Graphs and the Three Utilities Problem

We can imagine trying to connect three houses below with three utilities without the utility lines crossing.













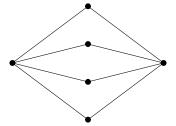
This problem is akin to the graph $K_{3,3}$ (the complete bipartite graph with three vertices in each partite set).



A graph is an ordered pair of sets (V, E), where $E \subseteq V \times V$.

For example, if $V = \{a, b, c\}$ and $E = \{(a, b), (a, c)\}$, then (V, E) is a graph. The goal of the three utilities puzzle is to draw $K_{3,3}$ in \mathbb{R}^2 without any edges crossing. A graph that can be drawn as such is *planar*.

- $K_{3,3}$ is not planar.
- $K_{2,4}$ is planar.



Euler's Theorem

Let $G \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$ be a planar graph (i.e., drawn in \mathbb{R}^2 without edge crossings). Each disjoint subset of $\mathbb{R}^2 - G$ is a *face* of G.

For every graph G embedded in \mathbb{R}^2 (i.e., drawn without edge crossings) with V vertices, E edges, and F faces, the following is true:

$$V - E + F = 2$$

We will use this theorem to show that you cannot connect the three houses to the three utilities as follows:

Outline Proof (of $K_{3,3}$'s non-planarity)

Suppose toward contradiction that $K_{3,3}$ is planar. Then, by Euler's Theorem, we know that V - E + F = 2.

We know that $K_{3,3}$ has six vertices and nine edges, so we know that 6-9+F=2. Therefore, we know that there must be 5 faces. In order to enclose a face, there must be at least four edges in $K_{3,3}$ (as there is no edge between two members of a partite set). Additionally, each edge encloses two faces. Therefore, $E \geq 2F$. However, since E = 9, and we assume that $F \geq 5$, we have reached a contradiction (as 9 < 10). Thus, $K_{3,3}$ is not planar.

Four-Color Theorem

Every planar graph can be colored (adjacent vertices do not have the same color) with four colors. The planar graph can be colored by fewer colors.

Polynomial Example

Let p(a, b, c, d) = ab + ac + ad + bc + bd + cd. When we factor, we get p(a, b, c, d) = a(b + c + d) + b(c + d) + cd. In the first equation, we had to carry out 6 multiplications, while in the second equation we only had to carry out 3 multiplications. We could factor differently:

$$p(a, b, c, d) = ab + ac + ad + bc + bd + cd$$

= $a(b + c + d) + b(c + d) + cd$
= $(a + b)(c + d) + ab + cd$

We have a lower bound of three multiplications to carry out.

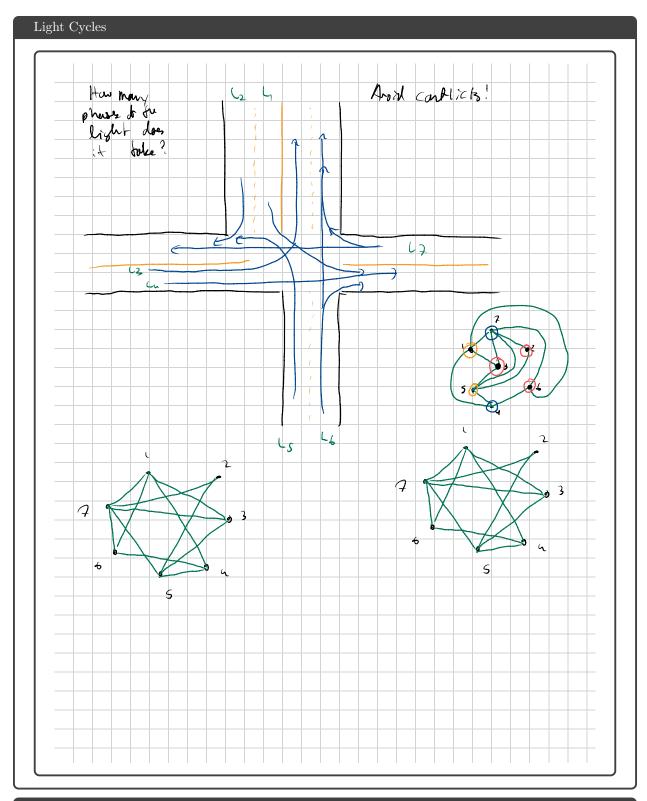
In the arbitrary case, we have the following. We want to find the lowest number of multiplications.

