# On List Colouring and List Homomorphism of Permutation and Interval Graphs 

Jessica Enright ${ }^{1}$, Lorna Stewart ${ }^{1}$, and Gábor Tardos ${ }^{2}$<br>${ }^{1}$ University of Alberta<br>${ }^{2}$ Simon Fraser University and Rényi Institute


#### Abstract

List colouring is an NP-complete decision problem even if the total number of colours is three. It is hard even on planar bipartite graphs. We give a polynomial-time algorithm for solving list colouring of permutation graphs with a bounded total number of colours. More generally we give a polynomial-time algorithm that solves the listhomomorphism problem to any fixed target graph for a large class of input graphs including all permutation and interval graphs.


## 1 Introduction

A proper colouring of a graph assigns colours to the vertices such that adjacent vertices receive distinct colours. (In this paper we deal only with vertex colourings.) The $k$-colouring problem asks if a given graph has a proper colouring with at most $k$ colours. For $k \geq 3$ this is NP-complete.

In the list colouring problem each vertex of the input graph comes with a list of allowed colours and we ask if a proper colouring exists where each vertex receives a colour from its list. As a generalization of ordinary colouring, it is NP-complete [8]. List colouring remains hard even on interval graphs [1], as well as split graphs, cographs, and bipartite graphs [7]. It is solvable in polynomial time on trees [7].

Kratochvíl and Tuza [10] showed that list colouring is NP-complete even if the size of each list assigned to a vertex is at most three, each colour appears in at most three lists, each vertex in the graph has degree at most three, and the graph is planar. However, they gave polynomial-time algorithms to solve list colouring on a graph if the maximum list size is at most two, or each colour appears in at most two lists, or each vertex has degree at most two.

Let $k$-list colouring stand for the list colouring problem where the total number of colours is bounded by the constant $k$. This is a generalization of $k$-colouring, thus for $k \geq 3$ it is NP-complete. It remains NP-complete on planar bipartite graphs [9], but is solvable in polynomial time on graphs of fixed treewidth [6].

Note that 2 -list colouring is solvable in polynomial time. Indeed, 2 -colouring is solvable in polynomial time and has at most two (complementary) solutions on each connected component. Thus, for the 2 -list colouring problem it is enough to check that one of these is compatible with the lists on each component.

A graph homomorphism from a graph $G$ to another graph $H$ is a function $f: V(G) \rightarrow V(H)$ satisfying that $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ are adjacent in $H$ whenever $x$ and $y$ are adjacent in $G$. Note that here we allow the graphs to have loops.

Let $H$ be fixed graph. The $H$-colouring problem takes a graph $G$ as input and asks if there is $G$ to $H$ homomorphism. In the list $H$ colouring problem each vertex of the input graph comes with a list of vertices of $H$ and we ask if a $G$ to $H$ homomorphism exists that maps each vertex to a member of its list. Clearly, $k$-colouring is a graph-homomorphism to the complete graph $K_{k}$, so list $H$-colouring is a generalization of $k$-list colouring.

Permutation graphs are comparability cocomparability graphs (see definitions in the next section). List colouring is NP-complete on permutation graphs since cographs are permutation graphs [7]. The $k$-list colouring problem is NP-complete for comparability graphs for $k \geq 3$, since bipartite graphs are comparability graphs. The complexity of $k$-list colouring of cocomparability graphs remains open.

In this paper we give a polynomial-time algorithm for the $k$-list colouring of permutation graphs for any fixed $k$. More generally we give a polynomial-time algorithm that solves the list-homomorphism problem to any fixed target graph for permuatation graphs. The same algorithm also works for interval graphs and more.

Our algorithm is based on what we call a multi-chain ordering (see definition in the next section), a notion related to chain graphs [13] and to a characterization of bipartite permutation graphs given in [4]. The algorithm applies to every graph with all connected induced subgraphs having a multi-chain ordering, among them all permutation graphs and all interval graphs. We also remark that
since adding loops to a graph does not have any effect on the multichain ordering, our algorithm also applies to interval and permutation graphs with loops added to some vertices. The running time for $k$-list colouring, or more generally, for list $H$-colouring for a graph $H$ on $k$ vertices is $O\left(n^{k^{2}-3 k+4}\right)$, where $n$ stands for the number of vertices of the input graph.

Hoàng et al. [5] give an algorithm for $k$-list colouring $P_{5}$-free graphs in polynomial time. Their algorithm, like ours, is based on how colouring of one side of the bipartition of a chain graph can restrict the coloring of the other side, and noticing that there are only a polynomial number of possible such restrictions.

