

Split decomposition and graph-labelled trees: Characterizations and fully dynamic algorithms for totally decomposable graphs[☆]

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we revisit the split decomposition of graphs and give new combinatorial and algorithmic results for the class of totally decomposable graphs, also known as the *distance hereditary graphs*, and for two non-trivial subclasses, namely the *cographs* and the *3-leaf power graphs*. Precisely, we give structural and incremental characterizations, leading to optimal fully dynamic recognition algorithms for vertex and edge modifications, for each of these classes. These results rely on the new combinatorial framework of *graph-labelled trees* used to represent the split decomposition of general graphs (and also the modular decomposition). The point of the paper is to use bijections between the aforementioned graph classes and graph-labelled trees whose nodes are labelled by cliques and stars. We mention that this bijective viewpoint yields directly an intersection model for the class of distance hereditary graphs.

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1. Introduction

The 1-join composition and its complementary operation, the *split decomposition*, range among the classical operations in graph theory. It was introduced by Cunningham and Edmonds [8,9] in the early 80s and has, since then, been used in various contexts such as perfect graph theory [27], circle graphs [5], clique-width [13] or rank-width [35]. The first polynomial time algorithm to compute the split decomposition of a graph, proposed in [8], runs $O(n^3)$ time complexity. It was later improved by Ma and Spinrad [32] who described an $O(n^2)$ time algorithm. So far Dahlhaus' linear time algorithm [16] is the fastest. Also, we mention the recent work [11] which nicely reformulates underlying routines from [16].

Roughly speaking, a split is a bipartition of the vertices of a graph satisfying certain properties (see Definition 2.7). Computing the split decomposition of a graph consists in recursively decompose that graph according to bipartitions that are splits. This process naturally yields a (split) decomposition tree [8,9] which represents the used bipartitions. However, such a tree does not keep track of the adjacency of the input graph. Thereby alternative representations of the split decomposition have been proposed. So far, the *split decomposition graph* appearing in [7,29,22,13] seems to be the most commonly used representation. As an example of another related representation, let us mention the Δ -confluent graphs used for distance hereditary graph drawing [19].

This paper starts with an adaptation of the split decomposition graph into a new and simple combinatorial structure, namely *graph-labelled trees*. A *graph-labelled tree* is a tree in which every internal node u is labelled by a graph G_u whose vertices, called *marker vertices*, are in one-to-one correspondence with the tree-edges incident to u . The definition of graph-labelled tree is independent of the split decomposition. But equipped with the notion of *accessibility*, it precisely catches

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the combinatorial structure studied in [8] and provides a representation of the adjacencies of the graph to be decomposed. A node or a leaf u is *accessible* from a leaf $l \neq u$ if for every tree-edges $e = uv$ and $e' = vw'$ on the l, u -path in T , e and e' are mapped to adjacent marker vertices in G_u . Every graph-labelled tree is associated with a graph, its *accessibility graph*, whose vertex set is the leaf set of the tree. Two vertices x and y of the accessibility graph are adjacent if and only if the corresponding leaves are accessible from each another.

Surprisingly, revisiting the split decomposition under this original approach yields new combinatorial and algorithmic results, as well as alternative proofs or simpler constructions of previously known results. Section 2 introduces the combinatorial framework of graph-labelled trees which apply to arbitrary graphs. The main results of split decomposition theory are revisited from the graph-labelled trees viewpoint. The split decomposition can be seen as a refinement of the modular decomposition [20,26]. We then describe links between these two graph decompositions techniques in terms of graph-labelled trees. We also establish useful general lemmas.

The rest of the paper concentrates on *totally decomposable* graphs (with respect to the split decomposition), also known as the *distance hereditary graphs* [4,24]. Distance hereditary graphs play an important role in other classical decomposition techniques since they are exactly the graphs of rank-width 1 [35] and range among the elementary graphs of clique-width 3 [10]. The family of distance hereditary graphs contains a number of well-studied graph classes such as *cographs* which are the graphs totally decomposable by the modular decomposition and *3-leaf powers* which form a subfamily of chordal distance hereditary graphs. We apply our techniques to these latter two graph families. Our results are consequences of characterizations of the three graph classes we consider (distance hereditary graphs, cographs and 3-leaf powers). Each of these characterizations, translated into the graph-labelled tree setting, establishes a one-to-one correspondence between the graph class and a set of clique–star-labelled trees¹ that satisfy some simple conditions on the distribution of star and clique labels on its nodes.

Our first result, although not the most important, witnesses the relevance of the graph-labelled tree approach to study the split decomposition. The bijection between the clique–star trees and distance hereditary graphs together with the notion of accessibility naturally yields an intersection model that characterizes distance hereditary graphs (Theorem 3.2). Though it was established that distance hereditary graphs form an intersection graph family [30], no intersection model had been explicitly given (see [38], or [39] page 309).

Among the main contributions of the paper, we develop vertex *incremental characterizations* for distance hereditary graphs, cographs and 3-leaf powers (see Section 3). That is, for each of these three graph classes, say \mathcal{F} , we provide a necessary and sufficient condition under which adding a vertex x adjacent to a certain neighbourhood S in a given graph $G \in \mathcal{F}$, yields a graph $G' = G + (x, S)$ which also belongs to \mathcal{F} . In comparison, a vertex elimination ordering characterization (see e.g. [3]) only provides sufficient conditions under which a vertex can be added. The incremental characterization of distance hereditary graphs (Theorem 3.4) is new. Restricted to cographs (Theorem 3.7), it is equivalent the known incremental characterization of cographs [12] which is based on modular decomposition. We then derive a new incremental characterization of 3-leaf powers (Theorem 3.9).

We also provide *edge-modification characterizations* (see Section 5): necessary and sufficient conditions under which for a given graph G belonging to a class of graphs \mathcal{F} , the addition (or deletion) of an edge e of G results in a graph of \mathcal{F} . Let us point out that an edge-modification characterization (or algorithm) cannot be used to derive a vertex incremental characterization (or algorithm), since removing/adding an edge incident to a vertex may lead out of the class while adding/removing all edges adjacent to this vertex may not. Indeed we exhibit an example (Remark 5.3) of distance hereditary graph (and cograph) containing a vertex x such that removing any edge incident to x results in a non-distance hereditary graph. An edge-modification characterization was known for distance hereditary graphs [41] and for cographs [37] but not for 3-leaf powers. Our characterization for distance hereditary graphs consists in testing whether the path between the two leaves corresponding to the vertices incident to the modified edge has length at most 4 and belongs to a small given finite set. So, unlike the characterization proposed in [41], which is based on the global breadth-first search layering structure of distance hereditary graphs [24], ours is really local, have simpler and shorter proofs and is a natural generalization of the edge-modification characterization of cograph of [37]. Our edge-modification characterizations of cographs and 3-leaf powers are derived from our DH graph one.

These characterizations (incremental and edge modification) are then used to design *fully dynamic recognition algorithms*. For a class \mathcal{F} of graphs, the task is to maintain a representation of the input graph under vertex and edge modifications as long as the graph belongs to \mathcal{F} . Let us point out that the series of modifications is not known in advance. In order to ensure locality of the computation, most of the known dynamic graph algorithms are based on decomposition techniques. For example, the SPQR tree data structure has been introduced in order to dynamically maintain the 3-connected components of a graph which allows on-line planarity testing [18]. Existing literature on this problem includes representation of chordal graphs [28], proper interval graphs [25], cographs [37], directed cographs [15], permutation graphs [14]. The data structures used for the last four graph families are strongly related to the modular decomposition tree [20].

For each of the three aforementioned classes of graphs, we provide an optimal fully dynamic algorithm that maintains the split tree representation. The time complexity is linear in the number of edges involved in each modifications (i.e. number of neighbours in case of vertex modifications). Our main algorithmic result is the vertex-insertion algorithm for

¹ Clique–star (labelled) trees are graph-labelled trees whose graph-labels are cliques (complete graphs) or stars (complete bipartite graphs $K_{1,t}$).

distance hereditary graphs (Section 4.1). Briefly, it amounts to: first, a single search of the subtree of the split tree spanned by the neighbours of the new vertex x to locate where the new leaf x should be inserted (if possible); and then, a simple local transformation of the graph-labelled tree. As distance hereditary graphs form an hereditary class, the vertex-deletion routine consists of an easy local transformation. When adapted to cographs, our vertex-only dynamic algorithm (Section 4.3) is equivalent to the one of [12]. No such algorithm was known for 3-leaf powers (Section 4.4). The edge-only dynamic algorithms are direct consequences of the edge-modification characterizations.

Finally, let us observe that as distance hereditary graphs, cographs and 3-leaf power graphs are hereditary graph families, our fully dynamic recognition algorithms can be used in the context of static graphs as well. This yields, for each of the three graph classes, linear time recognition algorithms (Corollary 4.2) to be compared with previous ones ([24,17,6,33] for distance hereditary graphs). Moreover, our bijective representations allow to derive directly easy isomorphism tests for elements of these classes (Corollary 4.3).

The algorithmic results presented in this paper are summarized in the table below.

Distance hereditary graphs	Vertex-only	Sections 4.1 and 4.2	New
	Edge-only	Section 5.1	Independent of and shorter than [41]
Refinement for cographs	Vertex-only	Section 4.3	Equivalent to [12]
	Edge-only	Section 5.3	Equivalent to [37]
Refinement for 3-leaf powers	Vertex-only	Section 4.4	New
	Edge-only	Section 5.4	New

2. Graph-labelled trees, split and modular decompositions

The purpose of this section is to introduce the notion of *graph-labelled tree* and to show that the theory of split decomposition [8] as well as the theory of modular decomposition [20] can be stated within this framework. Before that, let us first introduce the basic terminology.

In the paper, every graph $G = (V(G), E(G))$, or $G = (V, E)$ when clear from context, is simple and loopless. For a subset $S \subseteq V(G)$, $G[S]$ is the subgraph of G induced by S . If T is a tree and S a subset of leaves of T , then $T(S)$ is the smallest subtree of T spanning the leaves of S . If x is a vertex of G then $G - x = G[V(G) - \{x\}]$. Similarly if $x \notin V(G)$, $G + (x, S)$ is the graph G augmented by the new vertex x adjacent to $S \subseteq V(G)$. Similarly if x and y are two vertices of G such that $xy \notin E(G)$ (resp. $xy \in E(G)$), then define $G + e = G'(V(G), E(G) \cup \{e\})$ (resp. $G - e = G'(V(G), E(G) \setminus \{e\})$) with $e = xy$. We denote $N(x)$ the neighbourhood of a vertex x . The neighbourhood of a set $S \subseteq V(G)$ is $N(S) = \{x \notin S \mid \exists y \in S, xy \in E(G)\}$. The *clique* is the complete graph and the *star* is the complete bipartite graph $K_{1,n}$. The universal vertex of the star is called its *centre* and the degree one vertices its *degree-1 vertices*. Edges of a tree will be called *tree-edges*, and internal vertices of a tree T will be called *nodes*.

2.1. Graph-labelled trees

Definition 2.1. A *graph-labelled tree* (T, \mathcal{F}) is a tree T in which every node v of degree k is labelled by a graph $G_v \in \mathcal{F}$ on k vertices, called *marker vertices*, such that there is a bijection ρ_v from the tree-edges of T incident to v to the marker vertices of G_v . If $\rho_v(e) = q$ then q is called an *extremity* of e .

Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree and l be a leaf of T . A node or a leaf u different from l is *l-accessible* if for every tree-edges $e = uv$ and $e' = vw'$ on the l, u -path in T , we have $\rho_v(e)\rho_v(e') \in E(G_v)$. By convention, the unique neighbour of the leaf l in T is also *l-accessible*. See Fig. 1 for an example.

Definition 2.2. The *accessibility graph* of a graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) is the graph $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$ whose vertex set is the leaf set of T , and in which there is an edge between x and y if and only if y is x -accessible. In this setting, we say that (T, \mathcal{F}) is a *graph-labelled tree of* $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$.

An example of a graph-labelled tree and its accessibility graph is given on Fig. 1. We often abuse the language and call a leaf of T a vertex of the accessibility graph and vice versa if convenient.

Lemma 2.3. Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree. The accessibility graph $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$ is connected if and only if for every node v of T the graph $G_v \in \mathcal{F}$ is connected.

Proof. Assume there is a node v of T such that G_v is not connected and let C_v be a connected component of G_v . Let L be the set of leaves belonging to a subtree attached to a marker vertex of C_v . Then by Definition 2.2, for any leaf $l' \notin L$, none of the leaves of L is l' -accessible. Thereby in $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$, the set of vertices in L is disconnected from the rest of the graph.

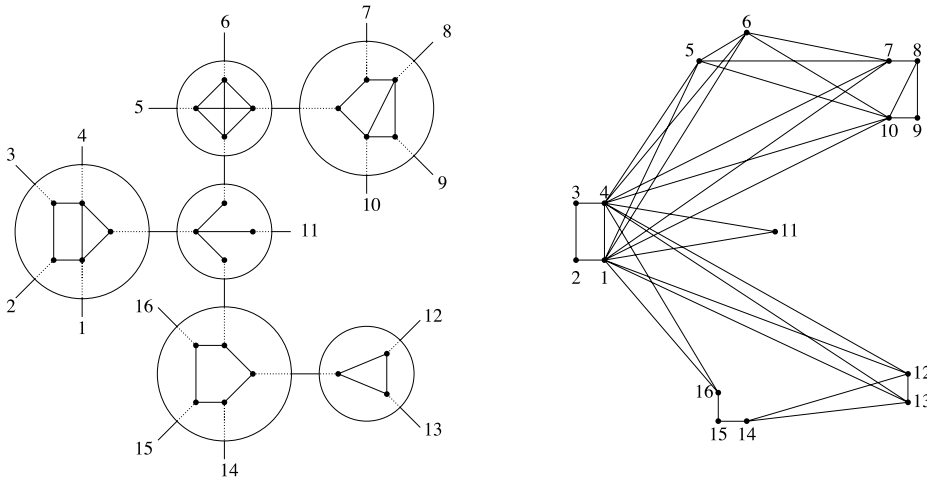


Fig. 1. A graph-labelled tree and its accessibility graph. The leaf 12 is 4-accessible (and vice versa), hence vertices 4 and 12 are adjacent in the accessibility graph. Every node is 4-accessible.

Assume for every node v , the graph-label G_v is connected. We prove that $G = Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$ is connected by induction of the number k of nodes of T . If $k = 1$, this is obviously true since $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$ and G_v are isomorphic, where v is the only node of T . Assume that T contains $k > 1$ nodes. Let u be a node such that all its neighbours but one, say v , are leaves (there always exists such a node). Let p be the marker vertex of G_v such that $\rho_v(uv) = p$. Let (T', \mathcal{F}') be the graph-labelled tree obtained from (T, \mathcal{F}) by replacing u and its leaves by a new leaf l_u . Notice that by construction, every leaf l such that p is l -accessible is l_u -accessible. Observe that G is obtained from $G' = Gr(T', \mathcal{F}')$ as follows: $V(G) = V(G') \setminus \{l_u\} \cup L_u$, where L_u is the set of leaves attached to u in T ; every vertex $x \in L_u$ such that p was x -accessible in (T, \mathcal{F}) is adjacent to every neighbour of l_u in G' ; the adjacencies between the new vertices are those defined by G_u . As by assumption both G' (induction hypothesis) and G_u are connected, G is also connected. \square

From now on, unless explicitly stated, we consider connected graphs (i.e. the graphs belonging to \mathcal{F} in a graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) are also connected, by Lemma 2.3). The next lemma is central to proofs of further theorems.

