## Math 239 Reference

**Theorem 1** For every  $n \geq 1$ , the number of lists of an n-element set S is

$$n(n-1)(n-2)...3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

**Theorem 2** For every  $n \geq 0$ , the number of subsets of an n-element set S is  $2^n$ .

**Theorem 3** For  $n, k \geq 0$ , the number of partial lists of length k of an n-element set is

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

**Theorem 4** For  $0 \le k \le n$ , the number of k-element subsets of an n-element set is

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

**Definition 1 (Multiset)** Let  $n \ge 0$  and  $t \ge 1$  be integers. A multiset of size n with elements of t types is a sequence of nonnegative integers  $(m_1, ..., m_t)$  such that

$$m_1 + m_2 + \dots + m_t = n$$

**Theorem 5** For any  $n \ge 0$  and  $t \ge 1$ , the number of n-element multisets with elements of t types is

$$\binom{n+t-1}{t-1}$$

**Definition 2** Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function from set A to set B.

- The function f is surjective if for every  $b \in B$ , there exists an  $a \in A$  such that f(a) = b.
- The function f is injective if for every  $a, a' \in A$ , if f(a) = f(a'), then a = a'
- The function f is bijective if it is both surjective and injective.
- The notation  $A \rightleftharpoons B$  indicates there is a bijection between sets A and B.

**Theorem 6** Let  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to A$  be functions between two sets A and B. Assume the following:

- $\forall a \in A, g(f(a)) = a$
- $\forall b \in B, f(g(b)) = b$

Then both f and g are bijections. Moreover, for  $a \in A$  and  $b \in B$ , we have f(a) = b iff g(b) = a.

**Theorem 7 (Inclusion/Exclusion)** Let  $A_1, A_2, ..., A_m$  be finite sets. Then

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_m| = \sum_{\emptyset \neq S \subseteq \{1,...,m\}} (-1)^{|S|-1} |A_S|$$

Theorem 8 (Binomial Theorem) For any natural number  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$$

Theorem 9 (Binomial Series) For any positive integer  $t \geq 1$ ,

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{n+t-1}{t-1} x^n$$

**Definition 3 (Weight Function)** Let A be a set. A function  $\omega : A \to \mathbb{N}$  is a weight function provided that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$\mathcal{A}_n = \omega^{-1}(n) = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{A} : \omega(\alpha) = n \}$$

is finite.

**Definition 4 (Generating Series)** Let A be a set with a weight function  $\omega$ :  $A \to \mathbb{N}$ . The generating series of A with respect to  $\omega$  is

$$A(x) = \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}^{\omega}(x) = \sum_{\alpha \in A} x^{\omega(\alpha)}$$

**Theorem 10** Let A be a set with a weight function  $\omega : A \to \mathbb{N}$ , and let

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

For every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the number of elements of  $\mathcal{A}$  of weight n is  $a_n = |\mathcal{A}_n|$ .

**Definition 5** Let  $G(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n x^n$  be any power series. Then for any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$[x^k]G(x) = g_k$$

is the coefficient of  $x^k$  in the power series G(x).

**Lemma 11 (Sum Lemma)** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  be disjoint sets, so that  $\mathcal{A} \cap \mathcal{B} = \emptyset$ . Assume that  $\omega : (\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}) \to \mathbb{N}$  is a weight function on the union of  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$ . We may regard  $\omega$  as a weight function on each of  $\mathcal{A}$  or  $\mathcal{B}$  separately (by restriction). Under these conditions,

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B}}(x) = \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(x) + \Phi_{\mathcal{B}}(x)$$

**Lemma 12 (Infinite Sum Lemma)** Let  $A_0, A_1, ...$  be pairwise disjoint sets (so that  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  if  $i \neq j$ ), and let  $\mathcal{B} = \bigcup_{j=0}^{\infty} A_j$ . Assume that  $\omega : \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{N}$  is a weight function. We may regard  $\omega$  as a weight function on each of the sets  $A_j$  separately (by restriction). Under these conditions,

