Graphs – Introduction (theory)

Why use graphs/networks?

Binary relations

Undirected graphs

Directed graphs

Matrices associated to a graph/digraph

Trees

## Graphs versus networks

Mostly a terminology difference:

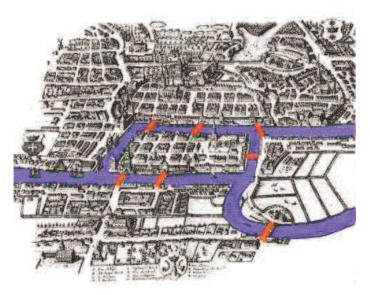
- graphs in the mathematical world
- networks elsewhere

I will mostly say graphs (this is a math course) but might oscillate

Beware: language is not consistent, so make sure you read the definitions at the start of whatever source you are using

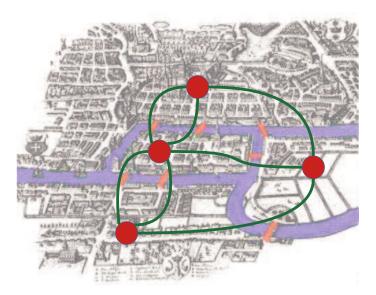
# The genesis of graphs – Euler's bridges of Königsberg

Cross the 7 bridges in a single walk without recrossing any of them?



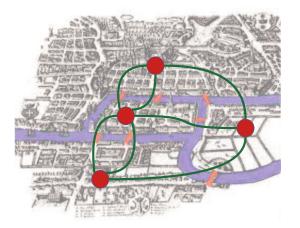
# The genesis of graphs – Euler's bridges of Königsberg

Cross the 7 bridges in a single walk without recrossing any of them?



# The genesis of graphs – Euler's bridges of Königsberg

Cross the 7 bridges in a single walk without recrossing any of them?



#### Mathematical problem

Is it possible to find a trail containing all edges of the graph?

# Finding a cycle with all vertices

A salesperson must visit a couple of cities for their job. Is it possible for them to plan a round trip using highways enabling tehm to visit each specified city exactly once?



- vertices correspond to cities
- two vertices are connected iff a highway connects the corresponding cities and does not pass through any other city.

## Mathematical problem

Is it possible to find a cycle containing all graph vertices?

# How far is it to drive through n cities?

What is the minimal length of driving needed to drive through *n* cities?



- vertices correspond to the cities
- all cities are connected; each edge has a value assigned to it

### Mathematical problem

What is the minimal spanning tree associated to the graph?

## Graphs/networks encode relations

Graphs are used in a variety of contexts because they encode *relations* between objects

Many objects in the world have relations... so graphs are quite easy to find

We will see many examples later, for now we cover the mathematical background

# Graphs vs digraphs vs multigraphs vs multidigraphs vs ...

Name-wise and notation-wise, this domain is a bit of a mess

- ▶ The vertex set *V* is essentially the only constant
- ▶ Undirected graph G = (V, E), where E are the edges
- ▶ Undirected multigraph  $G_M = (V, E)$
- ▶ Directed graph (or digraph) G = (V, A), where A are the arcs
- ▶ Directed multigraph (or multidigraph)  $G_M = (V, A)$
- Any of the above is called a *graph* and is denoted G = (V, X), when we seek generality

And just to confuse the whole thing more: we often say *graph* for *unoriented graph* 

Why use graphs/networks

#### Binary relations

Undirected graphs

Directed graphs

Matrices associated to a  $\mathsf{graph}/\mathsf{digraph}$ 

Trees

# Binary relation

## Definition 1 (Binary relation)

- ► A binary relation is an arbitrary association of elements of one set with elements of another (maybe the same) set
- A binary relation over the sets X and Y is defined as a subset of the Cartesian product  $X \times Y = \{(x, y) | x \in X, y \in Y\}$
- $(x,y) \in R$  is read "x is R-related to y" and is denoted xRy
- ▶ If  $(x, y) \notin R$ , we write "not xRy" or xRy

## Definition 2 (Properties of binary relations)

A binary relation R over a set X is

- ▶ Reflexive if  $\forall x \in X$ , xRx
- ▶ Irreflexive if there does not exist  $x \in X$  such that xRx
- **Symmetric** if  $xRy \Rightarrow yRx$
- **Asymmetric** if  $xRy \Rightarrow yRx$
- ▶ Antisymmetric if xRy and  $yRx \Rightarrow x = y$
- ► Transitive if xRy and  $yRz \Rightarrow xRz$
- ▶ Total (or complete) if  $\forall x, y \in X$ , xRy or yRx

## Definition 3 (Equivalence relation)

A relation that is reflexive  $(\forall x \in X, xRx)$ , symmetric  $(xRy \Rightarrow yRx)$  and transitive  $(xRy \text{ and } yRz \Rightarrow xRz)$  is an **equivalence relation** 

### Definition 4 (Partial order)

A relation that is reflexive ( $\forall x \in X$ , xRx), antisymmetric (xRy and  $yRx \Rightarrow x = y$ ) and transitive (xRy and  $yRz \Rightarrow xRz$ ) is a partial order

#### Definition 5 (Total order)

A partial order that is total  $(\forall x, y \in X, xRy \text{ or } yRx)$  is a **total** order

#### Why use graphs/networks?

#### Binary relations

### Undirected graphs

Undirected graph
Degree of a vertex
Isomorphic graphs

Subgraphs, unions of graphs

Connectedness

Walks, trails, paths

Complete, bipartite and other notable graphs

Planar graphs

#### Directed graphs

Matrices associated to a graph/digraph

#### Undirected graphs

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## Graph

Intuitively: a graph is a set of points, and a set of relations between the points

The points are called the *vertices* of the graph and the relations are the *edges* of the graph

We can also think of the relations as being one directional, in which case the relations are the *arcs* of the digraph (a contraction of "directed graph")

# Graph, vertex and edge

## Definition 6 (Graph)

An undirected graph is a pair G = (V, E) of sets such that

- ▶ V is a set of points:  $V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_p\}$
- ► *E* is a set of 2-element subsets of *V*:  $E = \{\{v_i, v_j\}, \{v_i, v_k\}, \dots, \{v_n, v_p\}\}$  or  $E = \{v_i v_j, v_i v_k, \dots, v_n v_p\}$

#### Definition 7 (Vertex)

The elements of V are the vertices (or nodes, or points) of the graph G. V (or V(G)) is the vertex set of the graph G

## Definition 8 (Edge)

The elements of E are the edges (or lines) of the graph G. E (or E(G)) is the edge set of the graph G

#### Order and Size

## Definition 9 (Order of a graph)

The number of vertices in G is the order of G. Using the notation |V(G)| for the *cardinality* of V(G),

$$|V(G)| = \text{order of G}$$

## Definition 10 (Size of a graph)

The number of edges in G is the size of G,

$$|E(G)| = \text{size of G}$$

- A graph having order p and size q is called a (p,q)-graph
- ▶ A graph is finite if  $|V(G)| < \infty$

