

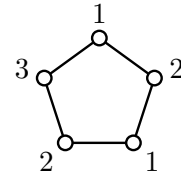
COLOURINGS

Reading: B&M 14.1,7 (vert. col.); 10.1-3 & 11.1-2 (planar).

- k -colouring: $c : V(G) \rightarrow S, |S| = k$ (often $S = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$).
- proper colouring: no two adjacent vertices get same colour. **Often ‘proper’ implicit when we talk about colourings.**
- k -colourable: has proper k -colouring.
- chromatic number $\chi(G)$: smallest k for which G is k -colourable; k -chromatic means $\chi(G) = k$.

Example:

vertices \leftrightarrow meetings
 edges \leftrightarrow conflicts
 colouring \leftrightarrow schedule

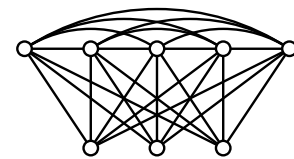


C_5 has proper 3-colouring, no proper 2-colouring,
 so $\chi = 3$.

Assume: All graphs simple for vertex-colourings. **If loop, no proper colouring. Parallel edges make no difference.**

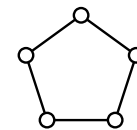
Inequalities: (X1) Each colour forms an independent set, so $\chi(G) \geq \lceil n/\alpha(G) \rceil$.

$$K_5 \vee \overline{K_3}: \\ \chi = 6 > \lceil n/\alpha \rceil = \\ \lceil 8/3 \rceil = 3 \\ \chi = 6 = \omega$$



(X2) $\omega(G)$ = size of largest clique (**complete sub-graph**): $\chi(G) \geq \omega(G)$.

$$C_5: \\ \chi = 3 = \lceil n/\alpha \rceil = \\ \lceil 5/2 \rceil \\ \chi = 3 > \omega = 2$$



Both of these can be tight, or not.

Greedy colouring: Colours 1, 2, ...

- given ordering v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n of vertices
- for $i = 1$ to n {
- $c(v_i) =$ smallest colour not already used on a neighbour of v_i
- }

Usually uses more than χ colours. **Finding χ is NP-hard.**

(X3) $c(v) \leq (\# \text{ previously coloured neighbors of } v) + 1 \forall v$, so uses $\leq \Delta + 1$ colours. Hence $\chi \leq \Delta + 1$. **Sometimes tight, almost always not.**

Brooks’ Theorem: If G is connected and not an odd cycle or complete then $\chi(G) \leq \Delta(G)$.

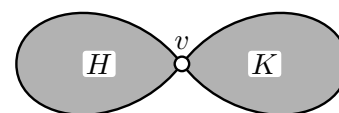
Sketch of proof: **Won’t provide full details. Idea is to order vertices carefully, use greedy colouring.** Let $\Delta = \Delta(G)$.

(1) $\Delta \leq 2$. G is path with ≥ 2 edges or even cycle so $\chi = \Delta = 2$.

(2) G is not regular. Choose v with $d(v) < \Delta$. Grow spanning tree T from root v (**Local TCM**), adding vertices $v = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$. Apply greedy colouring in reverse order v_n, v_{n-1}, \dots, v_1 .

- When colour $u \neq v$, has parent in T that comes later. So $c(u) \leq d(u) \leq \Delta$.
- And $c(v) \leq d(v) + 1 \leq \Delta$.

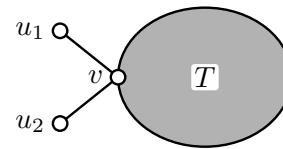
(3) G is k -regular, $k \geq 3$, with cutvertex v . Δ -colour H, K by (2) **since not regular**. Permute colours on K so $c_H(v) = c_K(v)$ and combine c_H, c_K .



(4) G is k -regular, $k \geq 3$, and 2-connected.

Will find spanning tree as shown, then:

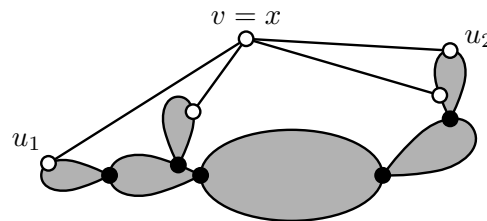
- $c(u_1) = c(u_2) = 1$,
- colour T towards v as in (2),
- $c(v) \leq d(v)$ since u_1, u_2 same colour.



To find tree: Choose any x ; since $G \neq K_n$, $d(x) = k \leq n - 2$.

If $\kappa(G - x) \geq 2$ take $u_1 = x$ and any path $u_1 v u_2$; build T from v in $G - \{u_1 = x, u_2\}$.

