

Module V

Graph Representation and Vertex colouring.

- Matrix representation of graphs
- Adjacency Matrix
- Incidence matrix
- Circuit Matrix
- Path Matrix
- Coloring
 - chromatic number
 - chromatic polynomial
 - Matchings
 - Coverings
 - Four colour Problem
 - Five colour Problem
 - Greedy colouring algorithm.

Matrix representation of Graphs

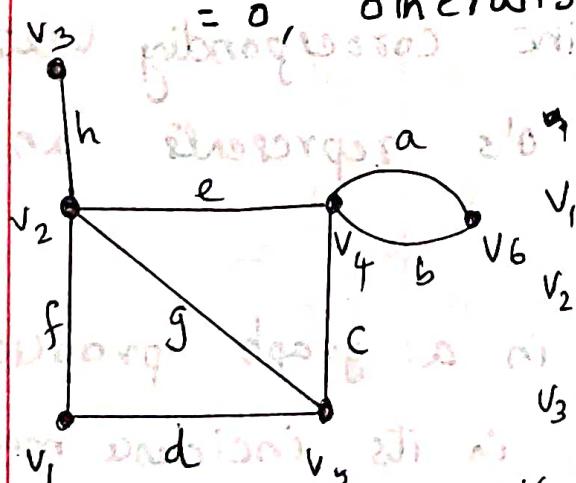
(a) If G is a graph $A(G)$

Incidence Matrix: [vertex-edge incidence matrix]

Let G be a graph with n vertices and e edges and no self loops. Define an n by e matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_n$ whose n rows corresponds to the n vertices and the e columns corresponds to the e edges as follows:

The matrix element,

$a_{ij} = 1$, if j^{th} edge e_j is incident on i^{th} vertex v_i
 $= 0$, otherwise



| | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h |
|----------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| v ₁ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| v ₂ | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| v ₃ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| v ₄ | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| v ₅ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| v ₆ | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

(P) A vertex

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(Q) A vertex

The incidence matrix of G is

written as $A(G)$.

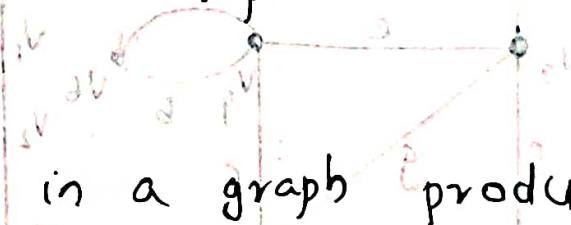
Note:

The incidence matrix contains only two elements 0 and 1. Such a matrix is called binary matrix or $(0,1)$ -matrix.

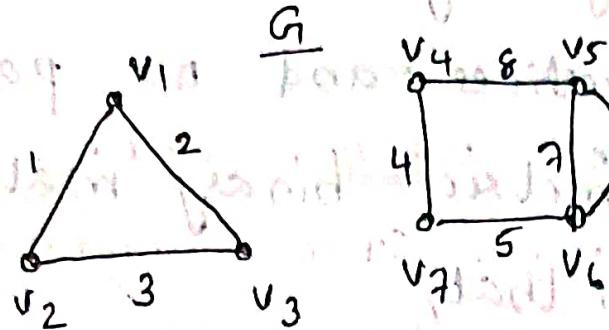
Remarks:

- Since every edge is incident on exactly two vertices, each column of A has exactly two 1's.
- The number of 1's in each row equals the degree of the corresponding vertex.
- A row with all 0's represents an isolated vertex.
- Parallel edges in a graph produces identical columns in its incidence matrix.
- If a graph G is disconnected and consists of two components g_1 and g_2 , $A(G)$ can be written in a block-diagonal form

$$A(G) = \begin{bmatrix} A(g_1) & 0 \\ 0 & A(g_2) \end{bmatrix} \text{ where } A(g_1)$$



and $A(g_2)$ are the incidence matrices of components g_1 and g_2 .



$$G = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ \hline v_1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline v_2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline v_3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline v_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline v_5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline v_6 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \hline v_7 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline v_8 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$A(G) = \begin{bmatrix} A(g_1) & 0 \\ 0 & A(g_2) \end{bmatrix} X$$

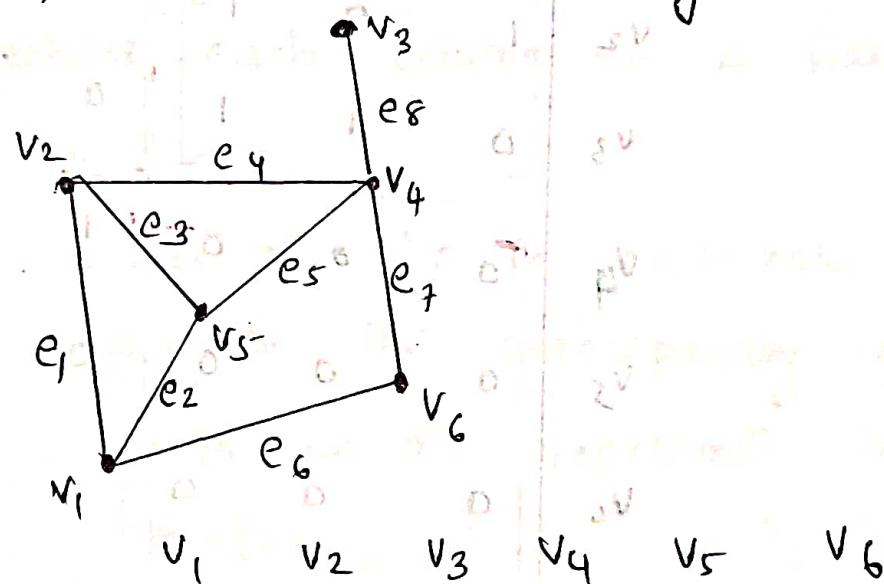
Adjacency Matrix $X(G)$

The adjacency matrix of a graph G with n vertices and no parallel edges is an $n \times n$ symmetric binary matrix.

$X = [x_{ij}]$ such that,

$x_{ij} = 1$, if there is an edge between i^{th} and j^{th} vertices
 $= 0$, if there is no edge between them.

