The Hardness of Problems on Thin Colored Graphs *

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Abstract

In this paper, we consider the complexity of a number of combinatorial problems; namely, Intervalizing Colored Graphs (DNA Physical Mapping), Triangulating Colored Graphs (Perfect Phylogeny), (Directed) (Modified) Colored Cutwidth, Feasible Register Assignment and Module Allocation for graphs of bounded treewidth. Each of these problems has as a characteristic a uniform upper bound on the tree or path width of the graphs in "yes"-instances. For all of these problems with the exceptions of feasible register assignment and module allocation, a vertex or edge coloring is given as part of the input.

Our main results are that the parameterized variant of each of the considered problems is hard for the complexity classes W[t] for all $t \in \mathbf{Z}^+$. We also show that Intervalizing Colored Graphs, Triangulating Colored Graphs, and Colored Cutwidth are NP-Complete.

1 Introduction

The focus of this paper is on a number of graph decision problems which share the characteristic that all have a uniform upper bound on their path or tree width in the following sense. Each of these problems takes as input a graph G (it may be colored or directed) and a positive integer k and asks a particular question regarding G. If, in fact, the answer is "yes" for this instance, then one can prove that there exists an upper bound b(k) on the path or tree width of the graph.

^{*}Some of the results contained in this paper were first reported in [11, 29, 10].

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This bound opens up the following possibility: using the algorithm of Bodlaender [6] we can determine that no such decomposition of width b(k) exists or be given a decomposition of G. In either case, the running time for this procedure is linear in the size of G but exponential only in k. By means of one of several general algorithmic design methodologies (see [1, 4, 5, 15, 20, 54]) we may then answer the original question in time linear in the size of G. Hence, for small values of k, this procedure may lead to algorithms that are practical even for very large graphs G. Examples where these methods have been successful include Treewidth, Pathwidth, Min Cut Linear Arrangement, Feedback Vertex Set, Feedback Arc Set and Search Number.

Unfortunately, we show that the parameterized variant of problems Intervalizing Colored Graphs, Triangulating Colored Graphs, (Modified) (Directed) Colored Cutwidth, Feasible Register Assignment, and Module Allocation on Graphs of Bounded treewidth to be W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. This excludes the possibly of applying these techniques and, in fact, goes further to exclude the possibility of an $O(|G|^{\alpha})$ algorithm for fixed values of k (where α is independent of both the size of G and k) under the assumption (very similar to the more familiar $P \neq NP$ hypothesis) that the t^{th} level, for any t, of the parameterized hierarchy does not collapse to the lowest level.

The reductions that we describe also demonstrate that the problems Intervalizing Colored Graphs, Triangulating Colored Graphs and Colored Cutwidth (WITH ONE COLOR) are *NP*-Complete.

The plan of the paper is as follows. In Section 2, we introduce basic notions from Parameterized Complexity theory. In Section 3, definitions and some basic properties of the problems, considered in this paper are given. In Section 4, we show fixed parameter intractability for the considered problems via reductions from a parameterized variant of the Longest Common Subsequence problem. These same reductions also establish NP-hardness for the unparameterized versions of several of these problems. Some final remarks are made in Section 5.

2 Parameterized Computational Complexity

2.1 Parameterized Problems, Fixed-Parameter Tractability and Reductions

A parameterized problem is a set $L \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$ where Σ is a fixed alphabet. For convenience, we consider that a parameterized problem L is a subset of $L \subseteq \Sigma^* \times N$. For a parameterized problem L and $k \in N$ we write L_k to denote the associated fixed-parameter problem $L_k = \{x | (x,k) \in L\}$. We say that a parameterized problem L is (uniformly) fixed-parameter tractable if there is a constant α and an algorithm Φ such that Φ decides if $(x,k) \in L$ in time $f(k)|x|^{\alpha}$ where $f: N \to N$ is an arbitrary function. Let A,B be parameterized problems. We say that A is (uniformly many:1) reducible to B if there is an algorithm Φ which transforms (x,k) into (x',g(k)) in time $f(k)|x|^{\alpha}$, where $f,g:N\to N$ are arbitrary functions and α is a constant independent of k, so that $(x,k)\in A$ if and only if $(x',g(k))\in B$.

2.2 Complexity Classes

A Boolean circuit is of mixed type if it consists of circuits having gates of the two kinds:

- 1. Small gates: not gates, and gates and or gates with bounded fan-in.
- 2. Large gates: and gates and or gates with unrestricted fan-in.

The depth of a circuit C is defined to be the maximum number of gates (small or large) on an input-output path in C. The weft of a circuit C is the maximum number of large gates on an input-output path in C. A family of decision circuits F has $bounded\ depth$ if there is a constant h such that every circuit in the family F has depth at most h, and F has $bounded\ weft$ if there is constant t such that every circuit in the family F has weft at most t. The weight of a boolean vector x is the number of 1's in the vector.

Definition 1 Let F be a family of decision circuits (possibly having many different circuits with a given number of inputs). We associate to F the parameterized problem $L_F = \{(C, k) : C \text{ accepts an input vector of weight } k\}$. A parameterized problem L belongs to W[t] if L reduces to the parameterized circuit problem $L_{F(t,h)}$ for the family F(t,h) of mixed type decision circuits of weft at most t, and depth at most t, for some constant t. A parameterized problem t belongs to t belongs to t to the circuit problem t where t is the set of all circuits (no restrictions). We designate the class of fixed-parameter tractable problems t

These definitions give us the hierarchy of parameterized complexity classes

$$FPT \subseteq W[1] \subseteq W[2] \subseteq \cdots W[t] \cdots \subseteq W[P]$$

for which there are many natural hard or complete problems [37, 23, 24]. For example, all of the following problems are now known to be complete for W[1]: SQUARE TILING, INDEPENDENT SET, CLIQUE, BOUNDED POST CORRESPONDENCE PROBLEM, k-STEP DERIVATION FOR CONTEXT-SENSITIVE GRAMMARS, VAPNIK-CHERVONENKIS DIMENSION, and the k-STEP HALTING PROBLEM FOR NONDETERMINISTIC TURING MACHINES [17, 22, 26]. Thus, any one of these problems is fixed-parameter tractable if and only if all of the others are; and none of the problems for which we here prove W hardness results are fixed-parameter tractable unless all of these are also. DOMINATING SET is proved complete for W[2] in [25].

In this paper, we will use as a starting point for our reductions the following problem:

LONGEST COMMON SUBSEQUENCE (LCS-1)

Instance: Alphabet Σ , strings $s^1, \ldots, s^K \in \Sigma^*$, integer $M \in \mathbb{N}$.

Parameter: K.

Question: Does there exist a string in Σ^* of length at least M, that is a subsequence of each string s^1, \ldots, s^K ?

Theorem 1 [8, 10] For all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, LCS-1 is hard for W[t].

Other problems hard (or complete) for W[t] for all t include WEIGHTED t-NORMALIZED SATISFIABILITY, BANDWIDTH, DOMINO TREEWIDTH, and UNIFORM EMULATION ON A PATH (see [37]). If any one these problems complete for W[t] is FPT then, all other problems complete for W[t], for all t, are FPT. We will describe all problems in this paper in the same format as above. We will not describe the unparameterized variants as these can be obtained by simply ignoring the parameter field from the description.

