1) \times V(G_2)$  and two distinct vertices are connected iff they are adjacent or equal in each coordinate. Determining the Shannon zero-error capacity is extremely hard in general, e.g. see [1, 8], but easily solved for so called *perfect graphs*, introduced by Berge [2]. These are graphs for which the chromatic and clique number have the same value for each induced subgraph. Berge conjectured that a graph is perfect iff it does not contain any odd holes or odd antiholes. An induced cycle of odd length at least 5 is called an *odd hole*, while an induced subgraph that is the complement of an odd hole is called an *odd antihole*. Graphs without odd holes and odd antiholes are called Berge graphs. The above conjecture was known as the Strong Perfect Graph Conjecture, which, based on a series of works, especially [4], was finally answered in the affirmative by Chudnovsky, Robertson, Seymour and Thomas [3] in May, 2002.

In the sequel we will also need the following notions: A 4-cycle is called a square; a square-free graph does not contain a square as an induced subgraph. The line graph of the graph G is the graph L(G) whose nodes are the edges of G and two nodes u, v of L(G) are adjacent in L(G) iff the edges u, v of G are incident

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to a common node of G. We write  $G =_{iso} H$  iff G and H are isomorphic, and  $G \leq_{iso} H$  iff G is isomorphic to an induced subgraph of H. For introductions to graph theory and the theory of perfect graphs, we refer the reader to [5, 10].

#### **1.2** Basics from communication complexity

In 1979 Yao [13] introduced a two player communication model: Let  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z}$  be finite sets. Player Alice has input  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , player Bob has  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$ . Both want to compute f(x, y) for a function  $f: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{Z}$ , or they want to compute a relation, i.e. a value  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$  such that  $(x, y, z) \in R$  for a relation  $R \subseteq \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Z}$ . The communication between the two players is specified by protocols. We will not delve into definitions of protocols and communication complexity. For an excellent introduction to this subject we refer to [7]. Important for us is that a (nondeterministic) protocol induces a cover of the communication matrix of the function/relation via monochromatic combinatorial rectangles. These notions are defined below.

A matrix  $M: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{Z}$  is called a *function matrix over*  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z}$ , and a matrix  $M: \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \to \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{Z})$  is called a *relation matrix over*  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z}$  iff for all rows  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and columns  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  we have  $M_{x,y} \neq \emptyset$ . A combinatorial rectangle in M is a set  $R = A \times B$ ,  $A \subseteq \mathcal{X}, B \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$ . For  $R = C \times D$  we define A(R) := C and B(R) := D. Let  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ . If M is a function matrix, a combinatorial rectangle  $R = A \times B$  is called z-chromatic in M iff for all  $x \in A, y \in B$  we have  $M_{x,y} = z$ . If M is a relation matrix, R is called z-chromatic in M iff for all  $x \in A, y \in B$  we have  $M_{x,y} = z$ . If M is a relation matrix, R is called z-chromatic in M iff there exists  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$  such that R is z-chromatic.

**Definition 1.1.** Let M be a function or relation matrix over  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Z}$ .

- A combinatorial rectangle R is *nonextendible* iff R is monochromatic in M and adding rows or columns to R results in a nonmonochromatic rectangle.
- We associate with M its cover structure graph  $\mathcal{G}(M) := (V(M), E(M))$  (cs-graph for short),
  - $V(M) := \{R \mid R \text{ nonextendible rectangle in } M\}$  $E(M) := \{\{R, R'\} \mid R, R' \in V(M), R \neq R', R \cap R' \neq \emptyset\}$
- Let  $z \in \mathcal{Z}$ . We also associate with M its z-chromatic cover structure graph  $\mathcal{G}^{z}(M) := (V^{z}(M), E^{z}(M)),$

 $\begin{array}{lll} V^z(M) &:= & \{R \mid R \text{ nonextendible } z\text{-chromatic rectangle in } M\} \\ E^z(M) &:= & \{\{R, R'\} \mid R, R' \in V^z(M), R \neq R', R \cap R' \neq \emptyset\} \end{array}$ 

#### **1.3** Communication complexity and Berge graphs

As we mentioned earlier, Berge graphs play an important role in noninteractive communication complexity, i.e. information theory, in the context of zero-error data transmission and the determination of channel capacities. But no connection was known before in the interactive case, i.e. communication complexity. We show, that for total functions f the covers of their communication matrices  $M_f$  have structure in the sense, that their cover structure graphs  $\mathcal{G}(M_f)$ are not arbitrary. For an important subclass of the cover structure graphs, the *beautiful graphs*, we prove that this class is strictly contained in the class of square-free Berge graphs, thus establishing a connection between Berge graphs and interactive communication.

The following result might lead to the conclusion, that cs-graphs are uninteresting. However, for function matrices the situation is completely different, as we will see in Theorem 2.3. We denote with [n] the set  $\{1, \ldots, n\}$  of the first n natural numbers.

**Theorem 1.2.** Let G be an arbitrary graph. Then there exists a relation matrix M, such that  $G =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ .

Proof. W.l.o.g. assume G = (V, E), V = [n]. We define the  $1 \times n^2$ -block matrix M with values in  $\mathcal{P}([n])$  by  $M := (B^{(1)}, \ldots, B^{(n)})$ , where each block  $B^{(i)}$  is a  $1 \times n$ -matrix defined by  $B_j^{(i)} := \{i, j\}$ , if  $\{i, j\} \in E$ , and  $B_j^{(i)} := \{i\}$  otherwise. For each color  $i \in [n]$  there exists exactly one nonextendible rectangle  $R_i := \{1\} \times \{j \mid i \in M_{1,j}\}$ . Thus,  $V(M) = \{R_i \mid i \in [n]\}$ . If  $\{i, j\} \in E$ , then  $R_i, R_j$  intersect in block position  $B_j^{(i)}$  (and  $B_i^{(j)}$ ) implying  $\{R_i, R_j\} \in E(M)$ . Conversely, if  $\{R_i, R_j\} \in E(M)$ , then there exist  $k, l \in [n]$ , such that  $R_i, R_j$  intersect in  $B_l^{(k)}$ . The case  $k \notin \{i, j\}$  cannot occur by construction  $(|B_j^{(i)}| \leq 2)$ . W.l.o.g. assume k = i. Necessarily,  $B_l^{(i)} = \{i, j\}$ . Thus, l = j and  $\{i, j\} \in E$ . We conclude  $E(M) = \{\{R_i, R_j\} \mid \{i, j\} \in E\}$  proving  $G =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ . □

Given  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$  and a function matrix M over  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathbb{Z}$ , define the corresponding  $\{0, 1\}$ -valued matrix  $M^{(z)}$  by  $M_{x,y}^{(z)} := 1$ , if  $M_{x,y} = z$ , and  $M_{x,y}^{(z)} := 0$  otherwise. As rectangles with different colors do not intersect for function matrices, we get  $\mathcal{G}(M) =_{iso} \bigcup_{z \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathcal{G}^z(M^{(z)})$ , where  $\bigcup$  denotes the disjoint union of graphs. Thus, we only need to deal with cs-graphs of function matrices over finite sets  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$  and  $\mathcal{Z} = \{0, 1\}$ . From here on, when we talk about matrices, we mean function matrices over finite sets  $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}$  and  $\mathcal{Z} = \{0, 1\}$ . We also write  $\mathcal{G}(M)$ , when we mean  $\mathcal{G}^1(M)$ . We call matrices M with  $G = \mathcal{G}(M)$  representations of G. We denote the class of cover structure graphs (cs-graphs), i.e. the class of graphs which can be represented by function matrices, with csg.

## 1.4 Easy observations concerning cs-graphs

In this subsection we prove several easy results about cs-graphs and state structural properties. The independent set  $\overline{K}_n$ , the complete graph  $K_n$  and even cycles  $C_{2n}$  are cs-graphs,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , as can be seen by looking at the identity matrix  $E_n$  and the matrices over  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{Y} = [n]$  defined below: For  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $m \leq n$ , define the following  $n \times n$ -matrix by  $(\operatorname{rep} K_m^{(n)})_{i,j} := 1$ , if  $i \leq m + 1 - j$ , and  $(\operatorname{rep} K_m^{(n)})_{i,j} := 0$  otherwise. Then  $K_m =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(\operatorname{rep} K_m^{(n)})$ , and  $\overline{K}_n =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(E_n)$ . The matrix  $\operatorname{rep} K_m^{(n)}$  as a representation for  $K_m$  is defined more general than is needed here, because we need it later in this form. A possible representation for the even cycle  $C_{2n}$  is the following  $n \times n$ -matrix:

$${}_{\mathrm{rep}}\mathbf{C}_{2n} \ := \ \left( \begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & 1 & 1 & & \vdots \\ \vdots & & & & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & & & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right)$$

Clearly, we have  $C_{2n} =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(_{rep}C_{2n})$ .

In the sequel we only consider connected cs-graphs. On the one hand, if G has connected components  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  represented by  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ , respectively, then the block diagonal matrix  $M := \text{diag}(M_1, M_2)$  is a representation of G. On the other hand, one can show that if G is a cs-graph, then its components  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are also cs-graphs: If in a representation M of G a rectangle  $R_1$  representing a node  $v_1 \in G_1$  would share a row or column with a rectangle  $R_2$  representing a node  $v_2 \in G_2$ , then there would exist a nonextendible rectangle J incident to both  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ . As M is a representation of G the rectangle J would represent a node adjacent to both  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  in contradiction to the assumption that  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are different connected components. If  $A_i$ ,  $B_i$  denote the rows and columns covered by rectangles representing nodes in  $G_i$ , then  $A_1 \cap A_2, B_1 \cap B_2 = \emptyset$ . Thus, a permutation of the rows and columns of M yields a representation  $diag(M_1, M_2)$  of G.

# 2 Covers have structure

In this section we show that in contrast to the case of relation matrices not every graph is a cs-graph of a function matrix. Thus, in contrast to relations for total functions the corresponding cs-graphs are not arbitrary implying that (for total functions) covers have structure. This might explain why there are phenomenological differences (see e.g. [7, Chap. 5]) in the communication complexity of relations compared to the communication complexity of total functions.

An important observation is that nonextendible combinatorial rectangles cannot intersect in an arbitrary fashion. Only two modes of intersection are possible, namely *cross* and *spade* situations (see Figure 1).

**Definition 2.1.** Let M be a matrix, and let  $R_i := A_i \times B_i \in V(M), i \in [2], \{R_1, R_2\} \in E(M).$ 

- If  $A_1 \subsetneq A_2$  and  $B_2 \subsetneq B_1$ , then we have a cross situation  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ .
- If  $A_1 A_2, A_2 A_1, B_1 B_2, B_2 B_1 \neq \emptyset$ , then we have a spade situation  $spade\{R_1, R_2\}$ .

Note that while  $spade\{R_1, R_2\}$  implies  $spade\{R_2, R_1\}$  in case  $cross(R_1, R_2)$  the situation  $cross(R_2, R_1)$  does not occur. In case we do not care which cross situation holds, we let  $cross\{R_1, R_2\} := cross(R_1, R_2) \lor cross(R_2, R_1)$  denote the symmetrized version.