E.g.



$$X = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ v_2 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ v_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ v_4 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ v_5 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ v_6 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Remarks:

(a) A \Rightarrow Nondiagonal

- The entries along the principal diagonal of P(ithed matrix) X are all 0's if and only if the graph has no self loops.
- The adjacency matrix has no provision for parallel edges.
- If the graph has no self loops the degree of a vertex equals the number

(b) \Rightarrow Nondiagonal in the corresponding row or column of X .

- A graph G is disconnected and its two components g_1 and g_2 iff its adjacency matrix $X(G)$ can be

partitioned as $X(G) = \begin{bmatrix} X(g_1) & 0 \\ 0 & X(g_2) \end{bmatrix}$

i.e., $X(g_1)$ & $X(g_2)$ are adjacency matrices

of g_1 & g_2 respectively.

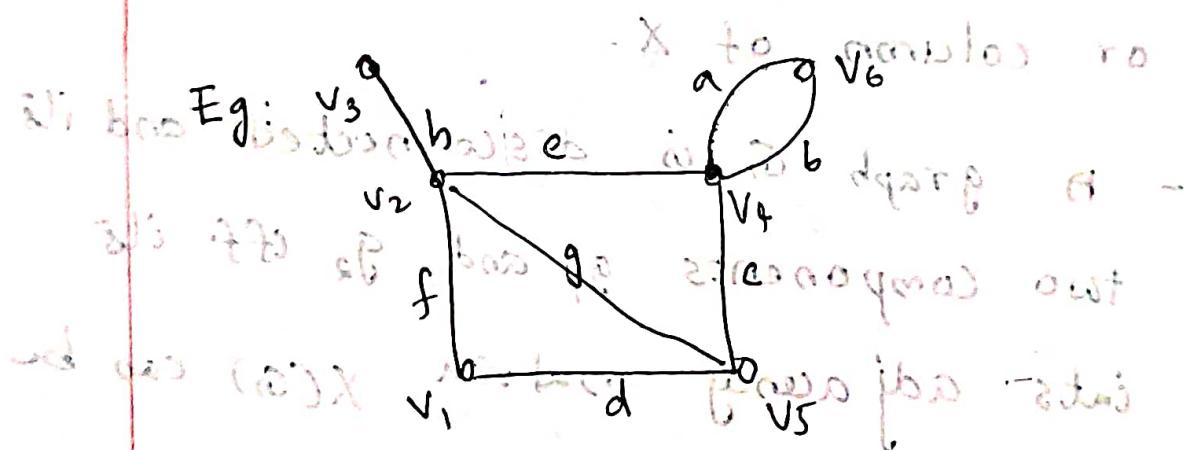
Example - (i) If A is in red dimension following

Circuit Matrix $B(G)$

(2) ~~dermat~~

Loops & bridges help in finding number of different loops in a graph G being equal to the number of edges in G between them. Then the a following circuit matrix $B = [b_{ij}]$ of G is a q by e , (0,1)-matrix defined as $b_{ij} = 1$ if i th circuit includes j th edge and $b_{ij} = 0$, otherwise.

Circuit matrix is denoted as $B(G)$.



The above graph has 4 different circuits: $\{a, b\}$, $\{c, d, g\}$, $\{e, f, g\}$ and $\{c, d, f, e\}$.
 Circuit matrix is a 4 by 8 (0,1)-matrix given by

| | a | b | c | d | e | f | g | h |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

Remarks: $B(G)$ has [1, 1] as first row.

In $B(G)$, if all columns of $B(G)$ have all zeros, then G has no circuits.

Each row of $B(G)$ is a circuit-vector.

Each row of $B(G)$ is a circuit-vector.

Each row of $B(G)$ is a circuit-vector.

If G is disconnected, then $B(G)$ can be written as

$$\begin{bmatrix} B(g_1) & 0 \\ 0 & B(g_2) \end{bmatrix}$$

where $B(g_1)$ & $B(g_2)$ are circuit-matrices of G_1 & G_2 .

Path Matrix

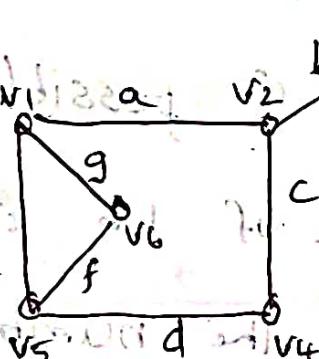
A path matrix is defined for a specific pair of vertices in a graph say (x, y) , and is written as $P(x, y)$. a_{ij} the path matrix for (x, y) vertices is $P(x, y) = [P_{ij}]$ where,

$$P_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j^{\text{th}} \text{ edge lies in } i^{\text{th}} \text{ path and} \\ & \text{is oriented towards } y \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\text{out}(v_i)$

Consider all paths between v_1 & v_3 .

Eg:



There are 3 different paths between v_1 & v_3 :

$\{a, b\}, \{e, d, c, b\}, \{g, f, d, c, b\}$

Thus we get the following 3×3 path matrix.

This is a path matrix called $P(v_1, v_3)$

$$P(v_1, v_3) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Now (v_1, v_3) & (v_3, v_1) need to be considered.

v_1, v_3 to consider

Remarks:

- A column of all 0's corresponds to or an edge that does not lie in any simple paths between x & y .
- A column of all 1's corresponds to an edge that lies in every path between x and y .
- There is no row with all 0's.
- The ring sum of any two rows corresponds to a circuit or as edge disjoint union of circuits.

Coloring (proper coloring)

Painting all the vertices of a graph with colors such that no two adjacent vertices have the same colour is called the proper coloring of a graph.

A graph in which every vertex has been assigned a color according to a proper coloring is called a properly coloured graph.

