

Graph Theory

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Chapter 1

Spanning Tree

- A spanning tree is a subset of Graph G , which has all the vertices covered with minimum possible number of edges.

1.1 Theorems:

- G is connected if and only if G has a spanning tree.
 - Corollary: if G has connected with n vertices and $n - 1$ edges, then G is a tree.
Proof:
Since G is connected, so G has a spanning tree T .
Then T has $n - 1$ edges. But G has $n - 1$ edges as well.
So G is a tree as well.
 - Suppose G has n vertices. If any 2 of 3 following conditions hold for G , then G is a tree.* G is connected.* G has no cycle.* G has $n - 1$ edges.
- If T is a spanning tree of G and e is an edge of G not in T , then $T + e$ contains exactly one cycle C . If e' is an edge of C , then $T + e - e'$ is a spanning tree.
Proof:
Let $e = uv$. Any cycle in $T + e$ must use e .
Since T has no cycle, such a cycle consist of e and a $u - v$ path in T .
Since there is a unique uv path in T , there is exactly one cycle in $T + e$.
Let e' be an edge on C , then e' is not a bridge.
So $T + e - e'$ is connected. Removing e' destroy the only cycle in $T + e$.
Therefore $T + e - e'$ has no cycle and it is a tree.
(Alternatively, $T + e - e'$ has the same number of edges as T , so it is a tree)

- No graph contains exactly two spanning tree.
- If T is a spanning tree of G and e is an edge of T , then T_e has two components, say H is one of them. If e' is in the cut induced by $V(H)$ in G , then $T - e + e'$ is a spanning tree of G .

Chapter 2

Bipartite characterization

2.1 Theorem: G is bipartite if and only if G does not contains an odd cycle.

Proof:

This theorem has an if and only if relationship, therefore we need to prove in both directions.

\Rightarrow

Suppose G is bipartite with bipartition, say A and B .

Let $C = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v_1$ be a cycle of odd length in G .

WLOG, $v_1 \in A$, then $v_2 \in B, v_3 \in A, v_4 \in B, \dots$

Since k is odd, so $v_k \in A$, but $v_k - v_1$ is an edge and both $v_k, v_1 \in A$ that is contradiction.

Therefore G does not contain an odd cycle.

\Leftarrow

Suppose G is not bipartite, then there exist a non-bipartite component H .

Since H is connected, it has a spanning tree T .

Since T is partite, thus it has bipartiton (say A, B)

Since H is not bipartite, it contains an edge that joins two vertices in B (WLOG) say that $e = uv$.

Let v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k be the unique $u - v$ path in T ($v_1 = u, v_k = v$) Then $v_1 \in B, v_2 \in A, v_3 \in B, \dots$

Since $v_k \in B$, k is odd. Then $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k, v_1$ is a cycle of length k , which is odd.

Chapter 3

Minimum Spanning Tree(MST)

- Given connected graph G , weight function $w : E(G) \Rightarrow (R)$
- Goal: find a spanning tree whose total edge weight minimized.
- Notation: $w(e)$ is the weight of e . If H is a subgraph of G .

$$w(H) = \sum_{e \in E(H)} w(e)$$

Chapter 4

Prim's Algorithm

- Let v be any vertex. Let T be the tree with just v .
- While T is not a spanning tree.
 - look at all the edges in the cut induced by $V(T)$
 - Pick $e = uv$ to be an edge of smallest weight in the cut (say $u \in V(T)$, $v \notin V(T)$)
 - Add v to $V(T)$, add e to $E(T)$

4.1 Theorem: Prim's algorithm produces a MST

Proof:

Let $T_1, T_2, T_3, \dots, T_n$ be the trees produced by the algorithm at each step, where the order of the edges added is e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{n-1} , i.e. $T_{k+1} = T_k + e_k$.

Prove by induction on k that each T_k is a subgraph of a MST. If so, then T_n is a spanning tree contained in a MST, so T_n is a MST.

Base case: For $k = 1$, T_1 is just one vertex, which is any MST.

Induction Hypotheses: Assume T_k is a subgraph of a MST, T_k for some k .