We mention here that a polynomial-time $k$-list colouring algorithm for interval graphs cannot be considered new. Indeed, another polynomial-time algorithm already exists for list $H$-colouring graphs with bounded treewidth. The treewidth of an interval graph is one less than the size of its largest clique. Thus, unless it is bounded one does not have a proper colouring with a bounded number of colours. The same cannot be said about permutation graphs though. Even bipartite permutation graphs have unbounded treewidth.

Multi-chain orderings are based on distance from a starting vertex. They give insight into the structure of permutation or interval graphs, and may lead to algorithms for other problems on these or similar graphs.

## 2 Definitions and Preliminaries

We consider finite graphs only with no multiple edges. We allow for loop edges connecting a vertex to itself and call a graph simple if it has no such edge. (Loop edges in the input graph only make sense for the list $H$-colouring problem if $H$ has at least one loop, so in particular, not for $k$-list colouring.) We represent graphs as a pair $G=(V, E)$, where $V=V(G)$ is the vertex set and $E=E(G)$ is the edge set. We denote the edge connecting $x$ to $y$ by $x y$, so $x y=y x$. In a directed graph we have ordered pairs of vertices as edges and denote such an edge as $\overrightarrow{u v}$ saying it leaves the vertex $u$ and is oriented toward the vertex $v$. A sink is a vertex that no edge leaves. A directed graph is transitive if the presence of the edges $\overrightarrow{u v}$ and $\overrightarrow{v w}$ implies the presence of $\overrightarrow{u w}$. An orientation of the simple graph
$G=(V, E)$ is a directed graph $G=(V, \vec{E})$, where $\vec{E}$ is obtained by replacing each edge $\{u, v\} \in E$ by one of its orientations: $\overrightarrow{u v}$ or $\overrightarrow{v u}$ but not both. A comparability graph is a simple graph that admits a transitive orientation. Equivalently, a graph is a comparability graph if there is a partial order on the vertices with exactly the adjacent (distinct) vertices being comparable. The complement of the simple graph $G=(V, E)$ is $\bar{G}=(V, \bar{E})$, where $\bar{E}$ contains all possible non-loop edges on $V$ not in $E$. We sometimes call the edges of $\bar{G}$ the nonedges of $G$. A cocomparability graph is a graph whose complement is a comparability graph. Graphs that are simultaneously comparability and cocomparability graphs are called permutation graphs. Permutation graphs are exactly the graphs $G=(V, E)$ that are obtained from a permutation $\pi:\{1, \ldots, n\} \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, n\}$ by setting $V=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ and $E=\left\{x_{i} x_{j} \mid i<j, \pi(i)<\pi(j)\right\}$. A simple graph is an interval graph if one can identify its vertices with real intervals such that two vertices are adjacent if and only if the corresponding intervals intersect. Such intervals can always be chosen to have distinct endpoints. Weakly chordal graphs are simple graphs with no induced $C_{n}$ or $\overline{C_{n}}$, for $n>4$.

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph. A list mapping of $G$ is a mapping that assigns a set (list) of colours to each vertex in $G$. A colouring of $G$ obeys a list mapping if it assigns every vertex a colour from its list. More generally, if the graph $H$ is fixed a list mapping of $G$ assigns a subset of $V(H)$ (a list) to every vertex of $G$. A homomorphism from $G$ to $H$ obeys the list mapping if each vertex is mapped to member of its list.

A chain graph is a bipartite graph that contains no induced $2 K_{2}$. This name was introduced by Yannakakis [13]. The following characterization is easily seen to be equivalent to the definition. A bipartite graph with sides (partite sets) $A$ and $B$ is a chain graph if and only if for any two vertices in $A$ the neighborhood of one of them contains the neighborhood of the other. As a consequence we see that if we order the vertices of $B$ according to decreasing degree (breaking ties arbitrarily), then the neighborhood of any vertex in $A$ consists of a consecutive (in the ordering) set of vertices in $B$, including the first vertex of $B$.

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected graph. The distance layers of $G$ from a vertex $v_{0}$ are $\left\{v_{0}\right\}=L_{0}, L_{1}, \ldots, L_{z}$, where $L_{i}$ consists of the
vertices at distance $i$ from $v_{0}$ and $z$ is the largest integer for which this set is not empty. These layers form a multi-chain ordering of $G$ if for every two consecutive layers $L_{i}$ and $L_{i+1}$ the edges connecting these two layers form a chain graph.

