

# MAT 344 Lecture Notes

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# 1 Strings, Sets, and Binomial Coefficients

## 1.1 Strings and Sets

**Notation 1.1.** Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{++}$ , and we use  $[n]$  to denote the  $n$ -element set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

**Definition 1.1.** Let  $X$  be a set, then an  $X$ -string of length (or a **word/array**)  $n$  is a function  $s : [n] \rightarrow X$ , and  $X$  is called the **alphabet** of the string, and each  $x \in X$  is called a **character** or letter.

**Remark 1.1.** An  $X$ -string defined by  $s : [n] \rightarrow X$  with length  $n$  can be equivalently defined as a **sequence** consisting elements in  $X$ .

$$s(1)s(2) \dots s(n) \quad (1.1)$$

**Definition 1.2.** In the case  $X = \{0, 1\}$ , strings generated from  $X$  are called **binary strings**. When  $X = \{0, 1, 2\}$ , strings are called **ternary strings**.

**Definition 1.3.** Let  $X$  be a *finite* set and let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{++}$ . An  $X$ -string  $s = x_1x_2 \dots x_n$  is a **permutation** of size  $m$  if  $x_i \neq x_j \ \forall x_i, x_j \in s$ .

**Proposition 1.1.** If  $X$  is an  $m$ -element set and  $m \geq n \in \mathbb{Z}_{++}$ , then the number of  $X$ -strings of length  $n$  that are permutations is

$$P(m, n) \equiv \frac{m!}{(m-n)!} \quad (1.2)$$

**Definition 1.4.** Let  $X$  be a *finite* set and let  $0 \leq k \leq |X|$ . Then  $S \subseteq X$  with  $|S| = k$  is a **combination** of size  $k$ .

**Proposition 1.2.** Let  $n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $0 \leq k \leq n$ , then the number of combinations is

$$\binom{n}{k} \equiv \frac{P(n, k)}{n!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \quad (1.3)$$

**Proposition 1.3.** For all integers  $n$  and  $k$  with  $0 \leq k \leq n$

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k} \quad (1.4)$$

**Example 1.1.** Binomial coefficients can be used to find the number of integer solutions of

$$\sum_{i=1}^k x_i \leq N \quad (1.5)$$

given appropriate integers  $k, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

- (i)  $x_i > 0 \ \forall i \in [k]$  and equality holds, then  $C(N-1, k-1)$ .
- (ii)  $x_i \geq 0 \ \forall i \in [k]$  and equality holds, then  $C(N+k-1, k-1)$ .<sup>1</sup>
- (iii)  $x_i > 0 \ \forall i \neq j, x_j = Z$  and equality holds, then  $C(N-Z+k-2, k-2)$ .
- (iv)  $x_i > 0 \ \forall i \in [k]$  and strict inequality holds, then  $C(N-1, k)$ .<sup>2</sup>
- (v)  $x_i \geq 0 \ \forall i \in [k]$  and strict inequality holds, then  $C(N+k-1, k)$ .
- (vi)  $x_i \geq 0 \ \forall i \in [k]$  and *weak* inequality holds,  $C(N+k, k)$ .<sup>3</sup>

$$\binom{N+k-1}{k-1} + \binom{N+k-1}{k} = \binom{N+k}{k} \quad (1.6)$$

<sup>1</sup>Simulate choosing  $x_i + 1$  instead of  $x_i$ .

<sup>2</sup>Image there is a placeholder  $x_{k+1} > 0$ .

<sup>3</sup>This can be calculated by adding case (ii) and case (v) together, and apply Pascal's identity

**Definition 1.5.** Define a **plane** as  $\mathbb{Z}^2$ , then a **lattice path** in the plane is a *sequence* of elements in  $\mathbb{Z}^2$

$$((x_i, y_i))_{i=1}^t \quad (1.7)$$

such that for every  $i \in \{1, \dots, t-1\}$ , either

- (i) (*Horizontal move*)  $x_{i+1} = x_i + 1 \wedge y_{i+1} = y_i$
- (ii) Or (*vertical move*)  $x_{i+1} = x_i \wedge y_{i+1} = y_i + 1$