Induction Step:

- Show T_{k+1} is subgraph of T_k and we are done!
- Assume $e_k \in E(T^*)$, then $T_{k+1} + e_k - e'$ is also a spanning tree.
- The algorithm chose e_k when looking at the cut induced by $V(T_k)$, so $w(e_k) \leq w(e')$.
- If $w(e_k) < w(e')$, then $w(T') = w(T^*) + w(e_k) - w(e') < w(T^*)$ which is impossible, since $w(T')$ is smaller than the weight of a MST.

- If $w(e_k) = w(e')$, then $w(T) = w(T^*)$, so T' is a MST. And T' contains T_{k+1} as a subgraph (since it contains e_k).
- This completes the induction.

Chapter 5

Travelling Salesman Problem(TSP)

- Goal: Find a Hamilton cycle (cycle that uses all vertices) of minimum weight.
- No polynomial time algorithm is known so far. Restrict weights to Euclidean distance
- Approximate Algorithm
 1. find the minimum spanning tree T
 2. double all edges
 3. find an Euclidean circuit
 4. find a hamilton cycle by skipping repeated vertices (take the short cut)

5.1 Theorem: The approx. algorithm produces a cycle whose weight is at most twice the best possible Hamilton cycle.

Proof:

Let C^* be a minimum weight Hamilton cycle, $C^* - e$ is a spanning tree, so $w(c^*) \geq w(T)$. If C is the cycle from the approximate algorithm, then the $w(c) \leq 2w(T)$ since we are taking short cut suing triangle-inequality.
Therefoe $w(c) \leq 2w(c^*)$

Chapter 6

Planar Graph

6.1 Key Definitions:

- A **planar embedding** of G is a drawing of G on the plane such that vertices are different points and edges are lines that join vertices such that they do not intersect (except at common endpoints).
- A graph that has a planar embedding is a planar graph.
- A face of a planar embedding is a connected region on the plane (not separated by lines). Two faces are adjacent if they share at least two edges.
- For a connected planar graph, the boundary walk of a face is a closed walk on the edges around the boundary of the region once around. The degree of the face is the length of its boundary walk.
- Handshaking lemma for Faces:
 - Let G be a planar graph embedding when F is the set of all faces. Then

$$\sum_{f \in F} \deg(f) = 2 |E(G)|$$

Proof: each edge contributes 2 to the sum of face degrees. One for each side of the edge.

- Observation: if e is a bridge, then two sides of e are in the same face. Otherwise, they are in different faces, since e is in a cycle.

6.2 Jordan Curve Theorem:

- Every single close curve (cycle) on the plane separates the plane into two parts, one inside and one outside.

6.3 Euler's Formula

- A graph can be different embedding, consider n represents the number of vertices, m represents the number of edges, s represents the number of faces: then we have,

$$n - m + s = 2$$

$$n - m + s = 1 + \# \text{ of components}$$

6.3.1 Theorem: For a connected planar graph with an embedding with n vertices, m edges and s faces: $n - m + s = 2$

Proof by induction: (fix n) induced on m

Base case: $m = n - 1$ (spanning tree), thus $s = 1$ (no cycles, only one face) \Rightarrow the statements holds.

Inductive Hypotheses: Assume Euler's formula holds for any connected planar graph with n vertices, $m - 1$ edges.

Inductive Step:

Suppose G is connected, planar, n vertices, m edges and s faces.

Let e be an edge in a cycle of G , then $G - e$ is connected an planar.

The two sides of e and different faces in G , and they merge into one faces in $G - e \rightarrow s - 1$ faces.

By inductive Hypotheses, the Euler's formula holds for $G - e$.

$$\text{So } n - (m - 1) + (s - 1) = 2 \Rightarrow n - m + 1 + s - 1 = n - m + s = 2$$

6.4 Platonic Solids

- If G can be embeded on a planar, then G can be embedded on a sphere. We then cut across each face to obtain a polyhedron.
- **Definition: a connected planar graph is platonic if it has an embedding where every vertex has same degree (≥ 3) and every face has some degree.**

$$\begin{cases} n \cdot d_v &= 2m \text{ basic handshaking lemma} \\ s \cdot d_f &= 2m \text{ handshaking lemma for faces} \\ n - m + s &= 2 \quad \text{Euler's Formula} \end{cases}$$

- When $d_v = 3, d_f = 3, n = 4, m = 6, s = 4$, it is tetrahedron.
- When $d_v = 3, d_f = 4, n = 8, m = 12, s = 6$, it is cube.
- When $d_v = 4, d_f = 3, n = 6, m = 12, s = 8$, it is octahedron.
- When $d_v = 3, d_f = 5, n = 20, m = 30, s = 12$, it is dodecahedron.
- When $d_v = 5, d_f = 3, n = 12, m = 30, s = 20$, it is icosahedron.