3 Problem Definitions

Common to all of the problems we consider, a uniform upper bound exists for the width of the graphs. For Intervalizing Colored Graphs, Triangulating Colored Graphs, Feasible Register Assignment and Colored Cutwidth this upper bound holds only in "yes" instances. We state the appropriate definitions relating to treewidth and pathwidth below and provide several lemmas which will be used in our hardness proofs. The following subsections provide brief histories, related results, applications and, where appropriate, the said upper bound on the width of the graphs in "yes" instances.

Definition 2 A tree-decomposition of a graph G = (V, E) is a pair $(\{X_i \mid i \in I\}, T = (I, F))$ with $\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$ a collection of subsets of V, and T = (I, F) a tree, such that

- $\bullet \bigcup_{i \in I} X_i = V.$
- For all $(v, w) \in E$, there exists an $i \in I$ with $v, w \in X_i$.
- For all $v \in V$, $\{i \in I \mid v \in X_i\}$ forms a connected subtree of T.

The width of a tree-decomposition ($\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$, T = (I, F)) is $\max_{i \in I} |X_i| \Leftrightarrow 1$. The treewidth of a graph is the minimum width over all possible tree-decompositions of that graph.

Definition 3 A tree-decomposition ($\{X_i \mid i \in I\}$, T = (I, F)) is a path-decomposition, if T is a path. The pathwidth of a graph is the minimum width over all possible path-decompositions of that graph.

Path-decompositions are also often denoted by the sequence of the successive subsets X_i : (X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_r) . The following well known result can easily be proved.

Lemma 2 Let $(\{X_i \mid i \in I\}, T = (I, F))$ be a tree-decomposition of G = (V, E). Let v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_r be a path in G. Suppose $v_0 \in X_i$, $v_r \in X_j$, and suppose that k is on the path between i and j in T. Then $\{v_0, \ldots, v_r\} \cap X_k \neq \emptyset$.

Lemma 3 [13] Let $(\{X_i \mid i \in I\}, T = (I, F))$ be a tree-decomposition of G = (V, E). Let $W_1, W_2 \subseteq V$, such that for all $v \in W_1$, $w \in W_2$, $(v, w) \in E$. Either for all $v \in W_1$, there exists an $i \in I$ with $\{v\} \cap W_2 \subseteq X_i$, or for all $v \in W_2$, there exists an $i \in I$ with $\{v\} \cap W_1 \subseteq X_i$.

3.1 Intervalizing Colored Graphs (or DNA Physical Mapping)

A graph G = (V, E) with a coloring $c : V \to C$ is properly colored, if there is no edge between vertices with the same color. An undirected graph G = (V, E) is an interval graph, if one can associate with each vertex $v \in V$, an interval $[L_v, R_v] \subset \mathbf{R}$, such that for all $v, w \in V$, $v \neq w$: $(v, w) \in E \Leftrightarrow [L_v, R_v] \cap [L_w, R_w] \neq \emptyset$.

The following problem models in a straightforward but limited way the determination of contig assemblies in DNA physical mapping.

INTERVALIZING COLORED GRAPHS (ICG)

Instance: A graph G = (V, E) and a coloring $c: V \to C$.

Parameter: |C| = k.

Question: Does there exist a supergraph G' = (V, E') of G which is properly

colored by c and which is an interval graph?

We briefly describe the DNA physical mapping problem which ICG models and discuss the issue of the computational realism of this model. A general problem which has applications at several levels of sequence reconstruction (such as protein sequencing, nucleotide sequencing and gene sequencing) is: Given a set of fragments of a sequence X and a measure of overlap between pairs of sequence fragments in this set, reconstruct the order of these fragments in X. This problem is typically broken into four steps (see [28]):

- 1. Fragment the sequence X. (This step may be repeated for several identical copies of X.)
- 2. Determine a set of characteristics for each fragment, termed its fingerprint or signature.
- 3. Compute a *similarity* or *overlap* measure between pairs of fragments based on their respective fingerprints.
- 4. Using the overlap information, assemble the fragments into islands of contiguous fragments, termed *contigs*.

According to the kind of sequence under investigation, there are many ways in which these steps might be accomplished [28]. The fragmentation of a copy of X in step 1 is termed a digest. Where X is a piece of DNA, the fragments produced in step 1 can be reproduced in large quantities, and are termed clones. Obviously, if two clones originate in step 1 from the same copy of X, then they do not overlap. Thus, ICG models the situation where step 1 is applied to k copies of X, i.e., where k digests are performed in creating the clone library. The vertices of the input graph G correspond to the clones created by the k digests. The vertices corresponding to clones originating in the same partial digest have the same color. The edges of the graph correspond to overlapping pairs of clones. The goal is to predict further overlaps, and ultimately to reconstruct the sequence X.

It has long been recognized that graph intervalization problems are useful within molecular biology (see [39] and references). The classical and parameterized complexities of a

number of such problems related to ICG have recently been determined (see [7] and references). Indeed one such problem, Colored Graph Sandwich, is equivalent to ICG and was independently of [29] shown to be NP-complete in [34]. As values of k for ICG are typically small in practice, e.g., k = 8 in the yeast genome sequencing project [19], the parameterized version of ICG studied here is of some importance.

Lemma 4 Let G = (V, E) be a graph with a vertex coloring $c : V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$, that is a subgraph of a properly colored interval graph G'. Then the pathwidth of G is at most $k \Leftrightarrow 1$.

Proof: It is easy to see that the pathwidth of an interval graph is one less than its maximum clique size, which equals its chromatic number (since interval graphs are perfect, see [33]). Hence the pathwidth of G' is at most $k \Leftrightarrow 1$ implying the pathwidth of G is at most $k \Leftrightarrow 1$.

3.2 Triangulating Colored Graphs (or Perfect Phylogeny)

Historically, one of the major efforts in molecular biology has been the computation of phylogenetic trees, or phylogenies, which describe the evolution of a set of species from a common ancestor. A phylogeny for the set S of species, is a rooted tree in which the leaves represent the species in S and the internal nodes of the tree represent the ancestral species. There are many different methods known for inferring the best phylogeny, e.g., parsimony, distance-matrix fitting, maximum likelihood[30, 50]. Over the last ten years, the computational complexities of many of these methods have been determined (see [52] and references). These complexities depend on, among other things, how the species in the given set are described. One of the standard models uses characters to describe species. Here, a character is an equivalence relation on the species set, partitioning the set into the different character states. Under this model, a proposed phylogeny will also assign character states to each of the hypothesized species indicated by the internal nodes.

Many of the methods for inferring phylogenies are based on properties that must be satisfied by characters in candidate phylogenies. One such property is the following:

For each state of the character, the set of nodes in the tree having that state should form a connected component, i.e., that state is *convex* [27].

Following [27], a character which satisfies this property is said to be *true*. The Character Compatibility problem (see [43] and references) looks for the phylogeny such that the largest possible subset of the given characters are true. A special case of this problem asks if there is a phylogeny such that *all* given characters are true. Such a phylogeny is said to be *perfect*, and the characters are said to be *perfectly compatible*. The Perfect Phylogeny problem [36] is then defined as follows.

Perfect Phylogeny

Instance: A set of k characters, defining a species set S.

