

COMP9020 Lecture 6

Session 1, 2017

Graphs and Trees

- Textbook (R & W) - Ch. 3, Sec. 3.2; Ch. 6, Sec. 6.1–6.5
- Problem set 6
- Supplementary Exercises Ch. 6 (R & W)
- A. Aho & J. Ullman. *Foundations of Computer Science in C*, p. 522–526 (Ch. 9, Sec. 9.10)

Graphs

Binary relations on finite sets correspond to directed graphs.
Symmetric relations correspond to undirected graphs.

Terminology (the most common; there are many variants):

(Undirected) Graph — pair (V, E) where

V – set of vertices

E – set of edges

Every edge $e \in E$ corresponds uniquely to the set (an unordered pair) $\{x_e, y_e\}$ of vertices $x_e, y_e \in V$.

A *directed* edge is called an *arc*; it corresponds to the ordered pair (x_a, y_a) . A **directed graph** consist of vertices and arcs.

NB

Edges $\{x, y\}$ and arcs (x, y) with $x = y$ are called loops.
We will only consider graphs without loops.

Graphs in Computer Science

Examples

- 1 The WWW can be considered a massive graph where the nodes are web pages and arcs are hyperlinks.
- 2 The possible states of a program form a directed graph.
- 3 The map of the earth can be represented as an undirected graph where edges delineate countries.

NB

Applications of graphs in Computer Science are abundant, e.g.

- route planning in navigation systems, robotics
- optimisation, e.g. timetables, utilisation of network structures
- compilers using “graph colouring” to assign registers to program variables

Vertex Degrees

- **Degree** of a vertex

$$\deg(v) = |\{w \in V : (v, w) \in E\}|$$

i.e., the number of edges attached to the vertex

- **Regular graph** — all degrees are equal
- **Degree sequence** $D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots, D_k$ of graph $G = (V, E)$, where D_i = no. of vertices of degree i

Question

What is $D_0 + D_1 + \dots + D_k$?

- $\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 2 \cdot e(G)$; thus the sum of vertex degrees is always even.
- There is an even number of vertices of odd degree (6.1.8)

Paths

- A **path** in a graph (V, E) is a sequence of edges that link up

$$v_0 \xrightarrow{\{v_0, v_1\}} v_1 \xrightarrow{\{v_1, v_2\}} \dots \xrightarrow{\{v_{n-1}, v_n\}} v_n$$

where $e_i = \{v_{i-1}, v_i\} \in E$

- length** of the path is the number of edges: n
neither the vertices nor the edges have to be all different
- Subpath of length r : $(e_m, e_{m+1}, \dots, e_{m+r-1})$
- Path of length 0: single vertex v_0
- Connected graph** — each pair of vertices joined by a path

Exercises

6.1.13(a) Draw a connected, regular graph on four vertices, each of degree 2

6.1.13(b) Draw a connected, regular graph on four vertices, each of degree 3

6.1.13(c) Draw a connected, regular graph on five vertices, each of degree 3

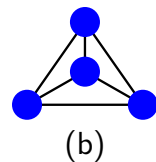
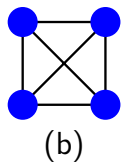
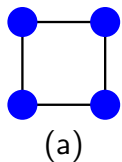
6.1.14(a) Graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

6.1.14(b) Two graphs each with 4 vertices and 4 edges

Exercises

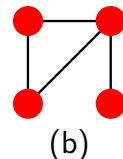
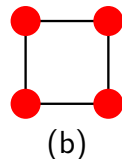
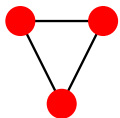
Exercises

6.1.13 Connected, regular graphs on four vertices



none
(c)

6.1.14 Graphs with 3 vertices and 3 edges must have a cycle



NB

We use the notation

$v(G) = |V|$ for the no. of vertices of graph $G = (V, E)$

$e(G) = |E|$ for the no. of edges of graph $G = (V, E)$

6.1.20(a) Graph with $e(G) = 21$ edges has a degree sequence $D_0 = 0, D_1 = 7, D_2 = 3, D_3 = 7, D_4 = ?$
Find $v(G)$!

6.1.20(b) How would your answer change, if at all, when $D_0 = 6$?

