

# Chapter 12

## Graph Theory and Algorithms\*

### 12.1 Graph Coloring

Let  $G = (V, E)$  is a graph. Consider the problem of assigning colors to its *vertices* with minimum number of distinct colors possible, such that no two adjacent vertices have the same color. This problem is referred as *vertex graph-coloring*.

Similarly, we can define the problem of assigning colors to the *edges* of  $G$  with minimum number of distinct colors possible, such that no two adjacent edges have the same color. This problem is called *edge graph-coloring*. *In this chapter the discussion of graph-coloring is restricted to vertex-coloring.*

If  $G$  has loops, then it is impossible to assign a color to this vertex such that is its color is different from itself. Thus, *graphs with loops are uncolorable*. If  $G$  has multiple edges the assigned colors will not be affected. *Throughout this chapter we will assume that all graphs are loopless.* [6]

Graph-coloring has several applications, some of which are listed below:

- Map coloring : Given a map of a country, find the minimum number of colors required to color the states such that no two adjacent states have same color. This is a famous problem is graph-coloring and is called **four color map theorem**.
- Time-Table formation : Assign time slots for final examinations such that two courses with a common student have different slots. [6]

**Definition 12.1.** A **vertex coloring** of a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a map  $c : V \rightarrow S$  such that  $c(v) \neq c(w) \forall v, w \in V$  whenever  $v$  and  $w$  are adjacent. [4]

The elements of set  $S$  are called as the available *colours*. Our interest is to find the minimum number of colours required for vertex colouring.

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**Definition 12.2.** A  $k$ -coloring of a graph  $G$  is a labeling  $f : V(G) \rightarrow S$ , where  $S = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k)$  is a set of  $k$  unique colors ( $|S| = k$ ). [6]

- The labels are **colors**.
- The vertices of one color form a **color class**.
- A  $k$ -coloring is **proper** if adjacent vertices have different labels.
- A graph is  $k$ -**colorable** if it has a proper  $k$ -coloring.

**Definition 12.3.** The minimum  $k$  such that  $G$  is proper  $k$ -colorable is called the **chromatic number** and is denoted by  $\chi(G)$ . [6]

Some examples of chromatic numbers of different graphs is shown in figure 12.1 [1]

