

GRAPH THEORY
PACKAGE FOR
GIAC/XCAS
REFERENCE MANUAL

August 2018

DRAFT

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	7
1. CONSTRUCTING GRAPHS	9
1.1. General graphs	9
1.1.1. Undirected graphs	9
1.1.2. Directed graphs	10
1.1.3. Examples	10
Creating vertices	10
Creating edges and arcs	10
Creating paths and trails	11
Specifying adjacency or weight matrix	11
Creating special graphs	12
1.2. Cycle and path graphs	13
1.2.1. Cycle graphs	13
1.2.2. Path graphs	13
1.2.3. Trails of edges	13
1.3. Complete graphs	14
1.3.1. Complete graphs (with multiple vertex partitions)	14
1.3.2. Complete trees	15
1.4. Sequence graphs	15
1.4.1. Creating graphs from degree sequences	15
1.4.2. Validating graphic sequences	16
1.5. Intersection graphs	16
1.5.1. Interval graphs	16
1.5.2. Kneser graphs	16
1.6. Special graphs	17
1.6.1. Hypercube graphs	17
1.6.2. Star graphs	18
1.6.3. Wheel graphs	18
1.6.4. Web graphs	18
1.6.5. Prism graphs	19
1.6.6. Antiprism graphs	19
1.6.7. Grid graphs	20
1.6.8. Sierpiński graphs	21
1.6.9. Generalized Petersen graphs	21
1.6.10. LCF graphs	22
1.7. Isomorphic copies of graphs	23
1.7.1. Creating an isomorphic copy of a graph	23
1.7.2. Permuting graph vertices	23
1.7.3. Relabeling graph vertices	24
1.8. Subgraphs	24
1.8.1. Extracting subgraphs	24
1.8.2. Induced subgraphs	24
1.8.3. Underlying graphs	25
1.9. Operations on graphs	25
1.9.1. Graph complement	25
1.9.2. Seidel switching	26
1.9.3. Transposing graphs	26
1.9.4. Union of graphs	27

1.9.5. Disjoint union of graphs	27
1.9.6. Joining two graphs	27
1.9.7. Power graphs	28
1.9.8. Graph products	29
1.9.9. Transitive closure graph	30
1.9.10. Line graph	31
1.9.11. Plane dual graph	32
1.10. Random graphs	33
1.10.1. Random general graphs	33
1.10.2. Random bipartite graphs	34
1.10.3. Random trees	34
1.10.4. Random planar graphs	35
1.10.5. Random graphs from the given degree sequence	36
1.10.6. Random regular graphs	37
1.10.7. Random tournaments	38
1.10.8. Random network graphs	38
1.10.9. Randomizing edge weights	39
2. MODIFYING GRAPHS	41
2.1. Promoting to directed and weighted graphs	41
2.1.1. Converting edges to arcs	41
2.1.2. Assigning weight matrix to unweighted graphs	41
2.2. Modifying vertices of a graph	41
2.2.1. Adding and removing vertices	41
2.3. Modifying edges of a graph	42
2.3.1. Adding and removing edges	42
2.3.2. Accessing and modifying edge weights	43
2.3.3. Contracting edges	44
2.3.4. Subdividing edges	44
2.4. Using attributes	45
2.4.1. Graph attributes	45
2.4.2. Vertex attributes	46
2.4.3. Edge attributes	47
3. IMPORT AND EXPORT	49
3.1. Importing graphs	49
3.1.1. Loading graphs from dot files	49
3.1.2. The dot file format overview	49
3.2. Exporting graphs	50
3.2.1. Saving graphs in dot format	50
3.2.2. Saving graph drawings in L ^A T _E X format	50
4. GRAPH PROPERTIES	53
4.1. Basic properties	53
4.1.1. Determining the type of a graph	53
4.1.2. Listing vertices and edges	53
4.1.3. Equality of graphs	54
4.1.4. Vertex degrees	55
4.1.5. Regular graphs	56
4.1.6. Strongly regular graphs	56
4.1.7. Vertex adjacency	57
4.1.8. Tournament graphs	58
4.1.9. Bipartite graphs	59
4.1.10. Edge incidence	59
4.2. Algebraic properties	60

4.2.1. Adjacency matrix	60
4.2.2. Laplacian matrix	61
4.2.3. Incidence matrix	62
4.2.4. Weight matrix	63
4.2.5. Characteristic polynomial	64
4.2.6. Graph spectrum	64
4.2.7. Seidel spectrum	65
4.2.8. Integer graphs	65
4.3. Graph isomorphism	65
4.3.1. Isomorphic graphs	65
4.3.2. Graph automorphisms	68
4.4. Graph polynomials	69
4.4.1. Tutte polynomial	69
4.4.2. Chromatic polynomial	71
4.4.3. Flow polynomial	72
4.4.4. Reliability polynomial	72
4.5. Connectivity	74
4.5.1. Vertex connectivity	74
4.5.2. Connected and biconnected components	75
4.5.3. Graph rank	76
4.5.4. Articulation points	76
4.5.5. Strongly connected components	77
4.5.6. Edge connectivity	77
4.5.7. Edge cuts	77
4.6. Trees	78
4.6.1. Tree graphs	78
4.6.2. Forest graphs	78
4.6.3. Height of a tree	79
4.6.4. Lowest common ancestor of a pair of nodes	79
4.6.5. Arborescence graphs	80
4.7. Networks	80
4.7.1. Network graphs	80
4.7.2. Maximum flow	81
4.8. Distance in graphs	83
4.8.1. Vertex distance	83
4.8.2. All-pairs vertex distance	83
4.8.3. Diameter	84
4.8.4. Girth	85
4.9. Acyclic graphs	85
4.9.1. Acyclic graphs	85
4.9.2. Topological sorting	86
4.9.3. st ordering	86
4.10. Matching in graphs	87
4.10.1. Maximum matching	87
4.10.2. Maximum matching in bipartite graphs	88
4.11. Cliques	89
4.11.1. Clique graphs	89
4.11.2. Triangle-free graphs	89
4.11.3. Maximal cliques	89
4.11.4. Maximum clique	90
4.11.5. Minimum clique cover	91
4.11.6. Clique cover number	92
4.12. Vertex coloring	92
4.12.1. Greedy coloring	92
4.12.2. Minimal coloring	93
4.12.3. Chromatic number	94

4.12.4. k -coloring	95
4.13. Edge coloring	96
4.13.1. Minimal coloring	96
4.13.2. Chromatic index	96
5. TRAVERSING GRAPHS	99
5.1. Walks and tours	99
5.1.1. Eulerian graphs	99
5.1.2. Hamiltonian graphs	99
5.2. Optimal routing	100
5.2.1. Shortest unweighted paths	100
5.2.2. Cheapest weighted paths	101
5.2.3. Traveling salesman problem	102
5.3. Spanning trees	104
5.3.1. Construction of spanning trees	104
5.3.2. Minimal spanning tree	105
5.3.3. Counting the spanning trees in a graph	105
6. VISUALIZING GRAPHS	107
6.1. Drawing graphs	107
6.1.1. Overview	107
6.1.2. Drawing disconnected graphs	107
6.1.3. Spring method	108
6.1.4. Drawing trees	110
6.1.5. Drawing planar graphs	111
6.1.6. Circular graph drawings	113
6.2. Vertex positions	113
6.2.1. Setting vertex positions	113
6.2.2. Generating vertex positions	114
6.3. Highlighting in graphs	115
6.3.1. Highlighting vertices	115
6.3.2. Highlighting edges and trails	115
6.3.3. Highlighting subgraphs	116
BIBLIOGRAPHY	119
COMMAND INDEX	121

INTRODUCTION

This document contains an overview of the graph theory commands built in the Giac computation kernel, including the calling syntax, detailed description and practical examples for each command.

CHAPTER 1

CONSTRUCTING GRAPHS

1.1. GENERAL GRAPHS

The commands `graph` and `digraph` are used for constructing general [graphs](#).

1.1.1. Undirected graphs

Syntax: `graph(n or V, [opts])`
`graph(V, E, [opts])`
`graph(E, [opts])`
`graph(V, T, [opts])`
`graph(T, [opts])`
`graph(V, T1, T2, T3, ..., Tk, [opts])`
`graph(T1, T2, T3, ..., Tk, [opts])`
`graph(A, [opts])`
`graph(V, E, A, [opts])`
`graph(V, Perm, [opts])`
`graph(Str)`

The command `graph` accepts between one and three main arguments, each of them being one of the following structural elements of the resulting graph:

- number n or list of vertices V (a vertex may be any atomic object, such as an integer, a symbol or a string); it must be the first argument if used,
- set of edges E (each edge is a list containing two vertices), a permutation, a trail of edges or a sequence of trails; it can be either the first or the second argument if used,
- trail T or sequence of trails T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k ,
- permutation `Perm` of vertices,
- adjacency or weight matrix A ,
- string `Str`, representing a special graph.

Optionally, the following options may be appended to the sequence of arguments:

- `directed = true` or `false`,
- `weighted = true` or `false`,
- `color =` an integer or a list of integers representing color(s) of the vertices,
- `coordinates =` a list of vertex 2D or 3D coordinates.

The `graph` command may also be called by passing a string `Str`, representing the name of a special graph, as its only argument. In that case the corresponding graph will be constructed and returned. The supported graphs and their names are listed below.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. 2 nd Blanuša snark : <code>blanusa</code> | 3. Coxeter graph : <code>coxeter</code> |
| 2. Clebsch graph : <code>clebsch</code> | 4. Desargues graph : <code>desargues</code> |

- | | |
|---|---|
| 5. Dodecahedral graph: <code>dodecahedron</code> | 16. Ljubljana graph: <code>ljubljana</code> |
| 6. Dürer graph: <code>durer</code> | 17. McGee graph: <code>mcgee</code> |
| 7. Dyck graph: <code>dyck</code> | 18. Möbius–Kantor graph: <code>mobius-kantor</code> |
| 8. Grinberg graph: <code>grinberg</code> | 19. Nauru graph: <code>nauru</code> |
| 9. Grötzsch graph: <code>grotzsch</code> | 20. Octahedral graph: <code>octahedron</code> |
| 10. Harries graph: <code>harries</code> | 21. Pappus graph: <code>pappus</code> |
| 11. Harries–Wong graph: <code>harries-wong</code> | 22. Petersen graph: <code>petersen</code> |
| 12. Heawood graph: <code>heawood</code> | 23. Robertson graph: <code>robertson</code> |
| 13. Herschel graph: <code>herschel</code> | 24. Trunc. icosahedral graph: <code>soccerball</code> |
| 14. Icosahedral graph: <code>icosahedron</code> | 25. Shrikhande graph: <code>shrikhande</code> |
| 15. Levi graph: <code>levi</code> | 26. Tetrahedral graph: <code>tetrahedron</code> |

1.1.2. Directed graphs

The `digraph` command is used for creating **directed graphs**, although it is also possible with the `graph` command by specifying the option `directed=true`. Actually, calling `digraph` is the same as calling `graph` with that option appended to the sequence of arguments. However, creating special graphs is not supported by `digraph` since they are all undirected.

Edges in directed graphs are called **arcs**.

1.1.3. Examples

Creating vertices. A graph consisting only of vertices and no edges can be created simply by providing the number of vertices or the list of vertex labels.

```
> graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 0 edges

```
> graph([a,b,c])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 0 edges

The commands that return graphs often need to generate vertex labels. In these cases ordinal integers are used, which are 0-based in `Xcas` mode and 1-based in `Maple` mode. Examples throughout this manual are made by using the default mode (`Xcas`).

Creating edges and arcs. Edges/arcs must be specified inside a set so that it can be distinguished from a (adjacency or weight) matrix. If only a set of edges/arcs is specified, the vertices needed to establish these will be created automatically. Note that, when constructing a directed graph, the order of the vertices in an arc matters; in undirected graphs it is not meaningful.

```
> graph({[a,b],[b,c],[a,c]})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

Edge weights may also be specified.

```
> graph({[[a,b],2],[[b,c],2.3],[[c,a],3/2]})
```

an undirected weighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

If the graph contains isolated vertices (not connected to any other vertex) or a particular order of vertices is desired, the list of vertices has to be specified first.

```
> graph([d,b,c,a],%{[a,b],[b,c],[a,c]%})
```

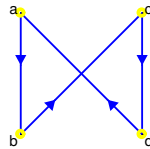
an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

Creating paths and trails. A directed graph can also be created from a list of n vertices and a permutation of order n . The resulting graph consists of a single directed cycle with the vertices ordered according to the permutation.

```
> G:=graph([a,b,c,d],[1,2,3,0])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



Alternatively, one may specify edges as a **trail**.

```
> digraph([a,b,c,d],trail(b,c,d,a))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 arcs

Using trails is also possible when creating undirected graphs. Also, some vertices in a trail may be repeated, which is not allowed in a path.

```
> G:=graph([a,b,c,d],trail(b,c,d,a,c))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges

```
> edges(G)
```

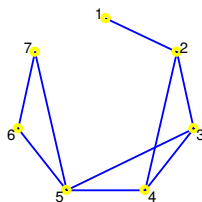
$$\begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ a & d \\ b & c \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$

It is possible to specify several trails in a sequence, which is useful when designing more complex graphs.

```
> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,2),trail(3,5,6,7,5,4))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 9 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



Specifying adjacency or weight matrix. A graph can be created from a single square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]_n$ of order n . If it contains only ones and zeros and has zeros on its diagonal, it is assumed to be the adjacency matrix for the desired graph. Otherwise, if an element outside the set $\{0, 1\}$ is encountered, it is assumed that the matrix of edge weights is passed as input, causing the resulting graph to be weighted accordingly. In each case, exactly n vertices will be created and i -th and j -th vertex will be connected iff $a_{ij} \neq 0$. If the matrix is symmetric, the resulting graph will be undirected, otherwise it will be directed.

```
> G:=graph([[0,1,1,0],[1,0,0,1],[1,0,0,0],[0,1,0,0]])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> edges(G)
```

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

```
> G:=graph([[0,1.0,2.3,0],[4,0,0,3.1],[0,0,0,0],[0,0,0,0]])
```

a directed weighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> edges(G,weights)
```

$\{[0,1], 1.0, [0,2], 2.3, [1,0], 4, [1,3], 3.1\}$

List of vertex labels can be specified alongside a matrix.

```
> graph([a,b,c,d],[[0,1,1,0],[1,0,0,1],[1,0,0,0],[0,1,0,0]])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

When creating a weighted graph, one can first specify the list of n vertices and the set of edges, followed by a square matrix A of order n . Then for every edge $\{i, j\}$ or arc (i, j) the element a_{ij} of A is assigned as its weight. Other elements of A are ignored.

```
> G:=digraph([a,b,c],%{[a,b],[b,c],[a,c]}%,[0,1,2],[3,0,4],[5,6,0]])
```

a directed weighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 arcs

```
> edges(G,weights)
```

$\{[a,b], 1, [a,c], 2, [b,c], 4\}$

Creating special graphs. When a special graph is desired, one just needs to pass its name to the `graph` command. An undirected unweighted graph will be returned.

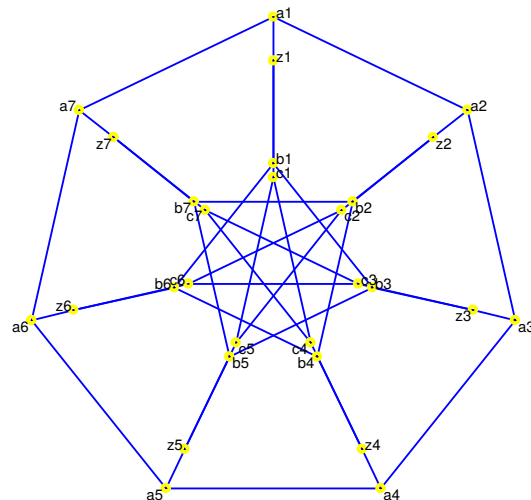
```
> graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> G:=graph("coxeter")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 28 vertices and 42 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.2. CYCLE AND PATH GRAPHS

1.2.1. Cycle graphs

The command `cycle_graph` is used for constructing [cycle graphs](#) [18, pp. 4].

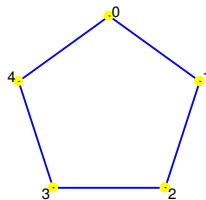
Syntax: `cycle_graph(n)`
`cycle_graph(V)`

`cycle_graph` accepts a positive integer n or a list of distinct vertices V as its only argument and returns the graph consisting of a single cycle on the specified vertices in the given order. If n is specified it is assumed to be the desired number of vertices, in which case they will be created and labeled with the first n integers (starting from 0 in Xcas mode and from 1 in Maple mode). The resulting graph will be given the name C_n , for example C_4 for $n = 4$.

```
> C5:=cycle_graph(5)
```

C5: an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

```
> draw_graph(C5)
```



```
> cycle_graph(["a","b","c","d","e"])
```

C5: an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

1.2.2. Path graphs

The command `path_graph` is used for constructing [path graphs](#) [18, pp. 4].

Syntax: `path_graph(n)`
`path_graph(V)`

`path_graph` accepts a positive integer n or a list of distinct vertices V as its only argument and returns a graph consisting of a single path on the specified vertices in the given order. If n is specified it is assumed to be the desired number of vertices, in which case they will be created and labeled with the first n integers (starting from 0 in Xcas mode resp. from 1 in Maple mode).

Note that a path cannot intersect itself. Paths that are allowed to cross themselves are called **trails** (see the command [trail](#)).

```
> path_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 edges

```
> path_graph(["a","b","c","d","e"])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 edges

1.2.3. Trails of edges

Syntax: `trail(v1,v2,...,vk)`
`trail2edges(T)`

If the dummy command `trail` is called with a sequence of vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k as arguments, it returns the symbolic expression representing the `trail` which visits the specified vertices in the given order. The resulting symbolic object is recognizable by some commands, for example `graph` and `digraph`. Note that a trail may cross itself (some vertices may be repeated in the given sequence).

Any trail T is easily converted to the corresponding list of edges by calling the `trail2edges` command, which accepts the trail as its only argument.

```
> T:=trail(1,2,3,4,2):: graph(T)
```

Done, an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges

```
> trail2edges(T)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

1.3. COMPLETE GRAPHS

1.3.1. Complete graphs (with multiple vertex partitions)

The command `complete_graph` is used for construction of `complete` (`multipartite`) graphs.

Syntax: `complete_graph(n)`
`complete_graph(V)`
`complete_graph(n1,n2,...,nk)`

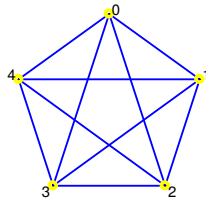
`complete_graph` can be called with a single argument, a positive integer n or a list of distinct vertices V , in which case it returns the complete graph [18, pp. 2] on the specified vertices. If integer n is specified, it is assumed that it is the desired number of vertices and they will be created and labeled with the first n integers (starting from 0 in Xcas mode and from 1 in Maple mode).

If `complete_graph` is given a sequence of positive integers n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k as its argument, it returns a complete multipartite graph with partitions of size n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k .

```
> K5:=complete_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 edges

```
> draw_graph(K5)
```



```
> K3:=complete_graph([a,b,c])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

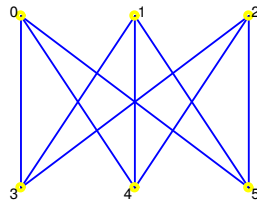
```
> edges(K3)
```

$$\{[a, b], [a, c], [b, c]\}$$

```
> K33:=complete_graph(3,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 9 edges

```
> draw_graph(K33)
```



1.3.2. Complete trees

The commands `complete_binary_tree` and `complete_kary_tree` are used for construction of complete [binary trees](#) and complete k -ary trees, respectively.

Syntax: `complete_binary_tree(n)`
`complete_kary_tree(k,n)`

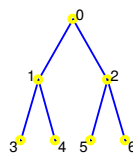
`complete_binary_tree` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns a complete binary tree of depth n .

`complete_kary_tree` accepts positive integers k and n as its arguments and returns the complete k -ary tree of depth n .

```
> T1:=complete_binary_tree(2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 6 edges

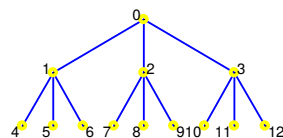
```
> draw_graph(T1)
```



```
> T2:=complete_kary_tree(3,2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 13 vertices and 12 edges

```
> draw_graph(T2)
```



1.4. SEQUENCE GRAPHS

1.4.1. Creating graphs from degree sequences

The command `sequence_graph` is used for constructing graphs from [degree sequences](#).

Syntax: `sequence_graph(L)`

`sequence_graph` accepts a list L of positive integers as its only argument and, if L represents a graphic sequence, the corresponding graph G with $|L|$ vertices is returned. If the argument is not a graphic sequence, an error is returned.

```
> sequence_graph([3,2,4,2,3,4,5,7])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 15 edges

Sequence graphs are constructed in $O(|L|^2 \log |L|)$ time by applying the algorithm of HAVEL and HAKIMI [21].

1.4.2. Validating graphic sequences

The command `is_graphic_sequence` is used to check whether a list of integers represents the degree sequence of some graph.

Syntax: `is_graphic_sequence(L)`

`is_graphic_sequence` accepts a list L of positive integers as its only argument and returns `true` if there exists a graph $G(V, E)$ with degree sequence $\{\deg v : v \in V\}$ equal to L and `false` otherwise. The algorithm, which has the complexity $O(|L|^2)$, is based on the theorem of ERDŐS and GALLAI.

```
> is_graphic_sequence([3,2,4,2,3,4,5,7])
```

```
true
```

1.5. INTERSECTION GRAPHS

1.5.1. Interval graphs

The command `interval_graph` is used for construction of [interval graphs](#).

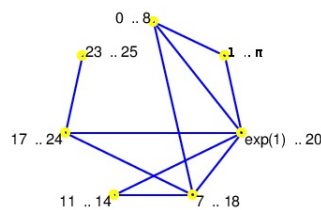
Syntax: `interval_graph(L)`

`interval_graph` accepts a sequence or list L of real-line intervals as its argument and returns an undirected unweighted graph with these intervals as vertices (the string representations of the intervals are used as labels), each two of them being connected with an edge if and only if the corresponding intervals intersect.

```
> G:=interval_graph(0..8,1..pi,exp(1)..20,7..18,11..14,17..24,23..25)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 10 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.5.2. Kneser graphs

The commands `kneser_graph` and `odd_graph` are used for construction of [Kneser graphs](#).

Syntax: `kneser_graph(n,k)`
`odd_graph(d)`

`kneser_graph` accepts two positive integers $n \leq 20$ and k as its arguments and returns the Kneser graph $K(n, k)$. The latter is obtained by setting all k -subsets of a set of n elements as vertices and connecting each two of them if and only if the corresponding sets are disjoint. Therefore, each Kneser graph is the complement of the corresponding intersection graph on the same collection of subsets.

Kneser graphs can get exceedingly complex even for relatively small values of n and k . Note that the number of vertices in $K(n, k)$ is equal to $\binom{n}{k}$.

```
> kneser_graph(5,2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

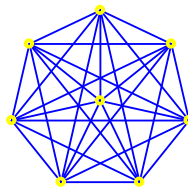
```
> G:=kneser_graph(8,1)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 28 edges

```
> is_clique(G)
```

true

```
> draw_graph(G,spring,labels=false)
```



The command `odd_graph` is used for creating **odd graphs**, i.e. Kneser graphs with parameters $n = 2d + 1$ and $k = d$ for $d \geq 1$.

`odd_graph` accepts a positive integer $d \leq 8$ as its only argument and returns d -th odd graph $K(2d + 1, d)$. Note that the odd graphs with $d > 8$ will not be constructed as they are too big to handle.

```
> odd_graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

1.6. SPECIAL GRAPHS

1.6.1. Hypercube graphs

The command `hypercube_graph` is used for construction of **hypercube graphs**.

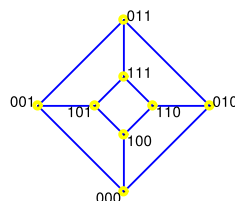
Syntax: `hypercube_graph(n)`

`hypercube_graph` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns the hypercube graph of dimension n on 2^n vertices. The vertex labels are strings of binary digits of length n . Two vertices are joined by an edge if and only if their labels differ in exactly one character. The hypercube graph for $n = 2$ is a square and for $n = 3$ it is a cube.

```
> H:=hypercube_graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 12 edges

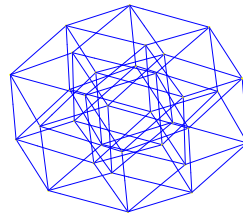
```
> draw_graph(H,planar)
```



```
> H:=hypercube_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 32 vertices and 80 edges

```
> draw_graph(H,plot3d,labels=false)
```



1.6.2. Star graphs

The command `star_graph` is used for construction of `star graphs`.

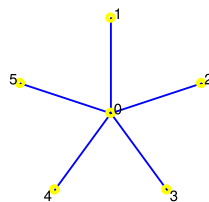
Syntax: `star_graph(n)`

`star_graph` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns the star graph with $n + 1$ vertices, which is equal to the complete bipartite graph `complete_graph(1,n)` i.e. a n -ary tree with one level.

```
> G:=star_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 5 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.6.3. Wheel graphs

The command `wheel_graph` is used for construction of `wheel graphs`.

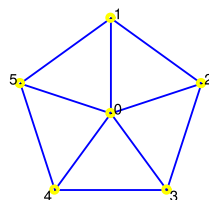
Syntax: `wheel_graph(n)`

`wheel_graph` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns the wheel graph with $n + 1$ vertices.

```
> G:=wheel_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 10 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.6.4. Web graphs

The command `web_graph` is used for construction of web graphs.

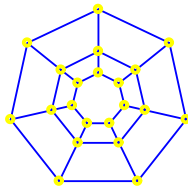
Syntax: `web_graph(a,b)`

`web_graph` accepts two positive integers a and b as its arguments and returns the web graph with parameters a and b , namely the Cartesian product of `cycle_graph(a)` and `path_graph(b)`.

```
> G:=web_graph(7,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 21 vertices and 35 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,labels=false)
```



1.6.5. Prism graphs

The command `prism_graph` is used for construction of [prism graphs](#).

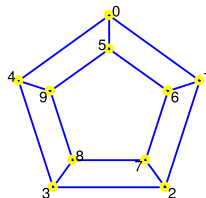
Syntax: `prism_graph(n)`

`prism_graph` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns the prism graph with parameter n , namely `petersen_graph(n,1)`.

```
> G:=prism_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.6.6. Antiprism graphs

The command `antiprism_graph` is used for construction of [antiprism graphs](#).

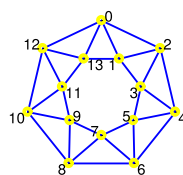
Syntax: `antiprism_graph(n)`

`antiprism_graph` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns the antiprism graph with parameter n , which is constructed from two concentric cycles of n vertices by joining each vertex of the inner to two adjacent nodes of the outer cycle.

```
> G:=antiprism_graph(7)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 14 vertices and 28 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.6.7. Grid graphs

The command `grid_graph` resp. `torus_grid_graph` is used for construction of rectangular resp. torus grid graphs.

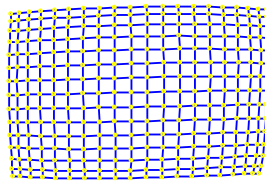
Syntax: `grid_graph(m,n)`
`torus_grid_graph(m,n)`

`grid_graph` accepts two positive integers m and n as its arguments and returns the m by n grid on $m \cdot n$ vertices, namely the Cartesian product of `path_graph(m)` and `path_graph(n)`.