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n x_i x_j$$

The minimum number of multiplications we can do is n-1. We can find this via a graph with n vertices $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$, and for $x_i x_j$ in p, we have an edge from x_i to x_j . This is the complete graph on n vertices, K_n . Each complete bipartite subgraph represents a multiplication — so our question can be restated as follows:

Given a complete graph on n vertices, K_n , partition its edges into as few complete graphs as possible.

The answer for this is n-1, with a proof in linear algebra. However, there is no graph theory-specific proof for this question.



Diestel book: Overview

A graph is an ordered pair G=(V,E) of sets such that $\forall e\in E,\ e=\{v,w\}$ for some $v,w\in V.$

Paths and Cycles

A graph H is a **subgraph** of a graph G if $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$.

A **path** is a subgraph P of G such that $V(P) = \{v_0, \ldots, v_k\}$ and $E(P) = \{v_0v_1, \ldots, v_{k-1}v_k\}$. We say the **length** of P is equal to |E(P)|.

If $v_k v_0 \in E(G)$, then $C = P + v_k v_0$ is a **cycle**. V(C) = V(P) and $E(C) = E(P) \cup \{v_0 v_k\}$.

Abbreviations: $P = v_0 \dots v_k$, and $C = v_0 \dots v_k v_0$

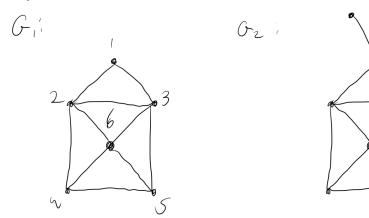
Degree, Order, and Size

Given $v \in V(G)$, the **degree** of v $d(v) = |\{vw \mid v \in E(G)\}|$. The edge vw is **incident** to v.

The **order** of G is |V(G)|, or |G|, and the **size** of G is |E(G)|, or |G|.

Hamiltonian Cycles

A cycle $C \subseteq G$ is **Hamiltonian** if V(C) = V(G). A graph is Hamiltonian if it contains a Hamiltonian cycle.



For example, G_1 has a Hamiltonian cycle $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 3, 1\}$, while G_2 does not have one as the stray vertex cannot be reached without going over an edge.

For example, the Knight's Tour (where you visit every square on a chess board) involves finding a particular kind of Hamiltonian cycle.

Dirac's Theorem

If G is a graph of order ≥ 3 such that every vertex has degree $\geq \left| \frac{|G|}{2} \right|$, then G is Hamiltonian.

Let P be a path in G with maximum length (i.e., a longest path). Outline:

- **Step 1** Show that $|V(P)| > \frac{|G|}{2}$
- **Step 2** Show $\exists C \subseteq G$ such that V(C) = V(P).
- **Step 3** Show that C is a Hamiltonian cycle.
- Step 1 Let $P = (v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k)$ be a path in G with maximum length. Suppose toward contradiction that |P| < n/2, meaning k < n/2. Then, $\nexists v_i$ such that v_i is connected to any of v_1, \ldots, v_k , or else we would be able to extend P. Thus, $\forall v \in \{v_1, \ldots, v_k\}$, v is only adjacent to other members in v_1, \ldots, v_k . However, this means that the maximum value v can take is k-1, and since k < n/2, this means k-1 < n/2, or that v would not satisfy one of the conditions of G. \bot
- Step 2 Let $P = v_0 \dots v_k$. It suffices to show that $\exists j \in \{2, \dots, k\}$ such that $v_1 \leftrightarrow v_j$ and $v_{j-1} \leftrightarrow v_k$. Since P has maximum length, v_1 has no neighbor outside P (or else P could be extended). Similarly, v_k has no neighbor outside P. However, every vertex has degree at least 2, meaning v_1 must have a neighbor in P. Suppose toward contradiction that $\nexists j 1$ such that $v_{j-1} \leftrightarrow v_k$. Then, $N = \{v_{2-1}, \dots, v_{k-1-1}\} \geq \frac{n}{2}$ are not neighbors of v_k . This means $k \leq n$, so v_k has k-1-N neighbors, implying $d(v_k) < \frac{n}{2}$, which is our contradiction.
- Step 3 Let P is a path of maximum length in G, and C be a cycle in G such that V(C) = V(P). Suppose toward contradiction that |P| < n. Then, $\exists v \in G$ such that $v \notin P$. Since $d(v) \geq \frac{n}{2}$, v is adjacent to at least one vertex $w \in P$ (as there are not enough vertices outside P for v to be adjacent to). Let $C = (v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_k}, v_{i_1})$. WLOG, v is adjacent to v_{i_1} . Then, $P' = v, v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_k}$ is a path that is longer than P, which is a contradiction.

Ore's Theorem

If $|G| \geq 3$ and $\forall v, w \in V(G)$ where $v \leftrightarrow w$ and $d(v) + d(w) \geq n$, then G is Hamiltonian.

We can use Ore's Theorem to prove Dirac's Theorem.

Vertex Deletion

Let $v \in G$. Then, G - v is the subgraph of G with vertices $V(G) \setminus \{v\}$, and edges $E(G) \setminus \{vw \mid vw \in E(G)\}$.

Theorem 6.4

Let $v_1, \ldots, v_k \in V(G)$. Then, $G - v_1 - v_2 - \cdots - v_k$ has at most k components.

Connectedness

A graph G is **connected** if $\forall v, w \in V(G), \exists P : v \dots w$.

Distinct Representatives

Suppose we want to pick one student representative from every Oxy math class. No student should be chosen more than once. Say there are n classes: c_1, \ldots, c_n , where $c_i = \{s_1, \ldots, s_{k_i}\}$, where $1 \le i \le n$.

Obviously, there must be at least n students in all classes combined: i.e.,

$$\left| \bigcup c_i \right| \ge n$$

However, this goes deeper:

$$|c_1 \cup c_2| \ge 2$$

$$|c_3 \cup c_5 \cup c_6| \ge 3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$|c_{i_1} \cup \dots \cup c_{i_r}| \ge r \ \forall r$$
(*)

Obviously, condition (*) is necessary.

We want c_i and c_j to be distinct, (even when they are equal as sets).

Let $Z = (c_1, \ldots, c_n)$ be a finite sequence. Then, $(c_{i_1}, \ldots, c_{i_k})$ is a subsequence of Z if $i_1 < \ldots, i_k$.

Hall's Theorem

Let $Z=(c_1,\ldots,c_n)$ be a sequence of sets c_i . Suppose that for every subsequence Y of Z with $Y=(c_{i_1},\ldots,c_{i_k})$ such that $|c_{i_1}\cup\cdots\cup c_{i_k}|\geq k$. Then, \exists pairwise distinct s_1,\ldots,s_n with $s_i\in c_i$.

Note (*) is a sufficient condition

Informally, we can restate the premise as follows: Let G be a bipartite graph. One set of vertices c_1, \ldots, c_n , is the classes, and the other set s_1, \ldots, s_m is the set of all students. Each vertex c_i is connected by edges to its students.

Hall's Theorem (In Graphs)

Let G be a bipartite graph on vertices $C \sqcup S$, where $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_n\}$ and $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_m\}$. Then, G has a matching (i.e., a set of pairwise disjoint edges) if and only if $\forall r \ 1 \leq r \leq n$, any r vertices in C are connected to at least r vertices in S.

