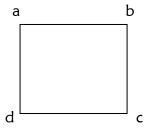
GRAPH THEORY

GRAPH:

It is an ordered pair (V, E), where V is a non-empty finite set, whose elements are called **vertices** and E is a set of Unordered pair of distinct elements of V, whose elements are called edges.

Ex:



Here, $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and

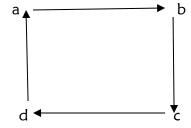
$$E = \{\{a,b\}, \{b,c\}, \{c,d\}, \{d,a\}\}\}\$$
 (or) $E = \{\{b,a\}, \{c,b\}, \{d,c\}, \{a,d\}\}\}.$

Let
$$e_1 = \{a,b\}$$
, $e_2 = \{b,c\}$, $e_3 = \{c,d\}$, $e_4 = \{d,a\}$. Then $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$.

DI- GRAPH:

It is an ordered pair (V, A), where V is a non-empty finite set, whose elements are called **vertices** and A is the of set of ordered pair of distinct elements of V, whose element are called **arcs**.

Ex:



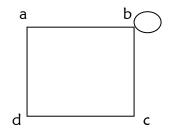
Here, $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and

$$A = \{\{a,b\}, \{b,c\}, \{c,d\}, \{d,a\}\}.$$

PSEUDO GRAPH:

It is an ordered pair (V, E), where V is a non-empty finite set, whose elements are called **vertices** and E is a set of Unordered pair of elements of V, whose elements are called **edges**.

Ex:



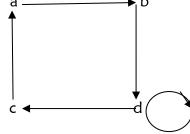
Here, $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and

 $E = \{\{a,b\}, \{b,c\}, \{c,d\}, \{d,a\}, \{b,b\}\}$. Here the edge $\{b,b\}$ is called a "loop".

PSEUDO DIGRAPH:

It is an ordered pair (V, A), where V is a non-empty finite set, whose elements are called **vertices** and A is a set of ordered pair of elements of V, whose elements are called **arcs**.

Ex:



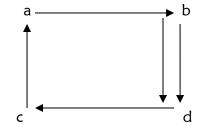
Here, $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and

 $E = \{\{a,b\}, \{b,d\}, \{d,c\}, \{c,a\}, \{d,d\}\}.$

MULTI DIGRAPH:

It is an ordered pair (V, A), where V is a non-empty finite set, whose elements are called **vertices** and A is the of set of ordered pair of distinct elements of V, whose element are called **arcs**.

Ex:



Here, $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and

$$E = \{\{a,b\}, \{b,d\}, \{b,d\}, \{d,c\}, \{c,a\}\}$$

Ex:: a ______b

Here,
$$V = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

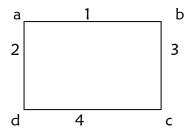
 $E = \{\{a,b\}, \{b,d\}, \{d,a\}, \{d,c\}, \{c,a\}\}\)$ is not a Multi Digraph.

ADJACENT:

Let G = (V,E) be a Graph.

- 1. Let e_1 , e_2 be two edges in G. Then e_1 , e_2 are said to be **adjacent** if these two edges have a common end vertex.
- 2. Let u, v be two vertices in G. Then , u and v are said to be **adjacent** if u and v are connected by an edge.

Ex:



Clearly, the edges 1,3; 3,4; 4,2 and 2,1 are adjacent and the edges 1,4 and 2,3 are not adjacent.

Clearly, the vertices a,b; b,c; c,d and d,a are adjacent and the vertices a,c and b,d are not adjacent.

INCIDENT:

Let G = (V,E) be a graph. Let e be an edge and v be a vertex of G. Then the vertex v is said to be incident to an edge e if v is one of the end vertex of e.

Ex: In the above graph, edge 1 is incident to the vertices a and b and not incident to the vertices c and d (since c and d are not the one of the end vertex of 1).

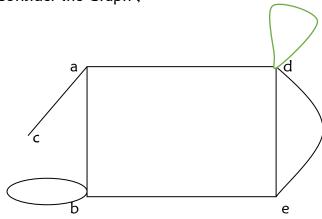
DEGREE OF A VERTEX:

Let G=(V,E) be an undirected graph and v be a vertex of G. Then, the degree of a vertex v is denoted by d(v) and is defined by the number of edges incident to the vertex v.

Note: If there is a loop at a vertex ν , then the loop will give the degree 2 to the vertex ν .

Ex: In the above graph, the degree d(a) = 2, d(b) = 2, d(c) = 2, d(d) = 2.

Consider the Graph,

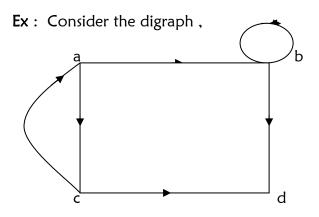


$$d(a) = 3$$
; $d(b) = 4$: $d(c) = 1$; $d(d) = 5$; $d(e) = 3$.