If $\kappa(G - x) = 1$ then x has a neighbour in each leaf block of $G - x$; take u_1, u_2 as neighbours in two such blocks and build tree from $v = x$ in $G - \{u_1, u_2\}$. Use $d(v) = k \geq 3$. ■



Chromatic polynomials

Assume: all graphs simple again back to vertex-colouring.

Idea: as one approach to 4CT, Birkhoff thought of counting k -colourings of a graph, idea developed by Whitney and Tutte.

◦ $P(G, k) = \#$ of proper k -colourings of G with colours $1, 2, \dots, k$.

Example:

- $P(P_3, 1) = 0$,
- $P(P_3, 2) = 2$,
- $P(P_3, 3) = 12$.

- $P(K_n, k) = k(k - 1)(k - 2) \dots (k - n + 1) = P(k, n) = {}^k P_n = (k)_n$.
- $P(\overline{K}_n, k) = k^n$.
- $P(T, k) = k(k - 1)^n$ for any tree T – colour outward from arbitrary root. Hence $P(P_3, k) = k(k - 1)^2$.
- If G_1, G_2 vertex-disjoint, $P(G_1 \cup G_2, k) = P(G_1, k)P(G_2, k)$.

Expansion formula: If $xy \notin E(G)$, $P(G, k) = P(G + xy, k) + P(G_{x=y}, k)$ (E).

First term is colourings where $c(x) \neq c(y)$, second term colourings where $c(x) = c(y)$.

$G_{x=y} = G/\{x, y\}$: identify x, y into single vertex.

Example: Represent $P(G, k)$ by just (G) :

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph with 4 vertices } x, y \text{ and 5 edges} \end{array} \right) &= \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph with 4 vertices } x, y \text{ and 6 edges} \end{array} \right) + \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{graph with 3 vertices } x=y \text{ and 4 edges} \end{array} \right) \\ &= (K_4) + (K_3) = k(k - 1)(k - 2)(k - 3) + k(k - 1)(k - 2) \\ &= k(k - 1)(k - 2)(k - 3 + 1) = k(k - 1)(k - 2)^2 \\ &= k^4 - 5k^3 + 8k^2 - 4k. \end{aligned}$$

Observation X5: By repeated use of (E) can express any $P(G, k)$ as sum of $P(K_t, k)$'s. Therefore $P(G, k)$ is a polynomial in k , chromatic polynomial of G . Can also show has degree n , coefficients alternate in sign, and is monic (leading coefficient is 1).

However, computing $P(G, k)$ is NP-hard, since if can find it, can determine $\chi(G) =$ first k with $P(G, k) > 0$. Formula (E) gives exponential time algorithm.

Can turn formula (E) around.

Deletion-contraction formula: Suppose $xy \in E(G)$. Let $H = G \setminus xy$ using \setminus for deletion rather than usual $-$, standard when talking about deletion and contraction together, then

$$\begin{aligned} P(H, k) &= P(H + xy, k) + P(H_{x=y}, k), \\ \text{i.e., } P(G \setminus xy) &= P(G, k) + P(G/xy), \\ \text{so that } P(G, k) &= P(G \setminus xy, k) - P(G/xy, k) \quad (\text{DC}). \end{aligned}$$

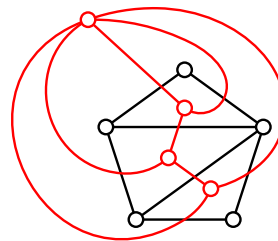
Example: (P_3) again:

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\begin{array}{cc} x_1 & y_1 \\ \circ & \text{---} & \circ \end{array} \right) &= \left(\begin{array}{cc} x_2 & y_2 \\ \circ & \text{---} & \circ \end{array} \right) - \left(\begin{array}{cc} x_3 & y_3 \\ \circ & \text{---} & \circ \end{array} \right) \\ &= [(\circ \ \circ \ \circ) - (\circ \ \circ)] - [(\circ \ \circ) - (\circ)] \\ &= (\circ \ \circ \ \circ) - 2(\circ \ \circ) + (\circ) \\ &= k^3 - 2k^2 + k = k(k-1)^2 \quad \text{as before.} \end{aligned}$$

Using (DC) can reduce any graph to edgeless graphs and compute $P(G, k)$ that way, gives another proof that it's a polynomial. Typically use (E) for dense graphs and (DC) for sparse graphs.

Planar graphs and the Four Colour Problem

Recall: graph planar if can be drawn in plane without edge crossings. Not all graphs planar, e.g., can show $K_5, K_{3,3}$ not planar.



