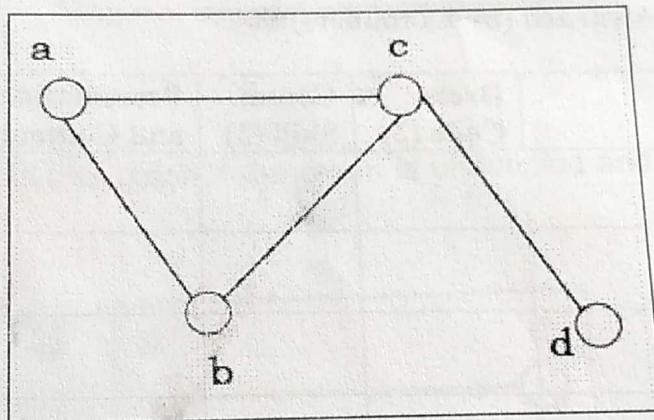
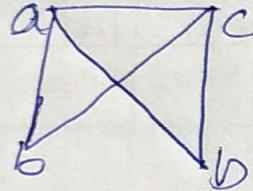


## What is a Graph?

**Definition** – A graph (denoted as  $G = (V, E)$ ) consists of a non-empty set of vertices or nodes  $V$  and a set of edges  $E$ .

**Example** – Let us consider, a Graph is  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$  and

$$E = \{\{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{c, d\}\}$$



**Degree of a Vertex** – The degree of a vertex  $V$  of a graph  $G$  (denoted by  $\deg(V)$ ) is the number of edges incident with the vertex  $V$ .

Vertex	Degree	Even / Odd
a	2	even
b	2	even
c	3	odd
d	1	odd

**Even and Odd Vertex** – If the degree of a vertex is even, the vertex is called an even vertex and if the degree of a vertex is odd, the vertex is called an odd vertex.

**Degree of a Graph** – The degree of a graph is the largest vertex degree of that graph. For the above graph the degree of the graph is 3.

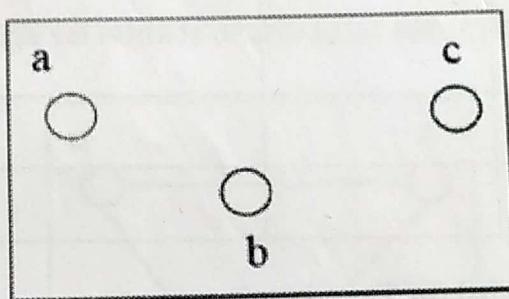
**The Handshaking Lemma** – In a graph, the sum of all the degrees of all the vertices is equal to twice the number of edges.

## Types of Graphs

There are different types of graphs, which we will learn in the following section.

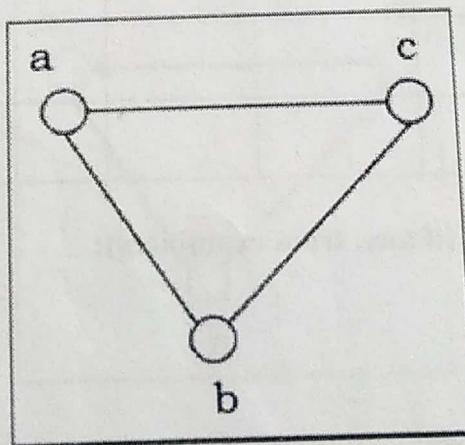
### Null Graph

A null graph has no edges. The null graph of  $n$  vertices is denoted by  $N_n$ .



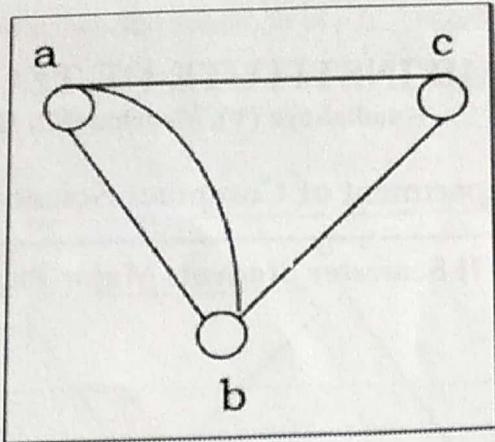
### Simple Graph

A graph is called simple graph/strict graph if the graph is undirected and does not contain any loops or multiple edges.



