

Introduction to graph theory

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The skeleton of a network: the graph

Elements of graph theory

- Set of *nodes* \mathcal{V} which represent the units participating in the network (e.g. computers, sensors, web pages, companies, individuals, biological entities).

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- ▶ Set of *links* $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$. The presence of a link (i, j) may have different interpretation depending on the applicative set-up:
 - ▶ node i influences node j ;
 - ▶ node i 'sees' node j , i has access to the state of j ;
 - ▶ flow can take place from i to j .



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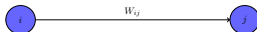


- ▶ $(i, j), (j, i) \in \mathcal{E}$



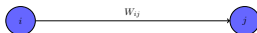
Elements of graph theory

- *Weights* W_{ij} associated to each link: the strength of a connection, the conductance or capacity of the link.



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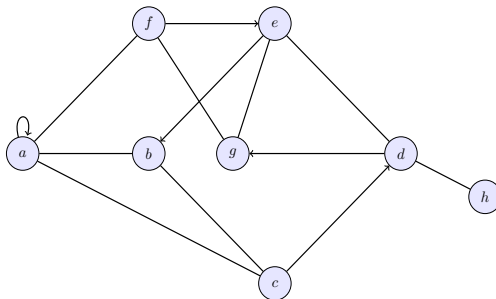


NOTATION: $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$

If $W_{ij} = 1$ for every $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$: $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ *unweighted graph*

Elements of graph theory

How graphs are represented:



The birth of graph theory

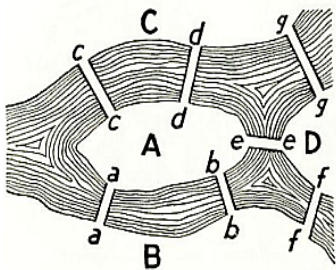
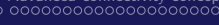
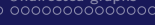
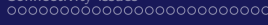


FIGURE 98. *Geographic Map:
The Königsberg Bridges.*

Leonhard Euler (1707 - 1783)





The birth of graph theory

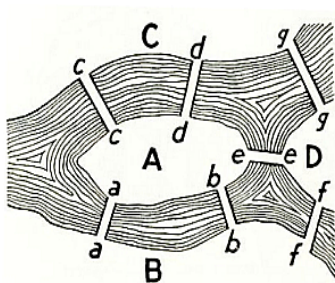
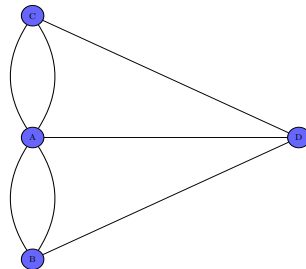


FIGURE 98. *Geographic Map:
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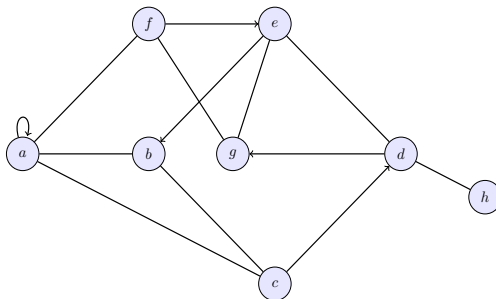


Neighborhood, sink, source

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$$

- ▶ The *out-neighborhood*: $\mathcal{N}_i = \{j \in \mathcal{V} \mid (i, j) \in \mathcal{E}\};$
- ▶ The *in-neighborhood*: $\mathcal{N}_i^- = \{j \in \mathcal{V} \mid (j, i) \in \mathcal{E}\};$
- ▶ If $(i, i) \in \mathcal{E}$ (*self-loop*), then, $i \in \mathcal{N}_i$ and $i \in \mathcal{N}_i^-$
- ▶ $\mathcal{N}_i = \emptyset, \{i\} \Rightarrow i$ is a *sink*;
- ▶ $\mathcal{N}_i^- = \emptyset, \{i\} \Rightarrow i$ is a *source*

Example



$$\mathcal{N}_d = \{e, g, h\}, \mathcal{N}_d^- = \{c, e, h\}.$$

No sinks, no sources.

Degrees

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$$

- ▶ The *out-degree*: $w_i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{V}} W_{ij}$;
- ▶ The *in-degree*: $w_i^- = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{V}} W_{ji}$.
- ▶ $\sum_i w_i = \sum w_i^- = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{V}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{V}} W_{ij}$
- ▶ \mathcal{G} *balanced* if $w_i = w_i^-$ for all $i \in \mathcal{V}$
- ▶ \mathcal{G} *regular* if balanced and $w_i = w_j$ for every $i, j \in \mathcal{V}$

If \mathcal{G} unweighted:

- ▶ $w_i = |\mathcal{N}_i|$, $w_i^- = |\mathcal{N}_i^-|$.
- ▶ $\sum_i w_i = \sum w_i^- = |\mathcal{E}|$

Connectivity issues



Walks, paths, circuits, cycles

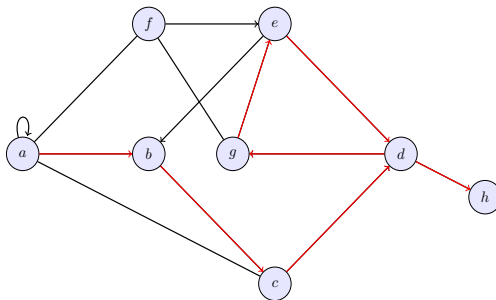
- ▶ *walk* from node i to node j : $\gamma = (i = i_0, i_1, \dots, j = i_l)$ s. t. $(i_{h-1}, i_h) \in \mathcal{E}$ for all $h = 1, \dots, l$. l *length* of the walk.
- ▶ *concatenation* of walks: $\gamma^1 = (i, i_1, \dots, j)$ and $\gamma^2 = (j, j_1, \dots, k) \rightarrow \gamma^1 \gamma^2 = (i, i_1, \dots, j, j_1, \dots, k)$.
- ▶ j is *reachable* from i if there exists a walk from i to j .
- ▶ *path*: a walk i_0, i_1, \dots, i_l such that $i_h \neq i_k$ for all $0 \leq h < k \leq l$, except for possibly $i_0 = i_l$.
- ▶ *trail*: a walk i_0, i_1, \dots, i_l with all distinct edges.
- ▶ *circuit*: a closed trail, namely i_0, i_1, \dots, i_l with $i_0 = i_l$.
- ▶ *cycle*: a closed path of length $l \geq 3$.