**Lemma 1.1.** Let  $(p, q), (m, n) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ , then the number of lattice paths from  $(p, q)$  to  $(m, n)$  is

$$\binom{(p-m) + (q-n)}{p-m} \quad (1.8)$$

*Proof.* The lattice is isomorphic to a  $H, V$ -string with length  $(p-m) + (q-n)$ . There are exactly  $p-m$  horizontal moves as well as exactly  $q-n$  vertical moves. ■

**Theorem 1.1.** Given  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , the number of lattice paths from  $(0, 0)$  to  $(n, n)$  which *never go above the diagonal line* is the **Catalan number**

$$C(n) \equiv \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \quad (1.9)$$

*Proof.* Omitted ■

**Theorem 1.2** (Binomial Theorem). Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^i \quad (1.10)$$

**Theorem 1.3** (Multinomial Theorem). Let  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^r \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ . Then for every  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^r x_i\right)^n = \sum_{|\alpha|=n} \binom{n}{\alpha} (x_i)^\alpha \quad (1.11)$$

where  $\alpha \equiv (\alpha_i)_{i=1}^r$ ,  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{++} \forall i$  is a **multi-index**, and

$$(x_i)^\alpha \equiv \sum_{i=1}^r x_i^{\alpha_i} \quad (1.12)$$

$$|\alpha| \equiv \sum_{i=1}^r \alpha_i \quad (1.13)$$

$$\binom{n}{\alpha} \equiv \frac{n!}{\alpha_1! \alpha_2! \dots \alpha_r!} \quad (1.14)$$

## 2 Induction

**Theorem 2.1** (Well-Ordering Principle). Every non-empty set of  $\mathbb{Z}_{++}$  has a least element.

*Proof.* Prove using principle of mathematical induction and contradiction. ■

**Definition 2.1.** Recursive definition

**Theorem 2.2** (The Principle of Mathematical Induction). If  $S$  is any set of natural numbers with properties that

1. 1 is in  $S$ , and

2.  $k + 1$  is in  $S$  whenever  $k$  is any number in  $S$ .

then  $S = \mathbb{Z}_+$ .

**Remark 2.1.** Recursive definitions can also be recast as **inductive definitions**.

**Definition 2.2** (Summation). Summation operator beginning with index 1,  $\sum : \mathcal{F}_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_{++} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\mathcal{F}_1$  is the set of unary real-valued functions, is defined inductively as

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 f(i) \equiv f(1) \quad (2.1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} f(i) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k f(i) + f(k+1) \quad (2.2)$$

**Theorem 2.3** (The Principle of Complete Mathematical Induction). If  $S$  is any set of natural numbers with the properties that

1.  $1 \in S$ , and
2.  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\} \subset S \implies k + 1 \in S$ ,

then  $S = \mathbb{Z}_+$ .

### 3 Pigeon Hole Principle and Complexity

#### 3.1 Pigeon Hole Principle

**Theorem 3.1.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a function, then

$$f \text{ injective} \implies |X| \leq |Y| \quad (3.1)$$

**Theorem 3.2** (Pigeon Hole Principle). Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ , and suppose  $|X| > |Y|$ , then  $f$  is not injective, that's

$$\exists x_1 \neq x_2 \in X \text{ s.t. } f(x_1) = f(x_2) \quad (3.2)$$

*Proof.* Contrapositive form of the theorem 3.1 ■

**Theorem 3.3** (Erods/Szekeres). Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , then any sequence of  $mn + 1$  *distinct* real numbers either

- (i) has an increasing subsequence of  $m + 1$  terms,
- (ii) or it has a decreasing subsequence of  $n + 1$  terms.

*Proof.* Let  $\sigma = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{mn+1})$  be a sequence with length  $mn + 1$  consisting of distinct reals. For each  $i \in [mn + 1]$  define  $a_i$  as the maximum length of an increasing subsequence of  $\sigma$  *beginning with*  $x_i$ . Define  $b_i$  as the maximum length of a decreasing subsequence of  $\sigma$  *ending with*  $x_i$ .

**Case (i)**

$$\exists i \in [mn + 1] \text{ s.t. } a_i \geq m + 1 \vee b_i \geq n + 1 \quad (3.3)$$

then the theorem is proven.