Chapter 7

Non-planar Graph

- One way to prove non-planar graph is to show that it has more than $3n - 6$ edges.
- When $n \geq 3$, a connected planar graph on n vertices has **at most** $3n - 6$ edges.

Proof:

Consider a planar embedding of G with $n \geq 3$ vertices, m edges and s faces.

If G is a tree, then we have $m = n - 1$ edges, where $n - 1 \leq 3n - 6$ is satisfied for $n \geq 3$.

If G is a tree, then G has a cycle, there are at least 2 faces, each face boundary must contains a cycle to separate from other faces(Jordan curve theorem). So each face has degree at least 3.

By handshaking lemma for faces, $2m = \sum_{f \in F}^{\deg(f)} \geq 3 \cdot s$.

So $2m \geq 3m = 3(2 - n + m)$ by Euler's formula, therefore $\leq 3n - 6$

- Note: Disconnected planar graphs have "fewer" edges than a connected one, so that applies to disconnected graph as well.

7.1 Corollary: k_5 is not planar, same with $k_{3,3}$

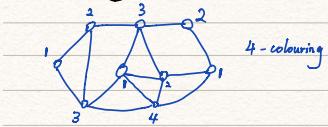
7.2 Theorem:

A connected bipartite planar graph has at least 3 vertices has at most $2n-4$ edges.

7.3 Kuratowski's Theorem

- An edge subdivision of G is obtained by replacing each edge of G with a new path of length at least 1 (i.e. introducing new vertices of degree 2 to the edges). Observation: G is a planar iff every edge subdivision is a planar.
- G is planar iff G does not contain an edge subdivision of k_5 and $k_{3,3}$. **Note: do not repeat vertices or edges in the subdivision**

Colouring



Defn: A k -colouring of G is an assignment of a colour to each vertex using a pool of at most k colours.
A graph has a k -colouring is k -colourable.

Note: if G is k -colourable, then G is $(k+1)$ -colourable.

General colouring question: How many colours are needed to colour a graph? we want to minimize this.

Applications: ① scheduling
② compilers assigning variables to registers

Suppose G has n vertices $\Rightarrow G$ is n colourable

Then: K_n is n -colourable, but not $(n-1)$ -colourable
complete graph

Then: G is 2 colourable iff G is bipartite

Colouring planar graph

Theorem: Any planar has a vertex of degree at most 5.

proof: suppose G is planar with n vertices.

Suppose every vertex in G has degree at least 6. Then G has at least $\frac{6n}{2} = 3n$ edges (By handshaking)
since it is a planar graph, it has at most $3n - b$ edges. \Rightarrow contradiction.

So at least one vertex has degree at most 5.

Theorem: Any planar graph is 6-colourable.

proof: by induction on the # of vertices n .

B.C. $n=1$, then it is 6-colourable

I.H: Any planar graph with $n-1$ vertices is 6-colourable.

I.S: suppose G is planar with n vertices.

Let v be a vertex of degree at most 5 in G . Obtain G' from G by removing v and its incident edges.
Then G' is planar with $n-1$ vertices.

By induction hypothesis, we know G' is 6-colouring.

Keep the same colouring for G' . For v , at most 5 colours are used by its neighbours.

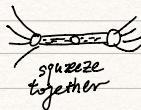
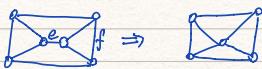
Since we have 6 colours, at least one unused colour is available for v .

We get a 6-colouring for G .

Theorem: Any planar graph is 5-colourable

contraction G/e

if G is planar, then G/e is also planar.



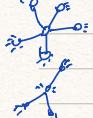
proof of 5-colour thm. strong induction on the number of vertices n .

Base case: Any planar graph with at most 5 vertices is 5-colourable

I.H. Assume any planar graph with fewer than n vertices is 5-colourable.