Walks, paths, circuits, cycles

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$$

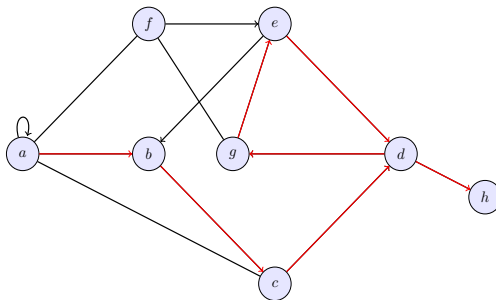
- ▶ *acyclic* if no cycles.
- ▶ *directed acyclic graph DAG* if no closed walks
- ▶ *distance* on \mathcal{V} : $i, j \in \mathcal{V}$, $d_{\mathcal{G}}(i, j)$ is the length of the shortest path from i to j in \mathcal{G} (with the convention that $d_{\mathcal{G}}(i, j) = +\infty$ if no such path exists).
- ▶ *geodesic path* is a path from i to j of minimal length
- ▶ *diameter* of \mathcal{G} is $\text{diam}(\mathcal{G}) := \max_{i,j} d_{\mathcal{G}}(i, j)$.
- ▶ *strongly connected* if for all i and j , i is reachable from j .

Example



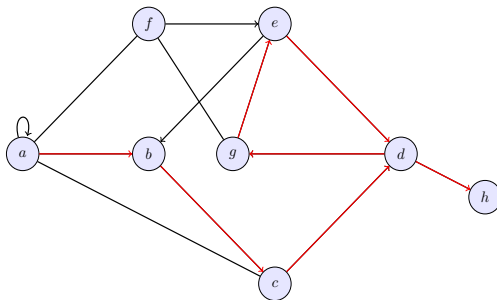
$$\gamma = (a, b, c, d, g, e, d, h)$$

Example



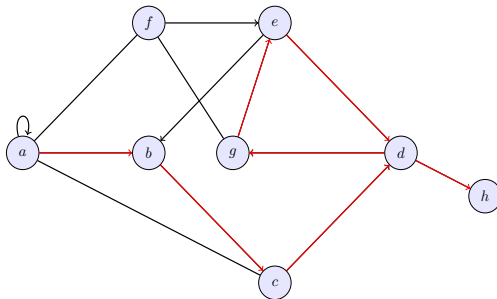
$\gamma = (a, b, c, d, g, e, d, h)$ trail, not path

Example



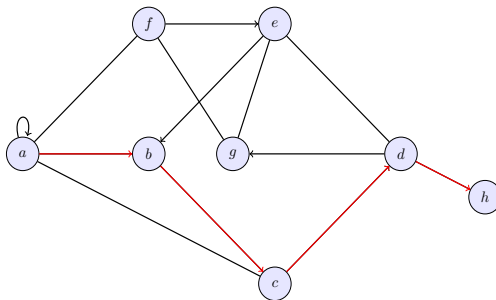
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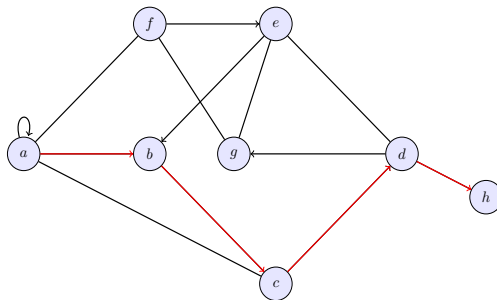
$\gamma = (a, b, c, d, g, e, d, g, e, d, h)$ walk, not trail

Example



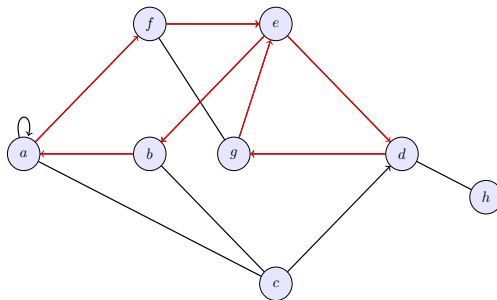
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Example



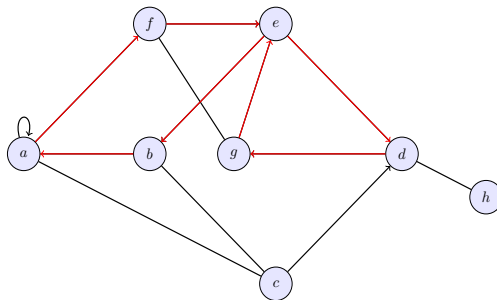
$\gamma = (a, b, c, d, h)$ path

Example



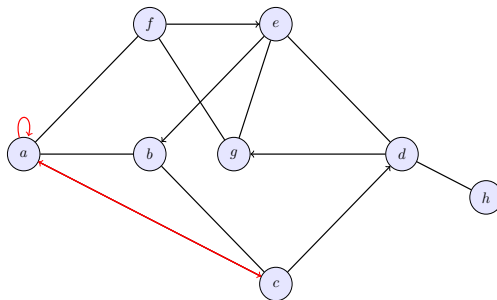
$$\gamma = (d, g, e, b, a, f, e, d)$$

Example



$\gamma = (d, g, e, b, a, f, e, d)$ circuit, not cycle

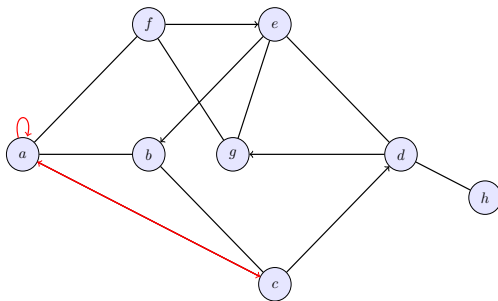
Example



$$\gamma = (a, c, a)$$

$$\gamma' = (a, a)$$

Example

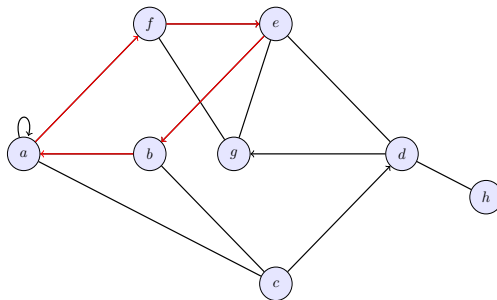


$\gamma = (a, c, a)$ circuit, not cycle

$\gamma' = (a, a)$ circuit, not cycle

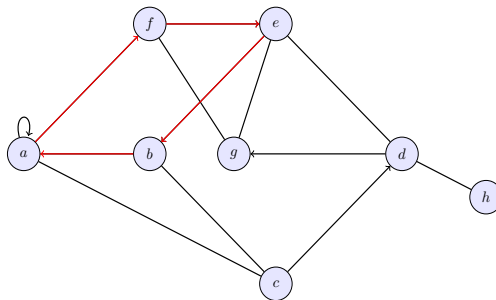
They are called directed cycles: closed paths of any length

