



# *Graph Theory*

CO 442



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# Preface

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First let's look at a proof example.

### Theorem

Every two longest paths in a connected graph  $G$  intersect.

#### Proof:

Suppose not. That is, there exist two longest paths  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  of  $G$  such that  $V(P_1) \cap V(P_2) = \emptyset$ . For each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , let  $v_{i,1}$  and  $v_{i,2}$  be the ends of  $P_i$ . Since  $G$  is connected, there exists a shortest path  $P$  from  $V(P_1)$  to  $V(P_2)$ . Since  $P$  is shortest, we have that  $|V(P_i) \cap V(P)| = 1$  for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ .

For each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , let  $u_i$  be the end of  $P$  in  $V(P_i)$ . For each  $i, j \in \{1, 2\}$ , let  $Q_{i,j}$  be the subpath of  $P_i$  from  $u_i$  to  $v_{i,j}$ . We assume without loss of generality that for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , we have that  $|E(Q_{i,1})| \geq |E(Q_{i,2})|$  and hence

$$|E(Q_{i,1})| \geq |E(P_i)|/2.$$

Let  $P' = v_{1,1}Q_{1,1}u_1Pu_2Q_{2,1}v_{2,1}$ . Note that  $P'$  is a path in  $G$  and

$$|E(P')| = |E(Q_{1,1})| + |E(P)| + |E(Q_{2,1})| \geq |E(P)| + |E(P_1)| > |E(P_1)|.$$

Hence  $P'$  is a longer path than  $P_1$ , contradicting that  $P_1$  is a longest path.  $\square$

Things to remember:

1. Correctness
2. Clarity/Precision
3. Ease of Reading

# Colorings

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## 1.1 Coloring and Brooks' Theorem

### coloring

A **coloring** of a graph  $G$  is an assignment of colors to vertices of  $G$  such that no two adjacent vertices receive the same color.

### k-coloring

Let  $G$  be a graph. We say  $\phi : V(G) \rightarrow [k]$  is a  **$k$ -coloring** of  $G$  if  $\phi(u) \neq \phi(v)$  for every  $uv \in E(G)$ .

Since every graph  $G$  has a  $|V(G)|$ -coloring, we are interested in the minimum numbers of colors needed to color  $G$ .

### chromatic number

The **chromatic number** of a graph  $G$ , denoted  $\chi(G)$ , is the minimum number  $k$  such that  $G$  has a  $k$ -coloring.

Then why coloring?

- Coloring is a foundational problem in graph labeling, wherein we study functions on  $V(G)$  according to constraints imposed on the graph (e.g. non-adjacent vertices are labeled differently)
- Coloring is a foundational problem in graph decomposition, wherein we seek to decompose  $V(G)$  into certain kinds of subgraphs (e.g. independent sets)
- Applications to maps, scheduling, job processing, frequency assignment (e.g. cell networks)
- Applications to algorithms (e.g. distributed computing)

However, coloring is hard.

A graph being an **independent set** is by definition equivalent to being **1-colorable**.

A graph being **bipartite** is by definition equivalent to being **2-colorable**. (Indeed coloring is a generalization of partite)

### Proposition 1.1

$G$  is 2-colorable if and only if  $G$  does not contain an odd cycle.

Moreover, there exists a poly-time algorithm to decide if  $G$  is 2-colorable.

### Theorem: Karp (1972)

For each  $k \geq 3$ , deciding if a graph  $G$  has a  $k$ -coloring is NP-complete.

Indeed, 3-coloring is NP-complete even for planar graphs. Any constant factor approximation is also NP-complete.

Then what about the bounds on chromatic number?

As mentioned  $\chi(G) \leq |V(G)|$ .

**Greedy Upper bound:**  $\chi(G) \leq \Delta(G) + 1$ , where  $\Delta(G)$  denotes the maximum degree of vertices in  $G$ . Why? By a greedy algorithm:

- Order the vertices of  $G$  arbitrarily,  $v_1, \dots, v_{|V(G)|}$ .
- Color the vertices in order avoiding the colors of previously colored neighbors.
- Since each vertex has at most  $\Delta(G)$  neighbors, there is always at least one color for the current vertex.

**Lower bound:**  $\chi(G) \geq \omega(G)$ , where  $\omega(G)$  denotes the clique number of  $H$ , that is the maximum size of a clique in  $G$ .

*Can we do better than the greedy upper bound?*

No! The bound is tight for complete graphs:  $\omega(K_n) = \chi(K_n) = (n - 1) + 1 = \Delta(K_n) + 1$ .

*Can we do better if the graph is not complete?*

No! The graph could have a component that is complete.

*Can we do better if the graph is connected and not complete?*

No! The bound is tight for odd cycles:  $\chi(C_{2k+1}) = 3 = 2 + 1 = \Delta(C_{2k+1}) + 1$ .

Can we do better if the graph is connected and neither complete nor an odd cycle? **Yes!**

### Theorem 1.2: Brooks 1941

If  $G$  is connected, then  $\chi(G) \leq \Delta(G)$  if and only if  $G$  is neither complete nor an odd cycle.