Exercises

6.1.20(a) Graph with $e(G) = 21$ edges has a degree sequence $D_0 = 0, D_1 = 7, D_2 = 3, D_3 = 7, D_4 = ?$
Find $v(G)$

$\sum_v \deg(v) = 2|E|$; here
 $7 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 2 + 7 \cdot 3 + x \cdot 4 = 2 \cdot 21$ giving $x = 2$, thus
 $v(G) = \sum D_i = 19$.

6.1.20(b) How would your answer change, if at all, when $D_0 = 6$?
No change to D_4 ; $v(G) = 25$.

Cycles

Recall paths $v_0 \xrightarrow{e_1} v_1 \xrightarrow{e_2} \dots \xrightarrow{e_n} v_n$

- **simple path** — $e_i \neq e_j$ for all edges of the path ($i \neq j$)
- **closed path** — $v_0 = v_n$
- **cycle** — closed path, all other v_i pairwise distinct and $\neq v_0$
- **acyclic path** — $v_i \neq v_j$ for all vertices in the path ($i \neq j$)

NB

- 1 $C = (e_1, \dots, e_n)$ is a cycle iff removing any single edge leaves an acyclic path. (Show that the 'any' condition is needed!)
- 2 C is a cycle if it has the same number of edges and vertices and no subpath has this property. (Show that the 'subpath' condition is needed, i.e., there are graphs G that are **not** cycles and $|E_G| = |V_G|$; every such G must contain a cycle!)

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Trees

- **Acyclic graph** — graph that doesn't contain any cycle
- **Tree** — connected acyclic graph
- A graph is acyclic iff it is a *forest* (collection of disjoint trees)

NB

Graph G is a tree iff

- \Leftrightarrow it is acyclic and $|V_G| = |E_G| + 1$.
(Show how this implies that the graph is connected!)
- \Leftrightarrow there is exactly one simple path between any two vertices.
- \Leftrightarrow G is connected, but becomes disconnected if any single edge is removed.
- \Leftrightarrow G is acyclic, but has a cycle if any single edge on already existing vertices is added.

Exercise (Supplementary)

6.7.3 (Supp) Tree with n vertices, $n \geq 3$.

Always true, false or could be either?

- $e(T) \stackrel{?}{=} n$
- at least one vertex of deg 2
- at least two v_1, v_2 s.t. $\deg(v_1) = \deg(v_2)$
- exactly one path from v_1 to v_2

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Exercise (Supplementary)

6.7.3 (Supp) Tree with n vertices, $n \geq 3$.

Always true, false or could be either?

- (a) $e(T) \stackrel{?}{=} n$ — False
- (b) at least one vertex of deg 2 — Could be either
- (c) at least two v_1, v_2 s.t. $\deg(v_1) = \deg(v_2)$ — True
- (d) exactly one path from v_1 to v_2 — True (characterises a tree)

NB

A tree with one vertex designated as its root is called a rooted tree. It imposes an ordering on the edges: 'away' from the root — from parent nodes to children. This defines a level number (or: depth) of a node as its distance from the root.

Another very common notion in Computer Science is that of a DAG — a directed, acyclic graph.

Graph Isomorphisms

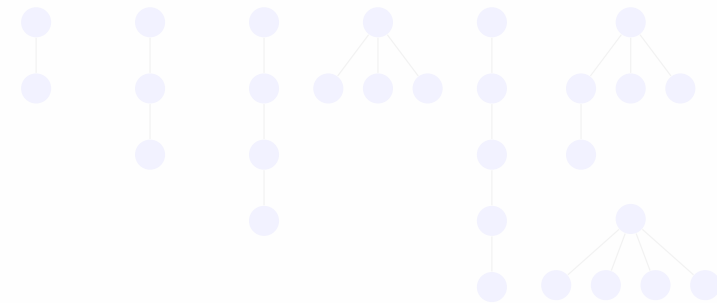
$\phi : G \rightarrow H$ is a *graph isomorphism* if

- (i) $\phi : V_G \rightarrow V_H$ is 1-1 and onto (a so-called *bijection*)
- (ii) $(x, y) \in E_G$ iff $(\phi(x), \phi(y)) \in E_H$

Two graphs are called *isomorphic* if there exists (at least one) isomorphism between them.

