

Applications and Significance of Graph Coloring in Diverse Domains: A Comprehensive Review

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Abstract: Graph theory, a significant area of applied mathematics, finds numerous practical applications across various fields. Among the many methods for solving graph theory problems, graph coloring stands out as a powerful approach. This research paper aims to demonstrate the value of graph coloring concepts to academics, showcasing its applications in different domains. The paper starts with an overview of graph theory, historical context, and key definitions. It then delves into the application of graph coloring to planar and bipartite graphs. Furthermore, the paper discusses graph coloring's role in real-world scenarios, including software engineering, timetable scheduling, information mining, and networking. By exploring the versatility of graph coloring, this work highlights its importance as a robust tool for addressing complex problems in different fields.

Keywords: Graph, Chromatic number, graph coloring, vertex coloring, edge coloring, applications of graph Coloring

Introduction:

The most fun area of discrete mathematics is usually considered to be Graph theory. The reason for this is that it has a dual nature, beautiful proofs for all of the abstract thinking, and numerous applications in every subject. Graphs are significant because they provide a visual means of communicating information. A Graph can convey information more effectively than many words.

Today, Graph theory is a well-developed subject with a huge selection of engaging puzzles and demanding games. A distinctive quality of Graph theory is how little it depends on other areas of mathematics and how autonomous it is by itself. Because of its applications in areas like physics, biology, chemistry, and electrical engineering, computer science, operation research etc. In computer science the ideas of graph theory are highly utilized [1]. Graph theory is quickly gaining popularity in mathematics.

Vertices and edges are used to create a Graph. To put it another way, we can say that a Graph is an ordered pair $G = (V, E)$ made up of a set of vertices, which is represented by V , and a set of edges, which is represented by E . Into two portions, this essay has been divided. A few definitions used in Graph theory are provided in the first part, along with some historical context for the field. The emphasis of the second portion was on the application of Graph Coloring to planar and bipartite Graphs. Focus on its uses in diverse spheres of life in the third segment [2].

History of Graph:

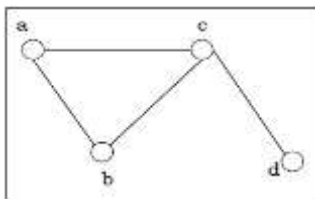
The advancement of Graph theory has been made possible by numerous mathematicians. Graph theory was created as a result of Euler's (1707–1782) solution to the Königsberg bridge issue, which was published in a paper in 1736. Euler earned the title "Father of Graph Theory" because he is credited with developing the field of Graph theory, which is said to have started in 1736 with the publishing of his solution to the Königsberg bridge puzzle. The concepts of a full Graph and a bipartite Graph were first introduced by A.F. Mobius in 1840.

Gaustav Kirchhoff introduced the idea of a tree in the year 1845 and used the concept of Graph theory to calculate the currents in electrical networks or circuits. The infamous four color dilemma was created in 1852 by Thomas Guthrie. Heinrich used a computer to use in 1969 to solve the four-color puzzle. The use of Graph theory makes it simple to answer many problems that are thought to be difficult to decide [3].

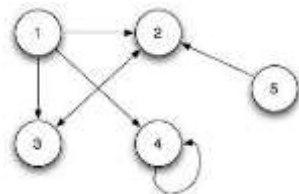
Basic concepts of Graph Theory:

Different types of Graphs, each with fundamental Graph features, are included in Graph theory. Over various types of Graphs, numerous operations can be carried out. More apps are using Graphs as a strong tool to handle big, challenging problems. Consequently, we must be familiar with a few definitions related to Graph theory [4].

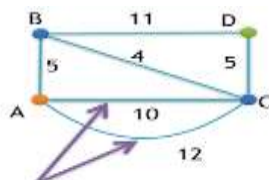
Graph: A set of non-empty vertices or nodes V and a set of edges E make up a Graph, indicated by the symbol $G = (V, E)$. The endpoint of an edge is represented by a vertex. Two vertices, a and b , are joined by an edge, which is represented by the set of vertices it connects.