Proof of Hall's Theorem

Base Case: The theorem holds for n = 1. $S_1 \neq \emptyset$ by the theorem's hypothesis, as if $Y := (S_1)$, then $\left| \bigcup_{S \in Y} S \right| \geq 1$, so $|S_1| \geq 1$.

Induction Hypothesis Assume the theorem holds for n-1 and every m < n-1. We will show the theorem holds for n

Proof

CASE 1: Assume every proper subsequence Y of Z is loose. Let $x_1 \in S_1$ $(S_1 \neq \emptyset)$ as proved in the base case). Let $S_i' = S_i \setminus \{x_1\}$, where $2 \leq i \leq n$. Let $Z' = (S_2', \ldots, S_n')$.

Let Y' be a subsequence of Z'. We want to show that

$$\left| \bigcup +S_i' \in Y'S_i' \right| \ge |Y'|$$

We know that Y consists of all S_i such that $S_i' \in Y'$. Since Y is loose (as $S_1 \notin Y$), and $\bigcup_{S_i \in Y} S_i \ge |Y|$.

$$\left| \bigcup_{S_i' \in Y'} S_i' \right| \ge \left| \bigcup_{S_i \in Y} S_i \right| - 1$$

$$> |Y| - 1$$

$$\ge |Y|$$

$$= |Y'|$$

CASE 2: Suppose \exists a tight proper subsequence of Z, Y. Without loss of generality, $Y = (S_1, \ldots, S_m)$, where $1 \leq m < n$. Since Y satisfies the theorem hypothesis, and m < n, so the induction hypothesis must hold.

For $m+1 \le k \le n$, let $S'_k = S_k \setminus \{x_1, \ldots, x_m\}$. Let $Z' = (S'_{m+1}, \ldots, S'_n)$. Let Y' be any subsequence of Z'. We want to show that $\left|\bigcup_{S'_i \in Y'} S'_i\right| \ge |Y'|$.

We know that

Let
$$W = \left(S_1, \dots, S_m, \underbrace{S_i}_{S_i' \in Y'}\right)$$

$$\left| \bigcup_{S_i \in W} S_i \right| \ge |W| = |Y'| + m$$

$$\left| \bigcup_{S_i' \in Y'} S_i' \right| = \left| \bigcup_{S_i' \in Y'} S_i \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_m\} \right|$$

$$= \left| \bigcup_{S_i' \in Y'} S_i \right| - m$$

k-factorable Graphs

Let H be a subgraph of G. Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. H is a k-factor of G if

- (i) H is k-regular (i.e., every vertex of H is of degree k)
- (ii) V(H) = V(G) (H is a spanning subgraph)

k-factors are not necessarily connected subgraphs.

A graph G is k-factorable if its edges can be partitioned k-factors of G. If G has k-factors H_1, \ldots, H_m such that $\{E(H_1), \ldots, E(H_m)\}$ is a partition of E(G).

For example, K_4 is 1-factorable.



1-factorability of K_n

 K_n is 1-factorable if and only if n is even.

- (\Rightarrow) The proof is trivial.
- (\Leftarrow) Number the vertices of K_n . Redraw the graph such that vertex 1 is in the center of a n-1-gon. Connect vertex 1 to vertex 2, and draw all the edges that are perpendicular to this edge. Let this 1-factor be denoted H_1 .

Connect vertex 1 to vertex 3, and draw the edges perpendicular to that edge. This 1-factor is denoted H_2 .

Continue until we finish connecting vertex 1 to vertex 10, and H_1, \ldots, H_{10} must partition the edges of K_n .

2-factorability of Graphs

A graph G is 2-factorable if and only if G k-regular for some even integer k.

An edge vw of G is a *bridge* if v and w are in different components of G - vw.