

# Math 443/543 Graph Theory Notes 5: Planar graphs and coloring

David Glickenstein

October 10, 2014

## 1 Planar graphs

The Three Houses and Three Utilities Problem: Given three houses and three utilities, can we connect each house to all three utilities so that the utility lines do not cross.

We can represent this problem with a graph, connecting each house to each utility. We notice that this graph is bipartite:

**Definition 1** A bipartite graph is one in which the vertices can be partitioned into two sets  $X$  and  $Y$  such that every edge joins one vertex in  $X$  with one vertex in  $Y$ . The partition  $(X, Y)$  is called a bipartition. A complete bipartite graph is one such that each vertex of  $X$  is joined with every vertex of  $Y$ . The complete bipartite graph such that the order of  $X$  is  $m$  and the order of  $Y$  is  $n$  is denoted  $K_{m,n}$  or  $K(m, n)$ .

It is easy to see that the relevant graph in the problem above is  $K_{3,3}$ . Now, we wish to embed this graph in the plane such that no two edges cross except at a vertex.

**Definition 2** A planar graph is a graph that can be drawn in the plane such that no two edges cross except at a vertex. A planar graph drawn in the plane in a way such that no two edges cross except at a vertex is called a plane graph.

Note that it says “can be drawn” not “is drawn.” The problem is that even if a graph is drawn with crossings, it could potentially be drawn in another way so that there are no crossings.

Thus the Three Houses and Three Utilities Problem is whether or not  $K_{3,3}$  is a planar graph.

A planar graph divides the plane into regions. That is, if we remove the vertices and edges from the plane, there are a number of disconnected pieces, each of which we call a *region*. The *boundary* of a given region is all of the edges and vertices incident on the region. Notice that there is always one *exterior region* which contains all of the unbounded parts of the plane.

Look at examples. Notice that  $p - q + r = 2$ . A theorem of Euler says that this is always true. For the following theorem, we will need the definition of a tree.

**Definition 3** *A connected graph with no cycles is called a tree.*

Note the following fact about trees.

**Proposition 4** *A tree with  $p$  vertices and  $q$  edges satisfies  $p = q + 1$ .*

**Proof.** This can be proven by induction on the number of edges, since each time a new edge is attached, it must come with a new vertex. This is because if we attach two vertices with an edge, since the tree in the previous step is connected, we had a path between the two vertices and are hence introducing a cycle. ■

**Theorem 5 (Euler's Theorem)** *Let  $G$  be a connected plane graph with  $p$  vertices,  $q$  edges, and  $r$  regions. Then*

$$p - q + r = 2.$$

We remark that the number 2 has to do with the plane, and will become important when we look at topology.

**Proof.** We induct on  $q$ . If  $q = 0$ , then we must have  $p = 1$  and  $r = 1$ . Thus  $p - q + r = 1 - 0 + 1 = 2$ . Now suppose it is true for all graphs with  $k$  or fewer edges. Consider a connected graph  $G$  with  $k + 1$  edges. If  $G$  is a tree, then we know that  $p = q + 1 = k + 2$ . Furthermore, since there are no cycles in a tree,  $r = 1$ . Thus

$$p - q + r = (k + 2) - (k + 1) + 1 = 2.$$

If  $G$  is not a tree, then it contains a cycle. Let  $e \in G$  be an edge on a cycle. If we look at  $G' = G - e$ , it has  $k$  edges, and  $p' = p$ ,  $q' = k = q - 1$ , and by the inductive hypothesis,

$$p' - q' + r' = 2.$$

We see that  $r' = r - 1$  since removing the edge  $e$  joins the regions on either side of the  $e$ . Thus

$$p - q + r = p' - (q' + 1) + (r' + 1) = 2.$$

■

Notice the following corollary:

**Corollary 6** *Any representation of a planar graph as a plane graph has the same number of regions.*

We can now solve the Problem of Three Houses and Three Utilities.