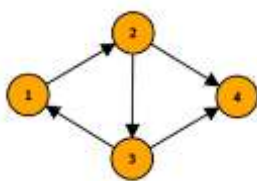
Self Loop: Self-loops are edges that have the same vertex serving as both of their end vertices.



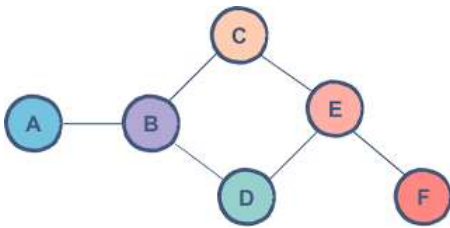
Parallel edge: Parallel edges are those that have more than one edge in common with a given pair of vertices.



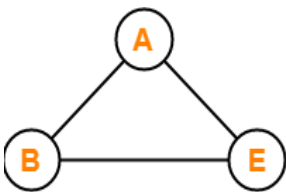
Directed Graph: A directed Graph (also known as a diGraph) consists of a set of vertices and a group of directed edges, each of which connects a pair of ordered vertices. A directed edge is one that originates at the first vertex of the pair and terminates at the second vertex. We give the vertices in a V -vertex network the names 0 through $V-1$.



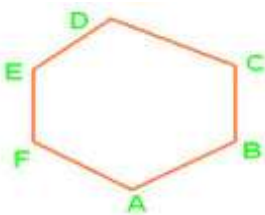
Undirected Graph: Undirected Graphs offer more precision. Regarding the reciprocity in the relationship between pairs of vertices connected by an edge, they make an additional assumption. If there is an edge (a,b) between vertices a and b, then there is also an edge (b,a).



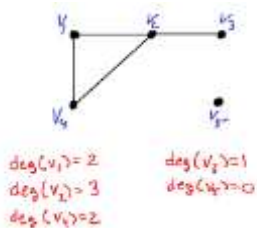
Simple Graph: A simple Graph is one in which no two vertices are connected by more than one edge, and no edge begins or finishes at the same vertex. In other words, a simple Graph is one that doesn't have loops or many edges. Nearby Vertices. If an edge (arc) connects two vertices, they are said to be close by.



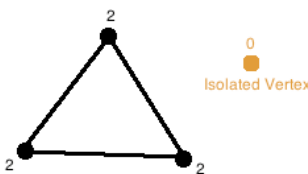
Adjacent vertices: If the end vertices of the same edge connect two vertices, they are said to be neighbouring.



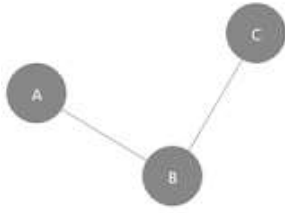
Degree of vertices: The degree of a vertex is the total number of edges that incident on it, including self-loops, and counting them twice.



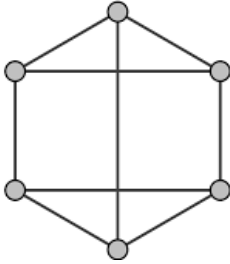
Isolated vertex: Vertices with degree zero, or vertices that are not the endpoints of any edges, are referred to as solitary vertices.



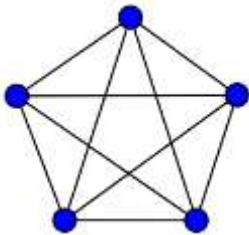
Pendant vertex: If every vertex in a given Graph, let's say G, is to be a pendant vertex, its degree must be 1. Because leaf nodes always have degree 1, they are sometimes referred to as terminal nodes or leaf nodes in the context of trees.