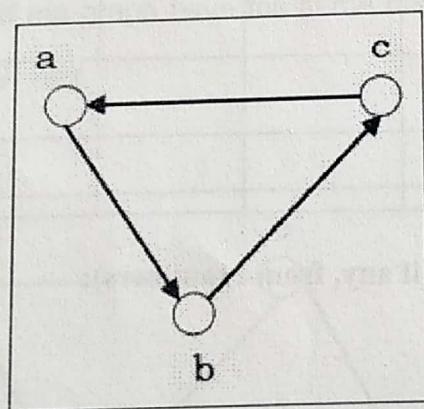
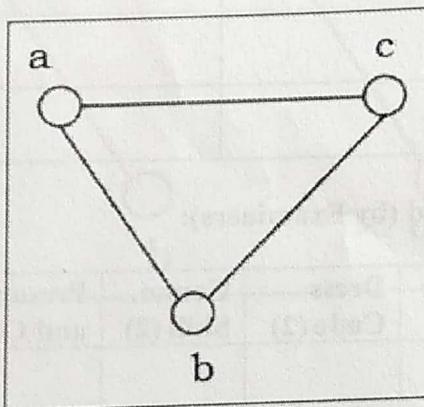
### Multi-Graph

If in a graph multiple edges between the same set of vertices are allowed, it is called Multigraph. In other words, it is a graph having at least one loop or multiple edges.



### Directed and Undirected Graph

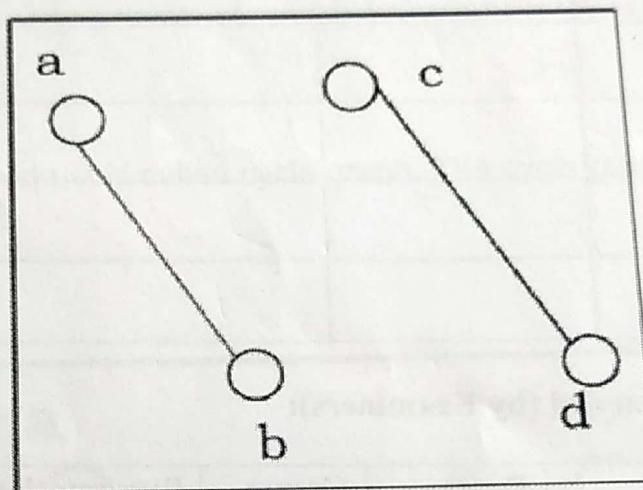
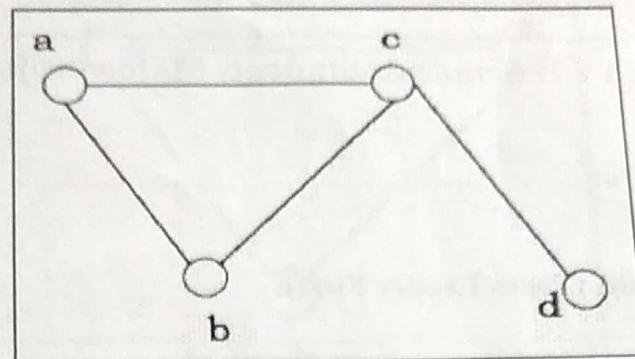
A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is called a directed graph if the edge set is made of ordered vertex pair and a graph is called undirected if the edge set is made of unordered vertex pair.