In the following lemma we list helpful observations we will extensively use in the sequel.



Figure 1: cross and spade situations

**Lemma 2.2.** Let M be a matrix, and let  $R_i := A_i \times B_i \in V(M), i \in [3]$ .

1. If  $\{R_1, R_2\} \in E(M)$ , then exactly one of the following situations occurs:

 $cross(R_1, R_2), \quad cross(R_2, R_1), \quad spade\{R_1, R_2\}.$ 

- 2. If we have  $cross(R_1, R_2)$  and  $cross(R_2, R_3)$ , then  $\{R_1, R_3\} \in E(M)$ .
- 3. Let M be a matrix, and let  $R_i := A_i \times B_i \in V(M)$ ,  $i \in [3]$ . If we have  $spade\{R_1, R_2\}$ , then  $K_4 \leq_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ .
- 4. We assume  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ ,  $cross(R_3, R_2)$  and  $\{R_1, R_3\} \notin E(M)$ . If  $B_2 \subsetneq B_1 \cap B_3$ , then there exists  $R_4 \in V(M)$ , such that  $\{R_i, R_4\} \in E(M)$  for all  $i \in [3]$ .

*Proof.* 1. By case distinction: Case  $A_1 = A_2$ . Here  $R_1 = R_2$ , or at least one of  $R_1, R_2$  is extendible, a contradiction. Case  $A_1 \subsetneq A_2$ . If  $B_1 \subsetneq B_2$  or  $B_1 - B_2, B_2 - B_1 \neq \emptyset$  then  $R_1$  is extendible, a contradiction. If  $B_2 \subsetneq B_1$ then we have  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ . Case  $A_2 \subsetneq A_1$ . Analogous to  $A_1 \subsetneq A_2$ . Case  $A_1 - A_2, A_2 - A_1 \neq \emptyset$ . All cases are analogous to the previous ones, except  $B_1 - B_2, B_2 - B_1 \neq \emptyset$ , where we have a spade situation  $spade\{R_1, R_2\}$ .

2. Both  $R_1, R_3$  cover  $A_1 \times B_3$  by nonextendibility, and thus intersect. From  $cross(R_1, R_2)$  and  $cross(R_2, R_3)$  it also follows  $A_1 \subsetneq A_2$  and  $A_2 \subsetneq A_3$ , respectively. Thus,  $A_1 \subsetneq A_3$ , which implies  $R_1 \neq R_3$ .

3. Let  $R_3, R_4$  be arbitrary nonextendible combinatorial rectangles in M covering  $(A_1 \cap A_2) \times (B_1 \cup B_2)$  and  $(A_1 \cup A_2) \times (B_1 \cap B_2)$ , respectively. Clearly,  $R_1, \ldots, R_4$  are pairwise distinct. As all of them cover  $(A_1 \cap A_2) \times (B_1 \cap B_2)$  they pairwise intersect. Thus,  $\mathcal{G}(M)(\{R_1, \ldots, R_4\}) =_{iso} K_4$ .

4. Let  $R_4 \in V(M)$  be an arbitrary nonextendible combinatorial rectangle covering  $(A_1 \cup A_3) \times (B_1 \cap B_3)$ . From  $cross(R_1, R_2)$  it follows  $A_1 \subsetneq A_2$ . As  $B_2 \subsetneq B_1 \cap B_3$ , we get  $R_4 \cap R_2 \neq \emptyset$  and  $R_4 \neq R_2$ . By construction we also have  $R_4 \cap R_1, R_4 \cap R_3 \neq \emptyset$ . From  $\{R_1, R_3\} \notin E(M)$  and  $\emptyset \neq B_2 \subsetneq B_1 \cap B_3$  we derive  $A_1 \cap A_3 = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $R_4 \neq R_1$  and  $R_4 \neq R_3$ .

Now we can show that not all graphs are cs-graphs:

**Theorem 2.3.** The square  $C_4$ , odd holes  $C_{2n+1}$ ,  $n \ge 2$ , and the graphs gem, star<sup>1</sup> and watch (see Figure 2) are not cs-graphs.



Figure 2: Star, gem and watch

*Proof.* Due to the many case distinctions we recommend that the reader visualizes the proofs by drawing the cross situations under consideration (we cannot do this here for space reasons).

1. We assume that  $C_4$  is a cs-graph. Then there exists a matrix M such that  $C_4 =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ . We have  $V(M) = \{R_1, \ldots, R_4\}$  and  $E(M) = \{\{R_1, R_2\}, \{R_2, R_3\}, \{R_3, R_4\}, \{R_4, R_1\}\}$ . By Lemma 2.2 (1, 3) for  $R_i, R_{i+1}$  and  $R_4, R_1$  only cross situations are possible, as  $K_4 \not\leq_{iso} C_4$ . W.l.o.g. we assume  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ . Then by Lemma 2.2 (2) we must have  $cross(R_3, R_2)$ , as  $C_3 \not\leq_{iso} C_4$ . Applying Lemma 2.2 (4) yields  $B_1 \cap B_3 = B_2$ . An analogous argumentation (consider the transpose of M) for  $R_2, R_3, R_4$  yields  $A_2 \cap A_4 = A_3$ . From  $R_1 \cap R_3 = \emptyset$  and  $B_1 \cap B_3 = B_2 \neq \emptyset$  it follows  $A_1 \cap A_3 = \emptyset$ . Then we have  $A_4 = A_3 \cup (A_4 - A_2)$ , and thus  $A_4 \cap A_1 = (A_3 \cap A_1) \cup ((A_4 - A_2) \cap A_1) = \emptyset \cup \emptyset = \emptyset$  using  $A_1 \subseteq A_2$ . But this implies  $R_1 \cap R_4 = \emptyset$  contradicting  $\{R_1, R_4\} \in E(M)$ . We conclude that  $C_4$  cannot be a cs-graph.