Our algorithm processes each connected component of the input graph separately. It is based on multi-chain orderings of the components and uses the following simple properties of such orderings: (a) H -colouring of one layer in a multi-chain ordering has limited effect on the colouring of the next layer and no direct effect on subsequent layers and (b) each layer has a vertex that is adjacent to all vertices in the next layer, thus if this vertex is mapped to $c$ then all non-neighbours of $c$ will be missing from the $H$-colouring of the next layer, practically reducing the size of $H$. Note that (b) does not apply if $H$ has a vertex $c$ that is adjacent to every vertex of $H$ including itself. Fortunately this easy special case can be handled by alternate methods.

Lemma 1. Let $\vec{G}=(V, \vec{E})$ be a transitive orientation of a connected comparability graph $G=(V, E)$. Let $v_{0} \in V$ be a sink in $\vec{G}$ and let $L_{0}, \ldots, L_{z}$ be the distance layers of $G$ from $v_{0}$. Then for $0 \leq i<z$ all edges of $\vec{E}$ between the vertices of two consecutive layers $L_{i}$ and $L_{i+1}$ are oriented toward $L_{i}$ if $i$ is even and all these edges are oriented toward $L_{i+1}$ if $i$ is odd.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $i$. For $i=0$ the statement of the lemma holds since $v_{0}$ is a sink. Each $u \in L_{i}$ for $i>0$ has a neighbour $u^{\prime} \in L_{i-1}$, and an edge between $u$ and $L_{i+1}$ oriented "the wrong way" would imply the presence of an edge between $u^{\prime}$ and $L_{i+1}$ by transitivity, a contradiction.

Lemma 2. Let $\vec{G}=(V, \overrightarrow{\bar{E}})$ be a transitive orientation of the complement of a connected comparability graph $G=(V, E)$. Let $v_{0} \in V$ be a sink in $\overrightarrow{\bar{G}}$ and let $L_{0}, \ldots, L_{z}$ be the distance layers of $G$ from the vertex $v_{0}$. Then for every pair of layers $L_{i}, L_{j}$ where $0 \leq i<j \leq z$ all edges of $\vec{G}$ between $L_{i}$ and $L_{j}$ are directed toward $L_{i}$.

Proof. We proceed by induction on $i$. For $i=0$ the statement follows from $v_{0}$ being a sink. Let us consider $i>0$ and assume for
contradiction that $\overrightarrow{u v}$ is an edge of $\vec{G}$ with $u \in L_{i}$ and $v \in L_{j}, j>i$. Now $v$ is not adjacent in $G$ to any vertex $u^{\prime} \in L_{i-1}$, so by the induction hypothesis we have $\overrightarrow{v u^{\prime}} \in \vec{E}$ and by transitivity $\overrightarrow{u u^{\prime}} \in \overrightarrow{\bar{E}}$. But this contradicts the fact that $u$ has a neighbour $u^{\prime} \in L_{i-1}$ in $G$, so no orientation of an edge between $u$ and this neighbour should be present in $\vec{G}$.

Theorem 1. Every connected permutation graph has a multi-chain ordering.
Proof. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a permutation graph and let $\vec{G}$ be a transitive orientation of $G$ and $\vec{G}$ a transitive orientation of the complement of $G$.

Let $v_{0}$ be a vertex that is a sink in both of the graphs $\vec{G}$ and $\vec{G}$, the existence of which is shown in [12]. We claim that the distance layers $L_{0}, \ldots, L_{z}$ of $G$ from $v_{0}$ form a multi-chain ordering. To see this assume for a contradiction that $u, v \in L_{i}$ and $u^{\prime}, v^{\prime} \in L_{i-1}$ are vertices of two neighbouring layers and $u$ is adjacent with $u^{\prime}$ but not with $v^{\prime}$ in $G$ and $v$ is adjacent with $v^{\prime}$ but not with $u^{\prime}$. We distinguish two cases according to whether $u$ and $v$ are adjacent in $G$.

Assume first that $u$ and $v$ are adjacent and assume without loss of generality that this edge is oriented toward $v$ in $\vec{G}$. By Lemma 1, either both the edge between $u$ and $u^{\prime}$ and between $v$ and $v^{\prime}$ are oriented toward $L_{i}$, or both are oriented toward $L_{i-1}$. In the former case we should have $\overrightarrow{u^{\prime} v} \in \vec{E}$ by transitivity, contradicting our assumption that $v$ is not adjacent with $u^{\prime}$ in $G$. In the latter case we similarly have $\overrightarrow{u v^{\prime}} \in \vec{E}$, again a contradiction.