### Connected and Disconnected Graph

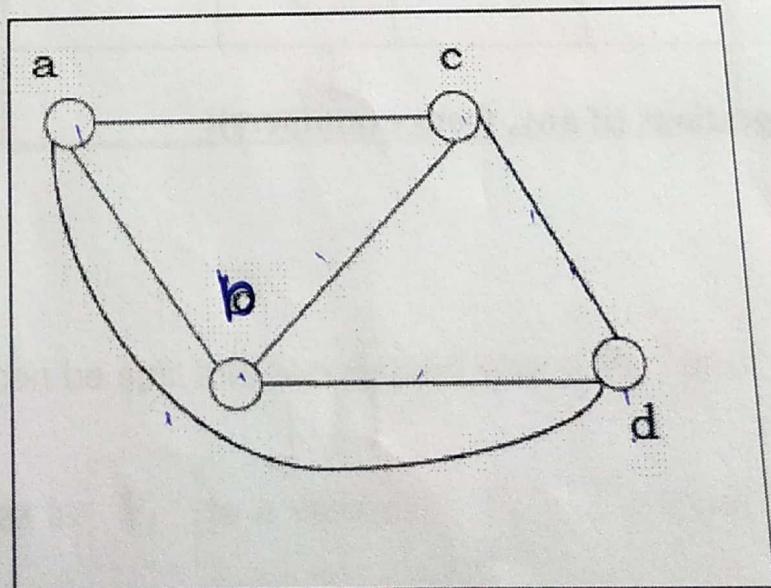
A graph is connected if any two vertices of the graph are connected by a path; while a graph is disconnected if at least two vertices of the graph are not connected by a path. If a graph  $G$  is

connected, then every maximal connected subgraph of graph  $G$  is called a connected component of the

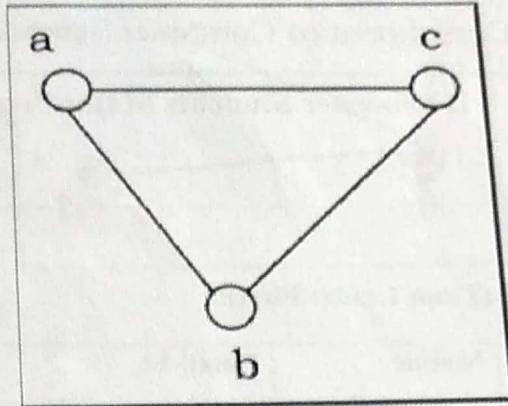


## Regular Graph

A graph is regular if all the vertices of the graph have the same degree. In a regular graph  $G$  of  $r$ , the degree of each vertex of  $G$  is  $r$ .



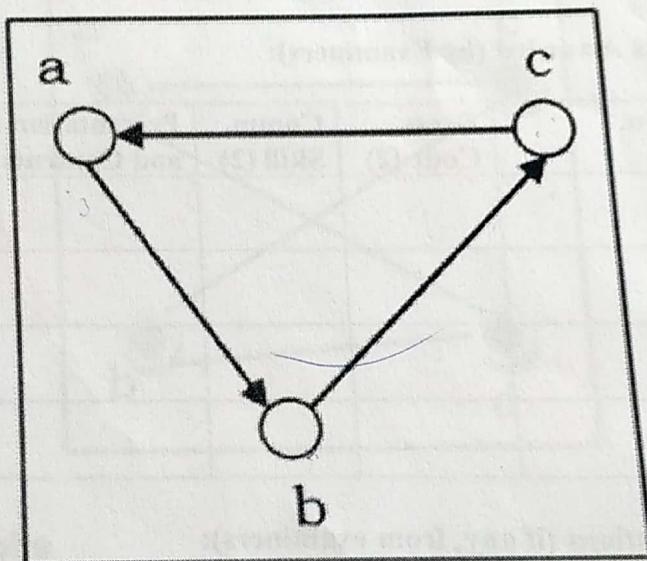
A graph is called complete graph if every two vertices pair are joined by exactly one edge. The complete graph with  $n$  vertices is denoted by  $K_n$ .



