

UPPSALA UNIVERSITET

FÖRELÄSNINGSTÄCKNINGAR

# Grafteori

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## 1. TODO

- Internet Spanning Tree protocol (look up)
- Weighed graphs adjacency matrix (what does symmetry mean?)
- Scalarproduct
- See traveling salesman problem (find shortest Hamilton cycle in a weighted complete graph)
- Add example \* to list of graphs that you need to know

## 2. BRIDGES OF KÖNINGSBERG

This was the birth of graphtheory. The idea here is that the precise location of where the person is does not matter, only the placement of the bridges and mainland. Therefore, we can encode the position by an abstract point (*vertex*) and connect these to *edges* to represent bridges.

### 2.1. Vocabulary.

We therefore obtain the follwing:

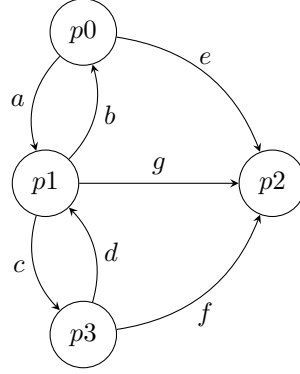


FIGURE 1.

#### Definition/Sats 2.1: Multigraph

A *multigraph*  $G$  is a tripple  $G = (V, E, \iota)$  consisting of:

- A set  $V$  of vertices
- A set  $E$  of edges
- $\iota : E \rightarrow \{A \subseteq V \mid |A| = 1 \text{ or } |A| = 2\}$

#### Example:

$$\iota(c) = \{2, 3\} = \iota(d)$$

$$\iota(e) = \{1, 4\}$$

#### Anmärkning:

Notice that the graphical view (and the placement of the vertices) is not reflected in the tripple, therefore we can draw the same graph in a completely different manner.

#### Loops:

This is what happens when  $|A| = 1$ :



FIGURE 2.

**Parallell edges:**

$$\iota(e) = \iota(e')$$

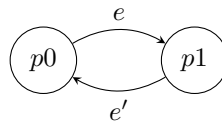


FIGURE 3.

**Neighbours/adjacent:**

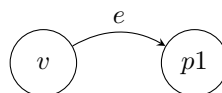


FIGURE 4.  $v$  is *incident* to  $e$  and a neighbour to  $w$

**Anmärkning:**

A loop means the vertex belongs to its own Neighbourhood.

#### Definition/Sats 2.2: Finite graph

We say that a graph  $G$  is finite if we have:

$$|V| + |E| < \infty$$

#### Definition/Sats 2.3: Walk

Let  $G = (V, E, \iota)$  be a graph

A *walk* of length  $k$  is a sequence  $v_0 e_1 v_1 e_2 v_2 \cdots e_k v_k$  where as the notation suggests,  $e_1, \dots, e_k$  are edges and  $v_0, \dots, v_k$  are vertices such that  $\iota(e_i) = \{v_{i-1}, v_i\}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$

#### Definition/Sats 2.4: Trail

A *trail* is a walk that uses no edges twice. This is something we want in the Bridges of Königsberg

#### Definition/Sats 2.5: Path

A *path* is a walk that uses no vertex twice.

#### Definition/Sats 2.6: Circuit

A *circuit* is a trail where first and last vertex coincide.

Meaning I start somewhere, don't repeat edges, and return at start place

#### Definition/Sats 2.7: Cycle

A *cycle* is a circuit where the first and last vertices are the only vertices coinciding

**Example:**

Using the bridges, an example of a trail and a circuit, but not a cycle because vertex 3 is visited twice  
 $1a3g4f2c3b1$

An example of a cycle would be  $1a3b1$

**Anmärkning:**

Every path is a trail.

Every cycle is a circuit.

**Definition/Sats 2.8: Eulerian trails**

A trail is called *Eulerian* if it uses every edge in the graph

**Definition/Sats 2.9: Eulerian circuits**

A circuit using every edge is called an *Eulerian circuit*

**Anmärkning:**

If a graph admits an Eulerian circuit, then the graph is called *simply Eulerian*

**Definition/Sats 2.10: Connected vertex**

Let  $G = (V, E, \iota)$  be a graph

We say that a vertex  $v \in V$  is *connected* to a vertex  $w \in V$  if there exists walk (or equivalently a trail/path) starting in  $v$  and ending in  $w$

If  $v$  is connected to  $w$  for all  $v, w \in V$ , then the graph  $G$  is *connected*

What we are saying here is that we call vertices that we can walk to connected.

**Anmärkning:**

$v$  is connected to  $v$  (every vertex is connected to itself)

Moreover, if  $v$  is connected to  $w$ , then  $w$  is connected to  $v$ .

$v$  is connected to  $w$  and  $w$  connected to  $z$ , then  $v$  is connected to  $z$ .

**Anmärkning:**

Connection is an equivalence relation.

**Definition/Sats 2.11: Connected components**

Equivalence classes of the equivalence relation are called *connected components*.

**Definition/Sats 2.12: Degree of vertex**

Let  $G = (V, E, \iota)$  be a graph and  $v \in V$ . The *degree* of  $v$  is  $\deg(v)$  and is the number of half-edges incident to  $v$ .

The reason we do half-edges is because we want loops to count twice (once for exit, and once on entry)

**Definition/Sats 2.13: Euler; 1736**

A finite connected graph is Eulerian iff all its vertex degrees are even.

**Bevis 2.1**

In  $\Rightarrow$  direction. Any vertex on the circuit needs to have even degree because you need a half-edge to go into the vertex and another one to go out.

Since it is connected, if I visit every vertex I also visit every edge and these come in pairs

In  $\Leftarrow$  direction. Assume  $G = (V, E)$  is finite, connected, and only has even degrees.

Assume  $G$  as no loops (convenience). We don't know if we can build an Eulerian circuit or even if we have a circuit, but we know that there is a trail (since it is connected)

Therefore, consider a trail  $J = v_0 e_1 v_1 \cdots e_k v_k$ .

Since the graph is finite, then there is a maximum trail, suppose  $J$  is a maximum trail (implying max length  $k$ ). Then we can't possibly extend it, so any edge we see at  $k$  must already be on the trail.

What we want to show is that  $v_0 = v_k$  because of this. Then we actually have a circuit.

Therefore, assume there are  $2s$  ( $s \in \mathbb{N}$ ) edges incident to  $v_k$ . We know there is an even number of edges (because we excluded loops).

If we look at our trail  $v_0 e_1 v_1 \cdots v_{i-1} e_i \underbrace{v_i}_{v_k} e_{i+1} v_{i+1}$

Then  $e_i$  and  $e_{i+1}$  are incident to  $v_k = v_i$ , but so is  $v_k$ . But  $v_k$  only has one edge, therefore  $e_1$  has to be incident to  $v_k = v_0$

We have now shown we have a trail, we show it is Eulerian.

Assume for a contradiction that it is not Eulerian. This means that there are parts not in our trail.

There is  $e \in E$  with endpoints  $\iota(e) = \{v, w\}$  s.t  $e$  is not on  $J$  but one of  $v, w$  is.

WLOG  $v$  is on  $J$ . Say  $v = v_j$  for some  $j$ .

Consider  $w e v_j e_{j+1} \cdots e_k \underbrace{v_k}_{v_0} e_1 v_1 e_2 v_2 \cdots e_j v_j$ , we claim that this is a trail. Notice here that we have

length  $k + 1$ , which is longer than  $k$ . Contradiction.  $\square$

**Anmärkning:**

A useful proof-tool in graphtheory is setting up a situation where we fix a maxlength and argue the contrary.

**Anmärkning:**

Notice how  $\Rightarrow$  was "obvious", we call this *TONCAS* - The Obvious Necessary Conditions Are Sufficient

**Anmärkning:**

If we have loops, we can simply traverse these loops and add them to our trail. This will not affect the proof.

**Corollary:**

A finite connected graph admits an Eulerian trail iff either 0 or 2 of its vertex degrees are odd

We can show this by retracing this back to the previous theorem. If we have 0 odd degrees, then the theorem holds.

If we have 2 vertices of odd degree, then we can draw an additional edge between  $v, w$ . This means that both of the vertices that had odd degrees have gotten their degrees bumped up by one, so they now have even degree, which implies the theorem (is an Eulerian circuit), so it visits all the edges (and especially the new edge). Then we can remove the new edge from the Eulerian circuit, which gives an Eulerian trail in the original graph.

If we look at the statement of the corollary, it leaves a graph. What happens if it has 1 odd vertex degree? We are gonna show that this is impossible.

**Definition/Sats 2.14: Handshake lemma**

Let  $G = (V, E, \iota)$  be a finite graph.

Then

$$2|E| = \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v)$$

In particular,  $G$  has even number of vertices of odd degree. (odd+odd = even, even + even = even)

**Bevis 2.2: Handshake lemma**

We use a trick from combinatorics (double counting). We identify a quantity and count it in 2 different ways.

We double count half-edges. Every edge gives 2 half-edges, so we  $2|E|$  half-edges. On the other hand, every vertex gives  $\deg(v)$  half-edges  $\Rightarrow \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v)$  half-edges.

It does not matter how I count them, therefore these quantities have to be the same.  $\square$

**Anmärkning:**

We can also use induction to show the Handshake lemma.

Start with 0 edges on  $V$ , which implies all the degrees are 0. Then add edges 1 by 1. And whenever you add an edge, the RHS increases by 2.

What happens if we have 4 vertices of odd degree?

We can partition  $E = E_1 \cup E_2$  such that  $E_1$  is a edge set of a trail and so is  $E_2$  (but  $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$ )



### 3. SIMPLE GRAPHS

The idea of simple graphs is to forbid parallel edges and loops. Here, we don't care how things are connected, but which things that *are*.

For example, we can encode the game *Towers of Hanoi* as a simple graph by letting  $n$  disks be stacked on 3 pegs

We can therefore encode a game state by a string of length  $n$

#### Definition/Sats 3.1: Simple graph

A *simple graph* is a multigraph without parallel edges or loops

An equivalent definition, it is a pair  $G = (V, E)$  where  $E \subseteq \mathcal{P}_2(V)$

By  $\mathcal{P}_2$  we mean the powersets of size 2:

$$\mathcal{P}_2(V) = \{A \subseteq V \mid |A| = 2\}$$

#### Anmärkning:

Our  $\iota$  is gone! This is because by not having parallel edges and loops, then  $\iota : E \rightarrow \mathcal{P}_2(V)$  is injective and we can identify the output of  $\iota$  with its input, and that is what the definition of a simple graph is

#### Anmärkning:

Every graph is a multigraph

#### Lemma 3.1

Any simple graph on  $n$  vertices has at most  $\binom{n}{2}$  edges

#### Bevis 3.1

The edge set  $E \subseteq \mathcal{P}_2(V)$  and  $|\mathcal{P}_2(V)| = \binom{n}{2}$

□

#### Anmärkning:

This implies that simple graphs are finite. In multigraphs, we could put arbitrary edges between vertices, but here it is not accepted.

Our vertex set is arbitrary, it doesn't matter if  $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  or  $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$ , we need to set up a notion of "sameness" in graphs taking into account that the vertex set is arbitrary.

#### Definition/Sats 3.2: Labelled graph

A *labelled graph* is a simple graph with a fixed vertex set, commonly  $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  if  $V$  is finite.

**Lemma 3.2**

There are  $2^{\binom{n}{2}}$  labelled graphs on  $n$  vertices.

**Bevis 3.2**

Since  $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  is fixed, two graphs  $(V, E)$  and  $(V, E')$  coincide iff  $E = E'$

Conversely, any subset of  $\mathcal{P}_2(V)$  defines an edge set. We are essentially looking for  $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}_2(V))$ , and the cardinality of this is  $2^{|\mathcal{P}_2(V)|} = 2^{\binom{n}{2}}$  □

**Definition/Sats 3.3: Morphism**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  and  $G' = (V', E')$  be simple graphs.