Parameter: k.

Question: Does there exist a perfect phylogeny for S with this set of characters?

The version in which the number of characters is a fixed constant k is called the k-Perfect Phylogeny problem.

In 1974, Buneman [16] showed that the Perfect Phylogeny problem reduced to a graph-theoretic problem, which we call the Triangulating Colored Graphs problem (or TCG). A graph is said to be *triangulated* (or chordal) if it does not contain an induced cycle of length at least four. The Triangulating Colored Graphs problem is:

Triangulating Colored Graphs (TCG)

Instance: Graph G = (V, E), coloring $c : V \to C$.

Parameter: |C| = k.

Question: Does there exist a supergraph G' = (V, E') of G which is properly

colored by c and which is triangulated?

If I is the instance of the Perfect Phylogeny problem, and G_I the corresponding instance of the Triangulating Colored Graphs problem, then vertices of G_I correspond to the character states of I, with states of the same character having the same color. Two vertices are adjacent if their corresponding character states share a species in common. Thus, the number of colors of TCG corresponds to the number of characters in the Perfect Phylogeny problem.

In 1990, Kannan and Warnow [40] showed that these two problems were polynomially equivalent. Though these problems are NP-complete [48, 53], over the last few years, polynomial time algorithms for the various fixed-parameter versions of these problems have been found. Since molecular data results in characters with few states, attention has particularly been given to the case where the parameter r is bounded. When the characters are binary (i.e. r = 2), the problem can be solved in O(sk) time [36]. For r = 3, character compatibility can be determined in $O(s^2k)$ time [41] or $O(sk^2)$ time [48]. For r = 4 (the case for characters derived from DNA sequences), the problem can be solved in $O(s^2k)$ time [41]. An $O(2^{3r}(sk^3 + k^4))$ time algorithm has been found for the general case by Agarwala and Fernandez-Baca [2]. This has been improved by Kannan and Warnow [42] to an $O(2^{2r}sk^2)$ time algorithm.

For the TCG problem, linear time algorithms for the case of two and three-colored graphs [12, 38, 40, 45] and an $O((n + m(k \Leftrightarrow 2))^{k+1})$ time algorithm for triangulating k-colored graphs [44] have been found. These algorithms correspond to O(s) algorithms for compatibility of two or three characters on s species, and an $O((rk)^{k+1} + sk^2)$ time algorithm for compatibility of k r-state characters on s species.

Since perfect phylogenies rarely occur in practice, it is often of more interest to find the maximally-true phylogenies produced by the Character Compatibility problem. However, this problem is NP-complete even for binary characters [21]. One approach to approximating such phylogenies is to look for perfect phylogenies on small subsets of characters. Though the reductions in [21] also establish that even this approximation problem is W[1]-hard when the size of wanted subset is the parameter and the characters are binary, the k-Perfect Phylogeny problem, i.e., the problem of determining if a given set of characters of fixed size is perfectly compatible, is still of interest to computational biologists.

Lemma 5 Let G = (V, E) be a triangulated graph with a proper vertex coloring $c : V \to C$. G does not contain a simple cycle with only two colors used for the vertices on the cycle.

Lemma 6 Let G = (V, E) be a graph with a vertex coloring $c : V \to \{1, 2, ..., k\}$, that is a subgraph of a properly colored, triangulated graph G'. Then the treewidth of G is at most $k \Leftrightarrow 1$.

Proof: The same proof as of that for Lemma 4 replacing "triangulated" for "interval" and "treewidth" for "pathwidth".

3.3 Colored Cutwidth

Interesting variations on a number of "classical" graph-theoretic decision problems can be defined by considering an input consisting of k distinct graphs on the same set of vertices, and asking whether there is a solution (described in terms of the vertex set) that simultaneously solves the problem for all of the k graphs. We may equivalently view k graphs on one vertex set V as a k-edge colored graph. The following problem asks whether there is a permutation of V that simultaneously has cutwidth k for each induced monochromatic subgraph.

A linear ordering of a graph G = (V, E) is a bijective function $f : V \to \{1, ..., |V|\}$. The colored cutwidth of a linear ordering f of an edge colored graph G = (V, E), with edge coloring $c : E \to C$ is

$$\max_{c \in C} \max_{1 \le i \le |V|} |\{(v, w) \in E \mid c((v, w)) = c \land f(v) \le i < f(w)\}|$$

Note that a linear ordering f has colored cutwidth 1 if and only if for every two edges (v, w) and (x, y) of the same color, the open intervals $(\min(f(v), f(w)), \max(f(v), f(w)))$ and $(\min(f(x), f(y)), \max(f(x), f(y)))$ have an empty intersection. If we have two edges for which these two open intervals intersect, then we call this a *color conflict*. The colored cutwidth of G with edge coloring c is the minimum over the colored cutwidths of all possible linear orderings of G. The following is the decision version of this problem:

COLORED CUTWIDTH ONE (CC-1)

Instance: a graph G = (V, E), an edge coloring $c : E \to C$.

Parameter: |C| = k.

Question: Does G have colored cutwidth 1?

We also consider the directed colored cutwidth problem where the input is a directed acyclic graph with a coloring of its edges. We require that if $(v, w) \in E$, then f(v) < f(w), i.e. we look for a topological ordering f of G with minimum colored cutwidth. Denote this problem DIRECTEDCC-1.

Define the modified colored cutwidth (Modified CC-1) of a graph as follows: the modified colored cutwidth of a linear ordering f of an edge colored graph G = (V, E), with edge coloring $c : E \to C$, is

$$\max_{c \in C} \max_{1 \le i \le |V|} |\{(v, w) \in E \mid c((v, w)) = c \land f(v) < i < f(w)\}|$$

The modified colored cutwidth of G with edge coloring c is the minimum over the modified colored cutwidths of all possible linear orderings of G.

It is easy to show that a yes-instance of CC-1 has has pathwidth at most $k \Leftrightarrow 1$.

We remark that the method of Gurari and Sudborough from [35] can be generalised to solve colored cutwidth (or its directed variant) with a fixed number of colors, and a fixed cutwidth per color, in polynomial time.

3.4 Feasible Register Assignment

One of the most fundamental problems encountered in computer system design is to efficiently allocate registers during execution of a program. Consider a system with a single processor and an arbitrarily high number of general purpose registers with programs consisting of a sequence of assignment instructions. We disallow memory stores - instructions are of only two forms: (1) load a register with the contents from a specified memory location and (2) apply an operator to the contents of two registers placing the result in a third register. See [3].

The order of execution of a program is represented by G, a directed acyclic graph. We may view the act of placing a value into a register as placing a "pebble" on a vertex of the graph. Pebbles are originally placed on vertices of in-degree 0 and moved according to the arcs of the graph. At any point during execution there are at most k pebbles on the graph.

FEASIBLE REGISTER ASSIGNMENT (FRA)

Instance: Directed acyclic graph G = (V, E), positive integer k, and a register assignment $r: V \to \{R_1, \ldots, R_k\}$.

Parameter: k.