2. We assume that  $C_{2n+1}$  is a cs-graph for  $n \geq 2$ . Then there exists a matrix M, such that  $C_{2n+1} =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ . We have  $V(M) = \{R_1, \ldots, R_{2n+1}\}$  and  $E(M) = \{\{R_i, R_{i+1}\} \mid i \in [2n]\} \cup \{\{R_{2n+1}, R_1\}\}$ . As  $K_4 \not\leq_{iso} C_{2n+1}$ , by Lemma 2.2 (1, 3) only cross situations are possible. W.l.o.g. we assume  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ . As  $C_3 \not\leq_{iso} C_{2n+1}$  iteratively applying Lemma 2.2 (2) yields the sequence  $cross(R_3, R_2)$ ,  $cross(R_3, R_4)$ , ...,  $cross(R_{2n+1}, R_{2n})$ , and thus  $cross(R_{2n+1}, R_1)$ . But going backwards starting from  $cross(R_1, R_2)$  gives us  $cross(R_1, R_{2n+1})$ . We get  $cross(R_{2n+1}, R_1)$  and  $cross(R_1, R_{2n+1})$ , a contradiction. We conclude that  $C_{2n+1}$  cannot be a cs-graph.

3. We assume that gem is a cs-graph, i.e. gem  $=_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$  for a matrix M. We have  $V(M) = \{R_1, \ldots, R_5\}$  and  $E(M) = \{\{R_1, R_2\}, \{R_1, R_5\}, \{R_2, R_3\}, \{R_2, R_4\}, \{R_2, R_5\}, \{R_3, R_4\}, \{R_4, R_5\}\}$ . As  $K_4 \not\leq_{iso}$  gem, only cross situations are possible. W.l.o.g. we assume  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ .  $\{R_1, R_3\}, \{R_1, R_4\} \notin E(M)$  implies  $cross(R_3, R_2)$  and  $cross(R_4, R_2)$ , respectively. Case 1: Assume  $cross(R_3, R_4)$ . Case 1.1: Assume  $cross(R_1, R_5)$ .  $cross(R_2, R_5)$  implies  $cross(R_3, R_5)$  contradicting  $R_3 \cap R_5 = \emptyset$ . Thus, assume  $cross(R_5, R_2)$ . Case 1.1.1: Assume  $cross(R_4, R_5)$ . Then  $A(R_3) \subseteq A(R_4) \subseteq A(R_5)$  and  $B(R_5) \subseteq B(R_4) \subseteq B(R_3)$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The star graph is also called *net* in many publications.

But  $R_3 \cap R_5 = (A(R_3) \cap A(R_5)) \times (B(R_3) \cap B(R_5)) \supseteq A(R_3) \times B(R_5) \neq \emptyset$ , a contradiction. Case 1.1.2: Assume  $cross(R_5, R_4)$ . We must have  $A(R_1) \cap A(R_4) = \emptyset$ , as  $B(R_1) \cap B(R_4) \supseteq B(R_2) \neq \emptyset$  and  $R_1 \cap R_4 = \emptyset$ . But then  $A(R_5) \subseteq A(R_4)$  implies  $A(R_1) \cap A(R_5) = \emptyset$  contradicting  $R_1 \cap R_5 \neq \emptyset$ . Case 1.2: Assume  $cross(R_5, R_1)$ . We still have  $A(R_1) \cap A(R_4) = \emptyset$ . But  $A(R_5) \subseteq A(R_1)$  implies  $A(R_4) \cap A(R_5) = \emptyset$  contradicting  $R_4 \cap R_5 \neq \emptyset$ . Case 2: Assume  $cross(R_4, R_3)$ .  $cross(R_5, R_4)$  implies  $cross(R_5, R_3)$  contradicting  $R_3 \cap R_5 = \emptyset$ . Thus, assume  $cross(R_4, R_5)$ . If  $cross(R_2, R_5)$  then  $cross(R_3, R_5)$  contradicting  $R_3 \cap R_5 = \emptyset$ . If  $cross(R_5, R_2)$  then  $\emptyset \neq B(R_2) \subseteq B(R_3) \cap B(R_5)$ . As  $R_3 \cap R_5 = \emptyset$ , it must hold  $A(R_3) \cap A(R_5) = \emptyset$ . But  $A(R_4) \subseteq A(R_5)$ . We finally get  $A(R_3) \cap A(R_4) = \emptyset$  contradicting  $R_3 \cap R_4 \neq \emptyset$ . We conclude that gem cannot be a cs-graph.