### Cycle Graph

If a graph consists of a single cycle, it is called cycle graph. The cycle graph with  $n$  vertices is denoted by  $C_n$ .

$C_n$

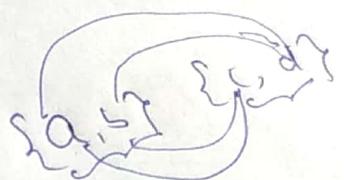
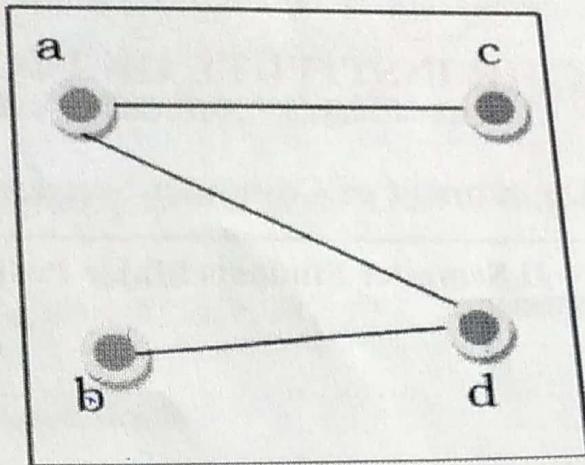


### Bipartite Graph

If the vertex-set of a graph  $G$  can be split into two disjoint sets,  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ , in such a way that each

edge in the graph joins a vertex in  $V_1$  to a vertex in  $V_2$ , and there are no edges in  $G$  that connect

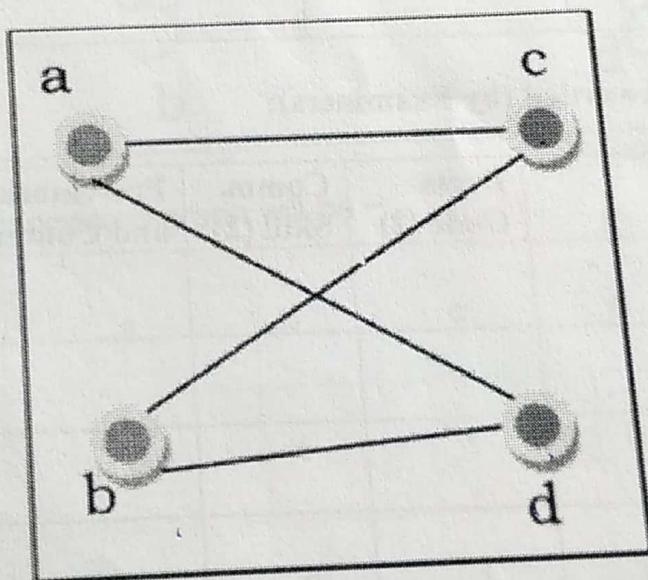
two vertices in  $V_1$  or two vertices in  $V_2$ , then the graph  $G$  is called a bipartite graph.



### Complete Bipartite Graph

A complete bipartite graph is a bipartite graph in which each vertex in the first set is joined to every single vertex in the second set. The complete bipartite graph is denoted by  $K_{x,y}$  where the graph

contains  $x$  vertices in the first set and  $y$  vertices in the second set.



## SUBGRAPHS

A graph  $H = (V_1, E_1)$  is called a subgraph of  $G = (V, E)$   
if  $V_1 \subseteq V$  and  $E_1 \subseteq E$

A graph  $H = (V_1, E_1)$  is called a proper subgraph  
of  $G = (V, E)$  if  $V_1 \subset V$  and  $E_1 \subset E$ .