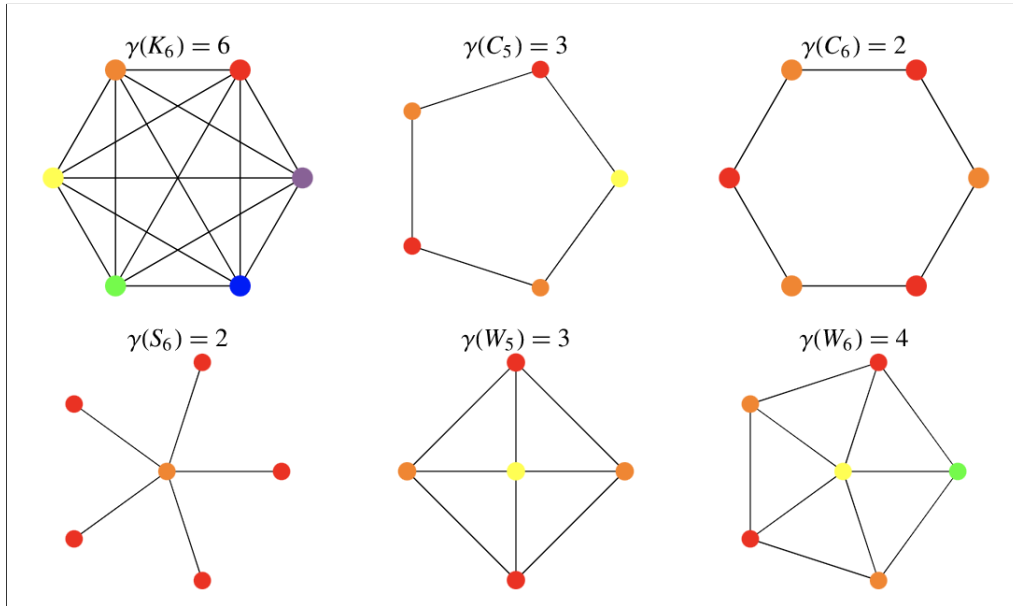


Figure 12.1: Examples of Chromatic Number

Note that, a graph  $G$  is  $k$ -colorable if  $\chi(G) \leq k$  and  $G$  is  $k$ -chromatic if  $\chi(G) = k$ . In proper coloring, each color class is an independent set. Thus,  $G$  is  $k$ -colorable if and only if  $V(G)$  is the union of  $k$  independent sets. Using this result, we can conclude that for a graph  $k$ -colorable and  $k$ -partite have the same meaning. [6]

Using the result mentioned above for bipartite graphs, we can conclude that :

**A graph is 2-colorable if and only if it is bipartite.**

**Theorem 12.4.** Let  $G_1, G_2, \dots, G_k$  be the  $k$  components of a graph  $G$ . Prove that:

$$\chi(G) = \max(\chi(G_1), \chi(G_2), \dots, \chi(G_k))$$

*Proof.* Let us take any two components  $G_i$  and  $G_j$  of  $G$  such that  $i \neq j$ . Notice that,  $\forall i, j (i \neq j) \nexists$  any edge between  $G_i$  and  $G_j$ . Hence, providing a proper coloring to  $G_i \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, k$  will produce a proper coloring for  $G$ .

Additionally, every proper coloring of  $G$  must restrict to a proper coloring for  $G_i \forall i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . Thus, we can conclude that:

$$\chi(G) = \max(\chi(G_1), \chi(G_2), \dots, \chi(G_k))$$

□

### 12.1.1 Greedy Algorithm for Graph Coloring

Let us consider a graph  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is the vertex ordering and let  $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k)$  be the enumerated list of the available colors.

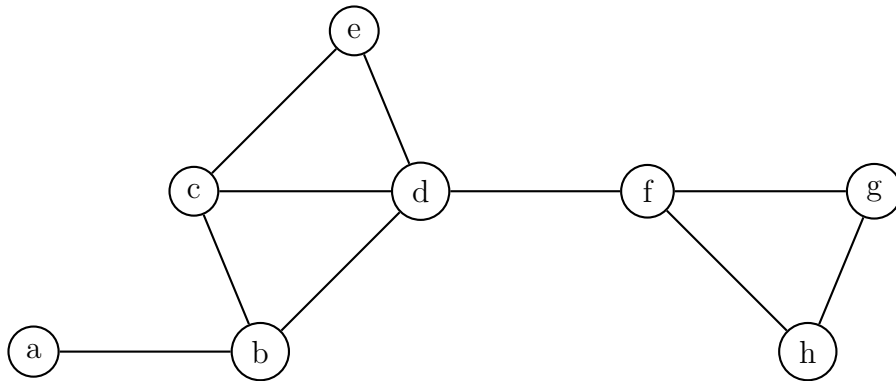
**Step-1 :** Choose any vertex  $v_i$  randomly and assign color  $c_1$  to it.

**Step-2 :** Repeat the following for the  $(n - 1)$  vertices which are not yet colored.

- a. Randomly choose any non-colored vertex  $c_j$
- b. Find all the vertices adjacent to  $c_j$
- c. Select all the colors *not* used for these adjacent vertices
- d. Among these colors, select the color with minimum enumeration
- e. Assign this color to  $c_j$
- f. If the vertices adjacent to  $c_j$  have exhausted all previously used color, then assign a new color to  $c_j$

**Example:** Let us consider the following graph  $G$ . For the vertex ordering  $a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h$ , if we apply greedy algorithm for graph coloring, we get the assignment of colors as 1, 2, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2, 3 respectively.