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{B}}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Phi_{\mathcal{A}_j}(x)$$

**Lemma 13 (Product Lemma)** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  be sets with weight functions  $\omega : \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{N}$  and  $v : \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{N}$ , respectively. Define  $\eta : \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{N}$  by putting  $\eta(\alpha, \beta) = \omega(\alpha) + v(\beta)$  for all  $(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ . Then  $\eta$  is a weight function on  $\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}$ , and

$$\Phi^{\eta}_{\mathcal{A}\times\mathcal{B}}(x) = \Phi^{\omega}_{\mathcal{A}}(x) \cdot \Phi^{v}_{\mathcal{B}}(x)$$

**Lemma 14** Let A be a set with weight function  $\omega : A \to \mathbb{N}$ , and define

$$\mathcal{A}^* = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{A}^k$$

with  $\omega^* : \mathcal{A}^* \to \mathbb{N}$  where  $\omega^* = \omega_k$  for each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\omega^*$  is a weight function on  $\mathcal{A}^*$  if and only if there are no elements in  $\mathcal{A}$  of weight zero (that is,  $\mathcal{A}_0 = \emptyset$ ).

**Lemma 15 (String Lemma)** Let A be a set with a weight function  $\omega : A \to \mathbb{N}$  such that there are no elements of A of weight zero. Then

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{A}^*}(x) = \frac{1}{1 - \Phi_{\mathcal{A}}(x)}$$

**Definition 6 (Composition)** A composition is a finite sequence of positive integers

$$\gamma = (c_1, c_2, ..., c_k)$$

in which  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and each  $c_i \geq 1$ . The entries  $c_i$  are called the parts of the composition. The length of the composition is  $l(\gamma) = k$ , the number of parts. The size of the composition is

$$|\gamma| = c_1 + \dots + c_k,$$

the sum of the parts.

**Theorem 16** Let  $P = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}.$ 

- 1. The set C of all compositions is  $C = P^*$
- 2. The generating series for C with respect to size is

$$\Phi_{\mathcal{C}}(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1 - 2x}$$

3. For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , the number of compositions of size n is

$$|\mathcal{C}_n| = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0\\ 2^{n-1} & n \ge 1 \end{cases}$$

**Definition 7 (Binary String)** A binary string is a finite sequence  $\sigma = b_1b_2...b_n$  in which each bit  $b_i$  is either 0 or 1. The number of bits is the length of the string, denoted  $l(\sigma) = n$ . Thus, a binary string of length n is an element of the Cartesian power  $\{0,1\}^n$ . A binary string of arbitrary length is an element of the set  $\{0,1\}^*$ . There is exactly one binary string  $\epsilon = 0$  of length zero, the empty string with no bits.

**Definition 8 (Regular Expression)** A regular expression is defined recursively, as follows.

- All of  $\epsilon$ , 0, and 1 are regular expressions.
- ullet If R and S are regular expressions, then so is R  $\smile$  S
- If R and S are regular expressions, then so is RS
- If R is a regular expression, then so is R\*

**Definition 9 (Concatenation Product)** Let  $\alpha = a_1 a_2 ... a_m, \beta = b_1 b_2 ... b_n \in \{0,1\}^*$  be binary strings. The concatenation of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  is

$$\alpha\beta = a_1 a_2 ... a_m b_1 b_2 ... b_n$$

Let  $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  be sets of binary strings. The concatenation product  $\mathcal{AB}$  is the set

$$\mathcal{AB} = \{\alpha\beta : \alpha \in \mathcal{A}, \beta \in \mathcal{B}\}\$$

**Definition 10 (Rational Language)** A rational language is a set  $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  of binary strings that is produced by a regular expression; this is defined recursively as follows.