$H = (V_1, E_1)$  is called a spanning tree subgraph of  $G$   
if  $V_1 = V$

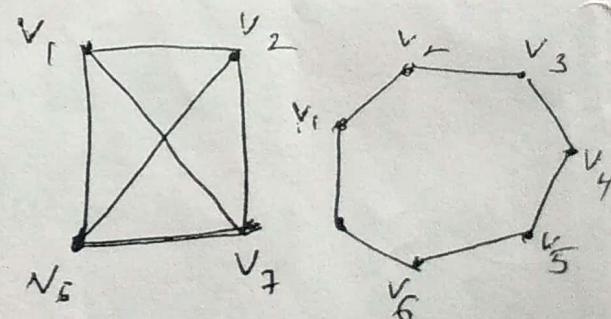
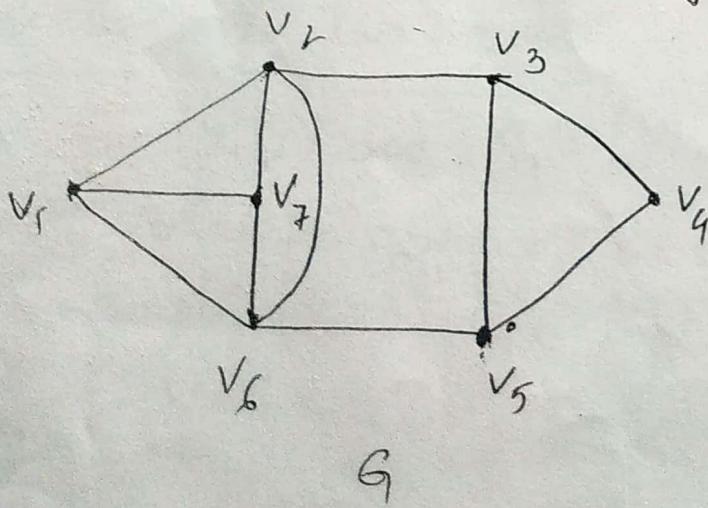
Note:

① If  $H$  is a subgraph of  $G$ , then

- \* All the vertices of  $H$  are in  $G$
- \* All the edges of  $H$  are in  $G$
- \* Each edge of  $H$  has the same end points in  $H$  as in  $G$ .

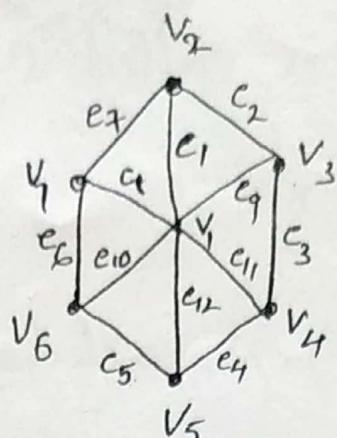
② A spanning subgraph of  $G$  need not contain all the edges in  $G$ .

Ex ① Consider the graph  $G$  given. Show the subgraphs of  $G$ .

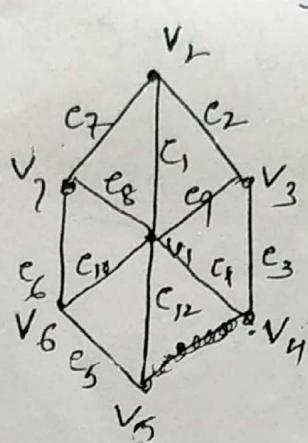


Subgraphs of  $G$ .

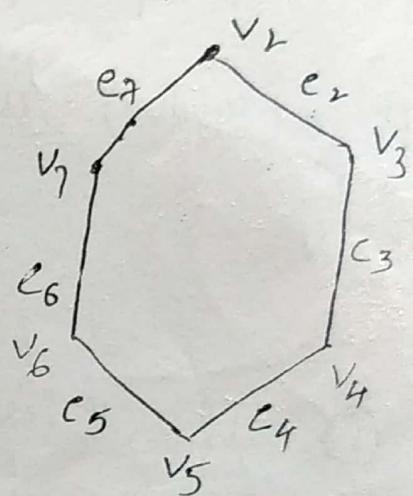
(2) For the graph  $G$ . draw the subgraphs i,  $G - e_4$ ,  
 iii,  $G - v_7$