Chromatic number of a graph $\chi(G)$

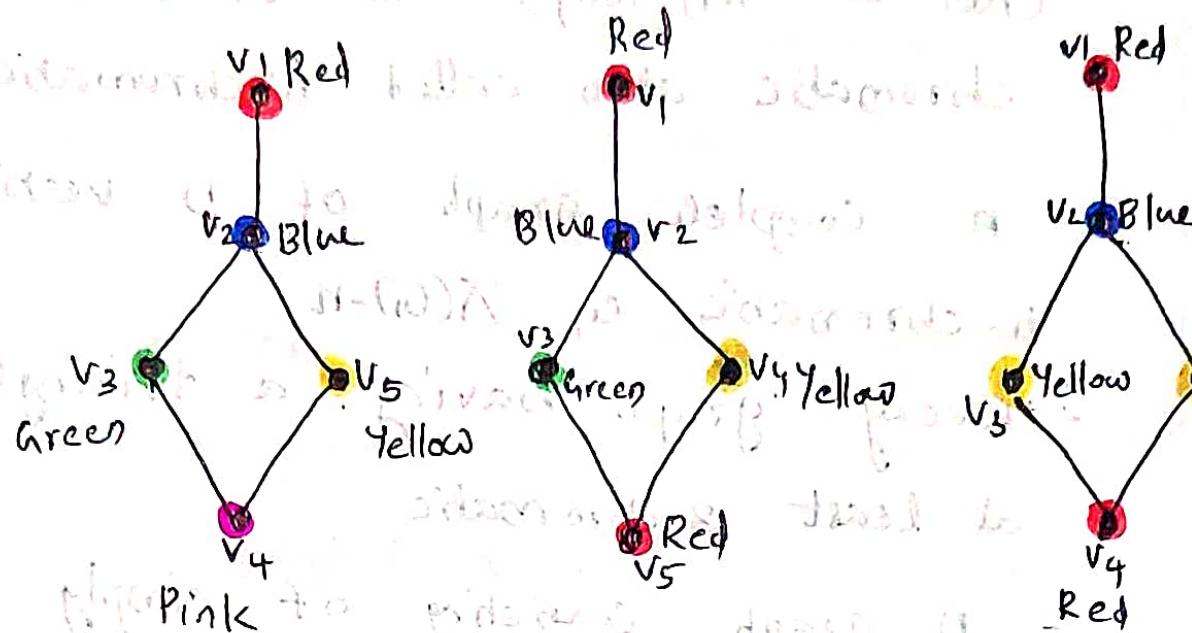
A graph that requires k different colours for its proper coloring and no less is called a k -chromatic graph $\chi(G)$ and the number k is called the chromatic number of the graph G .

Remarks:

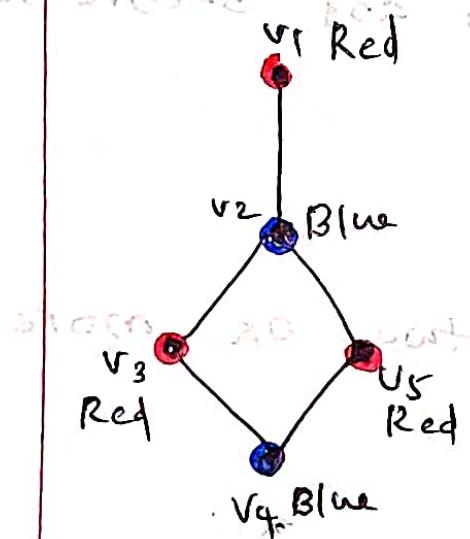
- A graph consisting of only isolated vertices is 1-chromatic

- A graph with one or more edges (not a self-loop) is at least 2-chromatic also called bichromatic.
- A complete graph of n vertices is n -chromatic i.e., $\chi(G)=n$.
- Every graph having a triangle is at least 3-chromatic.
- A graph consisting of simply one circuit with $n \geq 3$ vertices is 2-chromatic if n is even and 3-chromatic if n is odd.

Example



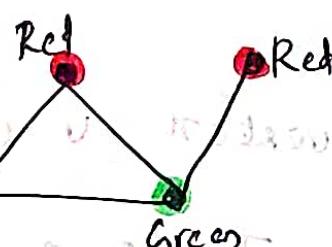
Different proper colouring of a graph G



→ 2-chromatic graph

- chromatic number 2

$$\chi(G) = 2$$



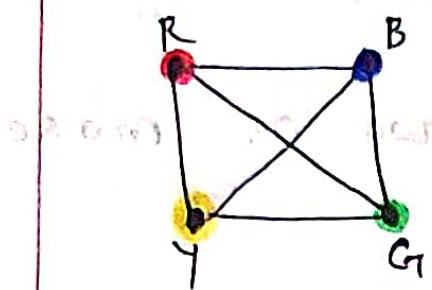
- 3-chromatic graph

$$\chi(G) = 3$$

1-chromatic → isolated vertices

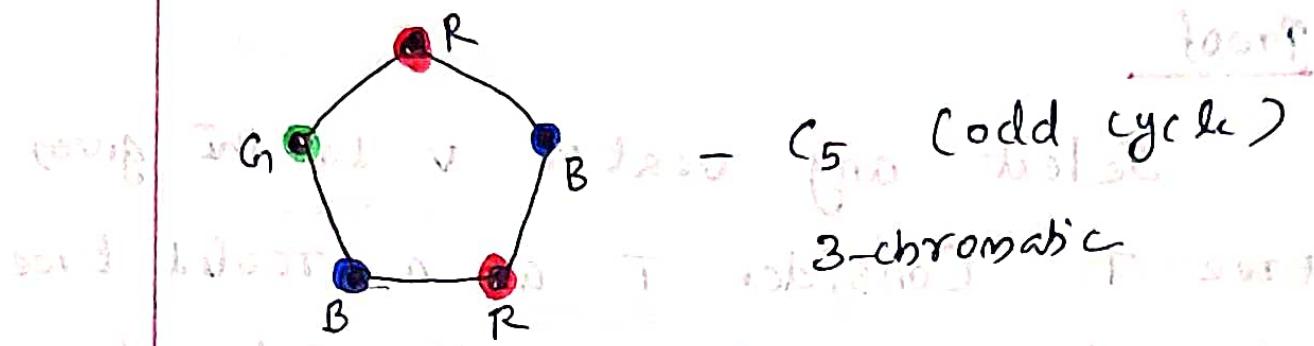


→ 0-chromatic (isolated vertices)