A *morphism*

$$\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$$

is a map

$$\varphi : V \rightarrow V'$$

such that  $\{v, w\} \in E \Rightarrow \{\varphi(v), \varphi(w)\} \in E'$

**Example:**

See example 15

**Anmärkning:**

Graph-morphisms do not need to be injective/surjective, nor do they need to exist

Graph-morphisms preserve edges between graphs, that's their whole point

**Definition/Sats 3.4: Identity morphism**

For every simple graph  $G$ , there is an identity morphism  $id_G : G \rightarrow G$  where  $id_G : V \rightarrow V$  is the identity map

For simple graphs  $G, G', G''$  and morphisms

$$\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$$

$$\varphi' : G' \rightarrow G''$$

There is a morphism  $\varphi' \circ \varphi : G \rightarrow G''$ , given by the map  $\varphi' \circ \varphi : V \rightarrow V''$

**Definition/Sats 3.5: Isomorphism**

Two graphs  $G, G'$  are *isomorphic* if there is a bijective morphism  $\varphi : V \rightarrow V'$  and  $\{v, w\} \in E \Leftrightarrow \{\varphi(v), \varphi(w)\} \in E'$

Another way of saying this there is  $\varphi : G \rightarrow G'$  and a  $\psi : G' \rightarrow G$  such that  $\varphi \circ \psi = id_{G'}$  and  $\psi \circ \varphi = id_G$

**Anmärkning:**

Isomorphic graphs are not necessarily the same if they are labelled. We need to make sure the degree of each vertex coincide, and that we don't lose any edges.

**Definition/Sats 3.6**

The number  $g_n$  of non-isomorphic simple graphs on  $n$  vertices satisfies the following:

$$\bullet g_n = \frac{2^{\binom{n}{2}}}{n!} \left( 1 + \frac{n^2 - n}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{8n!}{(n-4)!} \cdot \frac{(3n-7)(3n-9)}{2^{2n}} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{n^5}{2^{5n/2}}\right) \right)$$

In particular,  $g_n$  behaves asymptotically as  $2^{\binom{n}{2}}/n!$  in the same way that the probability distribution *Hyp* becomes *Bin* for large populations. When we make lots of graphs, eventually, the number of graphs that are isomorphic are so small they don't matter in the grand scheme.

**3.1. Special graphs.**

Some (simple) graphs are so special (5 of 'em) that they are given special names:

- The complete graphs on  $n$  vertices, denoted by  $K_n$ . All  $\binom{n}{2}$  edges are present (every vertex is a neighbour of everything else)
- The path graph of length  $l$ , denoted by  $P_l$  is just a regular path as a graph
- The cycle graph on  $n$  vertices, denoted by  $C_n$  ( $n \geq 3$ )
- The complete bipartite graphs, denoted  $K_{a,b}$ . Here,  $V$  is partitioned as the disjoint union  $V = V_a \cup V_b$ . This means  $|V| = a + b$ . There are no edges between two vertices in the same set, but all possible edges are between the two sets.

Notice that  $K_{a,b} \cong K_{b,a}$

- The complete  $r$ -partite graphs  $K_{a_1, \dots, a_r}$  has a vertex set  $V = \bigcup_{i=1}^r V_{a_i}$  such that  $|V_{a_i}| = a_i$

We say that two vertices are neighbours iff they are in different sets.

**Lemma 3.3**

The complete  $r$ -partite graph  $K_{a_1, \dots, a_r}$  on  $n$  vertices (sum of all  $a_i = n$ ) has

$$|E| = \frac{1}{2}(n^2 - a_1^2 - \dots - a_r^2)$$

**Bevis 3.3**

A vertex in set  $V_{a_i}$  has  $n - a_i$  neighbours

By the Handshake lemma,  $2|E| = \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i(n - a_i) = n \sum_{i=1}^r a_i - \sum_{i=1}^r a_i^2$

$$2|E| = \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = \sum_{i=1}^r a_i(n - a_i) = n \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^r a_i}_{=n} - \sum_{i=1}^r a_i^2$$

$$n^2 - a_1^2 - \dots - a_r^2$$

□

**Anmärkning:**

$K_{a,b}$  has  $\frac{1}{2}(n^2 - a^2 - b^2) = ab$  edges and  $K_n = K_{1, \dots, 1}$  has  $\frac{1}{2}(n^2 - n) = \binom{n}{2}$  edges

**Definition/Sats 3.7: Subgraph**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a simple graph.

A simple graph  $H = (V', E')$  is a *subgraph* of  $G$  if  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' \subseteq E$

**Definition/Sats 3.8: Induced subgraph**

An *induced* subgraph, is a subgraph  $H = (V', E')$  of  $G$ , such that  $E' = \{\{x, y\} \in E \mid x, y \in V'\}$

Denoted by  $H = G[V']$

**Definition/Sats 3.9: Edge-induced subgraph**

An *edge-induced* subgraph is a subgraph  $H = (V', E')$  such that  $V' = \{v \in V \mid v \text{ is incident to some } e \in E'\}$

Denoted by  $H = G < E' >$

**Definition/Sats 3.10: Spanning subgraph**

A subgraph  $H = (V', E')$  of  $G$  is a *spanning* subgraph if  $V' = V$

**Anmärkning:**

There is a way to extend this into multigraphs, but you need to find a way to take care of  $\iota$

## 4. TREES

**Definition/Sats 4.1: Tree**

A *tree* is a graph that is both connected and contains no cycles

It follows automatically that a tree is a simple graph. No cyclic subgraphs.

One of the key motivations behind studying trees is sorting algorithms. The follow a binary tree, which has a root node and a left-right structure.

To us, this is not that important.

**Lemma 4.1: Leaves**

Every finite tree on at least 2 vertices contains at least 2 vertices of degree 1.

Such vertices are called *leaves*

**Intuition:**

If we disregard the definition of the tree for a second, and look at how the trees *actually* look like, we see that we can always find a "top" node and a "bottom" node. What makes these nodes top resp. bottom nodes? Well, they have degree one!

Notice how we called the top node the "top" node, now we can start baking in the definition of the trees to attempt to construct a proof.

If we can show that we will always have a top and bottom node, we are done (because a tree is a connected graph, therefore there always exists a walk from the top node to the bottom, and therefore the degree of the node has to be greater than 1 and since there are no cycles, neither the top nor the bottom node can have degree 2).

The path of max length should start at our top node, and end at our "bottomest" node. We can now construct the following proof:

**Bevis 4.1**

Let  $T$  be a finite tree on vertices  $\geq 2$ .

Consider a path  $P = x e_1 x_1 \cdots e_k y$  of maximum length

If such path exists, we will show that  $x, y$  must be our desired leaves.

Assume WLOG  $y$  has  $\deg(y) \geq 2$ . Then  $y$  has a neighbour  $z \neq x_{k-1}$

If  $z$  is not on  $P$ , then  $x e_1 \cdots e_k y z$  is a longer path, which is a contradiction.

Otherwise  $z$  is on  $P$ :

$$x - x_1 - x_2 \cdots - z - \cdots - x_{k-1} - y$$

This gives a cycle (there is a path from  $y$  to  $z$ ), which is a contradiction. Hence,  $\deg(y) = 1$  and  $\deg(x) = 1$  □

The trick here is that we took some suitable substructure of maximum length, and from this we arrived at this property. One could say that we initially wanted to show that this follows from the root down to the last node.

**Lemma 4.2**

Any tree on  $n$  vertices has  $n - 1$  edges

**Bevis 4.2**

We will use induction over  $n$ :

- $n = 1$ : has 0 edges
- Assume the claim is true for some  $n \geq 1$ , and let  $T$  be a tree on  $n + 1$  vertices.  
By Lemma 4.1,  $T$  contains a leaf (at least 2)  $v$ . Obtain  $T'$  from  $T$  by deleting  $v$  and its incident edge.  
Now  $T'$  has  $n$  vertices, and therefore  $n - 1$  edges.  
This means  $T$  has  $n = (n + 1) - 1$  edges

□

It is fairly easy to count number of labelled trees given  $n$  vertices. Counting isomorphic trees only yields an asymptotic relationship (as previous)

**Definition/Sats 4.2: Cayley**

There are  $n^{n-2}$  labelled trees on  $n$  vertices

**Bevis 4.3**

The proof is a little difficult. The main idea is to find a bijection.

On the one hand we have labelled trees, and on the other hand we have sequences (Prufer sequences) of length  $n - 2$  with  $n$  trees from  $1, \dots, n$

We will find 2 algorithms that transform one hand to the other and then show that they are the same if inverted.

- **Algorithm 1:**

Let  $T$  be a tree  $n$  vertices  $\{1, \dots, n\}$   
While  $T$  has  $\geq 3$  vertices, remove the leaf with the smallest label, and write down its neighbours label as next entry in the sequences  
Stop when there are 2 vertices left  
Remember here that a leaf has a unique neighbour.

- **Algorithm 2:**

We now want to go from a Prufer sequence to trees.  
Let  $A = (a_1, \dots, a_{n-2})$  be a Prufer sequence.  
To each  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , count how often  $i$  appears in the Prufer sequence,  $+1$ . Denoted by  $d_i$   
For  $s = 1, \dots, n - 2$ , find the smallest  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  such that  $d_j = 1$  (smallest value that doesn't occur in the Prufer sequence, since if  $d_j = 1$  and we are adding one)  
Draw an edge between  $j$  and  $a_s$  and reduce  $d_{a_s}$  and  $d_j$  by 1 each.  
In the end, two vertices  $u, v \in \{1, \dots, n\}$  will remain with  $d_u = d_v = 1$  (this is a claim, **CHECK**)  
Connect  $u, v$  by an edge. At this point you will have a tree.

**Claim:** Algorithm 1 & 2 are mutually inverse to each other, thus establishing the bijection, and the proof follows.

(In reality we need to actually check that the algorithms work)

□

The way we defined trees as being connected and cycle free is not the only definition, in fact, we have the following theorem:

### Definition/Sats 4.3

The following are equivalent:

- $T$  is a tree
- For any two vertices  $x, y \in T$ , there exists a unique path from  $x$  to  $y$  (key-point: unique, from connectedness we already know there exists a path)
- $T$  is edge-minimal among connected graphs, i.e removing an edge from  $T$  will disconnect  $T$
- $T$  is edge-maximal among cycle-free graphs, i.e adding an edge to  $T$  must create a cycle.

### Bevis 4.4

Let  $T = (V, E)$  be a simple graph. We will show all the points above using implications.

- **First point implies the second**

$T$  is a tree, i.e connected and cycle-free.

Take arbitrary vertices  $x, y \in V$ . Since  $T$  is connected, there is a path from  $x$  to  $y$

Assume there is a second path. This contradicts that it is cycle-free, therefore the path is unique.

- **Second point implies the third**

Consider  $\{x, y\} \in E$ . By the second point, this edge forms the unique path between  $x, y$ .

If we remove the unique path, there will not be a path between  $x, y$  and thus disconnects  $x$  from  $y$ , and we now have a disconnected graph

- **Second point implies the fourth**

Consider 2 non-adjacent vertices  $\{x, y\}$ . By the second point, there is a unique path  $P$  from  $x$  to  $y$ .

Introducing the new edge  $\{x, y\}$  creates a cycle.

- **Third point implies the first**

If  $T$  is edge-minimal among connected graphs, then in particular it is connected, we must now show that it is cycle-free.