Lemma 2.4. *Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree of a connected graph G and let v be a node of T . Then every maximal tree of $T - v$ contains a leaf l such that v is l -accessible.*

Proof. Let u be a neighbour of node v in T and T_u be the maximal tree of $T - v$ containing u . The property trivially holds if u is a leaf. So assume T_u contains $k \geq 1$ (non-leaf) nodes. If u is the only node of T_u , as G_u is connected, there exists a leaf l neighbouring u such that the marker vertex $\rho_u(lu)$ is adjacent in G_u to the marker vertex $\rho_u(uv)$. Thereby v is l -accessible. Assume by induction that the property is satisfied for every tree with $k' < k$ nodes. As G_u is connected, u has a neighbour $w \neq v$ such that $\rho_u(uv)$ and $\rho_u(uw)$ are adjacent in G_u . Let T_w be the maximal tree of $T_u - u$ containing w . By induction hypothesis, T_w contains a leaf l to which u is l -accessible. By the choice of w , v is also l -accessible. \square

Corollary 2.5. *Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree of a connected graph G . Let l be a leaf of T , and $e = uv, e' = uv'$ be distinct tree-edges such that u is a l -accessible and e belongs to the u, l path in T . Then $\rho_u(e)\rho_u(e') \in E(G_u)$ if and only if there exists a l -accessible leaf l' in the maximal tree $T_{v'}$ of $T - e'$ containing v' .*

Proof. If there exists a l -accessible leaf l' in the maximal tree of $T - e'$ containing v' , then by Definition 2.2, we have $\rho_u(e)\rho_u(e') \in E(G_u)$. So assume $\rho_u(e)\rho_u(e') \in E(G_u)$. By Lemma 2.4, $T_{v'}$ contains a leaf l' such that u is l' -accessible. As u is also l -accessible, then l' is l -accessible. \square

The above Corollary 2.5 can be rephrased as follows: if u and v are two adjacent l -accessible nodes, then there exists a l -accessible leaf l' such that the l, l' -path contains the tree-edge uv .

Corollary 2.6. *Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree of a connected graph G . Then every graph $G_v \in \mathcal{F}$ is isomorphic to an induced subgraph of G .*

Proof. Let u_1, \dots, u_k be the neighbours of node v in T and T_1, \dots, T_k be the corresponding maximal trees of $T - v$. By Lemma 2.4, for all $i, 1 \leq i \leq k$, the subtree T_i of T contains a leaf l_i such that v is l_i -accessible. It follows that the induced subgraph $G[\{l_1 \dots l_k\}]$ is isomorphic to G_v . \square

Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree of a graph G . Let us observe that a graph-labelled tree of any induced subgraph $H = G[X]$ can be retrieved from (T, \mathcal{F}) . Let $T(X)$ be the smallest subtree of T with set of leaves X . For any $G_v \in \mathcal{F}$ labelling

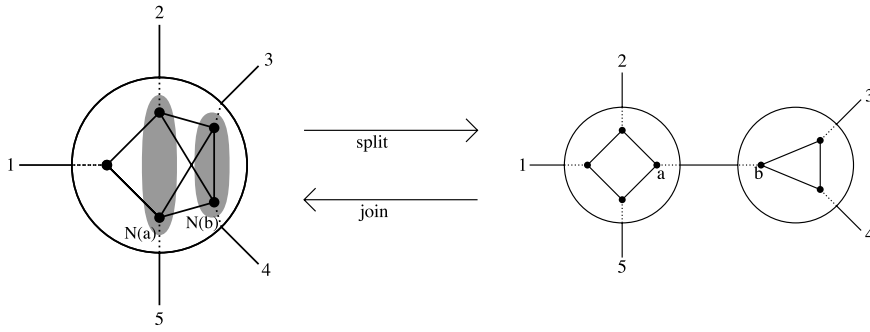


Fig. 2. The node-split and the node-join operations on a graph-labelled tree.

a node v of T' , let G'_v be the subgraph induced by the marker vertices associated with tree-edges belonging to T' . Then set $\mathcal{F}_X = \{G'_v \mid v \in T(X)\}$ and for every $v \in T(X)$, ρ'_v is the bijection between the tree-edges of $T(X)$ incident to v and the vertices of G'_v such that $\rho'_v(e) = p$ if and only if $\rho_v(e) = p$. By construction we have $Gr(T(X), \mathcal{F}_X) = H$. Notice that the degree two nodes of $T(X)$ can be removed by contracting one of their two incident tree-edges.

2.2. Split decomposition

Definition 2.7 ([8]). A *split* of a graph G is a bipartition (V_1, V_2) of $V(G)$ such that (1) $|V_1| \geq 2$ and $|V_2| \geq 2$; and (2) every vertex of $N(V_1)$ is adjacent to every vertex of $N(V_2)$.

A graph is *degenerate* (with respect to the split decomposition) if every partition of its set of vertices into two non-singleton parts is a split. The only degenerate graphs are known to be the cliques and the stars. A graph without any split is called *prime* (with respect to the split decomposition).

The split decomposition of a graph G , as originally studied in [8], consists of: finding a split (V_1, V_2) , decomposing G into $G_1 = G[V_1 \cup \{x_1\}]$, with $x_1 \in N(V_1)$ and $G_2 = G[V_2 \cup \{x_2\}]$ with $x_2 \in N(V_2)$, x_1 and x_2 being called *split marker vertices*; and then recursively decomposing G_1 and G_2 . When the process stops, the resulting graphs are called *components* of the split decomposition. Adding, at each decomposition step, an edge between the pair of split marker vertices yields *split decomposition graph*. Though the idea of a tree decomposition appears in [8], Cunningham's main result states the uniqueness of the set of components of a split decomposition but does not focus on the structure linking them together. As we will see, the graph-labelled tree framework yields a natural formulation of Cunningham's result in terms of tree. To clarify the link between the two representations, let us point out that the split marker vertices in the above terminology will correspond in our setting in terms of graph-labelled trees to the marker vertices which are extremities of internal tree-edges.

Lemma 2.8. Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a graph-labelled tree with no binary node and T_1, T_2 be the maximal trees of $T - e$ where e is a tree-edge non-incident to a leaf. Then the bipartition (L_1, L_2) of the leaves of T , with L_i being the leaf set of T_i for $i \in \{1, 2\}$, and assuming $|L_i| > 1$, defines a split in the graph $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$.

Proof. Let $e = t_1 t_2$ and let l_1 and l_2 be leaves of L_1 and L_2 respectively. By definition of $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$, l_1 and l_2 are adjacent if and only if t_2 is l_1 -accessible and t_1 is l_2 -accessible. It follows that (L_1, L_2) defines a split of $Gr(T, \mathcal{F})$. \square

We can naturally define the *node-split* operation and its converse, the *node-join*, on a graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) as follows (see Fig. 2):

- **Node-split in (T, \mathcal{F}) :** Let v be a node of T whose graph G_v has a split (A, B) . Let G_A and G_B be the subgraphs resulting from the split (A, B) of G_v and a, b be the respective split marker vertices. Splitting the node v consists of substituting v by two adjacent nodes v_A and v_B , respectively labelled by G_A and G_B , such that for every $p \in V(G_A)$ different from a , $\rho_{v_A}^{-1}(p) = \rho_v^{-1}(p)$ and $\rho_{v_A}^{-1}(a) = v_A v_B$ (similarly for every $q \in V(G_B)$ different from b , $\rho_{v_B}^{-1}(q) = \rho_v^{-1}(q)$ and $\rho_{v_B}^{-1}(b) = v_A v_B$).
- **Node-join in (T, \mathcal{F}) :** Let uv be a tree-edge of T . Then joining the nodes u and v consists of contracting the tree-edge uv and substituting u and v by a single node w labelled by the graph G_w defined as follows:

$$V(G_w) = (V(G_u) - \{\rho_u(uv)\}) \cup (V(G_v) - \{\rho_v(uv)\})$$

$$E(G_w) = \left((E(G_u) \cup E(G_v)) \cap (V(G_w) \times V(G_w)) \right) \cup \left(N_{G_v}(\rho_v(uv)) \times N_{G_u}(\rho_u(uv)) \right).$$

For every marker vertex $p \in V(G_w)$, $\rho_w^{-1}(p) = \rho_v^{-1}(p)$ if $p \in V(G_v)$ and $\rho_w^{-1}(p) = \rho_u^{-1}(p)$ if $p \in V(G_u)$.

Observe that if (T, \mathcal{F}) is obtained from (T', \mathcal{F}') by a node-join or a node-split operation, then it follows from the definitions that $Gr(T, \mathcal{F}) = Gr(T', \mathcal{F}')$. This shows that a given graph is not represented by a unique graph-labelled tree.

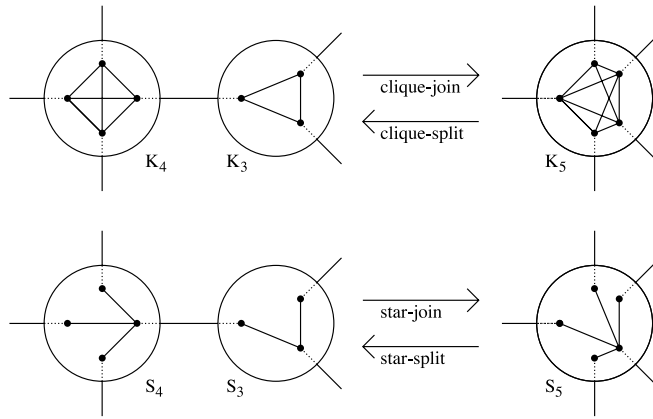


Fig. 3. Node-split and node-join operations on cliques and stars.

Among the node-join operations, let us distinguish: the *clique-join*, operating on two neighbouring nodes labelled by cliques, and the *star-join*, operating on star-labelled neighbouring nodes u, v such that the tree-edge uv links the centre of one star to a degree-1 vertex of the other. The converse operations are called respectively *clique-split* and *star-split*. See Fig. 3. Also, if a node v of a graph-labelled tree has degree 2 in a graph-labelled tree, then G_v consists of an edge between two marker vertices and thereby v can be contracted without loss of information. A graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) is *reduced* if every node has degree > 2 and neither a clique-join nor a star-join can be applied. So hereafter we only consider graphs with at least 3 vertices.

We are now able to reformulate the main split decomposition theorem first established in [8]. For completeness of the paper, a direct proof of Theorem 2.9 in terms of graph-labelled trees is provided in the Appendix.

Theorem 2.9 (Cunningham's Theorem Reformulated). *For every connected graph G , there exists a unique reduced graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) such that $G = \text{Gr}(T, \mathcal{F})$ and every graph of \mathcal{F} is prime or degenerate.*

For a connected graph G , the *split tree* $ST(G)$ of G is the unique reduced graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) in the above Theorem 2.9. As an example, see Fig. 1 where the graph-labelled tree is effectively reduced.

Corollary 2.10. *Let $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be the split tree of a connected graph $G = (V, E)$. Then every split of the graph G is the bipartition of the set of leaves of T induced by removing a tree-edge of (T', \mathcal{F}') , a graph-labelled tree which is obtained from (T, \mathcal{F}) by at most one node-split operation on a degenerate node.*

The next lemma will be crucial for algorithm complexity means.

Lemma 2.11. *Let $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be the split tree of a connected graph G . For every vertex $x \in V(G)$, $T(N(x))$ has at most $2|N(x)|$ nodes.*

Proof. Let u and v be two adjacent nodes in $T(N(x))$ such that v has degree 2 in $T(N(x))$ and u is on the x, v -path. Let a be the marker vertex of G_v such that $\rho_v^{-1}(a) = uv$. Then a has degree 1 in G_v otherwise, by Corollary 2.5, node v would have degree > 2 . Hence G_v is not prime (a graph with a pendant vertex has a split), hence it is a star with centre b such that ab is an edge of G_v . Let w be the node neighbour of v such that $\rho_v^{-1}(b) = vw$. If w is not a leaf, then w has degree > 2 in $T(N(x))$, otherwise it would be a star $\rho_w(vw)$ being a degree one marker vertex and the tree would not be reduced. So $T(N(x))$ does not contains two adjacent degree two nodes. Hence the result. \square

2.3. Modular decomposition

The modular decomposition of a graph is a well understood decomposition process (see [31] for a complete survey). However the purpose of this section is to show that the graph-labelled trees are also a natural tool to represent the modular decomposition. Thereby it provides a framework common to the split and the modular decomposition.

Definition 2.12. A *module* of a graph G is a set M of vertices such that every vertex x outside M is either adjacent to all the vertices of M ($M \subseteq N(x)$) or to none of them ($M \cap N(x) = \emptyset$).

Singleton vertex sets and the whole vertex set are the *trivial* modules of $G = (V, E)$. A graph is *degenerate* with respect to the modular decomposition, or *M-degenerate* (to avoid confusion with the split decomposition), if every subset of its vertices is a module. The *M-degenerate* graphs are cliques or stables (the graph with an empty edge set — or independent set). Intuitively, cliques and *stables* play the same role with respect to the modular decomposition than cliques and stars

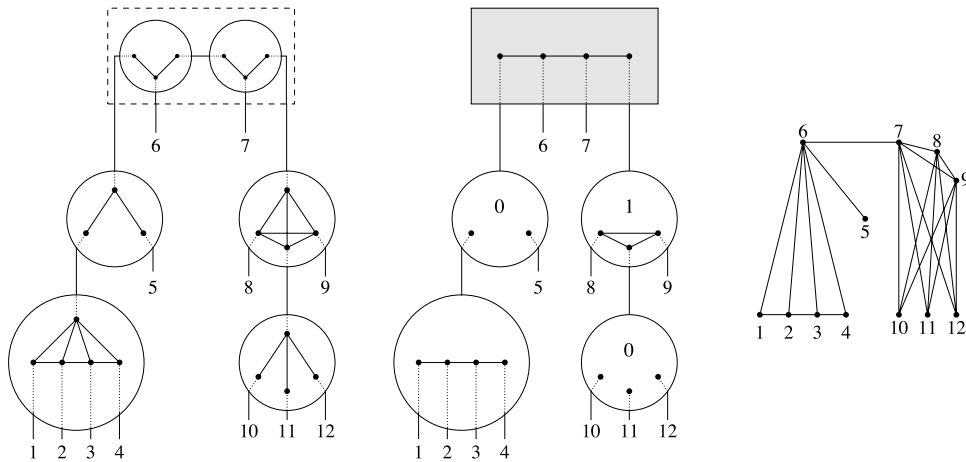


Fig. 4. A graph on the right, its modular decomposition tree in the middle, and its split tree on the left. The node in a larger circle is prime in each decomposition. The grey squared node, call it u , corresponds to the root of the modular decomposition tree. Node u is M -prime, but not prime for the split decomposition. Observe that a node-split on u yields stars whose centres are not towards each other. The modular graph-labelled tree is obtained by the converse node-join operation, i.e. replacing the dashed squared subtree of the split tree by u .

with respect to the split decomposition. A graph is *prime* with respect to the modular decomposition, or *M -prime*, whenever all its modules are trivial.

If $\mathcal{P} = \{M_1, \dots, M_k\}$ is a partition of the vertex set of a graph G , the *quotient graph* G/\mathcal{P} is defined as the unique (up to isomorphism) subgraph induced by a subset $P \subset V$ such that for all i , $1 \leq i \leq k$, $|P \cap M_i| = 1$. Each vertex $x_i \in P \cap M_i$ is called the *representative* of M_i , for i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.

As the split decomposition, the modular decomposition of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is commonly understood as a recursive process: (1) find a partition of the vertex set V into modules say $\mathcal{P} = \{M_1, \dots, M_k\}$; and (2) recursively decompose the subgraphs $G[M_i]$ for all i , $1 \leq i \leq k$. This naturally yields a rooted tree decomposition. In 1967, Gallai [20] showed that every graph G has a canonical *modular decomposition tree*, denoted $MD(G)$, which is obtained by choosing at the each step of the recursive process the coarsest possible partition. The leaf set of $MD(G)$ is the vertex set of G and each node is labelled by the quotient graph associated with the corresponding partition. These graph-labels are either clique, stable or graphs that are M -prime graphs. In the usual terminology, clique-labelled nodes are called *series* (or 1-nodes) and stable labelled nodes are called *parallel* nodes (or 0-nodes). The canonicity of the modular decomposition tree results from the constraint that no series node (resp. parallel node) is a child of a series node (resp. parallel node). Two vertices x and y are adjacent in G if and only if their representative vertices are adjacent in the quotient graph G/\mathcal{P} . Fig. 4 shows an example of a graph and its modular decomposition tree.