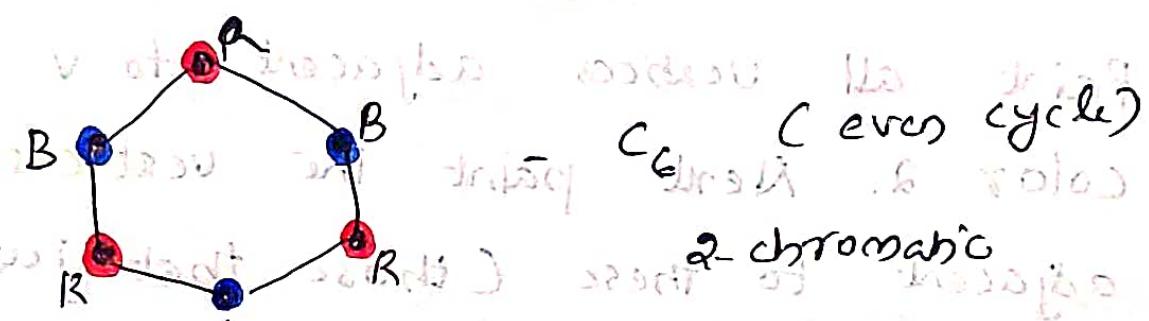
K_4 - 4-chromatic.

$$\chi(G) = 4$$



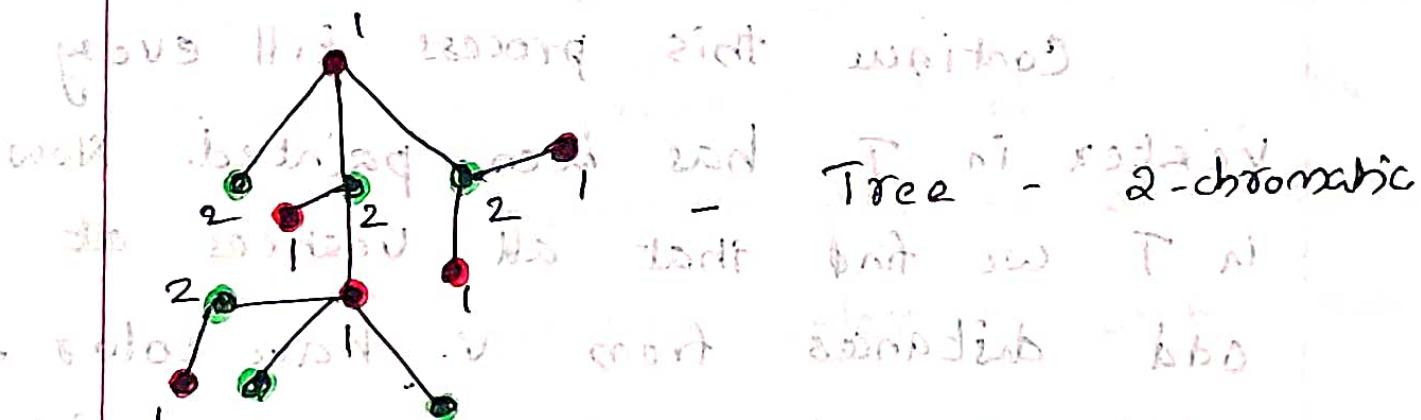
C_5 (odd cycle)

3-chromatic

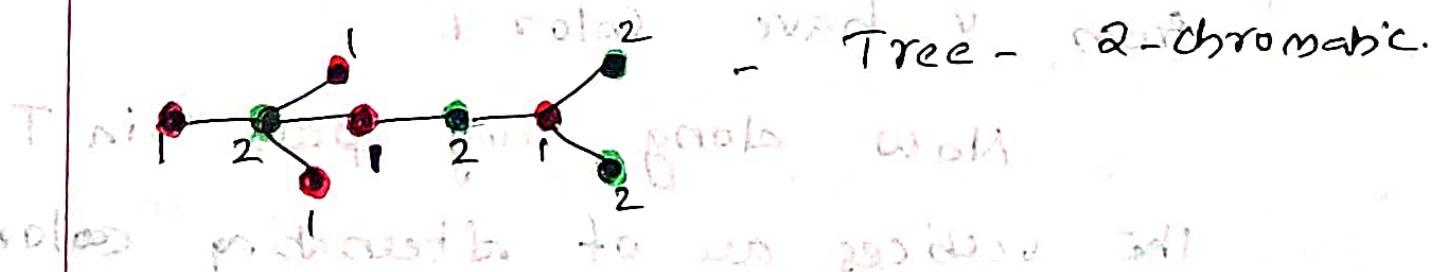


C_6 (even cycle)

2-chromatic



Tree - 2-chromatic



Tree - 2-chromatic.

Theorem

Every tree with two or more vertices is 2-chromatic.



Proof

Select any vertex v in the given tree T . Consider T as a rooted tree at vertex v . Paint v with color 1. Paint all vertices adjacent to v with color 2. Next paint the vertices adjacent to these (those that just have been coloured with 2) using color 1.

Continue this process till every vertex in T has been painted. Now in T we find that all vertices at odd distances from v have color 2 while v and vertices at even distances from v have color 1.

Now along any path in T the vertices are of alternating colors.

Since there is only one path between any two vertices in a tree, no two adjacent vertices have the same color. Thus T has been properly colored with two colors.

Theorem ~~base theorem~~ ~~base theorem~~ ~~base theorem~~
A digraph with at least one edge is 2-chromatic iff it has no circuits of odd length.

Proof

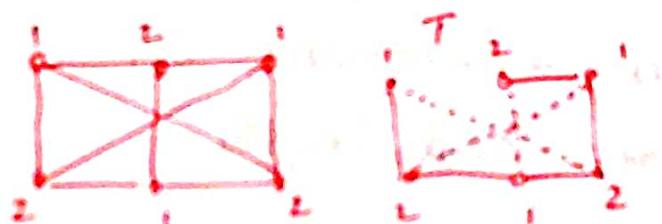
Let G be a digraph with circuits of only even lengths. Consider a spanning tree T with G . Using the colouring procedure and by above theorem let us properly color T with two colours.