Example

All nonisomorphic trees on 2, 3, 4 and 5 vertices.



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Graph Isomorphisms

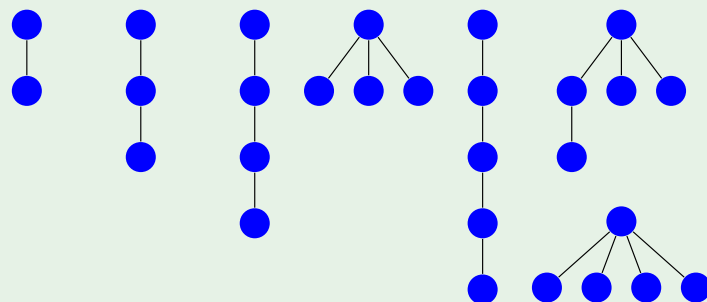
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Automorphisms and Asymmetric Graphs

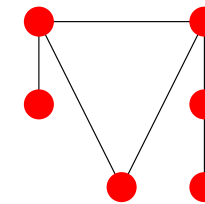
An isomorphism from a graph to itself is called *automorphism*.

Every graph has at least the trivial automorphism;

(trivial meaning $\phi(v) = v$ for all $v \in V_G$)

Graphs with no non-trivial automorphisms are called *asymmetric*.

The smallest non-trivial asymmetric graphs have 6 vertices.



(Can you find another one with 6 nodes? There are seven more.)

Edge Traversal

Definition

- **Euler path** — path containing every edge exactly once
- **Euler circuit** — closed Euler path

Characterisations

- G (connected) has an Euler circuit iff $\deg(v)$ is even for all $v \in V$.
- G (connected) has an Euler path iff either it has an Euler circuit (above) or it has exactly two vertices of odd degree.

NB

- These characterisations apply to graphs with loops as well
- For directed graphs the condition for existence of an Euler circuit is $\text{indeg}(v) = \text{outdeg}(v)$ for all $v \in V$

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Exercises

6.2.11 Construct a graph with vertex set $\{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\}$ and with an edge between vertices if they differ in exactly two coordinates.

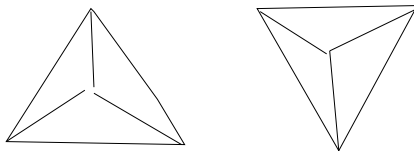
- How many components does this graph have?
- How many vertices of each degree?
- Euler circuit?

6.2.12 As Ex. 6.2.11 but with an edge between vertices if they differ in two or three coordinates.

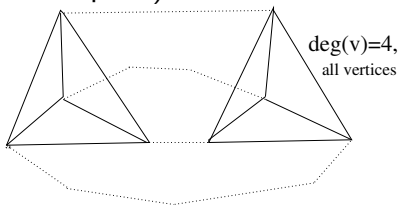
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Exercises

6.2.11 This graph consists of all the *face diagonals* of a cube. It has two disjoint components. No Euler circuit



6.2.12 (Refer to Ex. 6.2.11 and connect the vertices from different components in pairs)



Must have an Euler circuit (why?)

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Special Graphs

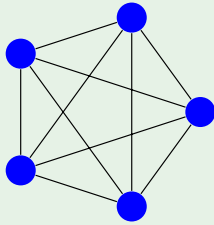
- **Complete graph K_n**
 n vertices, all pairwise connected, $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ edges.
- **Complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$**
 Has $m + n$ vertices, partitioned into two (disjoint) sets, one of n , the other of m vertices.
 All vertices from different parts are connected; vertices from the same part are disconnected. No. of edges is $m \cdot n$.
- **Complete k -partite graph K_{m_1, \dots, m_k}**
 Has $m_1 + \dots + m_k$ vertices, partitioned into k disjoint sets, respectively of m_1, m_2, \dots vertices.
 No. of edges is $\sum_{i < j} m_i m_j = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} m_i m_j$
 - These graphs generalise the complete graphs $K_n = K_{\underbrace{1, \dots, 1}_n}$

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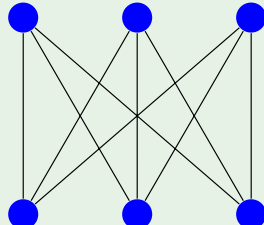
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Example

K_5 :



$K_{3,3}$:



6.2.14 Which complete graphs K_n have an Euler circuit?
When do bipartite, 3-partite complete graphs have an Euler circuit?

