

# Path-Coloring Algorithms for Plane Graphs

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## Abstract

A path coloring of a graph  $G$  is a vertex coloring of  $G$  such that each color class induces a disjoint union of paths. We present two efficient algorithms to construct a path coloring of a plane graph.

The first algorithm, based on a proof of Poh, is given a plane graph; it produces a path coloring of the given graph using three colors.

The second algorithm, based on similar proofs by Hartman and Škrekovski, performs a list-coloring generalization of the above. The algorithm is given a plane graph and an assignment of lists of three colors to each vertex; it produces a path coloring of the given graph in which each vertex receives a color from its list.

Implementations of both algorithms are available.

## 1 Introduction

All graphs will be finite, simple, and undirected. See West [10] for graph theoretic terms.

A *path coloring* of a graph  $G$  is a vertex coloring (not necessarily proper) of  $G$  such that each color class induces a disjoint union of paths. A graph  $G$  is *path  $k$ -colorable* if  $G$  admits a path coloring using  $k$  colors.

Broere & Mynhardt conjectured [2, Conj. 16] that every planar graph is path 3-colorable. This was proven independently by Poh [8, Thm. 2] and by Goddard [6, Thm. 1].

**Theorem 1.1** (Poh 1990, Goddard 1991). *If  $G$  is a planar graph, then  $G$  is path 3-colorable.*  $\square$

It is easily shown that the “3” in Theorem 1.1 is best possible. In particular, Chartrand & Kronk [5, Section 3] gave an example of a planar graph whose vertex set cannot be partitioned into two subsets, each inducing a forest.

Hartman [7, Thm. 4.1] proved a list-coloring generalization of Theorem 1.1 (see also Chappell & Hartman [4, Thm. 2.1]). A graph  $G$  is *path  $k$ -choosable* if, whenever each vertex of  $G$  is assigned a list of  $k$  colors, there exists a path coloring of  $G$  in which each vertex receives a color from its list.

**Theorem 1.2** (Hartman 1997). *If  $G$  is a planar graph, then  $G$  is path 3-choosable.*  $\square$

Essentially the same technique was used by Škrekovski [9, Thm. 2.2b] to prove a result slightly weaker than Theorem 1.2.

We discuss two efficient path-coloring algorithms based on proofs of the above theorems. We distinguish between a *planar* graph—one that can be drawn in the plane without crossing edges—and a *plane* graph—a graph with a given embedding in the plane.

In Section 2 we outline our graph representations and the basis for our computations of time complexity.

Section 3 covers an algorithm based on Poh’s proof of Theorem 1.1. The algorithm is given a plane graph; it produces a path coloring of the given graph using three colors.

Section 4 covers an algorithm based Hartman’s proof of Theorem 1.2, along with the proof of Škrekovski mentioned above. The algorithm is given a plane graph and an assignment of a list of three colors to each vertex; it produces a path coloring of the given graph in which each vertex receives a color from its list.

Implementations of both algorithms are available; see Bross [3].

## 2 Graph Representations and Time Complexity

We will represent a graph via *adjacency lists*: a list, for each vertex  $v$ , of the neighbors of  $v$ . A vertex can be represented by an integer  $0 \dots n - 1$ , where  $n$  is the order of the graph.

A plane graph will be specified via a *rotation scheme*: a circular ordering, for each vertex  $v$ , of the edges incident with  $v$ , in the order they appear around  $v$  in the plane embedding; this completely specifies the combinatorial embedding of the graph. Rotation schemes are convenient when we represent a graph using adjacency lists; we simply order the adjacency list for each vertex  $v$  in clockwise order around  $v$ ; no additional data structures are required.

The input for each algorithm will be a triangulated plane graph with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges, represented via adjacency lists. The input size will be  $n$ , the number of vertices.

Note that  $\mathcal{O}(m) = \mathcal{O}(n)$ , so it is equivalent to take the input size to be  $m$ , the number of edges. Moreover, arbitrary simple planar graphs may be plane embedded and triangulated in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time, see Boyer and Myrvold [1].

In Section 4, given an edge  $uv$ , we will need an efficient operation to find  $v$ 's entry in  $u$ 's adjacency list from  $u$ 's entry in  $v$ 's list. An *augmented adjacency list* is an adjacency list such that for every edge  $uv$  a reference to  $v$ 's entry in  $u$ 's list is stored in  $u$ 's entry in  $v$ 's list, and vice versa. Given an adjacency list representation of a graph, an augmented adjacency list representation may be constructed in  $\mathcal{O}(m)$  time via the following procedure.