```
> G:=grid_graph(15,20)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 300 vertices and 565 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,spring)
```

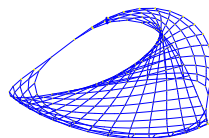


For example, connecting vertices in the opposite corners of the generated grid yields a grid-like graph with no corners.

```
> G:=add_edge(G,["14:0","0:19"],["0:0","14:19"])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 300 vertices and 567 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,plot3d)
```



In the next example, the Möbius strip is constructed by connecting the vertices in the opposite sides of a narrow grid graph.

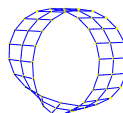
```
> G:=grid_graph(20,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 60 vertices and 97 edges

```
> G:=add_edge(G,["0:0","19:2"],["0:1","19:1"],["0:2","19:0"])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 60 vertices and 100 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,plot3d,labels=false)
```

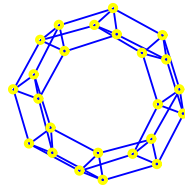


`torus_grid_graph` accepts two positive integers m and n as its arguments and returns the m by n torus grid on $m \cdot n$ vertices, namely the Cartesian product of `cycle_graph(m)` and `cycle_graph(n)`.

```
> G:=torus_grid_graph(8,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 24 vertices and 48 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,spring,labels=false)
```



1.6.8. Sierpiński graphs

The command `sierpinski_graph` is used for construction of Sierpiński-type graphs S_k^n and ST_k^n [24].

Syntax: `sierpinski_graph(n,k)`
`sierpinski_graph(n,k,triangle)`

`sierpinski_graph` accepts two positive integers n and k as its arguments and optionally the symbol `triangle` as the third argument. It returns the Sierpiński (triangle) graph with parameters n and k .

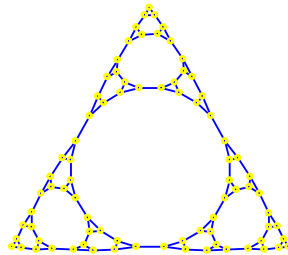
The Sierpiński triangle graph ST_k^n is obtained by contracting all non-clique edges in S_k^n . To detect such edges the variant of the algorithm by BRON and KERBOSCH, developed by TOMITA et al. in [39], is used, which can be time consuming for $n > 6$.

In particular, ST_3^n is the well-known [Sierpiński sieve](#) graph of order n .

```
> S:=sierpinski_graph(4,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 81 vertices and 120 edges

```
> draw_graph(S,spring)
```



```
> sierpinski_graph(4,3,triangle)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 42 vertices and 81 edges

```
> sierpinski_graph(5,3,triangle)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 123 vertices and 243 edges

A drawing of the graph produced by the last command line is shown in Figure 3.1.

1.6.9. Generalized Petersen graphs

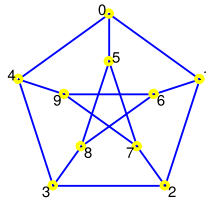
The command `petersen_graph` is used for construction of [generalized Petersen graphs](#) $P(n,k)$.

Syntax: `petersen_graph(n)`
`petersen_graph(n,k)`

`petersen_graph` accepts two positive integers n and k as its arguments. The second argument may be omitted, in which case $k = 2$ is assumed. The graph $P(n,k)$, which is returned, is a connected cubic graph consisting of—in Schläfli notation—an inner star polygon $\{n,k\}$ and an outer regular polygon $\{n\}$ such that the n pairs of corresponding vertices in inner and outer polygons are connected with edges. For $k = 1$ the prism graph of order n is obtained.

The well-known Petersen graph is equal to the generalized Petersen graph $P(5, 2)$. It can also be constructed by calling `graph("petersen")`.

```
> draw_graph(graph("petersen"))
```



To obtain the dodecahedral graph $P(10, 2)$, input:

```
> petersen_graph(10)
```

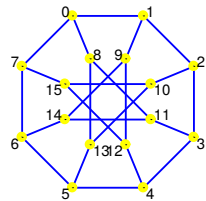
an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

To obtain Möbius–Kantor graph $P(8, 3)$, input:

```
> G:=petersen_graph(8,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 16 vertices and 24 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



Note that Desargues, Dürer and Nauru graphs are isomorphic to the generalized Petersen graphs $P(10, 3)$, $P(6, 2)$ and $P(12, 5)$, respectively.

1.6.10. LCF graphs

The command `lcf_graph` is used for construction of cubic Hamiltonian graphs from [LCF notation](#).

Syntax: `lcf_graph(L)`
`lcf_graph(L,n)`

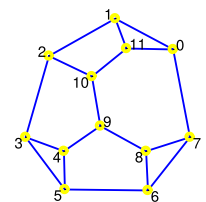
`lcf_graph` takes one or two arguments, a list L of nonzero integers, called *jumps*, and optionally a positive integer n , called the *exponent* (by default, $n = 1$). The command returns the graph on $n|L|$ vertices obtained by iterating the sequence of jumps n times.

For example, the following command line creates [Frucht graph](#).

```
> F:=lcf_graph([-5,-2,-4,2,5,-2,2,5,-2,-5,4,2])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 12 vertices and 18 edges

```
> draw_graph(F,planar)
```

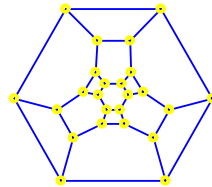


In the next example, the truncated octahedral graph is constructed from LCF notation.

```
> G:=lcf_graph([3,-7,7,-3],6)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 24 vertices and 36 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,planar,labels=false)
```



1.7. ISOMORPHIC COPIES OF GRAPHS

1.7.1. Creating an isomorphic copy of a graph

To create an isomorphic copy of a graph by applying a permutation to the ordering of vertices, use the `isomorphic_copy` command.

Syntax: `isomorphic_copy(G,sigma)`

`isomorphic_copy` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a permutation σ of order $|V|$, and returns the copy of graph G with vertices rearranged according to σ . The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V| + |E|)$.

```
> P:=path_graph([1,2,3,4,5])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 edges

```
> G:=isomorphic_copy(P,randperm(5))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 edges

```
> vertices(G)
```

[3, 4, 2, 1, 5]

```
> is_isomorphic(P,G)
```

true

1.7.2. Permuting graph vertices

To create an isomorphic copy of a graph by providing the reordered list of vertex labels, use the command `permute_vertices`.

Syntax: `permute_vertices(G,L)`

`permute_vertices` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a list L of length $|V|$ containing all vertices from V in a certain order, and returns a copy of G with vertices rearranged as specified by L . The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V| + |E|)$.

```
> G:=permute_vertices(path_graph([a,b,c,d]),[b,d,a,c])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> vertices(G)
```

[b, d, a, c]

1.7.3. Relabeling graph vertices

To relabel the vertices of a graph without changing their order, use the command `relabel_vertices`.

Syntax: `relabel_vertices(G,L)`

`relabel_vertices` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a list L of vertex labels of length $|V|$. It returns a copy of G with L as the list of vertex labels. The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V|)$.

```
> P:=path_graph([1,2,3,4])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> edges(P)
```

$\{[1, 2], [2, 3], [3, 4]\}$

```
> G:=relabel_vertices(P,[a,b,c,d])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> edges(G)
```

$\{[a, b], [b, c], [c, d]\}$

1.8. SUBGRAPHS

1.8.1. Extracting subgraphs

To extract the subgraph of a graph formed by a subset of the set of its edges, use the command `subgraph`.

Syntax: `subgraph(G,L)`

`subgraph` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a list of edges L . It returns the subgraph $G'(V', L)$ of G , where $V' \subset V$ is a subset of vertices of G incident to at least one edge from L .

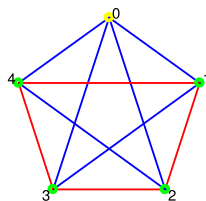
```
> K5:=complete_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 edges

```
> S:=subgraph(K5,[[1,2],[2,3],[3,4],[4,1]])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges

```
> draw_graph(highlight_subgraph(K5,S))
```



1.8.2. Induced subgraphs

To obtain the subgraph of a graph **induced** by a subset of its vertices, use the command `induced_subgraph`.

Syntax: `induced_subgraph(G,L)`

`induced_subgraph` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a list of vertices L . It returns the subgraph $G'(L, E')$ of G , where $E' \subset E$ contains all edges which have both endpoints in L [18, pp. 3].

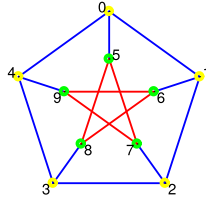
```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> S:=induced_subgraph(G, [5,6,7,8,9])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

```
> draw_graph(highlight_subgraph(G,S))
```



1.8.3. Underlying graphs

For every graph $G(V, E)$ there is an undirected and unweighted graph $U(V, E')$, called the **underlying graph** of G , where E' is obtained from E by dropping edge directions. To construct U , use the command `underlying_graph`.

Syntax: `underlying_graph(G)`

`underlying_graph` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument. The result is obtained by copying G and “forgetting” the directions of edges as well as their weights. The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V| + |E|)$.

```
> G:=digraph(%{[[1,2],6],[[2,3],4],[[3,1],5],[[3,2],7]%})
```

a directed weighted graph with 3 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> U:=underlying_graph(G)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

```
> edges(U)
```

$\{[1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3]\}$

1.9. OPERATIONS ON GRAPHS

1.9.1. Graph complement

The command `graph_complement` is used for construction of **complement graphs**.

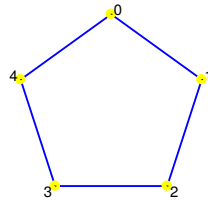
Syntax: `graph_complement(G)`

`graph_complement` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the complement graph $G^c(V, E^c)$ of G , where E^c is the largest set containing only edges/arcs not present in G . The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V|^2)$.

```
> C5:=cycle_graph(5)
```

C5: an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

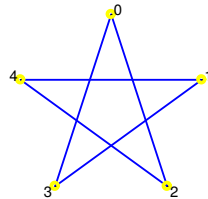
```
> draw_graph(C5)
```



```
> G:=graph_complement(C5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.9.2. Seidel switching

The command `seidel_switch` is used for Seidel [switching](#) in graphs.

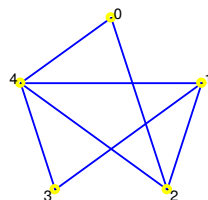
Syntax: `seidel_switch(G,L)`

`seidel_switch` accepts two arguments, an undirected and unweighted graph $G(V, E)$ and a list of vertices $L \subset V$. The result is a copy of G in which, for each vertex $v \in L$, its neighbors become its non-neighbors and vice versa.

```
> S:=seidel_switch(cycle_graph(5),[1,2])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 7 edges

```
> draw_graph(S)
```



1.9.3. Transposing graphs

The command `reverse_graph` is used for reversing arc directions in digraphs.

Syntax: `reverse_graph(G)`

`reverse_graph` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the reverse graph $G^T(V, E')$ of G where $E' = \{(j, i) : (i, j) \in E\}$, i.e. returns the copy of G with the directions of all edges reversed.

Note that `reverse_graph` is defined for both directed and undirected graphs, but gives meaningful results only for directed graphs.

G^T is also called the **transpose graph** of G because adjacency matrices of G and G^T are transposes of each other (hence the notation).

```
> G:=digraph(6, % {[1,2],[2,3],[2,4],[4,5]%})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> GT:=reverse_graph(G)
```

a directed unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> edges(GT)
```

$\{[2, 1], [3, 2], [4, 2], [5, 4]\}$

1.9.4. Union of graphs

The command `graph_union` is used for constructing unions of graphs.

Syntax: `graph_union(G1,G2,...,Gn)`

`graph_union` accepts a sequence of graphs $G_k(V_k, E_k)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ as its argument and returns the graph $G(V, E)$ where $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup \dots \cup V_k$ and $E = E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots \cup E_k$.

```
> G1:=graph([1,2,3],%{[1,2],[2,3]%})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

```
> G2:=graph([1,2,3],%{[3,1],[2,3]%})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

```
> G:=graph_union(G1,G2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

```
> edges(G)
```

$\{[1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3]\}$

1.9.5. Disjoint union of graphs

To construct `disjoint union` of graphs use the command `disjoint_union`.

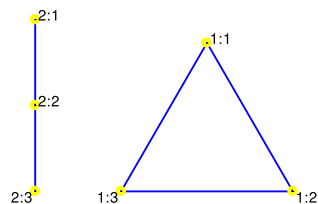
Syntax: `disjoint_union(G1,G2,...,Gn)`

`disjoint_union` accepts a sequence of graphs $G_k(V_k, E_k)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ as its only argument and returns the graph obtained by labeling all vertices with strings $k:v$ where $v \in V_k$ and all edges with strings $k:e$ where $e \in E_k$ and calling the `graph_union` command subsequently. As all vertices and edges are labeled differently, it follows $|V| = \sum_{k=1}^n |V_k|$ and $|E| = \sum_{k=1}^n |E_k|$.

```
> G:=disjoint_union(cycle_graph([1,2,3]),path_graph([1,2,3]))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 5 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.9.6. Joining two graphs

The command `graph_join` is used for joining two graphs together.

Syntax: `graph_join(G,H)`

`graph_join` accepts two graphs G and H as its arguments and returns the graph $G + H$ which is obtained by connecting all the vertices of G to all vertices of H . The vertex labels in the resulting graph are strings of the form $1:u$ and $2:v$ where u is a vertex in G and v is a vertex in H .

```
> G:=path_graph(2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 2 vertices and 1 edge

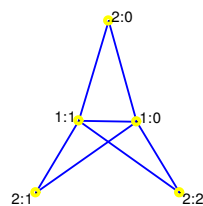
```
> H:=graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 0 edges

```
> GH:=graph_join(G,H)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 7 edges

```
> draw_graph(GH,spring)
```



1.9.7. Power graphs

The command `graph_power` is used for computing powers of graphs.

Syntax: `induced_subgraph(G,k)`

`graph_power` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a positive integer k . It returns the k -th power G^k of G with vertices V such that $v, w \in V$ are connected with an edge if and only if there exists a path of length at most k in G .

The graph G^k is constructed from its adjacency matrix A_k which is obtained by adding powers of the adjacency matrix A of G :

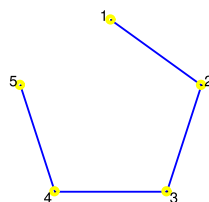
$$A_k = \sum_{i=1}^k A^i.$$

The above sum is obtained by assigning $A_k \leftarrow A$ and repeating the instruction $A_k \leftarrow (A_k + I) A$ for $k - 1$ times, so exactly k matrix multiplications are required.

```
> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 edges

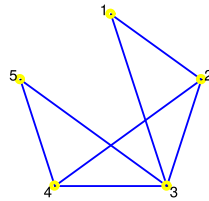
```
> draw_graph(G,circle)
```



```
> P2:=graph_power(G,2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 7 edges

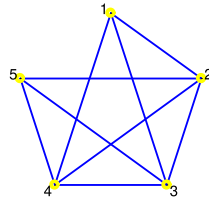
```
> draw_graph(P2,circle)
```



```
> P3:=graph_power(G,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 9 edges

```
> draw_graph(P3,circle)
```



1.9.8. Graph products

There are two distinct operations for computing the product of two graphs: the [Cartesian product](#) and the [tensor product](#). These operations are available in Giac as the commands `cartesian_product` and `tensor_product`, respectively.

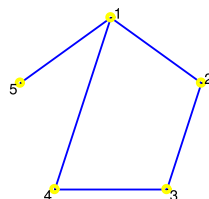
Syntax: `cartesian_product(G1,G2,...,Gn)`
`tensor_product(G1,G2,...,Gn)`

`cartesian_product` accepts a sequence of graphs $G_k(V_k, E_k)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ as its argument and returns the Cartesian product $G_1 \times G_2 \times \dots \times G_n$ of the input graphs. The Cartesian product $G(V, E) = G_1 \times G_2$ is the graph with list of vertices $V = V_1 \times V_2$, labeled with strings `v1:v2` where $v_1 \in V_1$ and $v_2 \in V_2$, such that $(u1:v1, u2:v2) \in E$ if and only if u_1 is adjacent to u_2 and $v_1 = v_2$ **or** $u_1 = u_2$ and v_1 is adjacent to v_2 .

```
> G1:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,1,5))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

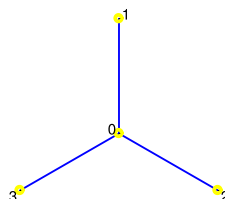
```
> draw_graph(G1,circle)
```



```
> G2:=star_graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

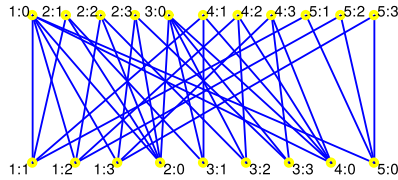
```
> draw_graph(G2,circle=[1,2,3])
```



```
> G:=cartesian_product(G1,G2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 35 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```

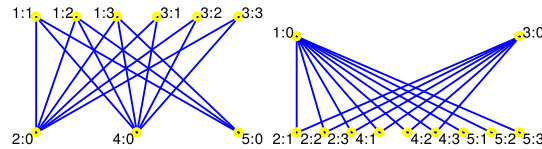


`tensor_product` accepts a sequence of graphs $G_k(V_k, E_k)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ as its argument and returns the tensor product $G_1 \times G_2 \times \dots \times G_n$ of the input graphs. The tensor product $G(V, E) = G_1 \times G_2$ is the graph with list of vertices $V = V_1 \times V_2$, labeled with strings $v_1:v_2$ where $v_1 \in V_1$ and $v_2 \in V_2$, such that $(u_1:v_1, u_2:v_2) \in E$ if and only if u_1 is adjacent to u_2 **and** v_1 is adjacent to v_2 .

```
> T:=tensor_product(G1,G2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

```
> draw_graph(T)
```



1.9.9. Transitive closure graph

The command `transitive_closure` is used for constructing [transitive closure graphs](#).

Syntax: `transitive_closure(G)`

`transitive_closure(G,weighted[=true or false])`

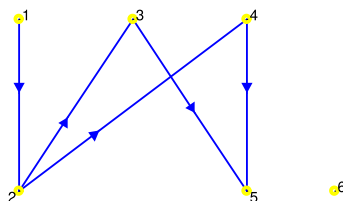
`transitive_closure` accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally the option `weighted=true` (or simply `weighted`) or the option `weighted=false` (which is the default). The command returns the transitive closure $T(V, E')$ of the input graph G by connecting $u \in V$ to $v \in V$ in T if and only if there is a path from u to v in G . If G is directed, then T is also directed. When `weighted=true` is specified, T is weighted such that the weight of edge $vw \in E'$ is equal to the length (or cost, if G is weighted) of the shortest path from v to w in G .

The lengths/weights of the shortest paths are obtained by the command `allpairs_distance` if G is weighted resp. the command `vertex_distance` if G is unweighted. Therefore T is constructed in at most $O(|V|^3)$ time if `weighted=true` is given and in $O(|V||E|)$ time otherwise.

```
> G:=digraph([1,2,3,4,5,6],%{[1,2],[2,3],[2,4],[4,5],[3,5]%})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 5 arcs

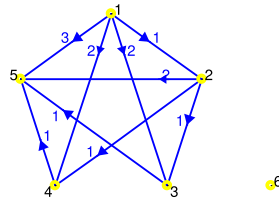
```
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> T:=transitive_closure(G,weighted)
```

a directed weighted graph with 6 vertices and 9 arcs

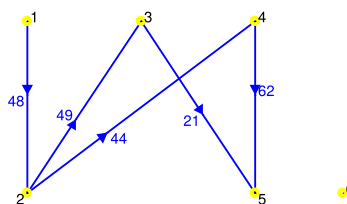
```
> draw_graph(T)
```



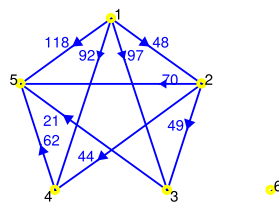
```
> G:=assign_edge_weights(G,1,99)
```

a directed weighted graph with 6 vertices and 5 arcs

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> draw_graph(transitive_closure(G,weighted=true))
```



1.9.10. Line graph

The command `line_graph` is used for construction of [line graphs](#) [18, pp. 10].

Syntax: `line_graph(G)`

`line_graph` accepts an undirected graph G as its only argument and returns the line graph $L(G)$ with $|E|$ distinct vertices, one vertex for each edge in E . Furthermore, two vertices v_1 and v_2 in $L(G)$ are adjacent if and only if the corresponding edges $e_1, e_2 \in E$ have a common endpoint. The vertices in $L(G)$ are labeled with strings in form $v-w$, where $e = vw \in E$.

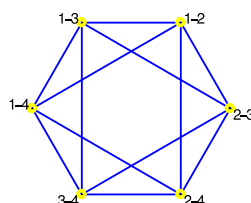
```
> K4:=complete_graph([1,2,3,4])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> L:=line_graph(K4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges

```
> draw_graph(L, spring)
```



1.9.11. Plane dual graph

The command `plane_dual` is used for construction of [dual graphs](#) from undirected biconnected [planar graphs](#). To determine whether the given graph is planar [18, pp. 12] use the command `is_planar`.

Syntax: `plane_dual(G)`
`plane_dual(F)`
`is_planar(G)`
`is_planar(G,F)`

`plane_dual` accepts a biconnected planar graph $G(V, E)$ or the list F of faces of a planar embedding of G as its only argument and returns the graph H with faces of G as its vertices. Two vertices in H are adjacent if and only if the corresponding faces share an edge in G . The algorithm runs in $O(|V|^2)$ time.

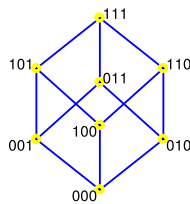
Note that the concept of dual graph is normally defined for multigraphs^{1.1}. By the strict definition, every planar multigraph has the corresponding dual multigraph; moreover, the dual of the latter is equal to the former. Since Giac generally does not support multigraphs, a simplified definition suitable for simple graphs is used; hence the requirement that the input graph is biconnected.

In the example below, the dual graph of the cube graph is obtained.

```
> H:=hypercube_graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 12 edges

```
> draw_graph(H,spring)
```

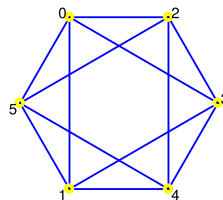


The cube has six faces, hence its plane dual graph D has six vertices. Also, every face obviously shares an edge with exactly four other faces, so the degree of each vertex in D is equal to 4.

```
> D:=plane_dual(H)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges

```
> draw_graph(D,spring)
```



`is_planar` accepts one or two arguments, the input graph G and optionally an unassigned identifier F . It returns `true` if G is planar and `false` otherwise. If the second argument is given and G is planar and biconnected, the list of faces of G is stored to F . Each face is represented as a cycle (a list) of vertices. The strategy is to use the algorithm of DEMOUCRON et al. [17, pp. 88], which runs in $O(|V|^2)$ time.

```
> is_planar(graph("petersen"))
```

1.1. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dual_graph for the strict definition of plane dual graph.

false

```
> is_planar(graph("durer"))
```

true

In the next example, a graph isomorphic to D is obtained when passing a list of faces of H to the `plane_dual` command. The order of vertices is determined by the order of faces.

```
> is_planar(H,F); F
```

$$\text{true, } \begin{pmatrix} 010 & 000 & 001 & 011 \\ 001 & 000 & 100 & 101 \\ 010 & 011 & 111 & 110 \\ 100 & 000 & 010 & 110 \\ 111 & 011 & 001 & 101 \\ 101 & 100 & 110 & 111 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> is_isomorphic(plane_dual(F),D)
```

true

1.10. RANDOM GRAPHS

1.10.1. Random general graphs

The commands `random_graph` and `random_digraph` are used for generating general graphs at random.

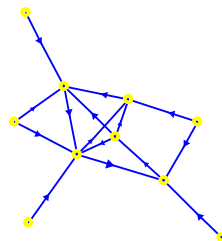
Syntax: `random_graph(n or L,p)`
`random_graph(n or L,m)`
`random_digraph(n or L,p)`
`random_digraph(n or L,m)`

`random_graph` and `random_digraph` both accept two arguments. The first argument is a positive integer n or a list of labels L of length n . The second argument is a positive real number $p < 1$ or a positive integer m . The command returns a random (di)graph on n vertices (using elements of L as vertex labels) in which each edge/arc is inserted with probability p or which contains exactly m edges/arcs chosen at random.

```
> G:=random_digraph(10,0.2)
```

a directed unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 arcs

```
> draw_graph(G,spring,labels=false)
```



```
> G:=random_graph(1000,0.01)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 1000 vertices and 4922 edges

```
> is_connected(G)
```

true

```
> is_biconnected(G)
```

false

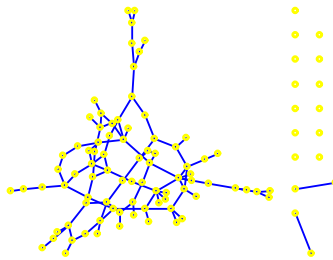
```
> G:=random_graph(100,99)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 100 vertices and 99 edges

```
> is_tree(G)
```

false

```
> draw_graph(G,spring)
```



1.10.2. Random bipartite graphs

The command `random_bipartite_graph` is used for generating [bipartite graphs](#) at random.

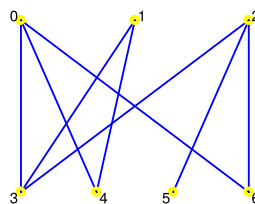
Syntax: `random_bipartite_graph(n,p or m)`
`random_bipartite_graph([a,b],p or m)`

`random_bipartite_graph` accepts two arguments. The first argument is either a positive integer n or a list of two positive integers a and b . The second argument is either a positive real number $p < 1$ or a positive integer m . The command returns a random bipartite graph on n vertices (or with two partitions of sizes a and b) in which each possible edge is present with probability p (or m edges are inserted at random).

```
> G:=random_bipartite_graph([3,4],0.5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 8 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> G:=random_bipartite_graph(30,60)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 30 vertices and 60 edges

1.10.3. Random trees

The command `random_tree` is used for generating [tree graphs](#) uniformly at random.

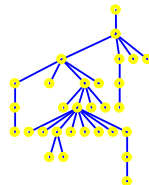
Syntax: `random_tree(n)`

`random_tree` accepts a positive integer n as its only argument and returns a random tree generated on n nodes (i.e. inserts $n - 1$ edges in the initially empty graph).

```
> T:=random_tree(30)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 30 vertices and 29 edges

```
> draw_graph(T,labels=false)
```



1.10.4. Random planar graphs

The command `random_planar_graph` is used for generating random planar graphs.

Syntax: `random_planar_graph(n or L,p)`
`random_planar_graph(n or L,p,k)`

`random_planar_graph` accepts two or three arguments, a positive integer n (or a list L of length n), a positive real number $p < 1$ and optionally an integer $k \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ (by default, $k = 1$). The command returns a random k -connected planar graph on n vertices (using elements of L as vertex labels).

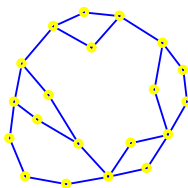
The result is obtained by first generating a random maximal planar graph and then attempting to remove each edge with probability p , maintaining the k -connectivity of the graph (if $k = 0$, the graph may be disconnected). The running time is $O(|V|)$ if $k = 0$, $O(|V|^2)$ if $k \in \{1, 2\}$ and $O(|V|^3)$ if $k = 3$.

The following command line generates a biconnected planar graph.