K_n has an Euler circuit for n odd

$K_{m,n}$ — when both m and n are even

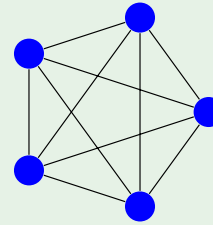
$K_{p,q,r}$ — when $p+q, p+r, q+r$ are all even, ie. when p, q, r are all even or all odd

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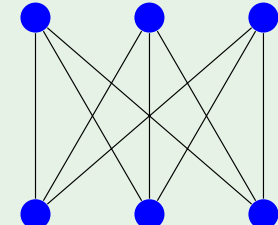
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Example

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$K_{m,n}$ — when both m and n are even

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Vertex Traversal

Definition

- **Hamiltonian path** visits every vertex of graph exactly once
- **Hamiltonian circuit** visits every vertex exactly once except the last one, which duplicates the first

NB

Finding such a circuit, or proving it does not exist, is a difficult problem — the worst case is NP-complete.

Examples (when the circuit exists)

- All five regular polyhedra (verify!)
- n -cube; Hamiltonian circuit = Gray code
- K_m for all m ; $K_{m,n}$ iff $m = n$; $K_{a,b,c}$ iff a, b, c satisfy the triangle inequalities: $a + b \geq c$, $a + c \geq b$, $b + c \geq a$
- Knight's tour on a chessboard (incl. rectangular boards)

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Examples when a Hamiltonian circuit does not exist are much harder to construct.

Also, given such a graph it is nontrivial to verify that indeed there is no such a circuit: there is nothing obvious to specify that could assure us about this property.

In contrast, if a circuit is given, it is immediate to verify that it is a Hamiltonian circuit.

These situations demonstrate the often enormous discrepancy in difficulty of 'proving' versus (simply) 'checking'.

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Exercises

6.5.5(a) How many Hamiltonian circuits does $K_{n,n}$ have?

Let $V = V_1 \dot{\cup} V_2$

- start at any vertex in V_1
- go to any vertex in V_2
- go to any *new* vertex in V_1
-

There are $n!$ ways to order each part and two ways to choose the 'first' part, implying $c = 2(n!)^2$ circuits.

Exercises

6.5.5(a) How many Hamiltonian circuits does $K_{n,n}$ have?

Let $V = V_1 \dot{\cup} V_2$

- start at any vertex in V_1
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-

There are $n!$ ways to order each part and two ways to choose the 'first' part, implying $c = 2(n!)^2$ circuits.

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Colouring

Informally: assigning a "colour" to each vertex (e.g. a node in an electric or transportation network) so that the vertices connected by an edge have different colours.

Formally: A mapping $c : V \rightarrow [1 \dots n]$ such that for every $e = (v, w) \in E$

$$c(v) \neq c(w)$$

The minimum n sufficient to effect such a mapping is called the **chromatic number** of a graph $G = (E, V)$ and is denoted $\chi(G)$.

NB

This notion is extremely important in operations research, esp. in scheduling.

There is a dual notion of 'edge colouring' — two edges that share a vertex need to have different colours. Curiously enough, it is much less useful in practice.

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Properties of the Chromatic Number

- $\chi(K_n) = n$
- If G has n vertices and $\chi(G) = n$ then $G = K_n$

Proof.

Suppose that G is 'missing' the edge (v, w) , as compared with K_n . Colour all vertices, except w , using $n - 1$ colours. Then assign to w the same colour as that of v . □

- If $\chi(G) = 1$ then G is totally disconnected: it has 0 edges.
- If $\chi(G) = 2$ then G is bipartite.
- For any tree $\chi(T) = 2$.
- For any cycle C_n its chromatic number depends on the parity of n — for n even $\chi(C_n) = 2$, while for n odd $\chi(C_n) = 3$.

