# Topics in Graph Theory - 5 

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## List colourings

A common requirement in real-life applications of graph colouring is that the "colours" available are limited by external considerations. This concept gives rise to the concept of list colouring.

Given a graph $G=(V, E)$ and a colour set $A$, a list assignment is a function $L: V \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$. The set $L(v)$ is called the list at vertex $v$, and represents the set of possible colours at $v$. A list colouring for a given graph $G$ and list assignment $L$ is a proper colouring $f$ of $G$ such that, for all $v \in V$, $f(v) \in L(v)$. A graph $G$ is $k$-choosable or $k$-list colourable if, for every list assignment such that, for all $v \in V,|L(v)|=k$, there exists a list colouring of $(G, L)$. The list chromatic number $\chi_{\ell}(G)$ of $G$ is the least $k$ so that $G$ is $k$-choosable.

One possible list assignment is to give each vertex the same list. In this case, the problem reverts to the regular colouring problem, and a list colouring exists precisely when the graph has chromatic number at least as large as the size of the common list. Thus, for every graph $G, \chi_{\ell}(G) \geq \chi(G)$. We will see in a presentation in class that there exist bipartite graphs with arbitrary large list chromatic number, so the gap between $\chi_{\ell}(G)$ and $\chi_{G}$ can be arbitrarily large.

Given a list assignment, we can also employ the greedy colouring algorithm to find a list colouring. As before, vertices are coloured in predetermined order. At each vertex $v$, a colour in $L(v)$ is chosen which does not appear on any of the coloured neighbours. Clearly, if $L(v)$ is of larger size than the number of coloured neighbours, such a colour exists. Therefore, if we have a greedy ordering $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}$ such that, for every vertex $v_{i},\left|N\left(v_{i}\right) \cap\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{i-1}\right\}\right| \leq k$, then the graph is $(k+1)$-choosable. For example, for the graph in assignment 1 formed by intersecting lines in the plane, the vertices could be ordered so that each vertex has at most two coloured neighbours. Thus the list-chromatic number is at most 3. Similarly, if we have a perfect elimination ordering, then each vertex has at most $\omega-1$ coloured neighbours, so $\chi_{\ell}(G)=\chi(G)=\omega(G)$.

We have seen that there are many connections between colourings and orientations. Here is one more. First we need some definition. Given an orientation of a graph, the out-degree of a vertex $v$, notation $\operatorname{deg}^{+}(v)$, is the
number of edges that have $v$ as their tail. A kernel is an independent set $A$ in $G$ so that each vertex $v \in V(G)$ is either in $a$, or is the tail of an edge with head in $A$.

Theorem 1. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph. If $G$ has an orientation such that every induced subgraph has a kernel, and $L: V \rightarrow C$ is a list assignment for $V$ so that, for all $v \in V,|L(v)| \geq \operatorname{deg}^{+}(v)+1$, then there exists a list colouring of $(G, L)$.

Proof. The proof is by induction on the total number of edges of $G$. If $G$ has no edges, then $G$ satisfies the condition trivially, and each vertex has out-degree 0 . So for any assignment of lists of size at least 1 , a list-colouring can be found. Fix a colour $c \in C$, and let $G_{c}$ be the subgraph by all vertices whose list contains colour $c$. By assumption, $G_{c}$ has a kernel, say $A$. Assign colour $c$ to all vertices of $A$.

Now consider $H=G-A$, and let $L_{H}$ be a list assignment for $H$ obtained by removing colour $v$ : $L_{H}(v)=L(v)-\{c\}$ for all $v \in V-A$. Now for each $v$ of $G_{c}-A$, we have that $\operatorname{deg}_{H}^{+}(v)=\operatorname{deg}^{+}(v)-1$, where $\operatorname{deg}_{H}^{+}(V)$ is the out-degree of $v$ in $H$. On the other hand, $\left|L_{H}(v)\right|=|L(v)|-1$. So $\left|L_{H}(v)\right| \geq \operatorname{deg}_{H}^{+}(v)+1$. For vertices in $H$ which are not in $G_{c}$, so whose list does not contain $v, \operatorname{deg}_{H}^{+}(v) \leq \operatorname{deg}^{+}(v) \leq\left|L_{H}(v)\right|-1$.

Thus $H$ satisfies the conditions, so by induction there exists a list colouring of $\left(H, L_{H}\right)$. Adding the vertices in $A$, coloured with colour $c$, makes this into a list colouring for $(G, L)$.

The concept of list colouring can be equally applied to edge colourings. Thus, $\chi_{\ell}^{\prime}(G)$ is the list chromatic index of $G$, and is the minimum number $k$ such that, for any assignment of lists of size $k$ to the edges of $G$, a list colouring can always be found.