- $\epsilon$  produces  $\{\epsilon\}$ , 1 produces  $\{1\}$ , and 0 produces  $\{0\}$
- If R produces  $\mathcal{R}$  and S produces  $\mathcal{S}$ , then  $R \smile S$  produces  $\mathcal{R} \cup \mathcal{S}$
- ullet If R produces  $\mathcal R$  and S produces  $\mathcal S$ , then RS produces  $\mathcal R\mathcal S$
- If R produces  $\mathcal{R}$ , then  $R^*$  produces  $\mathcal{R}^*$

**Definition 11 (Unambiguous Expression)** Let R be a regular expression that produces a rational language  $\mathcal{R}$ . Then R is unambiguous if every string in  $\mathcal{R}$  is produced exactly once by R. If an expression is not unambiguous then it is ambiguous.

**Lemma 17** Let R and S be unambiguous expressions producing the sets  $\mathcal{R}$  and  $\mathcal{S}$ , respectively.

- The expressions 0, 1, and  $\epsilon$  are unambiguous
- The expression  $R \smile S$  is unambiguous if and only if  $R \cap S = \emptyset$
- The expression RS is unambiguous if and only if there is a bijection  $\mathcal{RS} \rightleftharpoons \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{S}$
- The expression  $R^*$  is unambiguous if and only if each of the concatenation products  $R^k$  are unambiguous and the union  $\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{R}^k$  is a disjoint union of sets.

**Definition 12** A regular expression leads to a rational function; this is defined recursively, as follows. Assume that R and S are regular expressions that lead to R(x) and S(x), respectively.

- $\bullet$   $\epsilon$  leads to 1, 1 leads to x, and 0 leads to x
- The expression  $R \smile S$  leads to R(x) + S(x)
- The expression RS leads to R(x)S(x)
- The expression  $R^*$  leads to  $\frac{1}{1-R(x)}$

**Theorem 18** Let R be a regular expression producing the rational language  $\mathcal{R}$  and leading to the rational function R(x). If R is an unambiguous regular expression for  $\mathcal{R}$  then  $R(x) = \Phi_{\mathcal{R}}(x)$ , the generating series for  $\mathcal{R}$  with respect to length.

Definition 13 (Block Decompositions) The regular expressions

$$0^*(1^*10^*0)^*1^*$$
 and  $1^*(0^*01^*1)0^*$ 

are unambiguous expressions for the set  $\{0,1\}^*$  of all binary strings.

**Theorem 19** Let  $\kappa \in \{0,1\}^*$  be a non-empty string of length n, and let  $\mathcal{A} = \mathcal{A}_{\kappa}$  be the set of binary strings that avoid  $\kappa$ . Let  $\mathcal{C}$  be the set of all nonempty suffixes  $\gamma$  of  $\kappa$  such that  $\kappa \gamma = \eta \kappa$  for some non-empty prefix  $\eta$  of  $\kappa$ . Let  $C(x) = \sum_{\gamma \in \mathcal{C}} x^{l(\gamma)}$ . Then,

$$A(x) = \frac{1 + C(x)}{(1 - 2x)(1 + C(x)) + x^n}$$

**Definition 14 (Homogeneous Linear Recurrence Relation)** Let  $\mathbf{g} = (g_0, g_1, ...)$  be an infinite sequence of complex numbers. Let  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_d$  be in  $\mathbb{C}$ , and let  $N \geq d$  be an integer. We say that  $\mathbf{g}$  satisfies a homogeneous linear recurrence relation provided that

$$g_n + a_1 g_{n-1} + \dots + a_d g_{n-d} = 0$$

for all  $n \geq N$ . The values  $g_0, ..., g_{N-1}$  are initial conditions of the recurrence. The relation is linear because the LHS is a linear combination of the entries of the sequence  $\mathbf{g}$ ; it is homogeneous because the RHS of the equation is zero.

**Theorem 20** Let  $\mathbf{g} = (g_0, g_1, ...)$  be an infinite sequence of complex numbers, and let  $G(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} g_n x^n$  be the corresponding generating series. The following are equivalent.