## 1.2 An Informal Proof of Brooks' Theorem

How to prove Brooks' Theorem?

Actually there are 8 to 10 distinct ways to prove Brooks' Theorem. See the nice survey *Brooks' Theorem and Beyond* by Cranston and Rabern from 2014 for more details. Here are some of those methods: Greedy Coloring, Kempe Chains, List Coloring, Alon-Tarsi Theorem, Kernel Perfection, Potential Method.

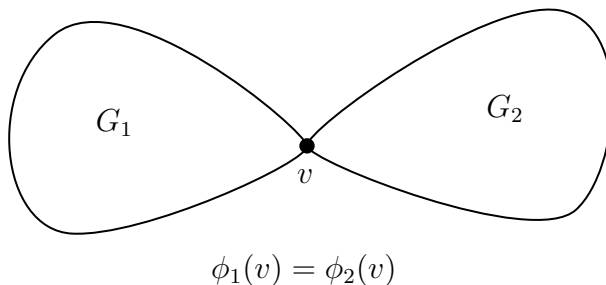
Today we give an informal proof sketch via the Greedy Coloring Method - arguably the most direct, brute-force of the approaches. (See Diestel for the Kempe Chain proof).

The idea is to try a method (greedy coloring) we know works for a similar problem ( $\Delta+1$ -coloring), and ask under what conditions can we use this to get the desired outcome (a  $\Delta$ -coloring).

In the other cases we cannot apply greedy, we instead do **reductions**: that is, we show how to inductively color or to show that the graph is one of the exceptional outcomes (clique or odd cycle).

Alternatively, we could have built up a suite/library of reductions that work, and then tried to find a method to deal a finishing blow (i.e. to handle the cases we could not reduce).

**First Reduction**  $G$  has a cutvertex  $v$ . Then  $v$  separates  $G$  into two smaller graphs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ .



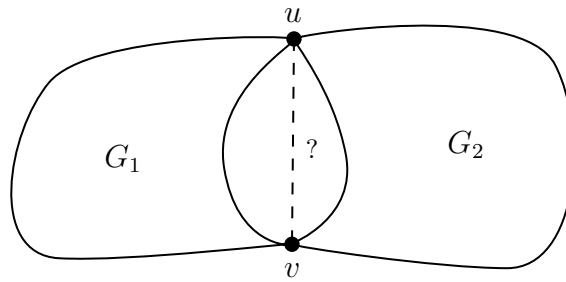
By minimality of  $G$ ,  $G_i$  has a  $\Delta$ -coloring  $\phi_i$ ,  $i \in 1, 2$ .

This only works if neither graph is  $K_{\Delta+1}$  or odd cycle when  $\Delta = 2$ .

Now permute the colors in  $\phi_2$  so that  $\phi_1(v) = \phi_2(v)$ . Then  $\phi_1 \cup \phi_2$  yields a  $\Delta$ -coloring of  $G$ , a contradiction.

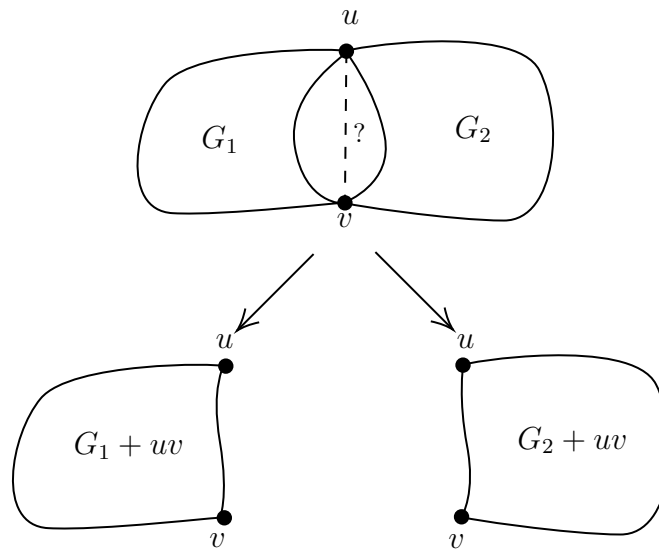
**Second Reduction**  $G$  has a cutset  $\{u, v\}$ .

Try the same trick. Say  $\{u, v\}$  separates  $G$  into two smaller graphs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ . By induction or minimum counterexample, each of  $G_1, G_2$  has a  $\Delta$ -coloring  $\phi_i$ ,  $i \in 1, 2$ .



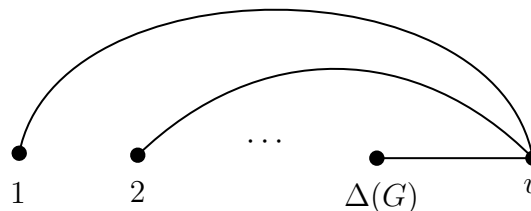
If  $uv \in E(G)$ , then we can permute the colorings so that  $\phi_1(u) = \phi_2(u)$  and  $\phi_1(v) = \phi_2(v)$ .

