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Description	

ON COMPUTING LONGEST PATHS IN SMALL GRAPH CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

The longest path problem is the one that finds a longest path in a given graph. While the graph classes in which the Hamiltonian path problem can be solved efficiently are widely investigated, few graph classes are known to be solved efficiently for the longest path problem. Among those, for trees, a simple linear time algorithm for the longest path problem is known. We first generalize the algorithm, and show that the longest path problem can be solved efficiently for some tree-like graph classes by this approach. We next propose two new graph classes that have natural interval representations, and show that the longest path problem can be solved efficiently on these classes.

Keywords: algorithmic graph theory, design and analysis of algorithms, graph classes, longest path problem.

1. Introduction

The Hamiltonian path problem is one of the most well known \mathcal{NP} -hard problems, and there are numerous applications of the problem [18]. For such an intractable problem, there are some major approaches; e.g., approximation algorithms [2, 21, 36] and algorithms with parameterized complexity analyses [16]. In both approaches, we have to change the decision problem to the optimization problem. Therefore the longest path problem is one of the basic problems from the viewpoint of combinatorial optimization. From the practical point of view, it is also a very natural approach to find a longest path in a given graph, even if it does not have a Hamiltonian path. However, finding a longest path seems to be more difficult than determining whether the given graph has a Hamiltonian path or not. Even if we

know that a given graph has a Hamiltonian path, it is impossible to find a path of length $n - n^\epsilon$ in polynomial time for any $\epsilon > 0$ unless $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ [22]. In general, the longest path problem does not belong to APX unless $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ [22], and the best known performance ratio of an approximation algorithm is $O(n(\log \log n / \log n)^2)$ [7] (see also [1, 28, 33, 37] for related results).

Recently, many new graph classes were proposed, and the complexity of hard problems restricted on those graph classes are investigated intensively [9, 19]. The classification of the graph classes by the difficulty in solving the Hamiltonian path problem gives us an insight for the longest path problem. Indeed, when the Hamiltonian path problem is \mathcal{NP} -hard, the longest path problem is also intractable since the Hamiltonian path problem is the special case of the longest path problem. Such “hard” graph classes include chordal bipartite graphs, strongly chordal split graphs (and hence chordal graphs and split graphs)[29], undirected path graphs, double interval graphs, rectangle graphs [6], and circle graphs [14]. On the other hand, proper interval graphs are a “trivial” graph class in the sense that all connected proper interval graphs have a Hamiltonian path [5]. Thus we can find a longest path of length equal to one less than the number of vertices for any given connected proper interval graph. Between them, there are “non-trivial” graph classes; the Hamiltonian path problem is polynomial time solvable for circular arc graphs (and hence interval graphs) [15], and bipartite permutation graphs [34]. Moreover, such “non-trivial” graph classes include infinite number of graphs that have no Hamiltonian paths (e.g., trees).

In this paper, we focus on the longest path problem for the “non-trivial” graph classes, and propose efficient algorithms for some of those classes. There are quite few efficient algorithms for finding a longest path in a given graph for specified classes of graphs; as far as the authors know, (unweighted) trees are the only graph class which is natural and non-trivial such that the longest path problem can be solved in polynomial time. The algorithm for trees was invented by W. Dijkstra around 1960. It runs in linear time, indeed, and the formal proof is given by R.W. Bulterman et al [12]. In the former part of this paper, we generalize the Dijkstra’s algorithm and its correctness proof in [12], and show that the longest path problem can be solved efficiently for (vertex/edge) weighted trees, block graphs, and cacti. Although some of those algorithms may not necessarily be the most efficient, we here enjoy how the generalization of Dijkstra’s algorithm can be applied for some tree-like graphs.

In the latter part, we focus on some graph classes which have natural interval representations, some of which we newly introduce in this paper and lie between “non-trivial” and “trivial” graph classes. First, the class of interval bigraphs has a natural bipartite analogy with the class of interval graphs. In the class, there are some subclasses; chain graphs \subset bipartite permutation graphs \subset biconvex graphs \subset convex graphs \subset interval bigraphs. We will show some relationship among these graph classes (though some of them seem to be folklore), and show a linear time algorithm for finding a longest path in a bipartite permutation graph. (For these graph classes, see, e.g., [24, 38] for chain graphs, [11, 26, 34] for bipartite permuta-

tion graphs, [9] for (bi)convex graphs, and [20, 30] for interval bigraphs.)

Then, we turn to the interval graphs and their subclasses. Although all longest paths of a connected interval graph have non-empty intersection [3, Corollary 2.2], there are no efficient algorithms for finding a specific longest path in an interval graph. Between the class of interval graphs and the class of proper interval graphs, we introduce a new graph class named “interval biconvex graphs” and “proper interval biconvex graphs.” An interval biconvex graph G is an interval graph that corresponds to a biconvex graph G' such that G and G' have the same interval representations. That is, the class of interval biconvex graphs is the one that the corresponding biconvex graphs is a natural bipartite analogy. We also show the inclusion among graph classes: (proper interval graphs \cup threshold graphs) \subset proper interval biconvex graphs \subset interval biconvex graphs \subset interval graphs. That is, the class of proper interval biconvex graphs is a generalization of both proper interval graphs and threshold graphs. Finally, we give an algorithm that finds a longest path for any proper interval biconvex graph in $O(n^3(m + n \log n))$ time.

2. Preliminaries

A graph $G = (V, E)$ consists of a finite set V of *vertices* and a collection E of 2-element subsets of V called *edges*. The *neighborhood* of a vertex v in a graph $G = (V, E)$ is the set $N_G(v) = \{u \in V \mid \{u, v\} \in E\}$, and the *degree* of a vertex v is $|N_G(v)|$ and is denoted by $\deg_G(v)$. For a subset U of V , we denote by $N_G(U)$ the set $\{v \in V \mid v \in N(u) \text{ for some } u \in U\}$. If no confusion can arise we will omit the index G . We denote the closed neighborhood $N(v) \cup \{v\}$ by $N[v]$. Also for a subset U of V , the subgraph of G induced by U is denoted by $G\langle U \rangle$. Given a graph $G = (V, E)$, its *complement* is defined by $\bar{E} = \{\{u, v\} \mid \{u, v\} \notin E\}$, and denoted by $\bar{G} = (V, \bar{E})$. A vertex set I is an *independent set* if $G\langle I \rangle$ contains no edges, and then the graph $\bar{G}\langle I \rangle$ is said to be a *clique*.

For a graph $G = (V, E)$, a sequence of the vertices v_0, v_1, \dots, v_l is a *path*, denoted by (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_l) , if $\{v_j, v_{j+1}\} \in E$ for each $0 \leq j < l$. The *length* of a path is the number of edges on the path. For two vertices u and v , the *distance* of the vertices, denoted by $d(u, v)$, is the minimum length of the paths joining u and v . A *cycle* is a path beginning and ending with the same vertex. A cycle of length i is denoted by C_i . An edge that joins two vertices of a cycle but is not itself an edge of the cycle is a *chord* of that cycle. A graph is *chordal* if every cycle of length at least 4 has a chord. Given a graph $G = (V, E)$, a vertex $v \in V$ is *simplicial* in G if $G\langle N(v) \rangle$ is a clique in G . A graph $G = (V, E)$ is *bipartite* if V can be partitioned into two sets X and Y such that every edge joins a vertex in X and the other vertex in Y .

A graph $G = (V, E)$ is called a *threshold graph* when there exist nonnegative weights $w(v)$ for $v \in V$ and t such that $\sum_{v \in S} w(v) \leq t$ if and only if S is an independent set in G .