```
> G:=random_planar_graph(20,0.8,2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 25 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,planar,labels=false)
```

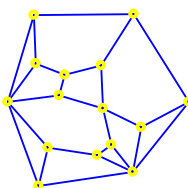


The command line below generates a triconnected planar graph.

```
> G:=random_planar_graph(15,0.9,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 25 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,planar,labels=false)
```



The next command line generates a disconnected planar graph with high probability.

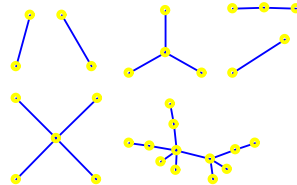
```
> G:=random_planar_graph(30,0.9,0)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 30 vertices and 23 edges

```
> is_forest(G)
```

true

```
> draw_graph(G, spring, labels=false)
```



By default, a connected planar graph is generated, like in the following example.

```
> G:=random_planar_graph(15,0.618)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 19 edges

```
> is_connected(G)
```

true

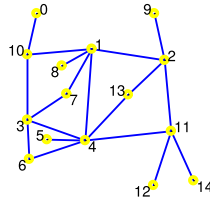
```
> is_biconnected(G)
```

false

```
> articulation_points(G)
```

[1, 2, 4, 10, 11]

```
> draw_graph(G, planar)
```



1.10.5. Random graphs from the given degree sequence

The command `random_sequence_graph` is used for generating a random undirected graph from the given degree sequence.

Syntax: `random_sequence_graph(L)`

`random_sequence_graph` accepts the degree sequence L (a list of nonnegative integers) as its only argument. It returns an asymptotically uniform random graph with the degree sequence equal to L in almost linear time, using the algorithm developed by BAYATI et al. [1].

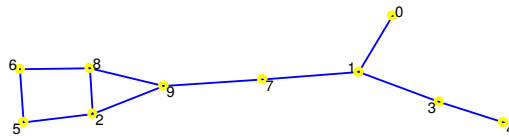
```
> s:=[1,3,3,2,1,2,2,2,3,3]:: is_graphic_sequence(s)
```

Done, true

```
> G:=random_sequence_graph(s)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 11 edges

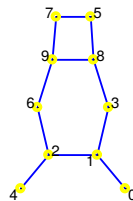
```
> draw_graph(G,spring)
```



```
> H:=random_sequence_graph(s)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 11 edges

```
> draw_graph(H,spring)
```



1.10.6. Random regular graphs

The command `random_regular_graph` is used for generating random **regular graphs** on the given set of vertices.

Syntax: `random_regular_graph(n or L,d)`
`random_regular_graph(n or L,d,connected)`

`random_regular_graph` accepts two mandatory arguments, a positive integer n (or a list L of length n) and a nonnegative integer d . Optionally, the option `connected` may be specified as a third argument, indicating that the generated graph must be connected. The command creates n vertices (using elements of L as vertex labels) and returns a random d -regular (connected) graph on these vertices.

Note that a d -regular graph on n vertices exists if and only if $n > d + 1$ and nd is even. If these conditions are not met, `random_regular_graph` returns an error.

The strategy is to use the algorithm presented in [36] (Algorithm 2, page 2). The runtime is negligible for $n \leq 100$. However, for $n > 200$ the algorithm is considerably slower. Graphs are generated with approximately uniform probability, which means that for $n \rightarrow \infty$ and d not growing so quickly with n the probability distribution converges to uniformity.

```
> G:=random_regular_graph(16,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 16 vertices and 24 edges

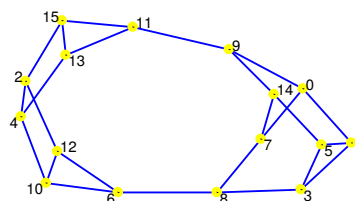
```
> is_regular(G)
```

true

```
> degree_sequence(G)
```

[3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3]

```
> draw_graph(G,spring)
```



1.10.7. Random tournaments

The command `random_tournament` is used for generating random [tournaments](#).

Syntax: `random_tournament(n)`
`random_tournament(L)`

`random_tournament` accepts a positive integer n or a list L of length n as its only argument and returns a random tournament on n vertices. If L is specified, its elements are used to label the vertices.

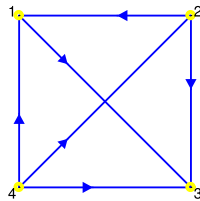
```
> G:=random_tournament([1,2,3,4])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 arcs

```
> is_tournament(G)
```

true

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



1.10.8. Random network graphs

The command `random_network` is used for generation of random [networks](#).

Syntax: `random_network(a,b)`
`random_network(a,b,p)`
`random_network(a,b,acyclic)`
`random_network(a,b,p,acyclic)`

`random_network` accepts two to four arguments: a positive integer a , a positive integer b , an optional real number p such that $0 < p \leq 1$ (by default $p=0.5$) and optionally a keyword `acyclic`. It returns a network graph with $a^2 b$ vertices which is composed as follows.

Firstly, grid graphs F_1, F_2, \dots, F_b (called **frames**), each of them with $a \times a$ vertices, are generated and the disjoint union G of all frames is constructed. Next, for each pair of frames F_k, F_{k+1} , where $k = 1, 2, \dots, b-1$, a random bijective mapping of the vertices in F_k to the vertices in F_{k+1} is generated; its definition specifies a^2 new edges which are subsequently added to G . The first vertex of the first frame, say s , is chosen to be the source and the last vertex from the last frame, say t , is chosen to be the sink. The st-ordering (see Section 4.9.3) with respect to s, t is computed (which requires temporarily adding the edge st to G), thus imposing an acyclic ordering to G and transforming the latter into an acyclic digraph (i.e. a digraph which does not contain directed cycles). Finally, a removal of each edge in G is attempted with the probability $1 - p$, unless it is a bridge (since removing it would disconnect the graph), leaving approximately $100 \cdot p\%$ of the original edges in G . Additionally, unless the option `acyclic` is used, for each arc in G not incident to s or t , the corresponding reverse arc is added to G with the probability 0.5.

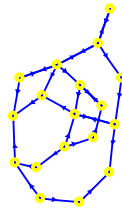
The command `assign_edge_weights` can be used to generate arc capacities in a graph produced by `random_network`.

For example, the command line below creates a random network which consists of 3 frames of size 3×3 and in which each edge appears with the probability 0.7.

```
> N1:=random_network(3,2,0.7)
```

a directed unweighted graph with 18 vertices and 28 arcs

```
> draw_graph(N1, spring, labels=false)
```

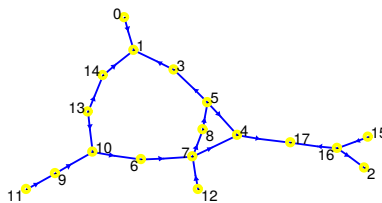


In the next example, passing the option `acyclic` forces the output graph to be acyclic.

```
> N2:=random_network(3,2,0.4,acyclic)
```

a directed unweighted graph with 18 vertices and 19 arcs

```
> draw_graph(N2, spring)
```



To list sources and sinks, use the command `is_network`.

```
> is_network(N2)
```

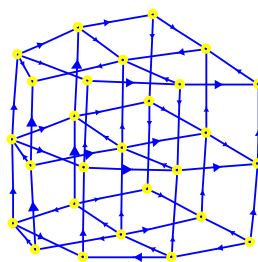
$[0, 11, 12, 13, 15], [1, 2, 17]$

Passing the value $p = 1$ forbids the removal of edges. Also, there will be exactly one source and exactly one sink in the output graph, as demonstrated in the example below.

```
> N3:=random_network(3,3,1.0,acyclic)
```

a directed unweighted graph with 27 vertices and 54 arcs

```
> draw_graph(N3, spring, labels=false)
```



```
> is_network(N3)
```

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 26 \end{pmatrix}$

1.10.9. Randomizing edge weights

The command `assign_edge_weights` is used for assigning weights to edges of graphs at random.

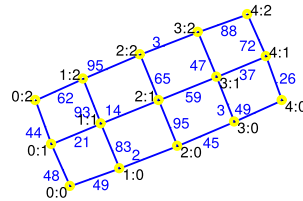
Syntax: `assign_edge_weights(G,a..b)`
`assign_edge_weights(G,m,n)`

`assign_edge_weights` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$ and an interval $a .. b$ of real numbers or a sequence of two positive integers m and n . The command operates such that for, each edge $e \in E$, the weight of e is chosen uniformly from the real interval $[a, b)$ or from the set of integers lying between m and n , including both m and n . After assigning weights to all edges, a modified copy of G is returned.

```
> G:=assign_edge_weights(grid_graph(5,3),1,99)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 15 vertices and 22 edges

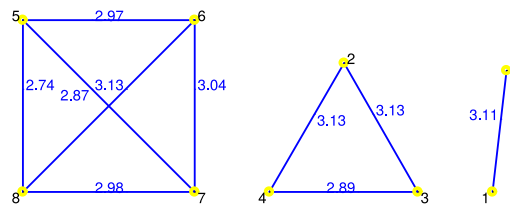
```
> draw_graph(G,spring)
```



```
> G:=assign_edge_weights(graph_complement(complete_graph(2,3,4)),e..pi)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 9 vertices and 10 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



CHAPTER 2

MODIFYING GRAPHS

2.1. PROMOTING TO DIRECTED AND WEIGHTED GRAPHS

2.1.1. Converting edges to arcs

To promote an existing undirected graph to a directed one, use the command `make_directed`.

Syntax: `make_directed(G)`
`make_directed(G,A)`

`make_directed` is called with one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a numerical square matrix $A=[a_{ij}]$ of order $|V|$. Every edge $\{i, j\} \in E$ is replaced with the pair of arcs (i, j) and (j, i) and, if matrix A is specified, its elements a_{ij} and a_{ji} are assigned as weights of these arcs, respectively. Thus a directed (weighted) copy of G is constructed and subsequently returned.

```
> make_directed(cycle_graph(4))
```

C4: a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 8 arcs

```
> make_directed(cycle_graph(4), [[0,0,0,1],[2,0,1,3],[0,1,0,4],[5,0,4,0]])
```

C4: a directed weighted graph with 4 vertices and 8 arcs

2.1.2. Assigning weight matrix to unweighted graphs

To promote an existing unweighted graph to a weighted one, use the command `make_weighted`.

Syntax: `make_weighted(G)`
`make_weighted(G,A)`

`make_weighted` accepts one or two arguments, an unweighted graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a square matrix $A=[a_{ij}]$ of order $|V|$. If the matrix specification is omitted, a square matrix of ones is assumed. Then a copy of G is returned in which each edge/arc $(i, j) \in E$ gets the element a_{ij} in A assigned as its weight. If G is undirected, it is assumed that A is a symmetric matrix.

```
> make_weighted(graph(%{[1,2],[2,3],[3,1]}), [[0,2,3],[2,0,1],[3,1,0]])
```

an undirected weighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

2.2. MODIFYING VERTICES OF A GRAPH

2.2.1. Adding and removing vertices

For adding and removing vertices to/from graphs use the commands `add_vertex` and `delete_vertex`, respectively.

Syntax: `add_vertex(G,v or L)`
`delete_vertex(G,v or L)`

The command `add_vertex` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a single label v or a list of labels L , and returns the graph $G'(V \cup \{v\}, E)$ or $G''(V \cup L, E)$ if a list L is given.

```
> K5:=complete_graph([1,2,3,4,5])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 edges

```
> add_vertex(K5,6)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 10 edges

```
> add_vertex(K5,[a,b,c])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 10 edges

Note that vertices already present in G will not be added. For example:

```
> add_vertex(K5,[4,5,6])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 10 edges

The command `delete_vertex` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a single label v or a list of labels L , and returns the graph

$$G'(V \setminus \{v\}, \{e \in E : e \text{ is not incident to } v\})$$

or, if L is given,

$$G''(V \setminus L, \{e \in E : e \text{ is not incident to any } v \in L\}).$$

If any of the specified vertices does not belong to G , an error is returned.

```
> delete_vertex(K5,2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> delete_vertex(K5,[2,3])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

2.3. MODIFYING EDGES OF A GRAPH

2.3.1. Adding and removing edges

For adding and removing edges or arcs to/from graphs use the commands `add_edge` or `add_arc` and `delete_edge` or `delete_arc`, respectively.

Syntax: `add_edge(G,e or E or T)`
`add_arc(G,e or E or T)`
`delete_edge(G,e or E or T)`
`delete_arc(G,e or E or T)`

The command `add_edge` accepts two arguments, an undirected graph G and an edge e or a list of edges E or a trail of edges T (entered as a list of vertices), and returns the copy of G with the specified edges inserted. Edge insertion implies that its endpoints will be created if they are not already present in G .

```
> C4:=cycle_graph(4)
```

C4: an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges

```
> add_edge(C4,[1,3])
```

C4: an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 5 edges

```
> add_edge(C4,[1,3,5,7])
```

C4: an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

The command `add_arc` works similarly to `add_edge` but applies only to directed graphs. Note that the order of endpoints in an arc matters.

```
> add_arc(digraph(trail(a,b,c,d,a)), [[a,c],[b,d]])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 arcs

When adding edge/arc to a weighted graph, its weight should be specified alongside its endpoints, or it will be assumed that it equals to 1.

```
> add_edge(graph(%{[1,2],5},[[3,4],6%]), [[2,3],7])
```

an undirected weighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

The commands `delete_edge` and `delete_arc` accept two arguments, the input graph G and an edge/arc e or a list of edges/arcs E or a trail of edges T . It returns a copy of G in which the specified edges/arcs are removed. Note that this operation does not change the set of vertices of G .

```
> K33:=relabel_vertices(complete_graph(3,3), [A,B,C,D,E,F])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 9 edges

```
> has_edge(K33, [A,D])
```

true

```
> delete_edge(K33, [A,D])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 8 edges

Note that G itself is not changed.

```
> has_edge(K33, [B,D])
```

true

```
> delete_edge(K33, [[A,D],[B,D]])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> DG:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,2,4))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 6 arcs

```
> delete_arc(DG, [[2,3],[4,5],[5,2]])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 3 arcs

```
> delete_arc(DG, [3,4,5,2])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 3 arcs

2.3.2. Accessing and modifying edge weights

The commands `get_edge_weight` and `set_edge_weight` are used to access and modify the weight of an edge/arc in a weighted graph, respectively.

Syntax: `set_edge_weight(G,e,w)`
`set_edge_weight(G,e)`

`set_edge_weight` accepts three arguments: a weighted graph $G(V, E)$, edge/arc $e \in E$ and the new weight w , which may be any number. It returns the modified copy of G .

The command `get_edge_weight` accepts two arguments, a weighted graph $G(V, E)$ and an edge or arc $e \in E$. It returns the weight of e .

```
> G:=set_edge_weight(graph(%{[1,2],4},[[2,3],5%]),[1,2],6)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

```
> get_edge_weight(G,[1,2])
```

6

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Strongly_regular_graph

2.3.3. Contracting edges

The command `contract_edge` is used for [contracting edges](#) in undirected graphs.

Syntax: `contract_edge(G,e)`

`contract_edge` accepts two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and an edge $e = (v, w) \in E$, and merges v and w to a single vertex, deleting the edge e . The resulting vertex inherits the label of v . The command returns the modified graph $G'(V \setminus \{w\}, E')$.

Note that this operation is defined only for undirected graphs.

```
> K5:=complete_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 edges

```
> contract_edge(K5,[1,2])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

To contract a set $\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k\} \subset E$ of edges in G , none two of which are incident (i.e. when the given set is a matching in G), one can use the `foldl` command. In the following example, the complete graph K_5 is obtained from Petersen graph by edge contraction.

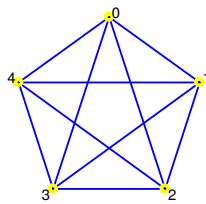
```
> P:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> G:=foldl(contract_edge,P,[0,5],[1,6],[2,7],[3,8],[4,9])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



2.3.4. Subdividing edges

The command `subdivide_edges` is used for [graph subdivision](#).

Syntax: `subdivide_edges(G,e or S)`
`subdivide_edges(G,e or S,r)`

`subdivide_edges` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$, a single edge/arc $e \in E$ or a list of edges/arcs $S \subset E$ and optionally a positive integer r (which defaults to 1). Each of the specified edges/arcs will be subdivided with exactly r new vertices, labeled with the smallest available nonnegative integers. The resulting graph, which is homeomorphic to G , is returned.

If the endpoints of the edge being subdivided have valid coordinates, the coordinates of the inserted vertices will be computed accordingly.

```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> G:=subdivide_edges(G,[2,3])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 11 vertices and 16 edges

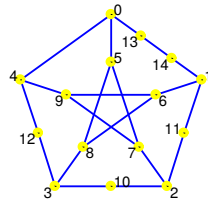
```
> G:=subdivide_edges(G,[[1,2],[3,4]])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 13 vertices and 18 edges

```
> G:=subdivide_edges(G,[0,1],2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 20 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



2.4. USING ATTRIBUTES

2.4.1. Graph attributes

The graph structure maintains a set of attributes as tag-value pairs which can be accessed and/or modified by using the commands `set_graph_attribute`, `get_graph_attribute`, `list_graph_attributes` and `discard_graph_attribute`.

Syntax: `set_graph_attribute(G,tag1=value1,tag2=value2,...)`
`set_graph_attribute(G,[tag1=value1,tag2=value2,...])`
`set_graph_attribute(G,[tag1,tag2,...],[value1,value2,...])`
`get_graph_attribute(G,tag1,tag2,...)`
`get_graph_attribute(G,[tag1,tag2,...])`
`list_graph_attributes(G)`
`discard_graph_attribute(G,tag1,tag2,...)`
`discard_graph_attribute(G,[tag1,tag2,...])`

The command `set_graph_attribute` is used for modifying the existing graph attributes or adding new ones. It accepts two arguments, a graph G and a sequence or list of graph attributes in form `tag=value` where `tag` is a string. Alternatively, attributes may be specified as a sequence of two lists `[tag1,tag2,...]` and `[value1,value2,...]`. The command sets the specified values to the indicated attribute slots, which are meant to represent some global properties of the graph G , and returns the modified copy of G .

The previously set graph attribute values can be fetched with the command `get_graph_attribute` which accepts two arguments: a graph G and a sequence or list of tags. The corresponding values will be returned in a sequence or list, respectively. If some attribute is not set, `undef` is returned as its value.

To list all graph attributes of G for which the values are set, use the `list_graph_attributes` command which takes G as its only argument.

To discard a graph attribute, use the `discard_graph_attribute` command. It accepts two arguments: a graph G and a sequence or list of tags to be cleared, and returns the modified copy of G .

Two tags being used by the CAS commands are `directed` and `weighted`, so it is not advisable to overwrite their values using this command; use the `make_directed`, `make_weighted` and `underlying_graph` commands instead. Another attribute used internally is `name`, which holds the name of the respective graph (as a string).

```
> G:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,1))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 arcs

```
> G:=set_graph_attribute(G,"name"="C3","message"="this is some text")
```

C3: a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 arcs

```
> get_graph_attribute(G,"message")
```

this is some text

```
> list_graph_attributes(G)
```

[directed = true, weighted = false, name = C3, message = this is some text]

```
> G:=discard_graph_attribute(G,"message")
```

C3: a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 arcs

```
> list_graph_attributes(G)
```

[directed = true, weighted = false, name = C3]

2.4.2. Vertex attributes

For every vertex of a graph, the list of attributes in form of tag-value pairs is maintained, which can be accessed/modified by using the commands `set_vertex_attribute`, `get_vertex_attribute`, `list_vertex_attributes` and `discard_vertex_attribute`.

Syntax: `set_vertex_attribute(G,v,tag1=value1,tag2=value2,...)`
`set_vertex_attribute(G,v,[tag1=value1,tag2=value2,...])`
`set_vertex_attribute(G,v,[tag1,tag2,...],[value1,value2,...])`
`get_vertex_attribute(G,v,tag1,tag2,...)`
`get_vertex_attribute(G,v,[tag1,tag2,...])`
`list_vertex_attributes(G,v)`
`discard_vertex_attribute(G,v,tag1,tag2,...)`
`discard_vertex_attribute(G,v,[tag1,tag2,...])`

The command `set_vertex_attribute` is used for modifying the existing vertex attributes or adding new ones. It accepts three arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$, a vertex $v \in V$ and a sequence or list of attributes in form `tag=value` where `tag` is a string. Alternatively, attributes may be specified as a sequence of two lists `[tag1,tag2,...]` and `[value1,value2,...]`. The command sets the specified values to the indicated attributes of the vertex v and returns the modified copy of G .

The previously set attribute values for v can be fetched with the command `get_vertex_attribute` which accepts three arguments: G , v and a sequence or list of tags. The corresponding values will be returned in a sequence or list, respectively. If some attribute is not set, `undef` is returned as its value.

To list all attributes of v for which the values are set, use the `list_vertex_attributes` command which takes two arguments, G and v .

The `discard_vertex_attribute` command is used for discarding attribute(s) assigned to some vertex $v \in V$. It accepts three arguments: G , v and a sequence or list of tags to be cleared, and returns the modified copy of G .

The attributes `label`, `color`, `shape` and `pos` are also used internally. These hold the vertex label, color, shape and coordinates in a drawing, respectively. If the color is not set for a vertex, the latter is drawn in yellow. The `shape` attribute may have one of the following values: `square`, `triangle`, `diamond`, `star` or `plus`. If the `shape` attribute is not set or has a different value, the circled shape is applied when drawing the vertex.

The following example shows how to change individual labels and colors.

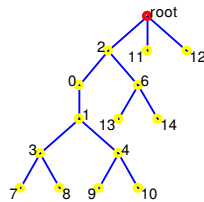
```
> T:=complete_binary_tree(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> T:=set_vertex_attribute(T,5,"label"="root","color"=red)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> draw_graph(T,tree="root")
```



A vertex may also hold custom attributes.

```
> T:=set_vertex_attribute(T,"root","depth"=3,"shape"=square)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> list_vertex_attributes(T,"root")
```

[label = root, color = red, shape = square, depth = 3]

```
> T:=discard_vertex_attribute(T,"root","color")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> list_vertex_attributes(T,"root")
```

[label = root, shape = square, depth = 3]

2.4.3. Edge attributes

For every edge of a graph, the list of attributes in form of key-value pairs is maintained, which can be accessed and/or modified by using the commands `set_edge_attribute`, `get_edge_attribute`, `list_edge_attributes` and `discard_edge_attribute`.

Syntax: `set_edge_attribute(G,e,tag1=value1,tag2=value2,...)`
`set_edge_attribute(G,e,[tag1=value1,tag2=value2,...])`
`set_edge_attribute(G,e,[tag1,tag2,...],[value1,value2,...])`
`get_edge_attribute(G,e,tag1,tag2,...)`
`get_edge_attribute(G,e,[tag1,tag2,...])`
`list_edge_attributes(G,e)`
`discard_edge_attribute(G,e,tag1,tag2,...)`
`discard_edge_attribute(G,e,[tag1,tag2,...])`

The command `set_edge_attribute` is used for modifying the existing edge attributes or adding new ones. It accepts three arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$, an edge/arc $e \in E$ and a sequence or list of attributes in form `tag=value` where `tag` is a string. Alternatively, attributes may be specified as a sequence of two lists `[tag1,tag2,...]` and `[value1,value2,...]`. The command sets the specified values to the indicated attributes of the edge/arc e and returns the modified copy of G .

The previously set attribute values for e can be fetched with the command `get_edge_attribute` which accepts three arguments: G , e and a sequence or list of tags. The corresponding values will be returned in a sequence or list, respectively. If some attribute is not set, `undef` is returned as its value.

To list all attributes of e for which the values are set, use the `list_edge_attributes` command which takes two arguments, G and e .

To discard attribute(s) assigned to e call the `discard_edge_attribute` command, which accepts three arguments: G , e and a sequence or list of tags to be cleared, and returns the modified copy of G .

The attributes `weight`, `color`, `style`, `pos` and `temp` are also used internally. They hold the edge weight, color, line style, the coordinates of the weight label anchor (and also the coordinates of the arrow) and `true` if the edge is temporary. If the color attribute is not set for an edge, the latter is drawn in blue, unless it is a temporary edge, in which case it is drawn in light gray. The style attribute may have one of the following values: `dashed`, `dotted` or `bold`. If the style attribute is not set or has a different value, the solid line style is applied when drawing the edge.

The following example illustrates the possibilities of using edge attributes.

```
> T:=complete_binary_tree(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> T:=set_edge_attribute(T,[1,4],"cost"=12.8,"message"="this is some text")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> list_edge_attributes(T,[1,4])
```

[cost = 12.8, message = this is some text]

```
> T:=discard_edge_attribute(T,[1,4],"message")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> T:=set_edge_attribute(T,[1,4],"style"="dotted","color"=magenta)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

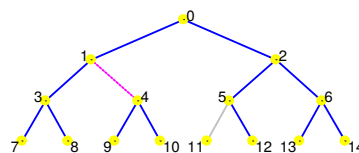
```
> list_edge_attributes(T,[1,4])
```

[color = *magenta*, style = dotted, cost = 12.8]

```
> T:=set_edge_attribute(T,[5,11],"temp"=true)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 14 edges

```
> draw_graph(T)
```



CHAPTER 3

IMPORT AND EXPORT

3.1. IMPORTING GRAPHS

3.1.1. Loading graphs from dot files

The command `import_graph` is used for importing a graph from text file in `dot` format.

Syntax: `import_graph(filename)`

`import_graph` accepts a string `filename` as its only argument and returns the graph constructed from instructions written in the file `filename` or `undef` on failure. The passed string should contain the path to a file in `dot` format. The file extension `.dot` may be omitted in the `filename` since `dot` is the only supported format. The alternative extension is `.gv`^{3.1}, which must be explicitly specified.

If a relative path to the file is specified, i.e. if it does not contain a leading forward slash, the current working directory (which can be obtained by calling the `pwd` command) will be used as the reference. The working directory can be changed by using the command `cd`.

For example, assume that the file `example.dot` is saved in the directory `Documents/dot/` with the following contents:

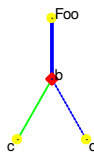
```
graph "Example graph" {
  a [label="Foo"];
  b [shape=diamond,color=red];
  a -- b [style=bold];
  b -- c [color=green];
  b -- d [style=dotted];
}
```

To import the graph, input:

```
> G:=import_graph("Documents/dot/example.dot")
```

Example graph: an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



3.1.2. The dot file format overview

Giac has some basic support for `dot` language. Each dot file is used to hold exactly one graph and should consist of a single instance of the following environment:

```
strict? (graph | digraph) name? {
  ...
}
```

3.1. Although it is recommended to use `.gv` as the extension for `dot` files to avoid a certain confusion between different file types, Giac uses the `.dot` extension because it coincides with the format name. This may change in the future.

The keyword **strict** may be omitted, as well as the **name** of the graph, as indicated by the question marks. The former is used to differentiate between simple graphs (**strict**) and multigraphs (**non-strict**). Since Giac supports only simple graphs, **strict** is redundant.

