

Perfect Coloring of Planar Graphs And Related Aspects

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Abstract- This paper defines a conjecture on the coloring of planar graph, known as the perfect coloring of planar graph. We intend to study the relation between semi perfect coloring and perfect coloring of graphs. Precisely, we prove this conjecture for few particular planar graphs.

Keywords- Perfect Coloring, Semi perfect coloring.

I. INTRODUCTION

In this section, we present a brief survey of those results of graph theory, which we shall need shortly. The reader is referred to [7, 8, 10] for a fuller treatment of the subject.

1.1 Graphs: A graph G is an ordered pair $(V(G), E(G))$ where i) $V(G)$ is a non empty finite set of elements, known as vertices. $V(G)$ is known as vertex set. ii) $E(G)$ is a family of unordered pairs (not necessarily distinct) of elements of V , known as edges of G . $E(G)$ is known as Edge set. [7]

1.2 Planar Graph: A graph G is a planar graph if it is possible to represent it in the plane such that no two edges of the graph intersect except possibly at a vertex to which they are both incident. Any such drawing of planar graph G in a plane is a planar embedding of G . [8]

1.3 * isomorphism: Two graphs are said to be *isomorphic if their geometric duals are isomorphic. [4]

1.4 Four Color Map Problem: Planar map is a set of pairwise disjoint subsets of the plane, known as regions of the map. Two regions a map are adjacent if they have a common boundary that is not a corner. A vertex or point of a map is said to be corner if it is a common point of three or more regions. A coloring of a graph is an assignment of colors to its vertices (or regions) so that no two adjacent vertices (or regions) have the same color. The set of all vertices (or regions) with same color in graph, is called a color class. [1]

Theorem 1.1: (Four Color Map Theorem) Every planar map can be colored with four or fewer colors

The Four Color Conjecture was first stated 200 years ago and finally proved conclusively in 1976. The professor of mathematics, Augustus De Morgan (1806-71) and his friend William Rowan Hamilton studied this theorem and gave first proof. In 1879, Alfred Kempe, published a short paper on coloring of maps. He added some other ideas of coloring. In 1879, Alfred Kempe published this proof in the American Journal of Mathematics in simple versions. In 1980, Tait P.G. offered independent solution to this problem. After collaborating with John Koch on the problem of reducibility, in 1976, Kenneth Appel and Wolfgang Haken gave the complete proof to the four color conjecture by reducing the testing problem to an unavoidable set with 1936 configurations. Because of the computer based proof, many Mathematicians were not agreeing with this proof. However, many proofs written by different Mathematicians have been found to be faulty. So all we have been waiting for the simple proof of this theorem. [2, 3, 4]

This problem is stated by Douglas B. West. He has published it in his book. He state that “*The vertices and edges of a graph G can be colored with $\Delta(G) + 2$ colors such that adjacent vertices have different colors, incident edges have different colors and incident edge and vertices have different colors.*” [9]

This type of coloring is known as Semi Perfect Coloring. If α minimum number of colors are required to color any planar graph G by semi perfect coloring, then it is denoted by $SPC(G) = \alpha$

1.5 HB Graph: A region or face R of a planar graph is said to be a pivot region of graph if all other regions of graph are adjacent to R . Every region of a complete graph on four vertices (K_4) is a pivot region. So K_4 has four pivot regions. [6]

The number of pivot regions of a planar graph is known as Pivot Region Number of that Graph. It is denoted by $PRN(G)$. A planar graph is said to be HB graph if it has a pivot region. [6]

II. MAIN RESULTS

2.1 Open Problem on Coloring of Planar Graphs:

Conjecture: How many minimum colors will be required to color planar graph such that

1. Adjacent vertices have different colors.
2. Incident edges have different colors.
3. Adjacent regions have different colors.
4. A region, boundary edges and boundary vertices of that region have different colors.

If β number of colors are required to color any graph G by perfect coloring, then it is denoted by $PC(G) = \beta$. This type of coloring is known as Perfect Coloring. We have proved this open problem partially.

Theorem 2.1 If G is any planar graph then $SPC(G) \leq PC(G)$.

Proof: By the definitions of $SPC(G)$ and $PC(G)$, clearly $SPC(G)$ is less than $PC(G)$. Without loss of generality, assume that G is a rose 1 graph with 3 edges as given below.