Now assume that $u$ and $v$ are not adjacent in $G$ and assume without loss of generality that this nonedge is oriented toward $v$ in $\vec{G}$. By Lemma 2, the nonedge between $v$ and $u^{\prime}$ is oriented toward $u^{\prime}$ in $\vec{G}$. By transitivity we have $\overrightarrow{u u^{\prime}} \in \vec{E}$ contradicting our assumption that $u$ and $u^{\prime}$ are adjacent in $G$.

Not every graph with a multi-chain ordering is a permutation graph. Further examples are given by interval graphs as shown by the next theorem. In addition, $C_{n}$ and $\overline{C_{n}}$ where $n>4$, and the graph $T$ defined as $K_{1,3}$ with each edge subdivided once, do not have
multi-chain orderings. Therefore, there are cocomparability graphs and even trees that do not have multi-chain orderings. Moreover, any graph such that all induced subgraphs have multi-chain orderings must be a weakly chordal graph, but not all weakly chordal graphs have multi-chain orderings. We also note that the complement of the graph $T$ is a cocomparability graph that is neither a permutation graph nor an interval graph, in which every connected subgraph has a multi-chain ordering. For further information about these graph classes, the reader is referred to [3].

Theorem 2. All connected interval graphs admit multi-chain orderings.

Proof. Consider an interval representation in which all interval endpoints are distinct. We can choose $v_{0}$ to be the vertex with the leftmost left endpoint. One can find reals $x_{0}<x_{1} \ldots$ such that the layer $L_{i}$ of $G$ at distance $i$ from $v_{0}$ consists of the vertices with left endpoint in $\left(x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right]$. To see that these layers form a multi-chain ordering of $G$ take two vertices (intervals) in $L_{i}$ and let $u$ be the one with its left end point more to the left, and $v$ the other. Clearly, all intervals in $L_{i-1}$ intersecting $v$ must also intersect $u$.

Our list $H$-colouring algorithm works for every graph whose connected induced subgraphs all have multi-chain orderings, and it runs in polynomial time as long as $H$ is fixed. The last two theorems show that this class includes all permutation and interval graphs (and the graphs obtained from them by adding some loops). Restricting attention to complete graphs $H=K_{k}$ we get polynomial-time $k$-list colouring algorithms.

Given a connected graph $G$ and vertex $v$ of $G$, we can check whether the distance layers from starting vertex $v$ form a multichain ordering in $O(m)$ time where $m$ is the number of edges of $G$. The algorithm for doing so uses breadth-first search to generate the distance layers from $v$ and to compute the degree of each vertex in the next layer. It then uses bucket sort to order the vertices of each layer by decreasing size of their neighbourhood in the previous layer. Finally it checks that for each vertex it holds that its neighbours in the next layer appear in the beginning of that layer before the nonneighbours. Each step can be accomplished in $O(m)$ time.

As a naive algorithm to check if a connected graph has a multichain ordering, and generate it if it does, we can start a breadth-first search from each vertex, and check to see if that search has given us a multi-chain ordering in $O(n m)$ time overall. In some classes, for example permutation graphs, this can be done more quickly. In the case of permutation graphs, we can use the output of the lineartime recognition algorithm provided by McConnell and Spinrad [11] to identify a vertex that is a sink in some transitive orientation of both the graph and its complement. We can then generate the distance layers from this vertex in $O(m)$ time which is a multi-chain ordering as the proof of Theorem 1 shows. Similarly, several linear time algorithms exist to find a "leftmost" vertex in a interval graph, the earliest one being [2]. The distance layers can be constructed from there in linear time. As the proof of Theorem 2 shows this is a multi-chain ordering.

## 3 The algorithm

In this section we present our algorithm to list $H$-colour any graph with the property that all connected induced subgraphs have multichain orderings. The algorithm runs in polynomial time if $H$ is fixed. Since the algorithm handles connected components separately, we consider only connected graphs in the following description.

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected graph and let $L_{0}, \ldots, L_{z}$ form a multi-chain ordering of $G$. For $x \in L_{i}$ we introduce $d_{-}(x)$ for the number of neighbours of $x$ in $L_{i-1}$ (or 0 if $i=0$ ) and $d_{+}(x)$ for the number of neighbours of $x$ in $L_{i+1}$ (or 0 if $i=z$ ). We fix an ordering of the vertices within each layer according to decreasing $d_{-}$ values breaking ties arbitrarily. As observed in the definition of chain graphs, this ordering ensures that the neighbours of a vertex $x \in L_{i}$ among the vertices of the next layer $L_{i+1}$ must be the first $d_{+}(x)$ vertices in that layer.