Assume  $T$  contains a cycle. Deleting any edge of the cycle would *not* disconnect  $T$ , therefore  $T$  cannot be edge-minimal among connected, which is a contradiction, thus it cannot contain a cycle and therefore it is a tree

- **Fourth point implies the first**

$T$  is edge-minimal among cycle-free graphs, in particular  $T$  is cycle-free. If  $T$  is not connected, then we can introduce an edge between two different connected components, and this new edge will *not* introduce a cycle, which contradicts it being edge-minimal.

□

### Definition/Sats 4.4: Spanning tree

Let  $G$  be a graph. A *spanning tree* of  $G$  is a spanning subgraph that is a tree

### Anmärkning:

If  $G$  is disconnected, then a spanning subgraph of  $G$  is disconnected

**Definition/Sats 4.5**

If  $G$  is a connected graph, then  $G$  contains a spanning tree.

If  $G$  is a finite graph, then we can use the last theorem to show this. The problem arises when  $G$  is infinite. In order to show this, we need a more powerful tool.

**Definition/Sats 4.6: Zorns lemma**

Let  $A$  be a non-empty set equipped with a partial order " $\geq$ ".

A subset  $C \subseteq A$  is a *chain*, if  $\forall c, c' \in C$  we have  $c \leq c'$  or  $c' \leq c$

Assume that for any chain  $C \in A$ , there is an upper bound  $b \in A$  (i.e  $c \leq b \forall c \in C$ ).

Then, there exists an element  $m \in A$  that is maximal, which means that  $m \leq a \Rightarrow m = a$

**Bevis 4.5: Theorem 4.5**

Let  $A$  be the set of all cycle-free spanning subgraphs of  $G$ .  $G$  here can be a multigraph.

We need to define a partial order. For  $H, H' \in A$ , define  $H \leq H'$  if  $H$  is a subgraph of  $H'$

Now you might wonder how subgraphs work with multigraphs, since they are cycle free it will work the same.

Then  $(A, \leq)$  is a partially ordered set (**CHECK**). Furthermore,  $A \neq \emptyset$  because the graph  $(V, \emptyset) \in A$

Let  $C$  be a chain in  $A$ , consisting of elements  $(V, E_i)$  for  $i \in I$  ( $I$  is some index set).

What we want to show is that such a chain has an upper-bound.

Define  $H_b = (V, \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i)$ . We want to show that  $b$  is an upper-bound for  $C$ .

By construction,  $H_b$  is a spanning subgraph of  $G$ . Why? It contains all of the vertices, and the individual sets are subsets of  $G$ .

Moreover, assume it contains a cycle with edges  $e_1, \dots, e_r$ . Then, for every  $l = 1, \dots, r$ , there exists  $i(l) \in I$  such that  $e_l \in E_{i(l)}$  (at least one set must be in the union)

Since  $C$  is a chain, one of the  $H_{i(1)}, \dots, H_{i(r)}$  contains all other subgraphs simply because they are all comparable. (Say  $H_{i(j)}$ )

Thus,  $e_1, \dots, e_r$  is contained in the edge set  $E_{i(j)}$ , hence  $H_{i(j)}$  contains a cycle.

This is a contradiction, because  $H_b$  is cycle-free. This means  $H_b \in A$

Is  $H_b$  an upper-bound for the chain  $C$ ? Yes,  $H_b$  bound  $C$  because

$$E_s \in \bigcup_{i \in I} E_i \quad \forall s \in I$$

Our chain was arbitrary, this means that we can do this for any chain.

By Zorns lemma, there is  $H \in A$  that is maximal with respect to the partial order we defined. This means,  $H$  is edge-maximal among cycle-free spanning subgraphs of  $G$ .

This means,  $H$  is a spanning tree. (edge-maximal cycle free means it is a tree) □



## 5. KIRCHOFFS MATRIX-TREE THEOREM

**Definition/Sats 5.1: Complexity**

Let  $G$  be a labelled graph. The *complexity* of  $G$ , denoted by  $t(G)$  is the number of spanning trees of  $G$

**Example:**

The complexity of a complete graph  $K_n$  is  $n^{n-2}$

From now on (this lecture), we assume that  $G = (V, E)$  is a labelled ( $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ ) finite and simple graph with  $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$

**Definition/Sats 5.2: Adjacency matrix**

The *adjacency matrix*  $A$  of  $G$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix having entries:

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i, j \text{ are adjacent} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Example:**

has adjacency matrix:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Anmärkning:**

- $A$  is symmetric  $\Rightarrow$  real eigenvalues
- $A_{i,i} = 0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$
- $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{i,i} = 0 = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$
- If the only zeroes are in the diagonal, then the graph is complete

We declare one part of the graph to be negative and the other to be positive. This is just a choice, and does not have an effect on the construction of the graph

**Definition/Sats 5.3: Incidence matrix**

The *incidence matrix*  $D$  of  $G$  with respect to a fixed orientation is the  $n \times n$  matrix having entries:

$$D_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i \text{ is the positive endpoint of } e_j \\ -1 & \text{if } i \text{ is the negative endpoint of } e_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Anmärkning:**

$e_i \in E$

**Anmärkning:**

We may choose a vertex to be negative for one edge, but it does not have to be fixed, for another edge that same vertex might be positive. This does not affect the graph.

How do we relate these matrices to trees? Well, this is the idea of the next few lemmas:

### Lemma 5.1

Let  $D$  be an incidence matrix to a graph  $G$ . Then the following statements are true:

- The sum of any column of  $D$  is 0, thus the  $\text{rank}(D) \leq n - 1$  (since the values in a column are either 1 or -1 (once) and 0)
- If  $G$  is connected, then the  $\text{rank}(D) = n - 1$
- If  $G$  has  $c$  components, then  $\text{rank}(D) = n - c$

This is good, because by looking at  $D$  we can say something about if the graph is connected or not.

### Bevis 5.1

Denote by  $r_i$  the  $i$ -th row vector of  $D$ :

- The sum of any column is 0 by the definition of  $D$  (each row has 2 non-zero entries that are 1 or -1).

This means that  $\underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^n r_i}_{\text{linjärbomb.}} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{rank}(D) \leq n - 1$

- Suppose there is a non-trivial linear combination of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \cdot r_i = 0$   
 Consider the row  $k$  for which  $\alpha_k \neq 0$   
 In row  $k$ , there is a non-zero entry for every edge incident to the vertex  $k$   
 For each of these columns where row  $k$  has non-zero entries, there is a unique second entry in the same column (column  $s$ ), but in a different row ( $r_j$ ).  
 This other entry  $r_j$  will have an opposite sign  
 We know  $\alpha_k \cdot r_{k,s} + \alpha_j r_{j,s} = 0$   
 This means that  $\alpha_k = \alpha_j$  since they only differ by a sign  
  
 As a consequence of this, if  $\alpha_k \neq 0$  then  $\alpha_j = \alpha_k$  for all  $j$  adjacent to  $k$   
 Since  $G$  is connected, this argument extends to all of  $G$ 's vertices (and thereby all of  $G$ ),  
 hence the linear combination  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i r_i$  is a scalar multiple of  $\sum_{i=1}^n r_i$   
  
 This gives that the  $\text{rank}(D) = n - 1$
- This follows quite easily from proof from the above point.  
 If  $G$  has  $c$  components, relabel the vertices and edges in such a way that  $D$  takes the form of having edges and vertices of component 1 in the diagonal place 1,1.  
 Then  $\text{rank}(D) = n - c$  by applying previous point to each block

□

### Lemma 5.2

Any square submatrix of an incidence matrix  $D$  has determinant 0 or  $\pm 1$

### Bevis 5.2

Pure linear algebra. Left as an exercise to the reader

□

More interesting things that follows from Lemma 5.2 is if you pick a set of edges  $S \subseteq E$ . Denote by  $D_s$  the submatrix containing exactly the columns that correspond exactly to the edges in  $S$

Then  $D_s$  is an incidence matrix to the spanning subgraph  $(V, S)$

In particular, if  $|S| = n - 1$ , then by second point of Lemma 5.1,  $\text{rank}(D) = n - 1$  iff  $(V, S)$  is connected iff  $(V, S)$  is a spanning tree

### Lemma 5.3

Let  $S \subseteq E$  with  $|S| = n - 1$

Let  $M$  denote any  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$  submatrix of the  $n \times (n - 1)$  matrix  $D_s$

Then  $M$  is regular (invertible) iff  $(V, S)$  is a spanning tree of  $G$

### Bevis 5.3

We already know that the rank of  $D_s = n - 1$  iff  $(V, S)$  is a spanning tree.

In that case, if we just take  $D_s$  and delete any row from it, it will create an invertible matrix, so if I start with a spanning tree, then  $M$  is regular

Conversely, assume  $M$  is regular. This means that  $D_s$  contains at least  $n - 1$  linear independent rows and the same number of linear independent columns

This means that  $\text{rank}(D_s) \leq n - 1$ , but since this thing only has  $n - 1$  columns this must be equal to  $n - 1$

$(V, S)$  is connected on  $n - 1$  edges, therefore it is a spanning tree.

□

We now have all the criteria to decide if a subgraph is a spanning tree

### Lemma 5.4

Let  $A$  be the adjacency matrix of  $G$  and let  $D$  be an incidence matrix of  $G$  (fixed labelling and ordering of edges as well as ordering of orientation)

Denote by  $\Delta$  the  $(n \times n)$  diagonal matrix with entries  $\Delta_{i,i} = \deg(i)$

Then  $\Delta - A = DD^T$  and this matrix is the **Laplacian matrix** of  $G$

In particular, this product is independent from the orientation of  $G$  (because the LHS does not rely on the orientation of the edges)

### Bevis 5.4

$(DD^T)_{i,j}$  is the scalar product of the row vectors  $r_i$  and  $r_j$  of  $D$  (because of how matrix multiplication works)

If  $i = j$ , this means that  $(DD^T)_{i,i} = \sum_{s=1}^m r_{i,s}^2 = \sum_{s=1}^m D_{i,s}^2 = \sum_{s=1}^m \mathbb{1}\{\text{edge } s \text{ is incident to vertex } i\} = \deg(i) = (\Delta - A)_{i,i}$

If  $i \neq j$ , then:

$$\begin{aligned} (DD^T)_{i,j} &= \sum_{s=1}^m D_{i,s} D_{j,s} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i, j \text{ non-adjacent} \\ -1 & \text{if } i, j \text{ adjacent} \end{cases} \\ &= (\Delta - A)_{i,j} \end{aligned}$$

This thing is non-zero iff  $D_{i,s} = \pm 1$  and  $D_{j,s} = \mp 1$ . This only happens if  $s$  is an edge connecting  $i$  to  $j$

But between any given vertices, there can be at most one edge

□

**Lemma 5.5**

Let  $Q = \Delta - A = DD^T$  the Laplacian of  $G$ .

Denote by  $J$  (sometimes  $J_n$ ) the  $n \times n$  matrix with all entries  $= 1$

Then the adjoint matrix of the Laplacian  $Q$  is a scalar multiple of  $J$

**Bevis 5.5**

Observe:

- $\text{rank}(Q) = \text{rank}(D)$  (since  $Q = DD^T$ )

If  $G$  is disconnected, the  $\text{rank}(Q) < n - 1 \Rightarrow$  all cofactors are 0

If  $G$  is connected, then  $\text{rank}(Q) = n - 1$ .