Let us now describe how the modular decomposition tree $MD(G)$ of a connected graph G naturally transforms into a reduced graph-labelled tree (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) whose accessibility graph is G (see Fig. 4):

1. Unless the root of $MD(G)$ has degree two, T_M is isomorphic to the tree underlying $MD(G)$. If $MD(G)$ has a binary root, then T_M is isomorphic to the tree resulting from the contraction in $MD(G)$ of one of the tree-edges incident to the root.
2. For a node u , distinct from the root of $MD(G)$, with associated quotient graph G/\mathcal{P}_u labelling u in $MD(G)$, the label G_u in (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) is obtained by adding a universal marker vertex to G/\mathcal{P}_u which is mapped to the tree-edge uv where v is the father of u in $MD(G)$.

Note that if u is a parallel node in $MD(G)$, then it becomes a star node in (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) . It is straightforward to see from the definitions that G is the accessibility graph of (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) . Let us also point out that the root node of $MD(G)$ is binary if G has a universal vertex x and $G - x$ is M -prime or if G is the disjoint union of two connected components. Finally, (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) is reduced since two series nodes or two parallel nodes are not adjacent in the modular decomposition tree. We will call *modular graph-labelled tree* this graph-labelled tree (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) .

We can now reformulate Gallai's theorem [20] in term of graph-labelled trees.

Theorem 2.13 (Gallai's Theorem Reformulated). *For every connected graph G , there exists a unique reduced graph-labelled tree (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) with $G = \text{Gr}(T_M, \mathcal{F}_M)$ such that T_M contains a node or a tree-edge r , called the root, and for every node $v \neq r$, we have (1) the graph G_v contains a universal vertex x such that $G_v - x$ is M -prime or M -degenerate, and (2) the tree-edge associated with x in T_M is on the path between v and r .*

Lemma 2.14. *Let G be a connected graph. In $MD(G)$, the label of a non-root node u is M -prime if and only if its corresponding label in the modular graph-labelled tree (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) is prime for the split decomposition.*

Proof. Follows from the definitions of split and module, and from the construction above. \square

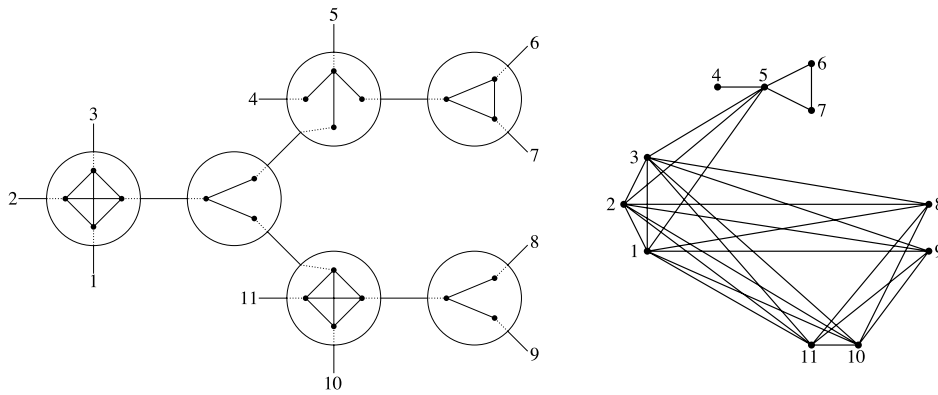


Fig. 5. A clique-star reduced tree and its accessibility DH graph.

Using Lemma 2.14 we can describe how the split tree and the modular graph-labelled tree can be retrieved from each other:

- From the modular graph-labelled tree (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) to the split tree $ST(G)$: If the root of T_M is not a node, then $ST(G) = (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M)$. If the root of T_M is a node u , then substitute the split tree of G_u to node u (i.e. node-split (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) according to the splits of G_u and lastly make clique-joins or star-joins to get a reduced graph-labelled tree).
- From the split tree $ST(G)$ to the modular graph-labelled tree (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) : If $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ contains at least two node, then pick a node u such that every incident tree-edge but one, say e , is adjacent to a leaf, test if $\rho_u(e)$ is a universal vertex of G_u . If so, then delete u from T (i.e. replace it with a leaf) and repeat until no deletion is possible. The set of remaining nodes induces a subtree T' of T . Then (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) results from the series of node-joins applied on each internal tree-edge of T' (i.e. substituting a single node labelled by the accessibility graph of T' to T').

It is worth to notice that a subtree of the split tree, namely T' , plays the role of the root of the modular decomposition tree, though, unlike the modular decomposition tree, the split tree is fundamentally unrooted. Fig. 4 illustrates these two decompositions on an example.

3. Split tree characterizations of restricted graph classes

This section presents bijective and incremental characterizations of distance hereditary graphs, cographs and 3-leaf power graphs, in terms of their split tree. The characterization of distance hereditary graphs yields an intersection model which answers an open question (see [39], page 309). Incremental characterizations of each of these three graph classes are also derived. Such a result was already known for cographs [12] (based on the modular decomposition tree), but not for distance hereditary graphs neither for 3-leaf powers. These characterizations will be the basis of the vertex-only fully dynamic recognition algorithms developed in Section 4.

3.1. Distance hereditary graphs

Definition 3.1. A graph G is *distance hereditary* (DH for short) if for every connected subgraph H of G , the distance between any two vertices x and y in H is the same than the distance between x and y in G .

A graph is *totally decomposable* by the split decomposition if every induced subgraph with at least 4 vertices contains a split. By [24], it is known that a graph is DH if and only if it is totally decomposable by the split decomposition, i.e. the nodes of its split tree are labelled by cliques and stars. Hence DH graphs are exactly accessibility graphs of clique-star-labelled trees, *clique-star trees* for short. Among the possible clique-star trees, the split tree is the unique reduced one. In other words, there is a bijection between DH graphs and reduced clique-star trees. Fig. 5 gives an example. We mention that ternary clique-star trees were used in [19] to draw DH graphs.

Let us notice that the classical construction of DH graphs [4] (there exists a linear ordering for vertex insertion such that each new vertex y is (a) true twin, (b) false twin, or (c) pendant) is easy to read on the clique-star tree, see Fig. 6. We also mention that DH graphs can be characterized by forbidden induced subgraphs [4] (see Section 5 for details).

In what follows, we will call simply *clique node*, resp. *star node*, a clique-labelled node, resp. star-labelled node.

An intersection model. Given a family S of sets, one can define the intersection graph $I(S)$ as the graph whose vertices are the elements of S and there is an edge between two elements if and only if they intersect. Many restricted graph families are defined or characterized as the intersection graphs (e.g. chordal graphs, interval graphs... see [30]). Graph families supporting an intersection model can be characterized without even specifying the model [30]. This result applies to DH graphs, but no model has been yet given (see [39], page 309). Based on clique-star trees, an intersection model can be easily

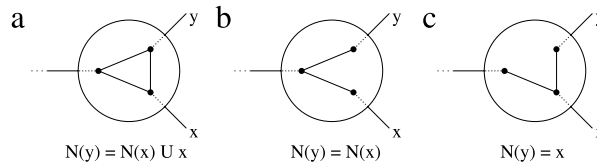


Fig. 6. Usual (static) incremental construction of DH graphs: (a) adding a true twin y of vertex x amounts to insert a degree 3 clique node on the tree-edge incident to leaf x and attach leaf y to that node; (b) adding a false twin y of vertex x amounts to insert a degree 3 star node on the tree-edge incident to leaf x such that x and y are mapped to the extremities of the star; and (c) adding a pendant vertex y to vertex x amounts to insert a degree 3 star node whose centre is mapped to x and to which y is attached.

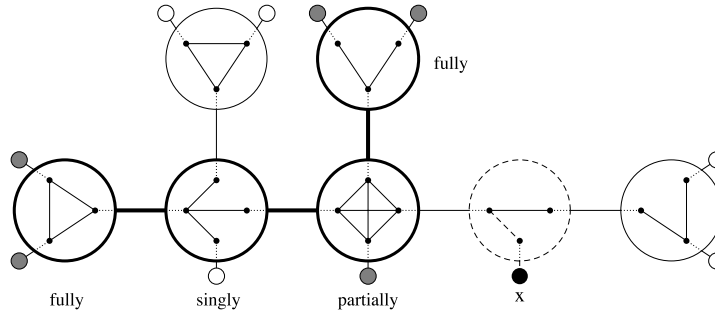


Fig. 7. Consider that the dashed node is omitted, that is precisely, the dashed node and its three incident tree-edges are deleted, and replaced with a tree-edge between its two adjacent nodes. Then the figure represents the split tree $ST(G)$ of a DH graph. Elements of $S \subseteq V(G)$ are represented as grey leaves. The subtree $T(S)$ is represented with bold nodes and tree-edges. Check that the properties of Theorem 3.4 are satisfied: the fully accessible star node is oriented towards the unique partially accessible node, whereas the singly accessible star node is not. So, if a vertex x is added to G with neighbourhood S , then the graph $G + x$ is DH. Its split tree $ST(G + x)$ is obtained by inserting the dashed node.

derived. Note that it can be equivalently stated by considering only reduced clique–star trees, or even only ternary ones. We call *accessibility set* of a leaf l in a graph-labelled tree the set of pairs $\{l, l'\}$ with l' a l -accessible leaf, or, equivalently, the set of paths in the tree joining l to a l -accessible leaf l' . Notice that an accessibility set could also be defined as the set of paths in the clique–star tree from a given leaf to its accessible leaves.

Theorem 3.2 (Intersection Model). *A graph is distance hereditary if and only if it is the intersection graph of a family of accessibility sets of leaves in a set of clique–star trees.*

Proof. Follows directly from the representation of DH graphs as accessibility graphs of clique–star trees. \square

Observe that finding an intersection model always amounts to characterize adjacencies in terms of an independent structure (in our case the clique–star trees) in which some objects correspond to vertices and any arbitrary set of those objects induces a graph belonging to the required graph class. In that sense, our intersection model can be compared with other well-known intersection models. For example, consider the subtrees of a tree model of chordal graphs [21]. This model could be derived from the characterization of chordal graphs as the set of graphs having a tree decomposition [36] in which every node induces a clique. Likewise, our DH intersection model derives from the fact that DH graphs are the graphs whose split tree is a clique–star tree. Both models rely on some tree-like structure. In the model of chordal graphs, the subtrees represent the interlacing structure of the sets \mathcal{C}_x of clique bags, where, for each vertex x , \mathcal{C}_x is the set of bags containing x . In the DH model the accessibility sets represent the interlacing structure of the sets of alternating paths with a common leaf in the tree, depending on the way cliques and stars are spread over the nodes of the tree.

Incremental characterization. Let G be a connected DH graph and let $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be its split tree. Given a subset S of $V(G)$ and $x \notin V(G)$, we want to know whether the graph $G + (x, S)$ is DH or not. We first discard the obvious case where $|S| = 1$ which consists in adding a pendant vertex x attached to $y \in V(G)$. In that case, it is well known that $G + (x, S)$ is a DH graph if and only if G is.

Definition 3.3. For $S \subseteq V(G)$, let $T(S)$ be the smallest subtree of T with set of leaves S . Let u be a node of $T(S)$.

1. u is *fully accessible* (w.r.t. S) if every maximal tree of $T - u$ contains a leaf $l \in S$;
2. u is *singly accessible* (w.r.t. S) if it is a star node and exactly two maximal trees of $T - u$ contain a leaf $l \in S$ among which the maximal tree containing the neighbour v of u such that $\rho_u(uv)$ is the centre of G_u ;
3. u is *partially accessible* (w.r.t. S) otherwise.

We say that a star node v is *oriented towards* a tree-edge (or a node) t of T if the tree-edge e such that $\rho_v(e)$ is the centre of G_v is on the path in T between t and v . Fig. 7 illustrates Definition 3.3 above and Theorem 3.4 below.

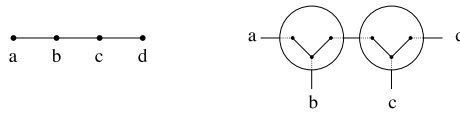


Fig. 8. The P_4 is the smallest graph that is not a cograph. Although its split tree contains only star nodes, there is no tree-root towards which the stars are oriented.

Theorem 3.4 (Vertex Incremental Characterization). *Let G be a connected distance hereditary graph and $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be its split tree. Then $G + (x, S)$, with $|S| > 1$ is distance hereditary if and only if:*

1. *at most one node of $T(S)$ is partially accessible;*
2. *every clique node of $T(S)$ is either fully or partially accessible;*
3. *if there exists a partially accessible node u in $T(S)$, then every star node $v \neq u$ of $T(S)$ is oriented towards u if and only if it is fully accessible; otherwise, there exists a tree-edge e of $T(S)$ towards which every star node of $T(S)$ is oriented if and only if it is fully accessible.*

Proof. \Rightarrow Since $G + (x, S)$ is a DH graph, it is the accessibility graph of a ternary clique–star tree $(\tilde{T}, \tilde{\mathcal{F}})$. Let u be the node of \tilde{T} to which x is attached and let v, w be its neighbours. Now consider the clique–star tree (T', \mathcal{F}') obtained by applying every possible clique-join or a star-join to tree-edges different from uv and uw . Notice that $ST(G)$ is obtained by (1) removing the leaf x and the marker vertex $\rho_u(xu)$, (2) performing a node-join to get rid of the degree two node u thereby creating a tree-edge vw , and (3) if needed apply a node-join on the tree-edge vw .

Assume the node-join on vw is not required to obtain $ST(G)$. Then every node of $T(S)$ is a node of T' . By construction, every leaf of S is x -accessible in (T', \mathcal{F}') . Then the three conditions are a consequence of Corollary 2.5. Precisely, observe that if u is a clique node, then $T(S)$ does not contain any partially accessible node, every star node is oriented towards the tree-edge vw if and only if it is fully accessible. If u is a star node, then $\rho_u(xu)$ is a degree-1 marker vertex. In that case, if $\rho_u(uv)$ is the centre G_u and v is a star node, then v is the only partially accessible node in $T(S)$ (the case $\rho_u(uw)$ is the centre G_u and w is a star node is symmetric).

Assume $ST(G)$ is obtained after a node-join on vw which results on a new node u' . Then every node of $T(S)$ except u' corresponds to a node of T' . Again by Corollary 2.5 the nodes of $T(S)$ different than u' are all singly or fully accessible, and a star node is oriented towards u' if and only if it is fully accessible. If x is adjacent to a star node u in T' , or if x is adjacent to a clique node u in T' and u' is a star, then it is straightforward to check that u' is partially accessible and the conditions are satisfied. If x is adjacent to a clique node u in T' and u' is a clique, then u' is fully accessible and a star node is oriented towards any tree-edge incident to u' if and only if it is fully accessible, so the conditions are satisfied.

\Leftarrow Assume there is no partially accessible node. So there exists a tree-edge $e = uv$ of $T(S)$ towards which the star nodes of $T(S)$ are oriented if and only if they are fully accessible. Let (T', \mathcal{F}') be the clique–star tree obtained by: (1) subdividing $e = uv$ into $e_u = uw$ and $e_v = wv$; (2) attaching the leaf x to w (which is thereby a ternary node); (3) making w a clique node if the two maximal trees of $T - e$ contain a leaf of S , otherwise w is a star node whose centre is $\rho_w(wu)$.

Every node of $T(S)$ is either fully accessible or singly accessible, a node of degree 2 in $T(S)$ is singly accessible. Let w' be a node on the path in T between any $y \in S$ and e and let e_y, e_x be the two tree-edges of that path incident to w' . By Definition 3.3, we have that $\rho_{w'}(e_x)\rho_{w'}(e_y) \in E(G_{w'})$. It follows that every $y \in S$ is a neighbour of x in $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}')$. Let us now prove that every $z \notin S$ is not a neighbour of x in $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}')$, thereby proving that $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}') = G + (x, S)$. Let w' be the node of $T(S)$ which is the closest to the leaf z , and let $e_{w'}$ be the tree-edge incident to w' in the path between w' and z . By the choice of w' , w' cannot be fully accessible (otherwise it would not be the closest to z). So w' is singly accessible and thereby is a star node. Its centre is not oriented towards e by condition 3, and not oriented towards $e_{w'}$ by Definition 3.3. It follows that the neighbour w'' of w' on the path between w' and e is not z -accessible. Thus z is not a neighbour of x in $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}') = G + (x, S)$.

Assume there is a partially accessible node u . Then it suffices to node-split the node u into two new nodes v and w , such that v is adjacent to the neighbours of u not belonging to $T(S)$ and w to those belonging to $T(S)$. Now star nodes of $T(S)$ are oriented towards the new tree-edge $e = vw$, and the same construction and arguments than above apply.