Tree-like graph classes: We here introduce some graph classes that have similar structure to trees. A graph G is a *block graph* if G is connected and every maximal biconnected subgraph is a clique. Block graphs can be seen as graphs obtained from

trees by replacing each edge by a clique, and any two maximal cliques share at most one vertex in common. A graph G is a *cactus* if every edge is part of at most one cycle in G . Similarly, cacti can be seen as graphs obtained from trees by replacing each edge by a cycle, and any two cycles share at most one vertex in common. In other words, a cactus is a graph whose block is either an edge or a cycle. See [9] for further details of the graph classes.

Interval graph representation and related classes: A graph (V, E) with $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ is an *interval graph* if there is a finite set of intervals $\mathcal{I} = \{I_{v_1}, I_{v_2}, \dots, I_{v_n}\}$ on the real line such that $\{v_i, v_j\} \in E$ if and only if $I_{v_i} \cap I_{v_j} \neq \emptyset$ for each i and j with $0 < i, j \leq n$. We call the set \mathcal{I} of intervals an *interval representation* of the graph. For each interval I , we denote by $R(I)$ and $L(I)$ the right and left endpoints of the interval, respectively (hence we have $L(I) \leq R(I)$ and $I = [L(I), R(I)]$).

A bipartite graph (X, Y, E) with $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n_x}\}$ and $Y = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n_y}\}$ is an *interval bigraph* if there are families of intervals $\mathcal{I}_X = \{I_{x_1}, I_{x_2}, \dots, I_{x_{n_x}}\}$ and $\mathcal{I}_Y = \{I_{y_1}, I_{y_2}, \dots, I_{y_{n_y}}\}$ such that $\{x_i, y_j\} \in E$ iff $I_{x_i} \cap I_{y_j} \neq \emptyset$ for each i and j with $1 \leq i \leq n_x$ and $1 \leq j \leq n_y$. We also call the families of intervals $(\mathcal{I}_X, \mathcal{I}_Y)$ an *interval representation* of the graph. If no confusion can arise we sometimes unify a vertex v and corresponding interval I_v , and denote as $N(I_v)$, $L(v)$, and so on.

For two intervals I and J , we write $I \prec J$ if $L(I) \leq L(J)$ and $R(I) \leq R(J)$. For any interval representation \mathcal{I} and a point p , $N[p]$ denotes the set of intervals that contain the point p . An interval graph is *proper* if no two distinct intervals I and J properly contain each other. That is, either $I \prec J$ or $J \prec I$ for every pair of intervals I and J .

Let $G = (X, Y, E)$ be a bipartite graph. An ordering $<$ of X in G has the *adjacency property* if, for each vertex $y \in Y$, $N(y)$ consists of vertices that are consecutive in the ordering $<$ of X . A bipartite graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is *biconvex* if there are orderings of X and Y that fulfill the adjacency property, and that is *convex* if there is an ordering of X or Y that fulfills the adjacency property. A biconvex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is said to be a *chain graph* if it has a vertex ordering of Y such that $N(y_1) \subseteq N(y_2) \subseteq \dots \subseteq N(y_{|Y|})$. That is, for the interval representation of $\mathcal{I}(G)$, a biconvex graph G is a chain graph if $J_1 \subseteq J_2 \subseteq \dots \subseteq J_{n_y}$, where J_1, J_2, \dots, J_{n_y} are the corresponding intervals of y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n_y} .

A graph $G = (V, E)$ with $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is said to be a *permutation graph* if there is a permutation σ over $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that $\{i, j\} \in E$ if and only if $(i - j)(\sigma^{-1}(i) - \sigma^{-1}(j)) < 0$. Intuitively, each vertex v in a permutation graph corresponds to a line v joining two points on two parallel lines L_1 and L_2 . Then two vertices v and u are adjacent if and only if the corresponding lines v and u intersect. The ordering of vertices gives the ordering of the points on L_1 , and the permutation of the ordering gives the ordering of the points on L_2 . When a permutation graph is bipartite, it is said to be a *bipartite permutation graph*.

3. New graph classes and related results

We first introduce the notion of the compact interval representations. Given an interval (bi)graph, an interval representation is said to be *compact* if the following conditions hold;

1. for each interval I , $R(I)$ and $L(I)$ are integers, and
2. for each distinct pair of integers p, q with $N[p] \neq \emptyset$ and $N[q] \neq \emptyset$, $N[p] \setminus N[q] \neq \emptyset$ and $N[q] \setminus N[p] \neq \emptyset$.

If a vertex v corresponds to an integer point on a compact interval representation, the vertex v and the corresponding integer $L(I_v) = R(I_v)$ are sometimes unified; for example, “ $u := v + 1$ ” means that “let u be a vertex with $L(I_u) = R(I_u) = L(I_v) + 1 = R(I_v) + 1$.”

Lemma 1 *For any given interval graph $G = (V, E)$, there is a linear time algorithm that constructs a compact interval representation \mathcal{I} such that*

1. each simplicial vertex v is a point; that is, $L(I_v) = R(I_v)$,
2. $\cup_{I \in \mathcal{I}} I$ is contained in $[1, |V|]$, and
3. each integer point i with $N[i] \neq \emptyset$ corresponds to a distinct maximal clique of G .

Proof. Given an interval graph $G = (V, E)$, we can construct an \mathcal{MPQ} -tree, which is a kind of labeled \mathcal{PQ} -tree, in linear time [25]. From the \mathcal{MPQ} -tree, in a natural way, we can construct a compact interval representation in linear time. The claim can be proved by induction on the number of nodes/sections in the \mathcal{MPQ} -tree, but it is straightforward and tedious, and is omitted here. We show that the constructed compact interval representation satisfies the conditions.

Let v be any simplicial vertex in G . By the definition, $N(v)$ induces a clique. Thus, by the Helly property (see, e.g., [4]), all vertices u in $N(v)$ share a common point. Therefore, I_v contains the point. If I_v is not an integer point, I_v should contain an interval $[i, i + 1]$ for some integer i . Then, $N[i] = N[i + 1]$, which contradicts the second condition of the definition. Thus we have the claim 1.

The maximal cliques of an interval graph G can be linearly ordered such that for each vertex v , the maximal cliques containing v occur consecutively [8]. Since the representation is compact, we have the claim 3 immediately. It is well known that chordal graphs, and hence interval graphs, have at most n maximal cliques. This fact with the claim 3 implies the claim 2. \square

Given a biconvex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ with $|X| = n_x$ and $|Y| = n_y$, a compact interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G)$ is constructed as follows: Let $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n_x}$ and $y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_{n_y}$ be the orderings over X and Y that have adjacency property. Let x_i correspond to the integer point i with $1 \leq i \leq n_x$. For each j with $1 \leq j \leq n_y$, since each y_j contains consecutive x s, we can let y_j correspond to the interval $[L(y_j), R(y_j)]$ such that $L(y_j) = l$ and $R(y_j) = r$, where x_l and x_r are the minimum and maximum vertices in $N(y_j)$, respectively.

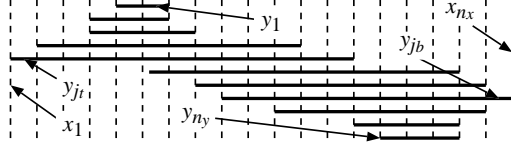


Figure 1: Bounds of a biconvex graph.

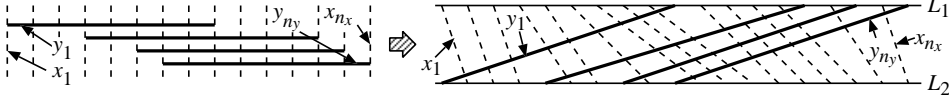


Figure 2: Proper biconvex graphs coincide with bipartite permutation graphs.

