Graphs Undirected graphs Directed graphs **Definitions** Directed graph Degrees **Theorem Proof** Complete graphs Cycles n-cubes Bipartite graphs Definition **Examples** Show that C_6 is bipartite Show that C_3 is not bipartite Complete Bipartite Graphs Definition Subgraphs Definition Example Induced subgraphs **Definition** Example Bipartite graphs Matching in Bipartite Graphs Matching Maximum matching Perfect/complete matchings Hall's Marriage Theorem **Theorem Proof** Corollary Union of graphs Definition **Examples** Adjacency lists Definition Example Adjacency matrices Definition Examples Example 1 Example 2 Adjacency matrices (continued)

Isomorphism of graphs
Definition
Example

Paths (in undirected graphs)

Definition

More

Connectedness

Definition

Proposition

Proof

Connected components

Strongly connected graphs

Euler/Hamiltonian paths and circuits

Definitions

Graph colouring

Definition

Observations

Graphs

Undirected graphs

For a set V, let $[V]^k$ denote the set of k-element subsets of V. (Equivalently, $[V]^k$ is the set of all k-combinations of V.)

A (simple, undirected) graph G=(V,E), consists of a set of vertices $V\neq\emptyset$, and a set $E\subseteq [V]^2$ of edges.

Every edge $\{u,v\} \in E$ has two distinct vertices $u \neq v$ as **endpoints**, and such vertices u and v are then said to be **adjacent** in the graph G.

The above definitions allow for infinite graphs, where $|V| = \infty$.

Directed graphs

Definitions

Directed graph

A directed graph, G=(V,E), consists of a set of vertices $V\neq\emptyset$, and a set $E\subseteq V\times V$ of directed edges.

Each directed edge $(u, v) \in E$ has a **start (tail)** vertex u, and an **end (head)** vertex v.

Degrees

The **in-degree** of a vertex v, denoted $deg^-(v)$, is the number of edges directed into v. The **out-degree** of v, denoted $deg^+(v)$, is the number of edges directed out of v. Note that a loop at a vertex contributes 1 to both in-degree and out-degree.

Theorem

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

Then:

$$|E|=\sum_{v\in V}\deg^-(v)=\sum_{v\in V}\deg^+(v)$$

Proof

The first sum counts the number of outgoing edges over all vertices and the second sum counts the number of incoming edges over all vertices. Both sums must be |E|.

Complete graphs

A **complete graph on n vertices**, denoted by K_n , is the simple graph that contains exactly one edge between each pair of distinct vertices.

A complete graph K_n has n vertices and $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ edges.

Cycles

A **cycle** C_n for $n \geq 3$ consists of n vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n and edges $\{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \ldots, \{v_{n-1}, v_n\}, \{v_n, v_1\}.$

n-cubes

An **n-dimensional hypercube** or **n-cube**, is a graph with 2^n vertices representing all bit strings of length n, where there is an edge between two vertices iff they differ in exactly one bit position.

For example:

- A vertex 011 on a **3-cube** would have edges connecting to vertices 001, 010 and 111.
- A vertex 110010 on a **6-cube** would have edges connecting to vertices 110011, 110000, 110110, 111010, 100010 and 010010.

Bipartite graphs

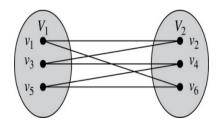
Definition

An equivalent definition of a bipartite graph is one where it is possible to **color** the vertices either red or blue so that no two adjacent vertices are the same color.

Examples

Show that C_6 is bipartite

Partition the vertex set V into $V_1 = \{v_1, v_3, v_5\}$ and $V_2 = \{v_2, v_4, v_6\}$.



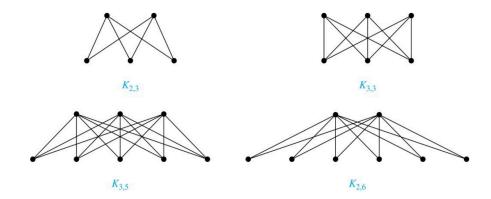
Show that C_3 is not bipartite

If we partition vertices of C_3 into two non-empty sets, one set must contain two vertices. But every vertex is connected to every other. So, the two vertices in the same partition are connected. Hence, C_3 is not bipartite.