Now add the chords to T one by one. Since G had no circuit of odd length the end vertices of every chord are being replaced and differently.

coloured in T_1 . Thus G is colored with two colors with no adjacent vertices have the same color.

That is G is 2-chromatic.

Conversely, if G has circuits of odd length we would need at least three colors just for that a circuit. Hence the theorem.



Theorem

If d_{\max} is the maximum degree of the vertices in a graph G

$$\text{chromatic number of } G \leq 1 + d_{\max}.$$



Notes

- Every 2-chromatic graph is bipartite.
- Every bipartite graph is 2-chromatic except the graph with 2 or more isolated vertices and with no-edge which is bipartite but 1-chromatic.

Chromatic Polynomial $P_n(\lambda)$, $P_G(\lambda)$

A given graph G of n vertices can be properly coloured in many different ways using a sufficiently large number of colours. This property of a graph is expressed by means of a polynomial. This polynomial is called the chromatic polynomial of G .

The value of the chromatic polynomial $P_n(\lambda)$ of a graph with n vertices gives

the number of ways of properly coloring the graph using λ or fewer colors.

Let c_i be the ways of properly coloring G using exactly i different colors. Since i colors can be chosen

out of λ colors in $\binom{\lambda}{i}$ different ways

there are $c_i \binom{\lambda}{i}$ different ways of properly coloring G using exactly i colors out of λ colors. A

since c_i can be any integer from 0 to n , the chromatic polynomial is the sum of these terms.

$$(i) P_n(\lambda) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i \binom{\lambda}{i} = P_G(\lambda)$$

Expanding $\binom{\lambda}{i}$ we get different terms in

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(\lambda) &= c_0 \lambda + c_1 \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)}{2!} + c_2 \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)}{3!} + \\ &\dots + c_n \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)\dots(\lambda-n+1)}{n!} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem

A graph of n vertices is complete iff its chromatic polynomial

$$(i) P_n(\lambda) = \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)\dots(\lambda-n+1)$$

proof we can choose λ such that

with λ colors, there are λ different ways of coloring selected vertex

of a graph. A second vertex can be colored

A third vertex can be colored

properly in exactly $\lambda - 1$ ways the third in $\lambda - 2$ ways the fourth in $\lambda - 3$ ways ... and the n th in $\lambda - (n-1)$ ways (if every vertex is adjacent to every other. i.e., if and only if the graph is complete.)

Theorem

A graph of n vertices is a tree if and only if its chromatic polynomial is

$$P_n(\lambda) = \lambda (\lambda - 1)^{n-1}.$$

Proof

Proof is by induction on number of vertices let $n=1$, i.e., an isolated vertex

then clearly the graph can be coloured in λ ways with λ colors.

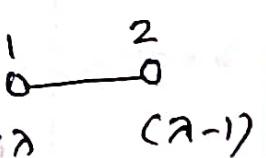
$$\therefore P_1(\lambda) = \lambda = \lambda (\lambda - 1)^{1-1}$$

when $n=2$,

$$P_2(\lambda) = \lambda (\lambda - 1)$$

$$\text{as bases are } \lambda \text{ and } \lambda (\lambda - 1)^{2-1}$$

This proves the theorem for $n=1$ & 2 .



Now assume the theorem holds for

$n=k$ vertices. Suppose $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

then $\forall \lambda \in \mathbb{N}, P_n(\lambda) = \lambda(\lambda-1)^{k-1}$.

We will prove that the theorem is

true for $k+1$ vertices.

Consider a tree with $k+1$ vertices

Every tree with $n \geq 2$ has minimum

2 pendant vertices to dispose it

is balanced balanced as it is the tree

Remove one of the pendant vertex

then we left with a tree with

to $n-1$ vertices. Then by hypothesis

$P_{n-1}(\lambda) = \lambda(\lambda-1)^{k-1}$

it follows after coloring all vertices in

$\lambda(\lambda-1)^{k-1}$ ways attach the pendant vertex

Then the pendant vertex can be coloured in $(\lambda-1)$ ways

Hence all vertices can be coloured in

$\lambda(\lambda-1)^{k-1}(\lambda-1)$ ways in tree with $k+1$ vertices.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{To prove } P_{k+1} & \quad P_k \text{ is true.} \\
 P_k & = \lambda (\lambda-1)^{k-1} (\lambda-1) \dots (\lambda-k+1) \\
 & = \lambda (\lambda-1)^k (\lambda-1) \dots (\lambda-(k+1)+1) \\
 & = \lambda (\lambda-1)^{(k+1)-1} \quad (\text{remove})
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the theorem holds for a tree with $k+1$ vertices also.

So by induction theorem it is proved.

Example follows with proof

Note:

- A graph with n vertices and using n different colors can be properly colored in $n!^{(1-n)R}$ ways.

$P(1-n)R =$
 - Suppose G is a graph with 2 vertices.
 2 minimum colours needed



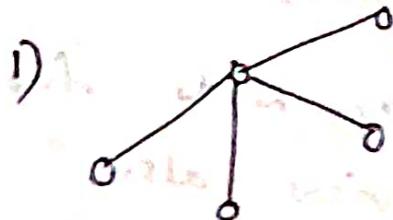
for proper colouring. $\therefore c_1 = 0$.

(c_i - no. of ways graph can be colored using i colors)

Triangle

requires minimum 3 colours
 $\therefore c_1 = 0, c_2 = 0 \text{ &} c_3 = 3!$

① Find the chromatic polynomial of the following graph.



It is a tree with 5 vertices.