INDEGREE OF THE VERTEX:

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph and v be a vertex of G. Then, the in degree of v is defined as the number of edges towards to the vertex v and the out degree of v is defined as the number of edges away from the vertex v.

Note: The in degree of v is denoted by id(v) (or) $d^-(v)$ and out degree of v is denoted by od(v) (or) $d^+(v)$.



id (a)=1, od (a)=2, id(b) = 2, od(b) = 2, id(c)=1, od(c)=2, id(d) = 2, od(d)=0.

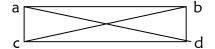
COMPLETE GRAPH:

Let G = (V,E) be an undirected graph. Then G is said to be **complete** if every pair of vertices in the graph are adjacent.

(or)

A Graph G = (V,E) is said to be a complete graph if between every pair of vertices there is an edge.





In the first graph,

the vertices a & d , b & c are not adjacent.

So, the first graph is not complete.

In the second graph,

every pair of vertices are adjacent.

So, the second graph is complete.

Note:

- 1. In a complete graph G with n vertices, the degree of each vertex is n-1 and the number of edges in a complete graph is $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$
- 2. Complete graphs are denoted by K_n , where n denotes the number of vertices in G.

Ex : The above Complete Graph is
$$K_4$$
 $C \\ K_1 = a$. $K_2 = a$ _____ b $K_3 = a$

INTERNAL VERTEX:

A vertex v in a graph G=(V,E) is said to be an internal vertex if d(v) > 1.

PENDANT VERTEX:

A vertex v in a graph G=(V,E) is said to be a pendant vertex if

$$d(v) = 1.$$

ISOLATED VERTEX:

 $A \ \text{vertex} \ \nu \ \text{in a graph} \ G = (\ V,E) \ \text{is said to be an isolated vertex if}$ $d(\nu) = 0.$

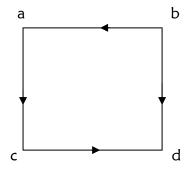
SOURCE:

A non-isolated vertex v in a digraph G=(V,A) is called a source, if id(v)=0.

SINK:

A non-isolated vertex v in a digraph G = (V,A) is called a sink, if od(v)=0.

Ex:



In the above graph, we have od(d) = 0 and hence d is a sink, and id(b) = 0 and hence b is a source.

Theorem 1: Let G = (V,E) be any undirected graph. Then $\sum_{v \in V} d(v)$ is even and is equal to '2e', where 'e' denotes the number of edges in G.

Proof: Let G = (V,E) be an Undirected Graph.

Since each edge in E is incident to exactly two vertices and hence each edge contributes the value 2 to the degree sum $\sum_{v \in V} d(v)$.

Therefore $\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2$ e, where e denotes the number of edges in G.

Hence $\sum_{v \in V} d(v)$ is even.

Theorem 2: Let G = (V,E) be any undirected graph. Then there is an even number of vertices having odd degree.

Proof: Let G = (V,E) be an undirected graph.

Let
$$V_1 = \{v \in V | d(v) = odd \ number\}$$
 and

$$V_2 = \{v \in V / d(v) = even number\}.$$

Then, $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ and $V_1 \cup V_2 = V$.

Clearly,
$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = \sum_{v \in V_1} d(v) + \sum_{v \in V_2} d(v)$$
. ----- (1)

By a Known result,
$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = \text{even.}$$
 -----(2)

Since degree of every vertex in V_2 is even and hence

the degree sum
$$\sum_{v \in V_2} d(v)$$
 is even. -----(3)

From (1), (2) & (3)

$$\sum_{v \in V_1} d(v) = \text{ even - even} = \text{ even. } ----(4)$$

Since degree of every vertex in V_1 is odd, from (4) we have the number of vertices in V_1 is even.

That is, the number of vertices having odd degree is even.

Theorem 3: Let G = (V,A) be a directed graph. Then prove that

$$\sum_{v \in V} d^+(v) = \sum_{v \in V} d^-(v) = |E| =$$
the number of arcs in G.

Proof : Let G = (V,A) be a directed Graph.

Let e = pq be an arc in G from the vertex p to the vertex q.

Clearly, the arc e contributes the value '1' to the vertex p as out degree and the value '1' to the vertex q as in degree.

So, each arc e contributes the value '1' to the in degree sum $\sum_{v \in V} d^+(v)$

and the value '1' to the out degree sum $\sum_{v \in V} d^-(v)$.

Therefore, $\sum_{v \in V} d^+(v) = \sum_{v \in V} d^-(v) = |E| =$ the number of arcs in G.

WALK:

A sequence of vertices and edges is called a walk.

Ex: a b c 5

Walk = $\{a,1,d,2,b,3,e,4,c,5,f\}$ and is called a-f walk.

OPEN WALK:

d

A walk is said to be an **open walk** if the end vertices in the walk are distinct.

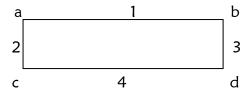
f

Ex: In the above graph, the a-d walk is an example of an open walk.