4. We assume that star is a cs-graph, i.e. star  $=_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$  for a matrix M. We have  $V(M) = \{R_{i,A}, R_{i,B} \mid i \in [3]\}$  and  $E(M) = \{\{R_{i,A}, R_{i,B}\} \mid i \in [3]\} \cup \{\{R_{1,A}, R_{2,A}\}, \{R_{2,A}, R_{3,A}\}, \{R_{1,A}, R_{3,A}\}\}$ . As  $K_4 \not\leq_{iso}$  star, only cross situations are possible. W.l.o.g. we assume  $cross(R_{1,A}, R_{2,A})$ . Case 1: Assume  $cross(R_{2,A}, R_{3,A})$ .  $cross(R_{2,A}, R_{2,B})$  implies  $cross(R_{1,A}, R_{2,B})$  which contradicts  $R_{1,A} \cap R_{2,B} = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_{2,B}, R_{2,A})$  implies  $cross(R_{2,B}, R_{3,A})$  contradicting  $R_{2,B} \cap R_{3,A} = \emptyset$ . Case 2: Assume  $cross(R_{3,A}, R_{2,A})$ . Case 2.1: Assume  $cross(R_{1,A}, R_{3,B})$  contradicting  $R_{1,A} \cap R_{3,B} = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_{3,B}, R_{3,A})$  implies  $cross(R_{3,B}, R_{2,A})$  contradicting  $R_{2,A} \cap R_{3,B} = \emptyset$ . case 2.2: Assume  $cross(R_{3,A}, R_{1,A})$ .  $cross(R_{1,A}, R_{1,B})$  implies  $cross(R_{1,B}, R_{2,A})$  contradicting  $R_{3,A} \cap R_{1,B} = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_{1,B}, R_{1,A})$  implies  $cross(R_{1,B}, R_{2,A})$  contradicting  $R_{2,A} \cap R_{1,B} = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_{1,B}, R_{2,A})$  contradicting  $R_{2,A} \cap R_{1,B} = \emptyset$ . We conclude that star cannot be a cs-graph.

5. We assume that watch is a cs-graph, i.e. watch  $=_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$  for a matrix M. We have  $V(M) = \{R_1, \ldots, R_6\}$  and  $E(M) = \{\{R_5, R_2\}, \{R_2, R_1\}, \{R_2, R_3\}, \{R_2, R_4\}, \{R_1, R_3\}, \{R_4, R_3\}, \{R_3, R_6\}\}$ . As  $K_4 \not\leq_{iso}$  watch, only cross situations are possible. W.l.o.g. we assume  $cross(R_1, R_2)$ . Case 1: Assume  $cross(R_2, R_3)$ .  $cross(R_2, R_5)$  implies  $cross(R_1, R_5)$  contradicting  $R_1 \cap R_5 = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_5, R_2)$  implies  $cross(R_1, R_3)$ .  $cross(R_3, R_6)$  implies  $cross(R_1, R_6)$  contradicting  $R_1 \cap R_6 = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_6, R_3)$  implies  $cross(R_6, R_2)$  contradicting  $R_2 \cap R_6 = \emptyset$ .  $cross(R_3, R_1)$ .  $cross(R_2, R_4)$  implies  $cross(R_1, R_4)$  contradicting  $R_1 \cap R_4 = \emptyset$ . Thus, assume  $cross(R_4, R_2)$ . If  $cross(R_3, R_4)$  then  $R_2 \cap R_3 \subseteq R_4$  implying  $R_1 \cap R_4 \neq \emptyset$ , a contradiction.  $cross(R_4, R_3)$  implies  $cross(R_4, R_1)$ , but again, then we have  $R_1 \cap R_4 \neq \emptyset$ , a contradiction. We conclude that watch cannot be a cs-graph.

# 3 Beautiful graphs

We have seen in the last section, that **csg** does not contain all graphs, i.e. covers have structure. As squares and odd holes are "forbidden", the previous results motivate the following definition:

**Definition 3.1.** A graph is *beautiful* iff every induced subgraph is a cs-graph.

Clearly, from Theorem 2.3 we obtain:

**Theorem 3.2.** Every beautiful graph is a square-free Berge graph.

The opposite is not true, as e.g. star is square-free and Berge, but not beautiful. A comparison with known classes of perfect graphs (see e.g. [6, 9] and Figure 3 below comparing the cs-graphs,  $K_4$ -free cs-graphs and the class **beautiful** of beautiful graphs with well-known classes of square-free perfect graphs, namely interval, split, threshold, triangulated and trivially perfect graphs) yields, that the class of beautiful graphs **beautiful** is a new class of perfect graphs. In Figure 3 we list the interesting class of  $K_4$ -free cs-graphs, because such graphs cannot be represented by matrices containing spade situations. We conjecture that they coincide with the class of  $K_4$ -free beautiful graphs. We state without proof (for space reasons), that the list of forbidden induced subgraphs of beautiful graphs in Theorem 2.3 is complete up to connected graphs of order  $n \leq 7$ .

	interval	split	threshold	triangulated	triv.perfect
beautiful	⊉, gem	$\not\supseteq$ , star	⊉, gem	⊉, gem	⊉, star
	$\not\subseteq, C_6$	$\not\subseteq, \overline{C}_4$	$\not\subseteq, \overline{C}_4$	$\not\subseteq, C_6$	$\not\subseteq, P_4$
$K_4 - \mathbf{free}$	⊉, gem	$\not\supseteq$ , star	⊉, gem	⊉, gem	⊉, star
$\operatorname{csg}$	$\not\subseteq, C_6$	$\not\subseteq, \overline{C}_4$	$\not\subseteq, \overline{C}_4$	$\not\subseteq, C_6$	$\not\subseteq, P_4$
$\operatorname{csg}$	⊉, gem	$\not\supseteq$ , star	⊉, gem	⊉, gem	⊉, star
	$\not\subseteq, C_6$	$\not\subseteq, \overline{C}_4$	$  \not\subseteq, \overline{C}_4$	$\not\subseteq, C_6$	$\not\subseteq, P_4$

interval split threshold triangulated triv.perfect

Figure 3: Comparisons of graph classes

We explore the structure of beautiful graphs and make progress towards a characterization in the spirit of Conforti, Cornuéjols and Vušković [4]. Recall their characterization/decomposition theorem of square-free perfect graphs:

**Fact 3.3.** A square-free perfect graph is bipartite or the line graph of a bipartite graph or has a star cutset or a 2-join.