**Theorem 7** *The graph  $K_{3,3}$  is not planar.*

**Proof.** Suppose we can represent  $K_{3,3}$  as a plane graph. We know that  $p = 6$  and  $q = 9$ , so we need to understand something about  $r$ . Since  $K_{3,3}$  is bipartite, we see that all regions have boundaries with at least 4 edges. Suppose the graph divides the plane into regions  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_r$ . Let  $B(R)$  be the number of edges in the boundary of region  $R$ . Consider the number

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^r B(R_i).$$

Since all regions have boundaries with at least 4 edges, we have

$$N \geq 4r.$$

However, since each edge is counted twice, we have that

$$N = 2q = 18.$$

Thus

$$4r \leq 18$$

or

$$r \leq 4.5.$$

However, that would mean that

$$p - q + r = 6 - 9 + r \leq 1.5,$$

which is impossible if the graph is a plane graph. ■

One might ask about other non-planar graphs. Another important one is  $K_5$ . Here is a theorem that allows us to show this.

**Theorem 8** *Let  $G$  be a connected, planar graph with  $p$  vertices and  $q$  edges, with  $p \geq 3$ . Then*

$$q \leq 3p - 6.$$

**Proof.** The proof is quite similar to that of the previous theorem. For  $p = 3$ , we certainly have  $q \leq 3$ . For  $p \geq 4$ , we consider a representation of  $G$  as a plane graph, which gives us  $r$  regions. Denote the regions as  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_r$ . We compute again

$$N = \sum_{i=1}^r B(R_i).$$

This time, we note that  $B(R) \geq 3$  for each region, and a similar argument give us that

$$3r \leq N \leq 2q.$$

Using Euler Theorem, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} 2 &= p - q + r \\ &\leq p - q + \frac{2}{3}q = p - \frac{1}{3}q \end{aligned}$$

or

$$q \leq 3p - 6.$$

■

**Corollary 9** *The complete graph  $K_5$  is not planar.*

**Proof.** We see that  $K_5$  has  $p = 5$  and  $q = \binom{5}{2} = 10$ , and so

$$q = 10 > 15 - 6 = 3p - 6.$$

■

## 2 Kuratowski's theorem

We saw that  $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are not planar. It easily follows that any graph containing one of these as a subgraph (technically, any graph with a subgraph isomorphic to one of these two graphs) is not planar either. In fact, we can do slightly better by seeing that any graph with a subgraph isomorphic to a subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  is not planar.

**Definition 10** *A subdivision of a graph  $G$  is a new graph obtained by adding vertices inside the edges. (The new vertices are all of degree 2.)*

It is then clear that :

**Proposition 11** *If a subdivision of  $G$  is planar, then  $G$  is planar.*

**Proof.** Given a representation of the subdivision of  $G$  as a plane graph, simply remove the vertices which form the subdivision and we arrive at a plane graph representation of  $G$ . ■

Stated another way, if  $G$  is not planar, then any subdivision is not planar. Thus any subdivision of  $K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  is nonplanar.

**Proposition 12** *If  $G$  is planar, then every subgraph is planar.*

**Proof.** Represent  $G$  as a plane graph, then the subgraphs are also plane graphs.

■

Thus if a subgraph of  $G$  is a subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ , then it is not planar, and thus  $G$  is not planar.

Kuratowski's theorem is the converse:

**Theorem 13 (Kuratowski)** *If a graph is not planar, then it contains a subgraph isomorphic to a subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ .*

Proof is in BM1, BM2, or D. We may do it later in the semester.

### 3 Topology comments

Plane graphs are also graphs on spheres. Using stereographic projection, one can convert any plane graph to a graph on the sphere with no vertex at the north pole. Stereographic projection is a map from the sphere except the north pole to the plane which is a homeomorphism (i.e., a bijection which is continuous with continuous inverse). The map is defined as follows. Consider the plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and the  $xy$ -plane,  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . For any point  $P$  on the sphere, draw a line in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  from the north pole to that point. It will intersect the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  at a point  $P'$ . Stereographic projection is the map  $P \rightarrow P'$ . With some basic geometry, one can explicitly write down the map, which is

$$\phi(x, y, z) = \left( \frac{x}{1-z}, \frac{y}{1-z} \right).$$

The inverse map can also be written explicitly, as

$$\phi^{-1}(x, y) = \left( \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}, \frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}, \frac{x^2 + y^2 - 1}{x^2 + y^2 + 1} \right).$$

We have the following:

**Proposition 14** *Let  $v \in V(G)$  for a planar graph  $G$ . There is a plane graph representing  $G$  such that  $v$  is in the boundary of the exterior region.*

**Proof.** Take a plane graph representing  $G$ . Map it by inverse stereographic projection to the sphere. Some region contains  $v$  in its boundary. Rotate the sphere so that a point in that region is at the north pole, then use stereographic projection to project it back to the plane. ■

Recall that our proof of nonembeddability of  $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  used Euler's theorem, which is essentially a theorem about topology. We can replace the use of Euler's theorem with a different topological theorem, the Jordan curve theorem.