• The sequence **g** satisfies a homogeneous linear recurrence relation

$$g_n + a_1 g_{n-1} + \dots + a_d g_{n-d} = 0$$

for all  $n \geq N$  with initial conditions  $g_0, g_1, ..., g_{N-1}$ 

• The series G(x) = P(x)/Q(x) is a quotient of two polynomials. The denominator is

$$Q(x) = 1 + a_1 x + \dots + a_d x^d$$

and the numerator is

$$P(x) = b_0 + b_1 x + \dots + b_{N-1} x^{N-1}$$

in which  $b_k = g_k + a_1 g_{k-1} + ... + a_d g_{k-d}$  for all  $0 \le k \le N-1$ , with the convention that  $g_n = 0$  for all n < 0.

**Theorem 21** Let G(x) = P(x)/Q(x) be a rational function in which deg  $P < \deg Q$  and the constant term of Q(x) is 1. Factor the denominator to obtain its inverse roots:

$$Q(x) = (1 - \lambda_1 x)^{d_1} ... (1 - \lambda_s x)^{d_s}$$

in which  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_s$  are distinct nonzero complex numbers and  $d_1 + ... + d_s = d = \deg Q$ . Then, there are d complex numbers

$$C_1^{(1)},...,C_1^{(d_1)};...;C_s^{(1)},...,C_s^{(d_s)}$$

such that

$$G(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \sum_{i=1}^{s} \sum_{j=1}^{d_s} \frac{C_i^{(j)}}{(1 - \lambda_i x)^j}$$

**Theorem 22** Let  $\mathbf{g} = (g_0, g_1, ...)$  be an infinite sequence of complex numbers, and let  $G(x) = \sum_{n \geq 0} g_n x^n$  be the corresponding generating series. Assume that the equivalent conditions of Theorem 20 hold, and that

$$G(x) = R(x) + \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

for some polynomials P(x), Q(x), and R(x) with deg  $P < \deg Q$  and Q(0) = 1. Factor Q(x) to obtain its inverse roots and their multiplicities:

$$Q(x) = (1 - \lambda_1 x)^{d_1} ... (1 - \lambda_s x)^{d_s}$$

Then there are polynomials  $p_i(n)$  for  $1 \le i \le s$  with  $\deg p_i < d_i$  such that for all  $n > \deg R(x)$ ,

$$g_n = p_1(n)\lambda_1^n + \dots + p_s(n)\lambda_s^n$$

**Theorem 23** Let  $\mathbf{g} = (g_0, g_1, ...)$  be an infinite sequence of complex numbers. The following are equivalent.

- The sequence **g** satisfies a homogeneous linear recurrence relation (with initial conditions)
- The sequence **g** satisfies a possibly inhomogeneous linear recurrence relation (with initial conditions) in which the RHS is an eventually polyexp function
- The generating series  $G(x) = \sum_{n>0} g_n x^n$  is a rational function
- The sequence **g** is an eventually polyexp function

**Definition 15** The sequence  $\mathbf{g}$  satisfies a quadratic recurrence if its generating series G(x) satisfies a quadratic equation:

$$A(x)G(x)^{2} + B(x)G(x) + C(x) = 0$$

where A, B, and C are power series in x.

**Definition 16 (Graph)** A graph G is a finite non-empty set, V(G), of vertices, together with a set, E(G), of unordered pairs of distinct vertices called edges.

**Definition 17 (Isomorphism)** Two graphs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are isomorphic if there exists a bijection  $f: V(G_1) \to V(G_2)$  such that vertices f(u) and f(v) are adjacent in  $G_2$  if and only if u and v are adjacent in  $G_1$ .

Theorem 24 (Handshaking Lemma) For any graph G we have

$$\sum_{v \in V(G)} \deg v = 2|E(G)|$$

Corollary 24.1 The number of vertices of odd degree in a graph is even.

Corollary 24.2 The average degree of a vertex in the graph G is

$$\frac{2|E(G)|}{|V(G)|}$$

**Definition 18 (Complete Graph)** A complete graph is one in which all pairs of distinct vertices are adjacent. The complete graph with p vertices is denoted by  $K_p$ ,  $p \ge 1$ .