Lemma 2 For the compact interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G)$ of a biconvex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$, there are two indices j_t and j_b such that (1) $L(y_1) \geq L(y_2) \geq \dots \geq L(y_{j_t})$ and $L(y_{j_t}) \leq L(y_{j_t+1}) \leq \dots \leq L(y_{n_y})$, and (2) $R(y_1) \leq R(y_2) \leq \dots \leq R(y_{j_b})$ and $R(y_{j_b}) \geq R(y_{j_b+1}) \geq \dots \geq R(y_{n_y})$ (Figure 1). Moreover, we can assume that $j_t \leq j_b$ without loss of generality.

Proof. We note that $x_1 \in N(y_{j_t})$ and $x_{n_x} \in N(y_{j_b})$ if and only if G is connected. If the two indices do not exist, we have three consecutive vertices, say, $y_i < y_j < y_k$ such that $L(y_i) > L(y_j)$ and $L(y_k) > L(y_j)$. Then there is a vertex x in X such that $y_i, y_k \in N(x)$ and $y_j \notin N(x)$. This contradicts the definition of biconvex graphs. Thus there are two indices j_t and j_b . If $j_t > j_b$, reversing the ordering of X , we have $j_t < j_b$. \square

Here we can introduce a natural bipartite analogy of a proper interval graph; we say a biconvex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is *proper* if it has a vertex ordering in Lemma 2 and $J_1 \prec J_2 \prec \dots \prec J_{n_y}$, where J_1, J_2, \dots, J_{n_y} are the corresponding intervals of y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n_y} (and hence we also have $I_1 \prec I_2 \prec \dots \prec I_{n_x}$, where I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{n_x} are the corresponding intervals of x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n_x}). We here show that the class of “proper” biconvex graphs coincides with the class of bipartite permutation graphs.

Theorem 3 A bipartite graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is proper biconvex if and only if G is a bipartite permutation graph.

Proof. We first assume that a bipartite graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is a proper biconvex graph with $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n_x}\}$ and $Y = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n_y}\}$. Then $y_1 \prec y_2 \prec \dots \prec y_{n_y}$ by definition. From the interval representation, we construct the permutation σ that characterizes the bipartite permutation graph G as follows (see Figure 2). First, we put the lines corresponding to X between two parallel lines L_1 and L_2 . For y_i , let x_j and x_k be the vertices in X such that $N(y_i) = \{x_j, x_{j+1}, \dots, x_k\}$. Then we modify the line corresponding to y_i joining the point between x_k and x_{k+1} on L_1 and the point between x_{j-1} and x_j on L_2 . The permutation σ can be obtained from the diagram immediately. From a given bipartite permutation graph $G = (X, Y, E)$, the construction of the interval

representation of the proper biconvex graph G is also immediate. \square

From definitions, we have the following observation:

Observation 4 For a given biconvex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ with two indices j_t and j_b in Lemma 2, we partition Y into $Y_1 := \{y_1, \dots, y_{j_t}\}$, $Y_2 := \{y_{j_t+1}, \dots, y_{j_b}\}$, and $Y_3 := \{y_{j_b+1}, \dots, y_{n_y}\}$. Let X_i be the set of vertices in $N(Y_i)$ and E_i be the set of edges induced by $X_i \cup Y_i$. Then the graph $G_2 = (X_2, Y_2, E_2)$ is a bipartite permutation graph by Theorem 3, and the graphs $G_1 = (X_1, Y_1, E_1)$ and $G_3 = (X_3, Y_3, E_3)$ are chain graphs by definition.

That is, any biconvex graph consists of at most two chain graphs and at most one bipartite permutation graph.

Theorem 5 A chain graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is a bipartite permutation graph.

We note that Theorem 5 follows from [10] implicitly; in the paper, a bipartite permutation graph is decomposed into consecutive chain graphs. We here prove it rather directly from an algorithmic point of view.

Proof. By definition, there is an index i_c such that $N(x_1) \subseteq N(x_2) \subseteq \dots \subseteq N(x_{i_c})$ and $N(x_{n_x}) \subseteq N(x_{n_x-1}) \subseteq \dots \subseteq N(x_{i_c})$, where $n_x = |X|$. Since Y is linearly ordered in inclusion, for any pair of x_i and $x_{i'}$ with $1 \leq i \leq i_c$ and $i_c \leq i' \leq n_x$, we have $N(x_i) \subseteq N(x_{i'})$ or $N(x_{i'}) \subseteq N(x_i)$. Therefore, we can linearly order both X and Y ; the ordering of Y is as it is, and the ordering of X is the one computed by the following procedure:

Procedure REORDER

Input: A chain graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ with $|X| = n_x$ and $|Y| = n_y$, the orderings over X and Y , and a compact interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G)$.

Output: A linear ordering of X in inclusion.

1. $\ell := 1$; $r := n_x$;
2. if $N(x_\ell) \subseteq N(x_r)$ then output x_ℓ and $\ell := \ell + 1$;
else output x_r and $r := r - 1$;
3. if $\ell < r$ then goto step 2 else output x_ℓ and halt.

The correctness of this procedure is verified by induction on the number of intervals in X . \square

We note that this procedure REORDER runs in $O(n_x)$ time, since $N(x_\ell) \subseteq N(x_r)$ if and only if $\min\{N(x_\ell)\} \geq \min\{N(x_r)\}$.

We here introduce a new graph class that resides between interval graphs and proper interval graphs. An interval graph $G = (V, E)$ is said to be an *interval biconvex graph* if V can be partitioned into two sets S and Y such that

1. each vertex $x \in S$ is simplicial in G , and
2. bipartite graph $G' := (S, Y, E')$ is a biconvex graph, where $E' := \{\{x, y\} \mid x \in S, y \in Y, \text{ and } \{x, y\} \in E\}$.

Intuitively, interval biconvex graphs G are interval graphs obtained from biconvex graphs G' ; they have the same interval representations. However, we allow some vertices in S to correspond to the same point:

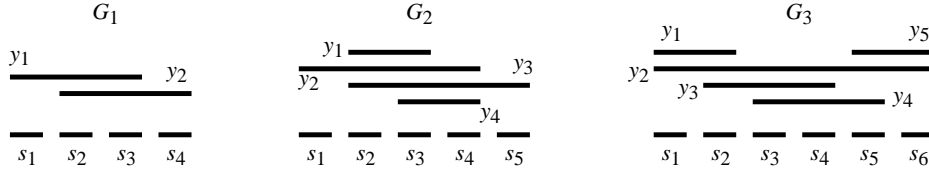


Figure 3: Interval representations of G_1 which is interval biconvex but neither threshold nor proper interval, G_2 which is interval biconvex but not proper, and G_3 which is interval but not interval biconvex.

Lemma 6 *Let $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ be an interval biconvex graph. Let v be a (simplicial) vertex in S , and $N_S[v]$ be the set $\{v\} \cup (N(v) \cap S)$ in G . Then $N_S[v]$ induces a clique, and for any two vertices v_1 and v_2 in $N_S[v]$, $N_G[v_1] = N_G[v_2]$.*

Proof. Since v is simplicial, $N_S[v]$ induces a clique. Thus we show that $N[v_1] = N[v_2]$ for any v_1 and v_2 in $N_S[v]$. To derive a contradiction, we assume that there is a vertex $w \in N[v_1] \setminus N[v_2]$. Then, both of v_2 and w are in $N[v_1]$, and $\{w, v_2\} \notin E$, which contradicts v_1 is simplicial in G . \square

Corollary 7 *Let $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ be an interval biconvex graph, and $\mathcal{I}(G)$ be a compact interval representation of G . Then*

1. for each vertex v in S , I_v is an integer point, and
2. for each vertices u and v in S with $N[u] = N[v]$, I_v and I_u are the same integer point.