CLOSED WALK:

A walk is said to be a **closed walk** if the end vertices in the walk are equal.

Ex:



In the graph, the close walk is {a,1,b,3,d,4,c,2,a}

TRIAL:

An open walk is said to be a **trail** if all the edges in the walk are distinct but vertices may be repeated.

Ex: The above open walk is an example of trial.

PATH:

An open walk is said to be a path if all the vertices in the walk are distinct.

Ex: The above open walk is an example of path.

CIRCUIT:

A closed walk is said to be a **circuit** if all the edges in the walk are distinct but vertices may be repeated.

Ex: The above closed walk is an example of circuit.

CYCLE:

A closed walk is said to be a **cycle** if all the vertices and edges are distinct in the walk except the end vertices.

Ex: The above closed walk is an example of a cycle.

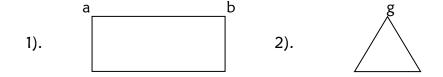
Note:

- 1. The number of edges in a cycle is called the length of the cycle.
- 2. The number of edges in a cycle is an even number, then the cycle is called an even cycle.
- 3. The number of edges in a cycle is an odd number, then the cycle is called an odd cycle.

CONNECTED:

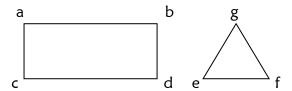
Let G = (V,E) be an undirected graph. Then G is said to be **connected** if between every pair of vertices there is a path.

Ex: The following graphs are connected.



 $c \hspace{1cm} d \hspace{1cm} e \hspace{1cm} f \hspace{1cm}$

Consider, the following graph (combination of above two graphs)



Since, there is no path between the vertices d and e and hence it is not connected.

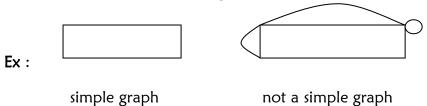
Note:

A graph G is not connected, then the graph G is called disconnected.

Ex: The above graph is an example of disconnected graphs.

SIMPLE GRAPH:

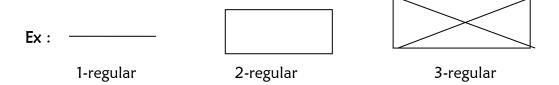
Let G = (V,E) be an undirected graph. Then G is said to be simple if G has no loops and parallel edges.



REGULAR GRAPH:

Let G = (V,E) be an undirected graph. Then G is said to be a **regular** graph if every vertex in G have same degree.

Note: If every vertex in G have same degree 'k' (say), then the graph G is called 'k-regular' graph.

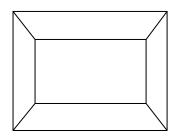


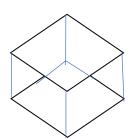
ISOMORPHISM:

Let $G_1=(V_1,E_1)$ and $G_2=(V_2,E_2)$ be two graphs. Then G_1 is said to be **isomorphic** to G_2 if there exists a function $f:V_1\longrightarrow V_2$ such that

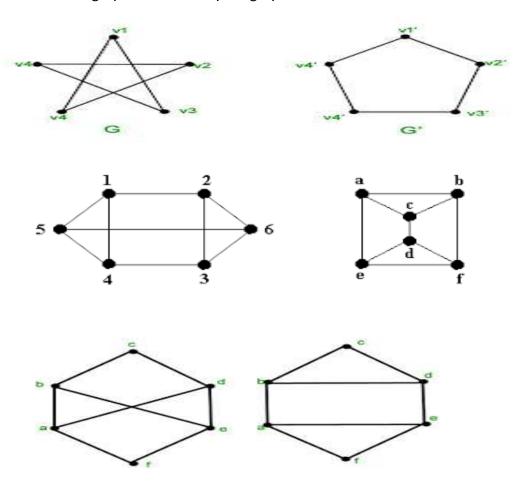
- 1). f is bijective, and
- 2). $uv \in E_1 \ iff \ f(u)f(v) \in E_2, \ \forall \ u,v \in V_1$.

Ex:





These above two graphs are isomorphic graphs.



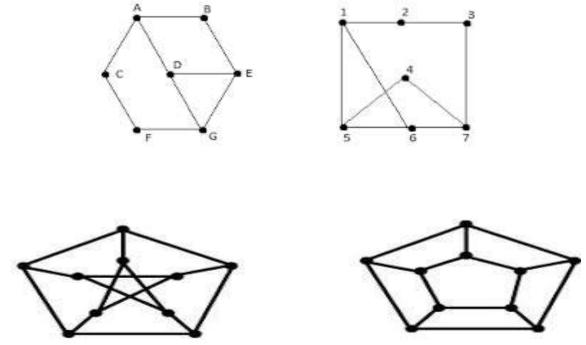
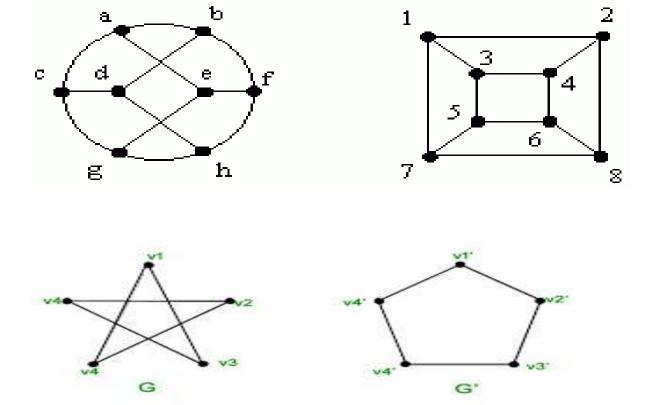