We know from linear algebra that  $Q \cdot \text{adj}(Q) = \det(Q) \cdot I_{n \times n} = 0$

This means that every column vector of  $\text{adj}(Q)$  is in  $\ker(Q)$

But the dimension of the kernel is  $n - \text{rank}(Q) = 1$  and  $(1, \dots, 1)^T \in \ker(Q)$  because:

$$(\Delta - A) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \deg(i) - \sum_{j \text{ adj. to } i} 1 = \deg(i) - \deg(i) = 0$$

Therefore,  $(1, \dots, 1)^T$  is a basis of the kernel

This means every column of  $\text{adj}(Q)$  is a scalar multiple of  $(1, \dots, 1)^t$

Since  $Q^T = (\Delta - A)^T = \Delta^T - A^T = \Delta - A = Q$ , also  $\text{adj}(Q)^T = \text{adj}(Q)$

But this means that every row  $\text{adj}(Q)$  is a scalar multiple of  $(1, \dots, 1)^T$

If every row and every column is a scalar multiple of that vector, then since every row and column intersect,  $\text{adj}(Q)$  is a scalar multiple of  $J$  □

**Definition/Sats 5.4: Kirchoffs Matrix-Tree theorem**

Let  $G$  be a connected finite simple graph with Laplacian matrix  $Q$ .

Then,  $\text{adj}(Q) = t(G) \cdot J$  (equal to any cofactor of its Laplacian matrix)

Equivalently, if  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_{n-1}$  are the non-zero eigenvalues of  $Q$ , then  $t(G) = \frac{1}{n} \lambda_1 \cdots \lambda_{n-1}$  (if not connected, then there are more than one non-zero eigenvalues)

**Definition/Sats 5.5: Cauchy-Binet**

Assume you have two  $n \times n$  matrices  $A, B$  where  $n \leq m$

Then,  $\det(AB^T) = \sum_{s \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\}} \det(A_s) \det(B_s^T)$  and  $|s| = n$

### Bevis 5.6: Matrix-Tree theorem

We already know that all the cofactors are the same, so it is enough to evaluate one cofactor of  $Q$

Let  $\tilde{D}$  be the incident matrix with the last row deleted.

This means that  $\det(\tilde{D}\tilde{D}^T)$  is a cofactor of  $Q = DD^T$

By Cauchy-Binet we have  $\det(\tilde{D}\tilde{D}^T) = \sum_{S \subseteq E} (\det \tilde{D}_S)^2$  where  $|S| = n - 1$

This means that it is a square  $(n - 1) \times (n - 1)$ , which by previous lemma has determinant 0 or 1.

We have also seen that the determinant is 1 iff  $(V, S)$  is a spanning tree. Therefore, the sum above is just the number of spanning trees  $t(G)$   $\square$

### Example:

Assume it is the exam and you need to prove Cayleys formula but you have forgotten it and we want to find  $t(K_n)$

We have  $Q$  with  $n - 1$  on its diagonal and all the other edges are -1.

How do we find the eigenvalues? Its not recommended to find the characteristic polynomial, but we may be able to guess the eigenvalues (and verify using trace).

$Q \cdot (1, \dots, 1)^T = 0$  (sum of each row is 0) so  $(1, \dots, 1)^T$  is eigenvector to eigenvalue 0

We try  $Q \cdot \underbrace{(0, \dots, 1, -1, \dots, 0)^T}_{\text{eigenvector to eigenvalue } n} = (0, \dots, n, -n, \dots, 0)^T$ . These form  $n - 1$  linearly independent eigenvectors

Now we can use Kirchoff. By the Matrix-Tree theorem,  $t(K_n) = \frac{1}{n} n^{n-1} = n^{n-2}$

## 6. WEIGHTS AND DISTANCES

**Definition/Sats 6.1: Weighted graph**

A *weighted graph* is a finite simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  together with a weight function  $w : E \rightarrow (0, \infty)$

If  $H = (V', E')$  is a subgraph of  $G$ , then its weight is defined to be  $w(H) = \sum_{e \in E'} w(e)$

**Definition/Sats 6.2: Minimum spanning tree**

A *minimum spanning tree* (MST) is a spanning tree  $T$  of  $G$  such that  $w(T)$  is minimal among all spanning trees in  $G$

It is not clear that an MST exists. We started with a simple graph which has finite edges and therefore we have finite subgraphs. We are therefore looking for the minimum of a set, which certainly exists, but it may not be unique.

**Lemma 6.1**

Let  $G$  be a connected weighted graph.

If  $w : E \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  is injective, then the MST is unique.

**Bevis 6.1**

Assume  $w$  is injective and suppose there are MST:s  $T_1 = (V, E_1)$  and  $T_2 = (V, E_2)$  with  $E_1 \neq E_2$

Then a set  $D$  (not incidence matrix)  $D = \{e \in E \mid e \in E_1 \vee e \in E_2 \text{ but not both}\}$

Pick  $e \in D$  such that  $w(e)$  is minimal (we can do this because all of our set is finite, so there must be a minimal weighted edge).

By definition, this edge lives in one of our 2 trees.

WLOG,  $e \in E_1$  and therefore  $e \notin E_2$

Add  $e$  to  $T_2$  creates a cycle (a tree is edge-maximal among cycle-free graphs), and on this cycle there is an edge  $e' \notin E_1 \Rightarrow e' \in D$

We now have:

- $w(e) < w(e')$  (by injectivity, they cannot have the same weight)
- $w(e') \leq w(e)$  (because otherwise  $T_2$  would not be a MST)

Contradiction, and end of proof

□

**Anmärkning:**

Lemma 6.1 is not an equivalence. If there are edges with equal weight, it does not mean our MST is unique. The best example is if we start with a tree.

### 6.1. Prim's Algorithm.

Of course, let  $G = (V, E)$  be a connected, simple, weighted graph.

Set  $T = (\{v\}, \emptyset)$  for any  $v \in V$  (contains one arbitrary vertex from the graph and no edges)

While  $T$  is not spanning, find an edge  $e \in E$  between  $V(T)$  (all of the vertices that are already in the tree) and  $V \setminus V(T)$  (all of the vertices are not already in the tree) such that  $w(e)$  is minimal.

Add this edge  $e$  to  $T$  together with its endpoint from  $V \setminus V(T)$

The moment  $T$  is spanning, we stop the algorithm.

#### Example:

Example 53 in lecture notes

When faced with 2 choices, pick as you want

#### Anmärkning:

You can get different spanning trees depending on which starting vertex you choose. Therefore, how can we know it is the MST? Theorem time!

#### Definition/Sats 6.3: Prim's algorithm produces an MST

*Prim's algorithm produces an MST*

#### Bevis 6.2

Let PA = Prim's algorithm.

PA produces a spanning subgraph, and in fact it produces a connected spanning subgraph with  $n$  vertices and  $n - 1$  edges (by Lemma 4.2 we have a spanning tree  $T$ )

Let  $T'$  be a MST. We show that the weight  $w(T)$  is at most  $(\leq) w(T')$

Suppose  $T \neq T'$ . Consider the earliest edge  $e$  that was included in  $T$  but is not in  $T'$

Partition  $V$  in 2 disjoint sets  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  such that  $V_1$  contains all vertices that PA added to  $T$  before including  $e$ .

Before including  $e$ , all of the edges in  $T$  were in  $T'$ , so if we look at  $T[V_1]$  is a subgraph of  $T'$

$T'$  is a tree, so there must be one edge  $f \neq e$  (edge  $e$  does not occur in  $T'$ ) in  $T'$  that connects  $V_1$  to  $V_2$  in  $T'$

Transform  $T'$  by adding  $e$  (creates cycle) and removing  $f$  (on this cycle is  $f$ , remove  $f$  destroys cycle)

PA chose  $e$  over  $f$ , this means that  $w(e) \leq w(f)$

What happens now when  $f \sim T''$  (when we remove  $f$ )? Well, the total weight should go down, so  $w(T'') \leq w(T')$ .

Since  $T'$  is an MST, this implies  $w(T'') = w(T')$

We can repeat this until  $T'' = T$ . Since we have moved the latest point in which they differ (by repeating this, we essentially move this point as far back as possible)

Then it follows that  $w(T) \leq w(T')$  so  $T$  is MST

□

**Anmärkning:**

Prims algorithm is an example of a *greedy algorithm*. This is because we do a locally optimal choice.

**Anmärkning:**

Regarding runtime, depends on the implementation and how we choose the minimal edge. A good implementation has a runtime of  $\mathcal{O}(|E| + |V| \log(|V|))$

**6.2. Kruskals Algorithm.**

We start yet again with a connected weighted graph  $G = (V, E)$ .

Let  $S$  be a list of the edges in  $E$ , sorted by increasing order of weight (lightest edge is first)

Set  $T = (V, \emptyset)$  and do the following:

While  $T$  is disconnected, delete the first entry in  $S$  and add it to  $T$  unless it creates a cycle (then just delete it)

**Example:**

Example 54 in lecture notes

**Definition/Sats 6.4: Kruskals algorithm produces a MST**

*Kruskals algorithm produces a MST*

**Bevis 6.3**

Denote Kruskals algorithm with KA.

Notice that KA by design produces a spanning cycle free connected graph (spanning tree). Denote this by  $T$

If  $T$  is *not* MST, denote by  $T'$  MST that has the maximum number of edges in common  $T$  (among all MST)

Let  $e$  be the earliest edge in  $T$  that is not in  $T'$  (**is  $e$  the first one to be deleted but not added?**) (no, first one to be included in  $T$  but not in  $T'$ )

Adding  $e$  to  $T'$  creates a cycle, and this cycle contains an edge  $f \neq e$  that is not in  $T$

Modify  $T'$  by adding  $e$  and removing  $f$ , this creates a new tree  $f \sim T''$

Since  $T'$  is an MST, we have that  $w(T') \leq w(T'')$ , but at the same time, KA chose  $e$  over  $f$  so by removing  $f$  and adding  $e$ , therefore  $w(T'') \leq w(T') \Rightarrow w(T') = w(T'')$  and  $T''$  is MST

However,  $T''$  has one more edge in common with  $T$  than  $T'$  had. This is a contradiction since  $T'$  had the most edges in common.  $\square$

**Anmärkning:**

A good implementation has a runtime of  $\mathcal{O}(|E| \log(|V|))$



You can interpret edge weights, as distances.

### Definition/Sats 6.5: Graph distance

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a simple weighted graph with weight function  $w : E \rightarrow (0, \infty)$

For vertices  $v, v' \in V$ , we define the *graph distance* between  $v$  and  $v'$  by

$$d_G(v, v') = \min \left\{ \sum_{e \in E(P)} w(e) \mid P \text{ is a path from } v \text{ to } v' \right\}$$

We set  $d_G(v, v') = \infty$  if no path from  $v$  to  $v'$  exists.

### Anmärkning:

For non-weighted graphs, we choose  $w(e) = 1$  for all  $e \in E$

### Lemma 6.2

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a connected weighted graph. Then the following statements are true:

- $\forall v, v' \in V$ , we have  $d_G(v, v') \geq 0$  and  $d_G(v, v') = 0 \Leftrightarrow v = v'$
- $d_G(v, v') = d_G(v', v)$
- Triangular inequality holds:  $d_G(v, v') + d_G(v', v'') \geq d_G(v, v'')$

### Anmärkning:

This is a set with a metric.