# Adjacent - Incident

### Definition 11 (Incident)

- A vertex v is incident with an edge e if  $v \in e$ ; then e is an edge at v
- ▶ If  $e = uv \in E(G)$ , then u and v are each incident with e
- ▶ The two vertices incident with an edge are its ends
- An edge e = uv is incident with both vertices u and v

## Definition 12 (Adjacent)

- ▶ Two vertices u and v are adjacent in a graph G if  $uv \in E(G)$
- ▶ If uv and uw are distinct edges (i.e.  $v \neq w$ ) of a graph G, then uv and uw are adjacent edges

## Definition 13 (Multiple edge)

Multiple edges are two or more edges connecting the same two vertices within a multigraph

## Definition 14 (Loop)

A loop is an edge with both the same ends; e.g.  $\{u, u\}$  is a loop

## Definition 15 (Simple graph)

A **simple graph** is a graph which contains no loops or multiple edges

## Definition 16 (Multigraph)

A multigraph is a graph which can contain multiple edges or loops

# Graph and binary relations

A simple graph G can be defined in term of a vertex set V and a binary relation over V that is

- ▶ irreflexive  $(\forall u \in V, u \not R u)$
- ▶ symmetric  $(\forall u, v \in V, uRv \implies vRu)$

The set of edges E(G) is the set of symmetric pairs in R

If R is not irreflexive, the graph is not simple

#### Undirected graphs

Undirected graph

#### Degree of a vertex

Subgraphs, unions of graphs

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Complete, bipartite and other notable graphs

Planar graphs

## Definition 17 (Degree of a vertex)

Let v be a vertex of G = (V, E).

- ► The number of edges of G incident with v is the degree of v in G
- $\triangleright$  The number of edges of G at v is the degree of v in G
- ▶ The degree of v in G is noted  $d_G(v)$  or  $deg_G(v)$

#### Theorem 18

Let G be a (p,q)-graph with vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$ , then

$$\sum_{i=1}^p d_G(v_i) = 2q$$

## Definition 19 (Odd vertex)

A vertex is an odd vertex is its degree is odd

#### Definition 20 (Even vertex)

A vertex is called even vertex is its degree is even

#### Theorem 21

Every graph contains an even number of odd vertices

# Regular graph

Definition 22 (Regular graph)

If all the vertices of G have the same degree k, then the graph G is k-regular

#### Undirected graphs

Undirected graph

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## Isomorphic graphs

## Definition 23 (Isomorphic graphs)

Let  $G_1 = (V(G_1), E(G_1))$  and  $G_2 = (V(G_2), E(G_2))$  be two graphs.  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are **isomorphic** if there exists an isomorphism  $\phi$  from  $G_1$  to  $G_2$ , that is defined as an injective mapping  $\phi: V(G_1) \to V(G_2)$  such that two vertices  $u_1$  and  $v_1$  are adjacent in  $G_1 \iff$  the vertices  $\phi(u_1)$  and  $\phi(v_1)$  are adjacent in  $G_2$ 

If  $\phi$  is an isomorphism from  $G_1$  to  $G_2$ , then the inverse mapping  $\phi^{-1}$  from  $V(G_2)$  to  $V(G_1)$  also satisfies the definition of an isomorphism. As a consequence, if  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are isomorphic graphs, then

- $ightharpoonup G_1$  is isomorphic to  $G_2$
- $ightharpoonup G_2$  is isomorphic to  $G_1$

#### Theorem 24

The relation "is isomorphic to" is an equivalence relation on the set of all graphs

#### Theorem 25

If  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are isomorphic graphs, then the degrees of vertices of  $G_1$  are exactly the degrees of vertices of  $G_2$ 

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# Subgraph

## Definition 26 (Subgraph)

Let G = (V, E) be a graph. A graph H = (V(H), E(H)) is a subgraph of G if  $V(H) \subseteq V$  and  $E(H) \subseteq E$ 

Let  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  be two graphs

Definition 27 (Union of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ )

$$G_1 \cup G_2 = (V_1 \cup V_2, E_1 \cup E_2)$$

Definition 28 (Intersection of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ )

$$G_1 \cap G_2 = (V_1 \cap V_2, E_1 \cap E_2)$$

## Definition 29 (Disjoint graphs)

If  $G_1 \cap G_2 = (\emptyset, \emptyset) = \emptyset$  (empty graph) then  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are disjoint

## Definition 30 (Complement of $G_1$ )

The **complement**  $\bar{G}_1$  of  $G_1$  is the graph on  $V_1$ , with the edge set  $E(\bar{G}_1) = [V_1]^2 \setminus E_1$  ( $e \in E(\bar{G}_1) \iff e \not\in E_1$ )

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# Connected vertices and graph, components

## Definition 31 (Connected vertices)

Two vertices u and v in a graph G are connected if u = v, or if  $u \neq v$  and there exists a path in G that links u and v

## Definition 32 (Connected graph)

A graph is **connected** if every two vertices of *G* are connected; otherwise, *G* is **disconnected** 

# A necessary condition for connectedness

#### Theorem 33

A connected graph on p vertices has at least p-1 edges

In other words, a connected graph G of order p has  $size(G) \ge p-1$ 

## Connectedness is an equivalence relation

Denote  $x \equiv y$  the relation "x = y, or  $x \neq y$  and there exists a path in G connecting x and y".  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation since

- [reflexivity] 1.  $x \equiv y$
- [symmetry] 2.  $x \equiv y \implies y \equiv x$
- [transitivity] 3.  $x \equiv y, y \equiv z \implies x \equiv z$

## Definition 34 (Connected component of a graph)

The classes of the equivalence relation  $\equiv$  partition V into connected sub-graphs of G called connected components (or components for short) of G

A connected subgraph H of a graph G is a component of G if H is not contained in any connected subgraph of G having more vertices or edges than H

#### Vertex deletion & cut vertices

## Definition 35 (Vertex deletion)

If  $v \in V(G)$  is a vertex of G, the graph G - v is the graph formed from G by removing v and all edges incident with v

### Definition 36 (Cut-vertices)

Let G be a connected graph. Then v is a cut-vertex G if G - v is disconnected

# Edge deletion & bridges

### Definition 37 (Edge deletion)

If e is an edge of G, the graph G-e is the graph formed from G by removing e from G

## Definition 38 (Bridge)

An edge e in a connected graph G is a **bridge** if G - e is disconnected

#### Theorem 39

Let G be a connected graph. An edge e of G is a bridge of  $G \iff$  e does not lie on any cycle of G

(For cycle, see Definition 47 later)

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#### Walk

## Definition 40 (Walk)

A walk in a graph G = (V, E) is a non-empty alternating sequence  $v_0 e_0 v_1 e_1 v_2 \dots e_{k-1} v_k$  of vertices and edges in G such that  $e_i = \{v_i, v_{i+1}\}$  for all i < k. This walk begins with  $v_0$  and ends with  $v_k$ 