Example



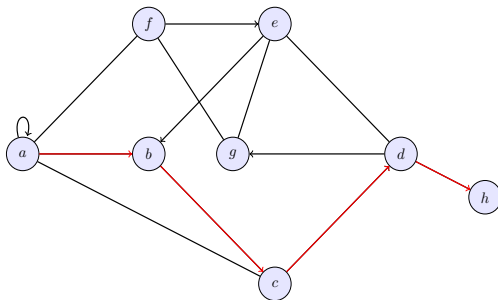
$$\gamma = (e, b, a, f, e)$$

Example



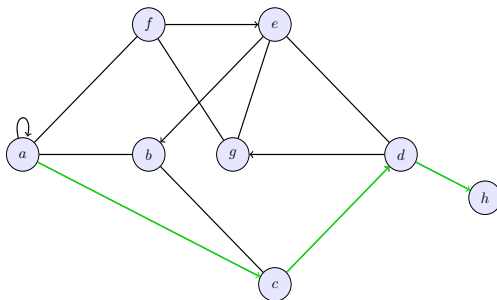
$\gamma = (e, b, a, f, e)$ cycle

Example



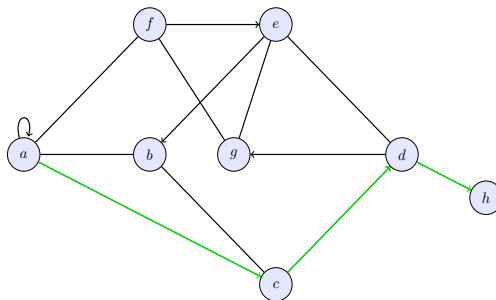
non geodesic path: $\gamma = (a, b, c, d, h)$

Example



geodesic path: $\gamma = (a, c, d, h)$

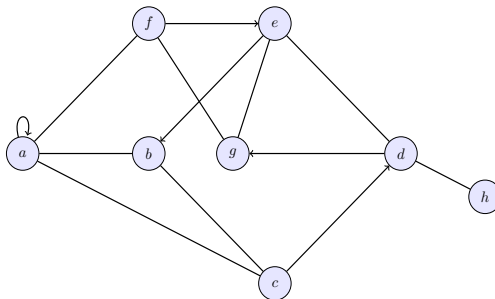
Example



geodesic path: $\gamma = (a, c, d, h)$

$$d_G(a, h) = 3$$

Example



Is strongly connected?

Subgraphs

$$\tilde{\mathcal{G}} = (\tilde{\mathcal{V}}, \tilde{\mathcal{E}}, \tilde{W}), \mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$$

$$\tilde{\mathcal{G}} \subseteq \mathcal{G} \text{ if } \tilde{\mathcal{V}} \subseteq \mathcal{V}, \tilde{\mathcal{E}} \subseteq \mathcal{E}, \tilde{W}_{ij} \leq W_{ij}$$

- ▶ *induced subgraph* if $\tilde{\mathcal{E}} = \mathcal{E} \cap (\tilde{\mathcal{V}} \times \tilde{\mathcal{V}})$, $\tilde{W} = W|_{\tilde{\mathcal{V}} \times \tilde{\mathcal{V}}}$;
- ▶ *spanning subgraph* if $\tilde{\mathcal{V}} = \mathcal{V}$, $\tilde{W}_{ij} = \begin{cases} W_{ij} & \text{if } (i, j) \in \tilde{\mathcal{E}} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$.

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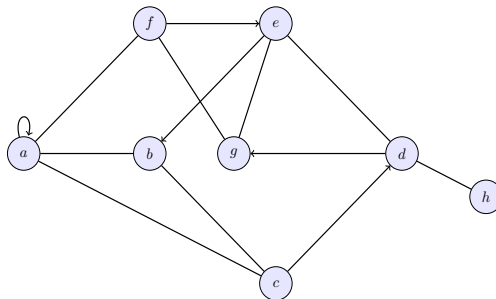
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\mathcal{P} Monotone property:

$\tilde{\mathcal{G}}$ spanning subgraph of \mathcal{G} , \mathcal{P} true for $\tilde{\mathcal{G}} \Rightarrow \mathcal{P}$ true for \mathcal{G} .

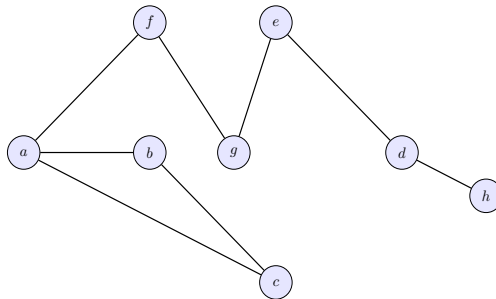
Example: strong connectivity.

Example



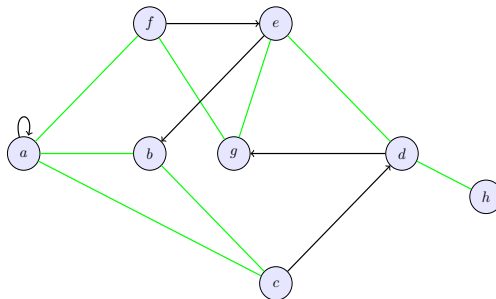
Is strongly connected?

Example



Strongly connected spanning subgraph.

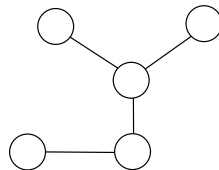
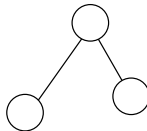
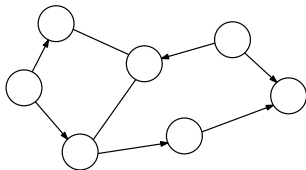
Example



Strongly connected.

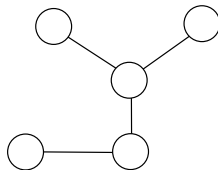
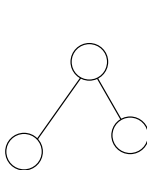
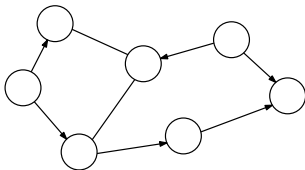
Acyclic versus DAG

Acyclic graphs not DAGs:

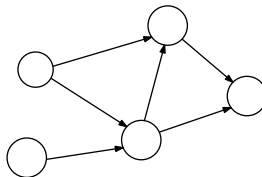
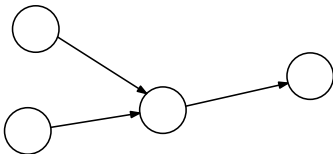


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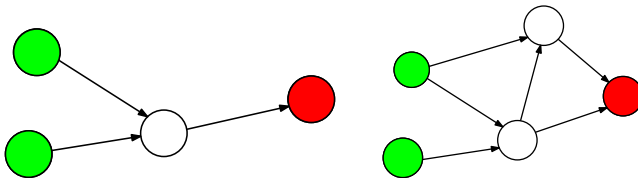
DAGs:



Properties of DAGs

Theorem

- ▶ \mathcal{G} DAG $\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{G}$ acyclic and no 'undirected' edges or self-loops.
- ▶ In a DAG there are always sources and sinks



Undirected graphs

Definitions and properties

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$ is

- ▶ *undirected* if $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E} \Leftrightarrow (j, i) \in \mathcal{E}$ and W symmetric;
- ▶ *simple* if undirected, unweighted $W_{ij} \in \{0, 1\}$, no self-loops.