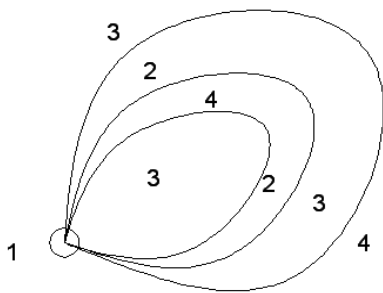


Figure 2.1: Rose 1 Graph

In a graph G , 3 edges are incident at only one vertex. So these edges are adjacent to each other. Therefore assign three different colors to these edges and one different color to the vertex. Thus $SPC(G) = 4$. Use same four colors only for coloring of regions with required conditions. So $PC(G) = 4$. Apply same judgment for rose 1 graph with any number of edges. This implies $SPC(G) = PC(G)$. Thus $SPC(G) \leq PC(G)$. \square

Theorem 2.2 If G is a null graph with n vertices then $SPC(G) = 1$ and $PC(G) = 2$.

Proof: Let G be a null graph with n vertices say V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n . Graph G has only one region R and all these n vertices lie in R . These vertices are totally disconnected. So assign same

color to these vertices and different color to the region R . Thus $SPC(G) = 1$ and $PC(G) = 2$. \square

Theorem 2.3 If G is a chain graph on $n \geq 3$ vertices then $SPC(G) = \Delta(G) + 1$ and $PC(G) = \Delta(G) + 2$, where $\Delta(G) =$ Highest degree of a vertex in G .

Proof: Let G be a chain graph on $n \geq 2$ vertices say V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n , such that V_i is adjacent to V_{i+1} , for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$. So V_1, V_n are pendent vertices. Assign color 1 to vertex V_1 , color 2 to edge $e_1 = \{V_1, V_2\}$ and color 3 to vertex V_2 in graph G . An edge $e_2 = \{V_2, V_3\}$ is adjacent to e_1 and incident at V_2 . So assign color to an edge e_2 different from colors 2 and 3. Therefore assign a color 1 to an edge e_2 , color 2 to vertex V_3 and color 3 to an edge $e_3 = \{V_3, V_4\}$.

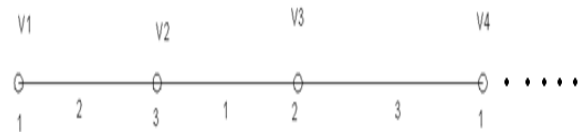


Figure 2.2: Chain Graph

The same sequence of colors is repeated finitely many times. Hence, 3 colors are required to color chain graph according to semi perfect coloring. Graph G has only one region. So assign a different color to this region. In chain graph G , $\Delta(G) = 2$. Thus $SPC(G) = 3 = \Delta(G) + 1$ and $PC(G) = 4 = \Delta(G) + 2$. \square

Theorem 2.4 If G is a star graph on $n \geq 3$ vertices then $SPC(G) = \Delta(G) + 1$ and $PC(G) = \Delta(G) + 2$, where $\Delta(G) =$ Highest degree of a vertex in G .

Proof: Let G be a star graph on n vertices say V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n . Subsequently, graph G has one vertex of degree $n-1$ and $n-1$ pendent vertices.

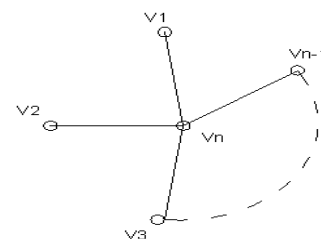


Figure 2.3: Star Graph

Assign color 1 to vertex V_n . All edges are incident at V_n . So assign different colors to each edge. Assign color 2 to the first edge $e_1 = \{V_1, V_n\}$, color 3 to $e_2 = \{V_2, V_n\}$, ..., color n to an edge $e_{n-1} = \{V_{n-1}, V_n\}$. Consequently assign colors 3, 4, ... $n-1$, 1, 2 to vertices V_1, V_2, \dots, V_{n-1} respectively.

Thus $SPC(G) = n = \Delta(G) + 1$, where $\Delta(G) = n-1$.

As graph G has only one region so assign different color to that region. Therefore $PC(G) = n + 1 = \Delta(G) + 2$. \square

Theorem 2.5 *If G is a tree graph on $n \geq 3$ vertices then $SPC(G) = \Delta(G) + 1$ and $PC(G) = \Delta(G) + 2$, where $\Delta(G) =$ Highest degree of a vertex in G .*

Proof: Let G be a tree on $n \geq 3$ vertices. Find the largest subgraph H of a tree which is a star graph. By above theorem 5.27, $SPC(H) = \Delta(H) + 1$ and $PC(H) = \Delta(H) + 2$. Therefore same numbers of colors are sufficient for coloring of graph G . Thus, $SPC(G) = \Delta(G) + 1$ and $PC(G) = \Delta(G) + 2$. \square

Theorem 2.6 *If C_n is a cycle graph on $n \geq 3$ vertices then $SPC(C_{3n}) = 3$, $SPC(C_{3n+1}) = 4$, $SPC(C_{3n+2}) = 4$ and $PC(C_{3n}) = 5$, $PC(C_{3n+1}) = 6$, $PC(C_{3n+2}) = 6$.*

Proof: Without loss of generality, suppose G, H and K are graphs on 6, 5 and 7 vertices as given in figure 5.12.