Complete Bipartite Graphs

Definition

A **complete bipartite graph** is a graph that has its vertex set V partitioned into two subsets V_1 of size m and V_2 of size n such that there is an edge from every vertex in V_1 to every vertex in V_2 .

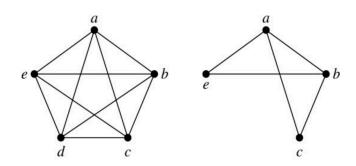


Subgraphs

Definition

A subgraph of a graph G=(V,E) is a graph (W,F), where $W\subseteq V$ and $F\subseteq E$. A subgraph H of G is a **proper subgraph** of G if $H\neq G$.

Example



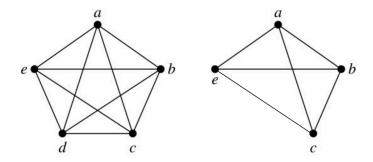
Induced subgraphs

Definition

Let G = (V, E) be a graph. The **subgraph induced** by a subset W of the vertex set V is the graph H = (W, F), whose edge set F contains an edge in E iff both endpoints are in W.

Example

Here is K_5 and its **induced subgraph** induced by $W = \{a, b, c, e\}$.



Bipartite graphs

A **bipartite graph** is a (undirected) graph G=(V,E) whose vertices can be partitioned into two disjoint sets (V_1,V_2) , with $V_1\cap V_2=\emptyset$ and $V_1\cup V_2=V$, such that for every edge $e\in E, e=\{u,v\}$ such that $u\in V_1$ and $v\in V_2$. In other words, every edge connects a vertex in V_1 with a vertex in V_2 .

This is an alternative definition to the *coloring* definition.

Matching in Bipartite Graphs

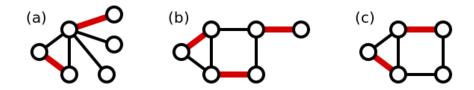
Matching

A **matching** M, in a graph G=(V,E), is a subset of edges, $M\subseteq E$, such that there does not exist two distinct edges in M that are incident on the same vertex. In other words, if $\{u,v\},\{w,z\}\in M$, then either $\{u,v\}=\{w,z\}$ or $\{u,v\}\cap\{w,z\}=\emptyset$.

i.e. the set of pairwise non-adjacent edges; that is, no two edges share a common vertex.

Maximum matching

A **maximum matching** in graph G is a matching in G with the maximum possible number of edges.



Perfect/complete matchings

For a graph G=(V,E), we say that a subset of edges, $W\subseteq E$, **covers** a subset of vertices, $A\subseteq V$, if for all vertices $u\in A$ there exists an edge $e\in W$, such that e is incident on u, i.e., such that $e=\{u,v\}$, for some vertex v.

In a bipartite graph G=(V,E) with bipartition (V_1,V_2) , a **complete matching** with respect to V_1 , is a matching $M'\subseteq E$ that covers V_1 , and a **perfect matching** is a matching, $M^*\subseteq E$, that covers V.

Figure (b) above is an example of a perfect matching.

Hall's Marriage Theorem

Theorem

For a bipartite graph G=(V,E), with bipartition (V_1,V_2) , there exists a matching $M\subseteq E$ that covers V_1 iff $\forall S\subseteq V_1, |S|\leq |N(S)|$.

Proof

Slides 5-8 on Lecture 19.

Corollary

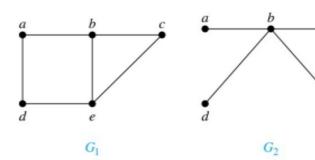
A bipartite graph G=(V,E) with bipartition (V_1,V_2) has a **perfect** matching iff $|V_1|=|V_2|$ and $\forall S\subseteq V_1,|S|\leq |N_G(S)|$.

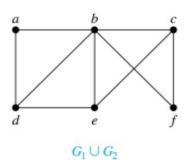
Union of graphs

Definition

The **union** of two simple graphs $G_1=(V_1,E_1)$ and $G_2=(V_2,E_2)$ is the simple graph with vertex set $V_1\cup V_2$ and edge set $E_1\cup E_2$. The union of G_1 and G_2 is denoted by $G_1\cup G_2$.