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Cliques

Graph (V', E') *subgraph* of (V, E) — $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.

Definition

A **clique** in G is a *complete* subgraph of G . A clique of k nodes is called *k-clique*.

The size of the largest clique is called the *clique number* of the graph and denoted $\kappa(G)$.

Theorem

$$\chi(G) \geq \kappa(G).$$

Proof.

Every vertex of a clique requires a different colour, hence there must be at least $\kappa(G)$ colours. \square

However, this is the only restriction. For any given k there are graphs with $\kappa(G) = k$, while $\chi(G)$ can be arbitrarily large.

NB

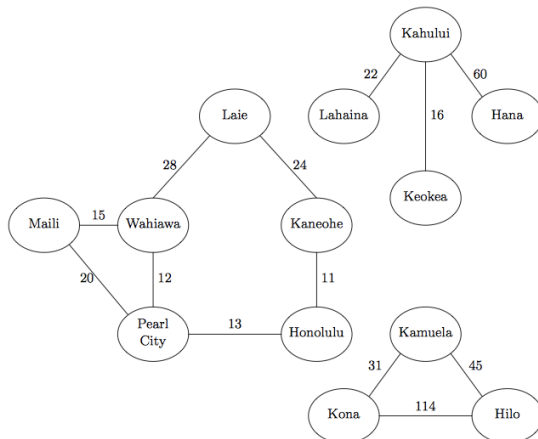
This fact (and such graphs) are important in the analysis of parallel computation algorithms.

- $\kappa(K_n) = n$, $\kappa(K_{m,n}) = 2$, $\kappa(K_{m_1, \dots, m_r}) = r$.
- If $\kappa(G) = 1$ then G is totally disconnected.
- For a tree $\kappa(T) = 2$.
- For a cycle C_n
 $\kappa(C_3) = 3$, $\kappa(C_4) = \kappa(C_5) = \dots = 2$

The difference between $\kappa(G)$ and $\chi(G)$ is apparent with just $\kappa(G) = 2$ — this does not imply that G is bipartite. For example, the cycle C_n for any odd n has $\chi(C_n) = 3$.

Exercise

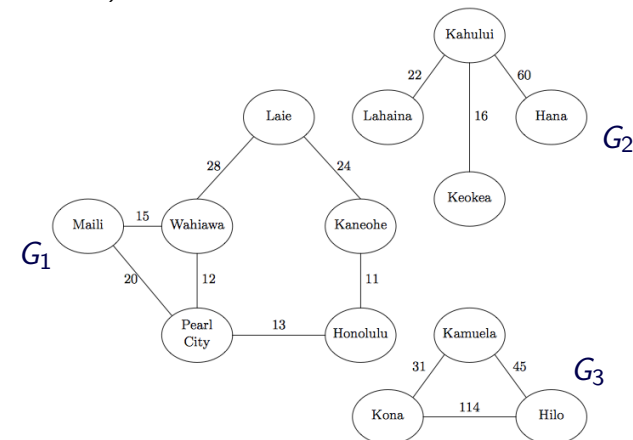
9.10.1 (Ullmann)



$\chi(G)$? $\kappa(G)$? A largest clique?

Exercise

9.10.1 (Ullmann)



$$\chi(G_1) = \kappa(G_1) = 3; \quad \chi(G_2) = \kappa(G_2) = 2; \quad \chi(G_3) = \kappa(G_3) = 3$$

9.10.3 (Ullmann) Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. What inequalities must hold between

- the maximal $\deg(v)$ for $v \in V$
- $\chi(G)$
- $\kappa(G)$

$$\max_{v \in V} \deg(v) + 1 \geq \chi(G) \geq \kappa(G)$$

9.10.3 (Ullmann) Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. What inequalities must hold between

- the maximal $\deg(v)$ for $v \in V$
- $\chi(G)$
- $\kappa(G)$

$$\max_{v \in V} \deg(v) + 1 \geq \chi(G) \geq \kappa(G)$$

Planar Graphs

Definition

A graph is **planar** if it can be embedded in a plane without its edges intersecting.

Theorem

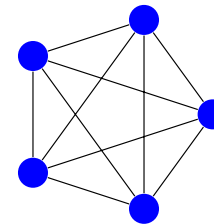
If the graph is planar it can be embedded (without self-intersections) in a plane so that all its edges are straight lines.

