Exam 2 Review

Math 154 Spring 2020

Ch 1.5: Planar Graphs

- Planarity Definition
- Faces and Euler's Formula
- Platonic Solids
- Straight Line Embeddings
- Non-Planar Graphs

Planar Embeddings

<u>**Definition:</u>** A *planar embedding* of a graph G is a drawing of G so that</u>

- Each vertex of G corresponds to a point in the plane.
- Each edge of G corresponds to a curve connecting its endpoints.
- No two edge-curves cross except at endpoints.

Planar Graphs

Definition: A graph is *planar* if it has a planar embedding.



Application: Maps

Given a map with simply connected regions, the adjacency graph on regions is planar.



Faces

A planar embedding of a graph divides the plane into regions. These are called *faces*.



Euler's Formula

Theorem (1.31): For any planar embedding of a connected graph G with v vertices, e edges and f faces (including the infinite face)

v - e + f = 2

General Graphs

- Use induction on e.
- Base case: G is a tree.
- Otherwise, G has a cycle
- Cycle separates plane into inside and outside.
- Remove an edge of cycle, decreases f by 1.
- IH => v (e-1) + (f-1) = 2



Sides to a Face

If G is a connected planar graph, any face (including the infinite one) will be bounded by a loop of edges.



The number of *sides* of the face is the number of edges in this loop.

Dual Handshake Lemma

Lemma: For a connected, planar graph,

$$\sum_{\text{Faces } f} \text{Sides}(f) = 2|E|.$$

- Note similarity to Handshake Lemma. Sides of faces instead of degrees of vertices.
- Proof similar.

Edge Bound

<u>Theorem (1.33)</u>: If G is a connected planar graph with $|V| \ge 3$, then $|E| \le 3|V| - 6$.

K₅ Non-Planar

Theorem (1.34): The K_5 is non-planar. **Proof:** If it were, we would have $e \le 3v-6 = 9$

But e = 10. Contradiction!

K_{3,3} Non-Planar

Theorem (1.32): $K_{3,3}$ is non-planar.

Proof: K_{3,3} is bipartite, so it has no odd cycles. Therefore, if planar any face has at least 4 sides.

If planar,

 $e \le 2v-4 = 8$.

But e=9. Contradiction!

Minimum Degree

- Theorem (1.35): If G is a finite, connected planar graph, its vertices have minimum degree at most 5.
- <u>**Proof:</u>** Otherwise, each vertex has degree 6 or more.</u>

Handshake Lemma implies

 $2e = \Sigma d(v) \ge 6v.$

But then

 $3v-6 \ge e \ge 3v$.

Contradiction!

Triangulations

- We note that our edge bound of 3v-6 has an equality case if and only if all faces are triangles.
- We can always ensure that this is the case if we add more edges.
- Lemma: For any planar embedding of a graph G there is a way to add more edges to G to get a new planar graph G' in which all faces are triangles.

Fary's Theorem

Theorem (V. 7.4.2): Any finite (simple) planar graph G has a plane embedding where all of the edges are straight line segments.

Proof Strategy

• Induct on v.

- If $v \leq 3$, easy to draw.

- Assume G is connected (ow/ draw each component separately)
- Find a vertex v of low degree.
- Draw G-v with straight lines.
- Re-insert v into drawing.

Lemma

<u>Lemma:</u> Given any polygon P in the plane with at most 5 sides, there is a point v inside of P with straight line paths to each of P's vertices.

Polyhedra

<u>**Definition:**</u> A *polyhedron* is a 3 dimensional figure bounded by finitely many flat *faces*. Two faces meet at an *edge* and edges meet at *vertices*.

A polyhedron is *convex* if for any two points in the polyhedron the line segment connecting them is also contained in the polyhedron.

Polyhedral Graphs

Given a convex polyhedron, can turn it into a planar graph by projecting vertices/edges onto a sphere (which can then be flattened onto a plane).



Euler's Formula

Euler's Formula applies directly:

For any polyhedron:

#Faces - #Edges + #Vertices = 2

Degrees

Note that in any polyhedron, each vertex has degree at least 3.



Handshake Lemma implies $2e = \Sigma d(v) \ge 3v$ $e \ge 3v/2$

Edges and Vertices

Remember we also saw that if each face of a planar graph had at least k edges then e ≤ (v-2)/(1-2/k)

If k = 6, we have that

$$3v/2 \le e \le (v-2)/(2/3) = 3(v-2)/2.$$

Contradiction!

<u>Corollary</u>: Every polyhedron has a face with at most 5 sides.

Regular Polyhedra

- A regular polyhedron is a highly symmetric polyhedron (like a cube). In particular, it has the following properties:
- All edges are the same length.
- All faces are regular polygons with the same number – s of sides.
- The same number of faces, d, meet at each vertex.

Counting Continued

Therefore, we must have:

- 5 ≥ d, s ≥ 3
- 2/d + 2/s > 1
- e = 2/(2/d+2/s-1)
- v = 2e/d
- f = 2e/s

Only 5 Platonic Solids



Subdivisions

Here's one thing that doesn't much affect planarity:

<u>**Definition:</u>** A *subdivision* of a graph G is obtained by placing vertices in the middle of some of its edges.</u>



Subdivisions II

Lemma: If G' is a subdivision of G, then G' is planar if and only if G is.

