

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.

We will assume an integer RAM model of computation. 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 [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 any 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.

Implementation 2.1.

Input: An adjacency list representation Adj of a graph G .

Output: An augmented adjacency list representation Adj' of G with the same rotation scheme as Adj .

Step 1: Construct an augmented adjacency list copy Adj' of 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 $\text{Wrk}[v]$. At the 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 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 .

At a given iteration of Step 3 in Algorithm 2.1 let v be the current vertex. 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 $\text{Wrk}[u]$. The current iteration will handle all edges $uv \in E(G)$ with $v > u$.

3 Path Coloring: the Poh Algorithm

We will first describe Poh's algorithm for path 3-coloring plane graphs. When denoting vertices in a k -cycle $C = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$ we will always treat vertex indices mod $(k + 1)$ and always select representatives in $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$. That is, if we have $v_i \in C$ we will assume $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $v_i = v_{i+k}$.

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 .

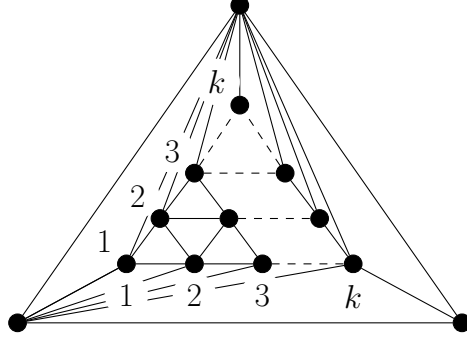


Figure 1: The collection of graphs $\{G_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ on which Poh performs poorly.

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

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 a shortest 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 subgraph bounded by C_1 and the subgraph bounded by 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 .

A natural way to implement Poh's algorithm is to use a breadth-first search to attempt to construct the shortest path of Case 1.1 and in the process locate a chord edge of Case 1.2 if no such path is possible. Unfortunately this method results in an algorithm that 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 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 did not rely on locating the shortest uw -path, only on locating some induced uw -path. Below we will see that modifying Poh’s algorithm to locate induced paths will allow us produce a linear time implementation.

The general strategy will be to walk clockwise along the colored path $P_1 = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_l$ in the outer cycle C , marking those 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 $C_1 = P_1 \cup P_3 \cup \{u_1v_1, u_dv_l\}$ is a cycle and all marked vertices are contained in the subgraph of G bounded by C_1 .

4 Path List Coloring: the Hartman-Škrekovski Algorithm

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