Hence the chromatic polynomial is,

$$P_5(\lambda) = \lambda(\lambda-1)^{5-1}$$

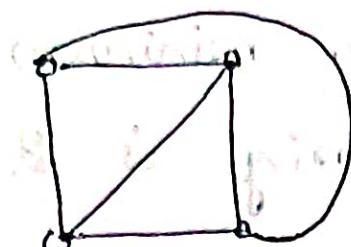
$$= \underline{\underline{\lambda(\lambda-1)^4}}$$

$$\left[\text{Or, } \begin{array}{c} \text{2 colours} \\ \text{1 colour} \end{array} \right] \begin{array}{l} \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-1)(\lambda-1)(\lambda-1) \\ = \lambda(\lambda-1)^4 \end{array}$$



$$P_7(\lambda) = \lambda(\lambda-1)^{7-1} = \underline{\underline{\lambda(\lambda-1)^6}}$$

3) Find the chromatic polynomial of the graph



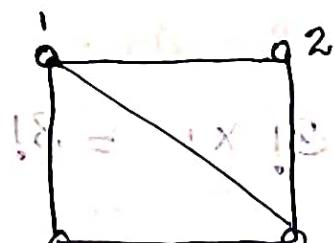
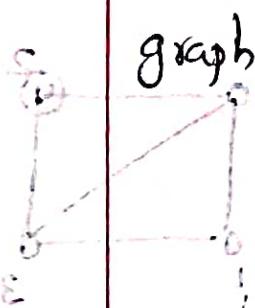
Given graph is K_4 . A complete graph with 4 vertices.

$$\text{Hence, } P_4(\lambda) = \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)\dots(\lambda-(4-1))$$

$$= \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)$$

or number of ways of coloring with 2 colors is $2^4 = 16$

4) Find the chromatic polynomial of the



$$(5-\lambda)(4-\lambda)(3-\lambda) + 0 = 120$$

Here the minimum colour required for a proper coloring is 3.

There are 4 vertices. Hence the polynomial

$$\text{is given by } P_4(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^4 c_i \binom{\lambda}{i}$$

$$= c_1 \frac{\lambda}{1!} + c_2 \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)}{2!} + c_3 \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)}{3!}$$

$$+ c_4 \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)}{4!}$$

Hence we have to find c_1, c_2, c_3 will be.

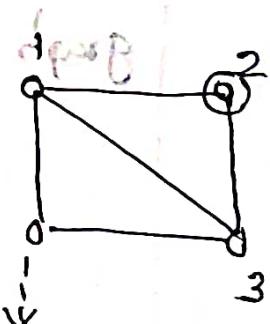
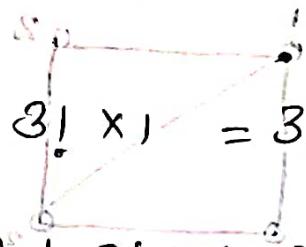
Hence $c_1 = 0, c_2 = 0$ since minimum colors required for proper coloring is 3.

Also $c_4 = 4!$ since to color a graph with 4 vertices with 4 colors is in $(4-1)4!$ different ways.

Now it remains to find c_3 .

3 colors can be assigned to 3 vertices in $3!$ ways. The 4th vertex can be assigned with one of the other 3 colors in each proper coloring.

$$\text{Hence } c_3 = 3! \times 1 = 3!$$



$$\therefore P_4(2) = 0 + 0 + 3! \lambda (\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)$$

$$+ 4! \lambda (\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)$$

4th vertex can be given color 2 similarly for all 3! coloring.

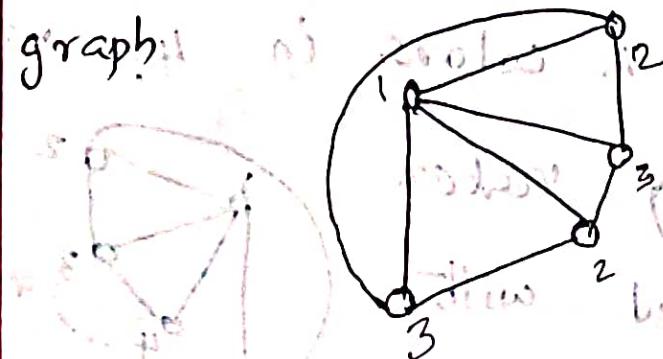
$$(2) \lambda (\lambda+1)(\lambda-2) +$$

$$(\lambda-1) \lambda (\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)$$

$$(5-5) \frac{(1-\lambda)(\lambda)}{18} \lambda^2 = (1-\lambda)(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3), (1+\lambda-3)$$

$$(1-\lambda)(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)^2$$

Q) Find the chromatic polynomial of the graph.

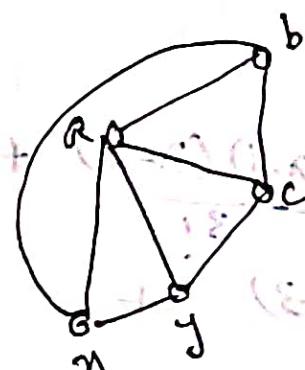


chromatic number is 3 for the graph.

hence $C_1 = 0$, $C_2 = 0$ thus it is

Also graph S has 5 vertices $C_5 = 5!$

we need to obtain C_3 & C_4 .

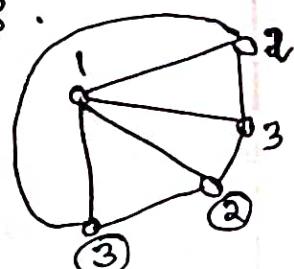


Consider the triangle abc

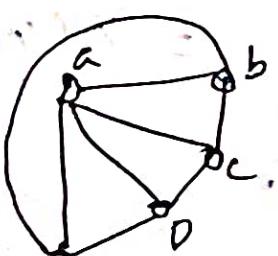
with 3 colors triangle can be colored with $3!$ different ways. The other vertices x & y

can be coloured with 2 colors from among the 3.

Hence, $C_3 = 3!$



Now to find C_4 ,



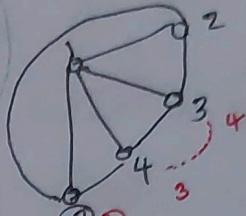
four of the vertices say a, b, c, d can be colored with 4 colors in $4!$ ways

and the remaining vertex

~~x~~ can be colored with

~~any of the 4 colours~~

& in each $4!$ colouring 2 different ways, can do in two different ways

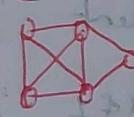


$$C_4 = 4! \times 2$$

$$\Rightarrow 12 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 2$$

$$= 48 //$$

(H.W)



$$P_4(\lambda) = 0 + 0 + 3! \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)}{3!} +$$

$$4! \frac{\lambda^2 \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)}{4!} +$$

$$5! \frac{\lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3)(\lambda-4)}{5!}$$



$$= \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) [1 + 2(\lambda-3) + (\lambda-3)(\lambda-4)]$$

$$= \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) [\lambda^2 - 5\lambda + 7]$$

C_n-Cyclic graph

$$\chi(C_n) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ 3, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

Matching

A

subsd
edges

obvio

Eg:

d

v

or

Maxim

match
graph

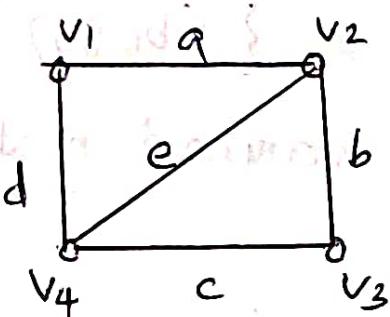
Eg: 1

Matching

A matching in a graph is a subscr of edges in which no two edges are adjacent.