**Case (ii)** Suppose otherwise

$$\forall i \in [mn + 1] \ a_i \leq m \wedge b_i \leq n \quad (3.4)$$

construct function  $f : [mn + 1] \rightarrow [m] \times [n]$  defined as

$$f(i) \equiv (a_i, b_i) \quad (3.5)$$

Note that  $|[mn + 1]| > |[m] \times [n]|$  so  $f$  cannot be injective, so there exists  $j \neq k \in [mn + 1]$  such that  $(a_j, b_j) = (a_k, b_k)$ .

WLOG, assume  $j < k$ .

Since all elements in  $\sigma$  are distinct,  $j \neq k \implies x_j \neq x_k$ .

**Sub-case (i)**  $x_j < x_k$ , then any increasing subsequence beginning with  $x_k$  can be extended by prepending  $x_j$ , so  $a_j > a_k$ .

**Sub-case (ii)**  $x_j > x_k$ , then any decreasing subsequence ending with  $x_j$  can be extended by appending  $x_k$ , so  $b_k > b_j$ .

Either sub-case leads to a contradiction, so **case (ii)** is impossible. ■

## 3.2 Complexity

**Definition 3.1.** Let  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function, then the **big oh**  $\mathcal{O}(f)$  is a collection of functions such that, for every  $g \in \mathcal{O}(f)$

$$\exists c \in \mathbb{R}, n^* \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n^* \implies g(n) \leq cf(n) \quad (3.6)$$

**Definition 3.2.** Let  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function. If  $f(n) > 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then the **little oh**  $o(f)$  is the collection of functions such that, for every  $g \in o(f)$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0 \quad (3.7)$$

**Definition 3.3.** Let  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then the **little oh**,  $o(f)$  is defined as the collection of functions such that  $g \in o(f)$  if and only if

$$\exists c \in \mathbb{R}, n^* \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq n^* \implies |g(n)| < c|f(n)| \quad (3.8)$$

**Definition 3.4.** Define  $\pi : \mathbb{Z}_{++} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_+$  as  $\pi(n) \equiv$  the number of primes among the first  $n$  positive integers.

**Theorem 3.4** (Prime Number Theorem).  $\pi(n)$  grows at a rate the same as  $\frac{n}{\ln(n)}$ . That's

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi(n) \frac{\ln(n)}{n} = 1 \quad (3.9)$$

**Definition 3.5.** The class of **polynomial time** problems, denoted as  $\mathcal{P}$ , is the set of decision problems for which there exists one polynomial run time algorithm as the solution.

**Definition 3.6.** The class of **nondeterministic polynomial time** problems, denoted as  $\mathcal{NP}$ , is the set of decision problems for which there is a certificate for a yes answer whose correctness can be verified in polynomial time.

## 4 Graph Theory

**Definition 4.1.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is defined as an order pair of sets  $(V, E)$ . **Vertex** set  $V$  is a set consisting of vertex objects. **Edge set**  $E$  contains **edges** as pairs of elements in  $E$ .

**Definition 4.2.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is called a **simple graph** if it is unweighted, undirected and contains no loop or multiple edges. That's, if  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  is a simple graph, then

1. (Undirected)  $\forall x, y \in V, xy \in E \iff yx \in E$ .
2. (No loop)  $\forall xy \in E, x \neq y$ .
3. (No multiple edge) all elements in  $E$  are distinct.
4. Vertices or edges in  $\mathcal{G}$  have no weight.

Graphs with multiple edges or loops are called **multi-graphs**.

**Remark 4.1.** In this course, unless explicitly mentioned, we consider simple graphs only.

**Definition 4.3.** Let  $x, y \in V$ , if  $xy \in E$ , then  $x$  and  $y$  are **adjacent**, and edge  $xy$  is **incident to** vertices  $x$  and  $y$ . If  $xy \notin E$ , we say  $x$  and  $y$  are **non-adjacent**.