Let us fix the target graph $H$ with vertex set $C=V(H)$. Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a list mapping of $G$, so $\mathcal{P}(x) \subseteq C$ for every vertex $x \in V$.

A configuration is a pair $(i, B)$, where $1 \leq i \leq z$ and $B: C \rightarrow$ $\left\{0,1, \ldots,\left|L_{i}\right|\right\}$ satisfying that $B$ takes both 0 and $\left|L_{i}\right|$ as values. We introduce two more special configurations: $S_{0}=\left(0, B_{0}\right)$ and $S_{z+1}=$ $\left(z+1, B_{0}\right)$, where $B_{0}: C \rightarrow\{0\}$ is the constant zero function.

These configurations form the vertices of the configuration graph. This is a directed graph that contains the edge from $(i, B)$ to $\left(i^{\prime}, B^{\prime}\right)$ if $i^{\prime}=i+1$ and there is a homomorphism $\chi$ from the subgraph $G_{i}$ of $G$ induced by the layer $L_{i}$ to $H$ providing for this edge, i.e., satisfying the following three conditions:

- $\chi$ obeys $\mathcal{P}$, i.e., for $x \in L_{i}$ we have $\chi(x) \in \mathcal{P}(x)$.
- $\chi$ does not assign $c \in C$ to the first $B(c)$ vertices in $L_{i}$ (recall that $L_{i}$ is ordered).
- For each $x \in L_{i}$ and $c \in C$ with $c$ not adjacent to $\chi(x)$ in $H$ we have $B^{\prime}(c) \geq d_{+}(x)$.

We call a vertex of the graph $H$ universal if it is connected to every vertex of $H$. In particular, a universal vertex must be connected to itself too. The importance of the configuration graph is shown by the following theorem.

Theorem 3. Assume $H$ has no universal vertex. Then $G$ has a homomorphism to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$ if and only if there exists a directed path from $S_{0}$ to $S_{z+1}$ in the configuration graph.

Proof. Assume $\chi: V \rightarrow C$ is a homomorphism from $G$ to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$. For $1 \leq i \leq z$ define the function $B_{i}$ on $C$ by setting $B_{i}(c)$ to be the largest integer $0 \leq B_{i}(c) \leq\left|L_{i}\right|$ satisfying that $\chi$ does not map any of the first $B_{i}(c)$ vertices of $L_{i}$ to $c$. Clearly, $B_{i}$ takes the value 0 on $\chi(x)$ for the first vertex $x$ of $L_{i}$. We know that the vertices in the layer $L_{i}$ have a common neighbour $y$ in $L_{i-1}$. As $\chi(y)$ is not universal in $H$ there must exist $c \in C$ not adjacent to $\chi(y)$ and thus $\chi$ cannot take the value $c$ on any neighbour of $y$ making $B_{i}(c)=\left|L_{i}\right|$. Thus $S_{i}=\left(i, B_{i}\right)$ is a configuration. We claim that $S_{0} S_{1} \ldots S_{z} S_{z+1}$ is a directed path in the configuration graph. Indeed, for $0 \leq i \leq z$ the restriction of $\chi$ to $L_{i}$ provides for the edge $\overrightarrow{S_{i} S_{i+1}}$. Conditions (1) and (2) are satisfied trivially; to see (3) one has to use our observation that the neighbours in $L_{i+1}$ of any vertex $x \in L_{i}$ are the first $d_{+}(x)$ vertices of that layer.

Conversely, let us assume that there is a directed path from $S_{0}$ to $S_{z+1}$ in the configuration graph. By the layered structure of the configuration graph this path must be of the form $S_{0} S_{1} \ldots S_{z} S_{z+1}$ with $S_{i}=\left(i, B_{i}\right)$ and appropriate functions $B_{i}$. For $0 \leq i \leq z$ let
$\chi_{i}: L_{i} \rightarrow C$ be a homomorphism providing for the $\overrightarrow{S_{i} S_{i+1}}$ edge and let $\chi: V \rightarrow C$ be the union of these maps. We claim that $\chi$ is a $G$ to $H$ homomorphism obeying $\mathcal{P}$.

The function $\chi$ obeys $\mathcal{P}$ since all its parts $\chi_{i}$ do so by condition (1).