For specifying undirected graphs the keyword **graph** is used, while the **digraph** keyword is used for directed graphs.

The **graph/digraph** environment contains a series of instructions describing how the graph should be built. Each instruction ends with the semicolon (;) and has one of the following forms.

<i>syntax</i>	<i>creates</i>
<code>vertex_name [attributes]?</code>	isolated vertices
<code>V1 <edgeop> V2 <edgeop> ... <edgeop> Vn [attributes]?</code>	edges and trails
<code>graph [attributes]</code>	graph attributes

Here, **attributes** is a comma-separated list of tag-value pairs in form **tag=value**, **<edgeop>** is -- for undirected and -> for directed graphs. Each of **V1**, **V2** etc. is either a vertex name or a set of vertex names in form {**vertex_name1 vertex_name2 ...**}. In the case a set is specified, each vertex from that set is connected to the neighbor operands. Every specified vertex will be created if it does not exist yet.

Any line beginning with # is ignored. C-like line and block comments are recognized and skipped as well.

Using the dot syntax it is easy to specify a graph with adjacency lists. For example, the following is the contents of a file which defines the octahedral graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges.

```
# octahedral graph
graph "octahedron" {
  1 -- {3 6 5 4};
  2 -- {3 4 5 6};
  3 -- {5 6};
  4 -- {5 6};
}
```

3.2. EXPORTING GRAPHS

The command **export_graph** is used for saving graphs to disk in dot or L^AT_EX format.

Syntax: **export_graph**(*G*,*filename*)
export_graph(*G*,*filename*,*latex*[=*<params>*])

3.2.1. Saving graphs in dot format

export_graph accepts two mandatory arguments, a graph *G* and a string **filename**, and writes *G* to the file specified by **filename**, which must be a path to the file, either relative or absolute; in the former case the current working directory will be used as the reference. If only two arguments are given the graph is saved in dot format. The file name may be entered with or without .dot extension. The command returns 1 on success and 0 on failure.

```
> export_graph(G,"Documents/dot/copy_of_example")
```

1

3.2.2. Saving graph drawings in L^AT_EX format

When calling the **export_graph** command, an optional third argument in form *latex*[=*<params>*] may be given. In that case the drawing of *G* (obtained by calling the **draw_graph** command) will be saved to the L^AT_EX file indicated by **filename** (the extension .tex may be omitted). Optionally, one can specify a parameter or list of parameters **params** which will be passed to the **draw_graph** command.

For example, let us create a picture of the Sierpiński sieve graph of order $n = 5$, i.e. the graph ST_3^5 .

```
> G:=sierpinski_graph(5,3,triangle)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 123 vertices and 243 edges

```
> export_graph(G,"Documents/st53.tex",latex=[spring,labels=false])
```

1

The L^AT_EX file obtained by exporting a graph is easily converted into an EPS file, which can subsequently be inserted^{3.2} in a paper, report or some other document. A Linux user simply needs to launch a terminal emulator, navigate to the directory in which the exported file, in this case `st53.tex`, is stored and enter the following command:

```
latex st53.tex && dvips st53.dvi && ps2eps st53.ps
```

This will produce the (properly cropped) `st53.eps` file in the same directory. Afterwards, it is recommended to enter

```
rm st53.tex st53.aux st53.log st53.dvi st53.ps
```

to delete the intermediate files. The above two commands can be combined in a simple shell script which takes the name of the exported file (without the extension) as its input argument:

```
#!/bin/bash
# convert LaTeX to EPS
latex $1.tex
dvips $1.dvi
ps2eps $1.ps
rm $1.tex $1.aux $1.log $1.dvi $1.ps
```

Assuming that the script is stored under the name `latex2eps` in the same directory as `st53.tex`, to do the conversion it is enough to input:

```
bash latex2eps st53
```

The drawing produced in our example is shown in Figure 3.1.

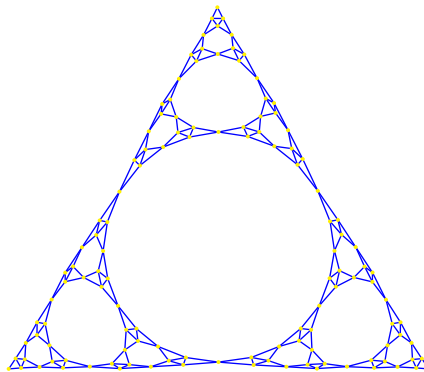


Fig. 3.1. drawing of the Sierpiński graph ST_3^5 using L^AT_EX and PSTricks

3.2. Alternatively, a PSTricks picture from the body of the `.tex` file can be copied to some other L^AT_EX document.

CHAPTER 4

GRAPH PROPERTIES

4.1. BASIC PROPERTIES

4.1.1. Determining the type of a graph

The commands `is_directed` and `is_weighted` are used for determining the type of a graph: whether is it directed or not resp. weighted or not.

Syntax: `is_directed(G)`
`is_weighted(G)`

Both commands accept a graph G as their only argument. `is_directed` resp. `is_weighted` returns `true` if G is directed resp. weighted, else it returns `false`.

```
> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,1,3))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 6 edges

```
> is_directed(G)
```

false

```
> is_directed(make_directed(G))
```

true

```
> is_weighted(G)
```

false

```
> is_weighted(make_weighted(G,randmatrix(5,5,99)))
```

true

4.1.2. Listing vertices and edges

The command `vertices` or `graph_vertices` resp. `edges` is used for extracting set of vertices resp. set of edges from a graph. To obtain the number of vertices resp. the number of edges, use the `number_of_vertices` resp. the `number_of_edges` command.

Syntax: `vertices(G)`
`graph_vertices(G)`
`edges(G)`
`edges(G,weights)`
`number_of_vertices(G)`
`number_of_edges(G)`

`vertices` or `graph_vertices` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the set of vertices V in the same order in which they were created.

`edges` accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally the identifier `weights`. The command returns the set of edges E (in a non-meaningful order). If `weights` is specified, each edge is paired with the corresponding weight (in this case G must be a weighted graph).

`number_of_vertices` resp. `number_of_edges` accepts the input graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns $|V|$ resp. $|E|$.

```

> G:=hypercube_graph(2)
an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges

> vertices(G)
[00,01,10,11]

> C:=graph("coxeter")
an undirected unweighted graph with 28 vertices and 42 edges

> vertices(C)
[a1,a2,a7,z1,a3,z2,a4,z3,a5,z4,a6,z5,z6,z7,b1,b3,b6,b2,b4,b7,b5,c1,c4,c5,c2,c6,c3,c7]

> number_of_vertices(C), number_of_edges(C)
28,42

> H:=digraph([[0,2.32,0,0.25],[0,0,0,1.32],[0,0.50,0,0],[0.75,0,3.34,0]])
a directed weighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 arcs

> edges(H)
{[0,1],[0,3],[1,3],[2,1],[3,0],[3,2]}

> edges(H,weights)
{[[0,1],2.32],[[0,3],0.25],[[1,3],1.32],[[2,1],0.5],[[3,0],0.75],[[3,2],3.34]}

```

4.1.3. Equality of graphs

Two graphs are considered **equal** if they are both (un)weighted and (un)directed and if the commands `vertices` and `edges` give the same results for both graphs. To determine whether two graphs are equal use the command `graph_equal`.

Syntax: `graph_equal(G1,G2)`

`graph_equal` accepts two arguments, graphs G_1 and G_2 , and returns **true** if G_1 is equal to G_2 with respect to the above definition. Else, it returns **false**.

```

> G1:=graph([1,2,3],%{[1,2],[2,3]})
an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

> G2:=graph([1,3,2],%{[1,2],[2,3]})
an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

> graph_equal(G1,G2)
false

> G3:=graph(trail(1,2,3))
an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

> graph_equal(G1,G3)
true

> G4:=digraph(trail(1,2,3))
a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 arcs

> graph_equal(G1,G4)
false

```

4.1.4. Vertex degrees

The command `vertex_degree` is used for computing the degree of a vertex, i.e. counting the vertices adjacent to it. The related specialized commands are `vertex_out_degree`, `vertex_in_degree`, `degree_sequence`, `minimum_degree` and `maximum_degree`.

Syntax: `vertex_degree(G,v)`
`vertex_in_degree(G,v)`
`vertex_out_degree(G,v)`
`degree_sequence(G)`
`minimum_degree(G,v)`
`maximum_degree(G,v)`

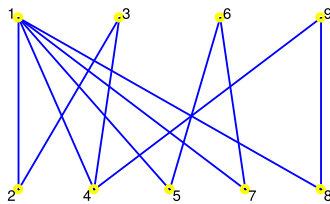
`vertex_degree` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a vertex $v \in V$, and returns the cardinality of the set $\{w \in V : (v, w) \in E\}$, i.e. the number of vertices in V which are adjacent to v .

When dealing with directed graphs, one can also use the specialized command `vertex_out_degree` resp. `vertex_in_degree` which accepts the same arguments as `vertex_degree` but returns the number of arcs $(v, w) \in E$ resp. the number of arcs $(w, v) \in E$, where $w \in V$.

```
> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,1,5,6,7,1,8,9,4))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 9 vertices and 11 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



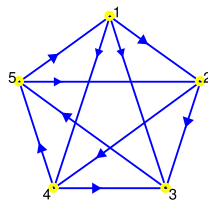
```
> vertex_degree(G,1)
```

5

```
> T:=random_tournament([1,2,3,4,5])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 arcs

```
> draw_graph(T)
```



```
> vertex_out_degree(T,1)
```

3

```
> vertex_in_degree(T,5)
```

2

To obtain the list of degrees of all vertices $v \in V$, use the `degree_sequence` command.

`degree_sequence` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the list of degrees of vertices from V in the same order as returned by the command `vertices`. If G is a digraph, arc directions are ignored.

```
> degree_sequence(G)
```

[5, 2, 2, 3, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2]

To compute the minimum vertex degree $\delta(G)$ or the maximum vertex degree $\Delta(G)$ in the graph G , use the command `minimum_degree` or `maximum_degree`, respectively. Both commands accept G as the only argument and return $\delta(G)$ resp. $\Delta(G)$.

For example, the command line below shows that Petersen graph is cubic (3-regular).

```
> P:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> minimum_degree(P), maximum_degree(P)
```

3, 3

4.1.5. Regular graphs

The command `is_regular` is used for determining whether the given graph is [regular](#).

Syntax: `is_regular(G)`

`is_regular` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns **true** if $\delta(G) = \Delta(G)$, i.e. if the minimal vertex degree is equal to the maximal vertex degree in G . Else it returns **false**. The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V|)$.

```
> is_regular(graph("petersen"))
```

true

```
> is_regular(graph("grotzsch"))
```

false

4.1.6. Strongly regular graphs

The command `is_strongly_regular` is used for determining whether the given graph is [strongly regular](#).

Syntax: `is_strongly_regular(G)`

`is_strongly_regular(G, srg)`

`is_strongly_regular` accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally an unsigned identifier `srg`. It returns **true** if G is regular and there are integers λ and μ such that every two adjacent vertices resp. non-adjacent vertices in V have exactly λ resp. μ common neighbors. Else, it returns **false**. If the second argument is given, the list $[k, \lambda, \mu]$, where k is the degree of G , is stored to `srg`.

The complexity of the algorithm is $O(k|V|^2)$.

```
> G:=graph("clebsch")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 16 vertices and 40 edges

```
> is_regular(G)
```

true

```
> is_strongly_regular(G)
```

true

```
> H:=graph("shrikhande")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 16 vertices and 48 edges

```
> is_strongly_regular(H,s)
```


true

> s

[6, 2, 2]

> is_strongly_regular(cycle_graph(5))

true

> is_strongly_regular(cycle_graph(6))

false

4.1.7. Vertex adjacency

The command `has_edge` is used for checking whether two vertices in an undirected graph are adjacent. For digraphs, there is an analogous command `has_arc`.

The command `neighbors` is used for obtaining the list of vertices in a graph that are adjacent to the particular vertex or the complete adjacency structure of the graph, in sparse form.

The command `departures` resp. `arrivals` is used for obtaining all neighbors of a vertex v in a digraph which are the heads resp. the tails of the corresponding arcs.

Syntax: `has_edge(G, [u,v])`
`has_arc(G, [u,v])`
`neighbors(G)`
`neighbors(G,v)`
`departures(G)`
`departures(G,v)`
`arrivals(G)`
`arrivals(G,v)`

`has_edge` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a list $[u, v]$ where $u, v \in V$. The command returns `true` if $uv \in E$ and `false` otherwise. The syntax for `has_arc` is the same. Note, however, that the order of vertices u and v matters in digraphs. The complexity of both algorithms is $O(\log |V|)$.

> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,2))

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

> has_edge(G, [1,2])

true

> has_edge(G, [2,1])

true

> has_edge(G, [1,3])

false

> D:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,2,1))

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 6 arcs

> has_arc(D, [1,2])

true

> has_arc(D, [2,1])

true

> has_arc(D, %{1,2%})

true

```
> has_arc(D, [4,5])
```

true

```
> has_arc(D, [5,4])
```

false

```
> has_arc(D, %{4,5%})
```

false

neighbors accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a vertex $v \in V$. The command returns the list of neighbors of v in G if v is given. Otherwise, it returns the list of lists of neighbors for all vertices in V , in order of **vertices**(G).

Note that **neighbors** works for undirected as well as for directed graphs, but ignores edge directions in the latter case.

```
> neighbors(G,3)
```

[2, 4]

```
> neighbors(G)
```

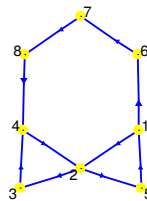
{[2], [1, 3, 5], [2, 4], [3, 5], [2, 4]}

departures resp. **arrivals** accepts one or two arguments, a digraph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a vertex $v \in V$, and returns the list L_v containing all vertices $w \in V$ for which $vw \in E$ resp. $wv \in E$. If v is omitted, the list of lists L_v for every $v \in V$ is returned.

```
> G:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,2,5,1,6,7,8,4))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 10 arcs

```
> draw_graph(G, spring)
```



```
> departures(G,2); arrivals(G,2); departures(G,1); arrivals(G,1)
```

[3, 5], [1, 4], [2, 6], [5]

4.1.8. Tournament graphs

The command **is_tournament** is used for determining whether the given graph is a **tournament**.

Syntax: **is_tournament**(G)

is_tournament accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns **true** if G is directed and for each pair of vertices $u, v \in V$ it is either $uv \in E$ or $vu \in E$, i.e. there is exactly one arc between u and v . Else, it returns **false**.

```
> T1:=digraph(%{[1,2], [2,3], [3,1]%})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 arcs

```
> is_tournament(T1)
```

true

```
> T2:=digraph(%{[1,2],[2,3],[3,1],[1,3]%})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> is_tournament(T2)
```

false

4.1.9. Bipartite graphs

The command `is_bipartite` is used for determining if the given graph is **bipartite**.

Syntax: `is_bipartite(G)`
`is_bipartite(G,P)`

`is_bipartite` accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally an unassigned identifier P . It returns **true** if there is a partition of V into two sets S and T such that every edge from E connects a vertex in S to one in T . Else, it returns **false**. If the second argument is given and G is bipartite, the partition of V is stored to P as a list of two lists of vertices, the first one containing the vertices from S and the second one containing vertices from T .

```
> K32:=complete_graph(3,2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 6 edges

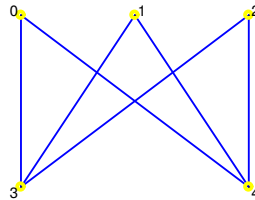
```
> is_bipartite(K32,bp)
```

true

```
> bp
```

[[0, 1, 2], [3, 4]]

```
> draw_graph(K32,bipartite)
```



```
> adjacency_matrix(K32)
```

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

```
> G:=cycle_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

```
> is_bipartite(G)
```

false

4.1.10. Edge incidence

The command `incident_edges` is used for obtaining edges incident to the given vertex in a graph.

Syntax: `incident_edges(G,v)`
`incident_edges(G,L)`

`incident_edges` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a vertex $v \in V$ or a list of vertices $L \subset V$. The command returns the list of edges $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k \in E$ which have v as one of its endpoints. Note that edge directions are ignored when G is a digraph. To obtain only outgoing or incoming edges, use the commands `departures` and `arrivals`, respectively.

```
> G:=cycle_graph([1,2,3,4,5])
```

C5: an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

```
> incident_edges(G,1)
```

$\{[1, 2], [1, 5]\}$

```
> incident_edges(G, [2,4,5])
```

$\{[1, 2], [1, 5], [2, 3], [3, 4], [4, 5]\}$

```
> G:=random_tournament([1,2,3,4,5])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 arcs

```
> incident_edges(G,2)
```

$\{[2, 1], [2, 3], [2, 5], [4, 2]\}$

4.2. ALGEBRAIC PROPERTIES

4.2.1. Adjacency matrix

The command `adjacency_matrix` is used for obtaining the `adjacency matrix` of a graph.

Syntax: `adjacency_matrix(G)`

`adjacency_matrix` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$, where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$, as its only argument and returns the square matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ of order n such that, for $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$,

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the set } E \text{ contains edge/arc } v_i v_j, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that $\text{tr}(A) = 0$. Also, the adjacency matrix of an undirected graph is always symmetrical.

```
> G:=graph("octahedron")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges

```
> A:=adjacency_matrix(G)
```

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

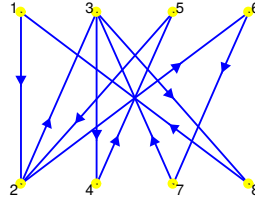
```
> transpose(A)==A
```

true

```
> D:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,2,6,7,3,8,1))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 10 arcs

```
> draw_graph(D)
```



```
> A:=adjacency_matrix(D)
```

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

```
> transpose(A)==A
```

false

4.2.2. Laplacian matrix

The command `laplacian_matrix` is used for computing the [Laplacian matrix](#) of a graph.

Syntax: `laplacian_matrix(G)`
`laplacian_matrix(G,normal)`

`laplacian_matrix` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$, where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$, and returns the symmetric matrix $L = D - A$, where A is the adjacency matrix of G and

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \deg(v_1) & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \deg(v_2) & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & \deg(v_n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

The option `normal` may be passed as the second argument. In that case, the [normalized Laplacian](#) $L^{\text{sym}} := I - D^{-1/2} A D^{-1/2}$ of G is returned.

```
> G:=path_graph(4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> A:=adjacency_matrix(G)
```

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

```
> L:=laplacian_matrix(G)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> diag(degree_sequence(G))-A==L
```

true

```
> laplacian_matrix(G,normal)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & 1 & \frac{-1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{-1}{2} & 1 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The smallest eigenvalue of a Laplacian matrix of an undirected graph is always zero. Moreover, its multiplicity is equal to the number of connected components in the corresponding graph [18, pp. 280].

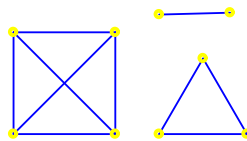
```
> sort(eigenvals(L))
```

$$0, -\sqrt{2} + 2, 2, \sqrt{2} + 2$$

```
> H:=disjoint_union(complete_graph(4),cycle_graph(3),path_graph(2))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 9 vertices and 10 edges

```
> draw_graph(H,labels=false)
```



```
> eigenvals(laplacian_matrix(H))
```

$$0, 0, 0, 4, 4, 4, 3, 3, 2$$

```
> nops(connected_components(H))
```

3

4.2.3. Incidence matrix

The command `incidence_matrix` is used for obtaining the [incidence matrix](#) of a graph.

Syntax: `incidence_matrix(G)`

`incidence_matrix` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$, where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$, as its only argument and returns the $n \times m$ matrix $B = [b_{ij}]$ such that, for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$,

$$b_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the vertex } v_i \text{ is incident to the edge } e_j, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

if G is undirected resp.

$$b_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if the vertex } v_i \text{ is the head of the arc } e_j, \\ -1, & \text{if the vertex } v_i \text{ is the tail of the arc } e_j, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

if G is directed.

```
> K4:=complete_graph([1,2,3,4])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> edges(K4)
```

```
{[1, 2], [1, 3], [1, 4], [2, 3], [2, 4], [3, 4]}
```

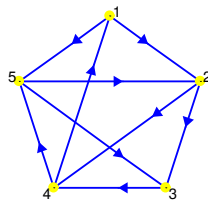
```
> incidence_matrix(K4)
```

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

```
> DG:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,3),trail(1,5,2,4,1))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 9 arcs

```
> draw_graph(DG)
```



```
> edges(DG)
```

```
{[1, 2], [1, 5], [2, 3], [2, 4], [3, 4], [4, 1], [4, 5], [5, 2], [5, 3]}
```

```
> incidence_matrix(DG)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.2.4. Weight matrix

The command `weight_matrix` is used for obtaining the weight matrix of a [weighted graph](#).

Syntax: `weight_matrix(G)`

`weight_matrix` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$, where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$, as its only argument and returns the square matrix $M = [m_{ij}]$ of order n such that m_{ij} equals zero if v_i and v_j are not adjacent and the weight of the edge/arc $v_i v_j$ otherwise, for all $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ (note that the weight of an edge/arc may be any real number).

Note that $\text{tr}(M) = 0$. Also, the weight matrix of an undirected graph is always symmetrical.

```
> G:=graph(%{[1,2],1},[[2,3],2],[[4,5],3],[[5,2],4]})
```

an undirected weighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 edges

```
> weight_matrix(G)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.2.5. Characteristic polynomial

The command `graph_charpoly` or `charpoly` is used for obtaining the [characteristic polynomial](#) of an undirected graph.

Syntax: `graph_charpoly(G)`
`graph_charpoly(G,x)`
`charpoly(G)`
`charpoly(G,x)`

`graph_charpoly` or `charpoly` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a value or symbol x . The command returns $p(x)$, where p is the characteristic polynomial of the adjacency matrix of G .

```
> G:=graph(%{[1,2],[2,3]})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges

```
> charpoly(G,x)
```

$$x^3 - 2x$$

```
> charpoly(G,3)
```

$$21$$

```
> G:=graph("shrikhande")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 16 vertices and 48 edges

```
> charpoly(G,x)
```

$$x^{16} - 48x^{14} - 64x^{13} + 768x^{12} + 1536x^{11} - 5888x^{10} - 15360x^9 + 23040x^8 + 81920x^7 - 36864x^6 - 245760x^5 - 32768x^4 + 393216x^3 + 196608x^2 - 262144x - 196608$$

4.2.6. Graph spectrum

The command `graph_spectrum` is used for computing [graph spectra](#).

Syntax: `graph_spectrum(G)`

`graph_spectrum` accepts a graph G as its only argument and returns the list in which every element is an eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix of G paired with its multiplicity.

```
> C5:=cycle_graph(5)
```

C5: an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

```
> gs:=graph_spectrum(C5)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} & 2 \\ -\frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> p:=charpoly(C5,x)
```

$$x^5 - 5x^3 + 5x - 2$$

```
> expand(roots(p))==expand(gs)
```

true

The above result indicates that `gs` and `roots(p)` are equal.

4.2.7. Seidel spectrum

The command `seidel_spectrum` is used for computing [Seidel spectra](#).

Syntax: `seidel_spectrum(G)`

`seidel_spectrum` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the list in which every element is an eigenvalue of the [Seidel adjacency matrix](#) S paired with its multiplicity. The matrix S , which can be interpreted as the difference of the adjacency matrices of G and its complement G^c , is computed as $J - I - 2A$, where J is all-one $n \times n$ matrix, I is the identity matrix of order n , A is the adjacency matrix of G and $n = |V|$.

```
> seidel_spectrum(graph("clebsch"))
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} -3 & 10 \\ 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> seidel_spectrum(graph("levi"))
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} -5 & 9 \\ -1 & 10 \\ 3 & 9 \\ 5 & 1 \\ 23 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.2.8. Integer graphs

The command `is_integer_graph` is used for determining whether the given graph is an [integral graph](#).

Syntax: `is_integer_graph(G)`

`is_integer_graph` accepts a graph G as its only argument and returns `true` if the [spectrum](#) of G consists only of integers. Else it returns `false`.

```
> G:=graph("levi")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 30 vertices and 45 edges

```
> is_integer_graph(G)
```

true

```
> factor(charpoly(G,x))
```

$$x^{10}(x-3)(x-2)^9(x+2)^9(x+3)$$

```
> graph_spectrum(G)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} -3 & 1 \\ -2 & 9 \\ 0 & 10 \\ 2 & 9 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.3. GRAPH ISOMORPHISM

4.3.1. Isomorphic graphs

The command `is_isomorphic` is used for determining whether two graphs are [isomorphic](#).

Syntax: `is_isomorphic(G1,G2)`
`is_isomorphic(G1,G2,m)`
`canonical_labeling(G)`

`is_isomorphic` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G_1(V_1, E_1)$, a graph $G_2(V_2, E_2)$ and optionally an unassigned identifier `m`. The command returns `true` if G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic and `false` otherwise. If the third argument is given and G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic, the list of pairwise matching of vertices in G_1 and G_2 , representing the isomorphism between the two graphs, is stored to `m`.

Note that the algorithm operates with respect to the colors of vertices in V_1 and V_2 . Namely, only vertices sharing the same color can be mapped to each other. Vertex colors can be set by calling the `highlight_vertex` command.

This command, as well as the commands `canonical_labeling` and `graph_automorphisms` described below, is using `nauty` library developed by BRENDAN MCKAY [29], which is one of the fastest implementations for graph isomorphism.

For example, entering the command line below one shows that Petersen graph is isomorphic to Kneser graph $K(5, 2)$.

```
> is_isomorphic(graph("petersen"),kneser_graph(5,2))
```

true

In the following example, G_1 and G_3 are isomorphic while G_1 and G_2 are not isomorphic.

```
> G1:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,6,1,3))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> G2:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,6,1,4))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> G3:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,6,1,5))
```

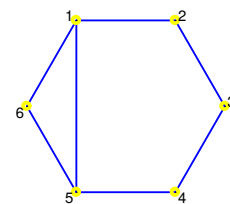
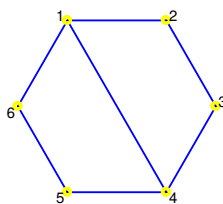
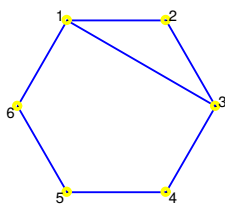
an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> draw_graph(G1,circle)
```

```
> draw_graph(G2,circle)
```

```
> draw_graph(G3,circle)
```

The drawings are ordered from left to right.



```
> is_isomorphic(G1,G2)
```

false

```
> is_isomorphic(G1,G3)
```

true

```
> is_isomorphic(G1,G3,mapping):: mapping
```

Done, [1 = 5, 2 = 6, 3 = 1, 4 = 2, 5 = 3, 6 = 4]

```
> H1:=highlight_vertex(G1,5):: H3:=highlight_vertex(G3,5)::
```

Done, Done

```
> is_isomorphic(H1,H3)
```

false

```
> H1:=highlight_vertex(H1,1):: H3:=highlight_vertex(H3,3)::
```

Done, Done

```
> is_isomorphic(H1,H3)
```

true

In the next example, D_1 and D_3 are isomorphic while D_1 and D_2 are not isomorphic.

```
> D1:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,1,4,5))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 arcs

```
> D2:=digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,3))
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 arcs

```
> D3:=digraph([1,2,3,4,5],trail(3,4,5,3,1,2))
```

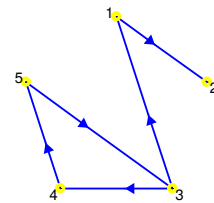
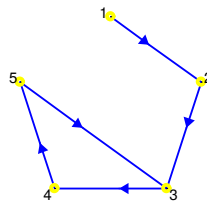
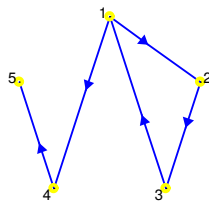
a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 arcs

```
> draw_graph(D1,circle)
```

```
> draw_graph(D2,circle)
```

```
> draw_graph(D3,circle)
```

The drawings are ordered from left to right.



```
> is_isomorphic(D1,D2)
```

false

```
> is_isomorphic(D1,D3)
```

true

Graph isomorphism testing in nauty is based on computing the canonical labelings for the input graphs. The **canonical labeling** of G is a particular ordering of the vertices of G . Rearranging the vertices with respect to that ordering produces the **canonical representation** of G . Two graphs are isomorphic if and only if their canonical representations share the same edge structure.