**Theorem 15 (Jordan curve theorem)** *A Jordan curve is a curve in the plane with no self-intersection except that it begins and ends at the same point. A Jordan curve divides the plane into two regions, each of whose boundary is the curve itself. One region is unbounded, and called the exterior region and the other is bounded and called the interior region. Any path between the two regions must intersect the curve.*

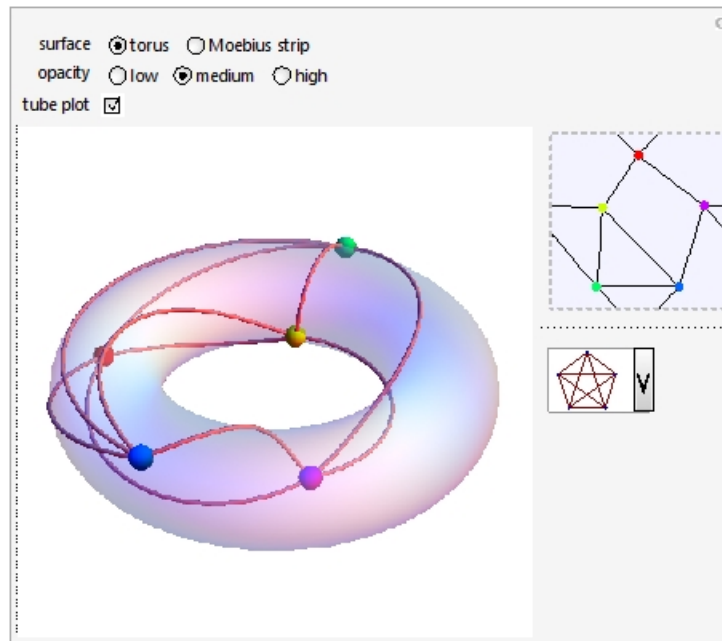
We will not prove the theorem here, but show a quick proof that  $K_5$  is not embeddable.

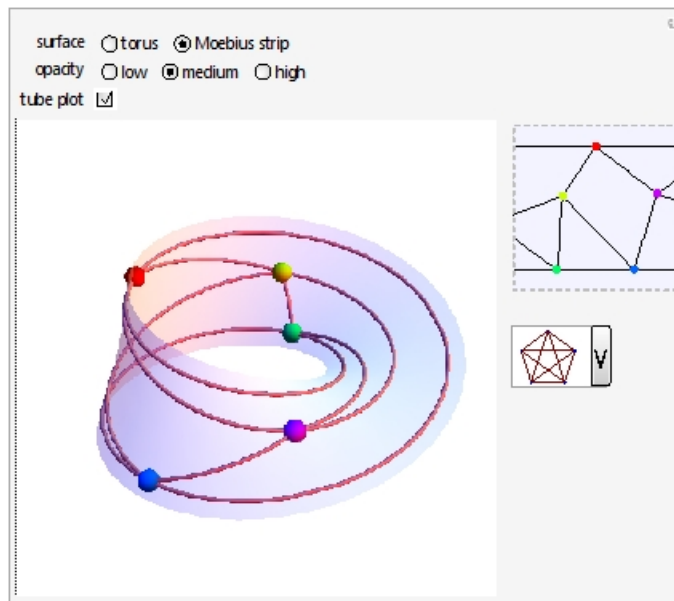
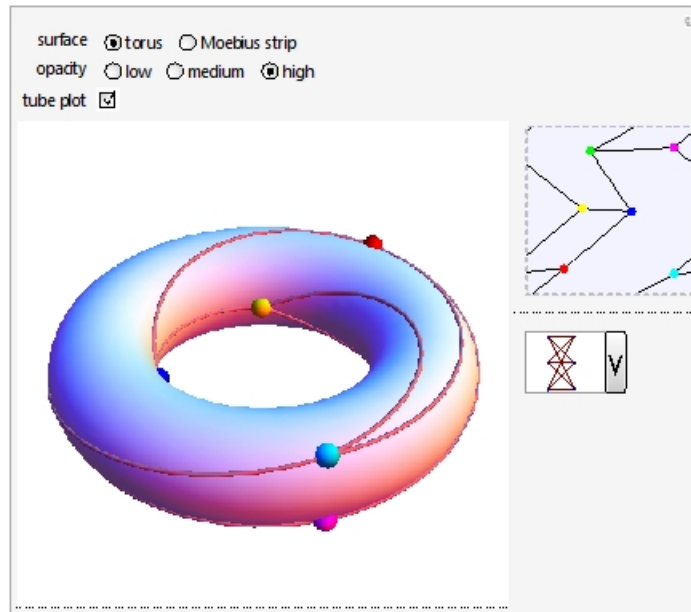
Suppose  $G$  were a plane curve isomorphic to  $K_5$  and label the vertices  $V(G) = \{v_1, \dots, v_5\}$ . There is a subgraph defined by the cycle  $C = v_1, v_2, v_3$ . This cycle must form a Jordan curve. Thus  $v_4$  must be either in the interior or exterior regions. Suppose it is in the interior region. Then We can consider the graph  $G - v_5$ , which consists of the cycle and some edges inside the cycle. If the vertex  $v_5$  is in the exterior region to  $C$ , then the edge  $v_4v_5$  must intersect