We are able to give characterizations of the beautiful square-free bipartite graphs (3.1) and the beautiful line graphs of square-free bipartite graphs (3.2).

#### 3.1 Characterization of beautiful sqr.-free bipartite graphs

Proposition 3.4. Every square-free bipartite graph is a cs-graph.

*Proof.* Let  $G := (U \cup V, E)$  be square-free and bipartite. W.l.o.g. assume U = [m] and V = [n]. Define the  $m \times n$ -matrix I by  $I_{u,v} := 1$ , if  $\{u, v\} \in E$ , and  $I_{u,v} := 0$  otherwise,  $u \in U, v \in V$ . Let

$$M := \left(\begin{array}{cc} 0 & E_n \\ E_m & I \end{array}\right)$$

Consider any  $R = A \times B \in V(M)$ . If R covers elements in  $E_m$ , then necessarily |A| = 1. There exists  $u \in [m]$ , and  $B = \{m+v \mid v \in [n], \{u,v\} \in E\}$ . If R covers elements in  $E_n$ , then necessarily |B| = 1. There exists  $v \in [n]$ , and  $A = \{n+u \mid u \in [m], \{u,v\} \in E\}$ . Suppose, R covers only elements in I. Then necessarily,  $|A|, |B| \ge 2$ . Then there exist distinct  $u_1, u_2 \in A$ , and distinct  $v_1, v_2 \in B$  such that  $I_{u_i,v_j} = 1$ ,  $i \in [2]$ ,  $j \in [2]$ . This means  $\{u_1, v_1\}, \{v_1, u_2\}, \{u_2, v_2\}, \{v_2, u_1\} \in E$ . As G is bipartite, we have  $\{u_1, u_2\}, \{v_1, v_2\} \notin E$ . Thus,  $C_4 \leq_{iso} G$ , a contradiction. We conclude  $G =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ .

As every induced subgraph of a square-free bipartite graph is square-free bipartite, from Proposition 3.4 we immediately obtain:

**Theorem 3.5.** Every square-free bipartite graph is beautiful.

# 3.2 Characterization of beautiful line graphs of squarefree bipartite graphs

Now we completely describe square-free line graphs of bipartite graphs, i.e. we consider line graphs of square-free bipartite graphs. Here, the situation is more complicated.

We begin by fixing some notation. In this section, we let  $\tilde{G} := (U_l \cup U_r, \tilde{E})$  be a square-free bipartite graph, and we let  $G := L(\tilde{G}) = (V, E), V := \tilde{E}$ , be its line graph. For  $u \in U_l$  define  $K_u^l := \{e \in V \mid u \in e\}$ .  $K_u^r$  is defined analogously for  $u \in U_r$ . Each  $K_u^l$  is a clique in G and  $\{K_u^l \mid u \in U_l\}$  is a partition of V, the *left clique partition of G.* The *right clique partition* is defined analogously. We prove all results for the *left side* only, but of course, they also hold for the *right side.* We need the following claim:

**Claim 3.6.** Let  $u, u' \in U_l$ ,  $u \neq u'$ , be arbitrary. Then between  $K_u^l$  and  $K_{u'}^l$  there is at most one edge.

*Proof.* We assume the opposite. Let  $e_1, e_2 \in K_u^l$ ,  $e_1 \neq e_2$ , and let  $d \in K_{u'}^l$ , such that  $\{e_1, d\}, \{e_2, d\} \in E$ . Then there exist distinct  $v_1, v_2 \in U_r$  such that  $e_i = \{u, v_i\}, i \in [2]$ . As  $\{e_1, d\} \in E$ , we obtain  $d = \{u, v_1\}$ , and also  $d = \{u, v_2\}$  by  $\{e_2, d\} \in E$ , a contradiction.

Now we assume  $e_1, e_2 \in K_u^l$ ,  $e_1 \neq e_2$ , and  $d_1, d_2 \in K_{u'}^l$ ,  $d_1 \neq d_2$ , such that  $\{e_1, d_1\}, \{e_2, d_2\} \in E$ . By the argument above, we have  $\{e_1, d_2\}, \{e_2, d_1\} \notin E$ . As  $\{e_1, e_2\}, \{d_1, d_2\} \in E$  we get  $C_4 \leq_{iso} G$ , again a contradiction. We conclude that there is at most one edge between  $K_u^l$  and  $K_{u'}^l$ .

**Definition 3.7.** For  $u \in U_l$  define the set of *connection nodes* as

$$B_u^l := \{e \in K_u^l \mid \exists u' \in U_l : u \neq u', e \text{ adjacent to } K_{u'}^l\}$$

**Lemma 3.8.** Assume that G is beautiful. Then the following statements hold:

- 1. Assume there exist distinct  $u, u' \in U_l$ , distinct  $e_1, e_2 \in K_u^l$ , and  $d \in K_{u'}^l$ such that  $\{d, e_1\} \in E$ . Let  $G =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$  for a matrix M. If R(v) denotes the corresponding nonextendible combinatorial rectangle of  $v \in V$  in M, then we must have  $cross\{R(e_1), R(e_2)\}$  and  $cross\{R(e_1), R(d)\}$ .
- 2. In each clique  $K_u^l$  there exist at most two nodes adjacent to other cliques  $K_{\cdot}^l$ . Especially, we must have  $|B_u^l| \leq 2$  for each  $u \in U_l$ .
- 3. Let  $u_i \in U_l$  be pairwise distinct, and let  $e_i \in K_{u_i}^l$ ,  $i \in [3]$ . Then the set of nodes  $\{e_i \mid i \in [3]\}$  cannot form a triangle in G.
- 4.  $\mathcal{G}(\bigcup_{u \in U_l} B_u^l)$  is bipartite.