The `canonical_labeling` command is used for computing the canonical labeling as a permutation. One can reorder the vertices by using this permutation with the `isomorphic_copy` command. `canonical_labeling` accepts the input graph as its only argument. Note that the colors of the vertices are taken into account.

In the next example it is demonstrated how to prove that G_1 and G_3 are isomorphic by comparing their canonical representations C_1 and C_3 with the `graph_equal` command. Before testing C_1 and C_3 for equality, their vertices have to be relabeled so that the command `vertices` gives the same result for both graphs.

```
> L1:=canonical_labeling(G1)
```

```
[4, 3, 5, 1, 2, 0]
```

```
> L3:=canonical_labeling(G3)
```

```
[2, 1, 3, 5, 0, 4]
```

```
> C1:=relabel_vertices(isomorphic_copy(G1,L1), [1,2,3,4,5,6])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> C3:=relabel_vertices(isomorphic_copy(G3,L3), [1,2,3,4,5,6])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> graph_equal(C1,C3)
```

```
true
```

Isomorphism testing with nauty is very fast and can be used for large graphs, as in the example below.

```
> G:=random_graph(10000,0.01)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10000 vertices and 499867 edges

```
> H:=isomorphic_copy(G,randperm(10000))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10000 vertices and 499867 edges

```
> is_isomorphic(G,H)
```

```
true
```

1.7 sec

To make the edge structures of G and H slightly different, a random edge from H is “misplaced”.

```
> ed:=edges(H)[rand(number_of_edges(H))]
```

```
[813, 3021]
```

```
> has_edge(H, [813, 3022])
```

```
false
```

```
> H:=add_edge(delete_edge(H,ed), [813, 3022])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10000 vertices and 499867 edges

```
> is_isomorphic(G,H)
```

```
false
```

4.3.2. Graph automorphisms

The command `graph_automorphisms` is used for finding generators of the [automorphism](#) group of a graph.

Syntax: `graph_automorphisms(G)`

`graph_automorphisms` accepts a graph G as its only argument and returns a list containing the generators of $\text{Aut}(G)$, the automorphism group of G [18, pp. 4]. Each generator is given as a list of cycles, which can be turned to a permutation by calling the `cycles2permu` command.

Note that only vertices with the same color can be mapped to each other. The color of a vertex can be set by calling the `highlight_vertex` command.

```
> g:=graph_automorphisms(graph("petersen"))
```

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 7 \\ 4 & 5 \\ 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 8 \\ 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 9 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 6 & 9 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

```
> cycles2permu(g[2])
```

[0, 4, 3, 2, 1, 5, 9, 8, 7, 6]

```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> G:=highlight_vertex(G,4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> graph_automorphisms(G)
```

$$\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 3 & 9 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 5 \\ 2 & 7 \\ 3 & 9 \\ 6 & 8 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 5 & 8 \\ 6 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

In the above result, all permutations map the vertex 4 to itself, because it is the single green-colored vertex in G (it cannot be mapped to any other vertex because colors do not match).

Frucht graph (see page 22) is an example of a graph with automorphism group containing only the identity, so the set of its generators is empty:

```
> graph_automorphisms(lcf_graph([-5,-2,-4,2,5,-2,2,5,-2,-5,4,2]))
```

{}

4.4. GRAPH POLYNOMIALS

4.4.1. Tutte polynomial

The command `tutte_polynomial` is used for computing [Tutte polynomials](#).

Syntax: `tutte_polynomial(G)`
`tutte_polynomial(G,x,y)`

`tutte_polynomial` accepts one or three arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally two variables or values x and y . It returns the the bivariate Tutte polynomial^{4.1} T_G of G or $T_G(x, y)$ if the optional arguments are given. If G is weighted, it is treated as a multigraph: the weight w of an edge e , which must be a positive integer, is interpreted as the multiplicity of e , for each $e \in E$. Note, however, that loops are not supported.

The strategy is to apply the recursive definition of Tutte polynomial [19] together with the `vorder` heuristic proposed by HAGGARD et al. [20] and improved by MONAGAN [30]. The subgraphs appearing in the computation tree are cached and reused when possible, pruning the tree significantly. Subgraphs are stored (and compared) in their canonical form, for which the `nauty` library is used.

Note that finding Tutte polynomials is NP-hard in general, hence the problem becomes intractable for larger and/or denser graphs.

4.1. See [19], [2, pp. 97] and [4, pp. 335].

```
> K4:=complete_graph(4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> tutte_polynomial(K4,x,y)
```

$$x^3 + 3x^2 + 4xy + 2x + y^3 + 3y^2 + 2y$$

```
> tutte_polynomial(K4,x,1)
```

$$x^3 + 3x^2 + 6x + 6$$

```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> f:=tutte_polynomial(G)
```

$$x^9 + 6x^8 + 21x^7 + 56x^6 + 12x^5y + 114x^5 + 70x^4y + 170x^4 + 30x^3y^2 + 170x^3y + 180x^3 + 15x^2y^3 + 105x^2y^2 + 240x^2y + 120x^2 + 10xy^4 + 65xy^3 + 171xy^2 + 168xy + 36x + y^6 + 9y^5 + 35y^4 + 75y^3 + 84y^2 + 36y$$

This result coincides with that in [2, pp. 103], which is supposed to be correct. Alternatively, it can be verified by applying the recursive definition with an arbitrary edge $e \in E$, as below.

```
> ed:=edges(G)[0]
```

$$[0, 1]$$

```
> G1:=delete_edge(G,ed)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 14 edges

```
> G2:=contract_edge(G,ed)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 9 vertices and 14 edges

```
> expand(f-tutte_polynomial(G1)-tutte_polynomial(G2))
```

$$0$$

The value $T_G(1,1)$ is equal to the number of spanning forests in G [4, pp. 345]—in this case, the number of spanning trees in Petersen graph. For verification, the same number is computed by using the specialized command `number_of_spanning_trees`, which uses a different (much faster) algorithm.

```
> tutte_polynomial(G,1,1)
```

$$2000$$

```
> number_of_spanning_trees(G)
```

$$2000$$

For a graph G and its dual G^* the following relation holds: $T_G(x, y) = T_{G^*}(y, x)$. Therefore, if $T_G(x, y) = T_G(y, x)$ then G and G^* are isomorphic (since Tutte polynomial is a graph invariant). A simple example of such graph is tetrahedral graph. Since it is planar and biconnected, its dual can be determined by using the `plane_dual` command.

```
> G:=graph("tetrahedron")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> is_biconnected(G) and is_planar(G)
```

$$\text{true}$$

```
> H:=plane_dual(G)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> T:=tutte_polynomial(G)
```

$$x^3 + 3x^2 + 4xy + 2x + y^3 + 3y^2 + 2y$$

```
> expand(T-subs(T, [x,y], [y,x]))
```

$$0$$

```
> is_isomorphic(G,H)
```

$$\text{true}$$

Multiple edges can be specified as edge weights.

```
> M:=make_weighted(G)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> M:=set_edge_weight(set_edge_weight(M, [1,2], 2), [3,4], 3)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> edges(M, weights)
```

$$\{[[1, 2], 2], [[1, 3], 1], [[1, 4], 1], [[2, 3], 1], [[2, 4], 1], [[3, 4], 3]]\}$$

```
> tutte_polynomial(M,x,y)
```

$$x^3 + x^2 y^2 + 2x^2 y + 3x^2 + 3xy^3 + 6xy^2 + 6xy + 2x + y^6 + 3y^5 + 6y^4 + 7y^3 + 5y^2 + 2y$$

4.4.2. Chromatic polynomial

The command `chromatic_polynomial`, is used for computing [chromatic polynomials](#).

Syntax: `chromatic_polynomial(G)`
`chromatic_polynomial(G,t)`

`chromatic_polynomial` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected unweighted graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a variable or value t . It returns the chromatic polynomial P_G of G or $P_G(t)$ if the second argument is given.

P_G and the [Tutte polynomial](#) T_G satisfy the following relation (see [19] and [4, pp. 346]):

$$P_G(t) = (-1)^{|V| - \kappa(G)} t^{\kappa(G)} T_G(1 - t, 0), \quad (4.1)$$

where $\kappa(G)$ is the number of connected components of G . `chromatic_polynomial` uses (4.1) to compute P_G .

The value $P_G(k)$, where $k > 0$ is an integer, is equal to the number of all distinct k -colorings of vertices in G . As shown in the example below, Petersen graph cannot be colored by using only two colors, but is 3-colorable with 120 distinct colorings (all using the same three colors).

```
> P:=chromatic_polynomial(graph("petersen"),x)
```

$$x(x-2)(x-1)(x^7 - 12x^6 + 67x^5 - 230x^4 + 529x^3 - 814x^2 + 775x - 352)$$

```
> subs(P,x=2)
```

$$0$$

```
> subs(P,x=3)
```

4.4.3. Flow polynomial

The command `flow_polynomial` is used for computing [flow polynomials](#).

Syntax: `flow_polynomial(G)`
`flow_polynomial(G,x)`

`flow_polynomial` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected unweighted graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a variable or value x . It returns the flow polynomial Q_G of G or $Q_G(x)$ if the second argument is given.

Q_G and the [Tutte polynomial](#) T_G satisfy the following relation (see [19] and [2, pp. 110]):

$$Q_G(x) = (-1)^{|E|-|V|+\kappa(G)} T_G(0, 1-x), \quad (4.2)$$

where $\kappa(G)$ is the number of connected components of G . `flow_polynomial` uses (4.2) to compute Q_G .

The value $Q_G(k)$, where $k > 0$ is an integer, is equal to the number of all nowhere-zero k -flows in G . In such flows, the total flow f_v entering and leaving vertex v is congruent modulo k , hence $f_v \in \{1, 2, \dots, k-1\}$ for all $v \in V$ [4, pp. 347]. As shown in the example below, Petersen graph has zero 4-flows and 240 5-flows.

```
> Q:=flow_polynomial(graph("petersen"))
```

$$x^6 - 15x^5 + 95x^4 - 325x^3 + 624x^2 - 620x + 240$$

```
> Q | x=4
```

0

```
> Q | x=5
```

240

4.4.4. Reliability polynomial

The command `reliability_polynomial` is used for computing [reliability polynomials](#).

Syntax: `reliability_polynomial(G)`
`reliability_polynomial(G,p)`

`reliability_polynomial` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a variable or value p . It returns the all-terminal reliability polynomial R_G of G or $R_G(p)$ if the second argument is given. If G is weighted, it is treated as a multigraph: the weight w of an edge e , which must be a positive integer, is interpreted as the multiplicity of e , for each $e \in E$.

R_G and the [Tutte polynomial](#) T_G satisfy the following relation [30]:

$$R_G(p) = (1-p)^{|V|-\kappa(G)} p^{|E|-|V|+\kappa(G)} T_G(1, p^{-1}), \quad (4.3)$$

where $\kappa(G)$ is the number of connected components of G . `reliability_polynomial` uses (4.3) to compute R_G .

If G is a connected network, then the value $R_G(p)$, where $p \in [0, 1]$, is equal to the probability that G does not fail (i.e. stays connected) after removing each edge with probability p [18, pp. 354–355].

In the following example, it is clear that the graph G will stay connected with probability $(1-p)^2$ if each of its two edges is removed with probability p .

```
> G:=graph(%{[1,2],[2,3]})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 2 edges


```
> R:=reliability_polynomial(G,p)
```

$$p^2 - 2p + 1$$

```
> factor(R)
```

$$(p - 1)^2$$

Adding a new edge should increase the reliability of G , since the latter is connected. Indeed, the difference $S - R$ below is positive for $0 < p < 1$.

```
> S:=reliability_polynomial(add_edge(G,[1,3]),p)
```

$$2p^3 - 3p^2 + 1$$

```
> factor(S-R)
```

$$2p(p - 1)^2$$

Multiple edges can be specified as edge weights.

```
> M:=graph(%{[1,2],2},[[2,3],1],[[3,1],1]%)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

```
> factor(reliability_polynomial(M))
```

$$(x - 1)^2 (2x^2 + 2x + 1)$$

The following graph represents the Arpanet (early internet) in December 1970.

```
> V:=["MIT","LINCOLN","CASE","CMU","HARVARD","BBN","UCSB","UCLA","STANFORD",
    "SRI","RAND","UTAH","SDC"];
```

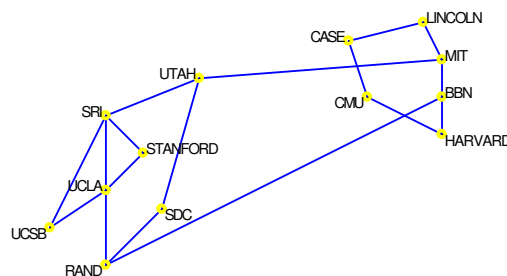
```
> A:=graph(V, trail("BBN","HARVARD","CMU","CASE","LINCOLN","MIT","UTAH","SRI",
    "STANFORD","UCLA","UCSB","SRI","UCLA","RAND","BBN","MIT"), trail("RAND","SDC",
    "UTAH"))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 13 vertices and 17 edges

```
> Arpanet:=set_vertex_positions(A,[[1.0,1.0],[0.9,1.2],[0.5,1.1],[0.6,0.8],[1.0,
    0.6],[1.0,0.8],[-1.1,0.1],[-0.8,0.3],[-0.6,0.5],[-0.8,0.7],[-0.8,-0.1],[-0.3,
    0.9],[-0.5,0.2]])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 13 vertices and 17 edges

```
> draw_graph(Arpanet)
```



Which edge should be added to the Arpanet to improve the reliability the most? Below is an analysis for the edge from Stanford to CMU.

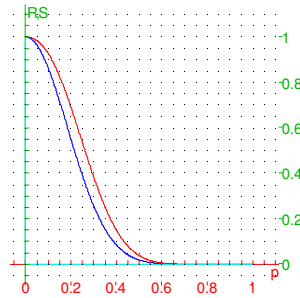
```
> R:=reliability_polynomial(Arpanet,p)
```

$$(p - 1)^{12} (280p^5 + 310p^4 + 186p^3 + 63p^2 + 12p + 1)$$

```
> S:=reliability_polynomial(add_edge(Arpanet,["STANFORD","CMU"]),p)
```

$$(p-1)^{12} (976 p^6 + 1118 p^5 + 703 p^4 + 276 p^3 + 72 p^2 + 12 p + 1)$$

```
> labels=["p", "R,S"]; plot([R,S],p=0..1,color=[blue,red])
```



The improvement is defined as the area enclosed by the above two curves, which can be computed as an integral.

```
> improvement:=integrate(S-R,p=0..1)
```

$$\frac{443879}{10581480}$$

```
> evalf(improvement)
```

$$0.0419486688063$$

4.5. CONNECTIVITY

4.5.1. Vertex connectivity

The commands `is_connected`, `is_biconnected` and `is_triconnected` are used for determining if a graph is [connected](#), [biconnected](#) or [triconnected](#) ([3-connected](#)), respectively.

Syntax: `is_connected(G)`
`is_biconnected(G)`
`is_triconnected(G)`

Each of the above commands accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns `true` if G possesses the required level of connectivity. Else, it returns `false`.

The strategy for checking 1- and 2-connectivity is to use [depth-first search](#) (see [17, pp. 20], and [37]). Both algorithms run in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time. The algorithm for checking 3-connectivity is quite simple but less efficient: it works by choosing a vertex $v \in V$ and checking if the subgraph induced by $V \setminus \{v\}$ is biconnected, moving on to the next vertex if so, and repeating the process until all vertices are visited exactly once or a non-biconnected subgraph is found for some v . In the latter case the input graph is not triconnected. The complexity of this algorithm is $O(|V||E|)$.

```
> G:=graph_complement(complete_graph(2,3,4))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 9 vertices and 10 edges

```
> is_connected(G)
```

false

```
> C:=connected_components(G)
```

{[0, 1], [2, 3, 4], [5, 6, 7, 8]}

```
> H:=induced_subgraph(G,C[2])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges

```
> is_connected(H)
true
> is_biconnected(path_graph(5))
false
> is_biconnected(cycle_graph(5))
true
> is_triconnected(graph("petersen"))
true
> is_triconnected(cycle_graph(5))
false
```

4.5.2. Connected and biconnected components

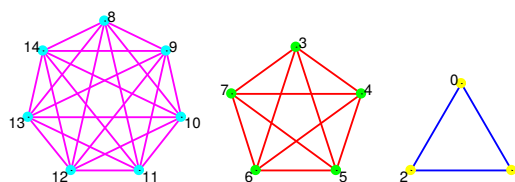
The command `connected_components` resp. `biconnected_components` is used for decomposing a graph into `connected` resp. `biconnected` components.

Syntax: `connected_components(G)`
`biconnected_components(G)`

`connected_components` resp. `biconnected_components` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the minimal partition $\{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ of V such that the subgraph $G_i \subset G$ induced by V_i is connected resp. biconnected for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. The partition is returned as a list of lists V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k .

The connected components of G are readily obtained by depth-first search in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time. To find the biconnected components of G , TARJAN's algorithm is used [37], which also runs in linear time.

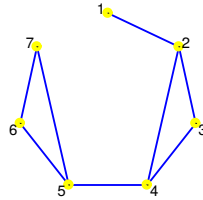
```
> G:=graph_complement(complete_graph(3,5,7))
an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 34 edges
> is_connected(G)
false
> C:=connected_components(G)
{[0, 1, 2], [3, 4, 5, 6, 7], [8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]}
> G:=highlight_subgraph(G, induced_subgraph(G, C[1]))
an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 34 edges
> G:=highlight_subgraph(G, induced_subgraph(G, C[2]), magenta, cyan)
an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 34 edges
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> H:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,2),trail(4,5,6,7,5))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 8 edges

```
> draw_graph(H)
```



```
> is_biconnected(H)
```

false

```
> biconnected_components(H)
```

{[1, 2], [2, 3, 4], [4, 5], [5, 6, 7]}

4.5.3. Graph rank

The command `graph_rank` is used for computing `graph rank`.

Syntax: `graph_rank(G)`
`graph_rank(G,S)`

`graph_rank` accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a set of edges $S \subset E$ (by default $S = E$), and returns $|V| - k$ where k is the number of connected components of the spanning subgraph of G with edge set S .

```
> G:=graph(%{[1,2],[3,4],[4,5]})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 3 edges

```
> graph_rank(G)
```

3

```
> graph_rank(G,[[1,2],[3,4]])
```

2

4.5.4. Articulation points

The command `articulation_points` is used for obtaining the set of `articulation points` (cut-vertices) of a graph.

Syntax: `articulation_points(G)`

`articulation_points` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the list of articulation points of G . A vertex $v \in V$ is an **articulation point** of G if the subgraph $H \subset G$ induced by $V \setminus \{v\}$ is disconnected.

The articulation points of G are found by depth-first search in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time [17].

```
> articulation_points(path_graph([1,2,3,4]))
```

[2, 3]

```
> length(articulation_points(cycle_graph(1,2,3,4)))
```

0

4.5.5. Strongly connected components

The command `strongly_connected_components` is used for decomposing digraphs into [strongly connected components](#). A digraph H is **strongly connected** if for each pair (v, w) of distinct vertices in H there is a directed path from v to w in H . The command `is_strongly_connected` can be used to determine whether the given graph is strongly connected.

Syntax: `strongly_connected_components(G)`
`is_strongly_connected(G)`

`strongly_connected_components` accepts a digraph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the minimal partition $\{V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k\}$ of V such that the subgraph $G_i \subset G$ induced by V_i is strongly connected for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. The result is returned as a list of lists V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k .

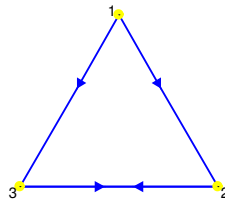
`is_strongly_connected` accepts a digraph G as its only argument and returns `true` if G has exactly one strongly connected component and `false` otherwise.

The strategy is to use TARJAN's algorithm for strongly connected components [37], which runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

```
> G:=digraph([1,2,3],%{[1,2],[1,3],[2,3],[3,2]})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> is_connected(G)
```

true

```
> is_strongly_connected(G)
```

false

```
> strongly_connected_components(G)
```

`{[1], [2, 3]}`

4.5.6. Edge connectivity

4.5.7. Edge cuts

The command `is_cut_set` is used for determining whether a particular subset of edges of the given graph is an [edge cut](#).

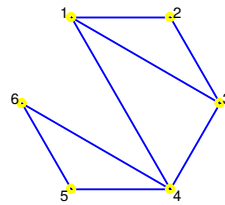
Syntax: `is_cut_set(G,L)`

`is_cut_set` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and a subset $L \subset E$ of edges, and returns `true` if the graph $G'(V, E \setminus L)$ has more connected components than G . Else it returns `false`.

```
> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,6,4,1,3))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 8 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> E:=[[1,4],[3,4]]
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> is_cut_set(G,E)
```

true

```
> is_connected(delete_edge(G,E))
```

false

4.6. TREES

4.6.1. Tree graphs

The command `is_tree` is used for determining whether the given graph is a [tree](#).

Syntax: `is_tree(G)`

`is_tree` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns **true** if G is undirected, connected and $|V| = |E| + 1$. Else it returns **false**.

The only expensive step in the algorithm is determining whether G is connected. The condition $|V| = |E| + 1$ is checked first, hence the algorithm runs in $O(|V|)$ time.

```
> is_tree(complete_binary_tree(3))
```

true

```
> is_tree(cycle_graph(5))
```

false

4.6.2. Forest graphs

The command `is_forest` is used for determining whether the given graph is a [forest](#).

Syntax: `is_forest(G)`

`is_forest` accepts the a $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns **true** if each of the connected components of G is a tree and **false** otherwise. The algorithm runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

```
> L:=[]:: for k from 10 to 30 do L.append(random_tree(k)); od::
```

Done, Done

```
> F:=disjoint_union(op(L))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 420 vertices and 399 edges

```
> is_connected(F)
```

false

```
> is_forest(F)
```

true

```
> draw_graph(F)
```



4.6.3. Height of a tree

The command `tree_height` is used for determining the height of a tree with respect to the specified root node. The **height** of a tree T is the length of the longest path in T that has the root node of T as one of its endpoints.

Syntax: `tree_height(G,r)`

`tree_height` accepts two arguments, a tree graph $G(V, E)$ and a vertex $r \in V$, which is used as the root node. The command returns the height of G with respect to r .

The strategy is to start a depth-first search from the root node and look for the deepest node. Therefore the algorithm runs in $O(|V|)$ time.

```
> G:=random_tree(1000)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 1000 vertices and 999 edges

```
> r:=rand(1000)
```

296

```
> tree_height(G,r)
```

20

4.6.4. Lowest common ancestor of a pair of nodes

The command `lowest_common_ancestor` is used for computing the **lowest common ancestor** (LCA) of a pair of nodes in a tree or for each element of a list of such pairs.

Syntax: `lowest_common_ancestor(G,r,u,v)`

```
lowest_common_ancestor(G,r,[u1,v1],[u2,v2],...,[uk,vk])
```

`lowest_common_ancestor` accepts two mandatory arguments, a tree graph $G(V, E)$ and the root node $r \in V$. There are two possibilities for specifying the nodes to operate on: either the nodes $u, v \in V$ are given as the third and the fourth argument, or a list of pairs of nodes in form `[[u1, v1], [u2, v2], ..., [uk, vk]]`, where $u_i, v_i \in V$ and $u_i \neq v_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, is given as the third argument. The command returns the LCA of u and v or the list containing LCA of every pair of nodes u_i, v_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

The strategy is to use TARJAN's offline LCA algorithm [38], which runs in nearly linear time.

In the following example, the algorithm efficiency is tested on a large random tree with 10000 nodes. The lowest common ancestors for the list L containing 100 pairs of vertices, chosen at random, need to be determined.

```
> G:=random_tree(10000)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10000 vertices and 9999 edges

3.562 sec

```
> V:=vertices(G); L:=[]; for k from 1 to 100 do L.append(rand(2,V)); od;
```

Done, Done, Done

```
> lowest_common_ancestor(G,0,L);
```

9.409 sec

4.6.5. Arborescence graphs

The command `is_arborescence` is used for determining whether the given directed unweighted graph is an **arborescence** (which is the digraph form of a rooted tree).

Syntax: `is_arborescence(G)`

`is_arborescence` accepts a digraph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns **true** if there is a vertex $u \in V$ such that for any other $v \in V$ there is exactly one directed path from u to v . Else it returns **false**.

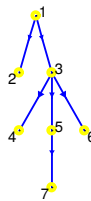
```
> T:=digraph(%{[1,2],[1,3],[3,4],[3,5],[3,6],[5,7]})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 6 arcs

```
> is_arborescence(T)
```

true

```
> draw_graph(T)
```



4.7. NETWORKS

4.7.1. Network graphs

The command `is_network` is used for determining whether the given graph is a **flow network**. In this context, a flow network is directed, connected graph with at least one vertex with in-degree 0 (the **source**) and at least one vertex with out-degree 0 (the **sink**).

Syntax: `is_network(G)`

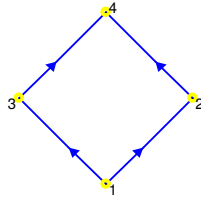
`is_network(G,s,t)`

`is_network` accepts one or three arguments, a digraph $G(V, E)$ and optionally the source vertex s and the sink vertex t . If these vertices are given, the command returns **true** if G is a network with respect to s, t and **false** otherwise. If the graph G is given as the only argument, the command returns a sequence of two objects, the list of all sources in G and the list of all sinks in G , respectively. If one of these lists is empty, then G is implicitly not a network (both lists are empty if G is not connected).

```
> N:=digraph(%{[1,2],[1,3],[2,4],[3,4]})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> draw_graph(N, spring)
```

```
> is_network(N,1,4)
```

```
true
```

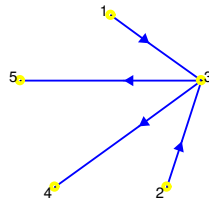
```
> is_network(N,2,3)
```

```
false
```

```
> G:=digraph(%{[1,3],[2,3],[3,4],[3,5]%})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> draw_graph(G,circle)
```



```
> is_network(G)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.7.2. Maximum flow

The command `maxflow` is used for computing the [maximum flow](#) in a network.