Figure 1.1 - Petersen graph and pentagonal prism.

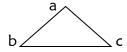


ADJACENT MATRIX:

Let G=(V,E) be an undirected graph. Let $V=\{v_1$, v_2 ,.... $v_n\}$. Then the **adjacent matrix** of G is of order n X n and is defined by

$$\mathsf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{a}_{ij} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} & 1 \text{ if } \mathsf{v}_i \text{ is adjacent to } \mathsf{v}_j \\ & 0 \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Ex: Consider the graph



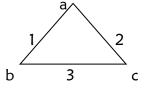
Then the adjacent matrix of G is $M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

INCIDENT MATRIX:

Let G = (V,E) be an undirected graph. Let V = $\{v_1, v_2, v_n\}$ and E = $\{e_1, e_2, e_m\}$. Then, the **incident matrix** of G is of order n X m and is defined by

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v_i \text{ is incident to } e_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

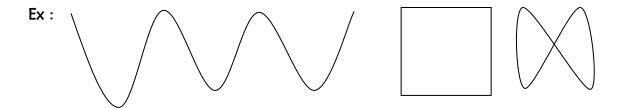
Ex: Consider the Graph



The incident matrix of G is $M = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

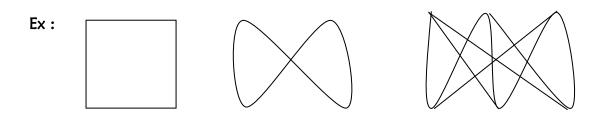
BI-PARTITE GRAPH:

Let G = (V, E) be an undirected graph. Then G is said to be a **bi-partite** graph if $V = V_1 \cup V_2$, $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ and every edge in G has one end vertex in V_1 and another end vertex in V_2 .



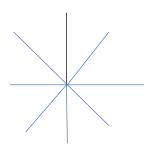
NOTE:

1. In a bi-partite graph G each and every vertex in V_1 is adjacent to each every vertex in V_2 and vice-versa, then the Graph G is said to be a **complete bi-partite graph** is denoted by $K_{m,n}$, where m denotes the number of elements in V_1 and n denotes the number of element in V_2 .



2. The complete bi-partite graph $K_{1,n}$ is called "Star graph".

Ex.:



NOTE A graph G = (V,E) is bi-partite if and only if it contains no odd cycles.

TREE:

Let G = (V,E) be an undirected simple graph. If between every pair of vertices there is a unique path, then G is called a **tree**.

Ex:



The above graph are trees and the following graphs are not trees.

CUT EDGE:

Let G = (V, E) be a simple undirected graph and e be an edge in G. If

G - e is disconnected, then the edge e is called **cut edge** (or) **bridge** of the graph G.

Ex:

In the above graph G has no Cut edges.



The above graph has cut edges.

Theorem 4: A simple undirected graph G is a tree if and only if G is connected and contains no cycles.

Proof: Let G be a simple undirected graph.

Let us suppose G is a tree.

Claim: G is connected and has no cycles.

Since G is tree, we have between every pair of vertices in G there is a unique path. Therefore G is connected.

Now, we prove that G has no cycles.

Let us suppose G has a cycle C (say).

Let u, v be two vertices on C.

Then, there exist two disjoint paths between u and v namely P and Q.

This is a contradiction (since G is a tree).

This contradiction is due to supposing G has cycles.

Therefore G has no cycles.

Conversely, let us suppose G is connected and no cycles.

Claim: G is a tree.

To prove G is a tree, it is enough to prove between every pair of vertices there is a unique path.

Let u and v be two distinct vertices in G.

Since G is connected we have there is a path between $\, u \,$ and $v \,$.

Let P and Q be two disjoint paths between u and v.

Then, there exist a cycle from u to u.

This is a contradiction (since G has no cycles).

This contradiction is due to supposing between u and v there are two paths.

Therefore, between u and v there exist a unique path.

Hence G is a tree.

NOTE:

- 1. From the above theorem, a tree can be defined as a "connected acyclic graph".
- 2. A tree is said to be non-trivial, if the number of vertices in that tree is at least
 - 2. otherwise it is said to be trivial tree.