I.S. Suppose G is a planar graph with n vertices.

Let v be a vertex of degree at most 5.



if $\deg(v) \leq 4$, then apply the argument from 6-colour theorem to prove that it is 5-colourable.

Assume that $\deg(v)=5$. There exist two neighbours x, y of v that are not adjacent. for otherwise G contains K_5 which is not planar.

Let G' be obtained from G by contracting Vx, Vy . Let v^* be the contracted vertex.

Now G' is planar with $n-2$ vertices. By induction G' is 5-colourable.

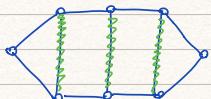
We keep the same colours for G except x, y receive the colour of v^* (this is possible since x, y are not adjacent). So the neighbours of v use at most 4 colours.

Since there are 5 colours at least 1 is available for v .

□

Theorem. Every planar graph is 4-colourable. $!?!?!$ (compute prove \approx)

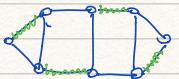
Matching



A matching in G is set of edges where no two edges share a common vertex (one edge also a matching)
(each vertex is incident with at most one edge in a matching)

~ matching (empty set is a matching)

General Q: what is the maximum size of a matching in a graph?



~ perfect matching.
(matching every single vertex)

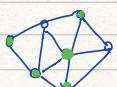
perfect match \Rightarrow maximum matching

Defn: A vertex incident within an edge in a matching is saturated. Otherwise it is unsaturated.

A matching that saturates every vertex is a perfect matching.

(odd graph does not have perfect matching)

Cover:



• \rightarrow cover

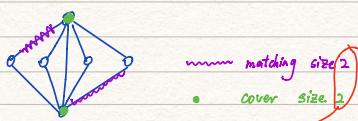
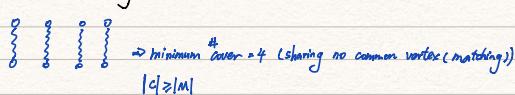
Defn: A cover C of a graph G is a set of vertices where every edge in G has at least one endpoint in C .

General Q: what is the minimum size of a cover in a graph?

Matching vs covers

Suppose M is a matching and C is a cover.

e.g.



Thm: If M is a matching and C is a cover of G , then $|M| \leq |C|$.

(if $|M|=|C|$, then we find the max matching & min cover)

For each edge uv in M , at least one of u or v is in C . Since edges in M do not share common vertices, C must contain at least $|M|$ distinct vertices. \square

Corollary: if M is matching and C is a cover of G where $|M|=|C|$, then M is a maximum matching and C is a minimum cover.

proof: Let M' be any matching. Then $|M'| \leq |c| = |M|$, so M is maximum.

Let C' be any cover. Then $|C'| \geq |M| = |C|$, so C is minimum. \square

In general, size of max matching might not be equal to size of min. cover.

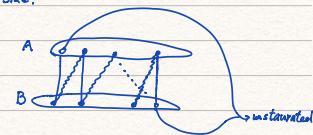


König's Theorem:

In a bipartite graph, the size of a maximum matching is equal to the size of a minimum cover.

idea: attempt to find an argumenting path

if find one, update matching. if fail to find one, the matching is maximum and find a cover of same size.



Proof: Suppose M, X, Y are sets we get at the end of the bipartite matching algorithm.

$$A \quad \begin{array}{c} x \\ \oplus \\ 111 \\ \hline 1001 \end{array} \quad A \times Y$$

$$B \quad \begin{array}{c} 111 \\ \oplus \\ 111 \\ \hline 1000 \end{array} \quad B \times Y$$

and $B \times Y$

We see that there is no edge between X and $B \setminus Y$. Since the algorithm would discover this edge and place the vertex in $B \setminus Y$ in Y .

Thus we claim that $Y \cup (A \setminus x)$ is a cover.
 Now every vertex in Y is saturated, for otherwise the algorithm finds an augmenting path and x has continued.

also every vertex in $A \setminus X$ is saturated, since all unsaturated vertices in A are in X .
 No matching edges joins Y to $A \setminus X$ (since matching neighbor of Y are in X).
 So each vertex in $Y \setminus (A \setminus X)$ is saturated by a distinct matching edges.