Syntax: `maxflow(G,s,t)`

`maxflow(G,s,t,M)`

`maxflow` accepts three or four arguments: a network graph $G(V, E)$, the source $s \in V$, the sink $t \in V$ and optionally an unassigned identifier M . It returns the optimal value for the maximum flow problem for G . If the fourth argument is given, an optimal flow is written to M in form of a matrix.

The strategy is to use the algorithm of EDMONDS and KARP [13], which solves the maximum flow problem in $O(|V||E|^2)$ time.

```
> A:=[0,1,0,4,0,0],[0,0,1,0,3,0],[0,1,0$3,1],[0,0,3,0,1,0],[0$3,1,0,4],[0$6]]
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

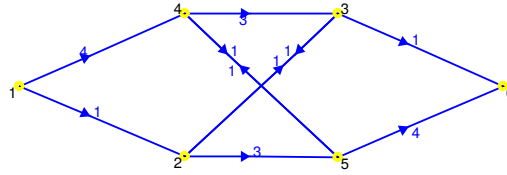
```
> N:=digraph([1,2,3,4,5,6],A)
```

a directed weighted graph with 6 vertices and 10 arcs

```
> is_network(N)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> draw_graph(N,spring)
```



```
> maxflow(N,1,6,M)
```

4

```
> M
```

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

```
> N:=random_network(2,3,0.95,acyclic)
```

a directed unweighted graph with 12 vertices and 20 arcs

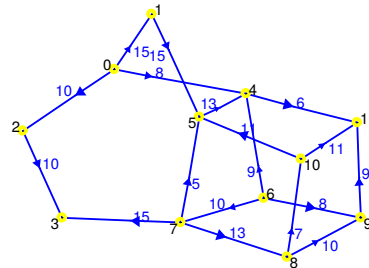
```
> is_network(N)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 6 \\ 3 & 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> N:=assign_edge_weights(N,5,15)
```

a directed weighted graph with 12 vertices and 20 arcs

```
> draw_graph(N,spring)
```

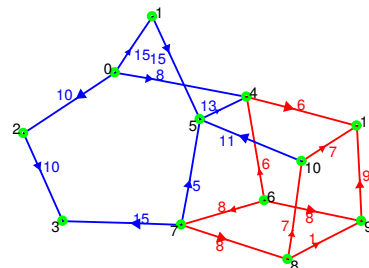


```
> maxflow(N,6,11,F)
```

22

To visualize the optimal flow F , one can use the `highlight_subgraph` command with the option `weights` to display the actual flow in the highlighted edges.

```
> draw_graph(highlight_subgraph(N,digraph(vertices(N),F),weights),spring)
```



4.8. DISTANCE IN GRAPHS

4.8.1. Vertex distance

The command `vertex_distance` is used for computing the length of the shortest path(s) from the source vertex to some other vertex/vertices of a graph.

Syntax: `vertex_distance(G,v,w)`
`vertex_distance(G,v,L)`

`vertex_distance` accepts three arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$, a vertex $v \in V$ called the **source** and a vertex $w \in V$ called the **target**, or a list $L \subset V$ of target vertices. The command returns the distance between v and w as the number of edges in a shortest path from v to w , or the list of distances if a list of target vertices is given.

The strategy is to use [breadth-first search](#) [17, pp. 35] starting from the source vertex. Therefore, the algorithm runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> vertex_distance(G,1,3)
```

2

```
> vertex_distance(G,1,[3,6,9])
```

[2, 1, 2]

4.8.2. All-pairs vertex distance

The command `allpairs_distance` is used for computing the matrix of distances between all pairs of vertices in the given (weighted) graph.

Syntax: `allpairs_distance(G)`

`allpairs_distance` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns a square matrix $D = [d_{ij}]$ with $n = |V|$ rows and columns such that $d_{ij} = \text{distance}(v_i, v_j)$ for all $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$, where v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n are the elements of V . If $v_i v_j \notin E$, then $d_{ij} = +\infty$. The strategy is to apply the algorithm of FLOYD and WARSHALL [15], which runs in $O(|V|^3)$ time.

Note that, if G is weighted, it must not contain negative cycles. A cycle is **negative** if the sum of weights of its edges is negative.

```
> G:=graph([1,2,3,4,5],%{[1,2],[1,3],[1,4],[1,5],[2,3],[3,4],[4,5],[5,2]})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 8 edges

```
> allpairs_distance(G)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

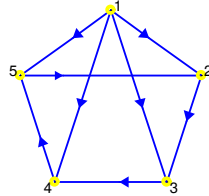
```
> H:=digraph(%{[1,2],[1,3],[1,4],[1,5],[2,3],[3,4],[4,5],[5,2]})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 8 arcs

```
> allpairs_distance(H)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ +\infty & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ +\infty & 3 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ +\infty & 2 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ +\infty & 1 & 2 & 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

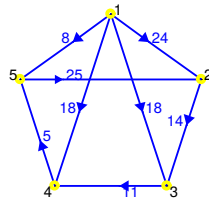
```
> draw_graph(H)
```



```
> H:=assign_edge_weights(H,5,25)
```

a directed weighted graph with 5 vertices and 8 arcs

```
> draw_graph(H)
```



```
> allpairs_distance(H)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 24 & 18 & 18 & 8 \\ +\infty & 0 & 14 & 25 & 30 \\ +\infty & 41 & 0 & 11 & 16 \\ +\infty & 30 & 44 & 0 & 5 \\ +\infty & 25 & 39 & 50 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.8.3. Diameter

The command `graph_diameter` is used for determining the maximum distance among all pairs of vertices in a graph.

Syntax: `graph_diameter(G)`

`graph_diameter` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the number $\max \{\text{distance}(u, v) : u, v \in V\}$. If G is disconnected, $+\infty$ is returned.

This command calls `allpairs_distance` and picks the largest element in the output matrix. Hence the complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V|^3)$.

```
> graph_diameter(graph("petersen"))
```

2

```
> graph_diameter(cycle_graph(19))
```

9

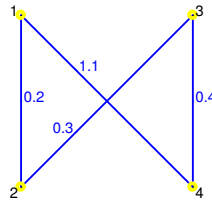
```
> graph_diameter(disjoint_union(graph("petersen"), cycle_graph(19)))
```

$+\infty$

```
> G:=graph(%{[[1,2],0.2],[[2,3],0.3],[[3,4],0.4],[[4,1],1.1]}%)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



```
> graph_diameter(G)
```

0.9

```
> dijkstra(G,1,4)
```

[[1, 2, 3, 4], 0.9]

4.8.4. Girth

The commands `girth` and `odd_girth` are used for computing the (odd) girth of an undirected unweighted graph.

Syntax: `girth(G)`

`girth` resp. `odd_girth` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the girth resp. odd girth of G . The (odd) girth of G is defined to be the length of the shortest (odd) cycle in G . If there is no (odd) cycle in G , the command returns $+\infty$.

The strategy is to apply breadth-first search from each vertex of the input graph. The runtime is therefore $O(|V||E|)$.

```
> girth(graph("petersen"))
```

5

```
> G:=hypercube_graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 8 vertices and 12 edges

```
> G:=subdivide_edges(G,["000","001"])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 9 vertices and 13 edges

```
> girth(G)
```

4

```
> odd_girth(G)
```

5

```
> girth(complete_binary_tree(2))
```

$+\infty$

4.9. ACYCLIC GRAPHS

4.9.1. Acyclic graphs

The command `is_acyclic` is used for checking for absence of directed cycles in digraphs. A directed graph with no directed cycle is said to be **acyclic**.

Syntax: `is_acyclic(G)`

`is_acyclic` accepts a digraph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns `true` if G is acyclic and `false` otherwise.

The algorithm attempts to find topological order for its vertices. If that succeeds, the graph is acyclic, otherwise not. The algorithm runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

```
> is_acyclic(digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5)))
true
> is_acyclic(digraph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,2)))
false
```

4.9.2. Topological sorting

The command `topologic_sort` or `topological_sort` is used for finding a linear ordering of vertices of an acyclic digraph which is consistent with the arcs of the digraph. This procedure is called [topological sorting](#).

Syntax: `topologic_sort(G)`
`topological_sort(G)`

`topologic_sort` accepts a graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the list of vertices of G in a particular order: a vertex u precedes a vertex v if $uv \in E$, i.e. if there is an arc from u to v .

Note that topological sorting is possible only if the input graph is acyclic. If this condition is not met, `topologic_sort` returns an error. Otherwise, it finds the required ordering by applying KAHN's algorithm [28], which runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

```
> G:=digraph(%{[c,a],[c,b],[c,d],[a,d],[b,d],[a,b]})
a directed unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 arcs
> is_acyclic(G)
true
> topologic_sort(G)
[c,a,b,d]
```

4.9.3. st ordering

The command `st_ordering` is used for finding [st-orientations](#) in undirected biconnected graphs.

Syntax: `st_ordering(G,s,t)`
`st_ordering(G,s,t,D)`

`st_ordering` accepts three or four arguments: an undirected biconnected graph $G(V, E)$, a vertex $s \in V$ called the **source**, a vertex $t \in V$ called the **sink** such that $st \in E$ and optionally an unassigned identifier D . The command returns the permutation σ which defines a particular ordering of the vertices in V . Now, an orientation of each $e = uv \in E$ can be determined by the ordinals n and m of its endpoints u and v , respectively, which are assigned by the permutation σ : if $n < m$, then u is the head and v is the tail of the corresponding arc, and vice versa otherwise. If the fourth argument is given, a copy of G , which is made directed according to these orientations, is stored to D .

The strategy is to apply the algorithm of EVEN and TARJAN [14] which runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time. Note that, since the input graph is biconnected, st-orientation can be computed for any pair $s, t \in V$ such that $st \in E$.

```
> G:=graph(%{[a,b],[a,c],[a,d],[b,c],[b,d],[c,d]})
an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 6 edges
```

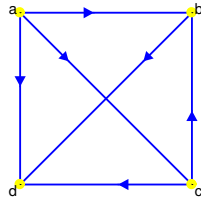
```
> vertices(G)
```

```
[a, b, c, d]
```

```
> st_ordering(G,a,d,D)
```

```
[0, 2, 1, 3]
```

```
> draw_graph(D)
```



4.10. MATCHING IN GRAPHS

4.10.1. Maximum matching

The command `maximum_matching` is used for finding maximum [matchings](#) [18, pp. 43] in undirected unweighted graphs.

Syntax: `maximum_matching(G)`

`maximum_matching` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns a list of edges $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m \in E$ such that e_i and e_j are not adjacent (i.e. have no common endpoints) for all $1 \leq i < j \leq m$ and that m is maximal. The return value can be interpreted as the list of matched pairs of vertices in G .

The strategy is to apply the [blossom algorithm](#) of EDMONDS [12], which runs in $O(|V|^2 |E|)$ time.

```
> maximum_matching(graph("octahedron"))
```

```
( 1 6
 3 2
 5 4)
```

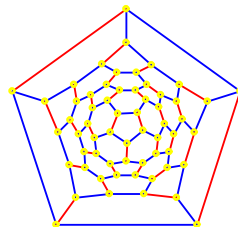
```
> G:=graph("soccerball")
```

```
an undirected unweighted graph with 60 vertices and 90 edges
```

```
> M:=maximum_matching(G); length(M)
```

```
Done, 30
```

```
> draw_graph(highlight_edges(G,M),labels=false)
```



```
> G:=random_graph(100,1000)
```

```
an undirected unweighted graph with 100 vertices and 1000 edges
```

```
> length(maximum_matching(G))
```

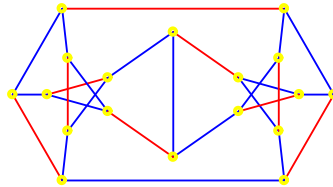
50

13.01 sec

```
> G:=graph("blanusa")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 18 vertices and 27 edges

```
> draw_graph(highlight_edges(G,maximum_matching(G)),labels=false)
```



4.10.2. Maximum matching in bipartite graphs

The command `bipartite_matching` is used for finding maximum matchings in undirected, unweighted bipartite graphs. It applies the algorithm of HOPCROFT and KARP [25], which is more efficient than the general algorithm used by the command `maximum_matching`.

Syntax: `bipartite_matching(G)`

`bipartite_matching` accepts an undirected bipartite graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns a sequence containing two elements: the size of the matching and the list of edges connecting matched pairs of vertices. The algorithm runs in $O(\sqrt{|V|} |E|)$ time.

```
> G:=graph("desargues")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

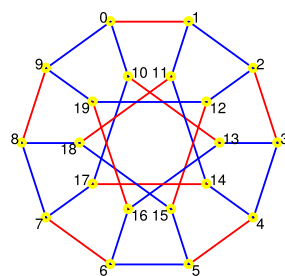
```
> is_bipartite(G)
```

true

```
> n,M:=bipartite_matching(G)
```

10, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \\ 6 & 7 \\ 8 & 9 \\ 10 & 13 \\ 11 & 18 \\ 12 & 15 \\ 14 & 17 \\ 16 & 19 \end{pmatrix}$

```
> draw_graph(highlight_edges(G,M))
```



4.11. CLIQUES

4.11.1. Clique graphs

To check whether an undirected graph is complete, one can use the `is_clique` command.

Syntax: `is_clique(G)`

`is_clique` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns `true` if every pair of distinct vertices is connected by a unique edge in E . Else, it returns `false`.

```
> K5:=complete_graph(5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 10 edges

```
> is_clique(K5)
```

true

```
> G:=delete_edge(K5,[1,2])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 9 edges

```
> is_clique(G)
```

false

4.11.2. Triangle-free graphs

The command `is_triangle_free` is used for checking that there are no cliques of cardinality equal to 3 in the given (underlying) graph. Graphs having this property are said to be **triangle-free** [18, pp. 11]. Because of the absence of 3-cliques, triangle-free graphs do not contain cliques of cardinality greater than two.

Syntax: `is_triangle_free(G)`

`triangle_free` accepts a graph G as its only argument and returns `true` if G is triangle-free and `false` otherwise. If G is directed, its underlying graph is examined.

The strategy is to compute the trace of A^3 , where A is the adjacency matrix of G (encoded as a sparse matrix). If $\text{tr}(A^3) = 0$, then G is triangle-free^{4.2}.

```
> is_triangle_free(graph("soccerball"))
```

true

```
> is_triangle_free(graph("tetrahedron"))
```

false

4.11.3. Maximal cliques

Given an undirected graph $G(V, E)$, a subset $S \subset V$ is called a **clique** in G if any two distinct vertices from S are adjacent in G , i.e. if the subgraph of G induced by the set S is complete. A clique is **maximal** if it cannot be extended by adding more vertices from V to it. To count all maximal cliques in a graph one can use the `clique_stats` command.

Syntax: `clique_stats(G)`

`clique_stats(G,k)`

`clique_stats(G,m..n)`

4.2. See https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Triangle-free_graph#Triangle_finding_problem.

`clique_stats` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ as the mandatory first argument. If no other arguments are given, the command returns a list of pairs, each pair consisting of two integers: clique cardinality k (first) and the number $n_k > 0$ of k -cliques in G (second). Therefore, the sum of second members of all returned pairs is equal to the total count of all maximal cliques in G . Furthermore, a second argument may be passed to `clique_stats`; if so, it must be a positive integer k or an interval with integer bounds $m \dots n$. In the first case only the number of k -cliques for the given k is returned; in the second case, only cliques with cardinality between m and n (inclusive) are counted.

The strategy used to find all maximal cliques is a variant of the algorithm of BRON and KERBOSCH developed by TOMITA et al. [39]. Its worst-case running time is $O(3^{|V|/3})$. However, the performance usually takes only a moment for graphs with 100 vertices or less.

```
> G:=random_graph(50,0.5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 50 vertices and 588 edges

```
> clique_stats(G)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 14 \\ 4 & 185 \\ 5 & 370 \\ 6 & 201 \\ 7 & 47 \\ 8 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> G:=random_graph(100,0.5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 100 vertices and 2461 edges

```
> clique_stats(G,5)
```

3124

```
> G:=random_graph(500,0.25)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 500 vertices and 30991 edges

```
> clique_stats(G,5..7)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 5 & 144544 \\ 6 & 16268 \\ 7 & 267 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.11.4. Maximum clique

Any largest maximal clique in an undirected graph is called **maximum clique**. The command `maximum_clique` can be used to find one in the given graph. If only the size of a maximum clique is desired, one can use the command `clique_number`.

Syntax: `maximum_clique(G)`
`clique_number(G)`

`maximum_clique` accepts an undirected graph G as its only argument and returns a maximum clique in G as a list of vertices. The clique may subsequently be extracted from G using the command `induced_subgraph`.

The strategy used to find maximum clique is an improved variant of the classical algorithm by CARRAGHAN and PARDALOS developed by ÖSTERGÅRD [32].

In the following examples the results were obtained almost instantly.

```
> G:=sierpinski_graph(5,5)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3125 vertices and 7810 edges

```
> maximum_clique(G)
```

```
[1560, 1561, 1562, 1563, 1564]
```

```
> G:=random_graph(300,0.3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 300 vertices and 13380 edges

```
> maximum_clique(G)
```

```
[46, 64, 144, 183, 208, 241, 244, 261]
```

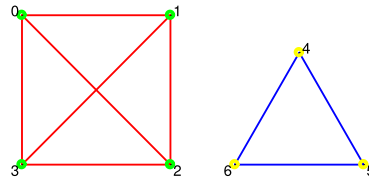
```
> G:=graph_complement(complete_graph(4,3))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 7 vertices and 9 edges

```
> cliq:=maximum_clique(G)
```

```
[0, 1, 2, 3]
```

```
> draw_graph(highlight_subgraph(G,induced_subgraph(G,cliq)))
```



`clique_number` accepts an undirected graph G as its only argument and returns the number of vertices forming a maximum clique in G .

```
> clique_number(G)
```

```
4
```

4.11.5. Minimum clique cover

A **minimum clique cover** for an undirected graph G is any minimal set $S = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k\}$ of cliques in G such that for every vertex v in G there exists $i \leq k$ such that $v \in C_i$. Such a cover can be obtained by calling the `clique_cover` command.

Syntax: `clique_cover(G)`
`clique_cover(G,k)`

`clique_cover` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ as its mandatory argument and returns the smallest possible cover. Optionally, a positive integer k may be passed as the second argument. In that case the requirement that k is less or equal to the given integer is set. If no such cover is found, `clique_cover` returns empty list.

The strategy is to find a minimal vertex coloring in the complement G^c of G (note that these two graphs share the same set of vertices). Each set of equally colored vertices in G^c corresponds to a clique in G . Therefore, the color classes of G^c map to the elements C_1, \dots, C_k of a minimal clique cover in G .

There is a special case in which G is triangle-free, which is computed separately in the algorithm. In that case, G contains only 1- and 2-cliques. Therefore, every clique cover in G consists of a set $M \subset E$ of matched edges together with the singleton cliques (i.e. the isolated vertices in V which remain unmatched). The total number of cliques in the cover is equal to $|V| - |M|$, hence to find a minimal cover one just needs to find a maximum matching in G , which can be done in polynomial time.

```
> G:=random_graph(30,0.2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 30 vertices and 89 edges

```
> clique_cover(G)
```

```
{[0, 21], [1, 17], [2, 25, 28], [3, 7, 10], [4, 8], [5, 11, 20], [6, 13, 14], [9, 16, 23], [12, 15, 19], [18, 22], [24, 26], [27, 29]}
```

```
> clique_cover(graph("octahedron"))
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

The vertices of Petersen graph can be covered with five, but not with three cliques.

```
> clique_cover(graph("petersen"),3)
```

```
[]
```

```
> clique_cover(graph("petersen"),5)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 9 \\ 5 & 7 \\ 6 & 8 \end{pmatrix}$$

4.11.6. Clique cover number

The command `clique_cover_number` is used for computing the [clique cover number](#) of a graph.

Syntax: `clique_cover_number(G)`

`clique_cover_number` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the minimum number of cliques in G needed to cover the vertex set V . (More precisely, it calls the [clique_cover](#) command and returns the length of the output list.) This number, denoted by $\theta(G)$, is equal to the chromatic number $\chi(G^c)$ of the complement graph G^c of G .

```
> clique_cover_number(graph("petersen"))
```

```
5
```

```
> clique_cover_number(graph("soccerball"))
```

```
30
```

```
> clique_cover_number(random_graph(40,0.618))
```

```
7
```

4.12. VERTEX COLORING

To color vertices of a graph $G(V, E)$ means to assign to each vertex $v \in V$ a positive integer. Each integer represents a distinct color. The key property of [graph coloring](#) is that the colors of a pair of adjacent vertices must be mutually different. Two different colorings of G may use different number of colors.

4.12.1. Greedy coloring

The command `greedy_color` is used for coloring vertices of a graph in a greedy fashion.

Syntax: `greedy_color(G)`

`greedy_color(G,p)`

`greedy_color` accepts one mandatory argument, a graph $G(V, E)$. Optionally, a permutation p of order $|V|$ may be passed as the second argument. Vertices are colored one by one in the order specified by p (or in the default order if p is not given) such that each vertex gets the smallest available color. The list of vertex colors is returned in the order of `vertices(G)`.

Generally, different choices of permutation p produce different colorings. The total number of different colors may not be the same each time. The complexity of the algorithm is $O(|V| + |E|)$.

```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> greedy_color(G)
```

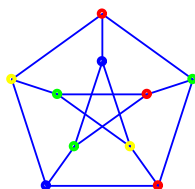
```
[1, 2, 1, 2, 3, 2, 1, 3, 3, 2]
```

```
> L:=greedy_color(G,randperm(10))
```

```
[1, 2, 1, 4, 3, 4, 1, 3, 2, 2]
```

Observe that a different number of colors is obtained by executing the last command line. To display the colored graph, input:

```
> draw_graph(highlight_vertex(G,vertices(G),L),labels=false)
```



The first six positive integers are always mapped to the standard Xcas colors, as indicated in Table 4.1. Note that the color 0 (black) and color 7 (white) are swapped; a vertex with color 0 is

<i>value</i>	<i>color</i>
1	red
2	green
3	yellow
4	blue
5	magenta
6	cyan
7	black

Table 4.1. interpretation of abstract vertex/edge colors in Xcas

white (uncolored) and vertex with color 7 is black. Also note that Xcas maps numbers greater than 7 to colors too, but the number of available colors is limited.

4.12.2. Minimal coloring

The vertex coloring of G is **minimal** (or **optimal**) if the smallest possible number of colors is used. To obtain such a coloring use the command `minimal_vertex_coloring`.

Syntax: `minimal_coloring(G)`
`minimal_coloring(G,sto)`

`minimal_vertex_coloring` accepts one mandatory argument, a graph $G(V, E)$ where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$. Optionally, a symbol `sto` may be passed as the second argument. The command returns the vertex colors c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n in order of `vertices(G)` or, if the second argument is given, stores the colors as vertex attributes and returns the modified copy of G .

Giac requires the `GLPK` library to solve the minimal vertex coloring problem (MVCP), which is converted to the equivalent integer linear programming problem and solved by using the branch-and-bound method with specific branch/backtrack techniques [10]. Lower and upper bounds for the number of colors n are obtained by finding a maximal clique (n cannot be lower than its cardinality) and by using the heuristic proposed by BRÉLAZ in [5] (which will use at least n colors), respectively. Note that the algorithm performs some randomization when applying heuristics, so coloring a graph several times will not take the same amount of computation time in each instance, generally.

In the following example, the Grötzsch graph is colored with the minimal number of colors by first finding the coloring and then assigning it to the graph by using the `highlight_vertex` command.

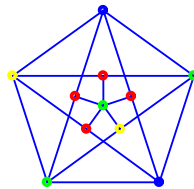
```
> G:=graph("grotzsch")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 11 vertices and 20 edges

```
> coloring:=minimal_vertex_coloring(G)
```

```
[4, 2, 3, 1, 1, 4, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2]
```

```
> draw_graph(highlight_vertex(G,vertices(G),coloring),labels=false)
```



Solving MVCP for different graphs of exactly the same size (but which do not share the same edge structure) may take quite different time in each instance. Also note that, since vertex coloring problem is NP hard, the algorithm will take exponential time for some graphs.

4.12.3. Chromatic number

The command `chromatic_number` is used for exact computation and approximation of the `chromatic number` of a graph.

Syntax: `chromatic_number(G)`
`chromatic_number(G,c)`
`chromatic_number(G,approx or interval)`

`chromatic_number` accepts one mandatory argument, a graph $G(V, E)$, and optionally a second argument. To obtain only upper and lower bound for the chromatic number (which is much faster than computing exactly) the option `approx` or `interval` should be passed as the second argument. Alternatively, an unassigned identifier `c` is passed as the second argument; in that case the corresponding coloring will be stored to it in form of a list of colors of the individual vertices, ordered as in `vertices(G)`.

The command returns the chromatic number χ_G of the graph G in the case of exact computation. If the option `approx` or `interval` is given, an interval `lb..ub` is returned, where `lb` is the best lower bound and `ub` the best upper bound for χ_G found by the algorithm.

The strategy is call `minimal_vertex_coloring` in the case of exact computation. When approximating the chromatic number, the algorithm will establish the lower bound by finding a maximum clique. The timeout for this operation is set to 5 seconds as it can be time consuming. If no maximum clique is not found after that time, the largest clique found is used. Then, an upper bound is established by using the heuristic proposed by BRÉLAZ in [5]. Obtaining the bounds for χ_G is usually very fast; however, their difference grows with $|V|$.

Unless the input graph is sparse enough, the algorithm slows down considerably for, say, $|V| > 40$.

```
> chromatic_number(graph("grotzsch"),cols)
```

4

```
> cols
```

```
[4, 2, 3, 1, 1, 4, 1, 3, 2, 1, 2]
```

```
> G:=random_graph(30,0.75)
```

```
an undirected unweighted graph with 30 vertices and 313 edges
```

```
> chromatic_number(G)
```

10

```
> G:=random_graph(300,0.05)
```

```
an undirected unweighted graph with 300 vertices and 2196 edges
```

```
> chromatic_number(G,approx)
```

4..7

4.12.4. k -coloring

The command `is_vertex_colorable` is used for determining whether the vertices of a graph can be colored with at most k colors.

Syntax: `is_vertex_colorable(G,k)`
`is_vertex_colorable(G,k,c)`

`is_vertex_colorable` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$, a positive integer k and optionally an unassigned identifier c . The command returns `true` if G can be colored using at most k colors and `false` otherwise. If the third argument is given, a coloring using at most k colors is stored to c as a list of vertex colors, in the order of `vertices(G)`.

The strategy is to first apply a simple greedy coloring procedure which runs in linear time. If the number of required colors is greater than k , the heuristic proposed by BRÉLAZ in [5] is used, which runs in quadratic time. If the number of required colors is still larger than k , the algorithm attempts to find the chromatic number χ_G using k as the upper bound in the process.

```
> G:=graph("grotzsch")
```

```
an undirected unweighted graph with 11 vertices and 20 edges
```

```
> is_vertex_colorable(G,3)
```

```
false
```

```
> is_vertex_colorable(G,4)
```

```
true
```

```
> G:=random_graph(70,0.2)
```

```
an undirected unweighted graph with 70 vertices and 469 edges
```

```
> chromatic_number(G,approx)
```

5..6

```
> is_vertex_colorable(G,5)
```

```
false
```

818 msec

From the results of the last two command lines it follows that $\chi_G = 6$. Finding χ_G by utilizing the next command line is simpler, but requires much more time.