$C$ , a contradiction. Otherwise,  $v_5$  is inside one of the cycles  $C_{12} = v_1, v_2, v_4$ ,  $C_{13} = v_1, v_3, v_4$ , or  $C_{23} = v_2, v_3, v_4$ . Say it is inside  $C_{12}$ . Then the edge  $v_3v_5$  must intersect  $C_{12}$ , a contradiction. Similar arguments deal with the remaining cases.

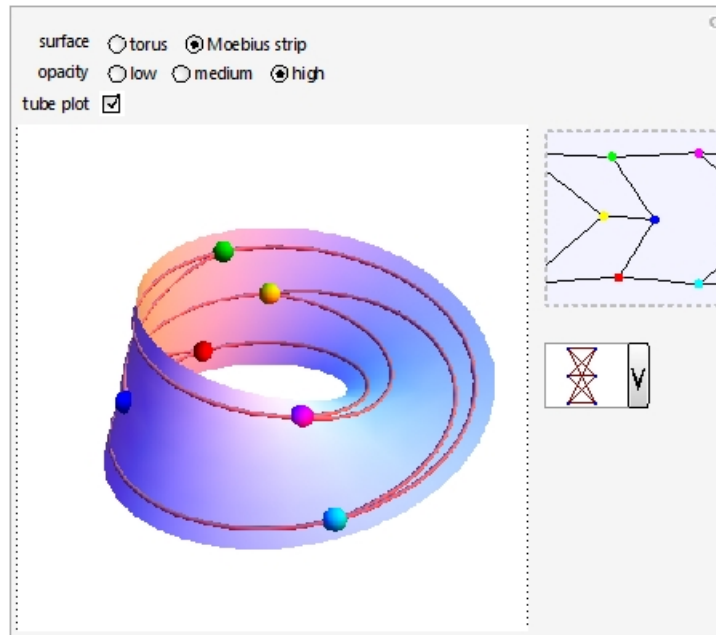
Although  $K_5$  cannot be embedded in the plane, it can be embedded in the torus. So can  $K_{3,3}$ . They can also be embedded in a Moebius band. Pictures are courtesy of Wolfram Mathematica,

<http://demonstrations.wolfram.com/EmbeddingsOfGraphsInATorusAndInAMoebiusStrip/>.





We can now rethink the theorem that  $p - q + r = 2$ . This is true for plane graphs, but not for graphs embedded in the torus. The theorem of Euler is that if a graph divides the torus up into regions each of which is simply connected, then  $p - q + r$  is the same no matter which graph. Simply connected means



that any loop can be deformed into a point. Notice that there are regions of the torus for which this is not true.

**Definition 16** A surface is a sphere with handles attached. The number of handles is called the genus of the surface.

**Definition 17** An embedding of a graph  $G$  in a surface is a drawing of  $G$  on the surface with no edge crossings (except at vertices).