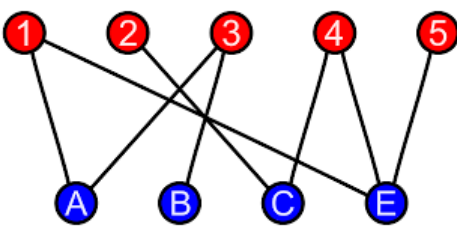
Regular Graph: If the degree of each vertex is equal, a Graph is said to be a regular Graph. If the degree of each vertex is K , a Graph is said to be K regular.



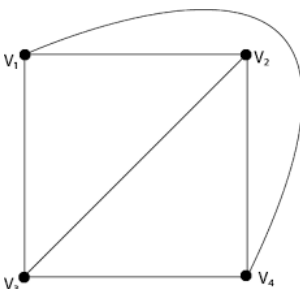
Complete Graph: A complete Graph is one that has all of its nodes connected to one another. Keep in mind that each vertex's degree will be $n-1$, where n is the Graph's order.



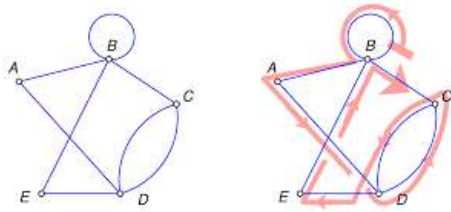
Bipartite Graph: A Graph is said to be bipartite if its vertices can be separated into two separate sets, U and V , and every edge (u, v) , in that case, either connects a vertex from U to V or a vertex from V to U . To put it another way, either u belongs to U and v to V , or u belongs to V and v to U . Another way to put it is that no edge joins vertices from the same set [5].



Planar Graph: The definition of a planar Graph is a Graph that can be represented on a plane such that its edges only meet at their endpoints. To put it another way, it is possible to draw it without any edges overlapping.

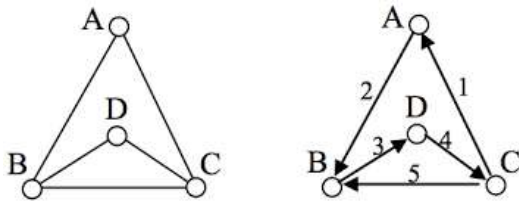


Euler Path: A route in a finite Graph known as an Euler Path (or Eulerian Path) hits each edge exactly once.

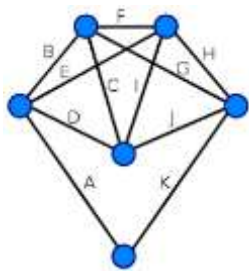


An Euler path: BBADCDEBC

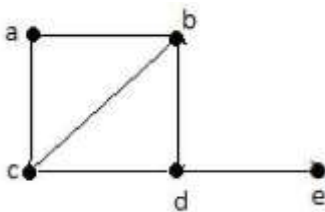
Euler Circuit: Every edge of a Graph is used precisely once in an Euler circuit. i.e., the beginning and finish of an Euler circuit are the same vertex.



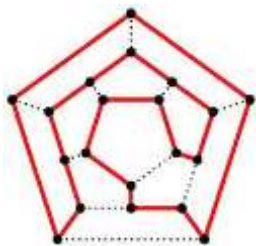
Eulerian Graph: A Graph that has an Euler Path or an Euler Circuit is referred to as an Eulerian Graph.



Hamiltonian Path: If each vertex of G appears precisely once in a connected Graph, it is said to be Hamiltonian. A Hamiltonian path is one such path.

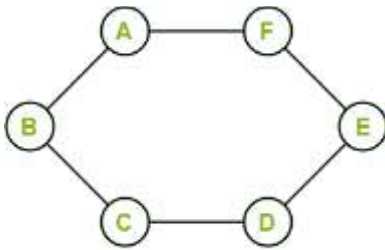


Hamiltonian Circuit: A circuit is described as being a Hamiltonian circuit if each Graph vertex appears precisely once in it, with the exception of the initial vertex, which is also the last [6].