To see that $\chi$ is a homomorphism we have to show that the image of every edge $x y \in E$ is an edge in $H$. Clearly, $x$ and $y$ have to come from the same or neighbouring layers. If they are in the same layer $L_{i}$, then $\chi(x) \chi(y)=\chi_{i}(x) \chi_{i}(y) \in E(H)$ because $\chi_{i}$ is a homomorphism. Now assume that for some $0 \leq i<z$ we have vertices $x \in L_{i}$ and $y \in L_{i+1}$ such that their images $\chi(x)=\chi_{i}(x)$ and $\chi(y)=\chi_{i+1}(y)$ are not adjacent in $H$. By condition (2) $\chi_{i+1}$ does not map the first $B_{i+1}(\chi(y))$ vertices of $L_{i+1}$ to $\chi(y)$. Thus $y$ is not among the first $B_{i+1}(\chi(y))$ vertices of $L_{i+1}$. By condition (3) on $\chi_{i}$ we have $B_{i+1}(\chi(y)) \geq d_{+}(x)$, so $y$ is not among the first $d_{+}(x)$ vertices of $L_{i+1}$, so it is not adjacent to $x$ as needed.

Our next theorem tells us how to construct the configuration graph, more precisely, how to decide whether an edge is present. Let us fix two configurations $S=(i, B)$ and $S^{\prime}=\left(i+1, B^{\prime}\right)$. Let $G_{i}$ be the subgraph of $G$ induced on the layer $L_{i}$ and let us define a list mapping $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ on $G_{i}$ as follows. For $1 \leq j \leq\left|L_{i}\right|$ let $x_{j}$ stand for the $j^{\prime}$ 'th vertex in the layer $L_{i}$ and let us set $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\left(x_{j}\right)=\left\{c \in \mathcal{P}\left(x_{j}\right) \mid\right.$ $B(c)<j, \forall c^{\prime} \in C\left(d_{+}\left(x_{j}\right) \leq B^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)\right.$ or $\left.\left.c c^{\prime} \in E(H)\right)\right\}$.

Theorem 4. With $S, S^{\prime}, G_{i}$ and $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ as above there is an edge from $S$ to $S^{\prime}$ in the configuration graph if and only if $G_{i}$ has a homomorphism to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$.

Proof. Any homomorphism providing for $\overrightarrow{S S^{\prime}}$ obeys $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ by the conditions (1-3). Conversely any homomorphism from $G_{i}$ to $H$ that obeys $\mathcal{P}^{\prime}$ provides for this edge.

We now present our algorithm for the list $H$-colouring problem for graphs with all connected induced subgraphs having a multichain ordering.

```
Algorithm \(1 \mathrm{LH}(G, \mathcal{P}, H)\)
    Input: Graphs \(G, H\), list mapping \(\mathcal{P}\) where every connected induced subgraph of \(G\)
    must have a multi-chain ordering
    Output: TRUE if there is a homomorphism from \(G\) to \(H\) obeying \(\mathcal{P}\); FALSE oth-
    erwise
    Let \(H^{\prime}\) be the subgraph of \(H\) induced by vertices that appear in at least one list of
    \(\mathcal{P}\).
    if \(H^{\prime} \neq H\) then return \(\operatorname{LH}\left(G, \mathcal{P}, H^{\prime}\right)\)
    end if
    if \(H\) has a universal vertex \(c\) then
        Let \(G^{\prime}\) be the subgraph of \(G\) induced by the vertices \(x\) with \(c \notin \mathcal{P}(x)\)
            and let \(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\) be the restriction of \(\mathcal{P}\) to this subgraph. return \(\mathrm{LH}\left(G^{\prime}, H, \mathcal{P}^{\prime}\right)\)
    end if
    if \(G\) has a single vertex then
        if \(H\) has a loop or \(G\) has no loop and \(H\) has at least one vertex then return
    TRUE
        elsereturn FALSE
        end if
    end if
    for each connected component \(D=(V, E)\) of \(G\) do
        if \(H\) has at most two vertices then
            Find all (the at most two) homomorphisms from \(D\) to \(H\).
            if at least one of the homomorphisms obeys \(\mathcal{P}\) then
                    \(c_{D} \leftarrow\) TRUE
            else
                \(c_{D} \leftarrow\) FALSE
            end if
        else
            Find a multi-chain ordering \(L_{0}, \ldots, L_{z}\) of \(D\) and order the vertices of
                each layer by decreasing size of neighbourhood in the next layer.
            Initialize the directed configuration graph to have a vertex for each
                configuration of this multi-chain ordering including \(S_{0}\) and \(S_{z+1}\).
            for \(i \leftarrow 0\) to \(z-1\) do
                Let \(D_{i}\) be the subgraph of \(D\) induced by \(L_{i}\).
                    for each pair of configurations \(S=(i, B)\) and \(S^{\prime}=\left(i+1, B^{\prime}\right)\) do
                        Construct a list mapping \(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\) for \(D_{i}\) as follows.
                            for \(j \leftarrow 1\) to \(\left|L_{i}\right|\) do
                                    Let \(x_{j}\) stand for the \(j\) 'th vertex in the layer \(L_{i}\).
                                    \(\mathcal{P}^{\prime}\left(x_{j}\right) \leftarrow\left\{c \in \mathcal{P}\left(x_{j}\right) \mid B(c)<j\right.\),
                            \(\forall c^{\prime} \in V(H)\left(d_{+}\left(x_{j}\right) \leq B^{\prime}\left(c^{\prime}\right)\right.\) or \(\left.\left.c c^{\prime} \in E(H)\right)\right\}\)
                    end for
                    if \(\operatorname{LH}\left(D_{i}, \mathcal{P}^{\prime}, \underline{H}\right)=\) TRUE then
                            Add edge \(\overrightarrow{S S^{\prime}}\) to the configuration graph
                    end if
                end for
            end for
```

```
Algorithm \(1 \mathrm{LH}(G, \mathcal{P}, H)\) (continued)
    if there is a directed path from \(S_{0}\) to \(S_{z+1}\) in the configuration graph then
            \(c_{D} \leftarrow\) TRUE
            else
                \(c_{D} \leftarrow\) FALSE
            end if
        end if
    end for
    if \(c_{D}=\) TRUE for all components \(D\) of \(G\) then return TRUE
    elsereturn FALSE
    end if
```