Note that the complete and detailed case by case description of the constructions involved in this proof is made in the algorithmic Section 4. \square

3.2. A split decomposition characterization of cographs

A cograph is a P_4 -free graph [40] (see Fig. 8). This graph family is also known as the graphs totally decomposable by the modular decomposition: i.e. their modular decomposition tree does not contain any M -prime node. Moreover cographs are known to be DH graphs (Fig. 9).

Theorem 3.5 (Cograph Split Tree Characterization). *A connected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a cograph if and only if its split tree $ST(G)$ is its modular graph-labelled tree and is a clique–star tree.*

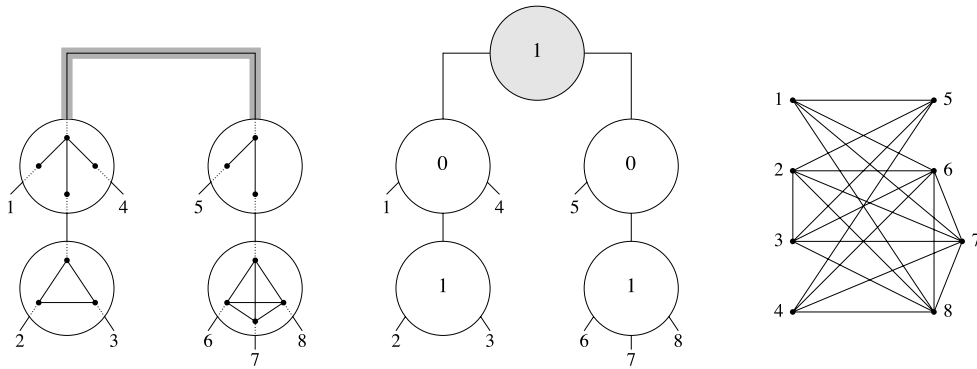


Fig. 9. A cograph on the right, its split tree on the left, and its cotree in the middle. The star nodes, corresponding to 0 labels in the cotree, are oriented towards the tree-root (grey tree-edge).

Proof. Assume that G is a cograph. By [Theorem 2.13](#), $MD(G)$ does not contain any M -prime node, the modular graph-labelled tree of G only contains clique and star nodes. Moreover by definition (T_M, \mathcal{F}_M) is reduced, it is also the split tree $ST(G)$.

Assume that G is not a cograph. Then the modular graph-labelled tree contains a node u such that G_u is neither a star nor a clique. If G_u is prime with respect to the split decomposition, we are done (since then $ST(G)$ is not a clique-star tree). So assume the graph G_u contains a split, then the node set of $ST(G)$ and of the modular graph-labelled tree are not the same. That ends the proof. \square

Thanks to the construction of the modular graph-labelled tree (see [Section 2.3](#)), we can rephrase [Theorem 3.5](#) as follows:

Corollary 3.6. A connected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a cograph if and only if $ST(G)$ is a clique-star tree and either contains a clique node or a tree-edge towards which all the star nodes are oriented. Such a clique node or tree-edge will be called hereafter the tree-root of $ST(G)$.

An example is given in [Fig. 9](#). For the sake of simplicity, let us denote the tree-root of the split tree $ST(G)$ of a cograph by the set R of nodes of T it contains: that is we set $R = \{u\}$ if the R is a clique node u and $R = \{u, v\}$ if the R is a tree-edge uv with u and v being star nodes.

Observe that, to get a cograph vertex incremental characterization, we could simply test, given a cograph G , first if the graph $G + x$ is a DH graph using [Theorem 3.4](#), and then if the node to which x is attached in $ST(G + x)$ does not create a contradiction with [Corollary 3.6](#). This second condition amounts to test a local condition on $ST(G + x)$, and would be enough for algorithmic purpose to refine the main DH algorithm of [Section 4](#) in terms of cographs as done in [Section 4.3](#). However, the following theorem establishes a more precise property directly on $ST(G)$.

Theorem 3.7 (Cograph Vertex Incremental Characterization). Let G be a connected cograph and $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be its split tree with tree-root R . Then $G + (x, S)$ is a cograph if and only if:

1. it is a distance hereditary graph (see conditions of [Theorem 3.4](#)) and
2. the subtree $T(S)$ of T either intersects R or contains a node adjacent to a node of R .

Proof. As every star node of the split tree of a cograph is oriented towards the root, $ST(G)$ and $T(S)$ have a natural orientation. This implies that condition 2 above can be rephrased as follows: if $T(S)$ does not intersect R , then $T(S)$ has a unique root node which is adjacent to a node of R .

\Rightarrow If $G + (x, S)$ is a cograph, then it is a DH graph. By the structure of their split tree (see [Theorem 3.5](#)), observe that every node of the tree-root is l -accessible for every leaf l . Let us consider the three different ways $ST(G)$ can be transformed into $ST(G + (x, S))$:

1. Vertex x has been attached to a node u of $ST(G)$. Then the tree-root R of $ST(G)$ is still the tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$. By [Corollary 3.6](#), R either contains a clique node or two star nodes v and w oriented towards the tree-edge vw (u may belong to R). Observe that in both cases, the nodes of R are x -accessible. By [Corollary 2.5](#), the set S intersects the leaf set of at least two maximal trees of $T - R$. Thereby R intersects the node set of $T(S)$.
2. A node u of $ST(G)$ is node-split into two adjacent nodes v and v' and the tree-edge vv' is subdivided to insert a new node w adjacent to x . If u does not belong to the tree-root R of $ST(G)$, then as in the first case the tree-root remains unchanged and R intersects the node set of $T(S)$. Assume $R = \{u\}$. By [Corollary 3.6](#), u is a clique node and the new node w is a star node, say oriented towards v . Observe that every maximal subtrees of $T - u$ is now attached to either v or v' which both have degree at least 3, and that by [Corollary 2.5](#) each of these subtrees attached to v contains a leaf in S . Thereby R belongs to the node set of $T(S)$. So assume that $R = \{u, v\}$, which implies that u is a star node ([Corollary 3.6](#)). Again by [Corollary 2.5](#), $T - u$ contains at least two maximal trees of $T - u$ with a leaf in S and at least one of these maximal trees is the one containing node v . It follows that R is a subset of the node set of $T(S)$.

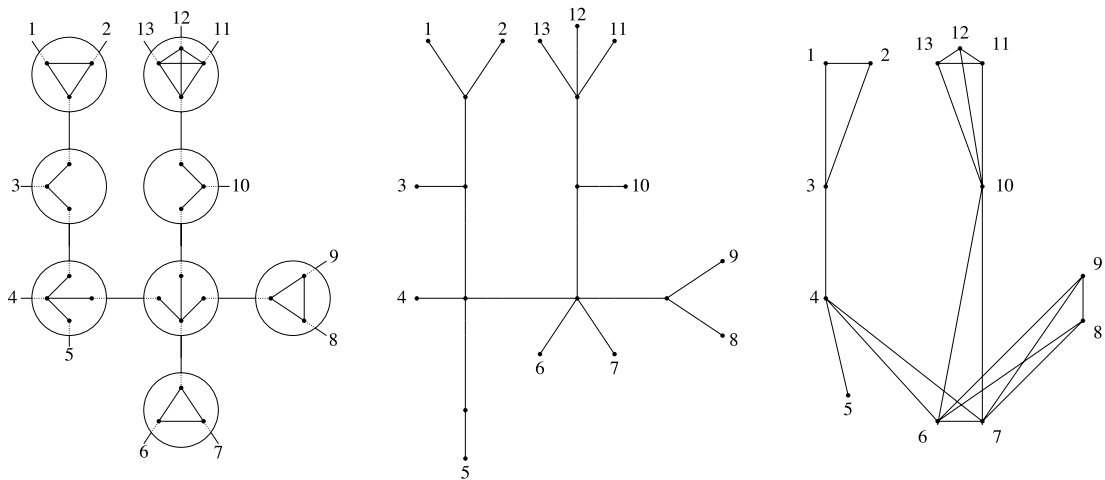


Fig. 10. A 3-leaf power graph on the right, its split tree on the left, and a root-tree of this graph in the middle.

3. A tree-edge of $ST(G)$ is subdivided to insert a new node w' adjacent to x . As clique nodes and star nodes alternate everywhere in $ST(G)$ but possibly at the tree-root $R = \{u, v\}$, the subdivided tree-edge is: either (a) the tree-edge uv joining the vertices of the tree-root; (b) or is incident to a leaf l ; or (c) incident to unique node u of the tree-root and u is a clique node. Let us consider these three different cases:
- Assume the subdivided tree-edge is uv with $R = \{u, v\}$. If the tree-root does not contain a leaf, then by Corollary 3.6 node w' is a clique node. It follows that the two maximal trees of $T - uv$ contain leaves of S , implying that R is a subset of the node set of $T(S)$. The tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ is now $\{w'\}$. If the tree-root $R = \{u, v\}$ contains a leaf, say v , then $T(S)$ either contains v or S contains two leaves in different maximal trees of $T - u$, which implies that the node set of $T(S)$ intersects R .
 - Assume the subdivided tree-edge is wl with l a leaf. Then the tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ is still R and the same arguments than in case 1 above apply.
 - Assume the subdivided tree-edge is uv with $R = \{u\}$ (u is a clique node). The node w' is a star node oriented towards the star node v . In that case at least two maximal trees of $T - v$ contain leaves in S and thereby v belongs to $T(S)$. So we are in the situation that $T(S)$ does not intersect R but has a neighbour, namely v , in the tree-root.
- \Leftarrow We need to show that the second condition implies that all the star nodes are oriented towards the root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ (condition 2 of Theorem 3.5). This is trivially the case if no new node has been created while transforming $ST(G)$ into $ST(G + (x, S))$. This is also true if a new clique node has been created. So assume that a new star node w has been inserted. Either the node w arises from the subdivision of a clique node u or from the subdivision of a tree-edge. Consider the former case. If $\{u\}$ is not the tree-root R of $ST(G)$, then the tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ is still R . As nodes of the tree-root are x -accessible, the result follows. Otherwise if $R = \{u\}$, then the new tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ is one of the two new clique nodes resulting from the subdivision of u . The result trivially holds. Consider now the latter case (w is inserted on a tree-edge). This tree-edge has to contain a leaf, say l adjacent to u . If $\{u, l\}$ is not the tree-root R , then as before, R is still the tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ and thereby w is oriented towards R since R is x -accessible. Otherwise if $R = \{u, l\}$, then the tree-root of $ST(G + (x, S))$ is either u (if u is a clique node) or $\{u, w\}$ (otherwise). It follows that in every cases all the star nodes of $ST(G + (x, S))$ are oriented towards R . \square

Observe that, unlike in the vertex incremental characterization of DH graph (see Theorem 3.4), Theorem 3.7 does not require the restriction $|S| > 1$. This case is indeed captured by condition 2 on $T(S)$.

3.3. 3-leaf powers

Definition 3.8. For an integer k , a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a k -leaf power if there is a tree T whose leaf set is V and such that $xy \in E$ if and only if the distance in T between leaves x and y is at most k , $d_T(x, y) \leq k$. The tree T is called *root-tree* of G .

The family of k -leaf power has been introduced in [34] in the context of phylogenetic tree reconstruction. Forbidden induced subgraph characterizations are known for $k \leq 4$. In [2], 3-leaf powers have been characterized as the graphs resulting from the substitution of vertices of a tree by cliques. This leads to the following alternative characterization (see Fig. 10).

Theorem 3.9 (3-Leaf Power Split Tree Characterization). A connected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a 3-leaf power if and only if

- its split tree $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ is a clique-star tree (G is distance hereditary);
- the set of star nodes forms a connected subtree of T ;
- if u is a star node, then the tree-edge e such that $\rho_u(e)$ is the centre of the star, is incident to a leaf or a clique node.

Proof. We assume that G is not a clique nor a star, otherwise the statement is trivially true.

⇒ As G is a 3-leaf power there exists a root-tree T' whose leaf set is V . Assume first that no pair of leaves are at distance two in T' . For a leaf x , we denote by $n(x)$ its unique neighbour. Clearly x and y are adjacent in G if and only if $n(x)$ and $n(y)$ are adjacent in T' . As G is connected, every node of T' is the neighbour of some leaf. Let us construct a graph-labelled tree (T', \mathcal{F}') such that $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}') = G$. The graph-label G_v of each node $v = n(x)$ is a star whose centre is $\rho_v(xv)$. It is clear that two leaves of (T', \mathcal{F}') are adjacent in $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}')$ if and only if there are attached to the centre of two neighbouring stars in T' : i.e. $Gr(T', \mathcal{F}') = G$. As no pair of leaves are at distance two, T' may contain some node of degree 2. Then performing a node-join on each such node u and its non-leaf neighbour v , yields a graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) which is reduced and which only contains stars: this is the split tree $ST(G)$.

Now assume that T' contains some pairs of leaves at distance 2. Such a pair of leaves defines a pair of true twins in G . Let \mathcal{P} be that partition of $V(G)$ (leaf set of T') into maximal sets of true twins (or maximal clique modules). The split tree of the quotient graph G/\mathcal{P} is obtained as described above. Now the clique modules are reintroduced by performing true twins insertions (see Fig. 6) in the split tree. Let x be a leaf of $ST(G/\mathcal{P})$ and M_x be the corresponding clique module. Then subdivide the tree-edge incident to x by a clique node of degree $1 + |M_x|$ (see Fig. 6 for a true twins augmentation). This yields a split tree of G having the expected properties.

⇐ Assume that $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ satisfies conditions 1, 2 and 3. Then the root-tree T' whose leaf set is V (i.e. equal to the leaf set of T) is obtained as follows: (1) contract every tree-edge uv of T such that u is a clique node and v is a star node; and (2) subdivide every tree-edge $e = vl$ of T such that l is a leaf, v is a star node and $\rho_v(e)$ is not the centre of the star G_u . Let us prove the correctness of this construction.

Assume first that $ST(G)$ only contains star nodes. Let l be a leaf and u be its neighbour. Suppose that $\rho_u(lu)$ is not the centre of the star G_u . As $e = lu$ is a subdivided tree-edge, $d_{T'}(l, l') \geq 3$ with every leaf $l' \neq l$. In this case no contraction is performed, and thereby the distances between leaves do not decrease. Observe then that the only leaf l' such that $d_{T'}(l, l') = 3$ is attached to the centre of the star G_u (i.e. $\rho_u(l'u)$). It is clear that l' is the only leaf accessible to l in $ST(G)$, i.e. adjacent in G . So suppose that $\rho_u(lu)$ is the centre of the star G_u . As just argued, $d_{T'}(l, l') = 3$ for every leaf $l' \neq l$ adjacent to u and l, l' are pairwise accessible in $ST(G)$ so adjacent in G . So consider a leaf l' adjacent to a node v distinct from u . Observe that if u and v are not adjacent, then $d_{T'}(l, l') > 3$ and by condition 3 l cannot be accessible from l' . Otherwise (u and v are adjacent nodes), if $\rho_v(l'v)$ is the centre of G_v then $d_{T'}(l, l') = d_T(l, l') = 3$ which is fine since l is accessible from l' . If $\rho_v(l'v)$ is not the centre of G_v then $d_{T'}(l, l') = d_T(l, l') + 1 = 4$ but then l is not accessible from l' . It follows that l and l' are at distance 3 in T' if and only if there are adjacent in G .

To conclude consider the case where $ST(G)$ contains some clique nodes. Observe that by condition 2, a clique node u is adjacent to at most one star node. Observe also that every pair of leaves adjacent to the same clique node are (adjacent) twins. Now if we save only one representative leaf per clique node, we obtain a graph G' whose split tree $ST(G')$ only contains star nodes (replace every clique node by the corresponding representative leaf). We have shown that our root-tree construction is valid for G' . By the observations above, to obtain the root-tree it suffices to add every non-representative leaf l adjacent to the same node than its representative. Observe that this finally amount to contract the tree-edge between clique nodes and star nodes. This conclude the proof. □

Observe that, to get a 3-leaf power vertex incremental characterization, we could simply test, given a 3-leaf power graph G , first if the graph $G + x$ is a DH graph using Theorem 3.4, and then if the node to which x is attached in $ST(G + x)$ does not create a contradiction with Theorem 3.9. This second condition amounts to test a local condition on $ST(G + x)$, and would be enough for algorithmic purpose to refine the main DH algorithm of Section 4 in terms of 3-leaf power graphs as done in Section 4.4. However, the following theorem establishes a more precise property directly on $ST(G)$.