**Algorithm 2.1.**

**Input:** An adjacency list representation  $\text{Adj}$  of a graph  $G$ .

**Output:** An augmented adjacency list representation  $\text{Adj}'$  of  $G$  with the same rotation scheme as  $\text{Adj}$ .

**Step 1:** Construct an augmented adjacency list copy  $\text{Adj}'$  of  $\text{Adj}$  with the reference portion of each entry uninitialized.

**Step 2:** For each vertex  $v$  construct an array  $\text{Wrk}[v]$  storing vertex-reference pairs. For each  $v$  from 0 to  $n - 1$  iterate through  $\text{Adj}'[v]$ . For each neighbor  $u$  in  $\text{Adj}'[v]$  append the pair  $(v, r_v(u))$  to  $\text{Wrk}[u]$  where  $r_v(u)$  is a reference to  $u$ 's entry in  $\text{Adj}'[v]$ .

**Step 3:** For each  $v$  from  $n - 1$  to 0 iterate through  $\text{Wrk}[v]$ . Upon reaching each pair  $(u, r_u(v))$  in  $\text{Wrk}[v]$  the last element of  $\text{Wrk}[u]$  will be  $(v, r_v(u))$ ; for details on why this is, see the paragraphs below. Use  $r_u(v)$  and  $r_v(u)$  to look up and assign references for the edge  $uv$  in  $\text{Adj}'[u]$  and  $\text{Adj}'[v]$ . Remove  $(v, r_v(u))$  from the back of  $\text{Wrk}[u]$ .

After completing Step 2 in Algorithm 2.1 the array  $\text{Wrk}[v]$  contains a pair  $(u, r_u(v))$  for each neighbor of  $v$ , sorted in increasing order of by the neighbor  $u$ .

Let  $v$  be the current vertex at a given iteration of Step 3 in Algorithm 2.1. For each edge  $uw \in E(G)$  such that  $u < w$  and  $v < w$ , prior iterations of Step 3 will have initialized the references for  $uw$  in  $\text{Adj}'[u]$  and  $\text{Adj}'[w]$ , and also removed the pair  $(w, r_w(u))$  from  $\text{Wrk}[u]$ . Therefore for each  $(u, r_u(v))$  in  $\text{Wrk}[v]$ , the array  $\text{Wrk}[u]$  will contain only entries for vertices  $w$  where  $w \leq v$ . Since  $\text{Wrk}[u]$  is sorted in increasing order by the neighboring vertices, the last element of  $\text{Wrk}[u]$  must be  $(v, r_v(u))$ .

### 3 Path Coloring: the Poh Algorithm

We will first describe Poh's algorithm for path 3-coloring plane graphs.

**Algorithm 3.1** (Poh 1990).

**Input:** A weakly triangulated plane graph  $G$  with outer face a cycle  $C = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  and a 2-coloring of  $C$  such that each color class induces a path,  $P_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_l$  and  $P_2 = v_{l+1}, v_{l+2}, \dots, v_k$  respectively.

**Output:** An extension of the 2-coloring of  $C$  to a path 3-coloring of  $G$  such that no vertex in  $G - C$  receives the same color as a neighbor of that vertex in  $C$ .

**Step 1:** If  $G = C$  then  $G$  is already path 3-colored and we are done. Otherwise there are two cases to consider.

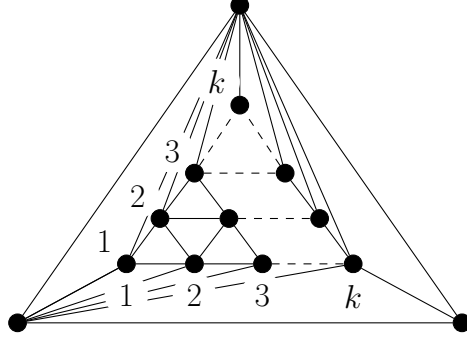


Figure 1: The collection of graphs  $\{G_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  on which Poh performs poorly.

**Case 1.1:** Suppose  $C$  is an induced subgraph of  $G$ . Let  $u, w \in V(G) - V(C)$  such that the cycles  $u, v_1, v_k$  and  $w, v_l, v_{l+1}$  each exist and are faces of  $G$ ; note that  $u$  and  $w$  are unique, but may not be distinct. Since  $C$  is induced and  $G \neq C$ ,  $G - C$  is connected. Let  $P_3 = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r$  be an induced  $u, w$ -path in  $G - C$ . Color each vertex of  $P_3$  with the third color not used in the 2-coloring of  $C$ . Let  $C_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_l, u_r, u_{r-1}, \dots, u_1$  and  $C_2 = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r, v_{l+1}, v_{l+2}, \dots, v_k$ .