In general, edge colourings are "nicer" than vertex colourings. For example, we have the theorem that, for all bipartite graphs $G, \chi^{\prime}(G)=\Delta(G)$. In fact, for simple graphs $G$, we have that $\chi^{\prime}(G) \leq \Delta+1$. (Proof of this theorem skipped in this class, but worth looking up!) This led Vizing to the following conjecture.
[Vizing] For all graphs $G, \chi_{\ell}^{\prime}(G)=\chi^{\prime}(G)$.
The conjecture was proved for bipartite graphs. For bipartite graphs, the line graph has an obvious representation. Each edge $x_{i}, y_{j}$ in a graph with bipartition $X, Y$ can be represented as a subsquare in an $|X| \times|Y|$
square, where each row corresponds to an element of $X$, and each column to an element of $Y$. Subsquares are connected iff they are in the same row and column. It turns out that, for a specific orientation of the line graph, a kernel can be found using the concept of stable matchings.

Given sets $X=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{3}\right\}$ and $Y=\left\{y_{1} . y_{2}, \ldots, y_{n}\right\}$, as well as a ranking of the elements of $Y$ for each element of $X$, and a ranking of the elements of $X$ for each element of $Y$, a stable matching is a subset $M$ of $X \times Y$ such that each element of $X$ and each element of $Y$ occurs exactly once in $M$ (so $M$ is a perfect matching), and, for every pair ( $x, y$ ) not in $M$, the following holds. Let $x^{\prime}$ be the unique element of $X$ matched to $y$, and $y^{\prime}$ the unique element of $Y$ matched to $x$. (So $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ are in $M$ ). Then $x$ prefers $y^{\prime}$ to $y$ or $y$ prefers $x^{\prime}$ to $x$.

Gale and Shapley showed that a stable matching always exists, no matter how the rankings are, and they gave an algorithm to find such a matching.

Lemma 2. If $G$ is a bipartite graph with maximum degree $\Delta$, then $L(G)$ has an orientation with the property that each subgraph of $L(G)$ has a kernel, and each vertex of $L(G)$ has out-degree at most $\Delta-1$.

Proof. Assume wlog that $|X|=|Y|=n$. (If not, add isolated vertices.) Let $k=\Delta(G)$. Let $f: X \times Y \rightarrow[k]$ be a vertex colouring of $L(G)$ with $k$ colours. By König's theorem, such a colouring exists. Now orient the edges of $L(G)$ as follows. Horizontally, orient edges from larger colours to smaller colours. So if $c(x, y)>c\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ then the edge is oriented from $(x, y)$ to $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$. Vertically, orient edges from smaller colours to larger colours, so if $c(x, y)>c\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ then the edge is oriented from $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ to $(x, y)$.

Note that each vertex $(x, y)$ has out-degree at most $k-1$. Namely, Let $c(x, y)=i$. Then any horizontal edge from $(x, y)$ to a vertex $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ must go to a vertex of colour in $\{1,2, \ldots, i-1\}$, while any vertical edge must go to a vertex $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ of colour in $\{i+1, \ldots, k\}$. Since each colour can occur at most once in any row or column, this implies that any vertex has out-degree at most $k-1$.

Now consider any induced subgraph $H$ of $L(G)$. Form the following preference lists. Each vertex $x$ ranks the vertices in $Y$ as follows. First, elements $y \in Y$ so that $(x, y)$ is in $H$ are ranked, in increasing order of the colour of the pair $(x, y)$. Then, the other elements of $Y$ are ranked in any arbitrary order, but all being of less preference than the first set. Each vertex $y$ ranks the vertices in $X$ as follows. First, elements $x \in X$ so that $(x, y)$ is in $H$ are ranked in decreasing order of the colour of the pair $(x, y)$. Then, the
other elements of $X$ are ranked in any arbitrary order, but of less preference than the first set.

Let $M$ be a stable matching for these preference rankings. We claim that the set $A$ consisting of all pairs $(x, y)$ in $M$ that correspond to vertices in $H$ forms a kernel in $H$ with the given orientation. Let $(x, y)$ be a pair occurring in $H$ which is not in $A$. Let $x^{\prime} \in X$ and $y^{\prime} \in Y$ be so that $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ are in $M$ (such elements must exist). By the definition of a stable matching, $x$ prefers $y^{\prime}$ to $y$ or $y$ prefers $x^{\prime}$ to $x$. If $x$ prefers $y^{\prime}$ to $y$, then the pair $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$ must be in $H$, and $c\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)<c(x, y)$. Therefore, $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right) \in A$ (by definition of the ranking) and there is an edge directed from $(x, y)$ to $\left(x, y^{\prime}\right)$. If $y$ prefers $x^{\prime}$ to $x$, then the pair $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$ must be in $H$, and $c(x, y)<c\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$. Therefore, $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right) \in A$ and there is an edge directed from $(x, y)$ to $\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)$. Therefore, $(x, y)$ is the tail of at least one edge with head in $A$. Thus, $A$ is a kernel.

The proof of the following theorem now follows from the previous lemma and theorem.

Theorem 3 (Galvin, '94). For all bipartite graphs $G$, $\chi_{\ell}^{\prime}(G)=\chi^{\prime}(G)$.