Proof:

- Given a plane embedding of G add vertices in the middle of edges to get embedding of G'.
- Given embedding of G', remove vertices and join edges, to get embedding of G.

Kuratowski's Theorem

Theorem (V. 7.0.1): A finite graph G is planar if and only if it has no subdivision of a K_5 or $K_{3,3}$ as a subgraph.

Coloring Problems (Ch 1.6)

- Introduction and Definitions
- Basic Results
- Brooke's Theorem
- Colorings of Planar Graphs
- Edge Colorings

Colorings

- <u>**Definition:</u>** A (vertex) *coloring* of a graph G is an assignment of a color to each vertex of G so that no two adjacent vertices have the same color. This is an *n*-*coloring* if only n different colors are used.</u>
- **<u>Definition</u>**: The *Chromatic Number*, χ(G), of a graph G is the smallest number n so that G has an n-coloring.

Basic Facts

- A graph has χ(G) = 1 if and only if G has no edges.
- A graph has χ(G) ≤ 2 if and only if G is bipartite.
- Determining χ(G) for more complicated graphs is difficult. For 2-colorings once you color a vertex, there is only one possible choice for its neighbors. For 3-colorings, you have 2.

Cliques

<u>Definition</u>: The *clique number*, ω(G), of a graph G is the largest n so that K_n is a subgraph of G.
 <u>Corollary</u>: For any graph G, χ(G) ≥ ω(G).
 <u>Note</u>: This bound is far from tight.

Upper Bound

<u>Lemma:</u> For G a graph on n vertices, then χ(G) ≤ n.

<u>Proof</u>: Give each vertex a different color.

Greedy Coloring

<u>Coloring Strategy:</u> Color vertices one at a time, giving each a color that doesn't conflict.

Max Degree

<u>Definition</u>: For a graph G, let Δ(G) denote the maximum degree of any vertex of G.
 <u>Lemma</u>: For any graph G, χ(G) ≤ Δ(G)+1.
 <u>Proof</u>: Use the greedy coloring.
 <u>Note</u>: This bound is again often far from tight.

This usually isn't tight

<u>Theorem 1.43 (Brook's Theorem)</u>: If G is a finite connected graph that is neither an odd cycle nor a complete graph, $\chi(G) \leq \Delta(G)$.

Non-Regular Graphs

If G not regular

- Some v, $d(v) < \Delta(G)$
- If you can color
 G-v, greedily color v
- But v's neighbors in Gv have smaller degree
- Recurse



Not a Cut Set

If {u,w} is not a cut set, we can do our recursive coloring, assigning colors to u and w first.



Case 1: Single Cut Vertex

Suppose v is a cut vertex.

- Inductively color each component of G-v.
- For each component can change colors in that component.
- Arrange so two neighbors of v are same color
- Color v



Case 2a

Try to make u, w different colors on both sides.

- Use greedy coloring, choosing colors for u and w last.
- Unless they each connect to Δ(G)-1 vertices on same side, can pick different colors.
- Make colors on top same as on bottom.

Case 2b

Suppose that u, w can only be the same in any coloring of top component.

- Must each connect to $\Delta(G)$ -1 on top
- Only connect to 1 each on bottom.
- Color bottom component, can pick u, w same color (only 2 disallowed options).

The 5-Color Theorem

Theorem 1.47 (Kemp): Every planar graph is 5colorable.

Proof

Induct on |V|

- Base case easy

- Take v with $d(v) \le 5$
- Color G-v
 - OK *unless* v's
 neighbors use all 5
 colors
 - Try to recolor them



Kemp Chains

- Can recolor unless red-green chain from A to C
- Can recolor unless blue-yellow chain from B to D
- Cannot have both!
- Always a way to recolor and add v



The Four Color Map Theorem

Theorem 1.46: Every planar graph is 4-colorable. **Notes:**

- Optimal
- Proof along the same lines as above- add one vertex by recoloring some nearby ones
- Too many cases to check by hand. All known proofs are computer assisted.

Edge Colorings

<u>Definition</u>: An *edge coloring* of a graph is an assignment of a color to each edge so that no two edges incident on the same vertex are the same color.



How Many Colors are Needed

<u>Lemma</u>: Any edge coloring of a graph G requires at least $\Delta(G)$ colors.

Vizing's Theorem

- **Theorem (V. 6.2.1):** Any finite graph G has an edge coloring with at most $\Delta(G)+1$ colors.
- The minimum number of colors is either Δ(G) or Δ(G)+1.
- Both are possible. C_n requires 2 colors (Δ(G)) when n is even and 3 colors (Δ(G)+1) when n is odd.

Proof Idea

- Proof by induction on |E|
- Color G-e, show how to insert last edge
- This might require some recoloring of its neighbors

Case 1

If the chain ends eventually, you can recolor all of the affected edges, inserting the new one.



Case 2

Otherwise, the chain must eventually loop back. Recolor everything up to the loop.



Recoloring the Cycle

- u, v, w all have degree 1 in H
- One must be in own component
- Recolor that component & add edge