Theorem 3.10 (3-Leaf Power Vertex Incremental Characterization). *Let G be a connected 3-leaf power and $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be its split tree. Then $G + (x, S)$ is a 3-leaf power if and only if*

1. *it is a distance hereditary graph (see conditions of Theorem 3.4);*
2. *if $S = \{y\}$, then either y is adjacent in T to a star node, or T has a only one node;*
3. *if $|S| > 1$, then*
 - (a) *if $T(S)$ does not contain a partially accessible node, then the tree-edge, towards which the fully mixed star nodes are oriented (see Theorem 3.4), is incident to a clique node or a leaf;*
 - (b) *if $T(S)$ contains a partially accessible node u , then u is a clique node, and either S is the set of leaves adjacent to u or u is the only node of $ST(G)$.*

Proof. We first consider the case $S = \{y\}$. Then $ST(G + (x, S))$ is obtained from $ST(G)$ by inserting on the tree-edge incident to y a degree 3 star node u adjacent to x and whose centre is $\rho_u(uy)$. Thanks to Theorem 3.9, $G + (x, S)$ is a 3-leaf power if and only if the neighbour of y if condition 2 is satisfied.

From now on, we assume that $|S| > 1$ and prove that $G + (x, S)$ is DH if and only if conditions 1 and 3 hold.

⇒ Let us consider the three different ways $ST(G)$ can be transformed into $ST(G + (x, S))$:

1. Vertex x is attached to a node u of $ST(G)$. Assume that u is a clique node. Then, by Corollary 2.5, u is a fully accessible clique node of $T(S)$ and $T(S)$ does not contain any partially accessible node. It follows that every star node of $T(S)$ is oriented towards any tree-edge of $T(S)$ incident to u . Consider the case u is a star node. Then by Theorem 3.9 and since $|S| > 1$, the neighbour v of u , such that $\rho_u(uv)$ is the centre of G_v , is a clique. It follows that v is the partially accessible node of $T(S)$ and S is the set of leaves adjacent to v .
 2. A node u of $ST(G)$ is node-split into two adjacent nodes v and v' and the tree-edge vv' is subdivided to insert a new node w adjacent to x . As observed in the proof of Theorem 3.4, u is partially accessible (this is a consequence of Corollary 2.5). Assume that u is a star node. Then, by Theorem 3.9, w cannot be a clique node, since otherwise it would neighbour two star nodes, namely v and v' . But if w is a star node, then the tree-edge e such that $\rho_u(e)$ is the centre of G_u is adjacent to a star node $v \neq u$: contradicting Theorem 3.9 again. It follows that u has to be a clique node. This forces w to be a star node. Theorem 3.9 then implies that $G + (x, S)$ is a 3-leaf power graph if and only if u is the unique node of $ST(G)$ (otherwise the set of star nodes in $ST(G + (x, S))$ would not be connected).
 3. A tree-edge e of $ST(G)$ is subdivided to insert a new node w adjacent to x . If w is a clique node, then by Corollary 2.5, $T(S)$ does not contain any partially accessible node. By Theorem 3.9, $G + x$ is a 3-leaf power graph if and only if e is incident to a leaf of $ST(G)$. Assume that w is a star node with centre $\rho_w(vw)$. As $|S| > 1$, v is not a leaf. By Corollary 2.5, v is partially accessible. By Theorem 3.9, $G + x$ is a 3-leaf power graph if and only if v is a clique node. Moreover in that case, observe that S is precisely the set of leaves of T adjacent to v .
- ⇐ We just observe that if conditions (3.a) and (3.b) hold, then the construction of $ST(G + (x, S))$ described in the proof of Theorem 3.4 yields a split tree that satisfies Theorem 3.9. We describe the two cases more precisely. Assume condition (3.a) holds. Let e be the tree-edge of $T(S)$ towards which the fully mixed star nodes are oriented. Then either e is incident to a leaf, or e is incident to a star and a clique. In both, cases, the construction of $ST(G + (x, S))$ from $ST(G)$ described in the proof of Theorem 3.4 shows that $ST(G + (x, S))$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9. Assume now that $T(S)$ contains a partially accessible node and condition (3.b) holds. Again from the proof of Theorem 3.4, we know that to get $ST(G + (x, S))$ from $ST(G)$, the partially accessible node u is node-split. Since u is a clique node, it is then straightforward to check that condition (3.b) implies that $ST(G + (x, S))$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9. □

4. Vertex-only fully dynamic recognition algorithms

The main result presented in this section is an optimal vertex-only fully dynamic algorithm that maintains the split tree representation of a DH graph. For both insertion and deletion queries, the split tree can be updated in time $O(d(x))$, where $d(x)$ is the degree of the vertex to be inserted or deleted. In the case of an insertion, the algorithm can check whether the resulting graph is DH or not. As corollaries, we obtain linear time recognition and isomorphism algorithms for DH graphs. We also give a short overview of how this algorithm can be specialized for the cases of cographs and of 3-leaf powers.

Let us first describe the data structure we use to implement the split tree of the input graph.

Data structure. The following data structure is used to encode the clique–star tree $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ of the given connected DH graph G :

1. a (rooted) representation of the tree T . The root of T is chosen arbitrarily and is only required for the seek of computational efficiency;
2. as the graphs of \mathcal{F} are cliques or stars, each node of T only needs a *clique–star mark* distinguishing the type of each node, the degree of the node and in the case of a star a *centre mark* to distinguish its centre from the other marker vertices.

Such a data structure is clearly an $O(n)$ space representation of any DH graph on n vertices.

4.1. Vertex insertion in DH graphs

The insertion algorithm works in three steps. Given a DH graph G represented by its split tree $ST(G)$ and a new vertex x together with a set of vertices S of G : (1) we first compute the subtree $T(S)$; (2) then we check whether the conditions of Theorem 3.4 are satisfied; and finally (3) if the augmented graph $G + x$ turns out to be DH, we update the split tree data structure (otherwise the algorithm stops).

Computing the smallest subtree spanning a set of leaves.

Given a set S of leaves of a tree T , we need to identify the smallest subtree $T(S)$ spanning S , and to store the degrees of its nodes. This problem is easy to solve on rooted trees by a bottom-up marking process in time $O(|T(S)|)$ as follows:

1. Mark each leaf of S . Along the algorithm, a marked node is *active* if it is not the root and its father is not marked.
2. Each active node marks its father if: (1) the root is not marked and there are at least two active vertices, or (2) the root is marked and there is at least one active node.
3. While the root of the subtree T' induced by the marked nodes is a leaf of T' but does not belong to S , then remove this (root) node from T' , let its child be the new root of T' and check again. Eventually return $T(S) = T'$.

By Lemma 2.11, if the augmented graph $G + x$ is DH, the size of $T(S)$ (its number of nodes) is at most $2 \cdot |S|$. To prevent a non-linear complexity in the case $G + x$ is not DH, while computing $T(S)$, we need to count the number of marked nodes. More precisely after step 2, the number of marked nodes is at most $2 \cdot |T(S)|$ (since the number of deleted nodes in step 3 cannot exceed the number of marked nodes). Hence if the graph is DH, this number of marked nodes is at most $4 \cdot |S|$. Whenever more than $4 \cdot |S|$ nodes have been marked during step 2, the algorithm stops and claims that the graph $G + x$ is not DH. In every case, it is easy to check that the above algorithm has $O(|S|)$ running time. Its correctness is straightforward.

Testing conditions of Theorem 3.4.

The first two conditions of Theorem 3.4 are fairly easy to check by following Definition 3.3: a node u is *fully accessible* if its degrees in $T(S)$ and T are the same; u is *singly accessible* if it is a star, if it has degree 2 in $T(S)$ and if the neighbour v of u , such that $\rho_u(uv)$ is the star centre, belongs to $T(S)$; and u is *partially accessible* otherwise (such a node has to be unique if it exists). These tests cost $O(|T(S)|)$.

We can now assume that the first two conditions of Theorem 3.4 are fulfilled. Since the case $|S| = 1$ is trivial, we also assume that $|S| > 1$.

We define *local orientations* on nodes of a tree as the choice, for each node u , of a node $f(u)$ such that either $f(u) = u$ or $f(u)$ is a neighbour of u . Local orientations are *compatible* if (1) $f(u) = u$ implies $f(v) = u$ for every neighbour v of u , and (2) $f(u) = v$ implies $f(w) = u$ for every neighbour $w \neq v$ of u . An easy exercise is to see that if local orientations are compatible then exactly one of the two following properties holds: either there exists a unique node u with $f(u) = u$, in which case u is called *node-root*, or there exists a unique tree-edge uv with $f(u) = v$ and $f(v) = u$, in which case uv is called *tree-edge root*.

Testing the third condition of Theorem 3.4 consists of building, if possible, compatible local orientations in the subtree $T(S)$:

1. Let u be a leaf of $T(S)$. Then $f(u)$ is the unique neighbour of u .
2. Let u be a star node of $T(S)$. If u is partially accessible, then $f(u) = u$. If u is singly accessible, then $f(u)$ is the unique neighbour v of u belonging to $T(S)$ such that $\rho_u(uv)$ is a degree-1 vertex of the star. If u is fully accessible, then $f(u)$ is the neighbour v of u such that $\rho_u(uv)$ is the centre of the star.
3. Let u be a clique node of $T(S)$. If u is partially accessible, then $f(u) = u$. Otherwise, u is fully accessible and its neighbours are leaves or star nodes. If $f(v) = u$ for every neighbour v of u then $f(u) = u$. If $f(v) = u$ for every neighbour v of u but one, say w , then $f(u) = w$. Otherwise u is an *obstruction*.

The third condition of Theorem 3.4 is satisfied if and only if (1) there is no obstruction and (2) local orientations of $T(S)$ are compatible. This test can be performed in time $O(|T(S)|)$ by a search of $T(S)$. Hence the conditions of Theorem 3.4 can be tested in $O(|T(S)|)$ time. Moreover if the test is satisfied, the search of $T(S)$ locates the node-root or the tree-edge root.

Updating the split tree.

We now assume that $G + (x, S)$ is DH (i.e. conditions of Theorem 3.4 are satisfied). So by Theorem 3.4 the split tree has either a unique node-root or a unique tree-edge root. To update the split tree, we may subdivide an insertion tree-edge into two new tree-edges. Notice that, since we maintain an (artificial) orientation of the tree, this subdivision can be done in $O(1)$. There are three cases to consider (see Fig. 12), after a possible single node-split preprocess (see Fig. 11).

0. *Single node-split preprocess*: If there is a node-root u being partially accessible, then, depending on degree conditions on u , a preliminary update of T consisting of a node-split of the node u is required. Let U , resp. A , be the set of tree-edges incident to u in T , resp. in $T(S)$.
 - (a) If u is a clique node with $|U \setminus A| \geq 2$, then u is node-split. Two new adjacent clique nodes v and w are created in T . The marker vertices of v (resp. w) correspond to A , resp. $U \setminus A$, except one which corresponds to vw . In this case, v is now the (partially accessible) node-root.
 - (b) If u is a star node, the centre of which is mapped to the tree-edge e , and $|(U \setminus A) \setminus \{e\}| \geq 1$, then u is node-split and replaced by two adjacent star nodes v and w . Then the extremities of the star G_v correspond to $A \setminus \{e\}$ and its centre to vw (we have $|A \setminus \{e\}| > 1$ since u is not singly accessible), likewise the extremities of the star G_w correspond to $(U \setminus A) \cup \{vw\}$ and its centre to e .
 - i. If $e \notin A$, then the node v becomes the (partially accessible) node-root.
 - ii. If $e \in A$, then the tree-edge vw is now the tree-edge root.
1. The root of $T(S)$ is a partially accessible node v , or S is reduced to a unique leaf v . Let w be its neighbour in T that does not belong to $T(S)$. Then the insertion tree-edge is $e = vw$, and $ST(G + (x, S))$ is obtained by subdividing vw into two tree-edge vr and rw , where r a degree 3 star node whose centre is $\rho_w(vr)$ and to which x is adjacent. Finally if w is a star with centre $\rho_v(wr)$, we proceed a node-join operation on the tree-edge wr .
2. The root of $T(S)$ is a node v which is not partially accessible. By the definition of the local orientation f , the node v is a clique node, and $ST(G + (x, S))$ is obtained by adding the new leaf x adjacent to v whose degree thereby increases by one.
3. The root of $T(S)$ is a tree-edge vw . Then $ST(G + (x, S))$ is obtained by subdividing vw with a clique node r of degree 3 and making the leaf x adjacent to r .

Theorem 4.1 (Vertex Insertion). Let $G + (x, S)$ be a graph such that G is a connected distance hereditary graph. Given the data structure of the split tree $ST(G)$, testing whether $G + (x, S)$ is distance hereditary and if so computing the data structure of $ST(G + (x, S))$ can be done in $O(|S|)$ time.

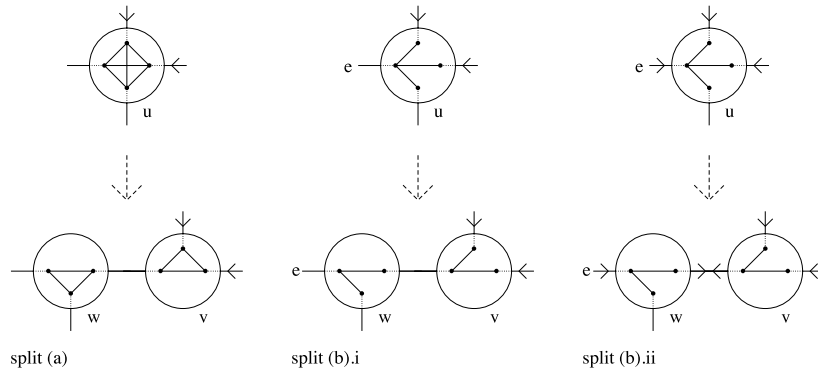


Fig. 11. Vertex-insertion preprocessing step: a node-split on the node-root u is required to separate the set A of tree-edges (i.e. those incident to u and belonging to $T(S)$, drawn with an arrow in the figure) from the others.

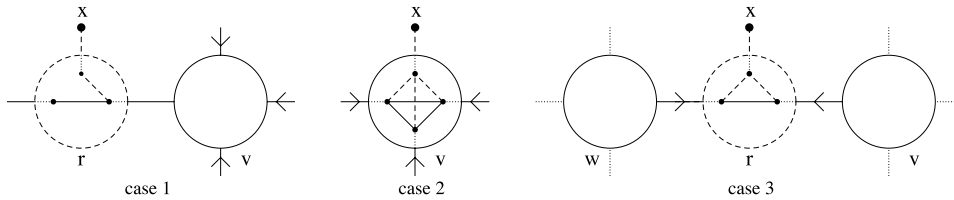


Fig. 12. The three different cases for the vertex insertion: (1) the root of $T(S)$ is a partially accessible node v ; (2) the root of $T(S)$ is a node v which is not partially accessible; and (3) the root of $T(S)$ is a tree-edge vw . The modified split tree is obtained by inserting dashed node or tree-edges.

Proof. The correctness follows from the discussion above and the proof of [Theorem 3.4](#).

Concerning the complexity issues, every tree-modification operation can be done in $O(1)$ time, except the splitting in case 0 which requires $O(|T(S)|)$ time (by deleting A from u to get w , and adding A to a new empty node v). Any other operation time to maintain the data structure of the split tree (root, degrees...) requires $O(1)$ time. Then, the complexity for the whole insertion algorithm derives from previous steps and the fact that $O(|T(S)|) = O(|S|)$ if the algorithm has passed the $T(S)$ computation step. \square

Let us remark that our vertex-insertion algorithm yields a linear time recognition algorithm of (static) DH graphs, thereby achieving the best known bound but also simplifying the previous non-incremental ones [24,17,6]. It also yields a linear time isomorphism algorithm, thereby achieving the best known bound again with a simpler setting than in [33].