Question: Is there a linear ordering f of G and a sequence $S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_{|V|}$ of subsets of V such that $S_0 = \emptyset$, $S_{|V|}$ contains all vertices of in-degree 0 in G, and for all i, $1 \le i \le |V|$, $f^{-1}(i) \in S_i$, $S_i \Leftrightarrow \{f^{-1}(i)\} \subseteq S_{i-1}$, S_{i-1} contains all vertices u for which $(f^{-1}(i), u) \in E$ and for all j, $1 \le j \le k$, there is at most one vertex $u \in S_i$ with $r(u) = R_j$?

The Feasible Register Assignment problem has been well studied and it is known that the decision version which asks whether there exists a feasible register assignment with k registers is NP-Hard (see [46]). Several restricted versions of this problem have been considered and linear time algorithms have been found if, for example, the programs compute solutions to expressions which have no common subexpressions (see [47]).

In our case, we consider a parameterized variant of FEASIBLE REGISTER ASSIGNMENT where the maximum number of registers allowed during the execution of a program is small relative to the size of the program (i.e. the number of registers k is independent of the size of the graph G).

Denote by G^R the directed graph obtained from the directed graph G by reversing the direction of all arcs.

Lemma 7 Let f be a linear ordering of directed acyclic graph G = (V, E). Let $r : V \to \{R_1, \ldots, R_k\}$ be given. Write n = |V|. Then there exists a sequence of subsets $S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_n \subseteq V$ such that this sequence and f satisfy together the conditions of the FRA problem if and only if

- 1. f is a topological order of G^R .
- 2. For the sequence of subsets S'_0, S'_1, \ldots, S'_n , defined by $S'_0 = \emptyset$ and for all $i, 1 \le i \le n$, $S_i = \{v \mid f(v) \ge i \text{ and the indegree of } v \text{ in } G \text{ is } 0\} \cup \{v \mid f(v) \ge i \land \exists w \in V : (w, u) \in E \land f(w) > i\}$, it holds that no set contains vertices assigned to the same register, i.e., for all $i, 1 \le i \le n$, for all $j, 1 \le j \le k$, there is at most one vertex $u \in S'_i$ with $r(u) = R_j$.

Proof: \Leftarrow : One can directly verify that f and the sequence S'_0, \ldots, S'_n fulfil the requirements of the FRA problem.

 \Rightarrow : First note that it must be the case that for all $v \in V$, $f(v) = \min\{i \mid 1 \leq i \leq n, v \in S_i\}$. For every edge $(u, v) \in E$, note that $v \in S_{f(i)-1}$, hence $f(v) \leq f(i) \Leftrightarrow 1$. So f is a topological order of G^R . Next observe that we can remove a vertex w that has indegree at least 1 simultaneously from all sets S_i with $i \geq \max_{w \mid (w,v) \in E} f(w)$, without violating the conditions of the Feasible Register Assignment problem.

It is not hard to show that a yes-instance for FRA has pathwidth at most k.

3.5 Module allocation on graphs of bounded treewidth

The Module Allocation Problem seeks to minimise the overall cost of executing a set of modules on a set of processors in a distributed system. The cost of executing a module is a function of

- 1. which processor it is executed on,
- 2. interference with other modules (ie. two modules require the same processor),
- 3. and the need to communicate with other modules.

We assume tables are given describing (1) and (2) above. The information for (3) is encoded as a graph and supplied as part of the input. In our case, we seek to minimise overall cost when this graph has a bound on its treewidth independent of its size. More formally,

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Module allocation on graphs of bounded treewidth (MA) Instance: A set of modules M = \{1, 2, \ldots, m\}, a set of processors P = \{1, 2, \ldots, p\}, a cost function e: (M \times P) \to \mathbf{R}: (x, y) \mapsto t where t is the cost of executing module x \in M on processor y \in P, a communication cost function C: (M \times P \times M \times P) \to \mathbf{R}: (x, y, x', y') \mapsto t where t is the communication cost when module x is assigned to processor y and module x' is assigned to processor y', a communication graph G = (M, E), and a positive real number l.
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Parameter: treewidth(G) = k.

Question: Does there exist an assignment of modules to processors such that the total cost of execution is less than or equal to l?

If C(x, y, x', y) then we interpret this as interference ie. both x and x' need to execute on processor y.

The MA problem is know to be NP-Hard in general (see [14, 31, 49, 51]) but polynomial for several restricted families of graphs. When G is restricted to be a series-parallel graph, the best known algorithm is $O(mp^3)$ (see [14]) and when G is a tree, MA can be solved in time $O(mp^2)$ (see [51]). Fernàndez-Baca [31] generalize this result to graphs of bounded treewidth k giving an $O(mp^{k+1})$ assignment algorithm. Furthermore, Fernàndez-Baca and Medepalli [32] consider a restricted version of MA (PARAMETRIC MA) where the cost functions e and C are linear functions of a new parameter τ ; that is, $C((\cdot, \cdot), (\cdot, \cdot)) = \tau a + b$, and give an $O(m^{1+(k+1)log_2p}m)$ assignment algorithm. Of course, the question remains whether there exist algorithms for MA and PARAMETRIC MA with running times $O(|V|^{\alpha})$ where α is independent of the input parameters and the treewidth of G (equal to k in this discussion). The later sections of this paper address this directly.

4 Hardness for the W-Hierarchy

4.1 Hardness of CC-1, ICG, and TCG

Theorem 8 (i) CC-1 is W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. (ii) ICG is W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. (iii) TCG is W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Proof: (i) We reduce from LCS-1.

Let strings $s^1, \ldots, s^K \in \Sigma^*$ and an integer M be an instance of LCS-1. We denote the length of a string s^k as L_k . We write $R = |\Sigma|$, and $\Sigma = \{\sigma_0, \ldots, \sigma_{R-1}\}$. We now construct an edge colored graph G = (V, E). We allow that G has parallel edges (to remove the parallel edges without changing the colored cutwidth of G, we can subdivide every edge and give a subdivided edge the color of the corresponding original edge. The hardness of CC-1 for simple graphs follows from hardness of CC-1 for graphs with parallel edges.)

The set of colors C is defined as follows:

$$C = \{c_i \mid 0 \le i \le K\} \cup \{d_i \mid 1 \le i \le K\} \cup \{e_{i,j} \mid i \in \{0, 1, 2\}, \ 1 \le j \le K\} \cup \{f_{i,j} \mid 1 \le i \le K, \ 1 \le j \le K, \ i \ne j\}$$

We now describe G and the coloring of its edges. G consists of the following components:

1. Two anchors. We create four vertices v_1^1 , v_2^1 , v_2^2 , v_2^2 . For every color $c \in C$, we create an edge (v_1^1, v_2^1) with color c and an edge (v_1^2, v_2^2) with color c. Write $A = \{v_1^1, v_2^1, v_2^1, v_2^2\}$.