Similarly, we can define a *proper interval biconvex graph* as follows; an interval biconvex graph $G = (S \cup Y, E)$ is said to be *proper* if Y has a vertex ordering y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n_y} such that $J_1 \prec J_2 \prec \dots \prec J_{n_y}$, where J_j corresponds to the interval of y_j .

Now, we have the following proper inclusion:

Lemma 8 *(Proper interval graphs \cup threshold graphs) \subset proper interval biconvex graphs \subset interval biconvex graphs \subset interval graphs.*

Proof. By definitions, the following inclusions are immediate: proper interval graphs \subseteq proper interval biconvex graphs \subseteq interval biconvex graphs \subseteq interval graphs. Thus we first show that any threshold graph $G = (V, E)$ with its threshold t is a proper interval biconvex graph. We assume that vertices are ordered with respect to their weights in the increasing order, that is, $w(v_1) \leq w(v_2) \leq \dots \leq w(v_n)$. Let i be the minimum index with $w(v_i) > \frac{t}{2}$. We partition V into $V' := \{v_i, \dots, v_n\}$ and $S := V \setminus V'$. Then we can see that (1) $G \langle V' \rangle$ is a clique, (2) each vertex in S is simplicial, (3) for each vertex v in S , $N(v) \neq \emptyset$ implies that $N(v) = \{v_j, v_{j+1}, \dots, v_n\}$ for some $j \geq i$. Thus the fact that G is a proper interval biconvex graph can be shown as follows: S corresponds to the set of simplicial vertices; each vertex v_j corresponds to the integer point j with $1 \leq j \leq i - 1$. The vertices in V' correspond to the set of intervals of the same length as follows; v_i

corresponds to $[j, i - 1]$, where j is the minimum index of the vertices in $N(v_i)$, or $N(v_i) = \{v_j, v_{j+1}, \dots, v_{i-1}\}$. Then, for each $v_{i'}$ with $i < i'$, the vertex $v_{i'}$ corresponds to $[j', (i - 1 + j' - j)]$, where $N(v_{i'}) = \{v_{j'}, v_{j'+1}, \dots, v_{i-1}\}$. Now the resulting interval representation satisfies the condition of a proper interval biconvex graph.

We also show that the inclusions are proper; the graph G_1 with an interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G_1)$ in Figure 3 is an interval biconvex graph. However, G_1 is not a threshold graph; if $w(y_1) > w(y_2)$, s_4 should overlap with y_1 , and vice versa. On the other hand, G_1 is not a proper interval graph; if y_1, y_2, s_2 , and s_3 have the same length, s_1 cannot overlap with y_1 without overlapping with s_2 . On the other hand, G_2 is an interval biconvex graph but it is not proper. $N(y_1) \subset N(y_2)$, and s_1 and s_4 have to be separated both sides of the interval y_1 . Hence the interval y_2 contains y_1 . Moreover, the graph G_3 in Figure 3 is an interval graph, but it is not an interval biconvex graph; if y_2 has the same length as y_3 and y_4 , y_2 cannot overlap both of s_1 and s_6 . \square

4. Algorithms for tree-like graphs

Given a finite (unweighted) tree T , a longest path in T can be found in linear time. A simple procedure is invented by E.W. Dijkstra around 1960, and its formal proof is given in [12]. The objective is not necessarily to design intricate and efficient algorithms for some specific graph classes, but enjoy the idea of Dijkstra's algorithm and generalize it so that we can apply it to solve the longest path problem for some tree-like graph classes.

Now, we give a framework that allows a generalization of the Dijkstra's algorithm by transforming G into another graph G' . For a given graph $G = (V, E)$, suppose that we can construct a new graph $G' = (V', E')$ satisfying the following three conditions:

1. $V \subseteq V'$,
2. for each pair u, v in V , $d_{G'}(u, v)$ equals the length of a longest path joining u and v in G , and
3. for each pair u, v in V , $d_{G'}(u, v)$ is given by the unique shortest path on G' .

Then the following algorithm computes the length of a longest path in G by using the graph G' in $O(|V'| + |E'|)$ time and space (we assume that each vertex v knows whether $v \in V$ or $v \in V' \setminus V$).

Algorithm TR

Input: Graph $G' = (V', E')$.

Output: The length of a longest path P in G .

1. pick up any vertex u in V of G' ;
2. find a vertex x in V such as to maximize $d_{G'}(u, x)$;
3. find a vertex y in V such as to maximize $d_{G'}(x, y)$;
4. output the length of a shortest path joining x and y on G' .

The Dijkstra's algorithm for trees is exactly the one that can be obtained by letting $G = G'$, and G is a tree.

Theorem 9 *Algorithm TR computes the length of a longest path of G in linear time in the sizes of G and G' .*

Proof. In the proof in [12], the correctness of the Dijkstra's algorithm is based on the following three points;

- for any vertices u and v , the shortest path joining them gives the longest path joining them,
- for any vertices u, v and w , we have $d(u, v) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$, and
- for any vertices u, v and w , we have $d(u, v) = d(u, w) + d(w, v)$ if and only if w is on the path joining u and v .

By the properties of G' , for any vertices u and v in V , the length of the shortest path joining u and v on G' is equal to the length of the longest path joining u and v on G . For any vertices u, v , and w in V , we also have $d_{G'}(u, v) \leq d_{G'}(u, w) + d_{G'}(w, v)$. By the properties of G' , $d_{G'}(u, v)$ is given by the unique shortest path on G' . Thus, for any vertices u, v and w in V , we have $d_{G'}(u, v) = d_{G'}(u, w) + d_{G'}(w, v)$ if and only if w is on the shortest path joining u and v . Therefore, we can use the same argument as in the proof of [12] to show the correctness of Algorithm TR. Since $d_{G'}(u, v)$ is given by the unique shortest path on G' for each pair $u, v \in V$, we can use the standard breadth first search to execute the algorithm in linear time. \square

Hereafter, we show three graph classes such that Algorithm TR computes the length of a longest path with suitable reductions. We note that, in Step 4, Algorithm TR outputs the length of a longest path. However, it is easy to modify the algorithms for the specified graph classes in order to output the longest path of G itself.

Lemma 10 *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a weighted tree with $w : V \cup E \rightarrow Z$ an integer weight function of vertices and edges. We define the length of a weighted path (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k) by $\sum_{i=1}^k w(v_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} w(\{v_i, v_{i+1}\})$. Then the weighted longest path problem can be solved in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time and space.*

Proof. For vertex/edge weighted trees, we do not transform the original graph G into G' , but use the primitive Dijkstra's algorithm directly just by regarding the length of a path as defined above. Then a BFS can implement it in $O(|V| + |E|)$ irrelevant to the vertex/edge weights. \square

Theorem 11 *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a block graph. Then the longest path problem can be solved in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time and space.*

Proof. Given a block graph G , we construct a weighted tree G' as follows: We first initialize each edge by weight 1, and each vertex by weight 0. For each maximal clique K of size $k > 2$, we first remove all edges in K , second put a vertex c of weight $k - 3$, and third join c and each vertex in K by an edge of weight 1. We repeat the replacement for all maximal cliques of size > 2 . The resulting graph G' is an integer weighted tree. Since the number of maximal cliques is $\leq |V|$ and the transformation does not increase the number of edges, we can say that $|V'| = O(|V|)$ and $|E'| = O(|E|)$. Let u and v be any two vertices in V . Then