Total number of unique colors required to color this graph is 3. Hence  $\chi(G) = 3$  [6]



### 12.1.2 Bounds on Chromatic Number ( $\chi(G)$ )

Finding chromatic number for a graph is solvable in polynomial time only for  $k = 2$ , but it is a **NP-complete** problem for all  $k \geq 3$ . [5]

Let us consider a graph  $G = (V, E)$ . From the definition of chromatic number (12.3), we get that the  $\chi(\text{Null Graph}) = 1$  and  $\chi(K_n) = n$ . Thus, we can conclude:

- *Trivial lower bound* :  $\chi(G) \geq 1$
- *Trivial upper bound* :  $\chi(G) \leq |V(G)|$

**Definition 12.5.** The **clique number** of a graph  $G$  is denoted as  $\omega(G)$ . It is the maximum size of a set of pairwise adjacent vertices (clique) in  $G$ . [6]

**Proposition 12.6.** For every graph  $G$ ,  $\chi(G) \geq \omega(G)$ . [6]

*Proof.* From the definition of *clique* (12.5), we can conclude that, vertices of a clique must be assigned distinct colors because they are pairwise adjacent. Thus, we get:  $\chi(G) \geq \omega(G)$ .  $\square$

**Proposition 12.7.** For every graph  $G$ ,  $\chi(G) \leq (\Delta(G) + 1)$ , where  $\Delta(G)$  is the maximum degree of a vertex in  $G$ . [6]

*Proof.* In a vertex ordering, each vertex has at most  $\Delta(G)$  earlier neighbors. If we apply the greedy coloring algorithm, then it cannot be forced to use more than  $\Delta(G) + 1$  colors. This proves constructively that  $\chi(G) \leq (\Delta(G) + 1)$ .  $\square$

Chromatic number of some popular graphs are shown in table 12.1

Graph ( $G$ )	$\Delta(G)$	$\chi(G)$
Star Graph ( $S_n$ ), $n > 1$	$(n - 1)$	2
Complete Graph ( $K_n$ )	$n$	$n$
Wheel Graph ( $W_n$ ), $n > 2$	$(n - 1)$	4 (if $n$ is even) 3 (if $n$ is odd)
Cycle Graph ( $C_n$ ), $n > 1$	2	2 (if $n$ is even) 3 (if $n$ is odd)

Table 12.1: Chromatic number of  $S_n$ ,  $K_n$ ,  $W_n$  and  $C_n$

**Proposition 12.8.** (Welsh-Powell [1967]) If a graph  $G$  has degree sequence  $d_1 \geq d_2 \geq \dots d_n$ , then: [6]

$$\chi(G) \leq 1 + \max_i (\min\{d_i, i - 1\})$$

*Proof.* Let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  be the  $n$  vertices of graph  $G = (V, E)$  and  $d(v_i)$  be the degree of vertex  $i$ . We arrange the vertices of  $G$  in their non-increasing order of degree. With this vertex ordering, we apply the greedy coloring algorithm.

Consider  $v_i$ , it has at most  $\min\{d_i, i - 1\}$  earlier neighbours, so at most this many colors appear on its earlier neighbors. Hence, the color we assign to  $v_i$  is at most  $1 + \min\{d_i, i - 1\}$ . This holds for each vertex, so we maximize over  $i$  to obtain the upper bound on the maximum color used.  $\square$

### 12.1.3 Interval Graphs

**Definition 12.9.** An interval representation of a graph are such graphs for which there exists a set of  $n$  finite open intervals on the real line, such that the following two conditions hold: [3] [6]

- There is a 1 : 1 correspondence between the intervals and the vertices of the graph.
- vertices are adjacent if and only if the corresponding intervals intersect.

A graph having such a representation is called an **interval graph**.