```
> chromatic_number(G)
```

4.13. EDGE COLORING

4.13.1. Minimal coloring

The command `minimal_edge_coloring` is used for finding a minimal coloring of edges in a graph, satisfying the following two conditions: any two mutually incident edges are colored differently and the total number n of colors is minimal. The theorem of VIZING [11, pp. 103] implies that every simple undirected graph falls into one of two categories: 1 if $n = \Delta$ or 2 if $n = \Delta + 1$, where Δ is the maximum degree of the graph.

Syntax: `minimal_edge_coloring(G)`
`minimal_edge_coloring(G,sto)`

`minimal_edge_coloring` accepts one or two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally the keyword `sto`. If the latter is given, a minimal coloring is stored to the input graph (each edge $e \in E$ gets a color c_e stored as an attribute) and a modified copy of G is returned. Else, the command returns a sequence of two objects: integer 1 or 2, indicating the category, and the list of edge colors $c_{e_1}, c_{e_2}, \dots, c_{e_m}$ according the order of edges $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m \in E$ as returned by the command `edges`.

The strategy is to find a minimal vertex coloring of the line graph of G by using the algorithm described in Section 4.12.2.

```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

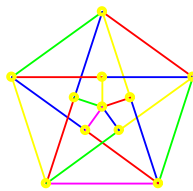
```
> minimal_edge_coloring(G)
```

2, [1, 2, 3, 2, 3, 3, 4, 1, 2, 3, 1, 4, 1, 4, 2]

```
> H:=minimal_edge_coloring(graph("grotzsch"),sto)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 11 vertices and 20 edges

```
> draw_graph(H,labels=false)
```



```
> G:=random_graph(100,0.1)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 100 vertices and 499 edges

```
> minimal_edge_coloring(G);
```

20.24 sec

4.13.2. Chromatic index

The command `chromatic_index` is used for computing the chromatic index of an undirected graph.

Syntax: `chromatic_index(G)`
`chromatic_index(G,c)`

`chromatic_index` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(E, V)$ and optionally an unassigned identifier `c`. The command returns the minimal number $\chi'(G)$ of colors needed to color each edge in G such that two incident edges never share the same color. If the second argument is given, it specifies the destination for storing the coloring in form of a list of colors according to the order of edges in E as returned by the command `edges`.

The example below demonstrates how to color the edges of a graph with colors obtained by passing unassigned identifier `c` to `chromatic_index` as the second argument.

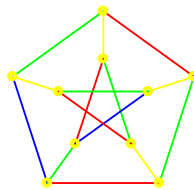
```
> G:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> chromatic_index(G,c)
```

4

```
> draw_graph(highlight_edges(G,edges(G),c))
```

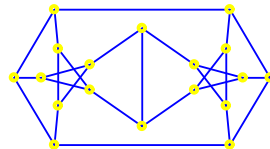


Blanuša snarks, the two graphs with 18 vertices found in 1946 by DANILO BLANUŠA, were the second and third [snarks](#) discovered [3]. For almost fifty years, Petersen graph was the only known snark. The second Blanuša snark is available in Giac by passing the string "blanusa" to the `graph` command.

```
> G:=graph("blanusa")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 18 vertices and 27 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,labels=false)
```



```
> minimum_degree(G),maximum_degree(G)
```

3,3

To prove that Blanuša snark is bridgeless, it is enough to show that it is biconnected, since each endpoint of a bridge is an articulation point (unless being of degree 1).

```
> is_biconnected(G)
```

true

```
> girth(G)
```

5

```
> chromatic_index(G)
```

4

CHAPTER 5

TRAVERSING GRAPHS

5.1. WALKS AND TOURS

5.1.1. Eulerian graphs

The command `is_eulerian` is used for determining whether an undirected graph contains an [Eulerian trail](#).

Syntax: `is_eulerian(G)`
`is_eulerian(G,T)`

`is_eulerian` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally an unassigned identifier `T`, and returns `true` if G is Eulerian and `false` otherwise. If the second argument is given, the corresponding Eulerian trail is stored to `T`.

A graph G is **Eulerian** if it has a trail covering all its edges. Such a trail is called **Eulerian trail**. An Eulerian trail may be closed, in which case it is called **Eulerian cycle**. Note that every edge $e \in E$ must be visited, i.e. “strolled through”, exactly once [18, pp. 395]. The edge endpoints (i.e. the vertices in G) may, however, be visited more than once.

The strategy is to apply HIERHOLZER’s algorithm for finding an Eulerian path [23]. It works by covering one cycle at a time in the input graph. The required time is $O(|E|)$.

```
> is_eulerian(complete_graph(4))
```

```
false
```

```
> is_eulerian(complete_graph([1,2,3,4,5]),T); T
```

```
true, [1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 5, 2, 4, 5, 3, 1]
```

```
> is_eulerian(graph("tetrahedron"))
```

```
false
```

```
> is_eulerian(graph("octahedron"))
```

```
true
```

5.1.2. Hamiltonian graphs

The command `is_hamiltonian` is used for checking hamiltonicity of an undirected graph. The command can also construct a [Hamiltonian cycle](#) in the input graph if the latter is Hamiltonian.

Syntax: `is_hamiltonian(G)`
`is_hamiltonian(G,hc)`

`is_hamiltonian` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally an unassigned identifier `hc`. The command returns `true` if G is Hamiltonian and `false` otherwise. When failing to determine whether G is Hamiltonian or not, `is_hamiltonian` returns `undef`. If the second argument is given, a Hamiltonian cycle is stored to `hc`.

The strategy is to apply some hamiltonicity criteria presented in DELEON [9] before resorting to the definitive but NP-hard algorithm. If G is not biconnected, it is not Hamiltonian. Else, the criterion of DIRAC is applied: if $\delta(G) \geq \frac{|V|}{2}$, where $\delta(G) = \min \{\deg(v) : v \in V\}$, then G is Hamiltonian. Else, if G is bipartite with vertex partition $V = V_1 \cup V_2$ and $|V_1| \neq |V_2|$, then G is not Hamiltonian. Else, the criterion of ORE is applied: if $\deg(u) + \deg(v) \geq n$ holds for every pair u, v of non-adjacent vertices from V , then G is Hamiltonian. Else, the theorem of BONDY and CHVÁTAL is applied: if the closure $\text{cl}(G)$ of G (obtained by finding a pair u, v of non-adjacent vertices from V such that $\deg(u) + \deg(v) \geq n$, adding a new edge uv to E and repeating the process until exhaustion) is Hamiltonian, then G is Hamiltonian. (Note that in this case the previously tried criteria are applied to $\text{cl}(G)$; since the vertex degrees in $\text{cl}(G)$ are generally higher than those in G , the probability of success also rises.) Else, if the edge density of G is large enough, the criterion of NASH and WILLIAMS is applied: if $\delta(G) \geq \max \left\{ \frac{n+2}{3}, \beta \right\}$, where β is the independence number of G , then G is Hamiltonian. If all of the above criteria fail, the command `traveling_salesman` is called, either to find a Hamiltonian cycle in G or to determine that none exist.

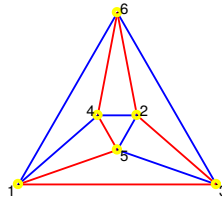
```
> is_hamiltonian(graph("soccerball"))
```

true

```
> is_hamiltonian(graph("octahedron"),hc)
```

true

```
> draw_graph(highlight_trail(graph("octahedron"),hc))
```



```
> is_hamiltonian(graph("herschel"))
```

false

```
> is_hamiltonian(graph("petersen"))
```

false

```
> is_hamiltonian(hypercube_graph(9))
```

true

6.04 sec

5.2. OPTIMAL ROUTING

5.2.1. Shortest unweighted paths

The command `shortest_path` is used for finding shortest paths in unweighted graphs.

Syntax: `shortest_path(G,s,t)`
`shortest_path(G,s,T)`

`shortest_path` accepts three arguments: an undirected unweighted graph $G(V, E)$, the source vertex $s \in V$ and the target vertex $t \in V$ or a list T of target vertices. The shortest path from source to target is returned. If more targets are specified, the list of shortest paths from the source to each of these vertices is returned.

The strategy is to run breadth-first traversal on the graph G starting from the source vertex s . The complexity of the algorithm is therefore $O(|V| + |E|)$.

```
> G:=graph("dodecahedron")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

```
> shortest_path(G,1,16)
```

[1, 6, 11, 16]

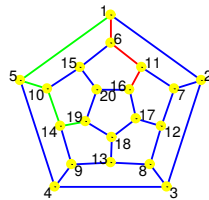
```
> paths:=shortest_path(G,1,[16,19])
```

{[1, 6, 11, 16], [1, 5, 10, 14, 19]}

```
> H:=highlight_trail(G,paths,[red,green])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

```
> draw_graph(H)
```



5.2.2. Cheapest weighted paths

The command `dijkstra` is used for finding cheapest paths in weighted graphs.

Syntax: `dijkstra(G,s,t)`
`dijkstra(G,s,T)`

`dijkstra` accepts two or three arguments: a weighted graph $G(V, E)$ with nonnegative weights, a vertex $s \in V$ and optionally a vertex $t \in V$ or list T of vertices in V . It returns the cheapest path from s to t or, if more target vertices are given, the list of such paths to each target vertex $t \in T$, computed by DIJKSTRA's algorithm in $O(|V|^2)$ time. If no target vertex is specified, all vertices in $V \setminus \{s\}$ are assumed to be targets.

A cheapest path from s to t is represented with a list $[[v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k], c]$ where the first element consists of path vertices with $v_1 = s$ and $v_k = t$, while the second element c is the weight (cost) of that path, equal to the sum of weights of its edges.

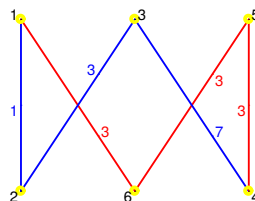
```
> G:=graph(%{[[1,2],1],[[1,6],3],[[2,3],3],[[3,4],7],[[4,5],3],[[5,6],3]%})
```

an undirected weighted graph with 6 vertices and 6 edges

```
> res:=dijkstra(G,1,4)
```

[[1, 6, 5, 4], 9]

```
> draw_graph(highlight_trail(G,res[0]))
```



```
> dijkstra(G,1)
```

$[[1], 0], [[1, 2], 1], [[1, 6], 3], [[1, 2, 3], 4], [[1, 6, 5, 4], 9], [[1, 6, 5], 6]$

5.2.3. Traveling salesman problem

The command `traveling_salesman` is used for solving [traveling salesman problem](#) (TSP)^{5.1}.

Syntax: `traveling_salesman(G)`
`traveling_salesman(G,opts)`
`traveling_salesman(G,M)`
`traveling_salesman(G,M,opts)`

`traveling_salesman` accepts the following arguments: an undirected graph $G(V, E)$, a weight matrix M (optional) and a sequence of options (optional). The supported options are `approx` and `vertex_distance`.

If the input graph G is unweighted and M is not specified, a Hamiltonian cycle (tour) is returned (the adjacency matrix of G is used for the edge weights). If G is weighted, two objects are returned: the optimal value for the traveling salesman problem and a Hamiltonian cycle which achieves the optimal value. If M is given and G is unweighted, M is used as the weight matrix for G .

If the option `vertex_distance` is passed and M is not specified, then for each edge $e \in E$ the Euclidean distance between its endpoints is used as the weight of e . Therefore it is required for each vertex in G to have a predefined position.

If the option `approx` is passed, a near-optimal tour is returned. In this case it is required that G is a complete weighted graph. For larger graphs, this is significantly faster than finding optimal tour. Results thus obtained are usually only a few percent larger than the corresponding optimal values, despite the fact that the reported guarantee is generally much weaker (around 30%).

The strategy is to formulate TSP as a linear programming problem and to solve it by branch-and-cut method, applying the hierarchical clustering method of PFERSCHY and STANĚK [34] to generate subtour elimination constraints. The branching rule is implemented according to PADBERG and RINALDI [33]. In addition, the algorithm combines the method of CHRISTOFIDES [7], the method of farthest insertion and a variant of the powerful tour improvement heuristic developed by LIN and KERNIGHAN [22], to generate near-optimal feasible solutions during the branch-and-cut process.

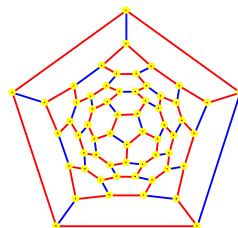
For Euclidean TSP instances, i.e. in cases when G is a complete graph with vertex distances as the edge weights, the algorithm usually finishes in less than a minute for problems with up to, say, 42 cities. For problems with 100 or more cities, the option `approx` is recommended as finding the optimal value may take a long time. Note that TSP is NP-hard, meaning that no polynomial time algorithm is known. Hence the algorithm may take exponential time to find the optimum in some instances, even the small ones (25-30 cities).

The following example demonstrates finding a Hamiltonian cycle in the truncated icosahedral (“soccer ball”) graph. The result is visualized by using the `highlight_trail` command.

```
> G:=graph("soccerball")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 60 vertices and 90 edges

```
> draw_graph(highlight_trail(G,traveling_salesman(G)),labels=false)
```



^{5.1}. For the details on traveling salesman problem and a historical overview see [8].

A matrix may be passed alongside an undirected graph to specify the edge weights. The alternative is to pass a weighted graph as the single argument.

```
> G:=graph("octahedron")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges

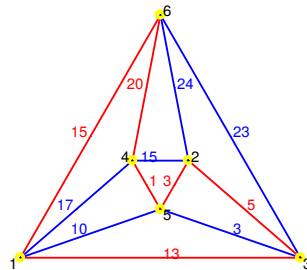
```
> M:=randmatrix(6,6,25)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 7 & 13 & 15 & 10 & 17 & 6 \\ 17 & 7 & 23 & 3 & 17 & 5 \\ 15 & 24 & 19 & 15 & 20 & 24 \\ 3 & 16 & 10 & 18 & 1 & 3 \\ 9 & 20 & 9 & 2 & 19 & 15 \\ 17 & 8 & 19 & 20 & 15 & 15 \end{pmatrix}$$

```
> c,t:=traveling_salesman(G,M)
```

57.0, [4, 5, 2, 3, 1, 6, 4]

```
> draw_graph(highlight_trail(make_weighted(G,M),t))
```



In the next example, an instance of Euclidean TSP with 42 cities is solved to optimality. The vertex positions are pairs of integers randomly chosen on the grid $[0, 1000] \times [0, 1000] \in \mathbb{Z}^2$.

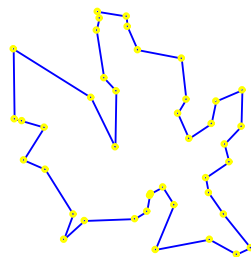
```
> G:=set_vertex_positions(complete_graph(42),[randvector(2,1000)$(k=1..42)])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 42 vertices and 861 edges

```
> c,t:=traveling_salesman(G,vertex_distance):;
```

10.01 sec

```
> draw_graph(subgraph(G,trail2edges(t)),labels=false)
```



For large instances of Euclidean TSP the `approx` option may be used, as in the following example with 555 cities.

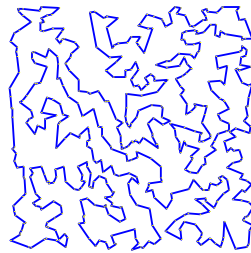
```
> H:=set_vertex_positions(complete_graph(555),[randvector(2,10000)$(k=1..555)])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 555 vertices and 153735 edges

```
> ac,t:=traveling_salesman(H,vertex_distance,approx):;
```

49.34 sec

```
> draw_graph(subgraph(H, trail2edges(t)))
```



Near-optimal tours produced by the `approx` option are usually only slightly more expensive than the optimal ones. For example, a sub-optimal tour for the graph G with 42 vertices is obtained by the following command.

```
> ac,st:=traveling_salesman(G,vertex_distance,approx):;
```

The tour cost is within 28% of the optimal value

Although it is guaranteed that the near-optimal cost `ac` is for at most 28% larger than `c` (the optimum), the actual difference is within 3% of the latter:

```
> 100*(ac-c)/c
```

2.7105821877

5.3. SPANNING TREES

5.3.1. Construction of spanning trees

The command `spanning_tree` is used for construction of [spanning trees](#) in graphs.

Syntax: `spanning_tree(G)`
`spanning_tree(G,r)`

`spanning_tree` accepts one or two arguments, an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and optionally a vertex $r \in V$. It returns the spanning tree T (rooted in r) of G , obtained by depth-first traversal in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

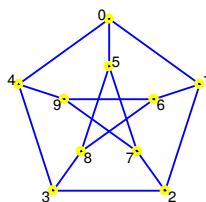
```
> P:=graph("petersen")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 15 edges

```
> T1:=spanning_tree(P)
```

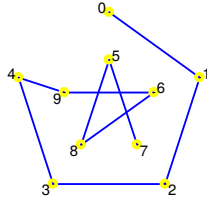
an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 9 edges

```
> draw_graph(P)
```



By extracting T_1 from P as a subgraph, it inherits vertex positions from P .

```
> draw_graph(subgraph(P, edges(T1)))
```

```
> T2:=spanning_tree(P,4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 10 vertices and 9 edges

```
> edges(T1), edges(T2)
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 4 & 9 \\ 5 & 7 \\ 5 & 8 \\ 6 & 8 \\ 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 8 \\ 5 & 7 \\ 5 & 8 \\ 6 & 9 \\ 7 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

5.3.2. Minimal spanning tree

The command `minimal_spanning_tree` is used for construction of [minimal spanning trees](#) in graphs.

Syntax: `minimal_spanning_tree(G)`

`minimal_spanning_tree` accepts the input graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns its minimal spanning tree obtained by KRUSKAL's algorithm in $O(|E| \log |V|)$ time.

```
> A:=[[0,1,0,4,0,0],[1,0,1,0,4,0],[0,1,0,3,0,1],[4,0,3,0,1,0],[0,4,0,1,0,4],[0,0,1,0,4,0]];
```

```
> G:=graph(A)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 6 vertices and 8 edges

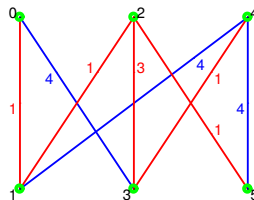
```
> T:=minimal_spanning_tree(G)
```

an undirected weighted graph with 6 vertices and 5 edges

```
> edges(T,weights)
```

$\{[[0, 1], 1], [[1, 2], 1], [[2, 5], 1], [[2, 3], 3], [[3, 4], 1]\}$

```
> draw_graph(highlight_subgraph(G,T))
```



5.3.3. Counting the spanning trees in a graph

The command `number_of_spanning_trees` is used for [counting spanning trees](#) in a graph.

Syntax: `number_of_spanning_trees(G)`

`number_of_spanning_trees` accepts an undirected graph $G(V, E)$ as its only argument and returns the total number n of mutually different spanning trees in G .

The strategy is based on Theorem 2.2.12 in [43, pp. 86]. First the adjacency matrix A and the degree sequence δ of G are obtained. Then the Laplacian matrix $L = D - A$ of G is formed, where D is the diagonal matrix of order $|V|$ corresponding to δ . The last row and the last column of L are subsequently deleted, yielding the square matrix L' of order $|V| - 1$ such that $n = \det L'$.

```
> number_of_spanning_trees(graph("octahedron"))
```

384

```
> number_of_spanning_trees(graph("dodecahedron"))
```

5184000

```
> number_of_spanning_trees(hypercube_graph(4))
```

42467328

```
> number_of_spanning_trees(graph("soccerball"))
```

375291866372898816000

CHAPTER 6

VISUALIZING GRAPHS

6.1. DRAWING GRAPHS

The `draw_graph` command is used for visualizing graphs. It is capable to produce a drawing of the given graph using one of the several built-in methods.

Syntax: `draw_graph(G)`
`draw_graph(G,opts)`

6.1.1. Overview

`draw_graph` accepts one or two arguments, the mandatory first one being a graph $G(V, E)$. This command assigns 2D or 3D coordinates to each vertex $v \in V$ and produces a visual representation of G based on these coordinates. The second (optional) argument is a sequence of options. Each option is one of the following:

- `labels=true` or `false`: controls the visibility of vertex labels and edge weights (by default `true`, i.e. the labels and weights are displayed)
- `spring`: draw the graph G using a multilevel force-directed algorithm
- `tree[=r` or `[r1,r2,...]]`: draw the tree or forest G , optionally specifying root nodes for each tree
- `bipartite`: draw the bipartite graph G keeping the vertex partitions separated
- `circle[=L]` or `convexhull[=L]`: draw the graph G by setting the *hull vertices* from list $L \subset V$ (assuming $L = V$ by default) on the unit circle and all other vertices in origin, subsequently applying a force-directed vertex placement algorithm to generate the layout while keeping the hull vertices fixed
- `planar` or `plane`: draw the planar graph G using a force-directed algorithm
- `plot3d`: draw the connected graph G as if the `spring` option was enabled, but with vertex positions in 3D instead of 2D
- any unassigned identifier P : when given, the vertex coordinates will be stored to it in form of a list

The style options `spring`, `tree`, `circle`, `planar` and `plot3d` cannot be mixed, i.e. at most one can be specified. The option `labels` may be combined with any of the style options. Note that edge weights will not be displayed when using `plot3d` option when drawing a weighted graph.

When no style option is specified, the algorithm first checks if the graph G is a tree or if it is bipartite, in which cases it is drawn accordingly. Otherwise, the graph is drawn as if the option `circle` was specified.

Tree, circle and bipartite drawings can be obtained in linear time with a very small overhead, allowing graphs to be drawn quickly no matter the size. The force-directed algorithms are more expensive and operating in the time which is quadratic in the number of vertices. Their performance is, nevertheless, practically instantaneous for graphs with several hundreds of vertices (or less).

6.1.2. Drawing disconnected graphs

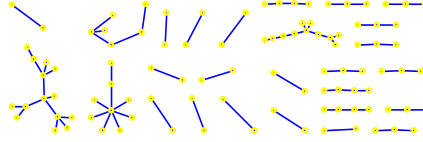
When the input graph has two or more connected components, each component is drawn separately and the drawings are subsequently arranged such that the bounding box of the whole drawing has the smallest perimeter under condition that as little space as possible is wasted inside the box.

For example, the command lines below draw a sparse random planar graph.

```
> G:=random_planar_graph(100,0.9,0)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 100 vertices and 74 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,planar)
```



6.1.3. Spring method

When the option **spring** is specified, the input graph is drawn using the force-directed algorithm described in [26] (for an example of such a drawing see Figure 3.1). The idea, originally due to FRUCHTERMAN and REINGOLD [16], is to simulate physical forces in a spring-electrical model where the vertices and edges represent equally charged particles and springs connecting them, respectively.

In a spring-electrical model, each vertex is being repulsed by every other vertex with a force inversely proportional to the distance between them. At the same time, it is attracted to each of its neighbors with a force proportional to the square of the distance. Assuming that x_v is the vector representing the position of the vertex $v \in V$, the total force F_v applied to v is equal to

$$F_v = \sum_{w \in V \setminus \{v\}} -\frac{CK^2}{\|x_v - x_w\|^2} (x_v - x_w) + \sum_{w \in N(v)} \frac{\|x_v - x_w\|}{K} (x_v - x_w),$$

where $N(v)$ is the set of neighbors of v and C, K are certain positive real constants (actually, K may be any positive number, it affects only the scaling of the entire layout). Applying the forces iteratively and updating vertex positions in each iteration (starting from a random layout) leads the system to the state of minimal energy. By applying a certain “cooling” scheme to the model which cuts down the force magnitude in each iteration, the layout “freezes” after a number of iterations large enough to achieve the minimal energy state.

The force-directed method is computationally expensive and for larger graphs the pleasing layout cannot be obtained most of the time since the algorithm, starting with a random initial layout, gets easily “stuck” in the local energy minimum (ideally, the vertex positions should settle in the global minimal energy constellation). To avoid this a multilevel scheme is applied. The input graph is iteratively coarsened, either by removing the vertices from a maximal independent vertex set or contracting the edges of a maximal matching in each iteration. Each coarsening level is then processed by the force-directed algorithm, starting from the deepest (coarsest) one and “lifting” the obtained layout to the first upper level, using it as the initial layout for that level. The lifting is achieved by using the prolongation matrix technique described in [27]. To support drawing of large graphs (with 1000 vertices or more), the matrices used in the lifting process are stored as sparse matrices. The multilevel algorithm is significantly faster than the original, single-level one and usually produces better results.

Graph layouts obtained by using force-directed method have a unique property of reflecting symmetries in the design of the input graph, if any. Thus the drawings become more appealing and illustrate the certain properties of the input graph better. To make the symmetry more prominent, the drawing is rotated such that the axis, with respect to which the layout exhibits the largest *symmetry score*, becomes vertical. As the symmetry detection is in general very computationally expensive—up to $O(|V|^7)$ when using the symmetry measure of PURCHASE [42], for example—the algorithm deals only with the convex hull and the barycenter of the layout, which may not always be enough to produce the optimal result. Nevertheless, this approach is very fast and seems to work most of the time for graphs with a high level of symmetry (for example the octahedral graph).

For example, the following command lines produce a drawing of the tensor product of two graphs using the force-directed algorithm.

```
> G1:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,2))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 5 edges

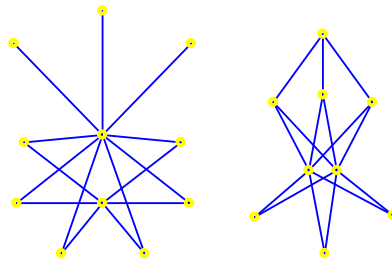
```
> G2:=star_graph(3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges

```
> G:=tensor_product(G1,G2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

```
> draw_graph(G, spring, labels=false)
```

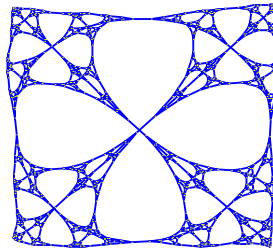


The following command lines demonstrate drawing of a much larger graph.

```
> S:=sierpinski_graph(5,4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 1024 vertices and 2046 edges

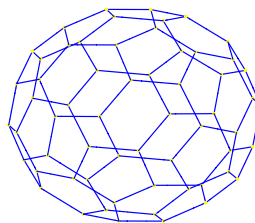
```
> draw_graph(S, spring)
```



Note that vertex labels are automatically suppressed because of the large number of vertices. On our system, the algorithm took less than 2 seconds to produce the layout.

The spring method is also used for creating 3D graph layouts, which are obtained by passing the option `plot3d` to the `draw_graph` command.