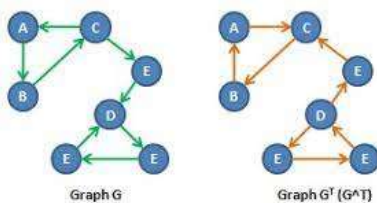


Hamiltonian Graph: If a linked closed walk passes every vertex of the Graph exactly once, with the exception of the root or starting vertex, then the Graph is said to be a Hamiltonian Graph. None of the edges must be

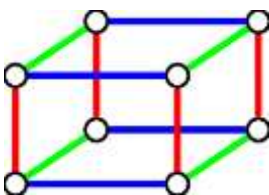
repeated in the Hamiltonian walk. A connected Graph that contains a Hamiltonian circuit is what is meant by the additional definition of a Hamiltonian Graph, which states that such a Graph qualifies.



Transpose Graph: The transposition of a directed Graph G is a directed Graph with the same set of vertices, but with all of the edges oriented in the opposite direction to their corresponding edges in G . That is, if G has an edge (u, v) , then G 's converse/transpose/reverse has an edge (v, u) , and vice versa.



Hypercube Graph: Every vertex has the same degree n , and the hypercube Graph depicts the maximum number of edges that may be joined to a Graph to make it an n -degree Graph. Only a fixed number of edges and vertices are added in this model.

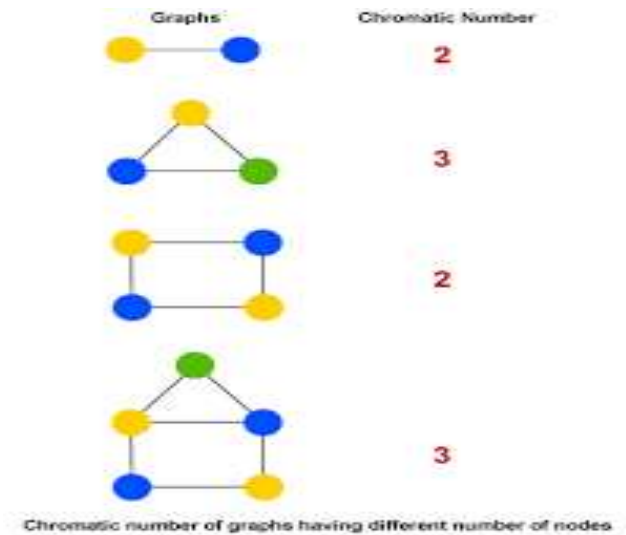


Introduction of Graph Coloring:

A subset of Graph labelling, or a specific case of it, is GraphColoring. In GraphColoring, we assign labels to Graph nodes depending on certain restrictions or requirements. The label is actually colored. In order to label a Graph, we often assign an integer number to each edge, vertex, or both, i.e., the edge and the vertex. Similar to this, we use certain colors to identify the edges and vertices in Graph theory. However, there are some limitations on the use of color. If there are n colors available, the challenge is to discover a way to color vertices so that no two neighbouring vertices have the same color. Other GraphColoring issues occur as well, like Edge and Face Coloring. In edge Coloring, not a single vertex connects two edges that are the same color. Additionally, Coloring a face is comparable to drawing a map of a location. Vertex Coloring can be impacted by issues with edge Coloring and face Coloring. Coloring a map's nations led to a method of employing colors. when every surface is actually colored.

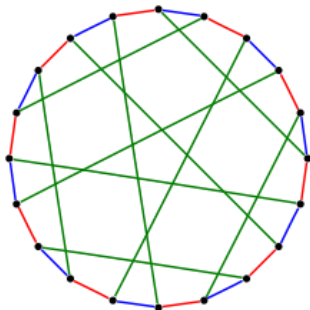
Chromatic number

If there is a function $c: V \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ (the Coloring function) then $c(a) \neq c(b)$ — that is, neighbouring nodes must have "different colors"—then a Graph $G=(V, E)$ is k -colorable. The chromatic number of G , written as $c(G)$, is the lowest number k such that G is k -colorable (G). A Graph's chromatic number is a measure of how few colors are required to color it. A Graph colored using chromatic number is shown in the example below. This Graph has a chromatic number of 3, and it is an illustration of GraphColoring.