Corollary 4.2 (Static Recognition). *The vertex-insertion routine enables to recognize distance hereditary graphs in linear time.*

Proof. As the insertion algorithm works only on connected graphs, we have to proceed the vertices in an ordering x_1, \dots, x_n such that, for every $1 \leq i \leq n$, $G[\{x_1, \dots, x_i\}]$ is connected. Any search (e.g. BFS) computes such an ordering in linear time. As the global complexity cost is linear in the sum of the degrees, linear time follows. \square

Corollary 4.3 (Isomorphism). *The vertex-insertion routine enables to test distance hereditary graph isomorphism in linear time.*

Proof. To test isomorphism between two DH graphs, it suffices to test isomorphism between the two corresponding split trees. The split tree of a DH graph can be constructed in linear time by our recognition algorithm and has size linear in the number of vertices of the graph ([Lemma 2.11](#)). Thereby any linear time tree isomorphism algorithm can be used (e.g. [1]). \square

4.2. Vertex deletion in DH graphs

Removing a vertex x from a DH graph G always yields a DH graph $G - x$. Let $ST(G)$ be the split tree of G . Updating the data structure of the split tree can be done as follows.

1. Remove the leaf x and update the degree of its neighbour v .
2. If v now has degree 2, then remove v and add a tree-edge between its neighbours u and w . If the resulting clique-star tree is not reduced, proceed a node-join on the tree-edge uw .
3. If v is a star node whose centre neighbour was x , then $G - x$ is no longer connected, and the split trees of each connected component are the components of $T - \{v, x\}$.

Lemma 4.4 (Vertex Deletion). *Let G be a connected distance hereditary graph and x be a degree d vertex of G . Given the data structure of split tree $ST(G)$, testing whether $G - x$ is a connected distance hereditary graph and if so computing the data structure of $ST(G - x)$ can be done in $O(d)$ time.*

Proof. Every operation, except the node-join, can be achieved in $O(1)$ time. The complexity of the node-join on the tree-edge uw is $\min(d(u), d(w))$, where $d(u), d(w)$ are respectively the degree of node u and node w . Since at least one of these nodes is fully accessible, this minimum degree is smaller than d , the degree of x . Hence this node-join operation costs $O(d)$. \square

To summarize the results of vertex dynamic DH graphs, with [Theorem 4.1](#) and [Lemma 4.4](#), we have proved that:

Theorem 4.5. *There exists a vertex fully dynamic recognition algorithm for connected distance hereditary graphs, maintaining the split tree, with complexity $O(d)$ per vertex-insertion or deletion operation involving d edges.*

4.3. Vertex modifications in cographs

To check whether the augmented graph $G + (x, S)$ is a cograph, our vertex-insertion algorithm for DH could be used. According to [Theorem 3.7](#), we just need an extra test to verify that the tree-root has a node in the subtree $T(S)$ or is neighbouring a node of $T(S)$. Notice that as the original graph G is a cograph, the star nodes define a natural orientation which can be used to compute $T(S)$. Let us also remark that, as a consequence of [Theorem 3.7](#), the set of singly accessible nodes (which are stars) has to belong to a path from the tree-root of $ST(G)$ to some node u . It follows that to test condition 3 of [Theorem 3.4](#), the local orientations can be avoided. This path property for the singly accessible nodes was already noticed (in other terms) in the characterization proposed in [12]. Finally, we need an extra work to update the tree-root as described in the proof of [Theorem 3.5](#). This can also be done in constant time. It follows that the resulting complexity is $O(d)$ by insertion as in the incremental recognition algorithm of Corneil et al. [12] (which is based on the modular decomposition tree).

As cographs are hereditary graphs, the vertex deletion always yields a cograph. Notice also that removing a vertex does not affect the orientation of the remaining star nodes in the split tree. It follows that our vertex-deletion algorithm for DH graph can be used as well for the vertex deletion of cographs.

Theorem 4.6. *There exists a vertex fully dynamic recognition algorithm for connected cographs, maintaining the split tree, with complexity $O(d)$ per vertex-insertion or vertex-deletion operation involving d edges.*

4.4. Vertex modifications in 3-leaf powers

Again the DH vertex-insertion algorithm can be easily specialized to work on 3-leaf powers. Thanks to [Theorem 3.10](#), insertion of a pendant vertex x neighbouring y is restricted to the case where a leaf y is adjacent to a star node or the split tree has a unique node. This can be checked in $O(1)$ time. In the other cases, we just need to test whether the subtree $T(S)$ contains or not a partially accessible node. This only requires a search of $T(S)$ whose size is $O(|S|)$. Concerning the deletion algorithm, as 3-leaf powers are hereditary graphs, we just apply the DH vertex-deletion algorithm.

Theorem 4.7. *There exists a vertex fully dynamic recognition algorithm for connected 3-leaf powers, maintaining the split tree, with complexity $O(d)$ per vertex-insertion or vertex-deletion operation involving d edges.*

Notice that since the family of 3-leaf power is hereditary, this vertex incremental recognition algorithm also applies to static graph. The time complexity is linear as for the recognition algorithm proposed in [2]. Moreover our algorithm can be easily adapted to output the root-tree when the input graph is a 3-leaf power.

5. Edge modifications: characterizations and algorithms

In this section we show that the split tree representation is also the right tool to deal with edge modifications in totally decomposable graphs. Indeed, based on the forbidden induced subgraph characterizations of the three graph families we have considered so far (DH graphs, cographs and 3-leaf powers), we identify necessary and sufficient conditions under which given a graph G and an edge e , the modified graph $G + e$ (or $G - e$) belongs to the same family than G . Using the graph-labelled tree representation, these conditions consist in checking if a given path in the split tree belongs to a small finite set of configurations. These simple characterizations yield to simple constant time edge fully dynamic algorithms. Let us mention that such algorithmic results were already known for cographs [37] and DH graphs [41]. For cographs, the edge fully dynamic algorithm in [37] relies on a modular decomposition based characterization which, again, we are able to transpose in the split decomposition settings, and which are derived as a particular case of the DH edge-modification algorithm. Concerning the DH graphs, the constant time algorithm of [41] is way more complicated than the one we propose here. It relies on a tricky analysis on the BFS layering structure [24] of DH graphs and up to our knowledge no simple characterization could be identified from that work. No result of this flavour was known for 3-leaf powers.

5.1. Edge modification in distance hereditary graphs

This subsection states our results on edge modifications in DH graphs. The combinatorial characterization [Theorem 5.1](#) directly implies the algorithm of [Corollary 5.2](#) and is proved in the next subsection.

Let G be a connected DH graph and $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be its split tree. If x and y are two vertices of G , we denote $P(x, y)$ the graph-labelled tree formed by the path in T between the leaf x and the leaf y , with nodes labelled the same way as in

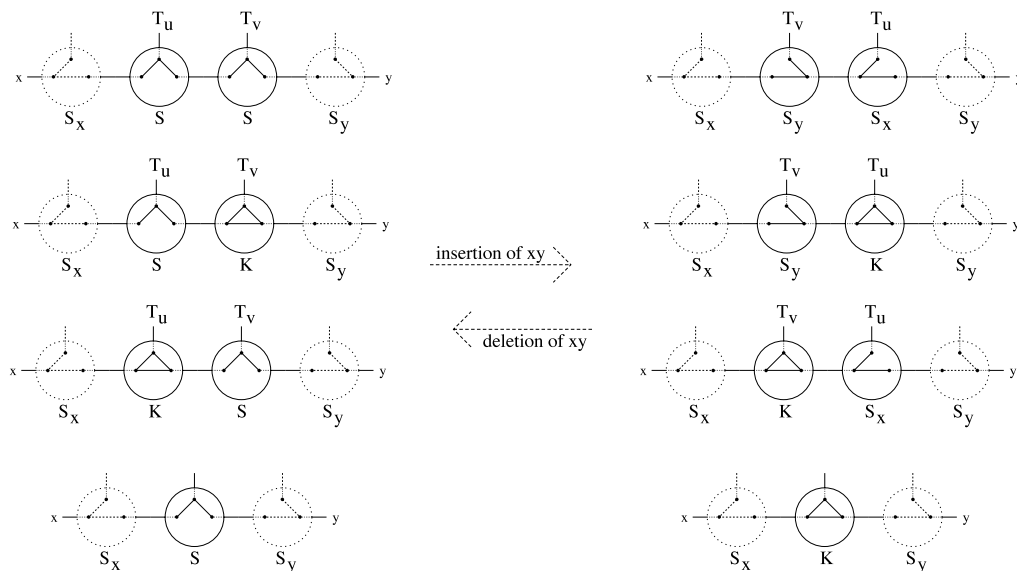


Fig. 13. Constant time dynamic algorithm for edge modification in DH graphs (Corollary 5.2).

$ST(G)$. As $ST(G)$ is a clique–star tree, $P(x, y)$ naturally defines a word $W(x, y)$ whose letters identify the type of the graphs labelling the nodes in $P(x, y)$. A alphabet of four symbols $A = \{K, S, S_x, S_y\}$ is enough to describe $W(x, y)$:

- the letter K stands for the clique nodes;
- the letter S stands for the star nodes v , the centre $\rho_v(e)$ of which is mapped to the tree-edge e that does not belong to $P(x, y)$; and
- the letter S_x (resp. S_y) stands for the star nodes v , the centre $\rho_v(e)$ of which is mapped to the tree-edge e that belongs to the subpath of $P(x, y) - v$ containing x (resp. y).

Observe that $xy \in E(G)$ if and only if $W(x, y)$ is S -free (i.e. does not contain the letter S). When describing words, letters in brackets can be deleted: e.g. $K(S)K$ stands for the words KK and KSK .

Theorem 5.1. Let G be a connected DH graph and $ST(G) = (T, \mathcal{F})$ be its split tree. Let x and y be two vertices of G and $W(x, y)$ be the word labelling the path $P(x, y)$ between x and y in T . Then

1. If $xy \notin E$, then $G + xy$ is distance hereditary if and only if $W(x, y)$ is one of the following words:

$$(S_x)SS(S_y) \quad (S_x)SK(S_y) \quad (S_x)KS(S_y) \quad (S_x)S(S_y)$$

2. If $xy \notin E$, then $G - xy$ is distance hereditary if and only if $W(x, y)$ is one of the following words:

$$(S_x)S_yS_x(S_y) \quad (S_x)S_yK(S_y) \quad (S_x)KS_x(S_y) \quad (S_x)K(S_y) \quad (S_x)(S_y)$$

Moreover if $W(x, y) = (S_x)(S_y)$, then $G - xy$ is no longer connected.

Corollary 5.2. The following algorithm tests and updates the data structure of the split tree for the insertion or deletion of an edge xy in a (connected) distance hereditary graph G in constant time.

1. Test if $W(x, y)$ has length at most 4 and satisfies conditions of Theorem 5.1.
2. Update the split tree of G . Nodes of letters in brackets are called *extreme*.
 - (a) Node-split every non-extreme node of $W(x, y)$ that is not ternary so that in the resulting clique–star tree, all the non-extreme node of $W(x, y)$ are ternary.
 - (b) Replace the non-extreme nodes by ternary nodes according to the following table. If $W(x, y)$ contains two non-extreme nodes, say u and v , then the neighbour u' of u (resp. v' of v), that does not belong to $W(x, y)$, becomes adjacent to v (resp. u). See Fig. 13. Extreme nodes are left unchanged.

edge insertion \longrightarrow \longleftarrow edge deletion	
$(S_x)SS(S_y)$	$(S_x)S_yS_x(S_y)$
$(S_x)SK(S_y)$	$(S_x)S_yK(S_y)$
$(S_x)KS(S_y)$	$(S_x)KS_x(S_y)$
$(S_x)S(S_y)$	$(S_x)K(S_y)$

- (c) If necessary, proceed (at most two) node-join operations involving the nodes that have been changed to get a reduced graph-labelled tree.

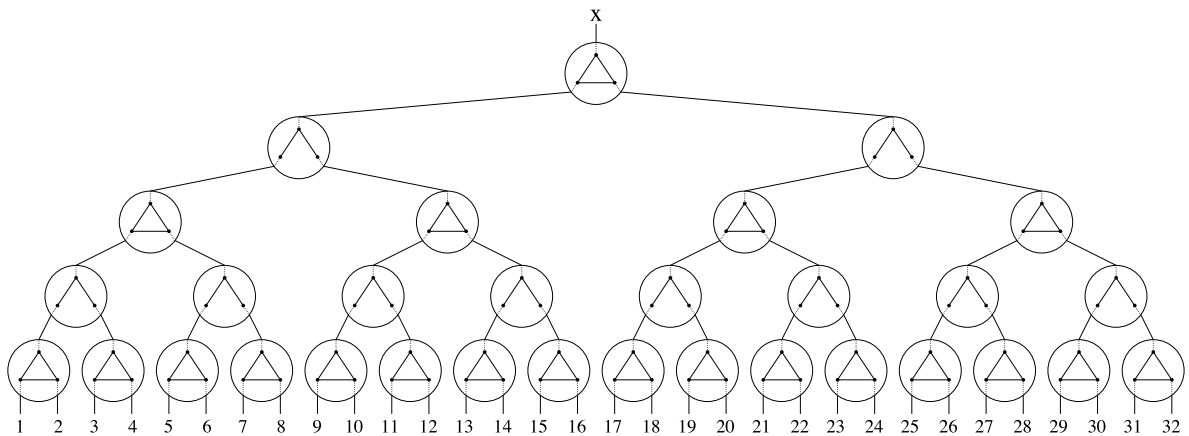


Fig. 14. A DH graph (and cograph) such that removing any edge incident to the vertex x provides a non-DH graph: the length of the path from x to any other leaf is greater than 5.

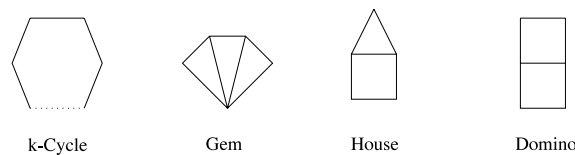


Fig. 15. The gem, the house, and the domino are together with the cycles C_k ($k \geq 5$), the forbidden induced subgraphs for DH graphs.

Proof. The correctness of the algorithm is a consequence of [Theorem 5.1](#) and the fact that the split tree transformations are safe (see [Fig. 13](#)). Let us turn to the complexity analysis. We assume (as we did in [Section 4](#)) that an artificial root of the split tree is maintained (remember that the graph and the split tree are connected). Step 1 can be done easily in constant time, by searching the split tree in parallel from x and y towards the root (if the least common ancestor of x and y is found after 4 steps or more, then the length of the path $P(x, y)$ is larger than 4). Step 2 also requires constant time. There are at most two node-split operations and two node-join operations respectively at steps (a) and (c), each of which is constant time since it involves a ternary node. And the transformation at step (b) is obviously constant time. \square

Remark 5.3. From [Theorem 5.1](#), we can easily build an example of a DH graph (and cograph) having a vertex such that removing **any** edge incident to this vertex provides a non-DH graph. It is depicted on [Fig. 14](#). This example shows that an edge-only dynamic recognition algorithm for DH graphs cannot be used to obtain a vertex-only one.

5.2. Proof of [Theorem 5.1](#)

As mentioned above, our edge-modification characterization of DH graphs relies on the forbidden induced subgraph characterization: a graph is distance hereditary if and only if it does not contain a cycle of length at least 5 (C_k for $k \geq 5$), a *gem*, a *house*, nor a *domino* (see [Fig. 15](#)) as induced subgraph [4].

We first need to introduce some notations and to state some basic properties and technical lemmas. We call *factor*, in a word W , a set of consecutive letters of W . We call *S-subword* a word obtained from W by deleting some letters different from S . As for the clique-star trees, we say that a word is *reduced* if it does not contain the following factors: KK , $S_y S_y$, $S_x S_x$, $S_y S$ and SS_x . With a word $W = w_1 w_2 \dots w_r$ on A , one can associate a clique-star tree P_W whose underlying tree is a path of ternary nodes with hanging leaves (i.e. P_W is a caterpillar). Say that the first and last extreme nodes respectively have leaves x and y , chosen to be the *extreme leaves* of W . Then, the nodes of P_W are labelled by graphs (with three vertices) accordingly to the letters of W w.r.t. x and y , just the same way as $P(x, y)$ corresponds to $W(x, y)$, as defined in the beginning of this section. We will denote G_W the DH graph defined as the accessibility graph of the clique-star tree P_W . Let W be a word on A with extreme leaves x, y . Assuming $xy \notin E(G_W)$, the word W is called *forbidden for edge insertion* if $G_W + xy$ is not a DH graph; otherwise W is *safe for edge insertion*. Similarly, assuming $xy \in E(G_W)$, the word W is called *forbidden for edge deletion* if $G_W - xy$ is not a DH graph; otherwise W is *safe for edge deletion*. The proof of [Theorem 5.1](#) relies on a characterization of the safe words (for insertion and deletion) by forbidden excluded subwords.