**Case 1.2:** Suppose  $C$  is not an induced subgraph. Then there exists an edge  $v_i v_j \in E(G) - E(C)$  such that  $i \leq l < j$ . Let  $C_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, v_j, v_{j+1}, \dots, v_k$  and  $C_2 = v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_j$ .

**Step 2:** Apply Algorithm 3.1 separately to the maximal subgraph of  $G$  with outer face  $C_1$  and to the maximal subgraph with outer face  $C_2$ .

Note that the graph  $G$  is finite and the recursive step applies the algorithm to two proper subgraphs of  $G$ . Therefore Algorithm 3.1 must terminate.

Let  $G$  be a triangulated plane graph. We may trivially path 2-color the outer triangle. Applying Poh's algorithm extends this coloring to a path 3-coloring of  $G$ .

In Poh's original proof he picked the induced  $u, w$ -path in Case 1.1 to be the shortest  $u, w$ -path. Thus a natural way to implement Poh's algorithm is to first locate  $u$  and  $w$ , and then use a breadth-first search to either construct a  $u, w$ -path or locate a chord edge if no such path is possible.

### Algorithm 3.2.

**Input:** A cycle  $C = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  in a triangulated plane graph  $G$  represented by adjacency lists, and a 2-coloring of  $C$  such that each color class induces a path, respectively  $P_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_l$  and  $P_2 = v_l, v_{l+1}, \dots, v_k$ .

**Output:** An extension of the 2-coloring of  $C$  to a path 3-coloring of the maximal subgraph of  $G$  with outer face  $C$ .

**Step 1:** Iterate  $\text{Adj}[v_1]$  to locate the vertex  $u$  immediately following  $v_k$ . Note that since  $G$  is triangulated,  $v_1, u, v_k$  is a face of  $G$ .

**Case 1.1:** If  $u \in C$ , then  $u = v_{k-1}$ , since  $G$  is triangulated, and  $C$  is not an induced cycle. We then apply Algorithm 3.2 to the cycle  $C' = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k-1}$ .

**Case 1.2:** Perform a breadth-first of the maximal subgraph of  $G$  with outer face  $C$ , starting from the vertex  $u$ . Terminate the search upon locating a vertex  $w \notin C$  with adjacent neighbors  $v_i \in P_1$  and  $v_j \in P_2$  such that  $i \neq 1$  or  $j \neq k$ . Backtrack along the breadth-first search to construct a minimal  $u, w$ -path  $P_3 = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r$ . Let  $C_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i, u_r, u_{r-1}, \dots, u_1$  and  $C_2 = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r, v_j, v_{j-1}, \dots, v_k$ . Apply Algorithm 3.2 separately to  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ . If  $i = l$  and  $j = l + 1$  then  $C$  was an induced cycle and we are done. Otherwise, also apply Algorithm 3.2 to  $C_3 = v_i, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_j$ .

Unfortunately Algorithm 3.2 is not linear. To see this, consider the family of graphs  $\{G_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  depicted in Figure 1. Fix  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and note that  $n = n(G_k) = k(k + 1)/2 + 3$ . Assume that the outer triangle is path 2-colored such that the top vertex is assigned a color distinct from the bottom two. At iteration  $i$  of Poh's algorithm the shortest path through the interior will be the path of length  $l = k - i + 1$  directly along the base of the inner triangle. A breadth-first search of this inner triangle will hit all  $l(l + 1)/2$  vertices in order to find this path. Therefore the total number of operations performed will be

$$\Theta \left( \sum_{l=1}^k \frac{l(l+1)}{2} \right) = \Theta(n^{3/2}).$$

So Poh's algorithm with breadth-first search is  $\Omega(n^{3/2})$ .

However, the correctness of Poh's algorithm only relied on locating some induced  $u, w$ -path. We will show below that there exists a linear time implementation of Poh's algorithm so long as we do not always find the shortest  $u, w$ -path.

The general strategy will be to first mark all vertices interior to  $C$  that have a neighbor in  $P_1$ . We will then construct an induced path  $P_3 = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_d$  consisting only of marked vertices such that  $C_1 = P_1 \cup P_3 \cup \{u_1 v_1, u_d v_l\}$  is a cycle of minimal length.