*Proof.* 1. We assume  $spade\{R(e_1), R(e_2)\}$ . By Lemma 2.2 (3) there exist distinct  $g_1, g_2 \in V$  such that  $\{e_1, e_2, g_1, g_2\}$  is a  $K_4$  in G. By Claim 3.6 we get  $g_1, g_2 \in K_u^l$ . In case  $cross\{R(e_1), R(d)\}$  we must have  $\{d, e_1\}, \{d, g_1\} \in E$  or

 $\{d, e_1\}, \{d, g_2\} \in E$ , which is impossible by Claim 3.6. In case  $spade\{R(e_1), R(d)\}$  by Lemma 2.2 (3) there exist distinct  $h_1, h_2 \in V$  such that  $\{e_1, d, h_1, h_2\}$  is a  $K_4$  in G. In addition, the nodes  $g_1, g_2, h_1, h_2$  are pairwise distinct. W.l.o.g.  $\{h_1, e_1\}, \{h_1, g_1\} \in E$ . The case  $\{h_1, e_1\}, \{h_1, g_2\} \in E$  is analogous. If  $h_1 \in K_u^l$ , then  $\{d, e_1\}, \{d, h_1\} \in E$  contradicting Claim 3.6. If  $h_1 \notin K_u^l$ , then there exists  $u'' \in U_l, u \neq u''$ , such that  $h_1 \in K_{u''}^l$ . But then  $\{h_1, e_1\}, \{h_1, g_1\} \in E$  again contradicts Claim 3.6. We conclude that the situation  $spade\{R(e_1), R(e_2)\}$  cannot occur. By Lemma 2.2 (1) we obtain  $cross\{R(e_1), R(e_2)\}$  proving the first statement.

Now, we assume  $spade\{R(e_1), R(d)\}$ . By Lemma 2.2 (3) there exist distinct  $g_1, g_2 \in V$  such that  $\{e_1, d, g_1, g_2\}$  is a  $K_4$  in G. By Claim 3.6 there must exist  $u_1, u_2 \in U_l, u, u', u_1, u_2$  pairwise distinct, such that  $g_1 \in K_{u_1}^l$  and  $g_2 \in K_{u_2}^l$ . We saw in the first part of this proof, that we must have a  $cross\{R(e_1), R(e_2)\}$  situation between  $e_1$  and  $e_2$ . This implies the situation  $cross\{R(e_2), R(g_2)\}$ . But both  $\{e_2, g_1\} \in E$  or  $\{e_2, g_2\} \in E$  together with  $\{e_1, g_1\}, \{e_1, g_2\} \in E$  contradict Claim 3.6. We conclude  $cross\{R(e_1), R(d)\}$ .

2. We assume the opposite. Let  $u, u_1, u_2, u_3 \in U_l$  be pairwise distinct, and let  $e_1, e_2, e_3 \in K_u^l$  be pairwise distinct. Let  $g_i \in K_{u_i}^l$ , such that  $\{g_i, e_i\} \in E$ ,  $i \in [3]$ . By (1) we only have cross situations  $cross\{R(g_i), R(e_i)\}$ ,  $i \in [3]$ ,  $cross\{R(e_1), R(e_2)\}$ ,  $cross\{R(e_1), R(e_3)\}$  and also  $cross\{R(e_2), R(e_3)\}$ . W.l.o.g. we can assume  $cross(R(g_1), R(e_1))$ . Then  $cross(R(e_2), R(e_1))$  as otherwise the case  $R(g_1) \cap R(e_2) \neq \emptyset$  would imply  $\{g_1, e_2\} \in E$  contradicting Claim 3.6. By an analogous argument we get  $cross(R(e_2), R(g_2))$  and  $cross(R(e_2), R(e_3))$ .  $B(R(e_1)) \cap B(R(e_3)) = \emptyset$  cannot be the case, as  $\{e_1, e_3\} \in E(K_u^l$  is a clique). But  $B(R(e_1)) \cap B(R(e_3)) \neq \emptyset$  implies  $R(e_3) \cap R(g_1) \neq \emptyset$  and thus,  $\{e_3, g_1\} \in E$ , again contradicting Claim 3.6. We conclude that in each clique  $K_u^l$  there are at most two nodes adjacent to other cliques  $K_i^l$ .

3. We assume the opposite. Then there exist  $v, v_1, v_2, v_3 \in U_r$  pairwise distinct, such that  $\{u_i, v_i\}, \{u_i, v\} \in \tilde{E}, i \in [3]$ . Thus, in  $K_v^r$  there exist more than two nodes adjacent to other cliques in contradiction to (2), which also holds for the right clique partition.

4. We assume, that the induced subgraph  $D := G(\bigcup_{u \in U_l} B_u^l)$  is not bipartite. Then D contains an odd cycle. As G is beautiful, also D is beautiful. One can show by induction on the cycle length, that a Berge graph containing an odd cycle as a subgraph (not necessarily induced) contains a triangle. Thus, Dcontains a triangle  $\{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ . Each node  $e_i$  must lie in a separate clique by Claim 3.6. But this contradicts (3). We conclude that D must be bipartite.  $\Box$ 

The derivations above (Lemma 3.8) motivate the following definition:

**Definition 3.9.** *G* has the *property*  $\mathcal{B}$  if

- $|B_u^l| \leq 2$  for each  $u \in U_l$ , and
- $G(\bigcup_{u \in U_l} B_u^l)$  is bipartite.