- **2. Choice components.** Create vertices $\{w_i^m \mid 1 \leq m \leq M, 0 \leq i \leq 3R\}$. Create the following edges:
 - An edge (v_2^1, w_0^1) with color c_0 .
 - An edge (w_{3R}^M, v_1^2) with color c_0 .
 - For all $m, 1 \leq m < M$, an edge (w_{3R-1}^m, w_0^{m+1}) with color c_0 .
 - For all $m, 1 \leq m \leq M$, $i, 0 \leq i \leq 3R \Leftrightarrow 1$, edges (w_i^m, w_{i+1}^m) with color c_0 , and for all $k, 1 \leq k \leq K$, an edge (w_i^m, w_{i+1}^m) with color d_k .
 - For all $m, 1 \leq m \leq M$, $i, 0 \leq i \leq R \Leftrightarrow 1$, and for all $k, 1 \leq k \leq K$, an edge (w_{3i+1}^m, w_{3i+1}^m) with color $e_{0,k}$, an edge (w_{3i+1}^m, w_{3i+2}^m) with color $e_{1,k}$, and an edge (w_{3i+2}^m, w_{3i+3}^m) with color $e_{2,k}$.
- **3. String components.** Create vertices $\{x_{l,i}^k \mid 1 \leq k \leq K, \ 1 \leq l \leq L_k, \ 0 \leq i \leq 3R+1\}$. For all $k, \ 1 \leq k \leq K$, create the following edges:
 - two edges $(v_2^1, x_{1,0}^k)$, one with color c_k , and one with color d_k .
 - two edges $(x_{L_k,3R+1}^k, v_1^2)$, one with color c_k and one with color d_k .

For all $k, 1 \le k \le K$, and all $l, 1 \le l \le L_k$, create the following edges:

- two edges $(x_{l,3R+1}^k, x_{l+1,0}^k)$, one with color c_k and one with color d_k .
- for all $i, 0 \le i \le 3R$, an edge $(x_{l,i}^k, x_{l,i+1}^k)$ with color c_k .
- for all $r, 0 \le r \le R \Leftrightarrow 1$, an edge $(x_{l,3r}^k, x_{l,3r+1}^l)$ with color $e_{1,k}$, an edge $(x_{l,3r+1}^k, x_{l,3r+2}^l)$ with color $e_{2,k}$, and an edge $(x_{l,3r+2}^k, x_{l,3r+3}^l)$ with color $e_{0,k}$.
- an edge $(x_{l,3R}^k, x_{l,3R+1}^k)$ with color $e_{1,k}$.
- Suppose σ_i is the l'th character of string s^k , i.e., $s_l^k = \sigma_i$. Then, for all $r \neq i$, and for all $k' \neq k$, create an edge $(x_{l,3r+1}^k, x_{l,3r+2}^k)$ with color $f_{k',k}$. For all $k' \neq k$, create an edge (x_{3i+1}^l, x_{3i+2}^k) with color $f_{k,k'}$.

Let G = (V, E) be the resulting graph, and let $c_G : E \to C$ be the resulting coloring of the edges of G.

Claim 8.1 G with coloring c_G has colored cutwidth 1 if and only if s^1, \ldots, s^K have a common subsequence of length M.

Proof: \Rightarrow : Suppose f is a linear ordering of G with colored cutwidth 1. Note that no vertex x can be placed by f between v_1^1 and v_2^1 , as any edge adjacent to x would cause a color conflict with one of the edges between v_1^1 and v_2^1 . Furthermore, for no edge $(v, w) \in E$, can it be the case that v is placed to the left of v_1^1 and w is placed right of v_1^1 , as this also causes a color conflict. A similar argument is valid for v_2^1 , and for the other 'anchor'

vertices v_1^2 and v_2^2 . It follows that all vertices must be placed between $f(v_2^1)$ and $f(v_1^2)$. So, w.l.o.g., we may assume that for all $x \notin A$, $f(v_1^1) < f(v_2^1) < f(x) < f(v_1^2) < f(v_2^2)$.

Note that every vertex $x \in V \Leftrightarrow A$ lies on a path from v_2^1 to v_1^2 with all edges of this path of the same color $c \in \{c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_K\}$. If $v_2^1, y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_p, v_1^2$ is such a path, we must have that $f(v_2^1) < f(y_1) < f(y_2) < \cdots < f(y_p) < f(v_1^2)$, otherwise we have a color conflict. It follows that we have for all $m, 1 \le m \le M$, $i, i', 0 \le i < i' \le 3R$, $f(w_i^m) < f(w_{i'}^m)$, and that for all $m, m', 1 \le m < m' \le M$, $i, i', 0 \le i, i' \le M$, $f(w_i^m) < f(w_{i''}^m)$. Also, for all $k, 1 \le k \le K$, $l, 1 \le l \le L_k$, $i, i', 0 \le i < i' \le 3R + 1$, $f(x_{l,i}^k) < f(x_{l,i'}^k)$, and for all $k, 1 \le k \le K$, $l, l', 1 \le l < l' \le L_k$, $i, i', 0 \le i, i' \le 3R + 1$, $f(x_{l,i}^k) < f(x_{l',i'}^k)$.

Now, look at vertices of the form $x_{l,0}^k$ and $x_{l,3R+1}^k$. As these are adjacent to an edge with color d_k , they cannot be placed between two vertices of the form w_i^m , w_{i+1}^m , so they must be placed in one of the following open intervals:

- $(f(v_2^1), f(w_0^1))$
- $(f(w_{3R}^m), f(w_0^{m+1}))$ for some $m, 1 \le m \le M$.
- $(f(w_{3R}^M), f(v_1^2)).$

Moreover, all vertices $x_{1,0}^k$ must be placed in the first of these intervals, and all vertices $x_{L_k,3R+1}^k$ must be placed in the last of these intervals. Also, for all l, $1 \le l < L_k$, the two vertices $x_{l,3R+1}^k$ and $x_{l+1,0}^k$ must belong to the same interval.

Write, for all $k, 1 \le k \le K$, and all $m, 1 \le m \le M$,

$$g(k,m) = \max\{l \mid 1 \le l \le M, \ f(x_{l,0}^k) < f(w_0^m)\}$$

Consider a fixed $k, 1 \leq k \leq K$. As $f(x_{1,0}^k) < f(w_0^1)$, we have that all $g(k,m) \geq 1$. Note that for each $i, 1 \leq i \leq 3R \Leftrightarrow 2, m, 1 \leq m \leq M$, there must be at least one vertex of the form $x_{l,j}^k$ with $f(w_i^m) < f(x_{l,j}^k) < f(w_{i+1}^m)$. If not, then there is an edge (between two vertices in the kth choice component) with color d_k , $e_{0,k}$, $e_{1,k}$, or $e_{2,k}$, that crosses both w_i^m and w_{i+1}^m . But this gives either at w_i^m or at w_{i+1}^m (or at both) a color conflict, as for each of these four colors, at least one of these two vertices is adjacent to an edge of that color. Also, for such a vertex $x_{l,j}^k$, we have that $j \neq 0$ and $j \neq 3R + 1$. So, we now have that $g(k,1) < g(k,2) < \cdots < g(k,M)$.

Consider some fixed $k, 1 \leq k \leq K$, and $m, 1 \leq m \leq M$. For each of the pairs $w^m_{3i+1}, w^m_{3i+2}, (0 \leq i \leq R \Leftrightarrow 1)$ there must be at least one vertex $x^k_{g(k,m),j}$ with $f(w^m_{3i+1}) < f(x^k_{g(k,m),j}) < f(w^m_{3i+2})$. As between w^m_{3i+1} and w^m_{3i+2} there is an edge with color $e_{1,k}, x^k_{g(k,m),j}$ may not be adjacent to an edge with color $e_{1,k}$, so j must be of the form j = 3j' + 2. As we have R intervals $(f(w^m_{3i+1}), f(w^m_{3i+2}))$, and R vertices of the form $x^k_{g(k,m),3j'+2}$, it follows that for all $i, 0 \leq i \leq R \Leftrightarrow 1$, $f(w^m_{3i+1}) < f(x^k_{g(k,m),3i+2}) < f(w^m_{3i+2})$. With a similar argument it follows that $f(w^m_{3i+2}) < f(x^k_{g(k,m),3i+3})$.