Edge Coloring:

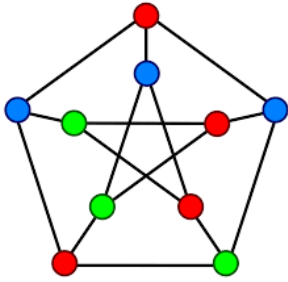
In Graph theory, edge Coloring refers to the assignment of "colors" to the Graph's edges so that no two intersecting edges have the same color. Using the colors red, blue, and green, the Graphic below illustrates how to color a Graph's edges. A variety of Graphcolorings exist, including edge colorings. In the edge-coloring problem, the question of whether it is possible to color the edges of a given Graph using no more than k different colors, no more than that value of k, or no more colors than necessary is put forth. The term "chromatic index of the Graph" refers to the minimal set of colors needed for a certain Graph's edges. The edges of the Graph in the figure, for instance, can be colored with three colors but not with two, indicating that the Graph has a chromatic index of three.



Vertex Coloring:

A correct vertex Coloring issue for a given Graph G entails Coloring all of the Graph's vertices with various hues in a way that any two neighbouring (having an edge connecting them) vertices of G have been given various hues. Graphs' vertex Coloring can serve as a mathematical model for different resource allocations. Assigning frequencies for radio stations or a mobile phone network is an illustration of such a problem. It is necessary to assign different frequencies to stations that are within broadcasting range in order to prevent signal interference.

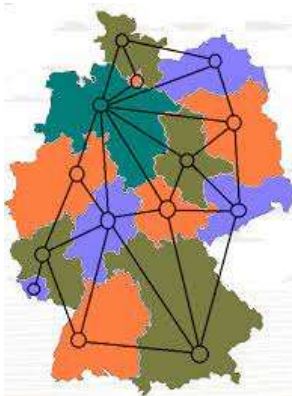
In order to address this issue, a mathematical model of the connection network is built, in which the vertices represent the stations and the edges between them represent the conflicts (that is, pairs of stations, which need to be given different frequencies). The model is actually a Graph with colored vertex edges.



Face Coloring:

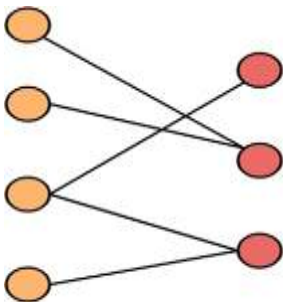
Vertex and edge Coloring are the two most popular types of Graph Coloring, although there are other Graph objects that can also be colored. The following technique, commonly referred to as map Coloring, is face Coloring, which is demonstrated in this paper. The Four Color theorem's face Coloring corresponds to the process used to color regions on a political map. A planar Graph is one that can be drawn on a two-dimensional plane without any of the edges intersecting. This is necessary for this form of Coloring.

In reality, a map can be colored by building a dual Graph, where each vertex represents a different face of the map (including the outermost face), and any two vertices are connected if and only if the faces they represent are close to each other.



Vertex Coloring in bipartite Graph:

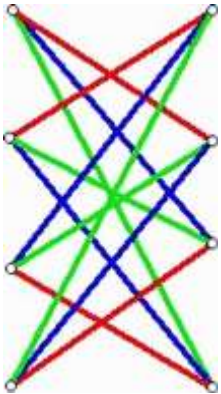
On a bipartite Graph, vertex Coloring involves using several color hues to paint each node of the Graph, such as blue, green, red, orange, pink, and others. Basically, any nearby pair of nodes of G that are holding an arc partner between them have been assigned different colors.