Theorem 5: In a every non-trivial tree, there is at least one vertex of degree 1.

Proof: Let G be a non-trivial tree.

Let $v_1 \in G$ be any vertex in G.

If $d(v_1) = 1$, then the result is true.

Let us suppose, $d(v_1) \neq 1$.

Let v_2 be a vertex in G adjacent to v_1 .

If $d(v_2) = 1$, then the result is true.

Let us suppose $d(v_2) \neq 1$.

Let v_3 be a vertex in G adjacent to v_2 .

On **c**ontinuing this process we get a vertex v such that d(v) = 1.

(since number of vertices in G is finite)

Theorem 6: A tree with n vertices has exactly n-1 edges.

Proof: Let G be a tree with n vertices.

We prove this result by using strong mathematical induction on

the number of vertices in G.

Let n = 1.

Then the number of edges in G is equal to 0 = 1 - 1 = n - 1.

Let n > 1.

Assume that, the result is true for all trees having number of vertices is less than n.

Let H be a tree with n vertices.

Since n > 1 we have H is a non-trivial tree.

By a known theorem, there is a vertex v in H such that d(v) = 1.

Now consider the graph H - v.

Clearly H - v is a tree and the number of vertices in H - v is n - 1.

By induction hypothesis we have H - v contains (n - 1) - 1 = n - 2 edges.

Now we consider

number of edges in H = number of edges in
$$(H - v) + 1$$

= $(n - 2) + 1$
= $n - 1$.

Therefore the number of edges in H is n-1 and hence the result is true for n.

Hence by strong mathematical induction the result is true for every n.

That is, every tree with n vertices has n-1 edges.

Theorem 7: If G is a non-trivial tree, then G contains at least two pendent vertices.

Proof: Let G be a non-trivial tree with n vertices.

By a known result, $\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2$ e ----- (1) where e denotes number of edges in G.

Since G is a tree with n vertices we have the number of edges in G is n-1.

From (1), we get

$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2(n-1) = 2 n - 2. \quad ----- (2)$$

Now, we prove G has at least two pendant vertices.

Let us suppose G has exactly one pendant vertex say v_1 .

Then $d(v_1) = 1$.

Clearly

$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = d(v_1) + d(v_2) + \dots + d(v_n)$$

$$\geq 1 + 2 (n-1)$$

$$= 2 n - 1.$$

Therefore
$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) \ge 2 \text{ n} - 1.$$
 (3)

From (2) and (3) we have

$$2 n - 2 \ge 2 n - 1$$
.

This is a contradiction.

This contradiction is due to supposing G has only one pendant vertex.

Therefore G has at least 2 pendant vertices.

Theorem 8: Prove that if G is a tree then the sum of degrees is equal to 2|V|-2.

Proof: Let G be a tree with |V| vertices.

Then by a known result we have

$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2 e ---- (1)$$

where e denotes number of edges in G.

Since G is a tree with |V| vertices, we have G has |V|-1 edges.

From (1) we have

$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2 (|V| - 1) = 2 |V| - 2.$$

Theorem 9: A graph G is a tree if and only if G has no cycles and |E| = |V| - 1.

Proof: Let G be a graph with n vertices.

Let us suppose G is a tree.

Then by a known result we have G has no cycles and it has n-1 edges.

That is, |E| = |V| - 1.

Conversely, suppose that G has no cycles and |E| = |V| - 1.

Claim: G is a tree.

Since G has no cycles, by a known theorem, to prove G is a tree it is sufficient to prove G is connected.

Let us suppose G is disconnected.

Then G can be partitioned in to components.

Let $C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_k$ be the k components of G with $n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots, n_k$ vertices respectively.

Since G has no cycles we have each component C_i ($1 \le i \le k$) has no cycles.

We know that, components are always connected.

So, each component C_i is a tree. (since they does not contain cycles)

Since the number of vertices in each C_i is n_i and hence

the number of edges in each C_i is $n_i - 1$ ($1 \le i \le k$).

Clearly
$$n = n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \dots + n_k$$
 and
$$n-1 = n_1 - 1 + n_2 - 1 + n_3 - 1 + \dots + n_k - 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow n-1 = n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \dots + n_k - k.$$

$$\Rightarrow n-1 = n-k.$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 -1 = -k.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 1 = k .

Therefore G is connected.

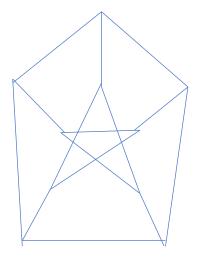
SUBGRAPH:

Let G = (V, E) be a graph. Let $H = (V_1, E_1)$ be another graph.

Then we say that,

- H is a subgraph of G if $V_1 \subseteq V$ and $E_1 \subseteq E$.
- H is a proper subgraph of G if $V_1 \subset V$ and $E_1 \subset E$.
- H is a spanning subgraph of G if $V_1 = V$ and $E_1 \subset E$.