So, now for all $k, k', 1 \le k, k' \le K$, $m, 1 \le m \le M$, we have that the open intervals $(f(x_{g(k,m),3i+1}^k), f(x_{g(k,m),3i+2}^l))$ and $(f(x_{g(k',m),3i+1}^{k'}), f(x_{g(k',m),3i+2}^{k'}))$ overlap. Suppose that $s_{g(k,m)}^k = \theta_i \ne s_{g(k',m)}^{k'} = \theta_{i'}$. Now, edges $(x_{g(k,m),3i+1}^k, x_{g(k,m),3i+2}^l)$ and $(x_{g(k',m),3i+1}^k, x_{g(k',m),3i+2}^k)$ exist with color $f_{k,k'}$. This gives a color conflict, contradiction. It

follows that all character sequences $s_{g(k,1)}^k s_{g(k,2)}^k \cdots s_{g(k,m)}^k$ are subsequences of s^k of length m, and that all these sequences are equal.

 \Leftarrow : Now suppose s^1,\ldots,d^K have a common subsequence of length M. Let $g:\{1,\ldots,K\}\times\{1,\ldots,M\}\to\mathbf{N}$ be a function, such that for all $k,\ 1\leq k\leq K,\ m,m',\ 1\leq m< m'\leq M$: $1\leq g(k,m)< g(k,m')\leq L_k$, and that all subsequences $s^k_{g(k,1)}s^k_{g(k,2)}\cdots s^k_{g(k,m)}$ are equal. We denote, for all $k,\ 1\leq k\leq K,\ g(k,0)=0$. The following procedure produces a linear ordering f of G with colored cutwidth 1.

```
f(v_1^1) := 1;
f(v_2^1) := 2;
p := 3;
for m := 1 to M do (Number the vertices of the form x_{l,i}^k for
                           g(k, m \Leftrightarrow 1) < l \leq g(k, m), and the vertices of the
                           form w_i^m.)
                         ( First, number the vertices of the form x_{l,i}^k for
                           g(k, m \Leftrightarrow 1) < l < g(k, m)
                         for k := 1 to K
                         do for l := g(k, m \Leftrightarrow 1) + 1 to g(k, m) \Leftrightarrow 1
                             \operatorname{do}(If g(k,m) = g(k,m \Leftrightarrow 1) + 1, then nothing
                                  happens in this step.)
                                for i := 0 to 3R + 1
                                do f(x_{l,i}^k) := p; p := p + 1;
                                enddo:
                             enddo;
                         enddo;
                         (Number the vertices of the form x_{q(k,m),i}^k or w_i^m.)
                         for i := 0 to 3R
                         do for k := 1 to K
                             do f(x_{g(k,m),i}^k) := p; p := p + 1;
                             f(w_i^m) := p; p := p + 1;
                         enddo;
                         for k := 1 to K
                         do f(x_{g(k,m),3R+1}^k) := p; p := p + 1;
enddo;
(Number the vertices of the form x_{l,i}^k for l > g(k,M).)
for k := 1 to K do for l := g(k, M) + 1 to L_k
                        do for i := 0 to 3R + 1
                            do f(x_{l,i}^k) := p; p := p + 1;
                            enddo:
                        enddo;
enddo:
f(v_1^2) := p; p := p + 1;
f(v_2^2) := p;
```

It is an easy, but tedious verification that the function f, yielded by this procedure, indeed is a linear ordering of G with colored cutwidth 1. We only will discuss one case here, and omit the other cases.

Suppose there is a color conflict between a pair of edges $(x_{l,3r+1}^k, x_{l,3r+2}^k)$ and $(x_{l',3r'+1}^k, x_{l',3r'+2}^{k'})$ with color $f_{k,k'}$. By construction of the function f, l must be of the form l = g(k,m) for some m, $1 \le m \le M$, and l' = g(k',m). Also, we must have that r = r'. Existence of the edge $(x_{g(k,m),3r+1}^k, x_{g(k,m),3r+2}^k)$ with color $f_{k,k'}$ shows that $s_{g(k,m)}^k = \sigma_r$. Existence of the edge $(x_{g(k',m),3r+1}^k, x_{k'(k',m),3r+2}^k)$ with color $f_{k,k'}$ shows that $s_{g(k',m)}^k \neq \sigma_r$. This is a contradiction with the assumption that we have chosen equal subsequences. This ends the proof of Claim 8.1.

From Claim 8.1 and the W[t]-Hardness, for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, of the LCS-1 problem, part (i) of the theorem follows.

 $(i) \Leftrightarrow (ii)$ Let G = (V, E) be a graph, with an edge coloring $c_G : E \to C$. We define a bipartite graph $H = (V \cup E, F)$ with $F = \{(v, (v, w)) \mid v \in V, (v, w) \in E\}$. (H is obtained from G by subdividing every edge.) Furthermore, using a new color $a \notin C$, we define a vertex coloring $c_H : V \cup E \to C \cup \{a\}$ of H as follows: for all $v \in V$, color v with a $(c_H(v) = a)$ and for all 'edge-vertices' $e \in E$, color e with its old color in G $(c_H(e) = c_G(e))$.

The following claim shows that this transformation from (G, c_G) to (H, c_H) is in fact a reduction from $CC \Leftrightarrow 1$ to ICG, hence proving part (ii) of the theorem.

Claim 8.2 Let G and H be constructed as above. G has colored cutwidth 1 if and only if H is a subgraph of a properly colored interval graph.

Proof: \Rightarrow : Let $f: V \to \{1, \ldots, |V|\}$ be a linear ordering of G with colored cutwidth 1. Assign to each $v \in V$ the interval $[f(v) \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{3}, f(v) + \frac{1}{3}]$. To every edge $(v, w) \in E$, assign the interval $[\min(f(v), f(w)) \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{6}, \max(f(v), f(w)) + \frac{1}{6}]$. One can easily verify that these intervals form an interval model of a properly colored interval graph that contains H as a subgraph; that is, intervals of adjacent vertices intersect and no two intervals of vertices with the same color intersect. The latter condition follows from the condition that the colored cutwidth of f is 1.