### Definition 41 (Length of a walk)

The length of a walk is equal to the number of edges in the walk

#### Definition 42 (Closed walk)

If  $v_0 = v_k$ , the walk is closed

## Trail and path

## Definition 43 (Trail)

If the edges in the walk are all distinct, it defines a trail in G = (V, E)

## Definition 44 (Path)

If the vertices in the walk are all distinct, it defines a path in G

The sets of vertices and edges determined by a trail is a subgraph

#### Distance between two vertices

### Definition 45 (Distance between two vertices)

The distance d(u, v) in G = (V, E) between two vertices u and v is the length of the shortest path linking u and v in G

If no such path exists, we assume  $d(u, v) = \infty$ 

## Circuit and cycle

### Definition 46 (Circuit)

A trail linking u to v, containing at least 3 edges and in which u = v, is a **circuit** 

## Definition 47 (Cycle)

A circuit which does not repeat any vertices (except the first and the last) is a cycle (or simple circuit)

## Definition 48 (Length of a cycle)

The length of a cycle is its number of edges

### Definition 49 (Eulerian trail)

A walk in an undirected multigraph M that uses each edge **exactly once** is a **Eulerian trail** of M

## Definition 50 (Traversable graph)

If a graph G has a Eulerian trail, then G is a traversable graph

### Definition 51 (Eulerian circuit)

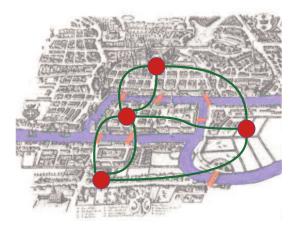
A circuit containing all the vertices and edges of a multigraph M is a Eulerian circuit of M

## Definition 52 (Eulerian graph)

A graph (resp. multigraph) containing an Eulerian circuit is a **Eulerian graph** (resp. **Eulerian multigraph**)

## Remember Euler's bridges of Königsberg?

Cross the 7 bridges in a single walk without recrossing any of them?



#### Mathematical problem

Is the (multi)graph traversable? Eulerian?

#### Theorem 53

A multigraph M is traversable  $\iff M$  is connected and has exactly two odd vertices

Furthermore, any Eulerian trail of M begins at one of the odd vertices and ends at the other odd vertex

#### Theorem 54

A multigraph M is Eulerian  $\iff$  M is connected and every vertex of M is even

## Fleury's algorithm to find a Eulerian trail

For a connected graph with exactly 2 odd vertices

- Start at one of the odd vertices
- Marking your path as you move from vertex to vertex, travel along any edges you wish, but DO NOT travel along an edge that is a bridge for the graph formed by the EDGES THAT HAVE YET TO BE TRAVELED – unless you have to
- Continue until every edge has been traveled

RESULT: a Eulerian trail

## Fleury's algorithm to find a Eulerian circuit

For a connected graph with no odd vertices

- Pick any vertex as a starting point
- Marking your path as you move from vertex to vertex, travel along any edges you wish, but DO NOT travel along an edge that is a bridge for the graph formed by the EDGES THAT HAVE YET TO BE TRAVELED – unless you have to
- Continue until you return to your starting point

RESULT: a Eulerian circuit

## Definition 55 (Hamiltonian path)

A path containing all vertices of a graph G is a Hamiltonian path of G

## Definition 56 (Traceable graph)

If a graph G has an Hamiltonian path, then G is a **traceable** graph

## Definition 57 (Hamiltonian cycle)

A cycle containing all vertices of a graph G is a Hamiltonian cycle of G

## Definition 58 (Hamiltonian graph)

A graph containing a Hamiltonian cycle is a Hamiltonian graph

### Theorem 59 (Dirac's theorem)

If G is a graph of order  $p \ge 3$  such that  $deg(v) \ge p/2$  for every vertex v of G, then G is Hamiltonian

### Theorem 60 (Ore's theorem)

If G is a graph of order  $p \ge 3$  such that for all distinct nonadjacent vertices u and v of G,

$$deg(u) + deg(v) \ge p$$
,

then G is Hamiltonian

#### Undirected graphs

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### Definition 61 (Complete graph)

A graph is complete if every two of its vertices are adjacent

### Definition 62 (n-clique)

A simple, complete graph on n vertices is called an n-clique and is often denoted  $K_n$ 

Note that a complete graph of order p is (p-1)-regular

## Bipartite graph

### Definition 63 (Bipartite graph)

A graph is bipartite if its vertices can be partitioned into two sets  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ , such that no two vertices in the same set are adjacent. This graph may be written  $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$ 

### Definition 64 (Complete bipartite graph)

A bipartite graph in which every two vertices from the 2 different partitions are adjacent is called a **complete bipartite graph** 

We often denote  $K_{p,q}$  a simple, complete bipartite graph with  $|V_1|=p$  and  $|V_2|=q$ 

## Some specific graphs

### Definition 65 (Tree)

Any connected graph that has no cycles is a tree

## Definition 66 (Cycle $C_n$ )

For  $n \ge 3$ , the cycle  $C_n$  is a connected graph of order n that is a cycle on n vertices

### Definition 67 (Path $P_n$ )

The path  $P_n$  is a connected graph that consists of  $n \ge 2$  vertices and n-1 edges. Two vertices of  $P_n$  have degree 1 and the rest are of degree 2

### Definition 68 (Star $S_n$ )

The star of order n is the complete bipartite graph  $K_{1,n-1}$  (1 vertex of degree n-1 and n-1 vertices of degree 1)

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## Planar graph

## Definition 69 (Planar graph)

A graph is **planar** if it *can be* drawn in the plane with no crossing edges (except at the vertices). Otherwise, it is **nonplanar** 

## Definition 70 (Plane graph)

A plane graph is a graph that is drawn in the plane with no crossing edges. (This is only possible if the graph is planar)

(To see the difference, have you ever played this game?)

#### Let G be a plane graph

- the connected parts of the plane are called regions
- vertices and edges that are incident with a region R make up a boundary of R

#### Theorem 71 (Euler's formula)

Let G be a connected plane graph with p vertices, q edges, and r regions, then

$$p - q + r = 2$$

#### Corollary 72

Let G be a plane graph with p vertices, q edges, r regions, and k connected components, then

$$p - q + r = k + 1$$

#### Theorem 73

Let G be a connected planar graph with p vertices and q edges, where  $p \ge 3$ , then

$$q \leq 3p - 6$$
.