Examples





Adjacency lists

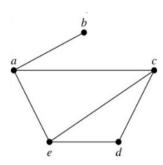
Definition

An **adjacency list** represents a graph (with no multiple edges) by specifying the vertices that are adjacent to each vertex.

Example

Vertex	Adjacent vertices
a	b,c,e
b	a
c	a,d,e
d	c,e
e	a, c, d

This adjacency list corresponds to the graph:



Adjacency matrices

Definition

Suppose that G=(V,E) is a simple graph where |V|=n. Arbitrarily list the vertices of G as v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n .

The adjacency matrix, $\bf A$, of G, with respect to this listing of vertices, is the $n \times n$ (0-1) matrix with its $(i,j)^{th}$ entry = 1 when v_i and v_j are adjacent, and = 0 when they are not adjacent.

In other words: $A = [a_{ij}]$ and:

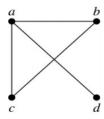
$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & ext{if } \{v_i, v_j\} ext{ is an edge of } G \\ 0, & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Examples

Example 1

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

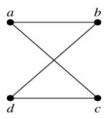
Corresponds to the graph:



Example 2

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Corresponds to the graph:



Adjacency matrices (continued)

• The adjacency matrix of an undirected graph is **symmetric**:

$$a_{ij} = a_{ji}, orall i, j$$

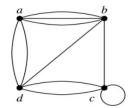
Also, since there are no loops, each diagonal entry is zero: $a_{ii}=0, orall i.$

- Adjacency matrices can also be used to represent graphs with loops and multi-edges.
- When multiple edges connect vertices v_i and v_j , (or if multiple loops present at the same vertex), the $(i,j)^{th}$ entry equals the number of edges connecting the pair of vertices.

Example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 0 & 2 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Corresponds to the graph:



• Adjacency matrices can represent directed graphs in exactly the same way.

The matrix $\bf A$ for a directed graph G=(V,E) has a 1 in its $(i,j)^{th}$ position if there is an edge from v_i to v_j , where v_1,v_2,\ldots,v_n is a list of the vertices.

In other words:

$$egin{aligned} a_{ij} &= 1 & \quad ext{if } (i,j) \in E \ a_{ij} &= 0 & \quad ext{if } (i,j)
otin E \end{aligned}$$

Note: The adjacency matrix for a directed graph does not have to be symmetric.

• A **sparse** graph has few edges relative to the number of possible edges.

Sparse graphs are more efficient to represent using an adjacency list than an adjacency matrix. But for a **dense** graph, an adjacency matrix is often preferable.

Isomorphism of graphs

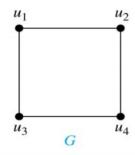
Definition

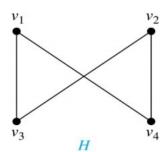
Two (undirected) graphs $G_1=(V_1,E_1)$ and $G_2=(V_2,E_2)$ are **isomorphic** if there is a bijection, $f:V_1\mapsto V_2$, with the property that for all vertices $a,b\in V_1$:

$$\{a,b\} \in E_1 \iff \{f(a),f(b)\} \in E_2$$

Such a function f is called an **isomorphism**.

Intuitively, isomorphic graphs are the same except for the renamed vertices.





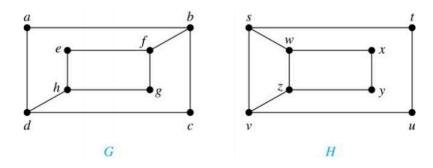
It is difficult to determine whether two graphs are isomorphic by brute force: there are $\mathbf{n}!$ bijections between vertices of n-vertex graphs.

To show that two graphs are not isomorphic, we can find a property that only one of the two graphs has. Such a property is called **graph invariant**:

e.g.

- Number of vertices of given degree
- Degree sequence (list of the degrees)
- Number of edges
- Number of cycles

Example



These graphs are not isomorphic. This is because deg(a) = 2 in G, a must correspond to t, u, x or y, since these are the vertices of degree 2 in H.