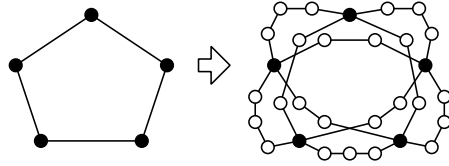


Figure 4: An example of gadgets: the gadget C'_5 for C_5 .

the length of a longest path between u and v on G is equal to the weight of the path joining u and v on G' . Thus we can use Lemma 10, and the running time is $O(|V'| + |E'|) = O(|V| + |E|)$. \square

Theorem 12 *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a cactus. Then the longest path problem can be solved in $O(|V|^2)$ time and space.*

Proof. We first show a reduction in $O(|V|^3)$ time and space. Let C_k be any cycle of k vertices in G . We replace C_k by a gadget C'_k defined as follows (Figure 4): For each pair of vertices v_i and v_j on C_k , if $d_{C_k}(v_i, v_j) = h$, C'_k contains a path of length $k - h$ (with auxiliary vertices). We note that the length of the longest path joining v_i and v_j on G (or C_k) is $k - h$. We replace all cycles of G by the gadgets. The resulting graph G' has $O(|V|^3)$ vertices and edges, and the reduction can be done in $O(|V|^3)$ time and space. To show the correctness of Algorithm TR, we show that for each pair u, v in V , (1) $d_{G'}(u, v)$ equals the length of a longest path joining u and v in G , and (2) the shortest path joining u and v on G' is uniquely determined. Since G is a cactus, we show that for each pair v_i and v_j on C_k , $d_{G'}(v_i, v_j)$ equals the length of a longest path joining v_i and v_j in G . Without loss of generality, we assume that $C_k = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v_1)$, $i = 1$, and $1 < j \leq \lfloor \frac{k}{2} \rfloor$. By the construction, we have $d_{G'}(v_1, v_j)$ is at most $k - j$ by the added path joining v_1 and v_j . We assume that there is a shorter path P in G' joining v_1 and v_j to derive a contradiction. Since G is a cactus, P contains at least one vertex v' on C_k with $v' \neq v_1, v_j$. From the construction, for any pair of vertices u and u' on C_k , we have $\frac{k}{2} \leq d_{G'}(u, u') \leq k - 1$. Thus, $k - j \leq k - 1$. On the other hand, since P contains three vertices v_1, v_j , and v' on C_k , the length of P is at least $2 \cdot \frac{k}{2} = k$, which contradicts that the length of P is shorter than $k - j \leq k - 1$. Thus, for each pair u, v in V , $d_{G'}(u, v)$ is equal to the length of a longest path joining u and v in G , and the shortest path joining u and v on G' is uniquely determined.

In each gadget in Figure 4, since we can replace each path by the edge of weight equal to the length of the path, the reduction can be done from G in $O(|V|^2)$ time and space. Moreover, the resulting graph after the reduction only requires $|V|$ vertices and $O(|V|^2)$ edges, which implies that the running time is $O(|V|^2)$. \square

5. Algorithms for biconvex graphs

In this section, we consider the longest path problem on subclasses of biconvex

graphs. We assume that a biconvex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ is given with its compact interval representation. For a given path P , we denote by P_X the ordered set of vertices in P and X , and by P_Y the ordered set of vertices in P and Y . Hereafter, we use (\cdot) to denote ordered sets, and $\{\cdot\}$ to denote unordered sets, respectively. Also, we sometimes identify a path P with the ordered set that consists of the vertices in P . Hence, when $P_X = (x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots)$ and $P_Y = (y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$, we have $P = (x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, x_{i_2}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$ or $P = (y_{j_1}, x_{i_1}, y_{j_2}, x_{i_2}, \dots)$.

We first assume that a given biconvex graph is a bipartite permutation graph; in our context, we deal it as a “proper” biconvex graph as depicted in the left hand side of Figure 2.

Lemma 13 *For a given bipartite permutation graph $G = (X, Y, E)$, there is a longest path P with $P_X = (x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots)$ and $P_Y = (y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$ such that $i_p < i_{p+1}$ and $j_p < j_{p+1}$ for each p .*

Proof. Let P' be any longest path $(x_{i'_1}, y_{j'_1}, x_{i'_2}, y_{j'_2}, \dots)$ such that $x_{i'_p} \in X$ and $y_{j'_p} \in Y$ (the symmetric case that P' starts from a vertex in Y is omitted). We construct P from P' such that P contains the same vertices in P' and satisfies the condition. The proof is by induction on the length of the path. The lemma holds when the length of the path is 2. Thus we assume that the length of the path is at least 3. We have two cases:

(1) The path ends with two vertices $(x_{i'_k}, y_{j'_k})$ with $x_{i'_k} \in X$ and $y_{j'_k} \in Y$. Then, by the inductive hypothesis, there is a path $P'' = (x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, x_{i_2}, y_{j_2}, \dots, x_{i_k}, y_{j_k})$ such that $i_p < i_{p+1}$ and $j_p < j_{p+1}$ for each p . If either $y_{j_k} < y_{j'_{k+1}}$ or $y_{j'_{k+1}} < y_{j_1}$, the path $(x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, \dots, x_{i_k}, y_{j'_k}, x_{i'_{k+1}})$ or $(x_{i'_{k+1}}, y_{j'_{k+1}}, x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, \dots, x_{i_k}, y_{j_k})$ satisfies the condition. Thus we suppose that $y_{j_1} < y_{j'_{k+1}} < y_{j_k}$. Then since the graph is proper, there is an index h such that $y_{j_h} < y_{j'_{k+1}} < y_{j_{h+1}}$. Then $x_{i_{h+1}} \in I_{y_{j'_{k+1}}}$, and $x_{i'_{k+1}} \in (I_{y_{j_h}} \cup I_{y_{j_{h+1}}})$. If $x_{i'_{k+1}} \in I_{y_{j_h}}$, the path $(x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, x_{i_2}, y_{j_2}, \dots, y_{j_h}, x_{i'_{k+1}}, y_{j'_{k+1}}, x_{i_{h+1}}, y_{j_{h+1}}, \dots, x_{i_k}, y_{j_k})$ satisfies the condition. Otherwise, the path $(x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, x_{i_2}, y_{j_2}, \dots, y_{j_h}, x_{i_{h+1}}, y_{j'_{k+1}}, x_{i'_{k+1}}, y_{j_{h+1}}, \dots, x_{i_k}, y_{j_k})$ satisfies the condition.

(2) The path ends with two vertices $(y_{j'_k}, x_{i'_{k+1}})$ with $y_{j'_k} \in Y$ and $x_{i'_{k+1}} \in X$. Then, by the inductive hypothesis, there is a path $P'' = (x_{i_1}, y_{j_1}, x_{i_2}, y_{j_2}, \dots, x_{i_k}, y_{j_k})$ such that $i_p < i_{p+1}$ and $j_p < j_{p+1}$ for each p . Then we have three possible cases; $y_{j_k} < y_{j'_k}$, $y_{j'_k} < y_{j_1}$, and $y_{j_1} < y_{j'_k} < y_{j_k}$. Using the same argument as in (1), we have the lemma. \square

Theorem 14 *For a given connected bipartite permutation graph $G = (X, Y, E)$, a longest path can be found in $O(|X \cup Y| + |E|)$ time.*