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$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$ undirected

- ▶ $\mathcal{N}_i = \mathcal{N}_i^-$, $w_i = w_i^-$ (balanced);
- ▶ i reachable from $j \Leftrightarrow j$ reachable from i ;
- ▶ i sink $\Leftrightarrow i$ source $\Leftrightarrow i$ isolated node.



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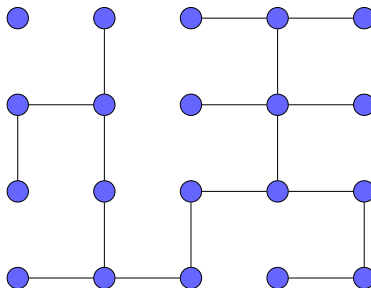
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$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$ simple $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$

- ▶ $\sum w_i = |\mathcal{E}|$ is even (handshaking lemma);
- ▶ i leaf if $|\mathcal{N}_i| = 1$

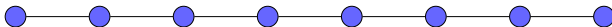
Trees

Trees are acyclic (strongly) connected simple graphs.

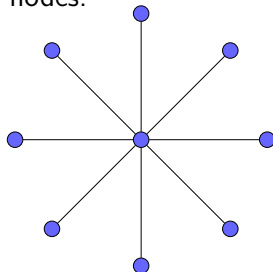


Trees: examples

L_n Line with n nodes.



S_n Star with $n + 1$ nodes.





Combinatorial properties of simple graphs

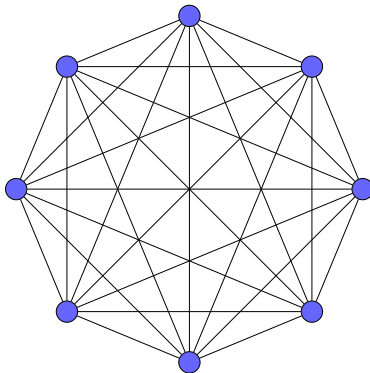
$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ simple graph. $n = |\mathcal{V}|$ nodes, $m = |\mathcal{E}|/2$ 'undirected' edges.

Theorem

1. \mathcal{G} connected $\Rightarrow m \geq n - 1$;
2. Assume \mathcal{G} is connected. Then, \mathcal{G} is a tree if and only if $m = n - 1$;
3. In a tree there are at least two leaves;
4. A tree with exactly two leaves is a line;

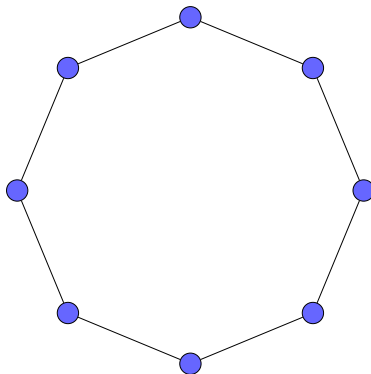
Other examples of simple graphs

K_n Complete graph: $m = n(n - 1)/2$



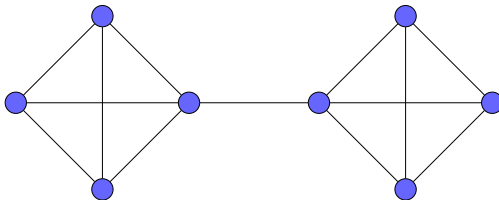
Other examples

R_n Ring: $m = n$



Other examples

Barbell: two K_n 's connected by an edge



Product of graphs

Let $\mathcal{G}^i = (\mathcal{V}^i, \mathcal{E}^i)$ for $i = 1, 2$ be two simple graphs.

Product graph: $\mathcal{G}^1 \times \mathcal{G}^2 = (\mathcal{V}^1 \times \mathcal{V}^2, \mathcal{E}^1 \otimes \mathcal{E}^2)$

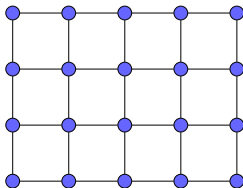
$$((v^1, v^2), (w^1, w^2)) \in \mathcal{E}^1 \otimes \mathcal{E}^2 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v^1 = w^1, & (v^2, w^2) \in \mathcal{E}^2 \\ v^2 = w^2, & (v^1, w^1) \in \mathcal{E}^1 \end{cases}$$

Theorem

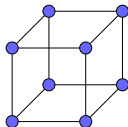
- ▶ If \mathcal{G}^1 and \mathcal{G}^2 are connected, $\mathcal{G}^1 \times \mathcal{G}^2$ is connected;
- ▶ $\text{diam}(\mathcal{G}^1 \times \mathcal{G}^2) = \text{diam}(\mathcal{G}^1) + \text{diam}(\mathcal{G}^2)$.

Product of graphs: examples

$L_h \times L_k$ Grid with $n = h \cdot k$ nodes and $m = ?$.

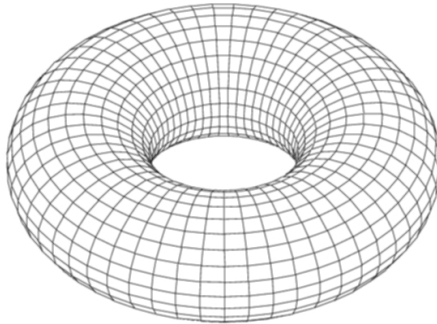


$L_2^k = L_2 \times L_2 \times \cdots L_2$ Hypercube with $n = 2^k$ and $m = ?$.



Product of graphs: examples

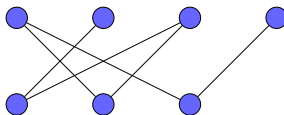
$R_h \times R_k$ *Toroidal grid* with $n = h \cdot k$ nodes and $m = ?$



Bipartite graphs

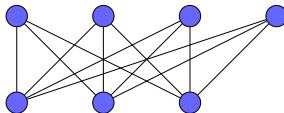
Bipartite graphs:

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2, \mathcal{E}), \mathcal{E} \subseteq (\mathcal{V}_1 \times \mathcal{V}_2) \cup (\mathcal{V}_2 \times \mathcal{V}_1)$$



Bipartite graphs: examples

$K_{p,q}$ Complete bipartite: $n = p + q$, $m = pq$



Bipartite graphs: properties

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ simple graph. $n = |\mathcal{V}|$ nodes, $m = |\mathcal{E}|/2$ 'undirected' edges.

Theorem

A simple graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have any cycle of odd length.

Examples of bipartite graphs

- ▶ trees;
- ▶ grids $L_n \times L_m$, hypercubes;
- ▶ product of bipartite is bipartite;
- ▶ R_n for even n

Advanced connectivity concepts

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

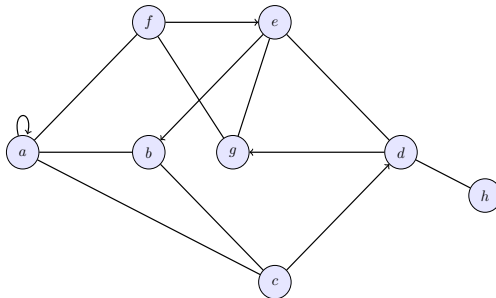
$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$ connected.