An example of an interval graph is shown in figure 12.2

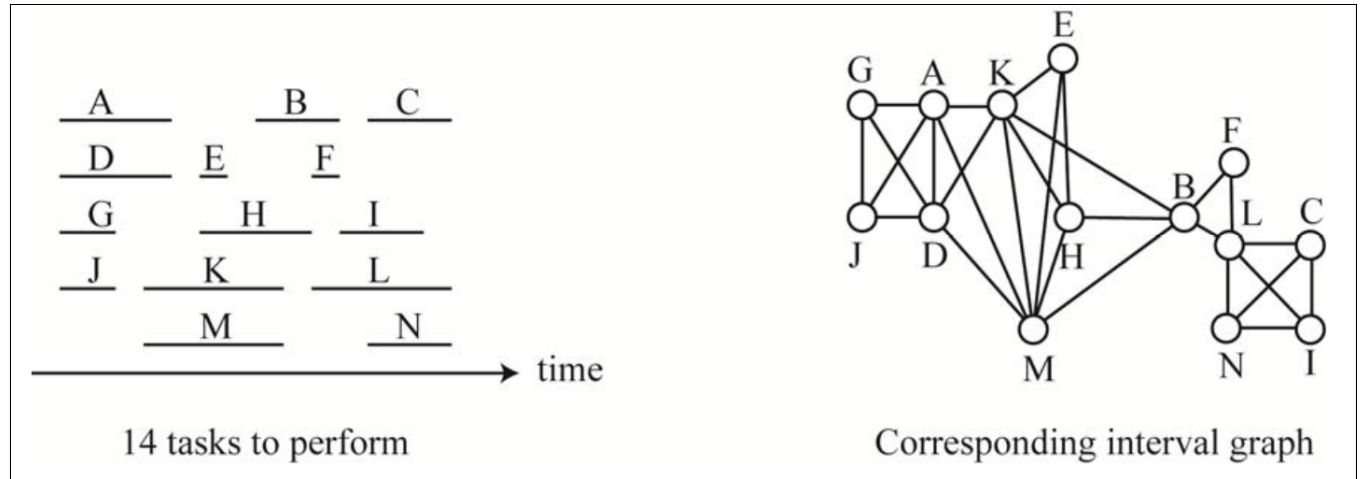


Figure 12.2: Examples of Interval Graph

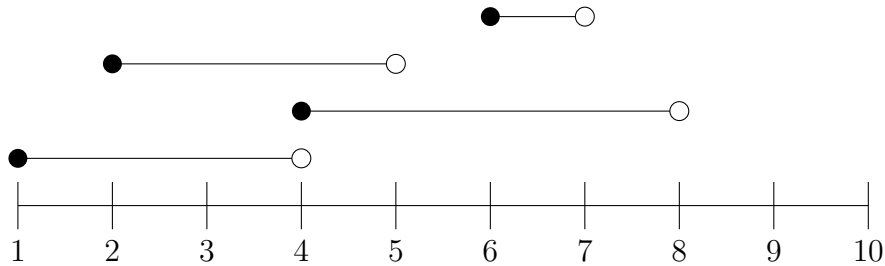
**Example :** Let us consider the following scheduling problem:

There are 4 events which are supposed to happen in IIT Jodhpur. The start and end time of these events are listed in table 12.2.

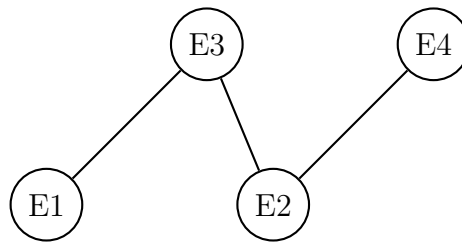
Event	Start Time (PM)	End Time (PM)
E1	1	4
E2	4	8
E3	2	5
E4	6	7

Table 12.2: Start and end time of events

- i. If there is only one room available to host all these 4 events, find the maximum number of events that can be hosted such that no two events occur at the same time in the same room?
- ii. Find the minimum number of rooms to host all these 4 events such that no two events occur at the same time in the same room?



Using the definition of interval graphs [12.9](#), let us convert the intervals shown above into a corresponding interval graph:



From this graph, we can observe that:

- i. A maximum of two events can be hosted if only 1 room is available.  $\{(E1, E2), (E1, E4), (E3, E4)\}$
- ii. Finding the minimum number of rooms to host all these 4 events is same as finding the chromatic number of the graph. Here, the chromatic number is 2.