Proof. To compute the longest path satisfying the condition in Lemma 13, we use standard dynamic programming technique. We define two functions $f(x_i, y_j)$ and $g(y_j, x_i)$ such that $f(x_i, y_j)$ gives the length of a longest path starting with the vertex x_i and $g(y_j, x_i)$ gives the length of a longest path starting with the vertex y_j in the subgraph induced by $\{x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{|X|}\} \cup \{y_j, y_{j+1}, \dots, y_{|Y|}\}$. We define $f(x_i, y_j) = 0$ if $\{x_i, y_j\} \notin E$ or y_j does not exist, and $g(y_j, x_i) = 0$ if $\{x_i, y_j\} \notin E$

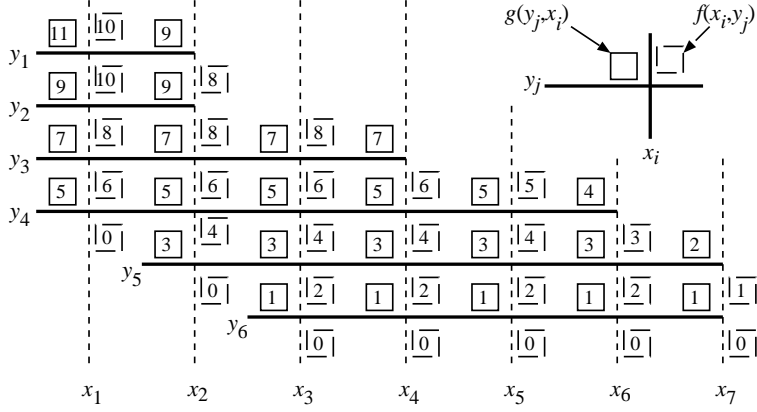


Figure 5: An example for $f(x_i, y_j)$ and $g(y_j, x_i)$.

or x_i does not exist. Then, if $\{x_i, y_j\} \in E$,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_i, y_j) &= \max\{f(x_i, y_{j+1}), g(y_j, x_{i+1}) + 1\} \text{ and} \\ g(y_j, x_i) &= \max\{f(x_i, y_{j+1}) + 1, g(y_j, x_{i+1})\}. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, the length of a longest path is given by $\max\{f(x_1, y_1), g(y_1, x_1)\}$. Computing the longest path itself is also straightforward. The computation of $\max\{f(x_1, y_1), g(y_1, x_1)\}$ can be done in linear time and space by means of dynamic programming. \square

An example is depicted in Figure 5. In Figure 5, $f(x_1, y_1) = 10$ and $g(y_1, x_1) = 11$. Hence the length of a longest path is 11, which is given by $(y_1, x_1, y_2, x_2, y_3, x_3, y_4, x_4, y_5, x_5, y_6, x_6)$ or $(y_1, x_1, y_2, x_2, y_3, x_3, y_4, x_4, y_5, x_5, y_6, x_7)$.

By Theorems 5 and 14, we can find a longest path in a chain graph in linear time. On the other hand, by Observation 4 and Theorem 5, any biconvex graph G consists of three bipartite permutation graphs G_1, G_2 , and G_3 . We conjecture that the longest path among three longest paths in G_i with $i = 1, 2, 3$ has length at least one third of the length of a longest path in G .

6. Algorithms for interval biconvex graphs

In this section, we consider the longest path problem on interval biconvex graphs. Some related results, and especially a polynomial time algorithm for the problem on the class of proper interval biconvex graph are shown.

Let $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ be an interval biconvex graph with the set S of simplicial vertices. Let $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n_x}$ and $y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_{n_y}$ be the orderings over S and Y that have adjacency property. We here denote by $I(x_i)$ the integer point I_{x_i} , that is, $I(x_i) = R(I_{x_i}) = L(I_{x_i})$. By Lemma 6, for each x and x' with $N[x] = N[x']$, $I(x) = I(x')$. For each j with $1 \leq j \leq n_y$, since each y_j contains consecutive x 's, we can let y_j correspond to the interval $[L(y_j), R(y_j)]$ such that $L(y_j) = I(x_\ell)$

and $R(y_j) = I(x_r)$, where x_ℓ and x_r are the minimum and maximum vertices in $S \cap N(y_j)$, respectively. By definition and the proof of Lemma 2, we immediately have the following lemma:

Lemma 15 *For the compact interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G)$ of the interval biconvex graph $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ with the set S of simplicial vertices, there are two indices j_t and j_b such that (1) $j_t \leq j_b$, (2) $L(y_1) \geq L(y_2) \geq \dots \geq L(y_{j_t})$ and $L(y_{j_t}) \leq L(y_{j_t+1}) \leq \dots \leq L(y_{n_y})$, and (3) $R(y_1) \leq R(y_2) \leq \dots \leq R(y_{j_b})$ and $R(y_{j_b}) \geq R(y_{j_b+1}) \geq \dots \geq R(y_{n_y})$.*

The following proposition is also immediate (see also [5, Lemma 2]):

Proposition 16 *Let $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ be a connected interval biconvex graph. Let $y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_{n_y}$ be the orderings over Y that have adjacency property. Then $\{y_i, y_{i+1}\} \in E$ for each $1 \leq i < n_y$. That is, $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{n_y})$ is a path of G .*

We here let $Y_1 := \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{j_t}\}$, $Y_2 := \{y_{j_t}, y_{j_t+1}, \dots, y_{j_b}\}$, and $Y_3 := \{y_{j_b}, y_{j_b+1}, \dots, y_{n_y}\}$. (We note that the vertices y_t and y_b are shared by two sets.) For any ordered set $Z = \{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n\}$, we say an ordered subset $Z' \subseteq Z$ is in consecutive order if there are two indices i and j with $i \leq j$ such that $Z' = \{z_i, z_{i+1}, \dots, z_{j-1}, z_j\}$. For a given path P , we denote the ordered sets $P \cap Y_1$, $P \cap Y_2$, and $P \cap Y_3$ by P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 , respectively.

Lemma 17 *Any interval biconvex graph $G = (Y_1 \cup Y_2 \cup Y_3 \cup S, E)$ has a longest path P such that P_i induces an ordered subset in consecutive order for each $i = 1, 2, 3$.*

Proof. We first consider the case $i = 2$. Let P_2 be $(y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$. Then, using the same analysis of Lemma 13, we can show that $j_1 < j_2 < \dots$. Now we assume that P_2 contains a subpath (y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}) with $j_1 < j_3 < j_2$ for some j_3 . Then, by Proposition 16, we can extend P by replacing a vertex y_{j_1} by a subpath (y_{j_1}, y_{j_3}) , which contradicts that P is a longest path.

Next we consider the case $i = 1$. Let P_1 be $(y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, \dots)$. By definition, $j < j'$ implies that $N(y_j) \subseteq N(y_{j'})$. Thus, when $j < j' < j''$ and $y_j, y_{j''} \in P_1$ and $y_{j'} \notin P_1$, we can replace y_j by $y_{j'}$. Hence, since P is a longest path, the unordered set $P \cap Y_1$ consists of $\{y_j \mid k \leq j \leq j_t\}$ for some k with $1 \leq k \leq j_t$. Therefore we show that they can be sorted in consecutive order. When $|P_1| < 3$, we have done. Hence we assume that $|P_1| \geq 3$. We assume that P_1 contains $y_{j_1}, y_{j_2}, y_{j_3}$ in this order and $j_2 < j_1 < j_3$. Without loss of generality, P contains a subpath $(y_{j_1}, S_1, y_{j_2}, S_2, y_{j_3})$ for some ordered set $S_1, S_2 \subseteq (S \cup Y_2 \cup Y_3) \setminus Y_1$. If y_{j_1} is the first element in P_1 , we can replace the subpath by $(y_{j_2}, S_1, y_{j_1}, S_2, y_{j_3})$ since $S_1, S_2 \subseteq N(y_{j_2}) \subseteq N(y_{j_1})$. If y_{j_1} is not the first element in P_1 , we have two vertices $y_{j_0} \in Y_1$ and $S_0 \subseteq (S \cup Y_2 \cup Y_3) \setminus Y_1$ such that P contains a subpath $(y_{j_0}, S_0, y_{j_1}, S_1, y_{j_2}, S_2, y_{j_3})$. If $N(y_{j_2}) \subseteq N(y_{j_0})$, we can replace the path by $(y_{j_0}, S_2, y_{j_2}, S_1, y_{j_1}, S_0, y_{j_3})$. If $N(y_{j_0}) \subseteq N(y_{j_2})$, we can replace the path by $(y_{j_0}, S_0, y_{j_2}, S_1, y_{j_1}, S_2, y_{j_3})$. Repeating this process, we can sort P_1 in consecutive order. The case $i = 3$ is symmetric to $i = 1$. \square