(a maximal connected planar graph with p vertices has q = 3p - 6 edges)

### Corollary 74

If G is a planar graph, then  $\delta(G) \leq 5$ , where  $\delta(G)$  is the minimal degree of G. (every planar graph contains a vertex of degree less than 6)

## Two well-known non-planar graphs

 $K_{3,3}$  and  $K_5$  are nonplanar

### Theorem 75 (Kuratowski Theorem)

A graph G i planar  $\iff$  it contains no subgraph isomorphic to  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  or any subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ 

**Note:** If a graph G is nonplanar and G is a subgraph of G', then G' is also nonplanar

## Definition 76 (Colouring of a graph G)

A colouring of a graph G is an assignment of colours to the vertices of G such that adjacent vertices have different colours

Definition 77 (*n*-colouring of *G*)

A n-colouring is a colouring of G using n colours

Definition 78 (n-colourable)

G is n-colourable if there exists a colouring of G that uses n colours

## Definition 79 (Chromatic number)

The chromatic number  $\chi(G)$  of a graph G is the minimal value n for which an n-colouring of G exists

### Property 80

- $\blacktriangleright \chi(G) = 1 \iff G$  have no edges
- ▶ If  $G = K_{n,m}$ , then  $\chi(G) = 2$
- ▶ If  $G = K_n$ , then  $\chi(G) = n$
- For any graph G,

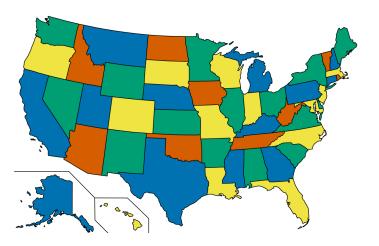
$$\chi(G) \leq 1 + \Delta(G)$$

where  $\Delta(G)$  is the maximum degree of G

▶ If G is a planar graph, then  $\chi(G) \leq 4$ 

## "Real life" problem

What is the minimal number of colours to colour all states in the map so that two adjacent states have different colours?



## "Real life" problem

What is the minimal number of colours to colour all states in the map so that two adjacent states have different colours?

#### Mathematical representation:

- vertices correspond to the states

#### Mathematical problem

What is the chromatic number of the graph associated to the map?

## Welch-Powell algorithm for colouring a graph G

- 1. Order the vertices of G by decreasing degree. (Such an ordering may not be unique since some vertices may have the same degree)
- Use one colour to paint the first vertex and to paint, in sequential order, each vertex on the list that is not adjacent to a vertex previously painted with this colour
- Start again at the top of the list and repeat the process, painting previously unpainted vertices using a second colour
- 4. Repeat with additional colours until all vertices have been painted

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### Directed graphs

#### Directed graph

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#### **Definitions**

#### Definition 81 (Digraph)

A directed graph (or digraph) is a pair G = (V, A) of sets such that

- ▶ *V* is a set of points:  $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, ..., v_p\}$
- ► A is a set of ordered pairs of V:

$$A = \{(v_i, v_j), (v_i, v_k), \dots, (v_n, v_p)\}, \text{ also noted}$$

$$A = \{v_i v_j, v_i v_k, \dots, v_n v_p\}$$

#### Definition 82 (Vertex)

The elements of V are the vertices of the digraph G V is the vertex set of the digraph G, also noted V(G)

## Definition 83 (Arc)

The elements of A are the arcs (directed edges) of the digraph G. A is the arc set of the digraph G, also noted A(G)

## Digraph and binary relation

A (simple) digraph D can be defined in term of a vertex set V and an irreflexive relation R over V

The defining relation R of the digraph G need not be symmetric

#### Directed network

## Definition 84 (Directed network)

A directed network is a digraph together with a function f,

$$f: A \to \mathbb{R}$$
,

which maps the arc set A into the set of real number. The value of the arc  $uv \in A$  is f(uv)

## Loops & Multiple arcs

Definition 85 (Loop)

A loop is an arc with both the same ends; e.g. (u, u) is a loop

Definition 86 (Multiple arcs)

Multiple arcs (or multi-arcs) are two or more arcs connecting the same two vertices

## Multidigraph/Digraph

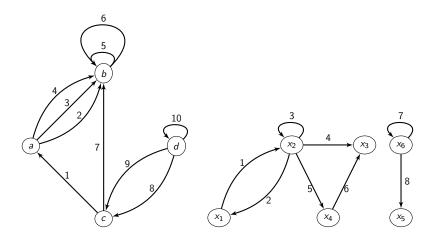
## Definition 87 (Multidigraph)

A multidigraph is a digraph which allows repetition of arcs or loops

## Definition 88 (Digraph)

In a digraph, no more than one arc can join any pair of vertices

# Examples



Let G = (V, A) be a digraph

## Definition 89 (Arc endpoints)

For an arc u = (x, y), vertex x is the **initial endpoint**, and vertex y is the **terminal endpoint** 

### Definition 90 (Predecessor - Successor)

If  $(u, v) \in A(G)$  is an arc of G, then

- $\triangleright$  u is a predecessor of v
- v is a successor of u

#### Definition 91 (Neighbours of a vertex)

Let  $x \in V$  be a vertex. The **neighbours** of x is the set  $\Gamma(x) = \Gamma_G^+(x) \cup \Gamma_G^-(x)$ , where  $\Gamma_G^+(x)$  and  $\Gamma_G^-(x)$  are, respectively, the set of successors and predecessors of v

#### Sources and sinks

# Definition 92 (Directed away - Directed towards)

If  $a = (u, v) \in A(G)$  is an arc of G, then

- the arc a is said to be directed away from u
- the arc a is said to be directed towards v

### Definition 93 (Source - Sink)

- Any vertex which has no arcs directed towards it is a source
- Any vertex which has no arcs directed away from it is a sink

# Adjacent arcs

Definition 94 (Adjacent arcs)

Two arcs are adjacent if they have at least one endpoint in common

#### Arcs incident to a subset of arcs

# Definition 95 (Arc incident out of $X \subset A(G)$ )

If the initial endpoint of an arc u belongs to  $X \subset A(G)$  and if the terminal endpoint of arc u does not belong to X, then u is said to be incident out of X; we write  $u \in \omega^+(X)$ 

Similarly, we define an arc incident into X and the set  $\omega^-(X)$ 

Finally, the set of arcs incident to X is denoted

$$\omega(X) = \omega^+(X) \cup \omega^-(X)$$

# Definition 96 (Subgraph of G generated by $A \subset V$ )

The **subgraph** of G generated by A is the graph with A as its vertex set and with all the arcs in G that have both their endpoints in A. If  $G = (V, \Gamma)$  is a 1-graph, then the subgraph generated by A is the 1-graph  $G_A = (A, \Gamma_A)$  where

$$\Gamma_A(x) = \Gamma(x) \cap A \qquad (x \in A)$$

## Definition 97 (Partial graph of G generated by $V \subset U$ )

The graph (X, V) whose vertex set is X and whose arc set is V. In other words, it is graph G without the arcs U - V

# Definition 98 (Partial subgraph of G)

A partial subgraph of G is the subgraph of a partial graph of G

#### Directed graphs

Directed graph

Degrees in digraphs

Walks, paths, etc.