$i \in \mathcal{V}$ $\text{per}(i) := g.c.d\{l \mid \exists \text{closed walk of length } l \text{ in } i\}$

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

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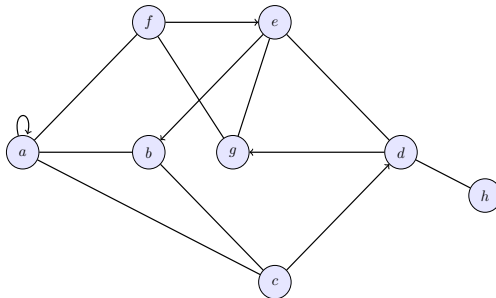
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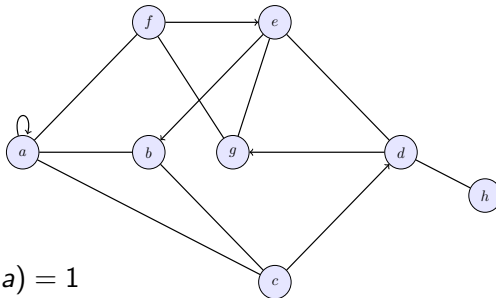


$\text{per}(a) = ?$

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$ connected.

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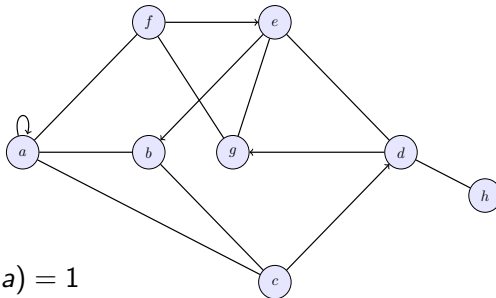


$(a, a) \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \text{per}(a) = 1$

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

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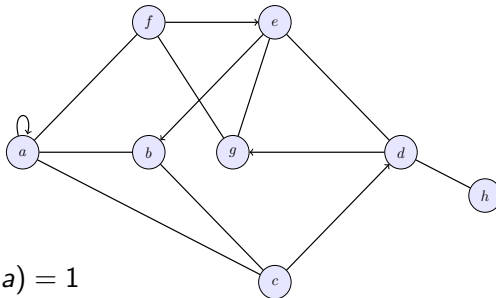
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$(a, a) \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \text{per}(a) = 1$

$\text{per}(e) = ?$

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W) \text{ connected.}$$
$$i \in \mathcal{V} \quad \text{per}(i) := g.c.d\{l \mid \exists \text{closed walk of length } l \text{ in } i\}$$

$$(a, a) \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \text{per}(a) = 1$$
$$(e, d, g, e), (e, d, e) \text{ closed walks} \Rightarrow \text{per}(e) = 1$$

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

Theorem

Assume that \mathcal{G} is connected. Then, $\text{per}(i) = \text{per}(j)$ for every $i, j \in \mathcal{V}$.

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

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$\text{per}_{\mathcal{G}}$ *period* of \mathcal{G} . \mathcal{G} is called *aperiodic* if $\text{per}_{\mathcal{G}} = 1$

Periodic and aperiodic graphs

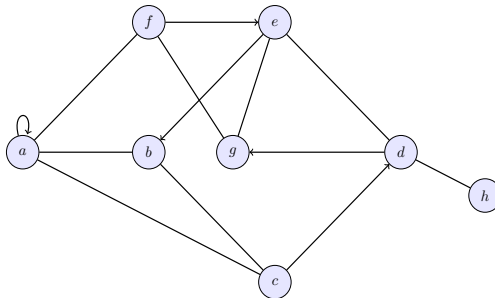
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$\text{per}_{\mathcal{G}}$ *period* of \mathcal{G} . \mathcal{G} is called *aperiodic* if $\text{per}_{\mathcal{G}} = 1$

- ▶ \exists self loop \Rightarrow aperiodic
- ▶ \mathcal{G} undirected $\Rightarrow \text{per}_{\mathcal{G}} = 1, 2$

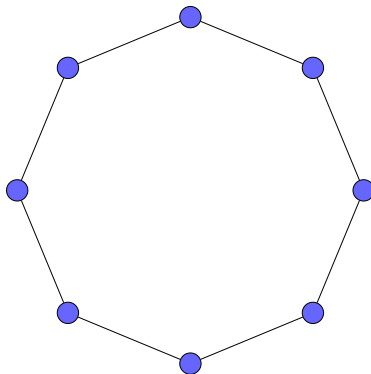
Periodic and aperiodic graphs



Aperiodic

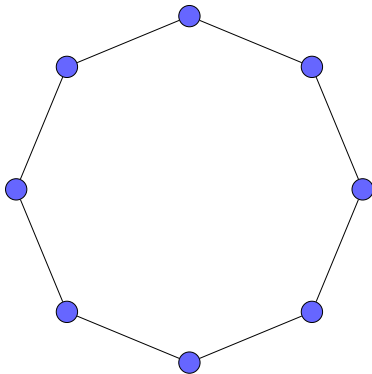
Periodic and aperiodic graphs

R_n Ring



Periodic and aperiodic graphs

R_n Ring



$$\text{per}_{R_n} = g.c.d.\{2, n\} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ 2 & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

Connected components

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$$

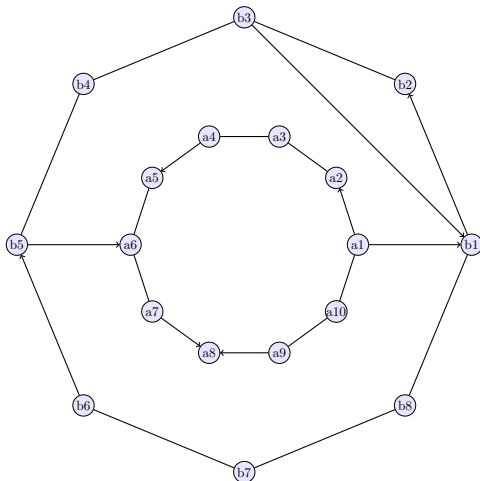
Equivalence relation: $v \sim w$ if v is reachable from w and w is reachable from v .

Equivalence classes are called *connected components* $C \in \mathcal{C}$

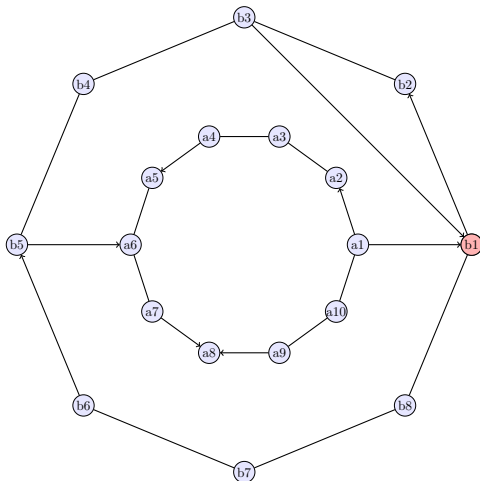
Condensation graph $\mathcal{H} = (\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{F})$: $(C_1, C_2) \in \mathcal{F}$ if there is an edge from some node in C_1 to some node in C_2 .