Then $|M| = |Y \cup (A \setminus x)|$

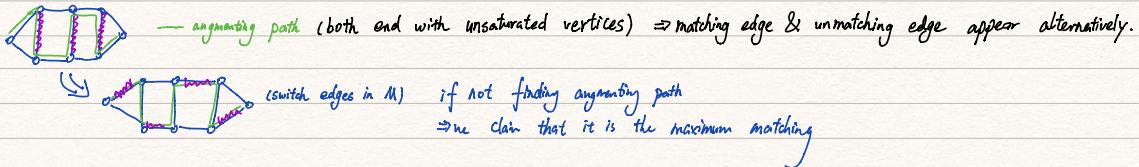
Corollary: A bipartite graph G with m edges and maximum degree d has a matching of size at least $\frac{m}{d}$.

proof: we just need to prove that every cover has size at least $\frac{m}{d}$ (by Konig's Thm)

Let C be a cover. Each vertex in C covers at most c_1 edges. Then C covers at most $c_1|C|$ edges.

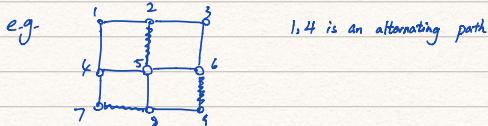
But $d/c \geq n$, so $|c| \geq \frac{m}{d}$ □

Augmenting paths:



Def'n: An alternating path P with respect to a matching M is a path where consecutive edges alternate between in M and not in M .

An alternating path is an alternative path that starts and ends with different unsaturated vertices (the first & last one are not in M)



* If an augmenting path exist, then there is a larger matching.

⇒ Aug. path 0 → even + 1 → even # of vertices ⇒ odd path. ⇒ switch get one larger.
if $e \in M$, remove e from M ; if $e \notin M$, add e to M

Hall's theorem:

When does a max matching exist that saturates all of A ?

What prevents us from saturating all of A ?

Def'n: Let X be a set of vertices in G . The neighbour set $N(X)$

is the set of all vertices in G adjacent to at least one vertex in X .

Hall's theorem: Let G be bipartite with bipartition (A, B) . Then G has a matching that saturates every vertex in A iff for all $D \subseteq A$, $|N(D)| \geq |D|$

proof: \Rightarrow suppose M is the matching that saturates A . Let $D \subseteq A$. Then each vertex in D is matched to a distinct vertex in $N(D)$ using M . So $|N(D)| \geq |D|$

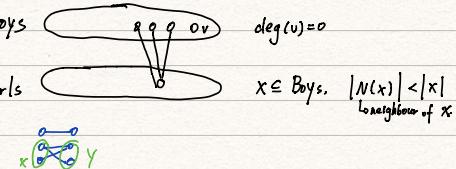
\Leftarrow suppose a maximum matching M does not saturate every vertex in A . Then $|M| < |A|$
(Goal: Find a $D \subseteq A$ where $|N(D)| < |D|$).

By König's Theorem, there exists a cover C where $|M| = |C|$

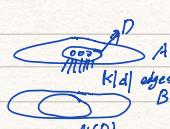
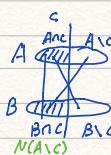
Since C is a cover, there is no edge between $A \setminus C$ and $B \setminus C$.

So $N(A \setminus C) \subseteq B \setminus C$. $|C| = |A \cap C| + |B \cap C| = |M| < |A|$

Then $|N(A \setminus C)| \leq |B \setminus C| < |A \setminus C| - |A \cap C| = |A \setminus C|$



$x \in \text{Boys}$, $|N(x)| < |x|$
where x is a neighbor of x



Corollary: A k -regular bipartite graph with $k \geq 1$ has a perfect matching.

proof: Suppose G has bipartition (A, B) . Let $D \subseteq A$

There are $k|D|$ edges incident with D , and the other endpoints are in $N(D)$.

There are $k|D|$ edges incident with $N(D)$

So $k|D| \leq k|N(D)|$, since $k \geq 1$. Thus $|D| \leq |N(D)|$

By Hall's theorem, there exist a matching that saturates A . So B is also saturated. Hence it is a perfect matching.

Corollary: Any k -regular bipartite graph can be partitioned into k perfect matchings.