Connectivity in digraphs

Orientable graphs

#### Degree

Let v be a vertex of a digraph G = (V, A)

#### Definition 99 (Outdegree of a vertex)

The number of arcs directed away from a vertex v, in a digraph is called the **outdegree** of v and is written  $d_G^+(v)$ 

#### Definition 100 (Indegree of a vertex)

The number of arcs directed towards a vertex v, in a digraph is called the **indegree** of v and is written  $d_G^-(v)$ 

#### Definition 101 (Degree)

For any vertex v in a digraph, the degree of v is defined as

$$d_G(v) = d_G^+(v) + d_G^-(v)$$

#### Theorem 102

For any (di)graph, the sum of the degrees of the vertices equals twice the number of edges (arcs)

#### Corollary 103

In any (di)graph, the sum of the degrees of the vertices is a nonnegative even integer

#### Theorem 104

If G is a digraph with vertex set  $V(G) = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$  and q arcs, then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p} d_{G}^{+}(v_{i}) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} d_{G}^{-}(v_{i}) = q$$

# Definition 105 (Regular digraph)

A digraph G is r-regular if  $d^+_G(v)=d^-_G(v)=r$  for all  $v\in V(G)$ 

# Symmetric/antisymmetric digraphs

## Definition 106 (Symmetric digraph)

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph with associated binary relation R. If R is *symmetric*, the digraph is symmetric

## Definition 107 (Anti-symmetric digraph)

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph with associated binary relation R. The digraph G is anti-symmetric if

$$xRy \implies y\cancel{R}x$$

## Definition 108 (Symmetric multidigraph)

Let G = (V, A) be a multidigraph. G is symmetric if  $\forall x, y \in V(G)$ , the number of arcs from x to y equals the number of arcs from y to x

#### Directed graphs

Directed graph
Degrees in digraphs
Walks, paths, etc.
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Orientable graphs

#### Walks

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph.

#### Definition 109 (Directed walk)

A directed walk in a digraph G is a non-empty alternating sequence  $v_0 a_0 v_1 a_1 v_2 \dots a_{k-1} v_k$  of vertices and arcs in G such that  $a_i = (v_i, v_{i+1})$  for all i < k. This walk begins with  $v_0$  and ends with  $v_k$ 

### Definition 110 (Length of a directed walk)

The length of a directed walk is equal to the number of arcs in the directed walk

#### Definition 111 (Closed walk)

If  $v_0 = v_k$ , the walk is closed

#### **Trails**

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph.

#### Definition 112 (Directed trail)

A directed walk in G in which all arcs are distinct is a **directed** trail in G

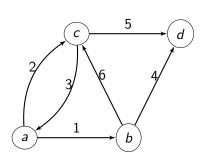
#### Definition 113 (Directed path)

A directed walk in G in which all vertices are distinct is a **directed** path in G

#### Definition 114 (Directed cycle)

A closed walk is a **directed cycle** if it contains at least three vertices and all its vertices are distinct except for  $v_0 = v_k$ 

# Examples of directed cycles



#### Cycles:

- $\mu^1 = (1,6,2) = [abca]$
- $\mu^2 = (1,6,3) = [abca]$
- $\mu^3 = (2,3) = [aca]$
- $\mu^4 = (1, 4, 5, 2) = [abdca]$
- $\mu^5 = (6,5,4) = [acdb]$
- $\mu^6 = (1, 4, 5, 3) = [abdca]$

#### Directed graphs

Directed graph Degrees in digraphs Walks, paths, etc.

Connectivity in digraphs

Orientable graphs

#### **Definitions**

## Definition 115 (Underlying graph)

Given a digraph, the undirected graph with each arc replaced by an edge is called the **underlying graph** 

## Definition 116 (Weakly connected digraph)

If the underlying graph is a connected graph, then the digraph is weakly connected

## Definition 117 (Strongly connected digraph)

A digraph G is **strongly connected** if for every two distinct vertices u and v of G, there exists a directed path from u to v

#### Definition 118 (Disconnected digraph)

A digraph is said to be disconnected if it is not weakly connected

# Strong connectedness is an equivalence relation

Denote  $x \equiv y$  the relation "x = y, or  $x \neq y$  and there exists a directed path in G from x to y".  $\equiv$  is an equivalence relation since

- 1.  $x \equiv y$  [reflexivity] 2.  $x \equiv y \implies y \equiv x$  [symmetry]
- 3.  $x \equiv y, y \equiv z \implies x \equiv z$  [transitivity]

## Definition 119 (Connected component of a graph)

Sets of the form

$$A(x_0) = \{x : x \in V, x \equiv x_0\}$$

are equivalence classes. They partition V into strongly connected sub-digraphs of G called **strongly connected components** (or **strong components**) of G

A strong component in G is a maximal strongly connected subdigraph of G

#### Theorem 120 (Properties)

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph

- ► If G is strongly connected, it has only one strongly connected component
- ► The strongly connected components partition the vertices V(G), with every vertex in exactly one strongly connected component

# Algorithm for determining strongly connected components in G = (V, A)

- ▶ Determine the strongly connected component C(v) containing the vertex v; if V C(v) is non-empty, re-do the same operation on the sub-digraph G' = (V C(v), A')
- ▶ To determine C(v), the strongly connected component containing v: let v be a vertex of a digraph, which is not already in any strongly connected component
  - 1. Mark the vertex v with  $\pm$
  - 2. Mark with + all successors (not already marked with +) of a vertex marked with +
  - Mark with all predecessors (not already marked with —) of a vertex marked with —
  - 4. Repeat until no more possible marking with + or -

All vertices marked with  $\pm$  belong to the same strongly connected component C(v) containing the vertex v

# Condensation of a digraph

## Definition 121 (Condensation of a digraph)

The condensation  $G^*$  of a digraph G is a digraph having as vertices the strongly connected components (SCC) of G and such that there exists an arc in  $G^*$  from a SCC  $C_i$  to another SCC  $C_j$  if there is an arc in G from some vertex of  $S_i$  to a vertex of  $S_i$ 

#### Definition 122 (Articulation set)

For a connected graph, a set X of vertices is called an articulation set (or a cutset) if the subgraph of G generated by V-X is not connected

#### Definition 123 (Stable set)

A set S of vertices is called a stable set if no arc joins two distinct vertices in S

#### Directed graphs

Directed graph
Degrees in digraphs
Walks, paths, etc.
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Orientable graphs

#### Orientation

#### Definition 124 (Orienting a graph)

Given a connected graph, we describe the act of assigning a direction to each edge (edge  $\rightarrow$  arc) as orienting the graph

#### Definition 125 (Strong orientation)

If the digraph resulting from orienting a graph is strongly connected, the orientation is a **strong orientation** 

# Orientable graph

### Definition 126 (Orientable graph)

A connected graph G is orientable if it admits a strong orientation

#### Theorem 127

A connected graph G = (V, E) is orientable  $\iff$  G contains no bridges

(in other words, iff every edge is contained in a cycle)

Why use graphs/networks?