**Definition 4.4.** Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  and  $x \in V$ , then the **neighbourhood** of  $x$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{N}(x) \equiv \{v \in V : xy \in E\} \quad (4.1)$$

Then the **degree** of  $x$  in graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is defined as

$$\deg_{\mathcal{G}}(x) \equiv |\mathcal{N}(x)| \quad (4.2)$$

**Definition 4.5.** Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  and  $\mathcal{H} \equiv (W, F)$ , we say  $\mathcal{H}$  is a **subgraph** of  $\mathcal{G}$  when  $W \subseteq V$  and  $F \subseteq E$ .  $\mathcal{H}$  is an **induced subgraph** if

$$F = \{xy \in E : x, y \in W\} \quad (4.3)$$

$\mathcal{H}$  is a **spanning subgraph** if  $W = V$ .

**Definition 4.6.**  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  is a **complete graph** ( $\mathbf{K}_n$ ) if

$$E = \{xy : \text{distinct pair } x, y \in V\} \quad (4.4)$$

**Definition 4.7.** A graph  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  is a **independent graph** ( $\mathbf{I}_n$ ) if for every distinct pair  $(x, y) \subset V$ ,  $xy \notin E$ .

**Definition 4.8.** A **walk** in graph  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  is a *sequence of vertices*  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  such that

$$x_i x_{i+1} \in E \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\} \quad (4.5)$$

**Definition 4.9.** A **path** is a walk with *distinct* vertices. The length of path is defined as the **number of edges** in it.

**Definition 4.10.** A **cycle** is a *path*  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  with  $n \neq 3$  such that  $x_1 x_n \in E$ .

**Definition 4.11.** Two graphs  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  and  $\mathcal{H} \equiv (W, F)$  are **isomorphic**, denoted as  $\mathcal{G} \cong \mathcal{H}$ , if there exists a bijection  $f : V \rightarrow W$  such that

$$\forall x, y \in V, \quad xy \in E \iff f(x)f(y) \in F \quad (4.6)$$

And we say  $\mathcal{G}$  *contains*  $\mathcal{H}$  if there is a subgraph of  $\mathcal{G}$  isomorphic to  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Definition 4.12.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is **connected** when for every distinct pair  $x, y \in V$ , there exists a path from  $x$  to  $y$ . Otherwise,  $\mathcal{G}$  is **disconnected**.

**Definition 4.13.** Provided  $\mathcal{G}$  is disconnected, then a **component** of  $\mathcal{G}$  is a *maximal connect subgraph* of  $\mathcal{G}$ . That's, if  $\mathcal{H}$  is a component, it is connected and any super-graph of  $\mathcal{H}$  is disconnected.

**Definition 4.14.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is **acyclic** when it does not contain any cycle on three or more vertices. An acyclic graph is also called **forests**. Further, if a acyclic graph is connected, it's called a **tree**.

**Definition 4.15.** Given  $\mathcal{G}$  is connected<sup>4</sup>, a subgraph  $\mathcal{H} \equiv (W, F)$  of  $\mathcal{G}$  is a **spanning graph** if both  $V = W$  and  $\mathcal{H}$  is a tree.

**Theorem 4.1.** Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  be a graph, then

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg_{\mathcal{G}}(v) = 2|E| \quad (4.7)$$

**Corollary 4.1.** For any graph, the number of vertices with odd degree is even.

**Definition 4.16.** Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a tree, a vertex  $v$  is a **leaf** if  $\deg_{\mathcal{G}}(v) = 1$ .

**Proposition 4.1.** Every tree with  $|V| \geq 2$  has at least two leaves.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathcal{T}$  be a tree. The corollary above suggests that it cannot have one leaf. Consider the case it has no leaf, then since every vertex has at least degree of 2 and  $\mathcal{T}$  is connected, there must exist a cycle, which leads to a contradiction. ■

<sup>4</sup>If  $\mathcal{G}$  is disconnected, it's impossible for any of its spanning subgraph to be connected.

## 4.1 Eulerian Graphs

**Definition 4.17.** Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  be a graph, then a sequence of vertices  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_t)$  is an **Eulerian circuit** if

- (i)  $v_0 = v_t$ ;
- (ii)  $v_i v_{i+1} \in E \ \forall i \in \{0, \dots, t-1\}$ ;
- (iii)  $\forall e \in E, \exists ! i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } v_i v_{i+1} = e$ .

That's, it is a graph cycle which uses each graph edge exactly once.