- \Leftarrow : Suppose that we have for every vertex $z \in V \cup E$ an interval $I_z = [L_z, R_z]$ such that intervals of adjacent vertices intersect and intervals of vertices with the same value do not intersect. As all vertices $v \in V$ have the same color, all intervals I_v are disjoint. Number the vertices $v \in V$ in the following manner: take a bijective function $f: V \to \{1, \ldots, |V|\}$ such that, for all $v, w \in V$, $L_v < L_w \Leftrightarrow f(v) < f(w)$. Now $f(v) < f(w) \Rightarrow L_v \leq R_v < L_w \leq R_w$. We claim that f is a linear ordering of G with colored cutwidth 1. Consider edges $(v, w) \in E$ and $(x, y) \in E$, f(v) < f(w), f(x) < f(y). Note that $[R_v, L_w] \subseteq I_{(v,w)}$ and $[R_x, L_y] \subseteq I_{(x,y)}$. So, $[R_v, L_w] \cap [R_x, L_y] = \emptyset$. When analyzing the different cases with respect to the order and possible equalness of f(v), f(w), f(x), f(y), one easily can verify that no color conflict between (v, w) and (x, y) is possible.
- $(i) \Leftrightarrow (ii) \Leftrightarrow (iii)$ Let s^1, \ldots, s^K, M be an instance of LCS-1, let G = (V, E) with coloring $c_G : E \to C$ be the edge colored graph constructed as in part (i) of this proof, and let $H = (V \cup E, F)$ with vertex coloring $c_H : V \cup E \to C \cup \{a\}$ be the vertex colored graph constructed from G as in part (ii). The following now holds:

Claim 8.3 Let H be constructed as above. H is a subgraph of a properly colored interval graph if and only if H is a subgraph of a properly colored chordal graph.

Proof:

 \Rightarrow : Trivial.

 \Leftarrow : Suppose H is a subgraph of a properly colored triangulated graph H'. There exists a tree-decomposition $(\{X_i \mid i \in I\}, T = (I, \mathcal{F}))$ of H', such that for all $i \in I$, X_i is a clique in H' and hence no two vertices in X_i have the same color.

Note that the edges between v_1^1 and v_2^1 in G form in H with v_1^1 and v_2^1 a complete bipartite subgraph. By Lemma 3, we know that either there exists an $i_0 \in I$ with $v_1^1, v_2^1 \in X_{i_0}$ or there exists an $i_0 \in I$ such that $v_1^1 \in X_{i_0}$ and all edges (v_1^1, v_2^1) belong to X_{i_0} . The former cannot be the case as v_1^1 and v_2^1 have the same color hence we may assume the latter. There cannot belong any other vertices included in X_{i_0} and v_1^1 and its adjacent edges together have all possible colors. Similarly, there exists a node i_1 such that X_{i_1} contains precisely v_2^2 and all edges (v_1^2, v_2^2) . We may suppose that i_0 and i_1 are leaves of T, as neither set X_{i_0} or X_{i_1} is a separator of H.

Let I' be the set of all nodes $i \in I$ that are on the path from i_0 to i_1 in T (i_0 , i_1 inclusive).

We claim that for all $v \in V$ there exists an $i \in I'$ with $v \in X_i$. Suppose the contrary. Note that v is on a path in G from v_1^1 to v_2^2 with all edges of the same color, say c_{α} . This path corresponds to a path Y in H from v_1^1 to v_2^2 containing v where vertices are alternately colored c_{α} and a. Let $Y = y_0, y_1, \ldots, y_q$ where $y_0 = v_1^1$, $y_q = v_2^2$ and suppose $v = y_j$. Let $v \in X_{i_2}$ and let i_3 be the first node on the path from i_2 to i_0 . X_{i_0} must contain a vertex y_{j_1} with $j_1 < j$ and a vertex y_{j_2} with $j_2 > j$ (by Lemma 2). Now the subpath of Y between y_{j_1} and y_{j_2} forms a cycle with the edge (y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}) in H'. Therefore, H' contains a cycle with only two colors used for the vertices on the cycle; a contradiction by Lemma 5. Hence, for all $v \in V$, there exists an $i \in I$ with $v \in X_i$.

We now claim that, for all $(v, w) \in E$, there exists an $i \in I'$ with $v, (v, w) \in X_i$. For all $z \in V \cup E$, let $I_z = \{i \in I \mid z \in X_i\}$. There exist nodes $i_4 \in I_v \cap I_{(v,w)}, i_5 \in I_w \cap I_{(v,w)}$. Let i_6 be the first node in I' on the path from i_4 to i_5 . Since T is a tree, $I_v \cap I_w = \emptyset$, $I_v \cap I_w \neq \emptyset$, and $I_w \cap I' \neq \emptyset$, i_6 must exist. We must have that $(v, w) \in X_{i_6}$, (by definition of a tree-decomposition) and $v \in X_{i_6}$ as otherwise, for all $i \in I'$, $v \notin X_i$.

We now can conclude that $(\{X_i \mid i \in I'\}, T[I'])$ is a path-decomposition of H, for which for all $i \in I'$ it is true that all vertices in X_i have different colors. So H is a subgraph of a properly colored interval graph.

The preceding claim gives us a transformation from LCS-1 to TCG and part (iii) of the theorem follows.

Corollary 9 The following problems are NP-Complete: CC-1, ICG, TCG.

Proof: Membership in NP is trivial. Note that the reduction used in Theorem 8 is many:1.

Corollary 10 For every class of graphs \mathcal{G} such that every graph in \mathcal{G} is chordal and every interval graph belongs to \mathcal{G} , the following problem is W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ and its unparameterized version is NP-Hard:

Instance: Graph G = (V, E), coloring $c : V \to C$.

Parameter: |C| = k.

Question: Does there exist a graph $H \in \mathcal{G}$, that contains G as a subgraph and

is properly colored?

Proof: Note that in Claim 8.3 the statements are also equivalent to the following statement:

H is a subgraph of a properly colored graph $H' \in \mathcal{G}$.

Therefore the same reduction from LCS-1 can be used.

Corollary 11 The following are W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ and NP-Complete:

(i) DIRECTEDCC-1, (ii) DIRECTEDCC-1 FOR GRAPHS WITH ONLY ONE VERTEX WITH OUTDEGREE 0 and (iii) MODIFIEDCC-1.

The proofs of these consist of easy modifications of the above arguments and are omitted.

The version of DIRECTED CC-1 with only one vertex with outdegree 0 will be used in a subsequent proof for the parameterized hardness of FRA.

4.2 Hardness for Feasible Register Assignment

Theorem 12 Feasible Register Assignment is W[t]-Complete for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Proof: We reduce from DIRECTEDCC-1 WITH ONLY ONE VERTEX OF DEGREE 0. By Corollary 11, the W[t]-Hardness for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ of FRA follows.

Let G = (V, E) be a directed acyclic graph with z the unique node in G with outdegree 0 and let $c_G : V \to C$ be an edge coloring of G where $C = \{1, 2, ..., k\}$. Our argument is similar to that used for ICG.

Let $H = (V \cup E, F)$ be the directed, acyclic graph defined by $F = \{(v, (v, w)) \mid v \in V, (v, w) \in E\} \cup \{((v, w), w) \mid w \in V, (v, w) \in E\}$; that is, H is obtained by subdividing every edge of G whilst retaining the same directions for edges. Note that H is a directed acyclic graph. We define a register assignment r (or, equivalently, a coloring) of the vertices of H as follows: $\forall v \in V : r(v) = R_0$; $\forall e \in E : r(e) = R_{c_G(e)}$.

Claim 12.1 H^R with register assignment r is a "yes"-instance to the FRA problem if and only if the directed colored cutwidth of G with coloring c_G is 1.