Graph G
Dual G^*

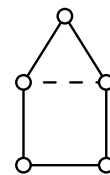
Four Colour Problem (Francis Guthrie, 1852): Can we colour maps (plane graphs) so that faces different colours if share an edge? Transform to vertex-colouring by *duality*.

Before discussing colourings need another fundamental result.

Euler's formula: Let G be a *plane graph* (specific crossing-free drawing of planar graph) with r *faces* (regions determined by graph, including outside). If G is connected then $n - m + r = 2$.

Proof: By induction on m for fixed n . The smallest m is $m = n - 1$ when G is a tree; then $r = 1$ and the result holds.

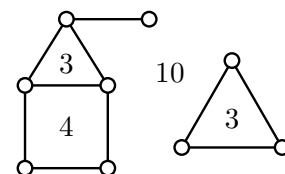
So suppose result true for graphs with fewer edges than G , which is not a tree. So G has an edge e not a cutedge. Let $G' = G - e$, then $n' = n$, $m' = m - 1$ and since e is not a cutedge, $r' = r - 1$. G' is connected, so by induction $2 = n' - m' + r' = n - (m - 1) + (r - 1) = n - m + r$. ■



$$\begin{aligned} n = 5, m = 6, r = 3 \\ \rightarrow \\ n' = 5, m' = 5, r' = 2 \end{aligned}$$

- degree $d(f)$ of face f = total length of all boundary walks.
- $F(G)$ = set of faces of G .

Face Degree-Sum Formula: $\sum_{f \in F(G)} d(f) = 2m$. Every face has two sides (as well as two ends!) Or apply Degree-Sum Formula to dual.



Putting Euler's formula and Face Degree-Sum Formula together gives very useful result (for colourings and other things).

Theorem. Let G be a simple planar graph with $n \geq 3$. Then $m \leq 3n - 6$.

Proof: First suppose G is connected and has plane embedding. Because G is simple and $n \geq 3$, $d(f) \geq 3$ for all $f \in F(G)$. So

$$2m = \sum_{f \in F(G)} d(f) \geq 3|F(G)| = 3r \quad \text{so} \quad r \leq 2m/3.$$

By Euler's Formula,

$$2 = n - m + r \leq n - m + 2m/3 = n - m/3 \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad m \leq 3n - 6.$$

If G is disconnected add edges to get connected simple planar G' , then $m \leq m' \leq 3n' - 6 = 3n - 6$. ■

Corollary. K_5 is not planar. ($m = 10 \not\leq 3n - 6 = 9$.)

Corollary. (a) The average degree of a simple planar graph is less than 6. True if $n \leq 2$, and if $n \geq 3$ then, by **regular** Degree-Sum Formula, $d(G) = 2m/n \leq 2(3n - 6)/n < 6$.

(b) Thus, a planar graph G must have a vertex of degree at most 5.

Now can say something about colourings.

Observation: Every planar graph is 6-colourable. Remove v of degree ≤ 5 , 6-colour $G - v$ by induction, add v back. Or can think of repeatedly removing vertices of degree 5, then applying greedy colouring in reverse order of removal.

Five Colour Theorem. Every planar graph G is 5-colourable.

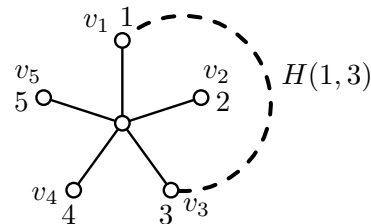
Proof: By induction on n . Use plane drawing of G .

- If $n \leq 5$ result is true.
- Suppose $n \geq 6$ and result is true for graphs with fewer vertices than G . Let v have degree ≤ 5 in G and 5-colour $G' = G - v$ by induction.

If ≤ 4 colours used on $N(v)$ can colour v too. So $d(v) = 5$ and each v_i is different colour i . Let $H(i, j)$ be subgraph induced by vertices of colours i and j . **Kempe chain.**

If v_1, v_3 in different components of $H(1, 3)$, switch $1 \leftrightarrow 3$ in v_3 's component, colour v with 3.

So v_1, v_3 in same component of $H(1, 3)$. But then v_2 and v_4 must be in different components of $H(2, 4)$, since components of $H(1, 3)$ and $H(2, 4)$ can't cross. Switch $2 \leftrightarrow 4$ in v_4 's component, colour v with 4. ■



Four Colour Theorem (Appel and Haken, 1976): Every planar graph G is 4-colourable. **Proof complicated, computer checking of hundreds of cases.**