**Lemma 3.10.** If G has property  $\mathcal{B}$ , then G is a cs-graph.

Proof. Let  $G = L(\tilde{G})$  be the line graph of a square-free bipartite graph  $\tilde{G} = (U_l \cup U_r, \tilde{E})$ , where G has property  $\mathcal{B}$ . W.l.o.g. assume  $U_l = [m]$ . Let  $\{K_u^l \mid u \in U_l\}$  be the left clique partition of G. Define  $s_u := |K_u^l|$  and  $s := \max\{s_u \mid u \in U_l\}$ . We have to define a matrix M such that  $G =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ . Define the block matrix  $M := (M_{i,j})_{i,j\in[m]}$ , where each block  $M_{i,j}$  is an  $s \times s$ -matrix over  $\{0,1\}$ . In the diagonal, the left cliques are represented, i.e.  $M_{i,i} := \operatorname{rep} K_{s_i}^{(s)}, i \in [m]$ . See Subsection 1.4 for the definition of  $\operatorname{rep} K_{s_i}^{(s)}$ . By Lemma 3.8 (4) we know that  $\mathcal{G}(\bigcup_{u \in U_l} B_u^l)$  is bipartite. Thus, there exists a 2-coloring  $c : \bigcup_{u \in U_l} B_u^l \to [2]$ . For each  $B_u^l \neq \emptyset$ , we can now define its elements. If  $e \in B_u^l$  and c(e) = b, define  $e_u^b := e, b \in [2]$ . Trivially,  $c(e_u^b) = b$ . Now we can define the nondiagonal blocks in M: For distinct  $i, j \in [m]$ , if  $e_i^1$  is adjacent to  $e_j^2$ , then define

$$M_{i,j} \quad := \quad E_{1,1} := \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

Otherwise, let  $M_{i,j} := (0)$ . Note, that there does not exist any nonextendible rectangle R in M, such that R covers elements in blocks  $M_{i,j}, M_{r,s}$  with  $i \neq r$ ,  $j \neq s$ . Assume the contrary. We distinguish three cases: In case i = j and r = sthe left cliques  $K_i^l$  and  $K_r^l$  would be connected by two edges  $\{e_i^1, e_r^2\}, \{e_i^2, e_r^1\} \in$ E, which is impossible. In case i = j and  $r \neq s$  by construction of M, there would exist edges  $\{e_i^1, e_r^2\}, \{e_s^1, e_r^2\}, \{e_s^1, e_i^2\} \in E$  implying  $C_4 \leq_{iso} G$ , because  $\{e_i^1, e_i^2\} \in E$  and  $\{e_i^1, e_s^1\}, \{e_i^2, e_r^2\} \notin E$ , as c is a 2-coloring. But this is impossible, as G is square-free. Similarly, in case  $i \neq j$  and  $r \neq s$ , there would exist edges  $\{e_i^1, e_j^2\}, \{e_j^2, e_r^1\}, \{e_r^1, e_s^2\}, \{e_s^2, e_i^1\} \in E$ , again forming an induced  $C_4$  in G. Thus, such a rectangle R cannot exist, and we conclude  $G =_{iso} \mathcal{G}(M)$ .

Every induced subgraph of the line graph of a square-free bipartite graph, which has property  $\mathcal{B}$ , is also the line graph of a square-free bipartite graph, which has property  $\mathcal{B}$ . Thus, by Lemma 3.10 we have:

#### **Theorem 3.11.** If G has property $\mathcal{B}$ , then G is beautiful.

As a technical intermediate characterization by Lemma 3.8 (2) and (4), and Theorem 3.11 we get:

 $\square$ 

#### **Theorem 3.12.** G is beautiful iff G has property $\mathcal{B}$ .

But what do these graphs look like? In  $U_r$  we can safely ignore isolated nodes. We delete nodes of degree one obtaining  $U'_r$ . We also delete nodes in  $U_l$ which have become isolated. Call the new set  $U'_l$ . The property of  $G(\bigcup_{u \in U_l} B^l_u)$ being bipartite implies that in  $U'_r$  nodes of degree  $\geq 3$  do not exist (otherwise, one would have a triangle). If we restrict  $\tilde{G}$  on  $U'_l$  and  $U'_r$ , all nodes on the right side have degree two while all nodes on the left have degree one. This graph consists of disjoint cycles of even length  $\geq 6$  and paths of even length  $\geq 2$ . Thus, the corresponding line graph consists of cycles of even length and paths of odd length. We color the edges of G red and green such that end edges are colored green. The leaves in  $\tilde{G}$  induce additional cliques in the line graph. These are cliques of arbitrary size which are attached to the start or end nodes of a path or contain a single red edge of a path or a cycle and only additional nodes and edges. We call such graphs Odd Paths and Even Cycles of Cliques graph, see e.g. Figure 4.

Thus, our main theorem reads as follows:



Figure 4: Odd Paths and Even Cycles of Cliques

**Theorem 3.13.** A line graph of a square-free bipartite graph is beautiful iff it is an Odd Paths and Even Cycles of Cliques graph.  $\Box$ 

Acknowledgements I would like to thank Martin Dietzfelbinger for many fruitful discussions and for his contribution to Theorem 3.13.

I would also like to thank Andreas Brandstädt and Michael Stiebitz for their suggestions concerning the presentation of this paper, Jacobo Torán for interesting discussions, and Thanh Minh Hoang and Fabian Wagner for careful proofreading.

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Herausgeber: Universität Ulm Fakultät für Ingenieurwissenschaften und Informatik 89069 Ulm