- ▶ \mathcal{H} is a DAG;
- ▶ \mathcal{G} undirected $\Rightarrow \mathcal{H}$ is composed of isolated nodes.

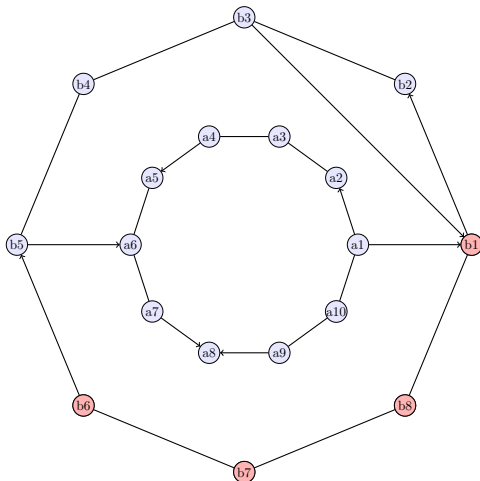
Example



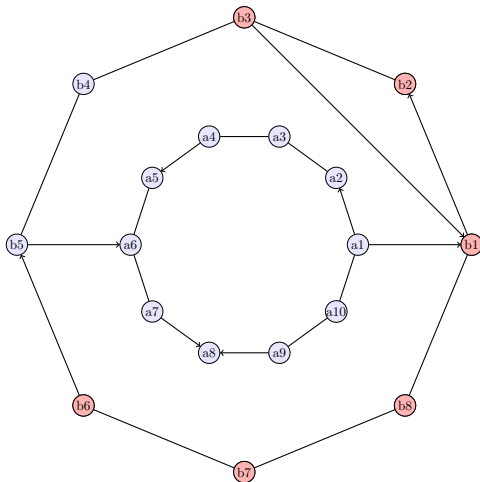
Example



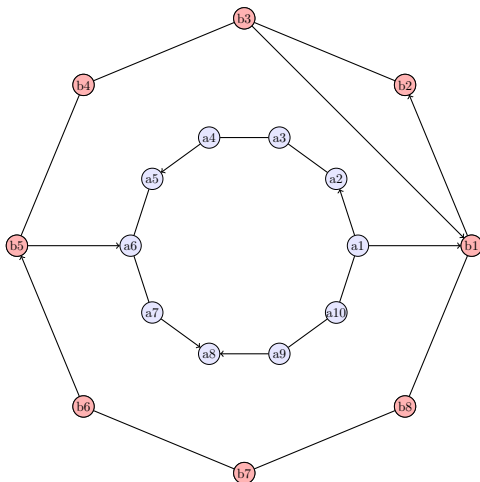
Example



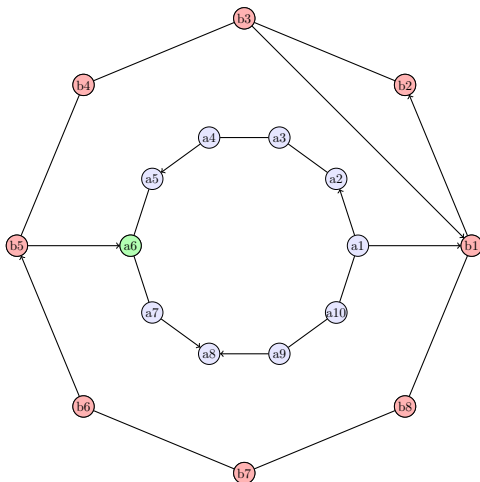
Example



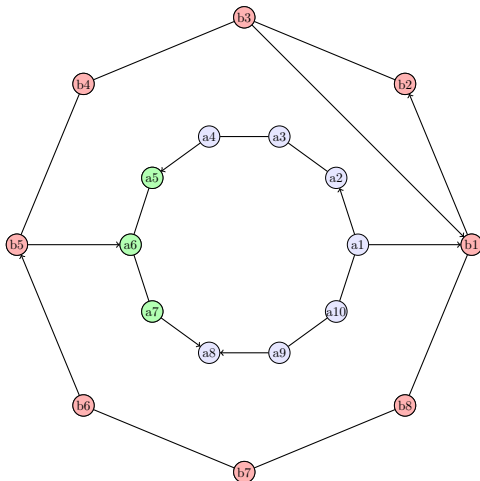
Example



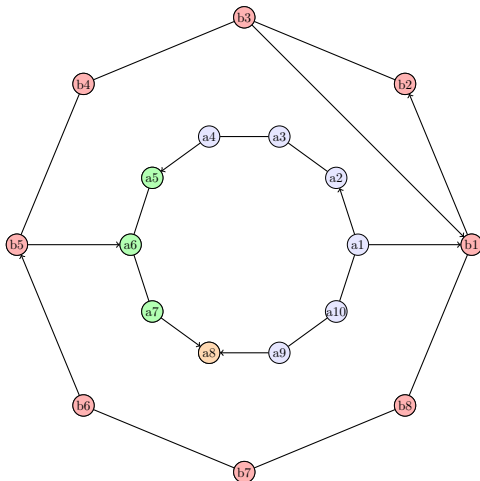
Example



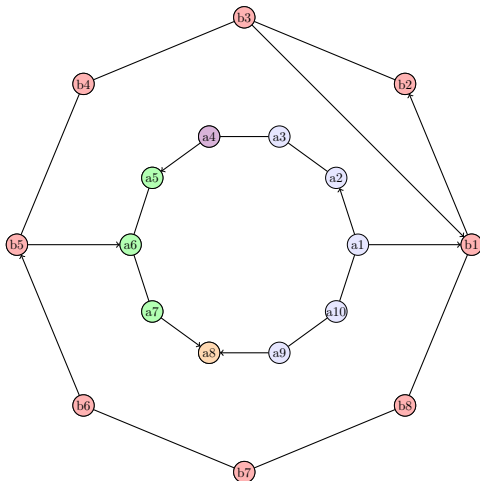
Example



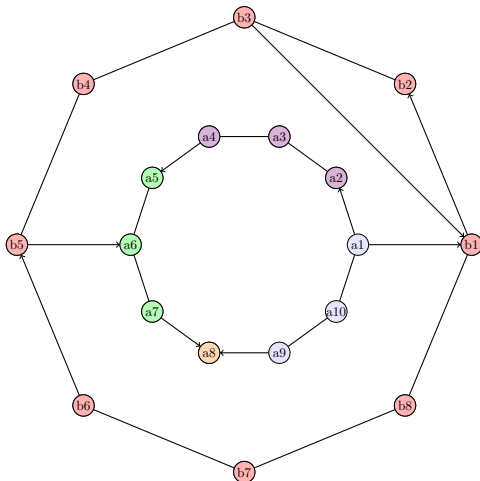
Example



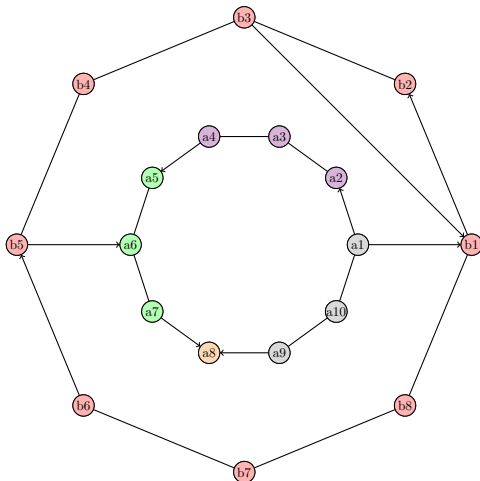
Example



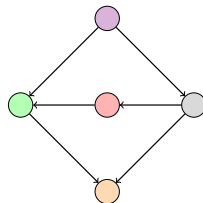
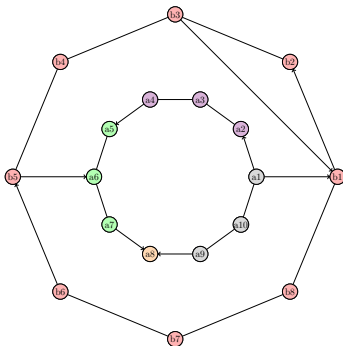
Example



Example



Example



Other connectivity issues

$$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W), \mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$$

- ▶ \mathcal{U} is *trapping* if $i \in \mathcal{U}, (i, j) \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow j \in \mathcal{U}$;
- ▶ \mathcal{U} is *globally reachable* if for every $i \in \mathcal{V}$ there is a walk from i to some $j \in \mathcal{U}$.

Other connectivity issues

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If \mathcal{G} is connected,

- ▶ each subset $\mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset$ is globally reachable;
- ▶ the only subset $\mathcal{U} \neq \emptyset$ that is trapping is $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{V}$.

Other connectivity issues

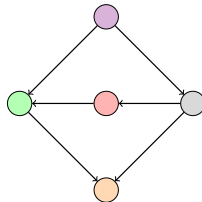
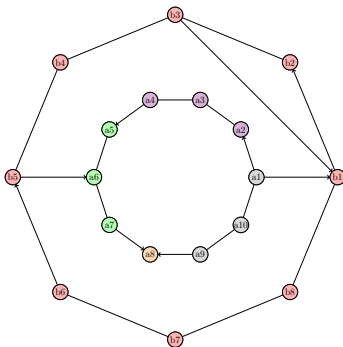
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- ▶ \mathcal{U} is *globally reachable* if for every $i \in \mathcal{V}$ there is a walk from i to some $j \in \mathcal{U}$.

If \mathcal{G} is any graph,

- ▶ sink components in the condensation graph are trapping;
- ▶ from every node, there is a walk to a node belonging to a sink component;
- ▶ if there is just one sink component C in the condensation graph, then C is trapping and globally reachable.

Example



$\{a8\}$ is trapping and globally reachable

Some applications in AI

Patrolling with drones

- ▶ \mathcal{V} set of locations to be patrolled at certain times.
- ▶ $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ simple graph describing constraints: $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$ means that i and j can not be patrolled by the same drone (e.g. temporal constraints).

Patrolling with drones