Binary relations

Undirected graphs

Directed graphs

Matrices associated to a graph/digraph
Adjacency matrices
Other matrices associated to a graph/digraph
Linking graphs and linear algebra

Trees

# Matrices associated to a graph/digraph

There are multiple matrices associated to a graph/digraph

The branch of graph theory that studies the properties of matrices derived from graphs and uses of these matrices in determining graph properties is *spectral graph theory* 

Graphs greatly simplify some problems in linear algebra and vice versa

# Matrices associated to a graph/digraph Adjacency matrices

Other matrices associated to a graph/digraph Linking graphs and linear algebra

# Adjacency matrix (undirected case)

Let G = (V, E) be a graph of order p and size q, with vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  and edges  $e_1, \ldots, e_q$ 

### Definition 128 (Adjacency matrix)

The adjacency matrix is

$$M_A = M_A(G) = [m_{ij}]$$

is a  $p \times p$  matrix in which

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

# Theorem 129 (Adjacency matrix and degree)

The sum of the entries in row i of the adjacency matrix is the degree of  $v_i$  in the graph

We often write A(G) and, reciprocally, if A is an adjacency matrix, G(A) the corresponding graph

G undirected  $\implies A(G)$  symmetric

A(G) has nonzero diagonal entries if G is not simple

# Adjacency matrix (directed case)

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph of order p with vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$ 

Definition 130 (Adjacency matrix)

The adjacency matrix  $M = M(G) = [m_{ij}]$  is a  $p \times p$  matrix in which

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if arc } v_i v_j \in A \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Theorem 131 (Properties)

- M is not necessarily symmetric
- ► The sum of any column of M is equal to the number of arcs directed towards v<sub>i</sub>
- ► The sum of the entries in row i is equal to the number of arcs directed away from vertex v;
- ► The (i,j)—entry of  $M^n$  is equal to the number of walks of length n from vertex  $v_i$  to  $v_j$

#### Definition 132 (Multiplicity of a pair)

The multiplicity of a pair x, y is the number  $m_G^+(x, y)$  of arcs with initial endpoint x and terminal endpoint y. Let

$$m_G^-(x,y) = m_G^+(y,x)$$
  
 $m_G(x,y) = m_G^+(x,y) + m_G^-(x,y)$ 

If  $x \neq y$ , then  $m_G(x, y)$  is number of arcs with both x and y as endpoints. If x = y, then  $m_G(x, y)$  equals twice the number of loops attached to vertex x. If  $A, B \subset V$ ,  $A \neq B$ , let

$$m_G^+(A, B) = \{u : u \in U, u = (x, y), x \in A, y \in B\}$$
  
 $m_G(A, B) = m_G^+(A, B) + m_G^+(A, B)$ 

# Adjacency matrix of a multigraph

# Definition 133 (Matrix associated with G)

If G has vertices  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ , then the **matrix associated** with G is

$$a_{ij}=m_G^+(x_i,x_j)$$

### Definition 134 (Adjacency matrix)

The matrix  $a_{ij} + a_{ji}$  is the adjacency matrix associated with G

# Adjacency matrix (multigraph case)

## Definition 135 (Adjacency matrix of a multigraph)

G an  $\ell$ -graph, then the adjacency matrix  $M_{\mathcal{A}} = [m_{ij}]$  is defined as follows

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} k & \text{if arc there are } k \text{ arcs } (i,j) \in U \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

with  $k \leq \ell$ 

G undirected  $\implies M_A(G)$  symmetric

 $M_A(G)$  has nonzero diagonal entries if G is not simple.

# Weighted adjacency matrices

Sometimes, adjacency matrices (typically for 1-graphs) have real entries, usually positive

This means that the arcs/edges have been given a weight

## Theorem 136 (Number of walks of length n)

Let A be the adjacency matrix of a graph G = (V(G), E(G)), where  $V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p\}$ . Then the (i, j)-entry of  $A^n$ ,  $n \ge 1$ , is the number of different walks linking  $v_i$  to  $v_j$  of length n in G.

(two walks of the same length are equal if their edges occur in exactly the same order)

Example: let A be the adjacency matrix of a graph G = (V(G), E(G)).

- ▶ the (i, i)—entry of  $A^2$  is equal to the degree of  $v_i$ .
- ▶ the (i, i)—entry of  $A^3$  is equal to twice the number of  $C_3$  containing  $v_i$ .

## Matrices associated to a graph/digraph

Adjacency matrices

Other matrices associated to a graph/digraph

Linking graphs and linear algebra

# Incidence matrix (undirected case)

Let G = (V, E) be a graph of order p, and size q, with vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$ , and edges  $e_1, \ldots, e_q$ 

## Definition 137 (Incidence matrix)

The incidence matrix is

$$B = B(G) = [b_{ij}]$$

is that  $p \times q$  matrix in which

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

## Theorem 138 (Incidence matrix and degrees)

The sum of the entries in row i of the incidence matrix is the degree of  $v_i$  in the graph

# Incidence matrix (directed case)

Let G = (V, A) be a digraph of order p and size q, with vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$  and arcs  $a_1, \ldots, a_q$ 

## Definition 139 (Incidence matrix)

The incidence matrix  $B = B(G) = [b_{ij}]$  is a  $p \times q$  matrix in which

$$b_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if arc } a_j \text{ is directed away from a vertex } v_i \\ -1 & \text{if arc } a_j \text{ is directed towards a vertex } v_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Spectrum of a graph

We will come back to this later, but for now...

Definition 140 (Spectrum of a graph)

The spectrum of a graph G is the spectrum (set of eigenvalues) of its associated adjacency matrix M(G)

This is regardless of the type of adjacency matrix or graph

# Degree matrix

## Definition 141 (Degree matrix)

The **degree** matrix  $D = [d_{ij}]$  for G is a  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix defined as

$$d_{ij} = egin{cases} d_G(v_i) & ext{if } i = j \ 0 & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In an undirected graph, this means that each loop increases the degree of a vertex by two

In a directed graph, the term "degree" may refer either to indegree (the number of incoming edges at each vertex) or outdegree (the number of outgoing edges at each vertex)

# Laplacian matrix

# Definition 142 (Laplacian matrix)

G = (V, A) a simple graph with n vertices. The Laplacian matrix is

$$L = D(G) - M(G)$$

where  $\mathcal{D}(G)$  is the degree matrix and  $\mathcal{M}(G)$  is the adjacency matrix

# Laplacian matrix (continued)

G simple graph  $\implies M(G)$  only contains 1 or 0 and its diagonal elements are all 0

For directed graphs, either the indegree or outdegree is used, depending on the application

Elements of L are given by

$$\ell_{ij} = \begin{cases} d_G(v_i) & \text{if } i = j \\ -1 & \text{if } i \neq j \text{ and } v_i \text{ is adjacent to } v_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Distance matrix

Let G be a graph of order p with vertices  $v_1, \ldots, v_p$ 

Definition 143 (Distance matrix)