**Definition 19 (Bipartite Graph)** A graph in which the vertices can be partitioned into two sets A and B, so that all edges join a vertex in A to a vertex in B, is called a bipartite graph, with bipartition (A, B).

**Definition 20 (Complete Bipartite Graph)** The complete bipartite graph  $K_{m,n}$  has all vertices in A adjacent to all vertices in B, with |A| = m, |B| = n.

**Definition 21 (N-cube)** For  $n \geq 0$ , the n-cube is the graph whose vertices are the  $\{0,1\}$ -strings of length n, and two strings are adjacent iff they differ in exactly one position.

**Definition 22 (Adjacency Matrix)** The adjacency matrix of graph G having vertices  $v_1, ..., v_p$  is the  $p \times p$  matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  where

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v_i \text{ and } v_j \text{ are adjacent} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 23 (Incidence Matrix)** The incidence matrix of graph G having vertices  $v_1, ..., v_p$  and edges  $e_1, ..., e_q$  is the  $p \times q$  matrix  $B = [b_{ij}]$  where

$$b_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v_i \text{ is incident with } e_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 24 (Subgraph)** A subgraph of G is a graph whose vertex set is a subset U of V(G) and whose edge set is a subset of those edges of G that have both vertices in U. If subgraph H has all vertices of graph G, then H is a spanning subgraph of G. If subgraph H is not equal to G, then H is a proper subgraph of G.

**Definition 25 (Walk)** A walk in graph G from  $v_0$  to  $v_n$  for  $n \geq 0$  is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges of G. The length of a walk is the number of edges in it. We say a walk is closed if  $v_0 = v_n$ .

**Definition 26 (Path)** A path is a walk in which all the vertices (and edges) are distinct.

**Theorem 25** If there is a walk from vertex x to vertex y in G, then there is also a path from x to y in G.

**Theorem 26** Let x, y, and z be vertices of G. If there is a path from x to y in G and a path from y to z in G, then there is a path from x to z in G.

**Definition 27 (Cycle)** A cycle in graph G is a subgraph with n distinct vertices  $v_0, v_1, ..., v_{n-1}$  for  $n \ge 1$ , and n distinct edges  $\{v_0, v_1\}, \{v_1, v_2\}, ..., \{v_{n-1}, v_0\}$ . Equivalently, a cycle is a connected graph that is regular of degree two. A spanning cycle is called a Hamiltonian cycle.

**Theorem 27** If every vertex in G has degree at least 2, then G contains a cycle.

**Definition 28 (Girth)** The girth of a graph G is the length of the shortest cycle in G, and is denoted by g(G).

**Definition 29 (Connected)** A graph G is connected if, for each two vertices x and y, there is a path from x to y.

**Theorem 28** Let G be a graph and let v be a vertex in G. If for each vertex w in G there is a path from v to w in G, then G is connected.

**Definition 30 (Component)** A component of G is a subgraph C of G such that C is connected and is maximal subject to being connected.

**Definition 31 (Cut)** Given a subset X of the vertices of graph G, the cut induced by X is the set of edges that have exactly one end in X.

**Theorem 29** A graph G is not connected iff there exists a proper non-empty subset X of V(G) such that the cut induced by X is empty.

**Definition 32 (Eulerian Circuit)** An Eulerian circuit of a graph G is a closed walk that contains every edge of G exactly once.

**Theorem 30** Let G be a connected graph. Then G has an Eulerian circuit iff every vertex has even degree.

**Definition 33 (Bridge)** An edge e of G is a bridge if G - e has more components than G.

**Theorem 31** If  $e = \{x, y\}$  is a bridge of a connected graph G, then G - e has precisely two components; furthermore, x and y are in different components.