NOTE: The following graph is called "Petersen graph".



COMPLEMENT OF THE GRAPH:

Let G=(V,E) be a graph. Then the complement of G is denoted by $\bar{G}=(\bar{V},\bar{E})$ and is defined as follows.

- 1. $\overline{V} = V$ and
- 2. Let $p,q \in V$. Then if p,q are adjacent in G then they are not adjacent in G and if p,q are not adjacent in G then they are adjacent in G.





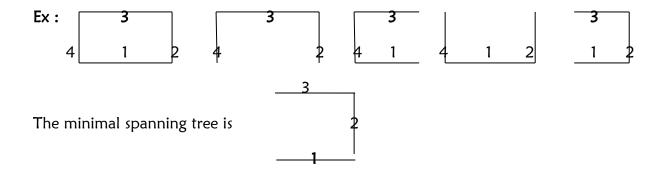
$$\overline{G}$$
 =

SPANNING TREE:

A Subgraph H of a Graph G is called a **spanning tree** if H is a tree and H contains all the vertices of G.

MINIMAL SPANNING TREE:

Let G = (V,E) be a connected weighted graph . The spanning tree of G with the smallest total weight is called **minimal spanning tree** (or) **minimum spanning tree**.

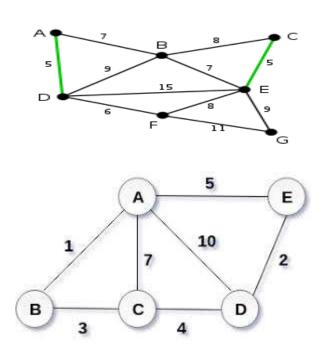


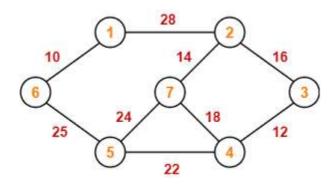
KRUSKAL'S ALGORITHM:

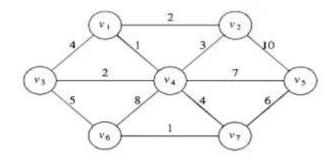
- **Step 1:** Select any edge of minimal weight that is not a loop. This is the first edge of minimal spanning tree T.
- **Step 2:** Select any remaining edge of G having minimum value that does not form a cycle with the edges already included in T.

Step 3: Continue step 2 until T contains n-1 edges.

PROBLEMS:





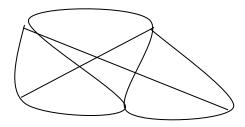


PLANAR GRAPH:

A Graph G is said to be planar (simply we say plane graph), if it can be drawn on a plane without any crossings. Otherwise, it is said to be non-planar.



The above two graphs are planar and the below graph is non-planar.

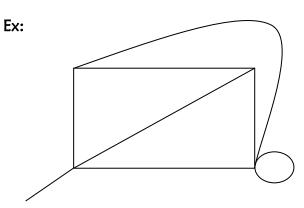


DUAL OF THE GRAPH:

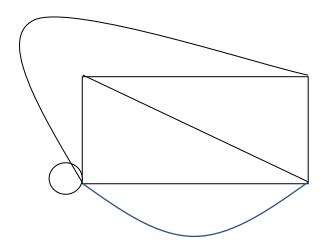
Let G be a plane graph. Then, the dual of G denoted by G^* is a plane graph whose vertices corresponds to the faces (or) regions of G and the edges of G^* correspond to the edges of G as follows.

If e is an edge of G with region X on one side and region Y on the other side, then the end vertices of the dual edge e^* are the vertices X, Y of G^* .

That is, if the edge $\,e\,$ is a boundary of the regions X and Y, then we adjacent the vertices X and Y in the dual of G .



The dual of the above graph is



Theorem 10: Let G be a plane graph, then the sum of degrees of the regions is 2 |E| where |E| denotes number of edges in G.

Proof: Let G = (V,E) be a graph.

Let |V|, |E| and |R| be the number of vertices, edges and regions in G resp.

Let $G^* = (V^*, E^*)$ be the dual of the graph G.

Let $|V^*|$, $|E^*|$ and $|R^*|$ be the number of vertices ,edges and regions in G^* resp.

Then by definition of G^* we have

$$|R| = |V^*|$$
 and $|E| = |E^*|$. ----(1)

Let $\sum_{r \in R(G)} d(r)$ be the sum of degrees of the regions in G , where R(G) is the

set of all regions in G.

Clearly
$$\sum_{r \in R(G)} d(r) = \sum_{v \in V^*} d(v) = 2 |E^*| = 2 |E|$$
. (by (1)
$$\Rightarrow \sum_{r \in R(G)} d(r) = 2 |E|$$
.

Theorem 11: Euler's Formula

If G is a connected plane graph then n-e+f=2, where n , e, and f be number of vertices , edges and regions in G respectively.