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Problems:

- ▶ Determine the minimum number k of drones needed to patrol all locations.
- ▶ Find a function $\psi : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \Omega$ where $\Omega = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ so that

$$(i, j) \in \mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \psi(i) \neq \psi(j)$$

Interpretation: $\psi(i) \in \Omega$ indicates the drone that will patrol location i .

The coloring problem

The problem just explained is an instance of the so-called coloring problem.

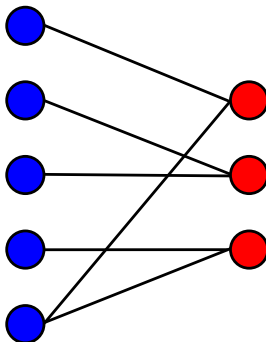
The function $\psi : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \Omega$ is called a *coloring* with k colors: the requirement is that neighbor nodes must have different colors.

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, W)$ is said to be *k-colorable* if there exists a coloring with k colors.

The minimum number of colors k for which \mathcal{G} is *k-colorable*, is called the *chromatic number* of \mathcal{G} .

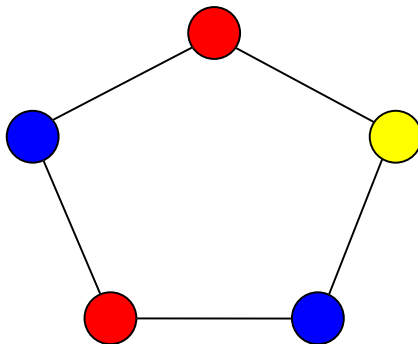
The coloring problem: examples

Bipartite graphs (trees, even length cycles) have chromatic number 2.



The coloring problem: examples

An odd length cycle has chromatic number 3.

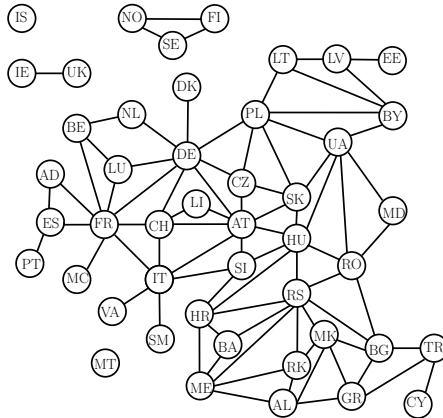


The coloring problem: examples

Planar graphs have chromatic number at most 4 (the famous 4-colors problem).



The coloring problem: examples



The coloring problem: problems

Compute the chromatic number of the following graphs:

- ▶ the complete graph K_n
- ▶ the barbell graph
- ▶ the $L_h \times L_k$ grid
- ▶ the hypercube

A different patrolling problem

- ▶ \mathcal{V} set of locations to be patrolled.
- ▶ $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ simple graph describing constraints: $(i, j) \in \mathcal{E}$ means that i and j can not be patrolled by the same drone.
- ▶ There is only one drone available.

A different patrolling problem

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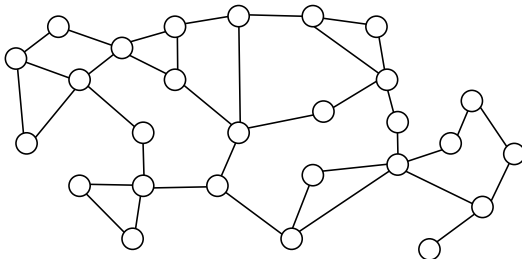
Problems:

- ▶ Determine the maximum number of locations k that can be patrolled by a single drone.
- ▶ Find all subsets $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ consisting of k locations that can be patrolled by a single machine.

Independent sets

This leads to another classical graph theoretic problem. $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ undirected graph.