But each of these vertices is adjacent to another vertex of degree 2 in H, which is not true for a in G. So, G and H can not be isomorphic.

Paths (in undirected graphs)

Informally, a path is a sequence of edges connecting vertices.

Definition

For an undirected graph G=(V,E), an integer $n\geq 0$, and vertices $u,v\in V$, a path (or walk) of length n from u to v in G is a sequence:

$$x_0, e_1, x_1, e_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}, e_n, x_n$$

of interleaved vertices $x_j \in V$ and edges $e_1 \in E$, such that $x_0 = u$ and $x_n = v$, and such that $e_i = \{x_{i-1}, x_i\} \in E \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}.$

Such a path starts at u and ends at v. A path of length $n \ge 1$ is called a **circuit** (or **cycle**) if $n \ge 1$ and the path starts and ends at the same vertex, i.e. u = v.

A path or circuit is called **simple** if it does not contain the same edge more than once.

More

Don't confuse a simple undirected graph with a simple path.

There can be a simple path in a non-simple graph, and a non-simple path in a simple graph.

A path is **tidy** when no vertex is repeated.

A path is **simple** when no edge is repeated.

Connectedness

Definition

An undirected graph G=(V,E) is called **connected** if there is a path between every pair of distinct vertices. It is called **disconnected** otherwise.

Proposition

There is always a simple, and tidy, path between any pair of vertices u, v of a connected undirected graph G.

Proof

Read slide 7

Connected components

A **connected component** H=(V',E') of a graph G=(V,E) is a maximal connected subgraph of G, meaning H is connected and $V'\subseteq V$ and $E'\subseteq E$ but H is not a proper subgraph of a larger connected subgraph R of G.

Strongly connected graphs

A directed graph G = (V, E) is **strongly connected** if for every pair of vertices in u and v in V, there is a directed path from u to v, and a directed path from v to u.

It is **weakly connected** if there is a path between every pair of vertices in V in the underlying undirected graph (meaning we ignore the direction of edges).

A **strongly connected component** of a directed graph G, is a maximal strongly connected subgraph H of G which is not contained in a larger strongly connected subgraph of G.

Euler/Hamiltonian paths and circuits

Definitions

An **Euler path** in a multigraph G is a simple path that contains every edge of G. (so every edge occurs exactly once in the path)

An **Euler circuit** in a multigraph G is a simple circuit that contains every edge of G. (so every edge occurs exactly once in the circuit)

A **Hamiltonian path** is a multigraph G is a simple path that passes through every vertex (not necessarily each edge), exactly once.

A **Hamiltonian circuit** is a multigraph G is a simple circuit that passes through every vertex (not necessarily each edge), exactly once.

Graph colouring

Definition

Suppose we have k disinct colours with which to colour the vertices of a graph. Let $[k] = \{1, \ldots, k\}$. For an undirected graph, G = (V, E), an admissable vertex k-colouring of G is a function $c: V \to [k]$, such that $\forall u, v \in V$, $\{u, v\} \in E \implies c(u) \neq c(v)$.

For an integer $k \ge 1$, we say an undirected graph G = (V, E), is k-colourable if there exists a k-colouring of G.

The **chromatic number** of G, denoted $\chi(G)$, is the smallest positive integer k, such that G is k-colourable.

Observations

- Any graph *G* with *n* vertices is *n*-colourable.
- The n-clique, K_n i.e., the complete graph on n vertices, has chromatic number $\chi(K_n) = n$. All its vertices must get assigned different colours in any admissable colouring.
- The **clique number**, $\omega(G)$, of graph G is the maximum positive integer $r \geq 1$, such that K_r is a subgraph of G.
- For all graphs $G, \omega(G) < \chi(G)$: G has a r-clique \implies G is not (r-1)-colourable.
- In general, $\omega(G) \neq \chi(G)$.

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e.g. C_5 has \omega(C_5)=2 and \chi(C_5)=3. Note that in this case, \omega(C_5)<\chi(C_5).
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- Any bipartite graph is 2-colourable. This is an alternative definition of being bipartite.
- Generally, a graph G is k-colourable precisely if it is k-partite, meaning its vertices can be partitioned into k disjoint sets such that all edges of the graph are between nodes in different parts.