**Not every graph is an interval graph :** Any arbitrary graph can not be viewed as an interval graph.[2]

- Cycle graphs  $C_n$  for  $n \geq 4$  are *not* an interval graph.
- Star Graph ( $S_n$ ) and Complete graph ( $K_n$ ) are interval graphs.

**Definition 12.10.** Let  $G = (V, E)$  be any graph and  $S \subset V$ . Then the **induced subgraph**  $G[S]$  is the graph whose vertex set is  $S$  and whose edge set consists of all of the edges in  $E$  that have both endpoints in  $S$ .

**Characterization of Interval Graphs :** A graph that has no *induced subgraph* as  $C_4$  and has *transitive orientation* is an interval graph.

### Heuristic to solve the Scheduling Problems

We solve the scheduling problems using greedy algorithms which are based on different heuristics.

**Heuristic (1) :** *Shortest event first*

Let us consider a scheduling problem where we have 4 events with their start and end time as shown in 12.3.

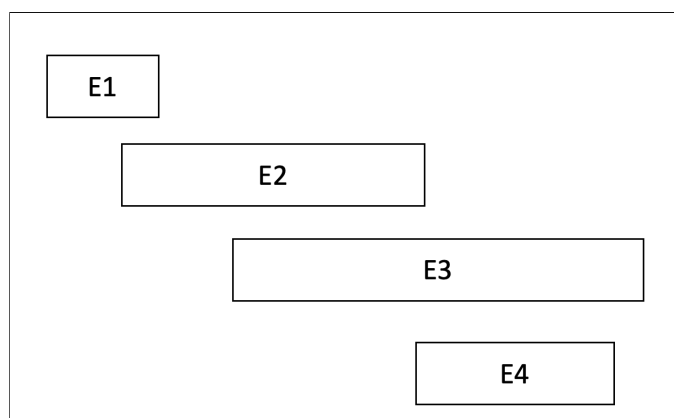


Figure 12.3: Scheduling example

Applying the Heuristic of *Shortest event first*, we get:

- We select the shortest event first, thus event  $E1$  is selected.
- The second shortest event is  $E4$ . Also,  $E1 \cap E4 = \phi$ , thus  $E2$ . Thus,  $E4$  is selected.

- As  $E1 \cap E2 \neq \emptyset$  and  $E4 \cap E3 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus, no more selection is possible.
- *Conclusion* : Two events  $E1$  and  $E4$  are selected.

Let us consider a scheduling problem where we have 3 events with their start and end time as shown in 12.4.

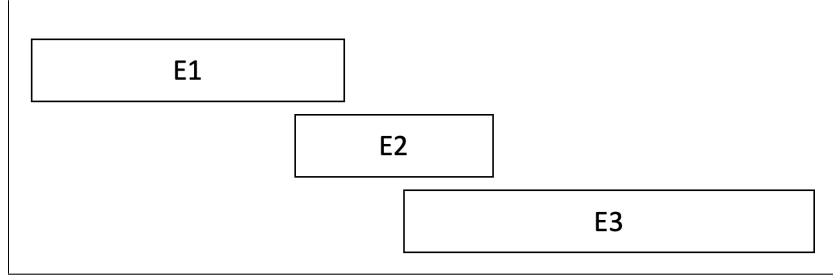


Figure 12.4: Scheduling example

Applying the Heuristic of *Shortest event first*, we get:

- We select the shortest event first, thus event  $E2$  is selected.
- As  $E2 \cap E1 \neq \emptyset$  and  $E2 \cap E3 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus, no more selection is possible.
- *Conclusion* : Only one event  $E2$  is selected.

Clearly, we can select two events  $E1$  and  $E3$  as  $E1 \cap E3 = \emptyset$ . Thus, example 12.4 serves as an **counter-example** for the *Shortest event first* heuristic.

### Heuristic (2) : *Earliest Start Time (EST)*

Start with the first event which start the earliest and then select the next possible events that begin as early as possible.