Proof: \Leftarrow : Let $f, S_0, \ldots, S_{|V|+|E|}$ be a solution to the FRA problem for H^R and r. Note that z is the unique node in H with indegree 0, and hence f(z) = |V| + |E|. Let g be the linear ordering of G, such that for all $v, w \in V : f(v) < f(w) \Leftrightarrow g(v) < g(w)$. As f is a topological order of $H = (H^R)^R$, we have that g is a topological order of G. We claim the directed colored cutwidth of g is 1. Suppose there is a color conflict between edges (v, w), (x, y) in E. Let $u = g^{-1}(g(v) + 1)$, i.e., u is the next vertex in V after v, in both orderings f and g. v cannot belong to $S_{f(u)}$, as u and v have the same color. So, if f((w, v)) > f(u), we get a contradiction. So, f(v) < f((w, v)) < f(u), and (w, v) belongs to all sets S_i , with $f(u) \Leftrightarrow 1 \leq i \leq f(w) \Leftrightarrow 1$. A similar analysis holds for the edge (x, y) (or vertex (y, x). Case analysis now shows there is a set S_i with $(w, v), (y, x) \in S_i$: contradiction, as these two vertices have the same register assigned to them.

 \Rightarrow : Let $g: V \to E$ be a topological sort of G with directed colored cutwidth 1. Take a linear ordering f of H^R that fulfils: $\forall v, w \in V: f(v) < f(w) \Leftrightarrow g(v) < g(w)$, and $\forall v \in V, (v, w) \in E: f(v) < f((w, v)) < f(g^{-1}(g(v) + 1))$, i.e., all vertices (w, v) representing a reversed edge (v, w), are placed after v in the ordering f, but before the next vertex from G. f is a topological order of H^R .

Let $S'_0, \ldots, S'_{|V|+|E|}$ be defined as in Lemma 7. We must verify that for all S'_i all vertices have a different register assigned to them. We cannot have two vertices with register R_0 in the same set S'_i , as these are vertices in V, and all successor of a vertex in V are placed in the ordering f before the next vertex in V, i.e., before the next vertex that is assigned to R_0 . Also, the only vertex with indegree 0 in H^R is z, and z belongs only to $S'_{|V|+|E|}$ and no other S_i . Suppose now there exist vertices $(w,v),(y,x) \in S_i$, with $R_{(w,v)} = R_{(y,x)}$. There is a color conflict (w.r.t. g) between the edges (v,w), and (x,y): $f(v) < f((w,v)) \le i < f(w)$, and $f(x) < f((y,x)) \le i < f(y)$, hence the open intervals (g(v),g(w)) and (g(x),g(y)) intersect. Contradiction. Therefore f must satisfy the conditions of Lemma 7.

This completes the theorem.

4.3 Hardness for Module allocation on graphs with bounded treewidth

Theorem 13 Module Allocation on graphs of bounded treewidth is W[t]-Hard, for all t, even when all communication costs are restricted to 0 or 1.

Proof: We reduce from LCS-1. Let $s^1, \ldots, s^K \in \Sigma^*$ and integer M be our instance of LCS-1. Denote by L_i the length of string s^i . Denote by s_i^i the jth character of string i.

We create a graph G = (V, E) with $K \cdot M$ vertices, as follows:

$$V = \{v_{i,j} \mid 1 \le i \le M, \ 1 \le j \le K\}$$

$$E = \{(v_{i,j}, v_{i',j'}) \mid (i = i' \land j \ne j') \lor (i' = i + 1 \land j = j')\}$$

It is easy to see that the treewidth of G is at most $2K \Leftrightarrow 1$.

We create $\sum_{i=1}^{K} L_i$ processors where each processor corresponds to one character in each of the strings. We write processor $p_{i,j}$ for the processor that corresponds to the *i*th character in string s^j .

We assign costs as follows:

The execution cost for all modules $v_{k,l}$ and processors $p_{i,j}$ is defined to be:

$$e(v_{k,l}, p_{i,j}) = 0$$

The communication cost between module $v_{k,l}$ and module $v_{k,l'}$ when assigned to processors $p_{i,j}$ and $p_{i',j'}$ respectively where $i \neq i'$ is defined to be:

$$C((v_{k,l}, p_{i,j}), (v_{k,l'}, p_{i'j'})) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s_i^j = s_{i'}^{j'} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The communication cost between module $v_{k,l}$ and module $v_{k+1,l}$ when assigned to processors $p_{i,j}$ and $p_{i',j'}$ respectively is defined to be:

$$C((v_{k,l}, p_{i,j}), (v_{k+1,l}, p_{i',j'})) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } l = j = j' \text{ and } i' > i \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Claim 13.1 Let M be the instance of the MODULE ALLOCATION problem constructed above. Then, there exists a module assignment of total cost 0 if and only if the strings s^1, \ldots, s^K have a common subsequence of length M.

Proof: \Leftarrow : Suppose the common subsequence is of the form $s_{f_i(1)}^i \cdot s_{f_i(M)}^i$, $f_i(1) < f_i(2) < \cdots < f_i(M)$, for all $i, 1 \le i \le K$. Now assign each module $v_{k,l}$ to processor $p_{f(k),l}$. One can verify that this gives cost 0. For instance, for modules $v_{k,l}$ and $v_{k,l'}$, the communication cost is 0, as $s_{f(k)}^l$ and $s_{f(k')}^{l'}$ denote the kth character in the common substring, so are equal.

 \Rightarrow : Suppose we have a module allocation with cost 0. To get communication costs between modules $v_{k,l}$ and $v_{k+1,l}$ 0, we must have assigned each module $v_{k,l}$ to a module $v_{f_l(k),l}$, for some $f_l(k)$, $1 \le f_l(k) \le l_l$. Moreover, we must have $f_l(k) < f_l(k+1)$. So, each sequence $s_{f_l(1)}^l \cdots s_{f_l(M)}^l$ forms a subsequence of the string s^l .

These subsequences must be equal. The kth character of the ith subsequence is $s_{f_i(k)}^i$. Take $i \neq i'$. As the communication cost between $v_{k,i}$ and $v_{k,i'}$ must be 0, it follows that $s_{f_i(k)}^i = s_{f_{i'}(k)}^{i'}$.

From the above claim and the W[t]-Hardness, for all t $in \mathbb{Z}^+$ of the LCS-1, the result follows.

Corollary 14 Parametric MA is W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbf{Z}^+$.

Proof: Note that all costs are either 0 or 1 and therefore trivially linear functions of the parameter τ .

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we have shown hardness for several graph problems on bounded width graphs. All of the problems consider are NP-Complete and W[t]-Hard for all $t \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Recently in [9] it has been shown that ICG is in fact NP-Complete for any fixed $k \geq 4$. For the case of k = 3, they give an $O(|V_G|^2)$ algorithm. This provides an interesting contrast with Triangulating Colored Graphs, which can be solved in time $O(|V_G|^{k+1})$ for any fixed k.

For Module Allocation and Parametric Module Allocation, our results suggest that the algorithms found in [31] and [32] respectively are in some sense optimal. The algorithm for Module Allocation has running time $O(mp^{k+1})$ and it appears unlikely that the factor of k can be removed from the exponent. Likewise, the same conclusion can be drawn for Parametric Module Allocation although it remains open whether algorithms without the factor of p in the exponent exist.

Membership in the W hierarchy remains open for all of these problems although it is noted that the result of [9] implies that ICG is not in any level of the W-hierarchy unless P = NP.

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