We are given a fixed graph $H$, an input graph $G$ and the list mapping $\mathcal{P}$. We start with very simple reductions.

If $H$ has a universal vertex $c$, then consider the subgraph $G^{\prime}$ of $G$ induced by the vertices whose lists do not contain $c$. Clearly, $G$ has a homomorphism to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$ if and only if $G^{\prime}$ has such a homomorphism as the vertices outside $G^{\prime}$ can "freely" be mapped to c.

Let $H^{\prime}$ stand for the subgraph of $H$ induced by all the vertices that appear in the lists in $\mathcal{P}$. Clearly, $G$ has a homomorphism to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$ if and only if $G$ has a homomorphism to $H^{\prime}$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$.
$G$ has homomorphism to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$ if and only if all connected components of $G$ have homomorphisms to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$.

We use the these reductions (repeatedly, if necessary) until we arrive at a problem in which $G$ is connected, $H$ has no universal vertex and each vertex of $H$ appears on a list of $\mathcal{P}$.

Start by constructing the layers $L_{0}, \ldots, L_{z}$ of a multi-chain ordering of $G$ with the corresponding ordering of the vertices within the layers according to decreasing $d_{-}$degrees. Construct the configurations for this multi-chain ordering including $S_{0}$ and $S_{z+1}$. Construct the edges of the configuration graph using a recursive call to check for the presence of each possible edge using the equivalent condition as given in Theorem 4. Return TRUE if there is directed path from $S_{0}$ to $S_{z+1}$ in the configuration graph and return FALSE otherwise.

Note that the recursive calls to determine the presence of an edge from the configuration $(i, B)$ to $\left(i+1, B^{\prime}\right)$ is simpler than the original problem instance. Indeed, it is a list $H$-colouring problem for $G_{i}$ and $G_{i}$ has a single vertex for $i=0$, while for $i>0$ we have a
vertex $c$ of $H$ with $B(c)=\left|L_{i}\right|$ and this vertex does not show up in any of the lists - basically decreasing the number of vertices in the target graph $H$. To give base to this recursion we solve the trivial instances directly: If either $G$ or $H$ has a single vertex, deciding the list $H$-colouring problem for $G$ becomes trivial. We can also handle the case where $H$ has two vertices directly. If the two vertices are not adjacent in $H$, we must map each connected component of $G$ to one or the other vertex. If the two vertices of $H$ are connected and there is no loop in $H$ we face a 2 -list colouring problem already discussed in the introduction. Finally if the two vertices of $H$ are connected and there is also a loop in $H$, then $H$ has a universal vertex and list $H$-colouring reduces to list $H^{\prime}$-colouring with $H^{\prime}$ having a single vertex.

Using Theorems 3 and 4 it is straightforward to see that the above algorithm correctly answers the question whether $G$ has a homomorphism to $H$ obeying $\mathcal{P}$.