Let us consider a scheduling problem shown in 12.3. Applying the *EST Heuristic*, we get:

- Event  $E1$  starts the earliest. Thus, we first select event  $E1$ .
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E2$ . However,  $E1 \cap E2 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E2$  can not be selected.
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E3$ . Also,  $E1 \cap E3 = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E3$  is selected.
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E4$ . However,  $E3 \cap E4 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E4$  can not be selected.
- *Conclusion* : Two events  $E1$  and  $E3$  are selected.



Let us consider a scheduling problem where we have 3 events with their start and end time as shown in 12.5.

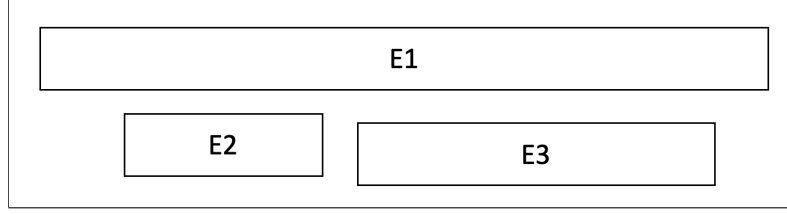


Figure 12.5: Scheduling example

Applying the *EST Heuristic*, we get:

- Event  $E1$  starts the earliest. Thus, we first select event  $E1$ .
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E2$ . However,  $E1 \cap E2 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E2$  can not be selected.
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E3$ . However,  $E1 \cap E3 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E3$  can not be selected.
- *Conclusion* : Only one event  $E1$  is selected.

Clearly, we can select two events  $E2$  and  $E3$  as  $E2 \cap E3 = \phi$ . Thus, example 12.5 serves as an **counter-example** for the *EST Heuristic*.

### Heuristic (3) : Earliest Finish Time (EFT)

Start with the event which finishes the earliest and then select the next possible events that finish as early as possible.

Let us consider a scheduling problem shown in 12.3. Applying the *EFT Heuristic*, we get:

- Event  $E1$  finishes the earliest. Thus, we first select event  $E1$ .
- The next event which finishes as early as possible is  $E2$ . However,  $E1 \cap E2 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E2$  can not be selected.
- The next event which finishes as early as possible is  $E4$ . Also,  $E1 \cap E4 = \phi$ . Thus,  $E4$  is selected.
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E3$ . However,  $E4 \cap E3 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E3$  can not be selected.
- *Conclusion* : Two events  $E1$  and  $E4$  are selected.

Let us consider the example 12.5. Applying the *EFT Heuristic*, we get:

- Event  $E2$  finishes the earliest. Thus, we first select event  $E2$ .
- The next event which finishes as early as possible is  $E3$ . Also,  $E2 \cap E3 = \phi$ . Thus,  $E3$  is selected.
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E1$ . However,  $E2 \cap E1 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E1$  can not be selected.
- *Conclusion* : Two events  $E2$  and  $E3$  is selected.

Let us consider the example [12.4](#). Applying the *EFT Heuristic*, we get:

- Event  $E1$  finishes the earliest. Thus, we first select event  $E1$ .
- The next event which finishes as early as possible is  $E2$ . However,  $E1 \cap E2 \neq \emptyset$ . Thus,  $E2$  can not be selected.
- The next event which starts as early as possible is  $E3$ . Also,  $E1 \cap E3 = \phi$ . Thus,  $E3$  is selected.
- *Conclusion* : Two events  $E1$  and  $E3$  is selected.

The *EFT Heuristic* works well with the counter-examples identified for *EST Heuristic* and *Shortest event first* heuristic.

# Bibliography

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- [2] Mathworld wolfram - interval graph. [12.1.3](#)
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- [6] Douglas B. West. *Introduction to Graph Theory*. Prentice Hall, 2 edition, September 2000. [12.1](#), [12.2](#), [12.3](#), [12.1](#), [12.1.1](#), [12.5](#), [12.6](#), [12.7](#), [12.8](#), [12.9](#)