NB

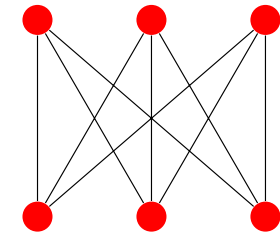
This notion and its related algorithms are extremely important to VLSI and visualizing data.

Two minimal nonplanar graphs

K_5 :

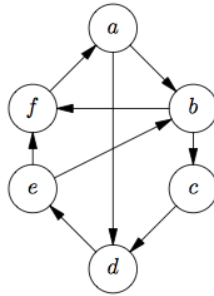


$K_{3,3}$:



Exercise

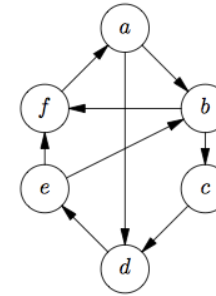
9.10.2 (Ullmann)



Is (the undirected version of) this graph planar? Yes

Exercise

9.10.2 (Ullmann)



Is (the undirected version of) this graph planar? Yes

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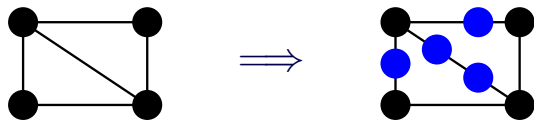
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Theorem

If graph G contains, as a subgraph, a nonplanar graph, then G itself is nonplanar.

For a graph, *edge subdivision* means to introduce some new vertices, all of degree 2, by placing them on existing edges.



We call such a derived graph a *subdivision* of the original one.

Theorem

If a graph is nonplanar then it must contain a subdivision of K_5 or $K_{3,3}$.

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Theorem

K_n for $n \geq 5$ is nonplanar.

Proof.

It contains K_5 : choose any five vertices in K_n and consider the subgraph they define. □

Theorem

$K_{m,n}$ is nonplanar when $m \geq 3$ and $n \geq 3$.

Proof.

They contain $K_{3,3}$ — choose any three vertices in each of two vertex parts and consider the subgraph they define. □

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Question

Are all $K_{m,1}$ planar?

Answer

Yes, they are trees of two levels — the root and m leaves.

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Answer

Yes, they are trees of two levels — the root and m leaves.

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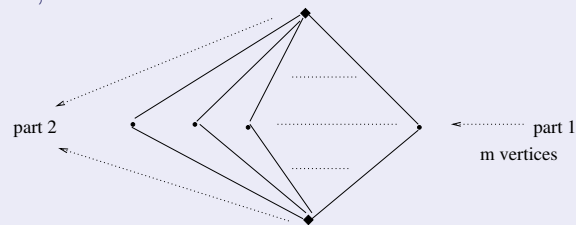
Question

Are all $K_{m,2}$ planar?

Answer

Yes; they can be represented by “glueing” together two such trees at the leaves.

Sketching $K_{m,2}$



Also, among the k -partite graphs, planar are $K_{2,2,2}$ and $K_{1,1,m}$. The latter can be depicted by drawing one extra edge in $K_{2,m}$, connecting the top and bottom vertices.

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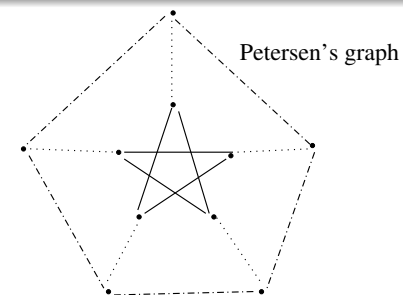
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NB

Finding a 'basic' nonplanar obstruction is not always simple



It contains a subdivision of both $K_{3,3}$ and K_5 while it does not directly contain either of them.

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Summary

- Graphs, trees, vertex degree, connected graphs, paths, cycles
- Graph isomorphisms, automorphisms
- Special graphs: complete, complete bi-, k -partite
- Traversals
 - Euler paths and circuits (edge traversal)
 - Hamiltonian paths and circuits (vertex traversal)
- Graph properties: chromatic number, clique number, planarity