**Theorem 32** An edge e is a bridge of a graph G iff it is not contained in any cycle of G.

**Theorem 33** If there are two distinct paths from vertex u to vertex v in G, then G contains a cycle.

**Definition 34 (Tree)** A tree is a connected graph with no cycles.

**Definition 35 (Forest)** A forest is a graph with no cycles.

**Theorem 34** If u and v are vertices in a tree T, then there is a unique u, v-path in T.

**Theorem 35** Every edge of a tree T is a bridge.

**Theorem 36** If T is a tree, then |E(T)| = |V(T)| - 1.

**Theorem 37** If G is a forest with k components, then |E(G)| = |V(G)| - k.

**Definition 36 (Leaf)** A leaf in a tree is a vertex of degree 1.

**Theorem 38** A tree with at least two vertices has at least two leaves.

**Theorem 39** A graph G is connected iff it has a spanning tree.

**Theorem 40** If G is connected, with p vertices and q = p - 1 edges, then G is a tree.

**Theorem 41** If T is a spanning tree of G and e is an edge not in T, then T+e contains exactly one cycle C. Moreover, if e' is any edge on C, then T+e-e' is also a spanning tree of G.

**Theorem 42** If T is a spanning tree of G and e is an edge in T, then T-e has 2 components. If e' is in the cut induced by one of the components, then T-e+e' is also a spanning tree of G.

**Theorem 43** An odd cycle is not bipartite.

**Theorem 44** A graph is bipartite iff it contains no odd cycles.

**Definition 37 (Planar)** A graph G is planar if it has a drawing in the plane so that its edges intersect only at their ends, and so that no two vertices coincide. The actual drawing is called a planar embedding of G, or a planar map.

**Theorem 45** If we have a planar embedding of a connected graph G with faces  $f_1, ..., f_s$ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{s} \deg(f_i) = 2|E(G)|$$

**Theorem 46** If the connected graph G has a planar embedding with f faces, the average degree of a face in the embedding is

$$\frac{2|E(G)|}{f}$$

**Theorem 47 (Euler's Formula)** Let G be a connected graph with p vertices and q edges. If G has a planar embedding with f faces, then

$$p - q + f = 2$$

**Theorem 48** A graph is planar if and only if it can be drawn on the surface of a sphere.

**Theorem 49** There are exactly 5 platonic graphs.

**Theorem 50** Let G be a planar embedding with p vertices, q edges, and s faces, in which each vertex has degree  $d \ge 3$  and each face has degree  $d^* \ge 3$ . Then  $(d, d^*)$  is one of the 5 pairs

$$\{(3,3),(3,4),(4,3),(3,5),(5,3)\}$$

**Theorem 51** If G is a platonic graph with p vertices, q edges, and f faces, where each vertex has degree d and each face has degree  $d^*$ , then

$$q=\frac{2dd^*}{2d+2d^*-dd^*}$$

**Theorem 52** If G contains a cycle, then in a planar embedding of G, the boundary of each face contains a cycle.

**Theorem 53** Let G be a planar embedding with p vertices and q edges. If each face of G has degree at least  $d^*$ , then

$$(d^* - 2)q \le d^*(p - 2)$$

**Theorem 54** In a planar graph G with  $p \geq 3$  vertices and q edges, we have

$$q \leq 3p - 6$$

**Theorem 55**  $K_5$  is not planar.

**Theorem 56** A planar graph has a vertex of degree at most five.

**Theorem 57** In a bipartite planar graph G with  $p \geq 3$  vertices and q edges, we have

$$2 < 2p - 4$$

**Theorem 58**  $K_{3,3}$  is not planar.

**Definition 38 (Edge Subdivision)** An edge subdivision of graph G is obtained by replacing each edge e of G:

- Replace e with a path of length  $m \ge 1$
- If m = 1, then e is unchanged.
- If m > 1, then there are m 1 new vertices and m 1 new edges.

**Theorem 59 (Kuratowski's Theorem)** A graph is not planar iff it has a subgraph that is an edge subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ .

**Definition 39** (k-colouring) A k-colouring of graph G is a function from V(G) to a set of size k whose elements are called colours. Adjacent vertices have different colours. A graph with a k-colouring is called a k-colourable graph.