(or)

If G is a connected plane graph, then |V| - |E| + |R| = 2, where |V|, |E| and |R| denotes number of vertices, edges and regions of G respectively.

Proof: Let G be a connected plane graph.

Let n, e, and f be number of vertices, edges and regions in G respectively.

We prove this theorem, by using strong mathematical induction on f.

Let f = 1.

Then the only face in G is exterior region and which implies that G has no cycles.

Since G is connected and hence G is a tree.

By a known theorem, we have e = n - 1.

We consider

$$n-e+f = n-(n-1)+1$$

= $n-n+1+1=2$.
 $\Rightarrow n-e+f=2$.

Therefore the result is true for f = 1.

Let f > 1.

Let us assume, the result is true for every connected plane graph with less than f regions.

Now we show that the result is true for a connected plane graph with f regions.

Let G be a connected plane graph with n vertices, e edges, and f regions.

Let w be any edge in the graph G.

Consider the graph $G_1 = G - w$.

Clearly G_1 is a connected plane graph.

Let n_1 , e_1 and f_1 be number of vertices, edges and regions in G_1 respectively.

Then
$$n_1 = n$$
, $e_1 = e - 1$ and $f_1 = f - 1 < f$.

Since number of regions in G_1 is less than f, by induction hypothesis, we get $n_1-e_1+f_1=2$.

This implies that,

$$n - (e-1) + (f-1) = 2.$$

That is
$$n-e+f=2$$
.

Therefore the result is true for all connected plane graph G with number of regions f.

Hence, by strong mathematical induction the result is true for every connected plane graph with number of regions $f \ge 1$.

Theorem 12: Let G be a simple plane graph with e > 1, then

1).
$$e \le 3 n - 6$$
.

- 2). If G is triangular free , then $e \le 2 n 4$.
- 3). There is a vertex v in G such that $d(v) \le 5$.

Proof: Let G be a simple plane graph with n vertices, e edges and f regions.

Then by Euler's theorem we get

$$n - e + f = 2$$
. ---- (1)

By a known theorem we have

$$\sum_{r \in R(G)} d(r) = 2 e = \sum_{v \in V} d(v)$$
. -----(2)

Since G is simple, we have G has no loops and parallel edges.

We know that,

the degree of the region bounded by the loop is 1 and

the degree of the region bounded by the parallel edges is 2.

Since G has no loops and parallel edges we have the degree of every region

in the graph G is at least 3.

1). Claim: $e \le 3 n - 6$.

From (2) we have

$$2 e = \sum_{r \in R(G)} d(r) \geq 3 f$$
.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 e \geq 3 f.

⇒
$$f \le \frac{2}{3}$$
 e. ----(3)

From (1) we have

$$2 + e = n + f$$
.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e \leq n + $\frac{2}{3}$ e.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e - $\frac{2}{3}$ e \leq n.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 6 + 3 e - 2 e \leq 3 n.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 e \leq 3 n - 6.

2). Let us suppose G is triangular free.

Then the degree of every region in G is at least 4.

Claim:
$$e \le 2 n - 4$$
.

From (2) we have

$$2 e = \sum_{r \in R(G)} d(r) \ge 4 f.$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 e \geq 4 f.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 f $\leq \frac{2}{4}$ e.

From (1) we have

$$2 + e = n + f$$
.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e \leq n + $\frac{2}{4}$ e.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e - $\frac{2}{4}$ e \leq n.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 8 + 4 e - 2 e \leq 4 n.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2e \leq 4 n - 8.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 e \leq 2 n - 4.

3). Claim: there is a vertex ν of G such that d (ν) \leq 5.

Let us suppose degree of every vertex is at least 6.

That is
$$d(v) \ge 6 \forall v \in V(G)$$
.

From (2) we have

$$2 e = \sum_{v \in V} d(v) \ge 6 \text{ n.}$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 e \geq 6 n.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 n $\leq \frac{1}{3}$ e. ---- (4)

Since G is planar, by Euler's theorem we have n - e + f = 2.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e = n + f.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e $\leq \frac{1}{3}$ e + $\frac{2}{3}$ e.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 + e \leq e.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 2 \leq 0.

This is a contradiction.

This contradiction is due to supposing degree of every vertex is at least 6.

Therefore, there is a vertex v of G such that $d(v) \le 5$,

Theorem 13: A complete graph K_n is planar if and only if $n \le 4$.

Proof: Let K_n be a Complete Graph with n vertices.

Let us suppose $n \le 4$.

Then the possible values of n are 1, 2, 3 and 4.

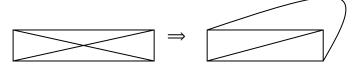
If
$$n = 1$$
, then $K_n = \blacksquare$.

If
$$n = 2$$
, then $K_n = \blacksquare$.



If
$$n = 3$$
, then $K_n =$

If
$$n = 4$$
, then $K_n =$



From the above cases

If
$$n \le 4$$
, then K_n is planar.