The algorithm then relies on the following observation: if  $P_3 = u_1, u_2, \dots, u_d$  is such a  $u, w$ -path described above, then  $P_3$  is an induced path. To see this, we observe that if  $u_i u_j$  is an edge between vertices in  $u_i, u_j \in P_3$ , then  $u_i u_j$  must be an interior chord of  $C_1$  because  $C_1$  is of minimal length. However, since every vertex in  $P_3$  has a neighbor in  $P_1$ , the planarity of  $G$  determines that the only edges  $u_i u_j$  are those where  $j = i + 1$ .

### Algorithm 3.3.

**Input:** An induced cycle  $C = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  in a triangulated plane graph  $G$  represented by adjacency lists, and a 2-coloring of  $C$  such that each color class induces a path, respectively  $P_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_l$  and  $P_2 = v_l, v_{l+1}, \dots, v_k$ . Additionally, a marking of vertices indicating which vertices in  $G - C$  have neighbors in  $P_1$ ; denote the set of such vertices  $N(P_1)$ .

**Output:** An extension of the 2-coloring of  $C$  to a path 3-coloring of the maximal subgraph of  $G$  with outer face  $C$ .

**Step 1:** If  $N(P_1) = \emptyset$ , then  $G - C$  is empty and thus  $G$  is already path 3-colored.

Suppose that  $N(P_1) \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $u, w$  be the vertices in  $N(P_1)$  such that  $v_1, v_k, u$  and  $v_l, v_{l+1}, w$  are cycles in  $G$ . We will construct an induced path  $P_3 = u_1, \dots, u_r$  such that  $u_1 = u$ ,  $u_r = w$ , and  $u_1, \dots, u_r \in N(P_1)$ . Concurrently, we will mark all vertices interior to the cycle  $C_2 = P_3 \cup P_2 \cup \{v_k u, v_{l+1} w\}$  with neighbors in  $P_3$  and record all edges between vertices in  $P_3$  and vertices in  $P_1$  or  $P_2$ .

Initialize  $u_1 = u$ . We will also define  $u_0$  to be  $v_k$  so that  $u_{i-1}$  is defined when  $i = 1$ .

Let  $u_1, \dots, u_i$  be the induced path constructed so far. Iterate through  $\text{Adj}[u_i]$  clockwise starting from  $u_{i-1}$  until we reach a vertex  $u_{i+1} \in N(P_1)$  distinct from  $u_{i-1}$  or we reach a vertex in  $P_1$ . If we reach a vertex in  $P_1$  first then  $u_i$  must be  $w$  or there wouldn't be a  $u, w$ -path in  $G$  consisting of vertices in  $N(P_1)$ , a contradiction. If we reach a vertex  $u_{i+1} \in N(P_1)$  we add it to the path and continue.

While iterating through  $\text{Adj}[u_i]$  let us also mark all neighbors between  $u_{i-1}$  and  $u_{i+1}$  to indicate which vertices interior to  $C_2$  have neighbors in  $P_3$ . We also record all edges between  $u_i$  and vertices in  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ .

**Step 2:** Color the vertices on the path  $P_3$  with the remaining color not used on vertices in  $P_1$  or  $P_2$ . Define the cycles  $C_1 = P_1 \cup P_3 \cup \{v_1u, v_lw\}$  and  $C_2 = P_3 \cup P_2 \cup \{v_ku, v_{l+1}w\}$ . In step 1 we recorded all chords of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ , and also marked all vertices interior to  $C_2$  that are in  $N(P_3)$ . Moreover, the vertex marking from the input distinguishes those interior to  $C_1$  that are in  $N(P_1)$ ; in fact all vertices interior to  $C_1$  will be in  $N(P_1)$ . Therefore we may decompose  $C_1, C_2$  into induced cycles and apply Algorithm 3.3 to each.

Suppose that  $G$  is a triangulated plane graph. We may path 2-color the outer triangle, mark all vertices with neighbors in one of the colored paths, and then apply Algorithm 3.3 to extend this to a path 3-coloring of  $G$ .

Note that while executing Algorithm 3.3 we only iterate through the adjacency list of a vertex when it is colored and added to a path. Therefore the algorithm is linear in the number of vertices.

## 4 Path List Coloring: the Hartman-Škrekovski Algorithm

In this section we will discuss a linear time algorithm for path coloring plane graphs such that each vertex receives a color from a specified list. Hartman showed that this is always possible when each vertex is given a list of 3 colors, see Theorem 1.2.

**Algorithm 4.1** (Hartman 1997, Škrekovski 1999).

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