Lemma 5.4. Let x and y be two vertices of a distance hereditary graph G . Then there exists a graph-labelled tree of G with a node u neighbouring leaves x and y such that G_u is isomorphic to $G_{W(x,y)}$. Hence, in particular, $G_{W(x,y)}$ is isomorphic to an induced subgraph of G .

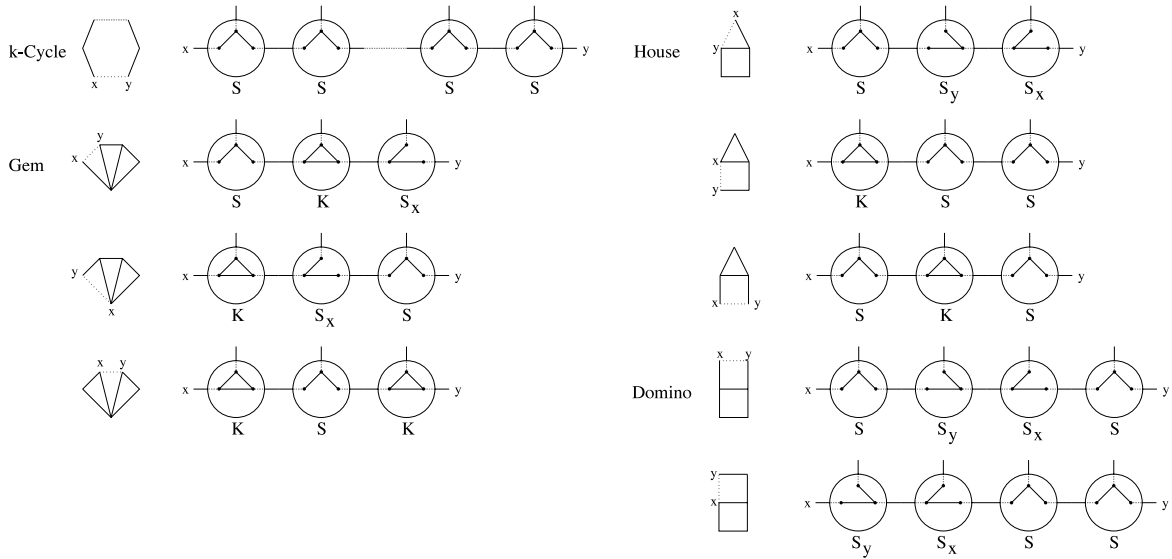


Fig. 16. Proof of Theorem 5.1, insertion case. Split trees of graphs $H - xy$ for H , a DH forbidden induced subgraph. Only useful graphs, i.e. DH ones, are represented. In the table of insertion forbidden subwords, in comparison, repetitions are deleted, and symmetric words are added.

Proof. By definition, the graph-labelled tree $P_{W(x,y)}$ is isomorphic to the graph-labelled tree obtained from $P(x,y)$ by substituting all nodes in $P(x,y)$ with ternary nodes corresponding to the same letters. Hence, node splitting in $ST(G)$ all nodes belonging to $P(x,y)$, in such a way that the path from x to y is preserved in the tree structure and is now labelled by ternary nodes, yields a subtree isomorphic to $P_{W(x,y)}$. Joining all the nodes of this subtree provides a node, adjacent to leaves x and y , and whose label is isomorphic to $G_{W(x,y)}$. It follows from Corollary 2.6 that $G_{W(x,y)}$ is an induced subgraph of G . \square

Lemma 5.5. Let x and y be two vertices of a distance hereditary graph $G = (V, E)$. If $xy \notin E$, the graph $G + xy$ is distance hereditary if and only if the word $W(x,y)$ is not forbidden for edge insertion. If $xy \in E$, the graph $G - xy$ is distance hereditary if and only if the word $W(x,y)$ is not forbidden for edge deletion.

Proof. Assume $xy \notin E$. By definition, the graph $G_{W(x,y)} + xy$ is DH if and only if $W(x,y)$ is not forbidden for edge insertion. We prove that $G + xy$ is DH if and only if $G_{W(x,y)} + xy$ is DH. By Lemma 5.4, there exists a graph-labelled tree (T, \mathcal{F}) of G containing a node u such that G_u is isomorphic to $G_{W(x,y)}$. As leaves x and y are adjacent to the node u of T , replacing G_u with $G_{W(x,y)} + xy$ yields a graph-labelled tree whose accessibility graph is $G + xy$. As a graph G is DH if and only if all labels in a graph-labelled tree of G are DH, the result obviously follows. The proof for edge deletion is similar. \square

Lemma 5.6. Let x and y be two vertices of a distance hereditary graph G . Every connected induced subgraph H of $G_{W(x,y)}$ with $x, y \in V(H)$ is isomorphic to some graph G_{W_H} where W_H is a S -subword of $W(x,y)$. Conversely, every such graph G_{W_H} is isomorphic to some such connected induced subgraph H .

Proof. Let $W = W(x,y) = w_1 \dots w_r$, and let $\{x = z_0, z_1, \dots, z_r, y = z_{r+1}\}$ be the set of vertices of G_W , such that the ordering z_1, \dots, z_r corresponds to the ordering of leaves encountered from x to y in the caterpillar P_W . Let H be an induced subgraph of G_W such that $V(H) = \{x, z_{i_1} \dots z_{i_k}, y\}$ with $i_1 < \dots < i_k$. Since P_W is a caterpillar, H is connected if and only if for every bipartition (A, B) of $V(H)$, such that $A = \{z_i \in V(H) \mid i \leq j < r + 1\}$ and $B = \{z_i \in V(H) \mid 0 < j < i\}$ for some j , H contains an edge between some vertex of A and some vertex of B . By the definition of accessibility, such an edge exists if and only if none of the letters w_j of W such that $z_j \notin V(H)$ is a S . It follows that H is connected if and only if the word $W_H = w_{i_1} w_{i_2} \dots w_{i_k}$ is a S -subword of W . Finally, as an edge exists between two vertices of $G_W[V(H)]$ if and only if the corresponding letters in W can be joined by a sequence of letters in $\{K, S_x, S_y\}$, we have that $G_W[V(H)]$ is isomorphic to G_{W_H} . Also, the converse is straightforward. \square

Let us consider the DH graphs obtained by removing, resp. adding, an edge xy to one of the DH forbidden induced subgraphs H (cycles, gem, house or domino). It turns out that the split tree of each one is a caterpillar with ternary nodes (see Fig. 16, resp. Fig. 17). Hence, they are determined by their associated words denoted $W_{H-xy}(x,y)$, resp. $W_{H+xy}(x,y)$.

Lemma 5.7. A word W with extreme leaves x, y is forbidden for edge insertion, resp. edge deletion, if and only if it has a S -subword of type $W_{H-xy}(x,y)$, resp. $W_{H+xy}(x,y)$, for H a distance hereditary forbidden induced subgraph.

Proof. We prove the statement for edge insertion. Edge-deletion case is similar. By definition, a word W , whose extreme leaves are x and y , is forbidden for edge insertion if and only if $G_W + xy$ is not DH, i.e. $G_W + xy$ contains one of the DH

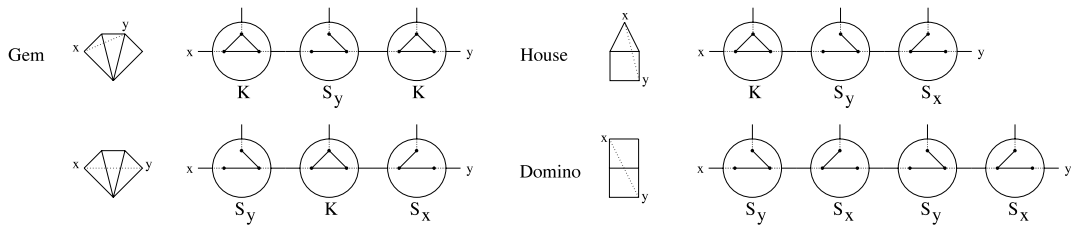


Fig. 17. Proof of [Theorem 5.1](#), deletion case. Split trees of graphs $H + xy$ for H , a DH forbidden induced subgraph. Only useful graphs, i.e. DH ones, are represented. In the table of deletion forbidden subwords, in comparison, repetitions are deleted, and symmetric words are added.

forbidden induced subgraphs, say H , which also contains vertices x and y (since G_W is DH). Now by [Lemma 5.6](#), $H - xy$ is a connected induced subgraph of G_W with vertices x and y if and only if $H - xy = G_{W'}$ for some S -subword W' of W , that is if and only if the word $W' = W_{H-xy}(x, y)$ defined by the caterpillar split tree of $H - xy$ is a S -subword of W . \square

For each DH forbidden induced subgraph H such that $H - xy$ (resp. $H + xy$) is DH, we obtain a list of (edge-)insertion forbidden subwords, resp. (edge-)deletion forbidden subwords, of type $W_{H-xy}(x, y)$, resp. $W_{H+xy}(x, y)$. They are given by the following tables.

Subgraphs	C_k ($k \leq 5$)	Gem	House	Domino
Insertion Forbidden Subwords	$S \dots S$ with $k \geq 3$ S's	SKS_x S_yKS KS_xS SS_yK KSK	SS_yR S_yS_xS KSS SSK SKS	SS_yS_xS S_yS_xSS SSS_yS_x

Subgraphs	Gem	House	Domino
Deletion Forbidden Subwords	KS_yK KS_xK S_yKS_x	KS_yS_x S_yS_xK	$S_yS_xS_yS_x$

Proof of Theorem 5.1. By [Lemmas 5.5](#) and [5.7](#), it remains to show that no S -subword of $W(x, y)$ belongs to the list of edge-insertion (resp. edge-deletion) forbidden subwords if and only if $W(x, y)$ is one of words described in condition 1 (resp. condition 2) of the theorem. Observe that the words of conditions 1 and 2 do not contain any forbidden words. Let us prove the converse.

1. Assume that no S -subword of $W(x, y)$ belongs to the list of forbidden subwords for edge insertion.

Notice that $W(x, y)$ contains at most two S 's otherwise it would contain a forbidden subwords corresponding to the cycles C_k , $k \geq 5$.

First consider the case $W(x, y)$ contains two S 's. By the KSS , SSK , SKS House's forbidden subwords, $W(x, y)$ has no K letter. By the Domino's forbidden subwords $W(x, y)$ is of the form $(S_x)SS(S_y)$. More precisely, as $W(x, y)$ is reduced, it does not contain the factors S_xS_x or S_yS_y and if a factor with no S contains a S_x (resp. a S_y), then S_x (resp. S_y) has to be the first (resp. last) letter of that factor. It follows that $W(x, y)$ is of the form $(S_x)(S_y)S(S_x)(S_y)S(S_x)(S_y)$. But again since $W(x, y)$ is reduced, it does not contain the factors S_yS or SS_x . Thereby $W(x, y)$ is of the form $(S_x)SS(S_y)$.

Let us now consider the case $W(x, y)$ contains only one S . Hence $W(x, y)$ is of the form wSw' where w and w' are reduced words on $\{K, S_y, S_x\}$. Then, by the SS_yS_x , S_yS_xS House's forbidden subwords, S_yS_x is not a S -subword of w and w' . By the SS_yK , S_yKS Gem's forbidden subword, KS_x is not a S -subword of w and w' neither. It follows that w and w' can only be the words $(S_x)(K)(S_y)$. More precisely if w or w' contains a S_x (resp. S_y), then S_x (resp. S_y) has to be the first (resp. last) letter. Moreover by the KSK Gem's forbidden subword, at most one word among w and w' contains a K letter. Finally, since $W(x, y)$ is reduced, it does not contain S_yS or SS_x as factors. Thereby $W(x, y)$ is of the form $(S_x)(K)S(S_y)$ or $(S_x)S(K)(S_y)$.

2. Assume that no S -subword $W(x, y)$ belongs to the list of forbidden subwords for edge deletion.

First $W(x, y)$ contains at most one letter K . Otherwise, since it is reduced and contains no factor KK , it would contain a KS_yK or KS_xK Gem's excluded subword.

Assume that $W(x, y)$ contains one letter K . Hence $W(x, y)$ is of the form xKx' where x and x' are reduced words on $\{S_y, S_x\}$. Then, by the KS_yS_x , S_yS_xK House's excluded subwords, x and x' must be of the form $(S_x)(S_y)$. Precisely, if x or x' contains a S_x , resp. S_y , then S_x , resp. S_y , must be the first letter, resp. last. Moreover, by the S_yKS_x Gem's excluded subword, if x contains a S_y , resp. x' contains a S_x , then x' does not contain a S_x letter, resp. x does not contain a S_y . Hence $W(x, y)$ is of the form $(S_x)(S_y)K(S_y)$ or $(S_x)K(S_x)(S_y)$.

Assume $W(x, y)$ does not contains the letter K . Then, by the $S_y S_x S_y S_x$ Domino's excluded subword, $W(x, y)$ must be of the form $(S_x)(S_y)(S_x)(S_y)$, where any letter in brackets can be deleted if it gives a reduced word, that is of the form $(S_x)S_y S_x(S_y)$ or $(S_x)(S_y)$. \square

5.3. Edge modification in cographs

As already mentioned, cographs are P_4 -free graphs (see Fig. 8). The split tree of a P_4 on vertices $\{x, y, a, b\}$ is formed by two adjacent star nodes, hence it is associated with the word $W = SS, S_x S_y, S_x S$ or SS_y depending on which leaves x and y correspond to. Adapting Theorem 5.1 and Corollary 5.2 leads to a similar characterization and a similar constant time algorithm, equivalent to the one given in [37] in terms of cotrees.

The characterization and algorithm for connected cographs are obtained simply by replacing, in Theorem 5.1 and Corollary 5.2, the list of possible words $W(x, y)$ and respective transformations of the split tree, by the ones given in the following table.

edge insertion \longrightarrow	
\longleftarrow edge deletion	
SK	$S_y K$
KS	KS_x
S	K

Using the transformation linking the split decomposition to the modular decomposition, one can check that the above words correspond to the cotree configurations identified in [37] that allow edge insertion or edge deletion in a cograph.

Theorem 5.8. *There exists an edge-modification fully dynamic recognition algorithm for connected cographs, maintaining the split tree, with complexity $O(1)$ per edge insertion or edge deletion.*

Proof. Let G be a cograph and x, y be two vertices of G . Since a cograph is DH, the necessary conditions of Theorem 5.1 apply to G , that is: $W(x, y)$ belongs to the lists of words provided by Theorem 5.1. Moreover the word $W(x, y)$ cannot contain $SS, S_x S, SS_y$ or $S_x S_y$ as a S -subword (otherwise, by Lemma 2.4, a P_4 would exist in G , which is a cograph: contradiction). It is straightforward to check that the only words satisfying these properties in the lists given in Theorem 5.1 are those given in the actual theorem, namely:

1. if $xy \notin E$ and $G + xy$ is a cograph, then $W(x, y)$ is either S, SK or KS ;
2. if $xy \in E$ and $G - xy$ is a cograph, then $W(x, y)$ is either $K, S_y K$ or KS_x .

The transformations of the edge-modification algorithm of cograph (see the above table) are special cases of the ones described and analysed in Corollary 5.2. So the time complexity follows. It remains to check that the transformations of the split tree, described in the above table, do not create a P_4 in the edge-modified graph.