**Proposition 18** If a graph can be embedded on a surface of genus  $g$ , then it can be embedded on a surface of genus  $h$  for any  $h \geq g$  with no edge crossings.

**Proof.** Draw the graph on the surface of genus  $g$ , then attach handles inside on of the regions. ■

**Definition 19** The genus of a graph  $G$  is the smallest number  $g$  such that  $G$  can be embedded in a surface of genus  $g$ . Planar graphs are graphs of genus 0.

**Proposition 20** Every graph has a genus.

**Proof.** Draw the graph in the plane (it may have crossings). We can resolve these crossings by inserting handles where the crossings are, which allow one to have an overpass so that the two edges no longer cross. This gives one embedding, and an upper bound on the genus. ■

Here are some theorems that we will not prove for now:

**Theorem 21**  $K_5, K_6, K_7$  each have genus 1.  $K_8$  has genus 2.



## 4 Scheduling problem

Suppose you wish to assign times for final exams. You should schedule them so that no student has two exams scheduled at the same time. We can represent this as a graph, where the vertices are the courses and there is an edge if any student is taking both courses. We will assign colors to the vertices to indicate the time of the exam. Clearly, we want adjacent edges to have different colors. This is called a coloring of the graph.

**Definition 22** A coloring of a graph  $G$  is function  $f : V(G) \rightarrow S$ , for some set  $S$ , such that  $f(v) \neq f(w)$  if  $vw \in E(G)$ . Often we will choose  $S \subset \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ . An  $n$ -coloring is a coloring where  $S$  has  $n$  elements.

**Remark 23** If  $G$  is a  $(p, q)$ -graph, then there is always a  $p$ -coloring. It is more interesting to find the smallest  $n$  for which  $G$  has an  $n$ -coloring.

**Definition 24** The chromatic number  $\chi(G)$  is the minimal  $n$  such that  $G$  has an  $n$ -coloring.

Consider  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  on C-p. 204. We see that  $G_1$  has a 5-coloring. However, clearly we can reduce this. We can find a 3-coloring. However, it does not have a 2-coloring. Graph  $G_2$  has a 4-coloring as shown. But no 3-coloring. Thus  $\chi(G_1) = 3$ ,  $\chi(G_2) = 4$ . We can also see that graph  $H$  on C-p. 205 has  $\chi(H) = 4$ .

**Proposition 25** The minimum number of exam periods is given by the chromatic number of the graph.

**Proof.** The chromatic number is realized by a coloring of the graph, and on the coloring, no two classes which share a student have the same time slot (color). We just need to show that this is the minimal number of exam periods. Suppose we have an assignment of exam periods which has fewer time slots. Then these produce an  $n$ -coloring where  $n < \chi(G)$ , which is a contradiction. ■

Unfortunately, it is generally very difficult to compute a chromatic number. Here is a result.

**Theorem 26** Let  $\Delta(G) = \max\{\deg(v) : v \in V(G)\}$ . Then

$$\chi(G) \leq 1 + \Delta(G).$$

**Proof.** Induct on the order of  $G$ . Suppose  $p = 1$ , then  $\Delta(G) = 0$  and  $\chi(G) = 1$ . This is the base case. For the inductive step, we assume that  $\chi(G) \leq 1 + \Delta(G)$  for any graph of order  $P$  or less. Let  $G$  be a graph of order  $P+1$ . Let  $v$  be a vertex of maximal degree.  $G-v$  has a  $(1 + \Delta(G-v))$ -coloring. If  $\deg(v) \leq \Delta(G-v)$ , then we have  $\Delta(G) = \Delta(G-v)$ , and furthermore there is a free color to use to color  $v$  (since there are  $\Delta(G-v) + 1$  colors available, but only  $\Delta(G-v)$  vertices adjacent to  $v$ ). If  $\deg v > \Delta(G-v)$ , then we can introduce a new color and color  $v$  with that color. ■

Note, that we actually proved something stronger:

**Proposition 27**  $\chi(G) \leq \min\{1 + \Delta(G), 2 + \Delta(G-v)\}$ .

## 5 Four color theorem

Consider a map. We wish to color the map in such a way that adjacent countries have different colors. The map coloring problem is to find the minimal number of such colors. This can be translated into the question of finding the chromatic number of graphs representing the adjacency between countries. The four color theorem states that

**Theorem 28** *For any planar graph  $G$ ,  $\chi(G) \leq 4$ .*

In other words, we can always color a planar graph with 4 colors. This problem has an interesting history. There were a number of false proofs since the problem began in 1852, proposed by Francis Guthrie in 1858, and told to the mathematical community some years later by his brother. It was finally solved by Appel and Haken in 1976. Their proof required a large number of cases (nearly 2000) that were each checked with a computer. Subsequently, the number of cases has been reduced to around 600, but still too many for any person to check by hand. Whether this constituted a proof was extremely controversial in the mathematics community (and, in some instances, is still controversial).