Conversely, let us suppose K_n is planar.

Claim: $n \le 4$.

Now we prove this result by using contradiction method.

That is if $n \ge 5$, then K_n is non – planar.

Let $n \ge 5$. Now we prove that K_n is non-planar.

Let us suppose K_n is planar.

With out loss of generality, let us take n = 5.

The number of edges in K_n is $\frac{5(5-1)}{2} = 10$.

Since K_n is planar, by a known result we have $e \le 3 n - 6$.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 10 \leq 3×5 - 6.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 10 \leq 9.

This is a contradiction.

This contradiction is due to supposing K_n is planar.

Therefore K_n is non – planar.

This is true for every $n \geq 5$.

Theorem 14: A Complete Bi-partite graph $K_{m,n}$ is planar if and only if $m \le 2$ (or) $n \le 2$.

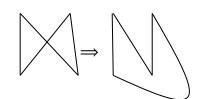
<u>Proof</u>: Let $K_{m,n}$ be a complete bi-partite graph.

Let us suppose $m \le 2$ (or) $n \le 2$.

Then the possible cases are

$$m = 2$$
, $n = 1$

and
$$m = 2$$
, $n = 2$



From the above case we have

If
$$m \le 2$$
 (or) $n \le 2$ then $K_{m,n}$ is planar.

Conversely let us suppose $K_{m,n}$ is planar.

Claim:
$$m \le 2$$
 (or) $n \le 2$.

We prove this result by using contrapositive way.

That is, if $m \ge 3$ and $n \ge 3$, then $K_{m,n}$ is non-planar.

Let us suppose, $m \ge 3$ and $n \ge 3$.

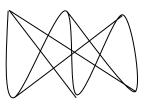
Without loss of generality, we assume that m = 3 and n = 3.

Now we prove that $K_{3,3}$ is non-planar.

Let us suppose $K_{3,3}$ is planar.

Then, the graph $K_{3,3}$ is

Clearly, total number of vertices is 6, edges is 9 and $K_{3,3}$ is triangular free.



By a known theorem we have

$$e \le 2 n - 4$$
.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 9 \leq 2 \times 6 - 4.

$$\Rightarrow$$
 9 \leq 8.

This is a Contradiction.

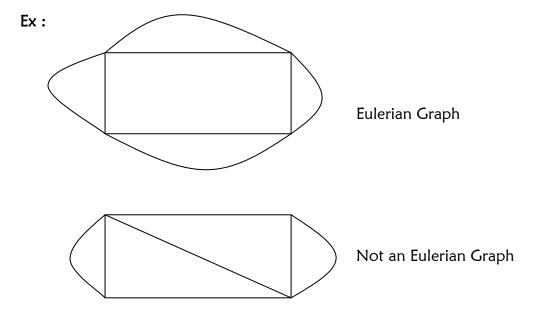
This contradiction is due to supposing $K_{3,3}$ is planar.

Therefore, $K_{3,3}$ is non – planar.

This is true for every $m \ge 3$ and $n \ge 3$.

EULERIAN GRAPH: A closed trail that contains each and every edge exactly once, then that trail is called **Euler trail (or) Euler circuit**.

A Multigraph G is said to be **Eulerian**, if it has an **Euler trail.**

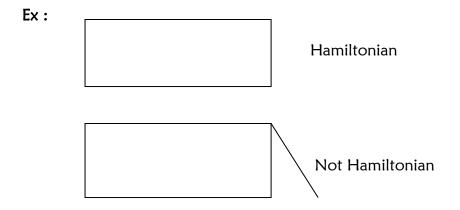


NOTE: A multigraph to be Eulerian, if degree of every vertex is even.

HAMILTONIAN GRAPH:

 $\mbox{\sc A}$ cycle that contains each and every vertex in the graph is called $\mbox{\sc Hamilton}$ cycle .

A Graph G is said to be Hamiltonian, if G has Hamilton cycle

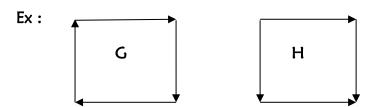


NOTE:

- 1). A pair of vertices in a digraph are **weakly connected** if there is a nondirected path between them.
- 2). A pair of vertices in a digraph are **unilaterally connected** if there is a directed path between them.
- 3). A pair of vertices in a digraph are strongly connected if there is a directed path from x to y and a directed path from y to x.

STRONGLY CONNECTED:

A directed graph G is said to be **strongly connected** if every pair of vertices in the graph is **strongly connected**.



In the above examples, G is strongly connected and H is not strongly connected.

UNILATERALLY CONNECTED:

 $\label{eq:Adirected graph G} A \ directed \ graph \ G \ is \ said \ to \ be \ \mbox{unilaterally connected}$ if every pair of vertices in the graph is unilaterally connected .

WEAKLY CONNECTED:

A directed graph G is said to be **weakly connected** if every pair of vertices in the graph is **weakly connected** .