The distance matrix  $\Delta(G) = [d_{ij}]$  is a  $p \times p$  matrix in which

$$\delta_{ij}=d_G(v_i,v_j)$$

Note  $\delta_{ii} = 0$  for  $i = 1, \dots, p$ 

## Property 144

- M is not necessarily symmetric
- ► The sum of any column of M is equal to the number of arcs directed towards v<sub>j</sub>
- ► The sum of the entries in row i is equal to the number of arcs directed away from vertex v;
- ► The (i,j)—entry of  $M^n$  is equal to the number of walks of length n from vertex  $v_i$  to  $v_j$

## Matrices associated to a graph/digraph

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Linking graphs and linear algebra

# Counting paths

To count paths between vertices  $\boldsymbol{x}$  and  $\boldsymbol{y}$  in a graph, we use the adjacency matrix

## Theorem 145

G a digraph and  $M_A(G)$  its adjacency matrix. Denote  $P = [p_{ij}]$  the matrix  $P = M_A^k$ . Then  $p_{ij}$  is the number of distinct paths of length k from i to j in G

This provides an interesting connection with linear algebra

# Definition 146 (Irreducible matrix)

A matrix  $A \in \mathcal{M}_n$  is **reducible** if  $\exists P \in \mathcal{M}_n$ , permutation matrix, s.t.  $P^TAP$  can be written in block triangular form. If no such P exists, A is **irreducible** 

### Theorem 147

A irreducible  $\iff$  G(A) strongly connected

Let A be the adjacency matrix of a graph G on p vertices. A graph G on p vertices is connected  $\iff$ 

$$I + A + A^2 + \cdots + A^{p-1} = C$$

has no zero entries.

#### Theorem 149

Let M be the adjacency matrix of a digraph D on p vertices. A digraph D on p vertices is strongly connected  $\iff$ 

$$I + M + M^2 + \cdots + M^{p-1} = C$$

has no zero entries.

# Nonnegative matrix

$$A = [a_{ij}] \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$$
 nonnegative if  $a_{ij} \geq 0 \ \forall i, j = 1, \dots, n; \ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  nonnegative if  $v_i \geq 0 \ \forall i = 1, \dots, n.$  Spectral radius of  $A$ 

$$\rho(A) = \max_{\lambda \in \operatorname{Sp}(A)} \{|\lambda|\}$$

Sp(A) the spectrum of A

# Perron-Frobenius (PF) theorem

# Theorem 150 (PF – Nonnegative case)

 $0 \le A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ . Then  $\exists \mathbf{v} \ge \mathbf{0}$  s.t.

$$A\mathbf{v} = \rho(A)\mathbf{v}$$

# Theorem 151 (PF - Irreducible case)

Let  $0 \le A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$  irreducible. Then  $\exists \mathbf{v} > \mathbf{0}$  s.t.

$$A\mathbf{v} = \rho(A)\mathbf{v}$$

 $\rho(A) > 0$  and with algebraic multiplicity 1. No nonnegative eigenvector is associated to any other eigenvalue of A

## Primitive matrices

#### Definition 152

 $0 \le A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$  primitive (with primitivity index  $k \in \mathbb{N}_+^*$ ) if  $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}_+^*$  s.t.

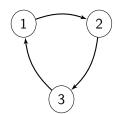
$$A^k > 0$$
,

with k the smallest integer for which this is true. A **imprimitive** if it is not primitive

A primitive  $\implies$  A irreducible; the converse is false

 $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$  irreducible and  $\exists i = 1, ..., n \text{ s.t. } a_{ii} > 0 \implies A$  primitive

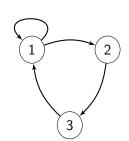
Here d is the index of imprimitivity (i.e., the number of eigenvalues that have the same modulus as  $\lambda_p = \rho(A)$ ). If d = 1, then A is primitive. We have that  $d = \gcd$  of all the lengths of closed walks in G(A)



Adjacency matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Closed walks in G(A) (lengths):  $1 \rightarrow 1$  (3),  $2 \rightarrow 2$  (3),  $2 \rightarrow 2$  (3)  $\implies$  gcd = 3  $\implies$  d = 3 (here, all eigenvalues have modulus 1)



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Closed walk  $1 \to 1$  has length  $1 \implies \gcd$  of lengths of closed walks is  $1 \implies A$  primitive

$$0 \le A \in \mathcal{M}_n$$
. A primitive  $\implies A^k > 0$  for some  $0 < k \le (n-1)n^n$ 

### Theorem 155

A > 0 primtive. Suppose the shortest simple directed cycle in G(A) has length s, then primitivity index is < n + s(n-1)

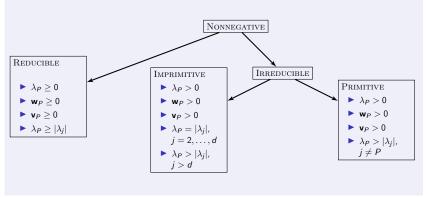
## Theorem 156

$$0 \le A \in \mathcal{M}_n$$
 primitive  $\iff A^{n^2-2n+2} > 0$ 

## Theorem 157

 $0 < A \in \mathcal{M}_n$  irreducible. A has d positive entries on the diagonal  $\implies$  primitivity index  $\leq 2n - d - 1$ 

 $0 \le A \in \mathcal{M}_n$ ,  $\lambda_P = \rho(A)$  the Perron root of A,  $\mathbf{v}_P$  and  $\mathbf{w}_P$  the corresponding right and left Perron vectors of A, respectively, d the index of imprimitivity of A (with d=1 when A is primitive) and  $\lambda_i \in \sigma(A)$  the spectrum of A, with j = 2, ..., n unless otherwise specified (assuming  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_P$ )



Why use graphs/networks?

Binary relations

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Matrices associated to a  $\mathsf{graph}/\mathsf{digraph}$ 

Trees

## **Trees**

## Definition 159 (Forest, trees and branches)

- A connected graph with no cycle is a tree.
- A tree is a connected acyclic graph, its edges are called branches.
- ► A graph (connected or not) without any cycle is a **forest**. Each component is a tree. (A forest is a graph whose connected components are trees)

## Theorem 160 (Properties)

- ► Every edge of a tree is a bridge (the deletion of any edge of a tree diconnects it)
- Given two vertices u and v of a tree, there is an unique path linking u to v.
- ▶ A tree with p vertices and q edges satisfies q = p 1. Thus, a tree is minimally connected.

# Spanning tree

Definition 161 (Spanning tree)

A spanning tree of a connected graph G is a subgraph of G that contains all the vertices of G and is a tree.

A graph may have many spanning trees.

# Minimal spanning tree

## Definition 162 (Value of a spanning tree)

The value of a spanning tree T of order p is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p-1} f(e_i)$$

where f is the function that maps the edge set into the set of real number.

## Definition 163 (Minimal spanning tree)

Let G be an undirected network, and let T be a minimal spanning tree of G. Then T is a spanning tree whose the value is minimum.

# Algorithm to find a minimal spanning tree

Let G = (V(G), E(G)) be an undirected network, and let T be a minimal spanning tree.