- Assume that $W(x, y) = SK$ and that $G + xy$ has an induced P_4 (the case $W(x, y) = KS$ is symmetric). Let $\{a, b, x, y\}$ be the vertices of that P_4 . As the split tree of G is partitioned into the path $W(x, y)$ and two subtrees respectively attached to the S node (resp. K node) of $P(x, y)$ and disjoint from $P(x, y)$, the vertices a and b cannot be leaves of the same subtree. Let T_a be the subtree containing the leaf a and T_b be the subtree containing the leaf b . Let us note that since $W(x, y) = SK$, the three vertices y, a and b induce a clique and none of its edges is modified in $G + xy$, contradicting the fact that $\{a, b, x, y\}$ induces a P_4 in $G + xy$.
- Assume that $W(x, y) = S_y K$ and that $G - xy$ has an induced P_4 (the case $W(x, y) = KS_x$ is symmetric). As before let $\{a, b, x, y\}$ be the vertices of that P_4 and let T_a (resp. T_b) be the maximal tree of $ST(G) - W(x, y)$ containing the leaf a (resp. b). This again implies that $\{a, b, y\}$ induces a clique that is not modified by the removal of xy , contradicting the fact that $\{a, b, x, y\}$ induces a P_4 in $G - xy$.
- Assume $W(x, y) = S$ and thus $xy \notin E$ (resp. $W(x, y) = K$ and thus $xy \in E$), then x and y are false (resp. true) twins in G (xa is an edge if and only if ya is an edge). This remains unchanged by the insertion (resp. deletion) of xy : there is no P_4 in $G + xy$ (resp. $G - xy$) containing x and y : $G + xy$ (resp. $G - xy$) is a cograph. \square

5.4. Edge modification in 3-leaf powers

As 3-leaf power are DH, the edge insertion must satisfy the properties of the edge insertion in DH graph. As a corollary of Theorem 3.9, the split tree of a 3-leaf power graph does not contain a path of three nodes labelled successively by a star, a clique, and a star. Hence, the words $SKS_x, S_y KS, S_x KS_x, S_y KS_y$ and SKS , have to be deleted from the list of Theorem 5.1. This simplification turns out to be not sufficient, conditions on the degrees and on adjacent nodes have to be added.

The characterization and algorithm for connected 3-leaf power graphs are obtained by:

1. replacing, in Theorem 5.1 and Corollary 5.2, the list of possible words $W(x, y)$ and respective transformations of the split tree, by the ones given in the following table.

edge insertion \longrightarrow	
\longleftarrow edge deletion	
$(S_x)SK$	$(S_x)S_yK$
$KS(S_y)$	$KS_x(S_y)$
$(S_x)S$	$(S_x)K$
$S(S_y)$	$K(S_y)$

2. adding supplementary conditions on the safe words:

- If $W(x, y) \in \{(S_x)SK, (S_x)S_yK, KS(S_y), KS_x(S_y)\}$, then the letter corresponding to a star and which is not in brackets must come from a ternary star node u of $ST(G)$ such that the neighbour of u not in $P(x, y)$ is either a clique or a leaf.
- If $W(x, y) \in \{S_xS, SS_y\}$, then the node u corresponding to letter S must come from a ternary star node of $ST(G)$ such that the neighbour of u not in $P(x, y)$ is either a clique or a leaf.
- If $W(x, y) = K$, then the corresponding clique node u is either ternary and adjacent to a star node which is not oriented towards u , or is not ternary, but the unique node of $ST(G)$.

Theorem 5.9. *There exists an edge-modification fully dynamic recognition algorithm for connected 3-leaf power graphs, maintaining the split tree, with complexity $O(1)$ per edge insertion or edge deletion.*

Proof. Since a 3-leaf power graph is DH, the necessary conditions of Theorem 5.1 remain necessary for 3-leaf power graphs, that is: $W(x, y)$ is in the list of words provided by Theorem 5.1. We recall that, by Theorem 3.9, the split tree of a DH graph is the split tree of a 3-leaf graph if and only if the set of star nodes form a connected subtree and every star is oriented towards a clique or a leaf. Hence, the word $W(x, y)$ cannot contain a letter K between two letters corresponding to stars S, S_x , or S_y . It is straightforward to check that the only words satisfying these properties in the lists given in Theorem 5.1 are those given in the above table plus the associated words $(S_x)SS(S_y)$ and $(S_x)S_yS_x(S_y)$ (which are obtained from each other by respectively the insertion of xy and the deletion of xy). These latter two words cannot be considered in the list for 3-leaf power graphs, since, in $(S_x)S_yS_x(S_y)$, two star nodes are oriented towards a star, which would contradict Theorem 3.9. The transformations provided by the actual algorithm are particular cases of the ones provided in Corollary 5.2.

So it remains to check that the supplementary conditions on the degrees are necessary and sufficient to have that the graph modified by these transformations is still a 3-leaf power.

- Assume $W(x, y) = (S_x)SK$ is transformed into $(S_x)S_yK$ under the insertion of xy . Let u be the node of $P(x, y)$ which gives the letter S in $W(x, y)$. If u is not ternary, it has to be node-split into two star nodes u' and v , with node u' still belonging to $P(x, y)$ (see step 2.a in algorithm of Corollary 5.2). Then in $ST(G + xy)$, node v is made adjacent to the clique node of $P(x, y)$ (see step 2.b in algorithm of Corollary 5.2). This is in contradiction with Theorem 3.9 since that clique node neighbours two star nodes. Suppose now that the S node u is ternary in $ST(G)$ and let T_a (resp. T_b) be the maximal tree of $ST(G) - P(x, y)$ attached to u (resp. the K node of $P(x, y)$). It follows that $ST(G + xy)$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9 since T_a is a clique or a leaf, and the tree T_b a leaf.
- Assume $W(x, y) = (S_x)S_yK$ is transformed into $(S_x)SK$ under the deletion of xy . Let u be the node of $P(x, y)$ which gives the letter S_y in $W(x, y)$. As in the previous case, u has to be a ternary node. Otherwise, it has to be node-split into two star nodes u' and v , with u' still belonging to $P(x, y)$. Again by the transformation algorithm described in Corollary 5.2, the clique node of $P(x, y)$ in $ST(G - xy)$ is neighbouring two star nodes, contradicting Theorem 3.9. Finally, by Theorem 3.9, the node of $ST(G) - P(x, y)$ adjacent to u is a clique or a leaf and the node of $ST(G) - P(x, y)$ adjacent to the clique node of $P(x, y)$ is a leaf. It follows that $ST(G - xy)$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9.
- The cases $W(x, y) = KS(S_y)$ and $W(x, y) = KS_x(S_y)$ are symmetric to the previous ones.
- Assume $W(x, y) = S_xS$ is transformed into S_xK under the insertion of xy . The same arguments as above imply that the node giving letter S is ternary (and hence has its centre adjacent to a clique or a leaf), otherwise a clique would appear between two stars while inserting xy , contradicting Theorem 3.9.
- Assume $W(x, y) = S_xK$ is transformed into S_xS under the deletion of xy . Then $ST(G - xy)$ necessarily satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9 since the clique node in $P(x, y)$ is adjacent to a leaf by Theorem 3.9 condition 2.
- The cases $W(x, y) = SS_y$ and $W(x, y) = KS_y$ are symmetric to the previous ones.
- Assume $W(x, y) = S$ is transformed into K under the insertion of xy . Let u be the node of $ST(G)$ which gives the letter S in $W(x, y)$ and let v be the neighbour of u such that $\rho_u(uv)$ is the centre of the star G_u . By Theorem 3.9, v is either a clique node or a leaf. If u is a ternary node, then $G + xy$ is a clique and hence a 3-leaf power. Otherwise, u has to be node-split into two star nodes u' and v (as in the previous cases). In $ST(G + xy)$, the node u' neighbouring the leaves x and y is changed into a clique node. It follows that $ST(G + xy)$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9.
- Assume $W(x, y) = K$ is transformed into S under the deletion of xy . If the clique node u in $P(x, y)$ is not ternary, then all its neighbours in $ST(G)$ have to be leaves. Assume u neighbours a star node w . As the edge-modification algorithm splits u into two clique nodes u' and v and then change u' into a star, the clique node v would neighbour two star nodes in $ST(G - xy)$, contradicting Theorem 3.9. So assume u is ternary, then its third neighbour v distinct from x and y is a leaf or a star. If v is a star and $\rho_v(uv)$ is the centre of the star G_v , then the conditions of Theorem 3.9 are not satisfied. Otherwise, it is clear that $ST(G - xy)$ satisfies the conditions of Theorem 3.9.

Finally, we just have to check that the supplementary conditions can be tested in constant time. The fact that a node of $P(x, y)$ is ternary or not can be checked in constant time. When the node is ternary, the fact that the adjacent node not in $P(x, y)$ is a clique, or a leaf, or a star oriented towards the clique, is also constant time by checking the type of this adjacent node, and in the last case, by testing whether the centre marker vertex of the star is mapped to a tree-edge incident to a ternary node. In the last case where a clique is not ternary, testing if all other nodes of $ST(G)$ are leaves is done simply by testing if G is a clique. \square

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Appendix

For self-containment of the paper, we provide below a direct proof of [Theorem 2.9](#) in the setting of graph-labelled trees. It relies on next [Proposition A.1](#), a result already underlying in [8], somehow the converse of [Lemma 2.8](#), and providing also a proof to the well-known fact that the splits of the graph form a bipartitive family.

Proposition A.1. *Let (T, \mathcal{F}) be a reduced graph-labelled tree with prime and degenerate labels obtained by split decomposition of a connected graph $G = (V, E)$. Then every split of the graph G is the bipartition induced by removing a tree-edge of T' , where T' is obtained from (T, \mathcal{F}) by at most one node-split of a degenerate node.*

Proof. Let (A, B) be a split of G , with $V = A \uplus B$, $A' \subseteq A$, $B' \subseteq B$, and all edges between A and B having their extremities in A' and B' . We consider V as the set of leaves of T . For a node N of T and a vertex v of the label $G_N \in \mathcal{F}$ of N , we say that v is A' -accessible, resp. B' -accessible, if there exists $u \in A'$, resp. $u \in B'$, such that N is u -accessible and v is the marker vertex of G_N associated with the tree-edge of T in the path from N to u .

First, we prove the following assertion: if N is a node of T with label G_N and three vertices u, v, w of G_N are such that u is both A' -accessible and B' -accessible, $v \neq u$ is A' -accessible and $w \neq u$ is B' -accessible, then N is a clique and every vertex of G_N is either A' -accessible or B' -accessible. We can assume $v \neq w$. Indeed, if $v = w$, then let x be a vertex of G_N adjacent to u or $v = w$ (it exists by connectivity [Lemma 2.3](#)). By [Lemma 2.4](#), there exists a leaf x' of T such that N is x' -accessible and x is associated with the tree-edge of T in the path between N and x' in T . Then x' is adjacent to a vertex in A' and a vertex in B' , hence it belongs to $A' \cup B'$, hence x is A' -accessible or B' -accessible. So we can change v or w into x , and we assume now that $v \neq w$ in the above hypothesis. Since $V = A \uplus B$ is a split of G , there is an edge in G_N between every A' -accessible vertex of G_N and every B' -accessible vertex of G_N . Assume there exist a vertex y of G_N which is not A' -accessible nor B' -accessible. By [Lemma 2.4](#), there exists a leaf z of T such that N is z -accessible and y is associated with the tree-edge of T in the path between N and z in T . Such a leaf z belongs either to $A \setminus A'$ or to $B \setminus B'$, otherwise there would be an edge between y and u in G_N and z would be adjacent to a vertex in A' and to a vertex in B' , hence it would belong to $A' \cup B'$ and y would be A' -accessible or B' -accessible. Assume for example that z belongs to $A \setminus A'$. Then the vertex y cannot be adjacent to a B' -accessible vertex in G_N . Then we consider the bipartition of vertices of G_N into (1) all A' -accessible vertices except u , plus the vertex y , plus all other vertices which are not A' -accessible nor B' -accessible and not adjacent to a B' -accessible vertex in G_N , and (2) all B' -accessible vertices including u , plus other vertices which are not A' -accessible nor B' -accessible and not adjacent to a A' -accessible vertex in G_N . The two parts of this bipartition have at least two elements, and thus it forms a split of G_N . This implies G_N is degenerate, hence it is a clique since it contains a K_3 . And this implies that a vertex y which is not A' -accessible nor B' -accessible does not exist.

Now consider the subtrees $T[A']$ and $T[B']$ of T spanned respectively by A' and B' . We prove the assertion: $T[A']$ and $T[B']$ have at most one common node. Assume that these two subtrees have at least two common nodes of T . Then they have a common path of T , and then they have a common tree-edge e and two adjacent common nodes R and S , which are the extremities of e . For each of these nodes, by definition of $T[A']$ and $T[B']$, there exists a leaf in A' and a leaf in B' such that the path from the node to the leaf does not contain e . Since all leaves in A' are accessible from all leaves in B' , each node R and S has an A' -accessible vertex and a B' -accessible vertex, not associated with e . That is: both R and S satisfy the hypothesis of the previous assertion. Hence both R and S are cliques, a contradiction with the fact that the graph-labelled tree is reduced.

So, there are two possible cases: either (1) there exists a tree-edge e of T such that all leaves in A' are in one connected component of $T - e$, and all leaves in B' are in the other connected component, or (2) there exists a node N such that the connected components of $T - N$ contain either leaves in A' or leaves in B' but not both, and at least two connected components contain leaves in A' resp. B' (otherwise a tree-edge would satisfy the case 1 property).

In the first case, we denote N_A , resp. N_B the extremity of the tree-edge e on the side of A' , resp. B' , vertices. If the bipartition of V induced by $T - e$ is $V = A \uplus B$, then we have the result. Otherwise, there exists for example a leaf a in A in the connected component of $T - e$ containing leaves in B' . Consider the accessibility graph H of this connected component, where the marker vertex associated with e in N_B is a vertex v_e . Since H does not contain vertices in A' , a vertex in A is adjacent in H either to v_e or to another vertex belonging to A . Hence v_e is an articulation vertex of H , such that each connected component of $H - v_e$ has its set of vertices included in $A \setminus A'$ or in B . Then the vertex v_e of N_B is an articulation vertex of its label. Indeed, say

that a vertex $v \neq v_e$ is A -accessible, resp. B -accessible, if there exists a leaf $w \in A$, resp. $w \in B$, such that N_B is w -accessible and v is associated to the path between N_B and w . Then the vertices of $N_B - v_e$ are either A -accessible or B -accessible, maybe both, but these two sets are not empty and a A -accessible vertex is not adjacent to a B -accessible vertex. Since the label of N_B has an articulation vertex, it has obviously a split, hence it is degenerate, and it is not a clique, hence it is a star. Then a vertex v of $N_B - v_e$ is either A -accessible or B -accessible, but not both. Otherwise the node at the other extremity of the tree-edge associated with v would have the same property as N_B in terms of articulation vertex, hence it would be a star also, which would be a contradiction with the fact that the graph-labelled tree is reduced. Now, there cannot be a leaf b in B in the connected component of $T - e$ containing leaves in A' , otherwise N_A would also be a star and there would be an edge between a vertex of $A \setminus A'$ and a vertex of $B \setminus B'$. So, finally, splitting the node N_B into v_e plus the A -accessible vertices on one hand, and the B -accessible vertices on the other hand, creates a tree-edge e which separates the leaves of the tree into A and B .

In the second case, since there is an edge in G between every vertex in A' and every vertex in B' , then every marker vertex in the label of N is either A' -accessible or B' -accessible, but not both. Hence there is a split in N formed by A' -accessible and B' -accessible vertices. Hence N is a clique node. Assume a leaf $a \in A$ is in a connected component of $T - N$ containing vertices in B' . Then $a \notin A'$. Let v be the marker vertex of N associated with the tree-edge of T adjacent to this connected component. Then v has to be A -accessible. Otherwise, the accessibility graph of the connected component would not be connected, contradicting Lemma 2.3. Since there are at least two connected components of $T - N$ containing vertices in B' , and since N is a clique, then there is an edge between a vertex in $A \setminus A'$ and a vertex in B' , which is a contradiction. So the connected components of $T - N$ contain either leaves in A or leaves in B but not both. And, finally, splitting the node N respectively with this partition creates a tree-edge e which separates the leaves of the tree into A and B . \square

Proof of Theorem 2.9. With Proposition A.1, the list of splits of the graph determines the list of partitions of leaves of the tree induced by tree-edge or node removals. It is an easy combinatorial property that this list determines completely the tree. Then the labels are necessarily determined by the graph structure. So, the whole graph-labelled tree is uniquely determined by the graph. \square

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