**Theorem 60** A graph is 2-colourable iff it is bipartite.

**Theorem 61**  $K_n$  is n-colourable and not k-colourable for any k < n.

**Theorem 62** Every planar graph is 6-colourable.

**Definition 40 (Contracting)** Let G be a graph and let  $e = \{x, y\}$  be an edge of G. The graph G/e obtained from G by contracting the edge e is the graph with vertex set  $V(G) \setminus \{x, y\} \cup \{z\}$  where z is a new vertex, and edge set

$$\{\{u,v\} \in E(G) : \{u,v\} \cap \{x,y\} = \emptyset\} \cup \{\{u,z\} : u \notin \{x,y\}, \{u,w\} \in E(G) \text{ for some } w \in \{x,y\}\}$$

Intuitively, we can think of the operation of contracting e as allowing the "length" of e to decrease to 0, so that the vertices x and y are identified into a new vertex z. Any other vertex that was adjacent to one (or both) of x and y is adjacent to z in the new graph G/e.

**Theorem 63** Every planar graph is 5-colourable.

**Theorem 64** Every planar graph is 4-colourable.

**Definition 41 (Matching)** A matching of graph G is a set of M edges of G such that no two edges in M have a common end. We say that vertex  $v \in V(G)$  is saturated by M if v is incident to an edge in M. A perfect matching saturates every vertex.

**Definition 42 (Alternating Path)** A path is alternating with respect to matching M of graph G if edges alternate between being in M and not being in M.

**Definition 43 (Augmenting Path)** An augmenting path is an alternating path that joins two distinct vertices, neither of them being saturated by M.

**Theorem 65** If M has an augmenting path, it is not a maximum matching.

**Definition 44 (Cover)** A cover of graph G is a set C of vertices such that every edge of G has at least one end in C.

**Theorem 66** If M is a matching of graph G and C is a cover of G, then  $|M| \leq |C|$ .

**Theorem 67** If M is a matching and C is a cover and |M| = |C|, then M is a maximum matching and C is a minimum cover.

**Theorem 68 (Konig's Theorem)** In a bipartite graph the maximum size of a matching is the minimum size of a cover.

**Theorem 69** Let  $X_0$  be the set of vertices in A not saturated by M and let Z denote the set of vertices in G that are joined by to a vertex in  $X_0$  by an alternating path. Let M be a matching of bipartite graph G with bipartition A, B, and let  $X = A \cap Z$  and  $Y = B \cap Z$ . Then,

- 1. There is no edge of G from X to B-Y
- 2.  $C = Y \cup (A X)$  is a cover of G
- 3. There is no edge of M from Y to A-X
- 4. |M| = |C| |U| where U is the set of unsaturated vertices in Y
- 5. There is an augmenting path to each vertex in U

**Theorem 70 (Hall's Theorem)** A bipartite graph G with bipartition A, B has a matching saturating every vertex in A, if and only if every subset D of A satisfies

$$|N(D)| \ge |D|$$
.

**Theorem 71 (Hall's SDR Theorem)** The collection  $Q_1, Q_2, ..., Q_n$  of subsets of the finite set Q has an SDR if and only if, for every subset J of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ , we have

 $\left| \bigcup_{i \in J} Q_i \right| \ge |J|$ 

**Theorem 72** A bipartite graph G with bipartition A, B has a perfect matching if and only if |A| = |B| and every subset D of A satisfies

$$|N(D)| \ge |D|$$

**Theorem 73** If G is a k-regular bipartite graph with  $k \geq 1$ , then G has a perfect matching.

**Theorem 74** A bipartite graph with maximum degree  $\Delta$  has an edge  $\Delta$ -colouring.

**Theorem 75** Let G be a bipartite graph having at least one edge. Then G has a matching saturating each vertex of maximum degree.

**Theorem 76** Let G be a graph with q edges, and suppose k, m are positive integers such that G has an edge k-colouring and  $q \leq km$ . Then G has an edge k-colouring in which every colour is used at most m times.

**Theorem 77** In a bipartite graph G, there is an edge k-colouring in which each colour is used at most m times if and only if  $\Delta \leq k$  and  $q \leq km$ .