- 1. sort the edges of G in increasing order by value
- 2.  $T = (V(G), \emptyset)$
- for each edge e in sorted order if the endpoints of e are disconnected in T add e to T

# Minimal connector problem

- ▶ Model: a graph *G* such that edges represent all possible connections, and each edge has a positive value which represents its cost; an undirected network *G*
- ► Solution: a minimal spanning tree *T* of *G* 
  - ▶ a spanning tree of *G* is a subgraph of *G* that contains all the vertices of *G* and is a tree.
  - the cost of the spanning tree is the sum of values of the edges of T
  - a spanning tree such that no other spanning tree has a smaller cost is a minimmal spanning tree.

## Theorem 164 (Characterisation of trees)

H = (V, U) a graph of order |V| = n > 2. The following are equivalent and all characterise a tree :

- 1. H connected and has no cycles
- 2. H has n-1 arcs and no cycles
- 3. H connected and has exactly n-1 arcs
- 4. H has no cycles, and if an arc is added to H, exactly one cycle is created
- 5. H connected, and if any arc is removed, the remaining graph is not connected
- 6. Every pair of vertices of H is connected by one and only one chain

# Definition 165 (Pendant vertex)

A vertex is **pendant** if it is adjacent to exactly one other vertex

## Theorem 166

A tree of order  $n \ge 2$  has at least two pendant vertices

A graph G = (V, U) has a partial graph that is a tree  $\iff$  G

Recall that a partial graph is a graph generated by a subset of the arcs (Definition 97 slide 64)

# Spanning tree

The procedure in the proof of Theorem 167 gives a spanning tree

Can also build a spanning tree as follows:

- ► Consider any arc u<sub>0</sub>
- Find arc  $u_1$  that does not form a cycle with  $u_0$
- Find arc  $u_2$  that does not form a cycle with  $\{u_0, u_1\}$
- Continue
- ▶ When you cannot continue anymore, you have a spanning tree

G connected graph with  $\geq 1$  arc. TFAE

- 1. G strongly connected
- 2. Every arc lies on a circuit
- 3. G contains no cocircuits

G graph with  $\geq 1$  arc. TFAE

- 1. G is a graph without circuits
- 2. Each arc is contained in a cocircuit

## Theorem 170

If G is a strongly connected graph of order n, then G has a cycle basis of  $\nu(G)$  circuits

# Definition 171 (Node, anti-node, branch)

G=(V,U) strongly connected without loops and >1 vertex. For each  $x\in V$ , there is a path from it and a path to it so x has at least 2 incident arcs. Specifically,

 $\triangleright$   $x \in V$  with > 2 incident arcs is a **node** 

 $\triangleright$   $x \in V$  with 2 incident arcs is an anti-node

A path whose only nodes are its endpoints is a branch

# Definition 172 (Minimally connected graph)

G is minimally connected if it is strongly connected and removal of any arc destroys strong-connectedness

A minimally connected graph is 1-graph without loops

# Definition 173 (Contraction)

G = (V, U). The **contraction** of the set  $A \subset V$  of vertices consists in replacing A by a single vertex a and replacing each arc into (resp. out of) A by an arc with same index into (resp. out of)

G minimally connected,  $A \subset V$  generating a strongly connected subgraph of G. Then the contraction of A gives a minimally connected graph

G a minimally connected graph, G' be the minimally connected graph obtained by the contraction of an elementary circuit of G. Then

$$\nu(G) = \nu(G') + 1$$

#### Theorem 176

G minimally connected of order  $n \ge 2 \implies G$  has  $\ge 2$  anti-nodes

## Theorem 177

G = (V, U). Then the graph C' obtained by contracting each strongly connected component of G contains no circuits

## **Arborescences**

# Definition 178 (Root)

Vertex  $a \in V$  in G = (V, U) is a **root** if all vertices of G can be reached by paths *starting* from a

Not all graphs have roots

# Definition 179 (Quasi-strong connectedness)

*G* is quasi-strongly connected if  $\forall x, y \in V$ , exists  $z \in V$  (denoted z(x, y) to emphasize dependence on x, y) from which there is a path to x and a path to y

Strongly connected  $\implies$  quasi-strongly connected (take z(x,y)=x); converse not true Quasi-strongly connected  $\implies$  connected

## Arborescence

## Definition 180 (Arborescence)

An arborescence is a tree that has a root

#### Lemma 181

G = (V, U) has a root  $\iff$  G quasi-strongly connected

H graph of order n>1. TFAE (and all characterise an arborescence)

- 1. H quasi-strongly connected without cycles
- 2. H quasi-strongly connected with n-1 arcs
- 3. H tree having a root a
- 4.  $\exists a \in V \text{ s.t. all other vertices are connected with a by 1 and only 1 path from a$
- 5. H quasi-strongly connected and loses quasi-strong connectedness if any arc is removed
- 6. H quasi-strongly connected and  $\exists a \in V$  s.t.

$$d_H^-(a) = 0$$
  
 $d_H^-(x) = 1$   $\forall x \neq a$ 

7. H has no cycles and  $\exists a \in V \text{ s.t.}$ 

$$d_H^-(a)=0$$

G has a partial graph that is an arborescence  $\iff G$  quasi-strongly connected

#### Theorem 184

G = (V, E) simple connected graph and  $x_1 \in V$ . It is possible to direct all edges of E so that the resulting graph  $G_0 = (V, U)$  has a spanning tree H s.t.

- 1. H is an arborescence with root  $x_1$
- 2. The cycles associated with H are circuits
- 3. The only elementary circuits of  $G_0$  are the cycles associated with H

# Counting trees

## Proposition 185

X a set with n distinct objects,  $n_1, \ldots, n_p$  nonnegative integers s.t.  $n_1 + \cdots + n_p = n$ . The number of ways to place the n objects into p boxes  $X_1, \ldots, X_p$  containing  $n_1, \ldots, n_p$  objects respectively is

$$\binom{n}{n_1,\ldots,n_p} = \frac{n!}{n_1!\cdots n_p!}$$

## Proposition 186 (Multinomial formula)

Let  $a_1, \ldots, a_p \in \mathbb{R}$  be p real numbers, then

$$(a_1 + \cdots + a_p)^n = \sum_{n_1, \dots, n_p \geq 0} {n \choose n_1, \dots, n_p} (a_1)^{n_1} \cdots (a_p)^{n_p}$$

Denote  $T(n; d_1, ..., d_n)$  the number of distinct trees H with vertices  $x_1, ..., x_n$  and with degrees  $d_H(x_1) = d_1, ..., d_H(x_n) = d_n$ . Then

$$T(n; d_1, \ldots, d_n) = \binom{n-2}{d_1-1, \ldots, d_n-1}$$

## Theorem 188

The number of different trees with vertices  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  is  $n^{n-2}$ 

There is a whole industry of similar results (as well as for arborescences), but we will stop here. The main point is that we are talking about a large number of possibilities..