**Definition 4.18.** A graph is **Eulerian** if it contains an eulerian circuit.

**Remark 4.2.** Some definitions require Eulerian graph to be connected but some don't, check with the lecture notes.

**Definition 4.19.** A **circuit** is a walk with  $x_0 = x_n$ .

**Theorem 4.2.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is Eulerian if and only if it is connected and every vertex has even degree.

## 4.2 Hamiltonian Graphs

**Definition 4.20.** Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  be a graph, then a sequence of vertices  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_t)$  is a **Hamiltonian cycle** if

- 1.  $v_0 v_t \in E$ ;
- 2.  $v_i v_{i+1} \in E \ \forall i \in \{0, \dots, t-1\}$ ;
- 3.  $\forall v \in V, \exists i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } v_i = v$ .

**Definition 4.21.** A graph containing Hamiltonian cycle is **Hamiltonian**.

**Theorem 4.3.** If  $\mathcal{G}$  is a graph with  $n$  vertices, and  $\deg_{\mathcal{G}}(v) \geq \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil \ \forall v \in V$ , then  $\mathcal{G}$  is Hamiltonian.

## 4.3 Graph Colouring

**Definition 4.22.** Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$ , and  $C$  is a set of elements called **colours**. Then a **proper colouring** of  $\mathcal{G}$  is a function  $\phi : V \rightarrow C$  such that

$$\forall x, y \in V, xy \in E \implies \phi(x) \neq \phi(y) \quad (4.8)$$

**Definition 4.23.** The least size of  $C$  such that we can construct a proper colouring with it is defined as the **chromatic number** of  $\mathcal{G}$ , denoted as  $\chi(\mathcal{G})$ .

**Definition 4.24.** A graph  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  with  $\chi(\mathcal{G}) \leq 2$  is called **2-colourable graph**.

**Theorem 4.4.** A graph is 2-colourable if and only if it does *not* contain an odd cycle.

*Proof.*

( $\implies$ ) Let  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  be a 2-colourable graph with proper colouring  $\phi : V \rightarrow \{\alpha, \beta\}$ .

Define  $V_1 \equiv \phi^{-1}(\alpha)$  and  $V_2 \equiv \phi^{-1}(\beta)$ . Clearly those two sets are disjoint and  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$ .

By definition of proper colouring, for every pair of  $x_1, x_2 \in V_1, x_1 x_2 \notin E$ . The same holds for  $V_2$ .

Therefore subgraphs of  $\mathcal{G}$  induced from  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are themselves independent, and  $\mathcal{G}$  is bipartite.

We've shown the equivalence between bipartite and 2-colourable.

Suppose there's an odd cycle in  $\mathcal{G}$ ,  $C = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , where  $n$  is odd.

WLOG, assume  $x_1 \in V_1$ , by nature of bipartite graph,  $x_i \in V_2 \iff i$  even. Therefore  $x_n \in V_1$ , and for  $C$  to be a cycle, we require  $x_1 x_n \in E$ , which contradicts the fact that  $\mathcal{G}$  is bipartite and 2-colourable.

*Modus Tollens*

( $\impliedby$ ) Suppose there exists an odd cycle  $C = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  in  $\mathcal{G}$ , it's easy to show, by induction, that for any proper colouring  $\phi$  of  $\mathcal{G}$ ,  $|\phi(C)| \geq 3$ . This implies  $|\phi(V)| \geq 3$ , so  $\mathcal{G}$  is not 2-colourable.

*Modus Tollens* ■

**Definition 4.25.** A graph  $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$  is a **bipartite graph** when  $V$  can be partitioned into two sets  $V_1, V_2$ , such that subgraphs *induced* by  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are *independent graphs*.

**Remark 4.3.** Bipartite graphs are 2-colourable. Simply define  $\phi : V \rightarrow \{\alpha, \beta\}$  as

$$\phi(v) = \alpha \mathbf{1}\{v \in V_1\} + \beta \mathbf{1}\{v \in V_2\} \quad (4.9)$$

**Definition 4.26.** A **clique** in a graph  $\mathcal{G} \equiv (V, E)$  is a set  $K \subseteq V$  such that the subgraph induced by  $K$  is isomorphic to the  $|K|$ -complete graph  $\mathbf{K}_{|K|}$ . (Equivalently, vertices in  $K$  are *pair-wise adjacent*)

**Definition 4.27.** The **maximum clique size** or **clique number** of graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , denoted as  $\omega(\mathcal{G})$  is the largest  $t$  such that there exists a clique with  $t$  vertices.