We will prove that 5 colors is enough, which is much easier.

**Lemma 29** *Every planar graph  $G$  contains a vertex  $v$  such that  $\deg v \leq 5$ .*

**Proof.** We may assume  $G$  has at least 7 vertices (since otherwise this is obvious). The sum of all of the degrees of the vertices is equal to  $2q$ . If every vertex has degree larger than or equal to 6, then  $2q \geq 6p$ . On the other hand, we proved that since  $G$  is planar, that  $q \leq 3p - 6$ . Thus we would have that  $6p \leq 2q \leq 6p - 12$ , a contradiction. ■

**Theorem 30 (Five Color Theorem)** *For any planar graph  $G$ ,  $\chi(G) \leq 5$ .*

**Proof.** We induct on the order of the graph  $p$ . If  $p = 1$ , then the chromatic number is 1. Now suppose  $\chi(G) \leq 5$  if  $p \leq P$ . Let  $G$  be a graph of order  $P + 1$ . By the lemma, there is a vertex  $v$  with  $\deg v \leq 5$ . By the inductive hypothesis,  $G - v$  has a 5-coloring. If  $\deg v < 4$ , then we can easily color  $v$  to get a 5-coloring of  $G$ , so we may assume that  $\deg v = 5$ . We may number the vertices adjacent to  $v$  as  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$  in a cyclical ordering around  $v$  (in the plane graph representation of  $G$ ). If all 5 colors are not represented among the neighbors of  $v$ , then we can produce a 5-coloring, so we may assume that  $v_1$  has color 1,  $v_2$  has color 2, etc. We will now consider paths in  $G - v$  with only 2 colors (the colors must alternate because it is a coloring). First suppose there is no path from  $v_1$  to  $v_3$  with only colors 1 and 3. Consider all paths from  $v_1$  with only colors 1 and 3 and call this graph  $H$ .  $H$  is a subgraph of  $G - v$ . We can switch all of the colors in  $H$  (1 becomes 3, 3 becomes 1), since any edge from a vertex in  $H$  to a vertex not in  $H$  must be between a vertex colored 1 or 3 (in  $H$ ) and a vertex colored 2, 4, or 5 (not in  $H$ ). Then  $v$  has no neighbor

colored 1 and so we can color  $v$  with 1. However, if  $v_3 \in H$ , then switching the colors would not result in a free color. So, suppose  $v_3 \in H$ . Then there is a cycle in  $G$  given by  $P$  followed by  $v_3, v, v_1$ . This cycle has an interior region and an exterior region, and so  $v_2$  is either in the interior region or the exterior region and  $v_4$  is in the other. By the Jordan curve theorem, any path from  $v_2$  to  $v_4$  must cross this cycle, which means that there is no path from  $v_2$  to  $v_4$  with all vertices of color 2 or 4. Now procede as we did in the case there is no path from  $v_1$  to  $v_3$  with only colors 1 and 3. ■

There is an alternate proof. Proceed as before until we know we have  $v$  with degree 5. We claim that we can find 2 vertices adjacent to  $v$  that are not adjacent. If not, then there would be a subgraph of  $G$  with a subgraph isomorphic to  $K_5$ , which would mean there is a plane graph isomorphic to  $K_5$  (false!). Let  $u, w$  be vertices adjacent to  $v$  but not adjacent to each other. We can form a graph from  $G - v$  by identifying  $u$  and  $w$ , and that graph is planar (we can turn it into a plane graph by deforming  $u$  and  $w$  to  $v$  along  $uv$  and  $wv$ ). Thus there is a 5-coloring for this graph, but that gives a 5-coloring on  $G - v$  which has 4 or fewer colors adjacent to  $v$ .