### Bevis 6.4

irst one is obvious, and so it the second

For the Triangular inequality, let  $P$  be a path of  $d_G(v, v')$  from  $v$  to  $v'$  and  $Q$  be a path of length  $d_G(v', v'')$  from  $v'$  to  $v''$  (we know this path exists because there must be some path that realises these distances)

We obtain a walk from  $v$  to  $v''$  by concatenating  $Q$  after  $P$ , problem is this is not a path, but erasing cycles from this walk creates a path. This only decreases the length. We found a path from  $v$  to  $v''$  which is shorter than the sum of the distances

Hence,  $d_G(v, v'') \leq d_G(v, v') + d_G(v', v'')$

□

### Definition/Sats 6.6: Diameter

The *diameter* of a weighted graph  $G = (V, E)$  is the maximum distance between any 2 vertices:

$$\text{diam}(G) = \max \{d_G(v, v') \mid v, v' \in V\}$$

### 6.3. Dijkstras Algorithm.

Given a weighted graph  $G = (V, E)$ , select an initial vertex  $v_0$  and initialize a distance function  $d(v_0, *)$  (where  $*$  is the argument of our distance function and is some other vertex) by:

$$d(v_0, v) = \begin{cases} 0 & v = v_0 \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Define a set  $Q$  of unvisited vertices. Initially,  $Q = V$

Let  $v_0$  be the currently visited vertex, and proceed as follows:

First, remove the current vertex  $v$  from  $Q$

Second, for all neighbours  $v'$  to  $v$  in  $Q$ , check if  $d(v_0, v) + w(\{v, v'\}) < d(v_0, v')$

If yes, then going through  $v$  is shorter than whatever path you have seen, so update  $d(v_0, v')$  to  $d(v_0, v) + w(\{v, v'\})$ , otherwise keep  $d(v_0, v')$

Third, New current vertex is  $v \in Q$  with the smallest value  $d(v_0, v)$

Repeat first to third step until  $Q$  is empty, and return  $d(v_0, *)$

#### **Anmärkning:**

Interested in a concrete distance between vertices we can stop as soon as we hit it in step 3

#### **Anmärkning:**

Finding the path that realises the minimum distance, we can remember the previous vertex that we visited, and therefore we can trace back the steps and get a path

#### **Anmärkning:**

Runtime of  $\mathcal{O}(|E| + |V| \log(|V|))$

#### **Example:**

Example 60 in lecture notes

## 7. HAMILTON CYCLES

We have previously discussed *Eulerian Circuits*, which was a circuit that used every edge in the graph

**Definition/Sats 7.1: Closed Walk**

Another way of defining an Eulerian circuit is by saying a *closed walk* using every *edge* exactly once

**Definition/Sats 7.2: Hamilton Cycle**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph.

A *Hamilton Cycle* in  $G$  is a cycle containing every vertex of  $G$

If  $G$  admits a Hamilton cycle, then we say that  $G$  is Hamiltonian

You may think this looks similar to Eulerian circuits (and by definition they are similar), however with Eulerian circuits we had Euler's theorem, but there is no such thing for Hamiltonian graphs (deciding whether a graph is Hamiltonian is an *NP*-hard problem)

**Definition/Sats 7.3: Dirac**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph on at least 3 vertices  $n \geq 3$  such that every vertex has degree at least  $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$

Then,  $G$  is Hamiltonian

**Anmärkning:**

If you have a Hamiltonian graph, introducing edges will not make it non-Hamiltonian

**Bevis 7.1**

Assume we have our graph  $G = (V, E)$  with  $n = |V| \geq 3$  and  $\min_{v \in V} \deg(v) \geq \frac{n}{2}$

- $G$  is connected (if it is not, we have no chance of seeing a Hamiltonian cycle):  
If  $G$  was not connected, then the vertices in the smallest connected component would violate the degree condition since if we have several connected components, we have at least 2 which means that the smallest component has at least  $\frac{n}{2}$  vertices and therefore has at least  $\frac{n}{2} - 1$  neighbours, which violates the condition
- $G$  contains a cycle:  
Let  $P$  be a path in  $G$  of maximum length, say  $P = v_0 e_1 v_1 \cdots e_k v_k$   
Since this path is maximum, all of the neighbours of  $v_k$  must already be on the path.  
By the degree condition we have at least  $\frac{n}{2}$  (by the degree condition), the same is true for neighbours of  $v_0$   
There is an edge  $e_i = \{v_{i-1}, v_i\}$  such that  $v_i$  is adjacent to  $v_0$  and  $v_{i-1}$  is adjacent to  $v_k$   
This means we have a cycle, we can call this cycle  $C$
- $C$  is a Hamiltonian cycle:  
If  $C$  is not Hamiltonian, there exists a vertex that is not on the cycle (ie, a vertex  $v$  not on  $C$  but is adjacent to some  $v_j$ )  
Consider the path beginning in  $v$  and going to  $v_j$  and traversing along  $C$  through all vertices on  $C$   
This path is longer than  $P$ , which contradicts  $P$  being a path of maximum length

Therefore, the path we found is a Hamiltonian cycle.

□

**Anmärkning:**

The bound  $\frac{n}{2}$  for  $\min_{v \in V} \deg(v)$  is optimal

**Definition/Sats 7.4: Ore**

Let  $G$  be a finite simple graph on  $n \geq 3$  vertices such that for any pair of non-adjacent vertices  $v, w \in V$  we have  $\deg(v) + \deg(w) \geq n$

Then  $G$  is Hamiltonian

**Anmärkning:**

The proof for this one is the same as the proof for Diracs theorem

**Definition/Sats 7.5: Closure**

The *closure* of a finite simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  is the result of the following procedure:

- For every pair of non-adjacent vertices  $v, w \in V$ , draw the edge  $\{v, w\}$  if  $\deg(v) + \deg(w) \geq n$
- Stop once no new edges can be introduced

**Example:**

If  $G$  satisfies the condition in Ores theorem, then  $\text{clos}(G) = K_n$  is a complete graph and therefore Hamiltonian

**Lemma 7.1:  $\text{clos}(G)$  is well defined**

$\text{clos}(G)$  does not depend on the order in which edges are inserted.

**Bevis 7.2**

Consider  $G = (V, E)$

Assume we construct  $\text{clos}(G)$  in two different ways

- First one by adding edges  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$
- Second one by adding edges  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_{k'}$

Observe that we do not know if  $k = k'$ , however, if we construct this in 2 different ways, this means that there is a smallest  $j$  such that  $e_j \neq f_j$

Let  $G_{j-1}$  be the graph constructed up to this point.

Let  $e_j = \{v, w\} \Rightarrow \deg_{G_{j-1}}(v) + \deg_{G_{j-1}}(w) \geq n$

These degrees do not decrease by adding  $f_j, f_{j+1}, \dots$ . This means that eventually, the same edges will need to be introduced by one of the  $f$ :s

Hence, there is an  $l > j$  with  $f_l = \{v, w\}$

Modify  $f_1, \dots, f_{k'}$  in the following way:

$f_1, \dots, f_{j-1}, f_l, f_j, f_{j+1}, f_{l-1}, f_{l+1}, \dots, f_{k'}$

These sequences now coincide later than  $j$ , so we can repeat this argument until the two sequences coincide, and then the proof is finished. □

**Definition/Sats 7.6: Bondy-Chvatal**

A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is Hamiltonian iff its closure is Hamiltonian

**Bevis 7.3**

$\Rightarrow$  is easy, because we just add edges (adding edges does not destroy Hamiltonicity)

$\Leftarrow$  is a little trickier. Assume that  $\text{clos}(G)$  is constructed using edges  $e_1, \dots, e_k$  yielding graphs  $G_1, \dots, G_k = \text{clos}(G)$

If  $G_j$  is Hamiltonian, then  $G_{j+1}, \dots, G_k$  (adding edges argument)

Assume that  $G_{j+1}$  is Hamiltonian but  $G_j$  is not (therefore Hamiltonicity occurs at  $G_{j+1}$ )

Notice that those two graphs  $G_{j+1}$  and  $G_j$  differ by one edge (namely  $e_{j+1} = \{v, w\}$ )

This means that the Hamilton cycle in  $G_{j+1}$  contains this edge  $e_{j+1}$  and therefore  $\{v, w\}$

$G_j$  contains a path  $P$  from  $v$  to  $w$  traversing all vertices (take the Hamilton cycle and delete one edge)

Since  $\{v, w\}$  is added to  $G_j$ , we have from the definition of closure that  $G_j(v) + G_j(w) \geq n$  and all neighbours to  $v, w$  lie on  $P$  (not surprising, every vertex lies on  $P$ )

Repeat the construction from the proof of Diracs theorem, this gives us a cycle which contains vertices on the path, but this path contains all vertices, and therefore we obtain a Hamilton cycle in  $G_j$   $\square$

**Anmärkning:**

If we end with something Hamiltonian, we must have started with something Hamiltonian

**Definition/Sats 7.7: Degree Sequence**

Let  $G$  be a simple graph on  $n$  vertices. The *degree sequence* of  $G$  is a finite sequence  $(d_1, \dots, d_n)$  containing the vertex of  $G$  in non-descending order ( $d_1 \leq d_2 \leq \dots \leq d_n$ )

An arbitrary sequence  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  is called *Hamiltonian* if all graphs with a degree sequence  $d_1, \dots, d_n$  such that  $d_i \geq a_i$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$  are Hamiltonian

**Example:**

By Diracs theorem, the sequence  $\left(\frac{n}{2}, \dots, \frac{n}{2}\right)$  is Hamiltonian

**Definition/Sats 7.8: Chvatal**

Let  $n \geq 3$

An integer sequence  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  with  $0 < a_1 \leq \dots \leq a_n \leq n$  is Hamiltonian iff for every  $i < \frac{n}{2}$ , we have  $a_i < i \Rightarrow a_{n-i} > n - i$

**Example:**

The  $d$ -dimensional cube.

Fix  $d \geq 2$ . Let the set of vertices be strings over a binary alphabet  $\{0, 1\}$  of length  $d$  and edges: two strings are adjacent if they differ in exactly position

For  $d = 2$  we have: 10, 11, 00, 01

For  $d = 3$  we have: 000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 101, 110, 111

Observe that all vertices in the  $d$  dimensional cube have degree  $d$ . This follows from the definition, since we have  $\binom{d}{1}$  ways we can change and still be adjacent

**Proposition:**

The  $d$ -dimensional cube is Hamiltonian for all  $d \geq 2$

Notice that we have  $2^d$  vertices

**Bevis 7.4**

Let  $G_d$  be the  $d$  dimensional cube

Induction over  $d$ :

- $d = 2$  Obvious
- Assume that  $G_d$  has a Hamilton cycle using the edge from  $\{0 \cdots 0, 10 \cdots 0\}$
- Consider  $G_{d+1}$ . This contains 2 copies of  $G_d$  (depending on the value of the first entry of the strings)
- Build a Hamilton cycle as follows:
  - Traverse the Hamilton cycle in the first copy from  $00 \cdots 0$  to  $010 \cdots 0$
  - Then go to  $110 \cdots 0$
  - Traverse the Hamilton cycle in the second copy back from  $110 \cdots 0$  to  $10 \cdots 0$
  - Close back to  $0 \cdots 0$
  - This is a Hamilton cycle in  $G_{d+1}$  containing the edge  $\{0 \cdots 0, 10 \cdots 0\}$

□

**Anmärkning:**

This can be used in computer science and goes by the term *Grey Code*

**Example (\*):**

*Petersen graph*

Vertex set: Set of all 2-element subsets of  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

Edges: Two subsets are adjacent iff they are disjoint

There are 10 vertices, and 15 edges

**Proposition:**

The Petersen graph is *not* Hamiltonian, however, upon removing any one vertex, the remaining graph is Hamiltonian and the Petersen graph admits a Hamilton path (a path that contains all vertices)

**Bevis 7.5**

We only have time to proof the first part (the other part is in the lecture notes)

We have 2 cycles in the graph that both are  $C_5$  and 5 edges that connect the cycles together

Any Hamiltonian cycle needs to traverse each edge twice.

