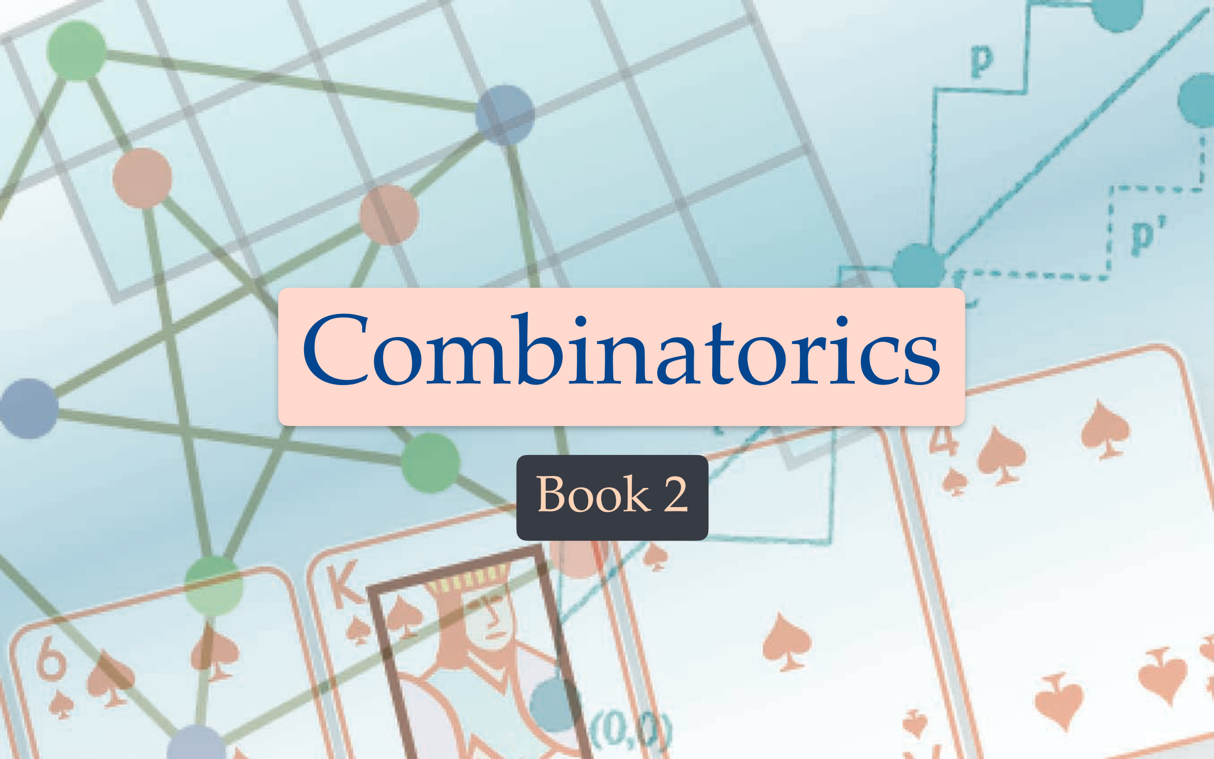


Combinatorics

Book 2

The graph $\Gamma \setminus v$ (formed by removing v and its edges from Γ) has one fewer vertex, so it can be properly colored using at most 6 colors. And since v has at most 5 neighbors in $\Gamma \setminus v$, there is a color left over which can be used to color vertex v. This gives a proper coloring of Γ using at most 6 colors (a contradiction...)

We will improve this to show that actually 5 colors suffice to properly color every planar graph.

$\psi \ \phi \ \chi \ \pi$

A b c ... $x \ X \ \chi$

Greek "chi"

Given a graph Γ, the chromatic number of Γ, denoted $\chi(\Gamma)$, is the smallest number of colors we can use to properly color the vertices of Γ. A proper coloring of the vertices of Γ is a coloring of the vertices such that no edge has both endpoints of the same color.

The theorem of Appel and Haken (1976) is that every planar graph Γ has $\chi(\Gamma) \le 4$.

Note that $\chi(K_n) = n$. Here K_n is the complete graph of order n.

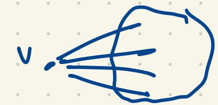
A graph Γ has $\chi(\Gamma) = 1$ iff it has vertices but no edges.

A graph Γ has $\chi(\Gamma) \le 2$ iff Γ is bipartite iff Γ has no circuits of odd length.