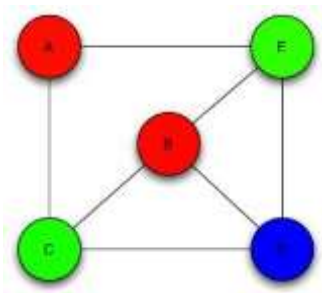
Chromatic Number = 2

Edge Coloring in bipartite Graph:

There are no two arcs that allocate a typical node have a same shading, therefore the edge shading of a Graph with the coordinates $G = (V, E)$ assigns a shade to each arc.

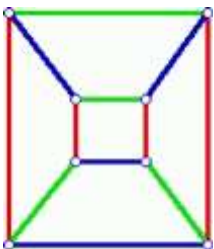


Vertex Coloring in planar Graph: Node shading on a planar Graph entails painting each node of the Graph with a different shade, essentially in the manner of the nearest pair (holding an arc partner them) G nodes have appointed a variety of colors.



Edge Coloring in planar Graph:

The distribution of each arc's shading by a Graph's edge shading, $G = (V, E)$, satisfies the requirement that no two arcs distribute a typical node in the same way.



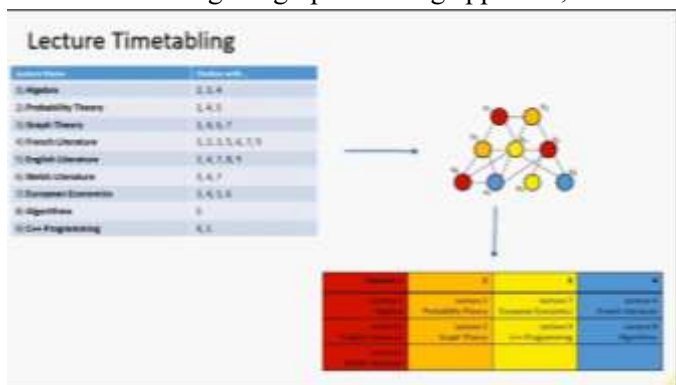
Applications of Graph Coloring

1. **Aircraft Scheduling:**-Consider a scenario in which we have k flying machines and we need to connect them to n machines, with the i^{th} machine being during the intermission (a_i, b_i) . It is obvious that we cannot assign the same aeroplane to the two machines on the off event that two flights overlap. When comparing the nodes of the conflict graph to the machines, two nodes are connected if the corresponding time intermissions are present. Undoubtedly, if there are two flights covered, we cannot give the same aircraft to both flights. The flights

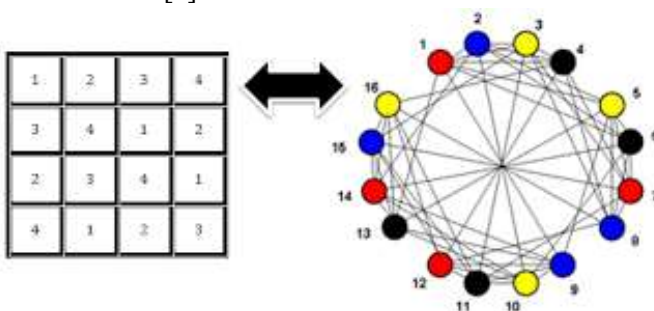
are represented by the clash graph's vertices; two vertices are connected if the comparing time intervals overlapped. In light of this, the clash graph is an interim graph that can be shaded effectively in polynomial time[7].

2. **Frequency Assignment:-**Accept that there are different radio stations, each identified by its x and y coordinates in the plane. Each station needs to be assigned a frequency, however because to interferences, stations that are "near" to one another require different frequencies. These problems arise when base stations in phone networks perform frequency tasks. At first glance, one could assume that the conflict graph in this problem is planar and that the Four Color Hypothesis can be used, however this is untrue: if there are many stations in a small region, they are all close to one another and form a large coterie in the conflict graph. The conflict graph, on the other hand, is a unit plate graph, where each vertex represents a circle in the plane with unit measurement and two vertices are connected if and only if the matching circles collide. The frequency task problem is solved by a 3-approximation approach for coloring unit circle graphs, which is provided in [11].