□

## 8. MAX-FLOW-MIN-CUT THEOREM

**Definition/Sats 8.1: Directed graph**

A *directed simple graph* is a pair  $G = (V, E)$  where  $E \subseteq V \times V \setminus \{v, v \mid v \in V\}$

We interpret an edge  $v, w$  as an arrow pointing of  $v$  to  $w$

**Anmärkning:**

In a directed graph  $(v, w) \neq (w, v)$

**Definition/Sats 8.2: Flow network**

A *flow network* consists of a directed simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  together with a weight function  $w : E \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  (to every edge we assign a weight) and two distinguished vertices, a *source*  $s$  and a *sink*  $t$

**Definition/Sats 8.3: Capacity function**

The function  $c : V \times V \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  defined by:

$$c(v, v') = \begin{cases} w(v, v') & \text{if } (v, v') \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is called the *capacity function* of the flow network

**Anmärkning:**

We do not want an edge from  $v$  to  $w$  and an edge from  $w$  to  $v$ , we can do a simplification:

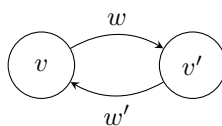


FIGURE 5.

Is replaced by:

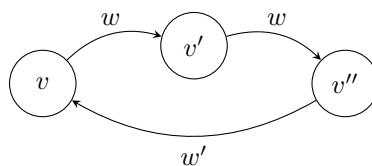


FIGURE 6.

**Definition/Sats 8.4: Flow function**

A flow  $f$  on the flow network  $G = (V, E)$  with capacity function  $c$  is a function  $f : V \times V \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  such that:

- **Capacity constraint** I cannot pump more water through the pipe than I have capacity  

$$f(v, v') \leq c(v, v') \quad \forall v, v' \in V$$
- **Conservation constraint** However much water I pump in, I should get out (no loss and no creation out of nothing).

For  $v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}$  we have:

$$\sum_{x \in V} f(x, v) = \sum_{x \in V} f(v, x)$$

**Definition/Sats 8.5: Value of flow**

The *value*  $|f|$  of the flow is the total out flow at the source:

$$|f| = \sum_{x \in V} f(s, x) - \sum_{x \in V} f(x, s)$$

**Anmärkning:**

From the conservation constraint, this difference (value) must go away somewhere and the only place it can go is in the sink.

This means that the value is also equal to the total inflow at the sink, and therefore equal to:

$$\sum_{x \in V} f(x, t) - \sum_{x \in V} f(t, x)$$

How do we know this value is positive? Well, if it is negative, then by the identity above we can swap  $s, t$  to ensure we have a positive value.

**Definition/Sats 8.6:  $s - t$ -cut**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a flow network with source  $s$  and sink  $t$  and capacity  $c$ . An  $s - t$ -cut is a partition of  $V$  into sets  $S, T$  such that  $s \in S$  and  $t \in T$

**Definition/Sats 8.7: Capacity of cut**

The *capacity of the cut*, denoted by  $c(S, T)$  and is:

$$c(S, T) = \sum_{(v, v') \in S \times T} c(v, v')$$

**Anmärkning:**

For any flow  $f$  and any  $s - t$ -cut  $S, T$ , we have that the capacity of the cut is an upperbound to the value of the flow:

$$c(S, T) \geq |f|$$

We will show that we only have equality in the most extreme case (cut capacity is as high/low as possible)



**Lemma 8.1**

Let  $f$  be a flow on the flow network  $G = (V, E)$  and let  $S, T$  be an  $s - t$  cut of  $G$

Assume that the value of the flow is equal to the capacity of the cut:

$$|f| = c(S, T)$$

Then  $|f|$  is maximal among all flows on  $G$ , and the capacity of the cut is minimal among all  $S, T$  cuts

**Bevis 8.1**

We need to show there is no flow with strictly larger value and no cut with strictly smaller capacity

If  $f'$  is a flow with  $|f'| > |f|$ , then it needs to pass through the  $S, T$  cut as well.

Hence,  $|f'| \leq c(S, T) = |f| \Rightarrow |f'| = |f|$  and  $|f|$  is maximal

Similarly, any  $s - t$ -cut  $S', T'$  needs to satisfy  $c(S', T') \geq |f| = c(S, T)$ , hence if  $c(S', T') \leq c(S, T)$  then  $c(S, T) = c(S', T')$  and  $c(S, T)$  is minimal  $\square$

**Definition/Sats 8.8: Residual network**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a flow network with source  $s$  and sink  $t$

Let  $f$  be a flow on  $G$ .

The *residual network*  $G_f$  is the flow network with residual capacity  $c_f$  set as follows:

- For  $u, v \in V$ , set:

$$c_f(u, v) = \begin{cases} c(u, v) - f(u, v) & \text{if } (u, v) \in E \\ f(v, u) & \text{if } (v, u) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This defines a capacity function. Let  $E_f$  be the set of pairs  $(u, v)$  for which we have some positive capacity ( $c_f(u, v) > 0$ )

**Example:**

Lets look at a flow network  $G = (V, E)$  which looks as follows:

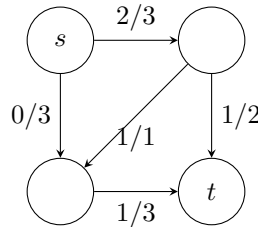


FIGURE 7.

**Definition/Sats 8.9: Path**

Let  $G_f$  be the residual network of a flow network  $G$  with respect to a flow  $f$

A  $v_0 - v_k$  is a sequence  $v_0 e_1 \cdots e_k v_k$  where  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k$  are distinct vertices and all edges point in the same direction, namely  $e_i = (v_{i-1}, v_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$

#### Definition/Sats 8.10: Augmenting path

An  $s - t$ -path is called an *augmenting path*

#### Definition/Sats 8.11: Capacity of path

We can define the capacity of a path  $P$  by  $c(P) = \min_{e \in E(P)} c(e)$

#### Anmärkning:

We are working in the residual network, which means by definition that all our capacities are positive, and therefore  $c(P) > 0$  for any augmenting path  $P$

#### Lemma 8.2

Let  $f$  be a flow in  $G$  such that  $G_f$  admits an augmenting path  $P$

Then  $f'$ , defined by:

$$f'(u, v) = \begin{cases} f(u, v) + c_f(P) & \text{if } (u, v) \text{ is an edge in } P \\ f(u, v) - c_f(P) & \text{if } (v, u) \text{ is an edge in } P \\ f(u, v) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for all edges  $(u, v) \in E$  (in the original network) is a flow on  $G$  with  $|f'| = |f| + c_f(P) > |f|$

**Definition/Sats 8.12: Ford-Fulkerson**

Let  $f$  be a flow on the network  $G$ .

The following are equivalent:

- $f$  is a maximum flow (the value of the flow is maximum)
  - The residual network  $G_f$  contains no augmenting path
  - There is an  $s - t$ -cut  $S, T$  with capacity  $c(S, T) = |f|$
- In particular,  $\max_{f \text{ flow}} |f| = \min_{S, T \text{ s-t-cut}} c(S, T)$

**Bevis 8.2**

- **Third implies first**

Already shown above

- **First implies second**

Shown in lemma

- **Second implies third**

Assume  $G_f$  does *not* contain an augmenting path  $P$ . This means I can't walk from  $s$  to  $t$  in the residual network while only going along the direction of the edges I have.

Define  $S = \{v \in V \mid v \text{ can be reached by a } s - v \text{ path in } G_f\}$

Define  $T = V \setminus S$

Then  $s \in S$  and  $t \in T$  (otherwise there is an augmenting path in  $G_f$ )

In particular, these sets define an  $s - t$ -cut

By construction, every arrow  $(u, v)$  in  $G$  where  $u \in S$  and  $v \in T$ , must have its full capacity used by  $f$ .

Otherwise, in the construction of the residual network, there would still be an arrow  $\dots (u, v) \in G_f$  and  $v \in S$

Moreover, every arrow in the direction  $(v, u)$  must have flow 0 (reason is the same)

Hence, we have that  $|f| \geq c(S, T)$ , but we have seen earlier that  $c(S, T) \leq |f|$ , which means we have equality

□

**Anmärkning:**

This theorem makes no existence of a maximal flow, it only talks about what happens when we *do* have a maximal flow which is a bit unsatisfying.

A maxflow does however exist! Regard a flow  $f$  simply as a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^{|E|}$

Then the  $e$ -th coordinate of the vector is from  $[0, c(e)]$

This means that the set of all flows is closed and bounded (therefore compact in  $\mathbb{R}^{|E|}$ ) (and therefore has a supremum)

The map  $f \mapsto |f|$  is continuous.

We now have a continuous map on a compact set. We now know from calculus, there is a  $f$  with maximum value  $|f|$

What happens if all my capacities are integers?

**Definition/Sats 8.13: Integer flow theorem**

If  $G$  is a network with an integer-valued capacity function  $c : E \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , then there is an integer valued maximum flow. (It only assigns integers flow along every edge)

**Algorithm [Ford-Fulkerson]**

Given a flow network  $G$ , start with the flow that is 0 everywhere  $f \equiv 0$

Repeat the following steps:

- Construct  $G_f$
- Find an augmenting path  $P$  in  $G_f$ 
  - Use it to construct a new flow with larger value
  - If no augmenting path exists, stop.

This is not really an algorithm, since it is not guaranteed to stop.

It will however terminate if all of our capacities are rational numbers.

## 9. MATCHING

**Definition/Sats 9.1**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph (undirected)

A *matching* on  $G$  is a set  $M \subseteq E$  such that no two edges in  $M$  share a common endpoint

We shall only consider matchings in bipartite graphs (not complete bipartite, so we do not need to have all possible edges between the two sets, but all edges are within)

**Notation:**

If we have some set of vertices, we denote by  $N(S) = \{v \in V \mid v \text{ is adj. to some } s \in S\}$ , the neighbourhood of  $S$

**Necessary condition:** For  $A$  to be matched in  $B$

$|N(Q)| \geq |Q|$  for all  $Q \subseteq A$

**Definition/Sats 9.2: Hall's marriage theorem**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple undirected bipartite graph with  $V = A \cup B$

Then  $G$  has a matching of  $A$  into  $B$  iff  $|N(Q)| \geq |Q|$  for all  $Q \subseteq A$

**Bevis 9.1**

We will use flows. We have already discussed  $\Rightarrow$  direction.

$\Leftarrow$ , the task is to construct a matching if the condition is satisfied

Assume  $|N(Q)| \geq |Q|$ . Create a flow network as follows:

- Add two extra vertices on each side (source and sink). Connect the source to all vertices in  $A$  and the sink to all in  $B$ . All the edges flow from the source to sink
- Give the added arrows capacity of 1, and the rest capacity of something large (as close to infinity as possible)
- Specify an  $s-t$ -cut  $S' = \{s\}, T' = \{t\} \cup A \cup B$ , we have  $c(S', T') = |A| < \infty$
- By the max-flow-min-cut theorem, the capacity will also be finite  $c(S, T) < \infty$  for any minimum cut.

This means that no edge  $(u, v)$  where  $u \in A \cap S$  and  $v \in B \cap T$  exists since if it did it would contribute to the cut.