It is a bit more involved to estimate the running time. Let $k$ and $n$ stand for the number of vertices in $H$ and $G$. We claim the the running time of the algorithm is $O\left(n^{k^{2}-3 k+4}\right)$ (the constant of proportionality depends on $k$ ). We prove this statement by induction on $k$. For $k \leq 2$ the algorithm clearly finishes in time $O\left(n^{2}\right)$. Let us assume $k>2$. If $H$ has a universal vertex our reduction reduces list $H$ colouring to a single list $H^{\prime}$-colouring instance with $H^{\prime}$ having fewer vertices. If $H$ has no universal vertex we split $G$ into connected components, find the multi-chain ordering of each component and build the configuration graphs corresponding to them. The number of configurations for a fixed layer $L_{i}$ of a single component is $O\left(\left|L_{i}\right|^{k-2}\right)$ because the value of the function $B$ in a configuration $(i, B)$ is arbitrary for $k-2$ vertices of $H$, but it has to be either 0 or $\left|L_{i}\right|$ for two. So the number of configurations for all connected components together can be bounded by $O\left(n^{k-2}\right)$ and the number of potential edges (the number of recursive calls on the top level) is $O\left(n^{2 k-4}\right)$. In a recursive call to test the presence of an edge in the configuration graph one uses a list mapping that avoids at least one vertex of $H$ completely, so the inductive hypothesis can be used for $k-1$. The only exception to this rule is the test for an edge leaving the configuration $S_{0}$ of one of the components, but there the recursive call is for a trivial graph on $\left|L_{0}\right|=1$ vertices. These trivial recursive calls take
constant time, the other recursive calls take $O\left(n^{(k-1)^{2}-3(k-1)+4}\right)$ time, so all recursive calls finish in $O\left(n^{2 k-4} n^{(k-1)^{2}-3(k-1)+4}\right)=O\left(n^{k^{2}-3 k+4}\right)$ time. This huge time bound clearly dominates the time of the nonrecursive part of the algorithm.

## 4 Conclusion

We have given a polynomial-time algorithm to solve the list $H$ colouring problem for fixed $H$ if every connected induced subgraph of the input graph has a multi-chain ordering. Every connected permutation or interval graph has a multi-chain ordering, so this algorithm works for permutation and interval graphs.

## References

1. Milos Biro, Mihaly Hujter, and Zsolt Tuza. Precoloring extension. i. interval graphs. Discrete Mathematics, 100(1):267-279, 1992.
2. Kellogg S. Booth and George S. Lueker. Testing for the consecutive ones property, interval graphs, and graph planarity using pq-tree algorithms. Journal of Computer and System Sciences, 13(3):335-379, 1976.
3. Andreas Brandstädt, Van Bang Le, and Jeremy P. Spinrad. Graph Classes: A Survey. SIAM, 1999.
4. Andreas Brandstädt and Vadim V. Lozin. On the linear structure and clique-width of bipartite permutation graphs. Ars Combinatoria, 67:273-281, 2003.
5. Chính Hoàng, Marcin Kamiński, Vadim Lozin, Joe Sawada, and Xiao Shu. Deciding $k$-colorability of $p_{5}$-free graphs inpolynomial time. Algorithmica, 57:74-81, 2010. 10.1007/s00453-008-9197-8.
6. Mihaly Hujter and Zsolt Tuza. Precoloring extension 3: Classes of perfect graphs. Combinatorics, Probability \& Computing, pages 35-56, 1996.
7. Klaus Jansen and Petra Scheffler. Generalized coloring for tree-like graphs. Discrete Applied Mathematics, 75(2):135-155, 1997.
8. Tommy R. Jensen and Bjarne Toft. Graph Coloring Problems. John Wiley \& Sons, New York, NY, USA, 1994.
9. Jan Kratochvíl. Precoloring extension with fixed color bound. Acta Math. Univ. Comen., 62:139-153, 1994.
10. Jan Kratochvíl and Zsolt Tuza. Algorithmic complexity of list colorings. Discrete Applied Mathematics, 50(3):297-302, 1994.
11. Ross M. McConnell and Jeremy P. Spinrad. Modular decomposition and transitive orientation. Discrete Mathematics, 201(1-3):189 - 241, 1999.
12. Amir Pnueli, Abraham Lempel, and Shimon Even. Transitive orientation of graphs and identification of permutation graphs. Canadian Journal of Mathematics, 23:160-175, 1971.
13. Mihalis Yannakakis. The complexity of the partial order dimension problem. SIAM Journal on Algebraic and Discrete Methods, 3:351-358, 1982.