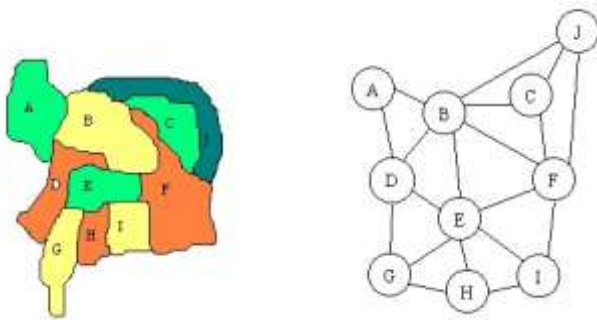
3. **Making Time Table or Schedule:-**The undergraduate daily schedule was created in a typical academy office using graph shading. Daily timetables for students were supplied in a single six-month timeframe after various scheduling restrictions, such as speechmaker demands, course hours, and lab tasks, were accepted. The sequence must be arranged at various times during the course of a typical six-month period in order to keep a strategic distance from conflict. A graph shading problem is the choice of the smallest number of programmed hours required to list all the sequences susceptible to borders. It affects their capacity to meet evolving and changing subject needs and their combinations in a way that is cost-effective and satisfies a variety of restrictions. Using the graph coloring approach, we are able to resolve this issue[8].



4. **Sudoku:-**Sudoku is a single-player logic-based puzzle. This problem consists of an 81-cell grid divided into 9 rows, columns, and regions (or blocks). The goal is to arrange the numbers 1 through 9 in vacant cells so that each number only appears once in each row, column, and 3-by-3-block section. The Sudoku Graph has 81 vertices (or nodes). In a Sudoku puzzle, each cell represents a node in a graph. In its own column, row, and 3 x 3 grid, each node (or cell) has an edge to every other node (or cell). Since Sudoku may be seen as a graph, it can be solved by coloring the graph with the chromatic number $G = 9$. It is equivalent to painting the vertex edges with nine distinct colors so that no two neighbouring vertex edges have the same color. The 4x4 grid illustration is shown below[9].



5. **Coloring Maps:**-Geographical maps of nations or states where neighbouring cities cannot have the same hue given to them. Any map may be colored with just four colors. The four color theorem, often known as the four color map theorem, claims that just four colors are needed to color the areas of any map in such a way that no two neighbouring regions have the same color. Adjacent refers to two regions sharing a portion of their shared border curve rather than just a corner where three or more regions meet. It was the first significant theorem to be demonstrated on a computer. Because the computer-assisted proof was impossible for a person to manually verify, not all mathematicians first accepted it. Since then, the evidence has become widely accepted, while some sceptics still exist. After numerous false proofs and counterexamples, the four color theorem was established in 1976 by Kenneth Appel and Wolfgang Haken (unlike the five color theorem, proved in the 1800s, which states that five colors are enough to color a map). In order to alleviate any remaining scepticism regarding the Appel-Haken proof, Robertson, Sanders, Seymour, and Thomas produced a more straightforward proof using the same concepts and yet depending on computers in 1997. Georges Gonthier used all-purpose theorem-proving software in 2005 to further demonstrate the theorem.



Conclusion

A review is specifically introduced to broaden the concept of graph coloring. Examiners may obtain information about graph coloring and its applications in the world of computers as well as a few ideas related to their area of study. This paper provides a Numerous practical as well as fictitious problems can be solved with graph coloring. The purpose of this study is to demonstrate the significance of various coloring types. A graphic is shown specifically to expand the applications of graph coloring in graph hypotheses.. A review has been introduced here that looks at several articles on graph coloring that have been linked to planning ideas and computer science applications. The major objective of this paper is to examine the function of graph coloring in numerous spheres of life. A strong tool that facilitates work is graph coloring.

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