- Then  $N(S \cap A) \subseteq S \cap B$ . With this, we can compute  $c(S, T)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} c(S, T) &= \sum_{(u,t) \in S \times T} c(u, v) = \sum_{v \in T \cap A} c(s, v) + \sum_{u \in B \cap S} c(u, t) \\ &= |T \cap A| + |B \cap S| \geq (|A| - |S \cap A|) + |N(S \cap A)| \geq |A| - |S \cap A| + |S \cap A| = |A| \end{aligned}$$

- This means  $S', T'$  is a minimum cut and has capacity  $|A|$
- This means there exists an integer flow of  $|f| = |A|$  (max flow min cut), this flow powers one unit through each vertex of  $A$ . Following the flow gives a matching of  $A$  into  $B$

□

**Anmärkning:**

The construction in the proof gives a bijection between {matchings in  $G$ }  $\leftrightarrow$  {integer flows in the associated network} such that  $|M| = |f|$

**Corollary:**

Let  $G = (A \cup B, E)$  be a finite simple bipartite graph. If  $|N(Q)| \geq |Q| - d$  for all  $Q \subseteq A$  and some fixed  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $G$  contains a matching with  $|A| - d$  edges

**Definition/Sats 9.3: Vertex cover**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph. A *vertex cover* is a set  $S \subseteq V$  such that every edge has an endpoint in  $S$

**Definition/Sats 9.4: Covering number**

The covering number  $\beta(G)$  is the minimum cardinality of any vertex cover of  $G$

**Anmärkning:**

If we have integer flow, we have cuts. Do we have correspondence for the cuts as well? Yes we do

There is a bijection ( $G$  bipartite) between  $\{\text{vertex covers in } G\} \leftrightarrow \{s - t\text{-cuts with finite capacity in the associated network}\}$  such that  $|Q| = c(S, T)$

**Definition/Sats 9.5: König**

Let  $G$  be a finite simple bipartite graph

Then, the maximum cardinality of a matching in  $G$  equals the minimum cardinality of a vertex cover  $\beta(G)$

**Anmärkning:**

Looks a lot like max flow min cut

**Bevis 9.2**

Suppose we have a maximum matching  $|M|$ , then it corresponds through bijection to a maximum flow  $|f| = |M|$ . By the max flow min cut theorem,  $|f| = c(S, T)$ . But by another bijection, this corresponds to another minimum vertex cover  $= \beta(G)$   $\square$

**Anmärkning:**

Set  $M$  is a set of edges

**Anmärkning:**

In a general graph that is not bipartite we do not have this equality

Any edge in a matching requires a separate vertex from a vertex cover. This means that the maximum cardinality of the matching  $|M| \leq \beta(G)$  even in an arbitrary graph. If not bipartite, then the inequality may be strict

**Definition/Sats 9.6: Perfect matching**

A *perfect matching* or *1-factor*  $M$  on a finite simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a matching on  $G$  such that every vertex  $v \in V$  is an endpoint of some edge  $e \in M$

**Definition/Sats 9.7**

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . A  $k$ -regular graph is a graph where every vertex has degree  $k$

**Definition/Sats 9.8:  $k$ -factor**

A  $k$ -factor is a  $k$ -regular spanning subgraph

**Anmärkning:**

A Hamilton cycle in  $G$  is a 2-factor of  $G$

**Anmärkning:**

In order to have perfect matching, the number of vertices must be even.

**Notation:**

For a set of vertices  $S \subseteq V$ , write  $G - S = G[V \setminus S]$

If  $G$  contains a perfect matching and we obtain in  $G - S$  a number of connected components on an odd number of vertices (*odd components*), what must have happened? These connected components must have at least one vertex that was matched and deleted.

Then the number  $o(G - S)$  of such odd components  $\leq |S|$

**Definition/Sats 9.9: Tutte's 1-factor theorem**

A finite simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  admits a perfect matching iff  $o(G - S) \leq |S|$  for all  $S \subseteq V$

### Bevis 9.3

$\Rightarrow$  is in the "Notation" section

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph satisfying this condition but without a perfect matching. We want to show that such a graph cannot exist

Adding an edge does not affect the condition. Why? If we add this edge in such a way, it will be completely inside  $S$  or completely in one of the components and does not change the fact. What can happen is that it connects components, odd components + odd components are even, even + odd are okay, everything is okay

We can therefore add how ever many edges. Assume WLOG that  $G$  is edge-maximal satisfying the condition and does not contain a perfect matching.

Let  $n = |V|$ . For  $S = \emptyset$ , we get  $o(G - S) = 0$ , so  $n$  is even

Choose  $S = \{v \in V \mid \deg(v) = n - 1\}$

Consider  $G - S$ . We get 2 cases:

- All components of  $G - S$  are complete

If this happens, find a matching on each component only leaving out one vertex each. This is possible because in a complete graph I can match whatever I want. In an even component I don't have to leave out anything, it is only the odd ones I need to care about

The left over vertices from odd components can be matched with vertices from  $S$ .

Afterwards, an even number of vertices from  $S$  will still be unmatched. Match them up with each other.

- Let  $k$  be a component of  $G - S$  that is *not* complete.

There is a missing edge, but it is connected. In particular, this means we can have the following situation:

There are vertices  $x, a, b \in V(k)$  such that  $\{x, a\}, \{a, b\}$  are edges, but  $\{x, b\}$  is not

Moreover,  $a \notin S \Rightarrow \exists$  a vertex  $c \in V(G)$  not adjacent to  $a$

Since  $G$  was edge-maximal without a perfect matching, there exists perfect matchings as follows:

- **M1** for  $\{V, E \cup \{\{x, b\}\}\}$
- **M2** for  $\{V, E \cup \{\{a, c\}\}\}$

In  $G$ , consider a maximum path  $P$  starting at  $C$  with an edge from  $M_1$  and then alternating between edges from  $M_2$  and  $M_1$  □



## 10. CONNECTIVITY

**Definition/Sats 10.1: Higher Connectivity**

Let  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ . A finite simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  is *k-connected* if:

- $|V| > k$
- $G - X$  is a connected graph for all sets  $X \subseteq V$  with  $|X| < k$  (stays connected if less than  $k$  vertices removed)

The largest  $k$  for which  $G$  is  $k$ -connected, is called the *connectivity* of  $G$ ,  $\kappa(G)$

**Example:**

Let  $K_n$  be a complete graph on  $n$  vertices. No matter how many vertices I remove, what remains will always be connected.  $K_n$  is certainly  $n - 1$ -connected, but not  $n$  connected because we don't have strictly  $> n$  vertices. Therefore  $\kappa(K_n) = n - 1$

If  $\kappa(G) = 0$ , then this means either that  $|V| = 1$  (which is  $K_1$ ), or  $G$  is disconnected since the second point in Theorem 10.1 breaks.

**Anmärkning:**

Every connected graph with at least 2 vertices is 1-connected.

**Definition/Sats 10.2: Separation**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph, let  $v, w \in V$  and  $A, B \subseteq V$

- A set  $X \subseteq V$  separates  $v$  from  $w$  if  $v, w \notin X$  and every path from  $v$  to  $w$  contains a vertex in  $X$  (*see: särskiljande in automata*)
- A set  $X$  separates  $A$  from  $B$  if every path from  $A$  to  $B$  contains a vertex in  $X$

**Anmärkning:**

$A \cap B \subseteq X$

**Definition/Sats 10.3**

The minimum size of a set separating  $v$  from  $w$  is denoted by  $\kappa(v, w)$ , suggesting this has something to do with connectivity

**Definition/Sats 10.4: Vertex independent**

Two path from  $v$  to  $w$  are called vertex-independent if they *do not* share a common vertex besides the end-points

**Anmärkning:**

When we say that 2 paths are disjoint, then we mean that the vertex set is disjoint

**Anmärkning:**

$X$  separating  $v$  from  $w$  is a stronger statement than  $X$  separating  $\{v\}$  from  $\{w\}$

**Definition/Sats 10.5**

For a finite simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  that is *not* complete, we have

$$\kappa(G) = \min_{v, w \in V} \kappa(v, w) \quad v, w \text{ are non-adj.}$$

**Bevis 10.1**

Since  $G \neq K_n$ , the connectivity equals the cardinality of the smallest set  $X$  whose removal disconnects  $G$ . This means, choose  $v_0, w_0$  from different components of  $G - X$ . Because they get separated by  $X$ , this means  $\min_{v,w \in V} \kappa(v, w) \leq \kappa(v_0, w_0) \leq |X| = \kappa(G)$

Choose  $v_0, w_0$  such that  $\kappa(v_0, w_0)$  attains the minimum value (which happens since  $G$  is finite). Then there exists  $X \subseteq V$  with  $|X| = \kappa(v_0, w_0)$  that separates  $v_0$  from  $w_0$ . Hence  $G - X$  is disconnected, which means that the connectivity of  $G$   $\kappa(G) \leq |X| = \min_{v,w \in V} \kappa(v, w)$  ( $v, w$  non-adjacent) by construction of  $X$   $\square$

**Definition/Sats 10.6: Menger**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph and let  $v, w \in V$  be non-adjacent. Then:  $\kappa(v, w)$  equals the maximum number of independent paths from  $v$  to  $w$ .

**Anmärkning:**

We have a minimum of something, and claiming it is equal to the maximum of something else. We of course use the min-flow max cut theorem

**Bevis 10.2**

Replace every edge  $\{x, y\} \in E$  by 2 directed paths with capacity  $\infty$ .

Split every vertex besides  $x \in V \setminus \{v, w\}$  into vertices  $x_0, x_1$  with arrow from  $x_0 \rightarrow x_1$  with capacity 1 such that every incoming arrow to  $x$  points to  $x_0$ , and every outgoing arrow starts at  $x_1$

$v$  is the source,  $w$  is the sink.

Integer flows  $\leftrightarrow$  vertex-independent paths from  $v$  to  $w$

We also have  $v - w$  cuts of finite capacity, which are just partitions  $(S, T)$  of the vertex set of the flow network

$$c(S, T) = |X|$$

Now use  $\max |f| = \min c(S, T)$   $\square$

**Corollary:** (Global version of Menger)

$G = (V, E)$  is  $k$ -connected iff it contains  $k$  independent paths between any two vertices.

**Bevis 10.3**

$\Rightarrow$ :

$G$  is  $k$ -connected means  $\kappa(G) \geq k \Rightarrow \kappa(v, w) \geq k$  for all  $v, w \in V$  that are non-adjacent  $\xrightarrow{\text{Menger}}$  there exists  $k$  independent paths from  $v$  to  $w$

For  $v, w$  adjacent, assume there are at most  $k-1$  independent paths. After removing  $\{v, w\} \in E$  will kill one of those paths and we get  $G'$ . There are now at most  $k-2$  independent paths and  $v, w$  are non-adjacent. Now we can use Menger theorem again  $v, w$  are separated by some  $X$  with  $|X| \leq k-2$ . Observe that  $G$  has strictly more than  $k$  vertices (otherwise it cannot have the connectivity). There is a vertex in  $y \in V \setminus X$  and  $y \neq v, y \neq w$

$v$  WLOG is separated from  $y$  by  $X \Rightarrow X \cup \{w\}$ . Removing  $X \cup \{w\}$  separates  $v$  from  $y$  in  $G$  and removes the troublesome edge

But  $|X \cup \{w\}| \leq k-1$ , so  $\kappa(G) \leq k-1$ , which is a contradiction

$\Leftarrow$ :

If there are non-adjacent vertices then by assumption and Menger, we get:

$$\kappa(G) = \min_{v, w} \kappa(v, w) \geq k$$

If we do not have any non-adjacent vertices, then  $G = K_n$  with at least  $n \geq k+1 \Rightarrow \kappa(G) \geq k$   $\square$

**Definition/Sats 10.7: Menger V2**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph,  $A, B \subseteq V$ . Then the minimum size of a set  $X$  that separates  $A$  from  $B$  equals the maximum number of disjoint paths with one endpoint in  $A$  and the other in  $B$

**Definition/Sats 10.8**

A finite simple graph is 2-connected iff it can be constructed from a cycle graph by successively adding paths to it with both endpoints in the previously constructed graph.

**Definition/Sats 10.9: Cut vertex**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph

A *cut vertex* whose removal increases the number of components of  $G$

**Definition/Sats 10.10: Bridge**

A *bridge* is an edge whose removal increases the number of components of  $G$

**Definition/Sats 10.11: Block**

A *block* is a maximal (with respect to inclusion) connected subgraph  $H$  without a cutvertex in  $H$   
Blocks are either:

- Isolated vertices
- Bridges + endpoints
- Max 2-connected subgraphs

2 blocks intersect in  $\leq 1$  vertex (which is a cut vertex)  $\Rightarrow$  any edge belongs to exactly one block

Let  $A$  be the set of cutvertices, and  $\mathcal{E}$  be the set of blocks

**Definition/Sats 10.12: Block-graph**

The *block-graph* of  $G$  is the bipartite graph on the vertex set  $A \cup B$  ( $A, B$  disjoint) where an edge is drawn between  $a \in A, b \in B$

**Lemma 10.1**

The block graph of a connected finite simple graph is a tree

**Bevis 10.4**

If the graph is connected, then the block graph is connected. The only thing we need to check is if it contains a cycle.