In a graph G , we have six vertices as A, B, C, D, E, F and edges $e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6$ as shown in figure 5.12. Consider the closed path $A-e_1-B-e_2-C-e_3-D-e_4-E-e_5-F-e_6-A$. Now, assign colors successively 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1 to every element of the path. Therefore $SPC(G) = 3$.

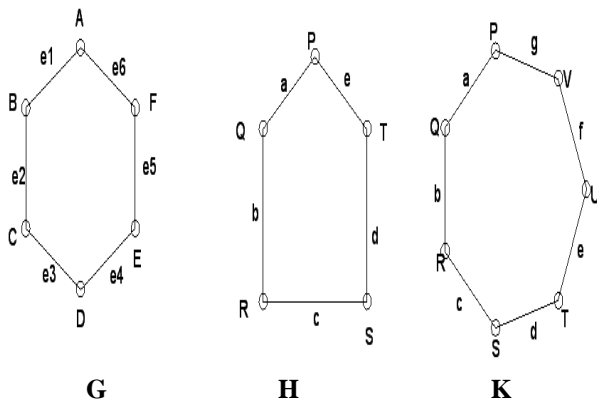


Figure 2.4: Cycle Graphs

There are two regions in G and all vertices and edges lie on the boundary of those regions. So assign two different colors to these regions. Thus $PC(G) = 3 + 2 = 5$.

In a graph H , we have five vertices say P, Q, R, S, T and five edges say a, b, c, d, e . Consider the closed path $P-a-Q-b-R-c-S-d-T-e-P$. Now assign a different color to each element of the path. We assign colors 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3

respectively to $P-a-Q-b-R-c-S-d-T$. An edge $e = \{T, P\}$ is adjacent to edge d .

So we have to assign color different from 1, 2, 3 to edge e . Consequently assign color 4 to edge e . Thus $SPC(H) = 4$ and $PC(G) = 4 + 2 = 6$.

In a graph K , the closed path is $P-a-Q-b-R-c-S-d-T-e-U-f-V-g-P$. We assign colors 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2, 3, 1, 4, 3, 2, 4, 1 respectively to $P-a-Q-b-R-c-S-d-T-e-U-f-V-g-P$. Thus $SPC(H) = 4$ and $PC(G) = 4 + 2 = 6$.

Hence, in general $SPC(C_{3n}) = 3$, $SPC(C_{3n+1}) = 4$, $SPC(C_{3n+2}) = 4$ and $PC(C_{3n}) = 5$, $PC(C_{3n+1}) = 6$ and $PC(C_{3n+2}) = 6$. \square

Theorem 2.7 *If G is a rose graph with $m \geq 2$ loops then $SPC(G) = m + 1$ and $PC(G) = m + 2$.*

Proof: Without loss of generality, assume that H is a rose graph with five loops as given below.

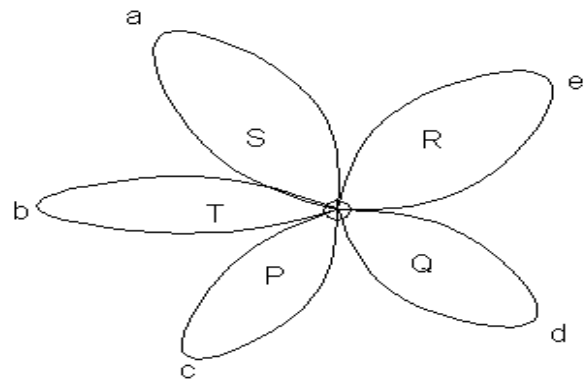


Figure 2.5: Rose Graph

Assign color 1 to vertex V . Five different edges are incident at V , so assign five different colors to edges a, b, c, d and e . Now assign color of edge a to region P , color of edge b to region Q , color of edge c to region R , color of edge d to region S , color of edge e to region T . The vertex V and these five loops are the boundaries of an infinite region. So assign a different color to this infinite region. Thus we required seven different colors for the perfect coloring of H . Therefore $SPC(H) = 5 + 1 = 6$ and $PC(H) = 5 + 2 = 7$.

In general, if G is a rose graph with m loops then assign m colors to these m loops. We use same colors for regions, one different color for vertex and one more different color for an infinite region. Thus $SPC(G) = m + 1$ and $PC(G) = m + 2$. \square

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