```
> draw_graph(graph("soccerball"), plot3d, labels=false)
```



```
> G1:=graph("icosahedron");; G2:=graph("dodecahedron");;
```

Done, Done

```
> G1:=highlight_edges(G1, edges(G1), red)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 12 vertices and 30 edges

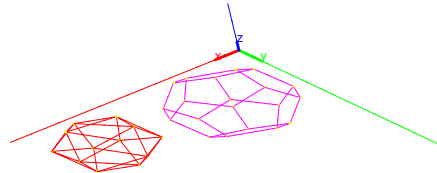
```
> G2:=highlight_edges(G2,edges(G2),magenta)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

```
> G:=disjoint_union(G1,G2)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 32 vertices and 60 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,plot3d,labels=false)
```



6.1.4. Drawing trees

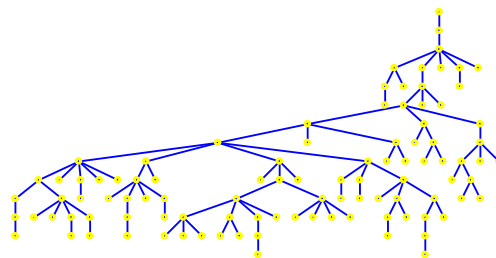
When the `tree[=r]` option is specified and the input graph G is a tree (and $r \in V$), it is drawn using a fast but simple node positioning algorithm inspired by the well-known algorithm of WALKER [41], using the first vertex (or the vertex r) as the root node. When drawing a rooted tree, one usually requires the following aesthetic properties [6].

- A1.** The layout displays the hierarchical structure of the tree, i.e. the y -coordinate of a node is given by its level.
- A2.** The edges do not cross each other.
- A3.** The drawing of a sub-tree does not depend on its position in the tree, i.e. isomorphic sub-trees are drawn identically up to translation.
- A4.** The order of the children of a node is displayed in the drawing.
- A5.** The algorithm works symmetrically, i.e. the drawing of the reflection of a tree is the reflected drawing of the original tree.

The algorithm implemented in Giac generally satisfies all the above properties but A3. Instead, it tries to spread the inner sub-trees evenly across the available horizontal space. It works by organizing the structure of the input tree into levels by using depth-first search and laying out each level subsequently, starting from the deepest one and climbing up to the root node. In the end, another depth-first traversal is made, shifting the sub-trees horizontally to avoid intersections between their edges. The algorithm runs in $O(|V|)$ time and uses the minimum of horizontal space to draw the tree with respect to the specified root node r .

For example, the following command line produces the drawing of a random tree on 100 nodes.

```
> draw_graph(random_tree(100))
```



6.1.5. Drawing planar graphs

The algorithm implemented in *Giac* which draws planar graphs uses augmentation techniques to extend the input graph G to a graph G' , which is homeomorphic to some triconnected graph, by adding temporary edges. The augmented graph G' is then drawn using TUTTE's barycentric method (see [40] and [18, pp. 293]) which puts each vertex in the barycenter of its neighbors. It is guaranteed that a (non-strict) convex drawing will be produced, without edge crossings. In the end, the duplicate of the outer face and the temporary edges inserted during the augmentation stage are removed.

TUTTE's algorithm requires that the vertices of the chosen outer face are initially fixed somewhere the boundary of a convex polygon. In addition, to produce a more flexible layout, the outer face is duplicated such that the subgraph induced by the vertices on both the outer face and its duplicate is a prism graph. Then only the duplicates of the outer face vertices are fixed, allowing the outer face itself to take a more natural shape. The duplicate of the outer face is removed after a layout is produced.

The augmentation process consists of two parts. Firstly, the input graph G is decomposed into biconnected components (blocks) using the depth-first search [17, pp. 25]. Each block is then decomposed into faces (represented by cycles of vertices) using DEMOUCRON's algorithm (see [17, pp. 88] and [31]). Embeddings obtained for each blocks are then combined by adding one temporary edge for each articulation point, joining the two corresponding blocks. Figure 6.1 shows the outer faces of two blocks B_1 and B_2 , connected by an articulation point (cut vertex). The temporary

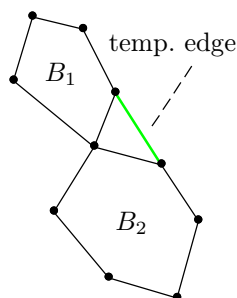


Fig. 6.1. Joining two block by adding a temporary edge.

edge (shown in green) is added to join B_1 and B_2 into a single block. After “folding up” the tree of blocks, the algorithm picks the largest face in the resulting biconnected graph to be the outer face of the planar embedding.

The second part of the augmentation process consists of recursively decomposing each non-convex inner face into several convex polygons by adding temporary edges. An inner face $f = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ is non-convex if there exist k and l such that $1 \leq k < l - 1 < n$ and either $v_k v_l \in E$, in which case the edge $v_k v_l$ is a *chord* (see Figure 6.2 for an example) or there exists a face $g = (w_1, w_2, \dots, v_k, \dots, v_l, \dots, w_{m-1}, w_m)$ such that the vertices v_{k+1}, \dots, v_{l-1} are not contained in g (see Figure 6.3 for an example). In Figures 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3, the temporary edges added by the algorithm are drawn in green.

This method of drawing planar graphs operates in $O(|V|^2)$ time. Nevertheless, it is quite fast for graphs up to 1000 vertices, usually producing results in less than a second. The drawback of this method is that it sometimes creates clusters of vertices which are very close to each other, resulting in a very high ratio of the area of the largest inner face to the area of the smallest inner face. However, if the result is not satisfactory, one should simply redraw the graph and repeat the process until a better layout is found. The planar embedding will in general be different each time.

Another drawback of this method is that sparse planar graphs are sometimes drawn poorly.

The following example shows that the above described improvement of the barycentric method handles non-triconnected graphs well.

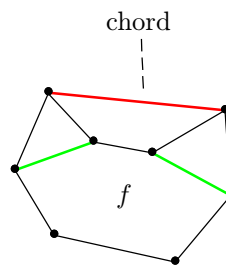


Fig. 6.2. A chorded face.

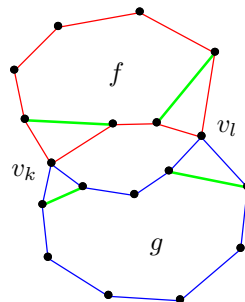
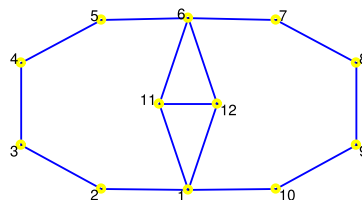


Fig. 6.3. Two faces sharing a pair of vertices and no edges between them.

```
> G:=graph(trail(1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,1),trail(11,12,6,11,1,12))
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 12 vertices and 15 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,planar)
```



Note that the inner diamond-like shape in the above drawing would end up flattened—making the two triangular faces invisible—if the input graph was not augmented. It is so because the vertices with labels 11 and 12 are “attracted” to each other (namely, the two large faces are “inflating” themselves to become convex), causing them to merge eventually.

In the following example the input graph G is connected but not biconnected (it has two articulation points). It is obtained by removing a vertex from the Sierpiński triangle graph ST_3^3 . Note that the syntax mode is set to Xcas in this example, so the first vertex label is zero.

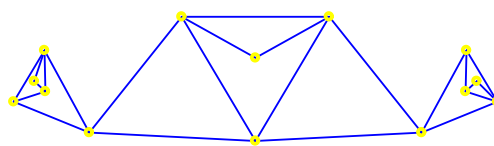
```
> G:=sierpinski_graph(3,3,triangle)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 15 vertices and 27 edges

```
> G:=delete_vertex(G,3)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 14 vertices and 23 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,planar,labels=false)
```



In the above example, several redraws were required to obtain a good planar embedding.

6.1.6. Circular graph drawings

The drawing method selected by specifying the option `circle=L` or `convexhull=L` when calling `draw_graph` on a triconnected graph $G(V, E)$, where $L \subset V$ is a set of vertices in G , uses the following strategy. First, positions of the vertices from L are fixed so that they form a regular polygon on the unit circle. Other vertices, i.e. all vertices from $V \setminus L$, are placed in origin. Then an iterative force-directed algorithm [35], similar to TUTTE's barycentric method, is applied to obtain the final layout.

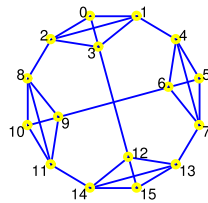
This approach gives best results for symmetrical graphs such as generalized Petersen graphs. In addition, if the input graph is planar, the drawing will also be planar (there is a possibility, however, that some very short edges may cross each other as the number of force update iterations is limited).

In the following example the Sierpiński graph S_4^2 is drawn using the above method. Note that the command lines below are executed in Xcas mode.

```
> G:=sierpinski_graph(2,4)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 16 vertices and 30 edges

```
> draw_graph(G,circle=[0,1,4,5,7,13,15,14,11,10,8,2])
```



6.2. VERTEX POSITIONS

6.2.1. Setting vertex positions

The command `set_vertex_positions` is used to assign custom coordinates to vertices of a graph to be used when drawing the graph.

Syntax: `set_vertex_positions(G,L)`

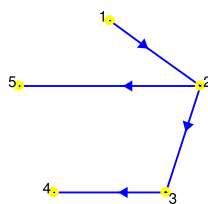
`set_vertex_positions` accepts two arguments, a graph $G(V, E)$ and the list L of positions to be assigned to vertices in order of `vertices(G)`. The positions may be complex numbers, lists of coordinates or points (geometrical objects created with the command `point`). `set_vertex_positions` returns the copy G' of G with the given layout stored in it.

Any subsequent call to `draw_graph` with G' as an argument and without specifying the drawing style will result in displaying vertices at the stored coordinates. However, if a drawing style is specified, the stored layout is ignored (although it stays stored in G').

```
> G:=digraph([1,2,3,4,5],%{[1,2],[2,3],[3,4],[2,5]})
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 arcs

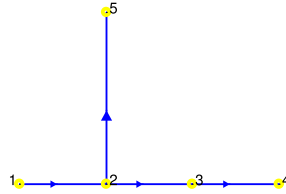
```
> draw_graph(G,circle)
```



```
> H:=set_vertex_positions(G,[[0,0],[0.5,0],[1.0,0],[1.5,0],[0.5,1]])
```

a directed unweighted graph with 5 vertices and 4 arcs

```
> draw_graph(H)
```



6.2.2. Generating vertex positions

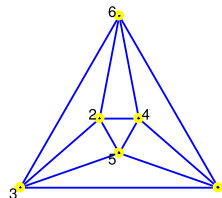
Vertex positions can be generated for a particular graph G by using the `draw_graph` command with the additional argument P which should be an unassigned identifier. After the layout is obtained, it will be stored to P as a list of positions (complex numbers for 2D drawings or points for 3D drawings) for each vertex in order of `vertices(G)`.

This feature combines well with the `set_vertex_positions` command, as when one obtains the desired drawing of the graph G by calling `draw_graph`, the layout coordinates can be easily stored to the graph for future reference. In particular, each subsequent call of `draw_graph` with G as an argument will display the stored layout. The example below illustrates this property by setting a custom layout to the octahedral graph.

```
> G:=graph("octahedron")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



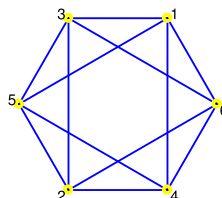
```
> draw_graph(G,P,spring):;
```

Now P contains vertex coordinates, which can be permanently stored to G :

```
> G:=set_vertex_positions(G,P)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 12 edges

```
> draw_graph(G)
```



It should be noted that, after a particular layout is fixed, it stays valid when some edges or vertices are removed or when an edge is contracted. The stored layout becomes invalid only if a new vertex is added to the graph (unless its position is specified by `set_vertex_attribute` upon the creation) or if the `position` attribute of an existing vertex is discarded.

6.3. HIGHLIGHTING IN GRAPHS

6.3.1. Highlighting vertices

The command `highlight_vertex` is used for changing color of one or more vertices in a graph.

Syntax: `highlight_vertex(G,v)`
`highlight_vertex(G,v,c)`
`highlight_vertex(G,[v1,v2,...,vk])`
`highlight_vertex(G,[v1,v2,...,vk],c)`
`highlight_vertex(G,[v1,v2,...,vk],[c1,c2,...,ck])`

`highlight_vertex` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$, a vertex $v \in V$ or a list of vertices $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k \in V$ and optionally the new color c or a list of colors c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k for the selected vertices (the default color is green). It returns a modified copy of G in which the specified vertices are colored with the specified color.

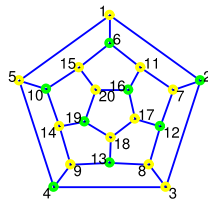
```
> G:=graph("dodecahedron")
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 30 edges

```
> L:=maximum_independent_set(G)
```

```
[2, 4, 6, 12, 13, 10, 16, 19]
```

```
> draw_graph(highlight_vertex(G,L))
```



6.3.2. Highlighting edges and trails

To highlight an edge or a set of edges in a graph, use the `highlight_edges` command. If the edges form a trail, it is usually more convenient to use the `highlight_trail` command (see below).

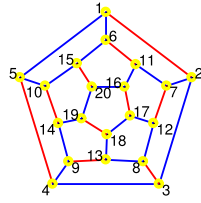
Syntax: `highlight_edges(G,e)`
`highlight_edges(G,e,c)`
`highlight_edges(G,[e1,e2,...,ek])`
`highlight_edges(G,[e1,e2,...,ek],c)`
`highlight_edges(G,[e1,e2,...,ek],[c1,c2,...,ck])`
`highlight_trail(G,T)`
`highlight_trail(G,T,c)`
`highlight_trail(G,[T1,T2,...,Tk])`
`highlight_trail(G,[T1,T2,...,Tk],c)`
`highlight_trail(G,[T1,T2,...,Tk],[c1,c2,...,ck])`

`highlight_edges` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$, an edge $e \in E$ or a list of edges $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k \in E$ and optionally the new color c or a list of colors c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k for the selected edges (the default color is red). It returns a modified copy of G in which the specified edges are colored with the specified color.

```
> M:=maximum_matching(G)
```

```
{[1, 2], [5, 4], [6, 11], [3, 8], [7, 12], [9, 13], [10, 15], [14, 19], [16, 17]}
```

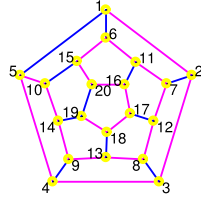
```
> draw_graph(highlight_edges(G,M))
```



```
> S:=spanning_tree(G)
```

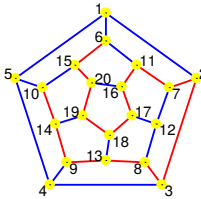
an undirected unweighted graph with 20 vertices and 19 edges

```
> draw_graph(highlight_edges(G,edges(S),magenta))
```

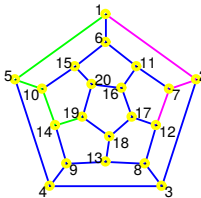


`highlight_trail` accepts two or three arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$, a trail T or a list of trails T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k and optionally the new color c or a list of colors c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k . The command returns the copy of G in which edges between consecutive vertices in each of the given trails are highlighted with color c (by default red) or the trail T_i is highlighted with color c_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$.

```
> draw_graph(highlight_trail(G,[6,15,20,19,18,17,16,11,7,2,3,8,13,9,14,10]))
```



```
> draw_graph(highlight_trail(G,shortest_path(G,1,[19,12]),[green,magenta]))
```



6.3.3. Highlighting subgraphs

The command `highlight_subgraph` is used for highlighting subgraph(s) of the given graph.

Syntax: `highlight_subgraph(G,S,[weights])`
`highlight_subgraph(G,S,c1,c2,[weights])`
`highlight_subgraph(G,[S1,S2,...,Sk])`
`highlight_subgraph(G,[S1,S2,...,Sk],c1,c2)`

`highlight_subgraph` accepts two or four arguments: a graph $G(V, E)$, a subgraph $S(V', E')$ of G or a list of subgraphs S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k in G and optionally the new colors c_1, c_2 for the edges and vertices of the selected subgraph(s), respectively. It returns a modified copy of G with the selected subgraph(s) colored as specified. If colors are not given, red and green are used, respectively.

The option `weights` may be passed as an additional argument if G and S are weighted graphs. In that case, the weights of edges in $E' \subset E$ in G are overwritten with those defined in S for the same edges.

```
> G:=graph(%{[1,2],[2,3],[3,1],[3,4],[4,5],[5,6],[6,4]})
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> A:=articulation_points(G)
```

```
[3,4]
```

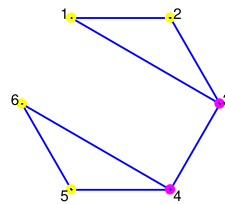
```
> B:=biconnected_components(G)
```

```
[[4,6,5],[3,4],[1,3,2]]
```

```
> H:=highlight_vertex(G,A,magenta)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> draw_graph(H)
```



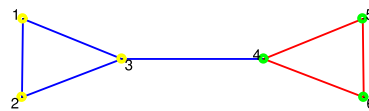
```
> S:=induced_subgraph(G,B[0])
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 3 vertices and 3 edges

```
> H:=highlight_subgraph(G,S)
```

an undirected unweighted graph with 6 vertices and 7 edges

```
> draw_graph(H,spring)
```



BIBLIOGRAPHY

- [1] Mohsen Bayati, Jeong Han Kim, and Amin Saberi. A Sequential Algorithm for Generating Random Graphs. *Algorithmica*, 58:860–910, 2010.
- [2] Norman Biggs. *Algebraic graph theory*. Cambridge University Press, Second edition, 1993.
- [3] Danilo Blanuša. Problem četiriju boja. *Glasnik Mat.-Fiz. Astr. Ser. II*, 1:31–32, 1946.
- [4] Béla Bollobás. *Modern Graph Theory*. Graduate Texts in Mathematics. Springer, Corrected edition, 2002.
- [5] Daniel Brélaz. New Methods to Color the Vertices of a Graph. *Communications of the ACM*, 22:251–256, 1979.
- [6] Cristoph Buchheim, Michael Jünger, and Sebastian Leipert. Improving Walker’s Algorithm to Run in Linear Time. In M. T. Goodrich and S. G. Kobourov, editors, *Graph Drawing 2002, Lecture Notes in Computer Science vol 2528*, pages 344–353. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, 2002.
- [7] Nicos Christofides. Worst-case analysis of a new heuristic for the traveling salesman problem. Report 388, Graduate School of Industrial Administration, 1976.
- [8] William J. Cook. *In Pursuit of the Traveling Salesman: Mathematics at the Limits of Computation*. Princeton University Press, 2012.
- [9] Melissa DeLeon. A Study of Sufficient Conditions for Hamiltonian Cycles. *Rose-Hulman Undergraduate Mathematics Journal*, 1, Article 6, 2000. <https://scholar.rose-hulman.edu/rhumj/vol1/iss1/6>.
- [10] Isabel M. Díaz and Paula Zabala. A Branch-and-Cut Algorithm for Graph Coloring. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 154:826–847, 2006.
- [11] Reinhard Diestel. *Graph Theory*. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1997.
- [12] Jack Edmonds. Paths, Trees, and Flowers. In Gessel I. and GC. Rota, editors, *Classic Papers in Combinatorics*, pages 361–379. Birkhäuser Boston, 2009. Modern Birkhäuser Classics.
- [13] Jack Edmonds and Richard M. Karp. Theoretical improvements in algorithmic efficiency for network flow problems. *Journal of the ACM*, 19:248–264, 1972.
- [14] S. Even and R. E. Tarjan. Computing an st-numbering. *Theoretical Computer Science*, 2:339–344, 1976.
- [15] Robert W. Floyd. Algorithm 97: Shortest path. *Communications of the ACM*, 5:345, 1962.
- [16] T. M. J. Fruchterman and E. M. Reingold. Graph Drawing by Force-Directed Placement. *Software: Practice and Experience*, 21:1129–1164, 1991.
- [17] Alan Gibbons. *Algorithmic graph theory*. Cambridge University Press, 1985.
- [18] Chris Godsil and Gordon F. Royle. *Algebraic graph theory*. Graduate Texts in Mathematics. Springer, First edition, 2001.
- [19] Gary Haggard, David J. Pearce, and Gordon Royle. Computing Tutte Polynomials. *ACM Transactions on Mathematical Software*, 37, 2010. Article No. 24.
- [20] Gary Haggard, David J. Pearce, and Gordon Royle. Edge-Selection Heuristics for Computing Tutte Polynomials. *Chicago Journal of Theoretical Computer Science*, 2010. Article 6.
- [21] S. L. Hakimi. On realizability of a set of integers as degrees of the vertices of a linear graph. I. *Journal of the Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics*, 10:496–506, 1962.
- [22] Keld Helsgaun. General k -opt submoves for the Lin–Kernighan TSP heuristic. *Math. Prog. Comp.*, 1:119–163, 2009.
- [23] Carl Hierholzer. Ueber die möglichkeit, einen Linienzug ohne Wiederholung und ohne Unterbrechung zu umfahren. *Mathematische Annalen*, 6:30–32, 1873.
- [24] Andreas M. Hinz, Sandi Klavžar, and Sara S. Zemljč. A survey and classification of Sierpiński-type graphs. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 217:565–600, 2017.
- [25] John E. Hopcroft and Richard M. Karp. An $n^{5/2}$ algorithm for maximum matchings in bipartite graphs. *SIAM Journal on Computing*, 2:225–231, 1973.
- [26] Yifan Hu. Efficient and High Quality Force-Directed Graph Drawing. *Mathematica Journal*, 10:37–71, 2005.
- [27] Yifan Hu and Jennifer Scott. A Multilevel Algorithm for Wavefront Reduction. *SIAM Journal on Scientific Computing*, 23:1352–1375, 2001.
- [28] Arthur B. Kahn. Topological sorting of large networks. *Communications of the ACM*, 5:558–562, 1962.
- [29] B. D. McKay and A. Piperno. Practical Graph Isomorphism, II. *J. Symbolic Computation*, 60:94–112, 2013.
- [30] Michael Monagan. A new edge selection heuristic for computing Tutte polynomials. In *Proceedings of FPSAC 2012*, pages 839–850.
- [31] Wendy Myrwold and Willian Kocay. Errors in graph embedding algorithms. *Journal of Computer and System Sciences*, 77:430–438, 2011.
- [32] Patric R. J. Östergård. A fast algorithm for the maximum clique problem. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, 120:197–207, 2002.
- [33] Manfred Padberg and Giovanni Rinaldi. A Branch-and-Cut Algorithm for the Resolution of Large-Scale Symmetric Traveling Salesman Problems. *SIAM Review*, 33:60–100, 1991.
- [34] Ulrich Pferschy and Rostislav Staněk. Generating subtour elimination constraints for the TSP from pure integer solutions. *Central European Journal of Operations Research*, 25:231–260, 2017.

- [35] Bor Plestenjak. An Algorithm for Drawing Planar Graphs. *Software: Practice and Experience*, 29:973–984, 1999.
- [36] Angelika Steger and Nicholas C. Wormald. Generating random regular graphs quickly. *Combinatorics Probability and Computing*, 8:377–396, 1999.
- [37] R. E. Tarjan. Depth-First Search and Linear Graph Algorithms. *SIAM Journal on Comp.*, 1:146–160, 1972.
- [38] R. E. Tarjan. Applications of path compression on balanced trees. *Journal of the ACM*, 26:690–715, 1979.
- [39] Etsuji Tomita, Akira Tanaka, and Haruhisa Takahashi. The worst-case time complexity for generating all maximal cliques and computational experiments. *Theoretical Computer Science*, 363:28–42, 2006.
- [40] W. T. Tutte. How to draw a graph. *Proceedings of the London Mathematical Society*, s3-13:743–767, 1963.
- [41] John Q. Walker II. A node-positioning algorithm for general trees. *Software: Practice and Experience*, 20:685–705, 1990.
- [42] E. Welch and S. Kobourov. Measuring Symmetry in Drawings of Graphs. *Computer Graphics Forum*, 36:341–351, 2017.
- [43] Douglas B. West. *Introduction to Graph Theory*. Pearson Education, 2002.

COMMAND INDEX

add_arc	42	grid_graph	20
add_edge	42	has_arc	57
add_vertex	41	has_edge	57
adjacency_matrix	60	highlight_edges	115
allpairs_distance	83	highlight_subgraph	116
antiprism_graph	19	highlight_trail	115
arrivals	57	highlight_vertex	115
articulation_points	76	hypercube_graph	17
assign_edge_weights	39	import_graph	49
biconnected_components	75	incidence_matrix	62
bipartite_matching	88	incident_edges	59
canonical_labeling	67	induced_subgraph	24
cartesian_product	29	interval_graph	16
chromatic_index	96	is_acyclic	85
chromatic_number	94	is_arborescence	80
chromatic_polynomial	71	is_biconnected	74
clique_cover	91	is_bipartite	59
clique_cover_number	92	is_clique	89
clique_number	90	is_connected	74
clique_stats	89	is_cut_set	77
complete_binary_tree	15	is_directed	53
complete_graph	14	is_eulerian	99
complete_kary_tree	15	is_forest	78
connected_components	75	is_graphic_sequence	16
contract_edge	44	is_hamiltonian	99
cycle_graph	13	is_integer_graph	65
degree_sequence	55	is_isomorphic	65
delete_arc	42	is_network	80
delete_edge	42	is_planar	32
delete_vertex	41	is_regular	56
departures	57	is_strongly_connected	77
digraph	10	is_strongly_regular	56
dijkstra	101	is_tournament	58
discard_edge_attribute	47	is_tree	78
discard_graph_attribute	45	is_triangle_free	89
discard_vertex_attribute	46	is_triconnected	74
disjoint_union	27	is_vertex_colorable	95
draw_graph	107	is_weighted	53
edges	53	isomorphic_copy	23
export_graph	50	kneser_graph	16
flow_polynomial	72	laplacian_matrix	61
get_edge_attribute	47	lcf_graph	22
get_edge_weight	43	line_graph	31
get_graph_attribute	45	list_edge_attributes	47
get_vertex_attribute	46	list_graph_attributes	45
girth	85	list_vertex_attributes	46
graph	9	lowest_common_ancestor	79
graph_automorphisms	68	make_directed	41
graph_charpoly	64	make_weighted	41
graph_complement	25	maxflow	81
graph_equal	54	maximum_clique	90
graph_join	27	maximum_degree	55
graph_power	28	maximum_matching	87
graph_rank	76	minimal_edge_coloring	96
graph_spectrum	64	minimal_spanning_tree	105
graph_union	27	minimal_vertex_coloring	93
graph_vertices	53	minimum_degree	55
greedy_color	92		

neighbors	57	set_vertex_attribute	46
number_of_edges	53	set_vertex_positions	113
number_of_spanning_trees	105	shortest_path	100
number_of_vertices	53	sierpinski_graph	21
odd_girth	85	spanning_tree	104
odd_graph	16	st_ordering	86
path_graph	13	star_graph	18
permute_vertices	23	strongly_connected_components	77
petersen_graph	21	subdivide_edges	44
plane_dual	32	subgraph	24
prism_graph	19	tensor_product	29
random_bipartite_graph	34	topologic_sort	86
random_digraph	33	topological_sort	86
random_graph	33	torus_grid_graph	20
random_network	38	trail	14
random_planar_graph	35	trail2edges	14
random_regular_graph	37	transitive_closure	30
random_sequence_graph	36	traveling_salesman	102
random_tournament	38	tree_height	79
random_tree	34	tutte_polynomial	69
relabel_vertices	24	underlying_graph	25
reliability_polynomial	72	vertex_degree	55
reverse_graph	26	vertex_distance	83
seidel_spectrum	65	vertex_in_degree	55
seidel_switch	26	vertex_out_degree	55
sequence_graph	15	vertices	53
set_edge_attribute	47	web_graph	18
set_edge_weight	43	weight_matrix	63
set_graph_attribute	45	wheel_graph	18