Since the graph is bipartite, it must be a cycle of length 4, and in particular on this cycle there must be at least 2 blocks.

This cycle can be represented by a cycle in the original graph that goes through at least 2 blocks. The problem is that this is impossible because 2 blocks overlap in one vertex (cycles are 2-connected and therefore contained in a single block)  $\square$

**Definition/Sats 10.13: Contraction**

Let  $G = (V, E)$ . Look at an edge  $e \in E$ . The *contraction*  $G/e$  is a graph constructed as follows:

- Replace  $e = \{x, y\}$  and  $x, y$  by a vertex  $v_{x,y}$  that is adjacent to all neighbours of  $x$  or  $y$

**Lemma 10.2**

If  $G = (V, E)$  is 3-connected and  $|V| > 4$ , then there exists some edge  $e \in E$  such that  $G/e$  is again 3-connected

**Anmärkning:**

If  $G$  3-connected  $\Leftrightarrow$  can obtain  $K_4$  from  $G$  by a sequence of edge-contractions

**Definition/Sats 10.14: Tutte**

A finite simple graph  $G$  is 3-connected iff there is a sequence of finite simple graphs  $G_0, \dots, G_n$  where  $G_0 = K_4$  and end with  $G_n = G$  and for every  $i = 0, \dots, n-1$  the graph  $G_{i+1}$  has an edge  $\{x, y\}$  with  $\deg_{G_{i+1}}(x)\deg_{G_{i+1}}(y) \geq 3$  and  $G_i = G_{i+1}/\{x, y\}$

## 11. PLANAR GRAPHS

When can we draw a finite simple graph without intersecting edges?

*Plane*-ar graphs, suggesting vertices are points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and edges are continuous/piecewise smooth/linear curves connecting vertices.

**Definition/Sats 11.1: Planar Graph**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph

We say that  $G$  is *planar* if it *can* be drawn (embedded) in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  such that vertices are placed at different points and no edges intersect.

**Anmärkning:**

Just because a graph is not planar does not mean it *cannot* be drawn in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . We can rearrange and redraw.

**Definition/Sats 11.2: Faces**

Let  $G$  be a planar graph. Any planar embedding (a way of drawing the graph such that no edges intersect) divides the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$  into connected components called *faces*, all but one of which are bounded.

**Definition/Sats 11.3: Jordans curve theorem**

Any simple closed continuous divides the plane into an outside region (unbounded) and an inside region (bounded)

**Example:**

If  $T$  is a tree, it is planar and any embedding has one face (the unbounded one).

**Anmärkning:**

In order to have a bounded face, there must be a cycle in the graph.

**Anmärkning:**

If  $T$  is a tree  $\Leftrightarrow T$  connected, planar, and any embedding has 1 face.

**Anmärkning:**

Faces depend on *how* we embed our graph, so why does the number even matter since it is not defined?

**Definition/Sats 11.4: Eulers formula**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a connected planar graph.

Denote by  $f$  the number of faces of *some* planar embedding of  $G$

Then,  $|V| - |E| + f = 2 \Leftrightarrow 2 + |E| - |V| = f$

In particular, any two planar embeddings of  $G$  has the same number of faces.

**Definition/Sats 11.5: Planar dual**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a planar graph. Fix a planar embedding of  $G$ . The *planar dual*  $G^*$  is the multigraph whose vertices are the faces of the embedding and whose edge set is  $E$ .

An edge  $e \in E$  connects vertices  $f_1, f_2$  in  $G^*$  if  $e$  was part of the boundary of the faces  $f_1, f_2$

**Anmärkning:**

It is possible that  $f_1 = f_2$ ; this gives loops.

**Anmärkning:**

$G^*$  depends on the embedding of  $G$ . Two different embeddings gives non-isomorphic  $G^*$

**Bevis 11.1: Eulers formula**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be connected and planar. Fix an embedding of  $G$  and construct the planar dual  $G^*$

Because  $G$  is connected, we have a spanning tree, therefore, fix a spanning tree  $T = (V, E_T)$  of  $G$  and consider the spanning subgraph  $T^* = (V(G^*), E \setminus E_T)$

If  $T^*$  was disconnected, then this would mean that there is a vertex in  $G^*$ , i.e a face of  $G$  completely surrounded by edges in  $T$  but then  $T$  would contain a cycle, which is not possible since  $T$  is a spanning tree.

On the other hand, if  $T^*$  contains a cycle, then this cycle needs to contain vertices in the interior, so  $T$  has a vertex inside the cycle that is disconnected from the outside, which is not possible since  $T$  is a tree (and therefore connected)

$T^*$  is connected, and cycle free, and is spanning. We therefore have a spanning tree of  $G^*$

$T$  has  $|V|$ , and  $|V| - 1$  edges (tree).

$T^*$  has  $f$  vertices, so  $f - 1$  edges

By construction, every edge in  $G$  is either in  $T$  or in  $T^* \Rightarrow |E| = |E_T| + |E \setminus E_T| = |V| - 1 + f - 1 = |V| + f - 2$

□

**Corollary:**

If  $G$  is planar on at least 3 vertices, then  $|E| \leq 3|V| - 6$

If  $G$  is planar and bipartite on at least 3 vertices, then  $|E| \leq 2|V| - 4$

**Bevis 11.2**

Place tokens/coins to each side of an edge in a planar embedding of  $G$

You placed  $2|E|$  coins, and at the same time at least  $3f$  coins (since every cycle requires at least 3 vertices)

Therefore,  $3f \leq 2|E|$ , together with  $f = 2 + |E| - |V|$  gives  $|E| \leq 3|V| - 6$

□

**Anmärkning:**

We do not need to assume that  $G$  is connected.

**Anmärkning:**

In a bipartite graph, it is essentially the same thing, except instead of  $3f$  coins we have  $4f$  coins

**Corollary:**

$K_5$  and  $K_{3,3}$  are therefore non-planar since  $K_5$  has 10 edges and 5 vertices, but  $10 \not\leq 3 \cdot 5 - 6 = 9$  and  $K_{3,3}$  has 9 edges, 6 vertices, and is bipartite but  $9 \not\leq 2 \cdot 6 - 4 = 8$

**Definition/Sats 11.6: Topological minor**

Let  $G, H$  be finite simple graphs

A *subdivision* of  $H$  is a graph where edges of  $H$  were replaced by vertex independent paths. If  $G$  contains a subdivision of  $H$  as a subgraph, then  $H$  is a *topological minor* of  $G$

Another way of looking at it is that the mapping of  $H$  onto  $G$  is injective

**Definition/Sats 11.7: Minor**

Let  $G, H$  be finite simple graphs.

The graph  $H$  is a *minor* if  $G$  has a subgraph  $G'$  such that  $H$  can be obtained from  $G'$  by a sequence of edge-contractions

**Anmärkning:**

If  $G$  contains  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as topological minors, then  $G$  is non-planar.

The point is now, that essentially these are the only two graphs that force to be non-planar, i.e these are the only obstacles that force planarity

**Definition/Sats 11.8: Kuratowski**

A finite simple graph  $G$  is planar iff it does not contain  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as topological minors.

**Definition/Sats 11.9: Wagner**

A finite simple graph  $G$  is planar iff it does not contain  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as minors.

**Proof outline:**

Step 1

**Lemma 11.1: "Wagner  $\Leftrightarrow$  Kuratowski"**

Let  $G, H$  be finite simple graphs

- If  $H$  is a topological minor of  $G$ , then  $H$  is a minor of  $G$
- If  $K_{3,3}$  is a minor of  $G, H$ , then  $K_{3,3}$  is a topological minor of  $G$
- If  $K_5$  is a minor of  $G, H$ , then  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  is a topological minor of  $G$

Step 2:

"True for 3-connected graphs":

**Lemma 11.2**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple 3-connected graph without  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as minors. Then,  $G$  is planar.

**Anmärkning:**

This means Wegner and Kuratowski will be true for 3-connected graphs, we need to show for all connected graphs, which will be the final step.

Step 3

"Edge-maximal graphs without  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as topological minors are 3-connected"

**Lemma 11.3**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph with  $\kappa(G) \leq 2$ . Let  $V_1, V_2 \subseteq V$  such that  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a *separating set* of  $G$  with  $|V_1 \cap V_2| = \kappa(G)$

Set  $G_i = G[V_i]$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ .

If  $G$  is edge-maximal without  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as a topological minor, then so are  $G_1$  and  $G_2$

Then  $G[V_1 \cap V_2] = K_2$ . Using this, one can obtain a contradiction that this entire setup is impossible

**Lemma 11.4**

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a finite simple graph on at least 4 vertices. If  $G$  is edge-maximal without  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as topological minors, then  $G$  is 3-connected

This finished proof outline. If we have a finite simple graph that does not contain  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ . By step 3 we can add edges till it is 3-connected without introducing them as topological minor, then step 1 says they are not minor, then step 2 says it is planar.



### Bevis 11.3: Step 2

Strategy is to use induction on number of vertices. For our graph to be 3-connected, we need to have at least 4 vertices

- For  $|V| = 4$ , we have  $G = K_4$ , which we know is planar
- Assume  $n := |V| \geq 5$  and that the lemma holds for all graphs on strictly less than  $n$  vertices.

$G$  by assumption is 3-connected, so there is an edge  $e = \{x, y\} \in G$  such that  $G/e$  is 3-connected.

If  $G$  did not  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as a minor, then  $G$  after edge-contraction still will not contain  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  as a minor.

We have a graph with less edges and still 3-connected. By induction hypothesis, this graph will be planar

Fix planar embedding  $G/e$ . Remove vertex  $v_{x,y}$  from  $G/e$ , then it is still planar.

In the resulting embedding of  $G/e - \{v_{x,y}\}$  there is a face  $f$  that contained  $v_{x,y}$

Since  $G/e$  is 3-connected, removing a vertex means at most that it is 2-connected (every vertex lies in a cycle, in particular, the boundary of  $f$  is a cycle  $C$ ).

Let  $X$  be the set of neighbours of the vertex  $x \in G$ , except for  $y$ .  $Y$  is the neighbours to  $y$  except for  $x$ . Then  $X \subseteq V(C)$

Take the embedding of  $G/e$  which we know exists, and remove all edges of the form  $\{v_{x,y}, w\}$  where  $w \in Y \setminus X$

This gives an embedding of  $G - \{y\}$ .

Note that  $X$  partitions  $C$  (cycle around the face) with its vertices  $x_1, \dots, x_r$  counterclockwise into paths  $P_i$  going from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1}$

We need to show that all vertices in  $Y$  lie on the same  $P_i$ :

- $y_1 \in Y \setminus X$  lies on some  $P_i$  and there is  $y_2 \in Y$  not on  $P_i$ , then this is a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  which is a contradiction since we assumed that  $G$  does not have  $K_{3,3}$  as topological minors
- $y, x$  have 3 neighbours in common, then this is a subdivision of  $K_5$ , contradiction since we assumed  $G$  does not have  $K_5$  as topological minors
- $\deg(y) = 3$ , 2 neighbours are shared with  $x$  (say  $x_i, x_k$ ). If  $x_k, x_i$  don't lie on adjoining  $P_i$ , then there is a vertex  $x_l, x_j$  between them. This forms a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$  which is impossible.

In all other cases, they lie on the same segment on the cycle. □