Ex: A single edge in a graph is obviously a matching.

Eg:



In the graph, $\{d, b\}$, $\{a, c\}$ & $\{e\}$ are 3 matchings.

or $\{(v_1, v_4), (v_2, v_3)\}$, $\{(v_1, v_2), (v_3, v_4)\}$ & $\{(v_2, v_4)\}$

Maximal Matching

A maximal matching is a matching to which no edge in the graph can be added.

Eg: 1) In the above graph $\{d, b\}$, $\{a, c\}$ & $\{e\}$ all are maximal matchings.

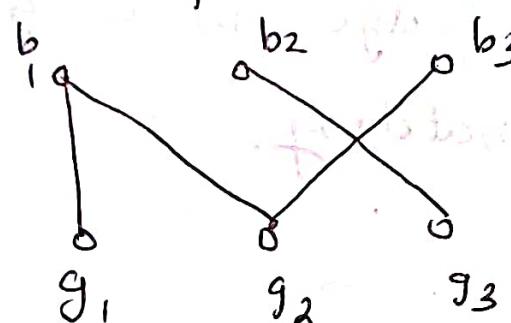
Eg. 2



In a triangle any single edge is a maximal matching.

Eg. 3

Bipartite graph



Matching

$$\{ (b_1, g_1), (b_2, g_3), (b_3, g_2) \}$$

$$\{ (b_1, g_2), (b_2, g_3) \}$$

both are maximal matching.

Note:

A graph may have many different maximal matching and of different size.

Largest Maximal Matching (Maximum matching)

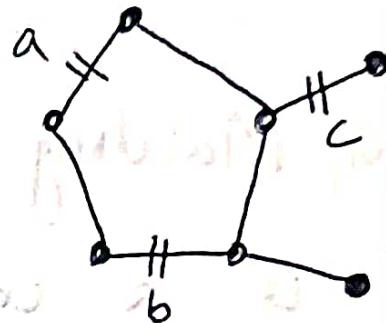
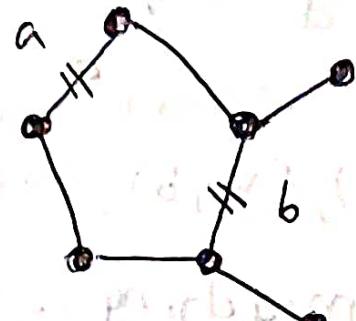
The maximal matching with the largest number of edges are called largest maximal matching or Maximum matching.

Largest maximal matching or Maximum matching.

Matching number of a graph

The number of edges in a largest maximal matching is called the matching numbers of the graph.

Eg:



$\{a, b\}$ -Maximal Matching $\{a, b, c\}$ is the largest maximal Matching

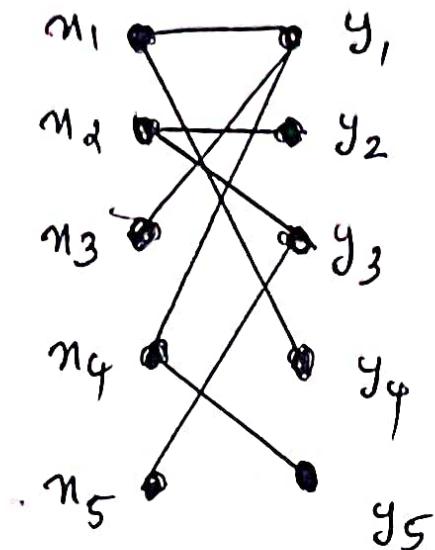
Matching number = 3

Complete Matching: (Perfect Matching)

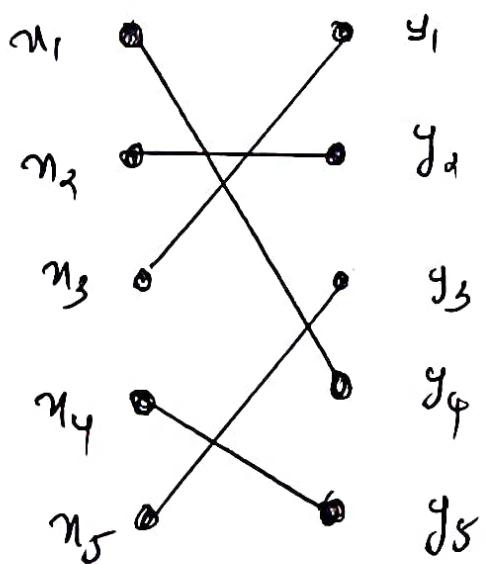
A complete matching in a graph is a matching that matches every vertex.

(clearly a complete matching (if exists) is a largest maximal matching, whereas the converse not necessarily true.)

Qn. Find a maximum matching in the graph below. (Model Qn.)



Matching



$m_1 \rightarrow y_4$
 $m_2 \rightarrow y_2$
 $m_3 \rightarrow y_1$
 $m_4 \rightarrow y_5$
 $m_5 \rightarrow y_3$
 which is a perfect matching.

(Assign the pendant vertices with the first available matching.)

Coverings:

In a graph G , a set g of edges is said to ~~be~~ cover G if every vertex in G is incident on at least one edge in g .