Now we focus on the class of proper interval biconvex graphs $G = (S \cup Y, E)$. That is, we consider the case that $G \langle Y \rangle$ induces a proper interval graph. Hereafter, we denote by (X, y) a path $(x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+j}, y)$ for a set $X = \{x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+j}\}$ if $G \langle X \rangle$ is a clique.

Lemma 18 *For a connected proper interval biconvex graph $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$,*

there is a longest path P such that

- (1) the vertices in $Y \cap P$ appear consecutively; that is, $Y \cap P$ is $y_j, y_{j+1}, \dots, y_{j+k-1}, y_{j+k}$ for some j and k , and those vertices appear according to the ordering over Y ,
- (2) the consecutive vertices in S on P correspond to the same integer point; that is, if P contains a subpath $(y_j, x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, \dots, x_{i+h}, y_{j+1})$, we have $I(x_i) = I(x_{i+1}) = \dots = I(x_{i+h})$,
- (3) the vertices in S on P appear according to the ordering over S ; that is, if $S \cap P$ is $x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \dots, x_{i_h}$ in this order, $I(x_{i_1}) \leq I(x_{i_2}) \leq \dots \leq I(x_{i_h})$, and
- (4) P starts and ends at the vertices in S .

Let s and f be integers such that $N[s] \cap S$ and $N[f] \cap S$ give us the set of vertices satisfying the condition that P starts at $N[s]$ and ends at $N[f]$. Let y_s and y_f be the vertices such that P starts with $(N[s], y_s)$ and ends with $(y_f, N[f])$. Then

- (5) y_s is the minimum vertex in Y with I_{y_s} containing s , and y_f is the maximum vertex in Y with I_{y_f} containing f .

Proof. (1) We assume that P contains y_{j_1}, y_{j_2} , and y_{j_3} in this ordering and $y_{j_1} \prec y_{j_3} \prec y_{j_2}$. We assume that they are minimal, that is, they are consecutive in $P \cap Y$. Then, swapping y_{j_2} and y_{j_3} we also have a path. Repeating this process, we have a path such that the vertices in Y appear according to the ordering over Y . Let y_j and y_{j+k} be the first and last vertices in $P \cap Y$, respectively. We next show that all vertices $y_{j+k'}$ with $0 < k' < k$ appear on P . We assume that some $y_{j+k'}$ with $0 < k' < k$ does not appear on P . Then, inserting it, we have a longer path, which contradicts that P is a longest path.

(2) Let s be any integer such that there is a vertex x in $N[s] \cap S \cap P$. If there is a vertex x' such that $x' \in N[s] \cap S$ and x' does not appear in P , we have a longer path by replacing a subpath (x) of P by (x, x') . Thus all vertices in $N[s] \cap S$ appear in P . It is clear that gathering all vertices in $N[s] \cap S \cap P$ has no effects on the connectivity and length of P . Thus we can assume that all vertices in $N[s] \cap S$ are consecutive in P .

(3) By (1), all vertices in $Y \cap P$ appear consecutively. Thus, using the same argument in (1), we can assume that all vertices in $S \cap P$ also appear consecutively.

(4) To derive a contradiction, we assume that P starts at the vertex y_j not in S . Then, by the definition of a compact interval representation, we have (a) $L(y_j) = R(y_{j'})$ for some $j' < j$, or (b) $N[L(y_j)] \cap S \neq \emptyset$. In the case (a), we have a longer path by adding $y_{j'}$ at the top of P . On the other hand, in the case (b), we also have a longer path by adding the vertices in $N[L(y_j)] \cap S$ at the top of P . Thus, P starts at the vertex in S . Using the same argument, we can show that P ends at the vertex in S .

(5) To derive a contradiction, we assume that P starts with $(N[s], y_s)$ and there is a vertex $y_{s'}$ such that $s' \neq s$, $I_{y_{s'}}$ contains s , and $y_{s'} \prec y_s$. By (1), $y_{s'}$ does not appear in P . However, in the case, we have longer path by replacing $(N[s], y_s)$ by $(N[s], y_{s'}, y_s)$, which is a contradiction. Thus y_s is the minimum vertex in Y with I_{y_s} containing s . Using the same argument, we can show that y_f is the maximum vertex in Y with I_{y_f} containing f . \square

By Lemma 18, the outline of our algorithm is as follows:

1. for each integer s and f with $0 < s < f \leq n_x$, suppose $N[s] \cap S$ and $N[f] \cap S$ are the endpoints of a longest path;
2. let y_{j_s} be the smallest vertex with $L[y_{j_s}] \leq s \leq R[y_{j_s}]$, and let y_{j_f} be the largest vertex with $L[y_{j_f}] \leq f \leq R[y_{j_f}]$;
3. for each integer $i = s + 1, s + 2, \dots, f - 1$, determine where the vertices in $S \cap N[i]$ are inserted in the path $(N[s], y_{j_s}, y_{j_s+1}, \dots, y_{j_f-1}, y_{j_f}, N[f])$.

Step 3 can be implemented using the polynomial time algorithm for the maximum weighted matching problem. We first construct a weighted bipartite graph $G' = (X', Y', E')$ with $X' = \{i \mid I(x) = i \text{ for some } x \in S \text{ with } s < i < f\}$ and $Y' = \{\{y_j, y_{j+1}\} \mid y_j, y_{j+1} \in Y \text{ and } j_s \leq j \leq j_f - 1\}$ as follows; E' contains a weighted edge $e = \{i, \{y_j, y_{j+1}\}\}$ if $N[i]$ contains both of y_j and y_{j+1} . The weight of the edge e is defined by $|S \cap N[i]|$, which is the number of vertices x in S with $I(x) = i$. A matching M of G' gives a path of G as follows; if an edge $e = \{\{y_j, y_{j+1}\}, i\}$ is in M , the path of G contains $(y_j, N[i], y_{j+1})$. Thus, by Lemma 18, the maximum weighted matching of G' gives a longest path of G . The detail of the algorithm can be described as follows:

Algorithm PIBG

Input: A proper interval biconvex graph $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ with $|S| = n_x$ and $|Y| = n_y$, and a compact interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G)$.

Output: A longest path P .

1. **for** each integer s with $0 < s < n_x$ **do**
2. **for** each f with $s < f \leq n_x$ **do**
3. construct the weighted bipartite graph $G' = (X', Y', E')$ for the vertices that overlaps the interval $[s, f]$;
4. find a maximum weighted matching M in G' ;
5. let $N[s]$ and $N[f]$ suppose the endpoints of a longest path;
6. let y_{j_s} be the smallest vertex with $L[y_{j_s}] \leq N[s] \leq R[y_{j_s}]$, and let y_{j_f} be the largest vertex with $L[y_{j_f}] \leq N[f] \leq R[y_{j_f}]$;
7. compute the path given by $(N[s], y_{j_s}, y_{j_s+1}, \dots, y_{j_f-1}, y_{j_f}, N[f])$ with the vertices in S that appear in M ;
8. **end**
9. **end**
10. find the longest path among the paths generated in step 6.