This fails if  $uv \notin E(G)$ . Because we may have  $u, v$  colored the same in one coloring and different in the other and no permuting will fix this! So we can add the edge  $uv$  to both  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ !



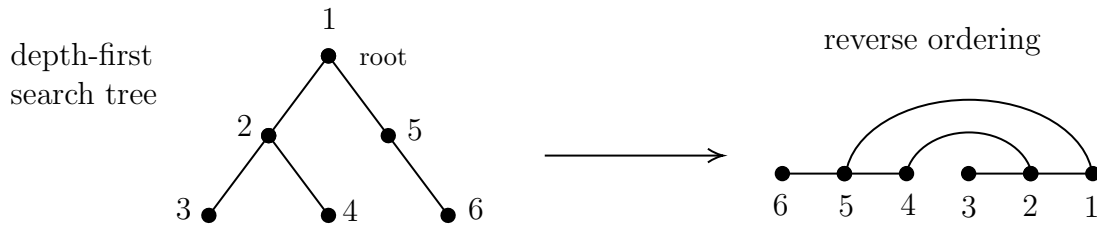
Have to show  $\Delta(G_1 + uv), \Delta(G_2 + uv) \leq \Delta(G)$ . We also have to ensure that neither  $G_1$  nor  $G_2$  is complete (or odd cycle in  $\Delta(G) = 2$  case).

Then we assume  $G$  is 3-connected. We now turn to the finishing blow (greedy). The greedy *fails* when a vertex has  $\Delta(G)$  earlier neighbors in the ordering, each with a different color from  $\{1, \dots, \Delta(G)\}$ .



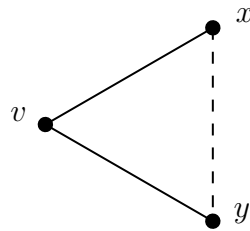
Can we find an ordering where most of the vertices have at most  $\Delta(G) - 1$  earlier neighbors? Yes for all but the last vertex in the ordering! We can fix a root, then take a depth-first search tree ordering from the root. Reverse it!



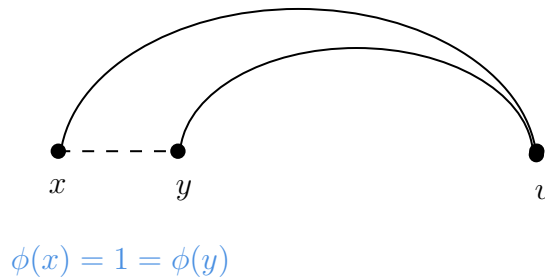


Now all vertices but the last will be fine in greedy.

If  $\deg(v) \leq \Delta(G) - 1$ , then we can ensure greedy does not fail at the last vertex  $v$ . Otherwise, we ensure that two of its neighbors  $x$  and  $y$  are colored the same (and hence there is a color left for  $v$  when it is  $v$ 's turn). These two are two non-adjacent neighbors, which guaranteed to exist as  $G$  is not  $K_{\Delta+1}$ .



We can put  $x, y$  first in the ordering to guarantee  $x$  and  $y$  are colored the same. Then we can color them as we desire (since non-adjacent), say both with color 1.



Use the reverse of a depth-first search tree ordering of  $G - \{x, y\}$  with root  $v$ , then we finish the ordering so every vertex in  $V(G) \setminus \{x, y, v\}$  has at most  $\Delta(G) - 1$  earlier neighbors. Since  $G - \{x, y\}$  is connected as  $G$  is 3-connected, then this ordering exist.

### 1.3 A Formal Proof of Brooks' Theorem

Let us codify our ordering fact as a proposition.

#### Proposition 1.3: Ordering Proposition

If  $G$  is a connected graph on  $n$  vertices and  $v \in V(G)$ , then there exists an ordering  $v_1, \dots, v_n = v$  of  $V(G)$  such that  $|N(v_i) \cap \{v_{i+1}, \dots, v_n\}| \geq 1$  for all  $i \in [n - 1]$ .

#### Proof:

Reverse a depth-first search tree ordering from root  $v$ . Or more formally:

We proceed by induction on  $|V(G)|$ . If  $|V(G)| = 1$ , then the ordering  $v$  is as desired. So we assume that  $|V(G)| \geq 2$ . Let  $G_1, \dots, G_k$  be the components of  $G - v$ . As  $G$  is connected, there exists neighbors  $u_1, \dots, u_k$  of  $v$  such that  $u_i \in V(G_i)$  for each  $i \in [k]$ .

For each  $i \in [k]$ , there exists by induction applied to  $G_i$  and  $u_i$ , an ordering  $\sigma_i$  of  $V(G_i)$  as prescribed by the proposition. Let  $\sigma$  be the ordering of  $V(G)$  obtained by concatenating the  $\sigma_i$  and finally  $v$ . Then  $\sigma$  is as desired.  $\square$

Now we are ready to prove Brooks' Theorem:

Suppose not. Let  $G$  a counterexample with  $|V(G)|$  minimized. If  $\Delta(G) \leq 2$ , the result is standard. So we assume that  $\Delta(G) \geq 3$ .

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