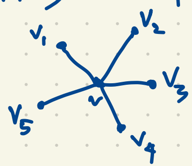
Computing $\chi(\Gamma)$ is hard in general.

Theorem If Γ is a finite planar graph then $\chi(\Gamma) \le 5$. Proof due to Heawood.

Proof If the theorem fails then there is a smallest counterexample Γ with n vertices (so Γ is planar and every planar graph of order $n-1$ has chromatic number ≤ 5 while $\chi(\Gamma) \geq 6$). We seek a contradiction. Γ has a vertex v of degree ≤ 5. In fact $\deg v = 5$. (If $\deg v \leq 4$ then $\chi(\Gamma) \leq 5$, a contradiction.) Let Γ' be the graph obtained from Γ by deleting v and its five edges,

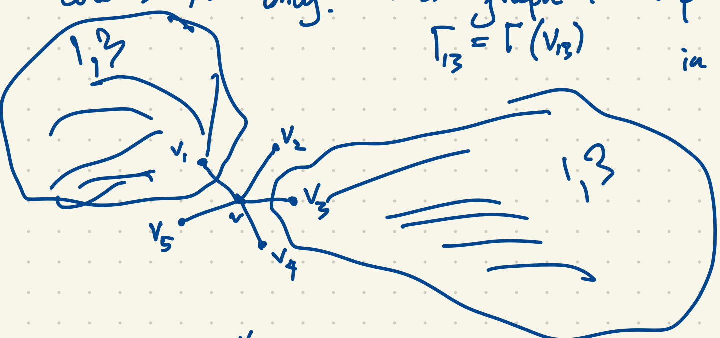


$n-1$ vertices can be properly colored using at most five colors.

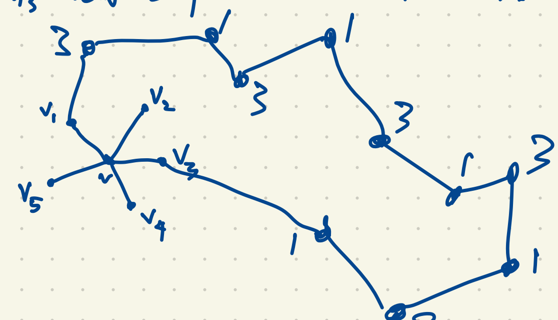


so $\chi(\Gamma') \leq 5$. Say v_i has color i $(i = 1, 2, \cdots, 5)$.

Consider the vertices $V_{13} \subset \{\text{vertices of } \Gamma\}$ having colors 1, 3 only. This graph is bipartite. $\Gamma_{13} = \Gamma(V_{13})$ I can assume v_1 is joined to v_3 in Γ_{13} (otherwise in part of Γ_{13}, reverse colors 1, 3 so that v_3 gets color 1. Then we are free to color v using color 3 since its neighbors are color 1, 2, 1, 4, 5).

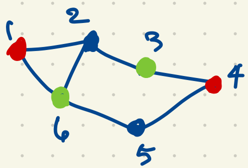


Otherwise Γ_{13} has a path from v_1 to v_3.

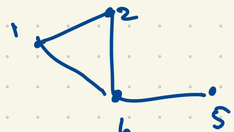


Similarly there is a path from v_2 to v_4 using only vertices of colors 2 and 4. Contradiction! $\square$

Given a graph Γ, a <u>subgraph</u> of Γ is formed by taking a subset of the edges of Γ together with all their vertices. An <u>induced subgraph</u> of Γ is formed by taking a subset of the vertices of Γ together with all their edges in Γ

$\Gamma =$ 

eg.  is a subgraph of Γ. (not an induced subgraph of Γ)

eg.  is an induced subgraph of Γ.

An induced subgraph of Γ is a subgraph of Γ, but not conversely.

A <u>k-clique</u> in Γ is a complete subgraph of Γ, i.e. a subset of the vertices, any two of which are joined.

In Γ above, $\{1, 2, 6\}$ is a clique (in fact a 3-clique). The <u>clique number</u> of Γ, denoted $\omega(\Gamma)$, is the size of the largest clique in Γ. It is hard to compute $\omega(\Gamma)$.

W vs. ω
Roman Greek

<u>Theorem</u> For every graph Γ, $\chi(\Gamma) \geq \omega(K)$.

Warning: this not equality! For the Petersen graph P, $\omega(P) = 2$.