**Proposition 4.2.** For any graph  $\mathcal{G}$ ,

$$\chi(\mathcal{G}) \geq \omega(\mathcal{G}) \quad (4.10)$$

**Proposition 4.3** (Generalized Pigeon Hole Principle). Let  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  be a mapping such that

$$|X| > (m-1)|Y| \quad (4.11)$$

then there exists  $\{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \subseteq X$  such that  $f(x_i) = f(x_j) \forall i, j$ .

*Proof.* For each  $y \in Y$ , we can divide  $X$  into  $|Y|$  partitions, where each partition is defined as the pre-image of one particular  $y \in Y$ . Let  $\{X_i\}$  denote the set of partitions.

We are trying to find the minimum value of  $\max_i \{|X_i|\}_{i=1}^{|Y|}$ , that's

$$\min_{\text{valid partition}} \max_i \{|X_i|\}_{i=1}^{|Y|} \quad (4.12)$$

the minimum is attained when each partition of  $X$  has the same cardinality, which is strictly greater than  $m-1$ .

For each of those partitions, it's a pre-image for some value  $y \in Y$  with size at least  $m$ . ■

**Proposition 4.4.** For every  $t \geq 3$ , there exists a graph  $\mathcal{G}_t$  so that  $\chi(\mathcal{G}_t) = t$  and  $\omega(\mathcal{G}_t) = 2$ . *So the difference between  $\chi$  and  $\omega$  can be arbitrarily large and this inequality in proposition 4.2 cannot always be tight.*

**Definition 4.28.** Let  $\mathcal{F} = \{S_\alpha : \alpha \in V\}$  be an indexed family of sets, define a graph  $\mathcal{G}$  in the following such that

$$S_x \cap S_y \neq \emptyset \iff xy \in E \quad (4.13)$$

Then we call  $\mathcal{G}$  an **intersection graph** (representing  $\mathcal{F}$ ).

**Remark 4.4.** Every graph is an intersection graph since we can explicitly construct a collection of sets from the adjacency matrix of the given graph.

**Definition 4.29.**  $\mathcal{G}$  is an **interval graph** if it is the intersection graph of a collection of closed intervals in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 4.5.** If  $\mathcal{G}$  is an interval graph, then  $\chi(\mathcal{G}) = \omega(\mathcal{G})$ .

**Definition 4.30.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is **perfect** if  $\chi(\mathcal{H}) = \omega(\mathcal{H})$  for every *induced subgraph*  $\mathcal{H}$  of  $\mathcal{G}$ .

**Corollary 4.2.** Since every induced subgraph of interval graph is also an interval graph, therefore *every interval graph is perfect*.



## 4.4 Planer Graphs

**Definition 4.31.** A **drawing** of a graph is a way of associating its vertices with points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and its edges with simple polygonal arcs whose endpoints are the coordinates associated to the vertices that are the endpoints of the edge.

**Definition 4.32.** A **planar drawing** of a graph is one in which arcs corresponding to two edges intersect only at a point corresponding to a vertex to which they are both incident.

**Definition 4.33.** A graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is **planar** if it has a planar drawing.

**Definition 4.34.** A **face** of a *planar drawing* of a graph is a region bounded by edges and vertices and not containing any other vertices or edges.

**Theorem 4.6** (Euler's Formula). Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a *connected planer graph* with  $V$  vertices and  $E$  edges. Then  $\mathcal{G}$  has  $f$  faces where

$$V - E + f = 2 \tag{4.14}$$

**Theorem 4.7.** A planar graph with  $n$  vertices has at most  $3n - 6$  edges when  $n \geq 3$ .

**Theorem 4.8** (Kuratowski's Theorem). A graph is planar if and only if it does not contain either  $\mathbf{K}_5$  or  $\mathbf{K}_{3,3}$ .

**Theorem 4.9** (Four Colour Theorem). Every planar graph has chromatic number at most four.

## References

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