Theorem 19 *A longest path in a given proper interval biconvex graph $G = (V = S \cup Y, E)$ with $|V| = n$ and $|E| = m$ can be found in $O(n^3(m + n \log n))$ time.*

Proof. The correctness of Algorithm PIBG follows from Lemma 18. Thus we analyze the running time. For the weighted bipartite graph $G' = (X', Y', E')$ constructed in Step 3, we have $|X'| = O(n_x)$, $|Y'| = O(n_y)$, and $|E'| = O(|E|)$. A maximum weighted matching can be found in $O(|V|(|E| + |V| \log |V|))$ time and $O(|E|)$ space for any given graph $G = (V, E)$ [17]. Hence Step 4 takes $O(n(m + n \log n))$ time with $n = n_x + n_y$ and $m = |E|$. The graph G' induced by the

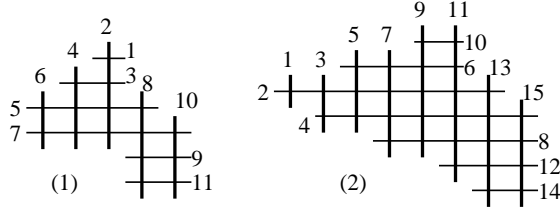


Figure 6: Two typical cases.

vertices that overlap the interval $[s, f]$ can be maintained incrementally. In each update of s and f , G' is updated in $O(|N[s]|)$ time and $O(|N[f]|)$ time, respectively. Hence the total cost of maintenance of G' can be bounded above $(\sum_{x \in S} \deg(x))^2 = O(m^2) = O(mn^2)$. Therefore total running time is $O(n_x^2 n(m + n \log n) + m^2) = O(n^3(m + n \log n))$. \square

Corollary 20 *A longest path in a given threshold graph $G = (V, E)$ with $|V| = n$ and $|E| = m$ can be found in $O(n + m)$ time and space.*

Proof. (Sketch.) By Lemma 8 and Theorem 19, a longest path in a threshold graph can be found in $O(n^3(m + n \log n))$ time. However, Algorithm PIBG can be simplified to run in linear time and space using the properties shown in the proof of Lemma 8 and that $G \langle S \rangle$ is an independent set. Similar idea can be found in [27], and hence omitted here. \square

7. Concluding remarks

The main open problems are the complexity of the longest path problem for interval graphs, convex graphs, biconvex graphs, and interval biconvex graphs.

The longest path problem for interval graphs can be reduced to the one for convex graphs in polynomial time by using a simple reduction by Damaschke in [29, Section 2] (see Appendix 1). Thus the problem for convex graphs seems to be more difficult than for interval graphs. Intuitively, however, a convex graph has similar structure to the interval graph that has the \mathcal{MPQ} -tree with only one \mathcal{Q} -node in the manner of [25]. Therefore, the complexity of the longest path problem for interval graphs and convex graphs seems to be essentially the same.

The longest path problem for biconvex graphs is similar to the problem for interval biconvex graphs, and they seem to be easier than the other two graph classes. However, the problem for (interval) biconvex graphs are not so easy. We know the path is “monotone” in each part Y_1, Y_2, Y_3 by Lemma 17. However, their combinations are not simple. Two typical and difficult cases are shown in Figure 6; both graphs satisfy $Y_3 = \emptyset$, and they have Hamilton paths, respectively. Each path is monotone in Y_1 and Y_2 , but their crossing is tricky.

It is also worth investigating the complexity of the longest cycle problem instead of the longest path problem. It is known that a longest cycle can be found in threshold graphs in polynomial time [27]. The efficient algorithms for the Hamiltonian cycle problem for proper interval graphs [5, 31] and interval graphs [23] have been

given. There are a few results for the Hamiltonian cycle problem on split graphs [13, 32].

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Appendix A: Related Results

Using a simple reduction by Damaschke in [29, Section 2], we have the following two theorems:

Theorem A.1 *The longest path problem for interval graphs can be reduced to the longest path problem for convex graphs in $O(n^2)$ time.*

Proof. Given connected interval graph $G = (V, E)$ with $|V| = n$, we construct a corresponding convex graph $G' = (V, W, E')$ such that a longest path in G gives a longest path in G' or vice versa. For G , we first construct a compact interval representation \mathcal{I} . Then the set W is defined as follows; for each integer i in $[1, n]$, W contains $|N[i]| + 1$ vertices corresponding to the point i . The ordering of W is defined naturally; $w < w'$ if $I(w) < I(w')$. The set E' is the set of edges $\{v, w\}$ if and only if I_v contains the point $I(w)$. The resulting bipartite graph is clearly a convex graph, and the reduction can be done in $O(n^2)$ time. Thus it is sufficient to show that a longest path in G corresponds to a longest path in G' . Let $P = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k)$ be a path in G . Then, by the definition of compact interval representation, $I_{v_i} \cap I_{v_{i+1}}$ contains at least one integer point for each $i = 1, \dots, k-1$. Moreover, each integer point i corresponds to $|N[i]| + 1$ w s. Thus, on G' , we can construct a path $P' = (w_1, v_1, w_2, v_2, \dots, w_k, v_k, w_{k+1})$ of length $2k + 1$. It is easy to see that P is a longest path in G if and only if P' is a longest path in G' . \square

Theorem A.2 *We can solve the Hamiltonian path problem for biconvex graphs $G = (X, Y, E)$ in $O(n^2)$ time, where $n = |X \cup Y|$.*

Proof. Let $G = (X, Y, E)$ be a given biconvex graph such that X and Y are ordered with respect to the adjacency property. By Lemma 1, each $x \in X$ on the compact interval representation $\mathcal{I}(G)$ corresponds to an integer point.

When $|X| = |Y|$, we can use the same idea in [29, Section 2] which is as follows: From G , we construct the interval graph $G' = (X \cup Y, E \cup E')$ where $E' := \{\{y_1, y_2\} \mid N(y_1) \cap N(y_2) \neq \emptyset\}$. We let $m = |E \cup E'|$. Then, since two vertices in X cannot be consecutive on a path of G' , G has a Hamiltonian path if and only if G' has a Hamiltonian path.

However, G can have a Hamiltonian path when $||X| - |Y|| \leq 1$. Thus we have to consider two other cases. We first assume that $|X| - |Y| = 1$. Two vertices in X cannot be consecutive even in G' . Thus if G' has a Hamiltonian path, it starts from a vertex in X and ends at a vertex in X . Hence the reduction above again works; G has a Hamiltonian path if and only if G' has a Hamiltonian path.

If $|Y| - |X| = 1$, we can swap X and Y and the problem is reduced to the case $|X| - |Y| = 1$. \square

Corollary A.3 *Let $G = (X, Y, E)$ be a convex graph such that an ordering $<$ of X has the adjacency property. Then the Hamiltonian path problem for G can be solved in $O(n^2)$ time if $|X| = |Y|$ or $|X| - |Y| = 1$.*

Remark: The Hamiltonian path problem for the convex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ with $|Y| - |X| = 1$ is open. It seems that the case is related to the problem named ‘‘Hamiltonian path with fixed end’’ (1HP) proposed by Damaschke in [15], which is also open. If 1HP has a polynomial time algorithm, the Hamiltonian path problem for the convex graph $G = (X, Y, E)$ with $|Y| - |X| = 1$ also can be solved in polynomial time.