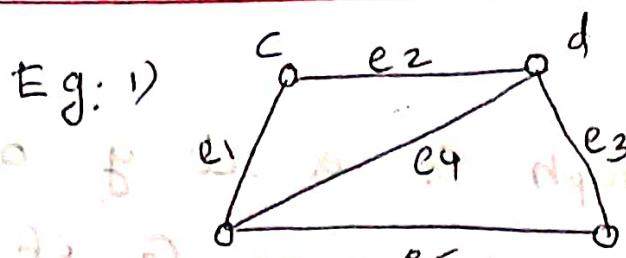
A set of edges that covers a graph G is said to be an edge covering, a covering subgraph or simply a covering of G .

Note:

- A graph G is trivially its own covering.
- A spanning tree in a connected graph or a spanning forest in an unconnected graph is a covering.

- A Hamiltonian circuit (if it exists) in a graph is a covering.

Eg: 1)

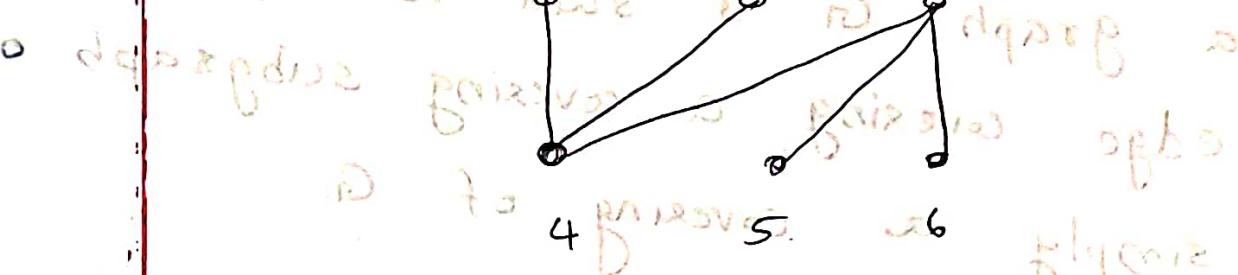


prove that $\{e_2, e_3, e_4\}$ is an edge-covering

$\{e_1, e_5\}$ is not an edge-covering

QED

Eg: 2



$\{(1,4), (2,4), (3,5), (3,6)\}$ is

an edge covering

Minimal covering

A covering from which no edge can be removed without destroying

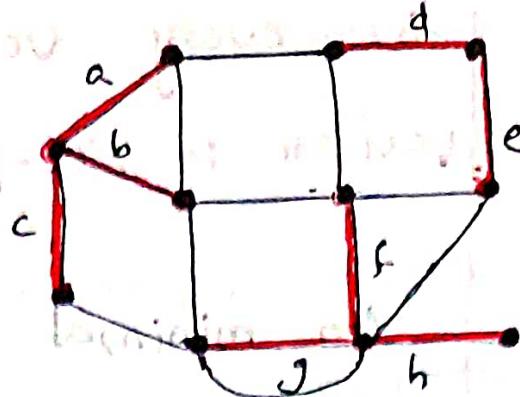
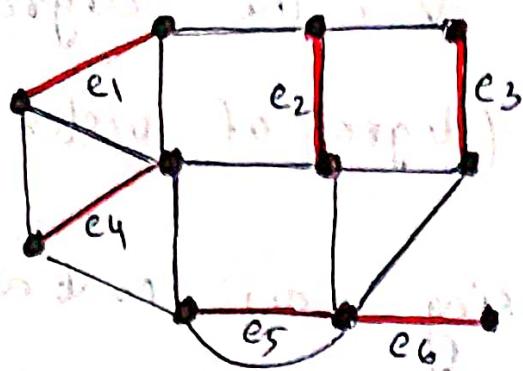
Want its ability to cover the graph

Covering number

The number of edges in a minimal covering of the smallest size is called the covering number of the graph.

$\{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6\}$

$\{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$



where e opposite e_1 is e_3 and e opposite e_2 is e_4 .

Counting graph, and two of its minimal covering.

Two sets of edges will be given as follows

Note:

Isolated vertices do not have edges.

- A covering exists for a graph if and only if the graph has no isolated vertex.

Find a covering of an in-vertex graph

It will have at least $\left[\frac{n}{2}\right]$ edges.

- Every pendant edge in a graph is included in every covering of the graph

- Every covering contains a minimal covering.

If we denote the remaining edges of a graph by $(G-g)$, the set of edges giving a covering iff

for every vertex v , the degree of vertex in $(G - g) \leq (\text{degree of vertex } v \text{ in } g) - 1$

No minimal covering can contain a circuit, for we can always remove an edge from a circuit without leaving any of the vertices in the circuit uncovered. Therefore a minimal covering of an n -vertex graph can contain no more than $n-1$ edges.

A graph in general has many minimal coverings and they may be of different sizes.

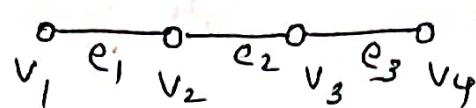
Theorem

A k -covering of a graph is minimal if and only if it contains no paths of length three or more.

Proof

Suppose that a covering g

contains a path of length three and it is

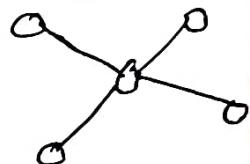


$v_1, e_1, v_2, e_2, v_3, e_3, v_4$

then edge e_2 can be removed without leaving its end vertices v_2 and v_3 uncovered. Therefore g is not a minimal covering.

Conversely if a covering g contains no path of length three or more all its components must be star graphs.

From a star graph no



edge can be removed without leaving a vertex uncovered.

That is g must be a minimal covering.

Four color Problem (Four color conjecture)

Consider the proper coloring of regions in a planar graph. Just as in coloring of vertices and edges, the regions of a planar graph are said to be properly colored if no two contiguous or adjacent regions have the same color. (Two regions are said to be adjacent if they have a common edge between them.)

The proper coloring of regions is called map coloring.

The Four colour conjecture is that every map (i.e., a planar graph) can be properly colored with 4 colors.

No one has yet been able to either prove the theorem or come up with a map that requires more than four colors.



The four color conjecture can be restated as follows. Every planar graph has a chromatic number of four or less.

Five-color Theorem

Every planar map can be properly colored with five colors.