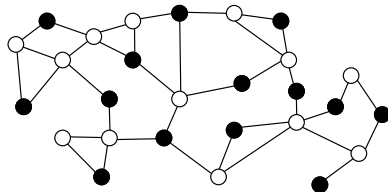
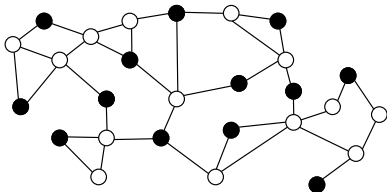
- ▶ $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ is called an *independent* set if, given any $i, j \in \mathcal{W}$, it holds that $(i, j) \notin \mathcal{E}$.
- ▶ We are looking for independent sets of \mathcal{V} of *maximum cardinality*.
- ▶ It is easy to find *maximal* independent sets (they can not be enlarged)



Independent sets

This leads to a classical graph theoretic problem. $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ simple graph.

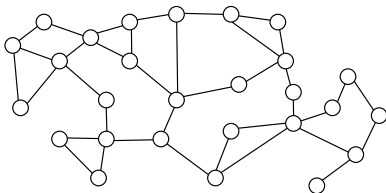
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Independent edges, the matching problem

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ undirected graph.

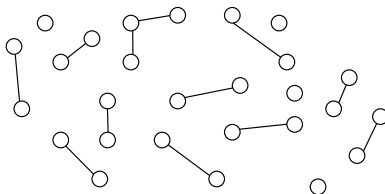
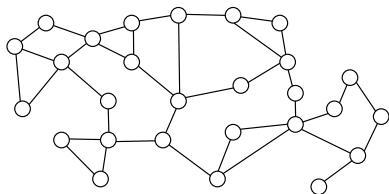
$\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ is called an *independent edge set* or a *matching* if any pair of edges in \mathcal{F} does not have nodes in common



Independent edges, the matching problem

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ undirected graph.

$\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ is called an *independent edge set* or a *matching* if any pair of edges in \mathcal{F} does not have nodes in common



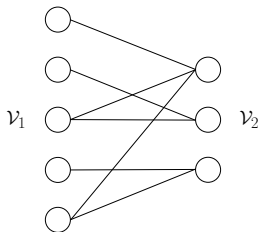
Maximal matching

Matching in bipartite graphs

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2, \mathcal{E})$, bipartite graph w.r. to the partition $\mathcal{V}_1 \cup \mathcal{V}_2$

$\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ matching $\Rightarrow |\mathcal{F}| \leq \min\{|\mathcal{V}_1|, |\mathcal{V}_2|\}$

Matching *complete* on \mathcal{V}_1 if $|\mathcal{F}| = |\mathcal{V}_1|$ (and thus $|\mathcal{V}_2| \geq |\mathcal{V}_1|$)

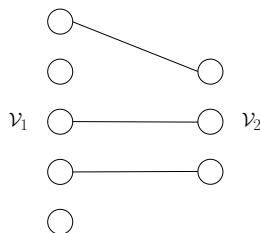
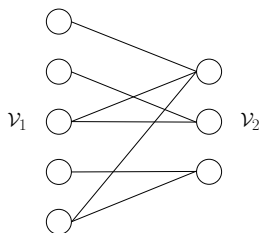


Matching in bipartite graphs

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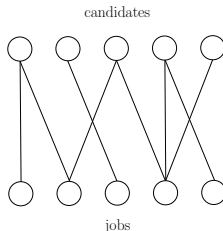
Matching *complete* on \mathcal{V}_1 if $|\mathcal{F}| = |\mathcal{V}_1|$ (and thus $|\mathcal{V}_2| \geq |\mathcal{V}_1|$)



Matching complete on \mathcal{V}_2

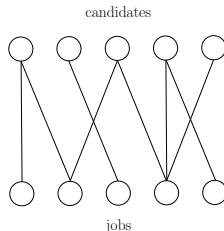
Application

A group of candidates and a set of jobs, an edge indicates that the candidate is qualified for that job.



Application

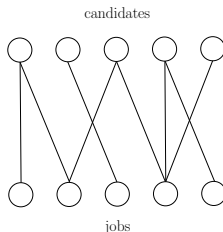
A group of candidates and a set of jobs, an edge indicates that the candidate is qualified for that job.



Is there a way to assign each candidate to a single job they are qualified such that every job has only one person assigned to it?

Application

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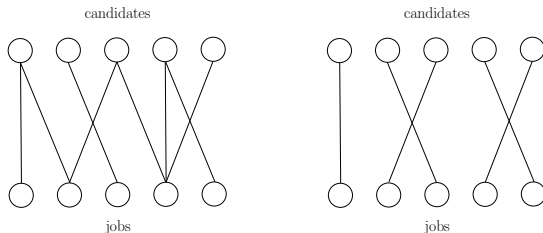


Is there a way to assign each candidate to a single job they are qualified such that every job has only one person assigned to it?

Equivalently, is there a matching complete on candidates?

Application

A group of candidates and a set of jobs, an edge indicates that the candidate is qualified for that job.

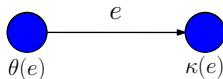


Complete matching on candidates and on jobs: *perfect matching*

Introduction to graph theory

Multigraphs

- ▶ Node set \mathcal{V}
- ▶ Link set \mathcal{E}
- ▶ $\theta : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, $\kappa : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$: $\theta(e)$ tail of e , $\kappa(e)$ head of e



- ▶ $h \in \mathbb{R}_+^{\mathcal{E}}$ weight on edges

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, h)$ multigraph

Multigraphs

$\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, h)$ *multigraph*

Most of graph theoretic concepts naturally generalize to the new setting.

- ▶ A walk in \mathcal{G} is a sequence of edges $\gamma = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_r)$ such that $\kappa(e_k) = \theta(e_{k+1})$ for $k = 1, \dots, r-1$.
- ▶ $w_k = \sum_{e: \theta(e)=k} h_e$ degree of node k
- ▶ \mathcal{G} is undirected if \mathcal{E} consists of pairs of opposite edges $\{e, \bar{e}\}$ and $h_e = h_{\bar{e}}$.
- ▶ An undirected graph \mathcal{G} is called *Eulerian* if there exists a closed walk using all edges just once (identifying opposite pairs).

Eulerian graphs

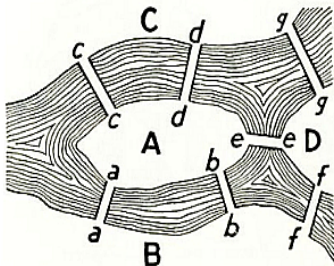
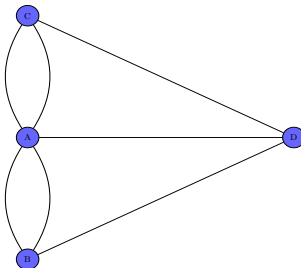


FIGURE 98. *Geographic Map:
The Königsberg Bridges.*



Is it Eulerian?

Eulerian graphs

Theorem

*An unweighted undirected multigraph \mathcal{G} is **Eulerian** if and only if it is connected and every node has even degree.*