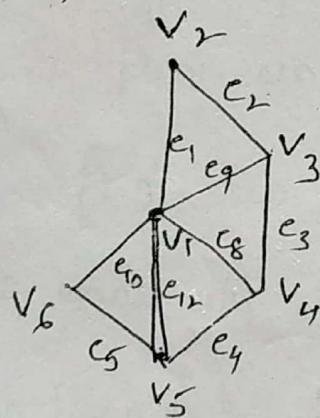
Sol: i,  $G - e_4$



ii,  $G - v_1$



iii,  $G - v_7$

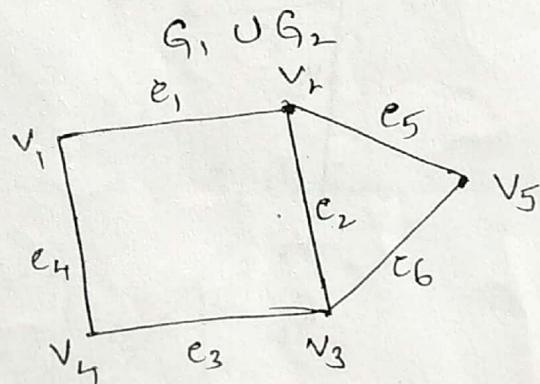
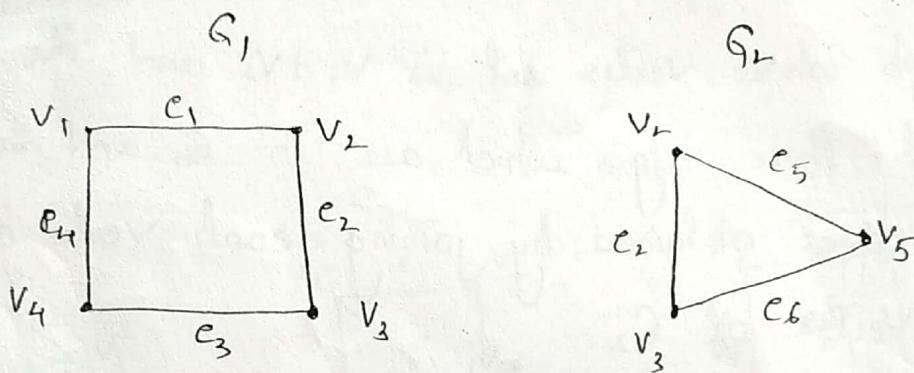


## OPERATIONS OF GRAPHS

### (1) UNION of two graphs

Let  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  be two graphs. The union of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  will be a graph  $(V, E)$  such that  
 $V = V_1 \cup V_2$  and  $E = E_1 \cup E_2$   
i.e.,  $G_1 \cup G_2 = (V, E)$  where  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$   $E = E_1 \cup E_2$

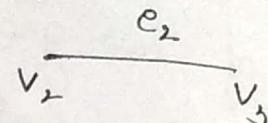
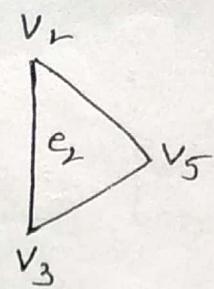
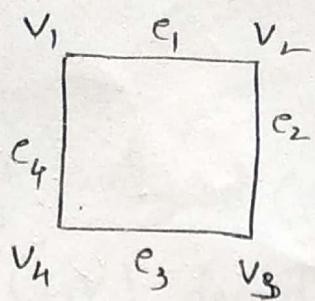
Ex:



### (2) Intersection of two graphs

Let  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  be two graphs with at least one vertex in common. The intersection of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  will be a graph  $(V, E)$  such that

$$V = (V_1 \cap V_2) \text{ and } E = (E_1 \cap E_2)$$

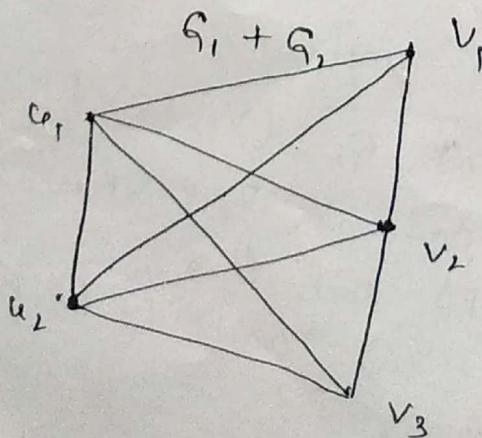
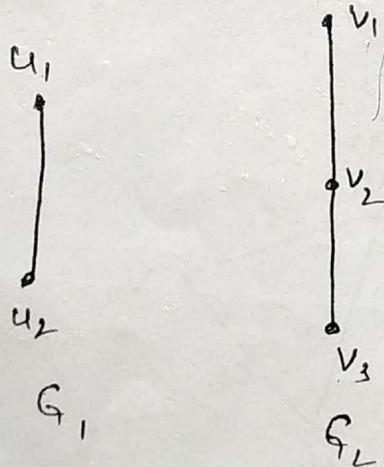


$G_1 \cap G_2$

### (3) Sum of two graphs

Let  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  be two graphs such that  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$ . The sum  $G_1 + G_2$  is defined as the graph whose vertex set is  $V_1 + V_2$  and the edge set consists of those edges which are in  $G_1$  and in  $G_2$  or the edges obtained by joining each vertex of  $G_1$  to each vertex of  $G_2$ .

Ex.:



## i) Ring sum of two graphs

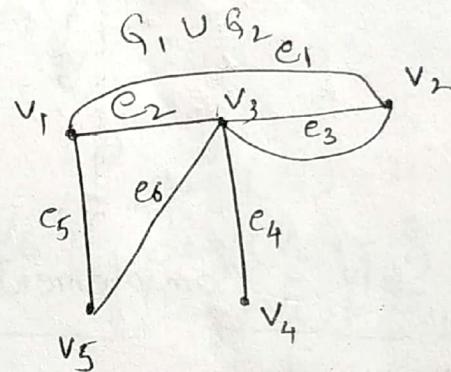
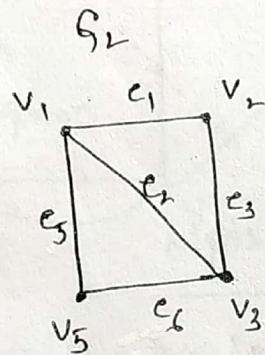
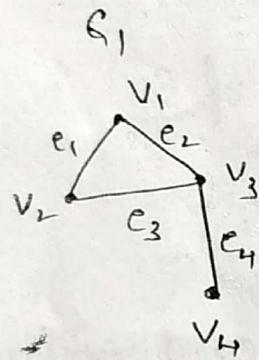
Let  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  be two graphs. The ring sum of  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , denoted by  $G_1 \oplus G_2$ , is defined as the graph  $G = (V, E)$  such that

$$\text{i), } V = V_1 \cup V_2$$

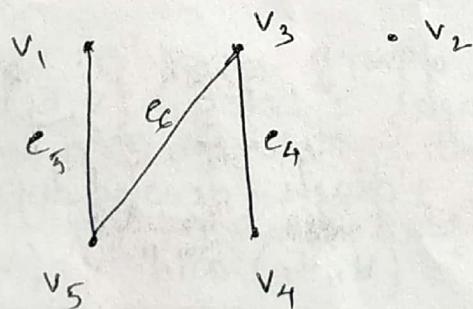
$$\text{ii), } E = E_1 \cup E_2 - (E_1 \cap E_2)$$

i.e; the edges are either in  $G_1$ , or in  $G_2$  but not in both.

Ex:

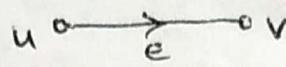


$G_1 \oplus G_2$



## Incidence and Degree.

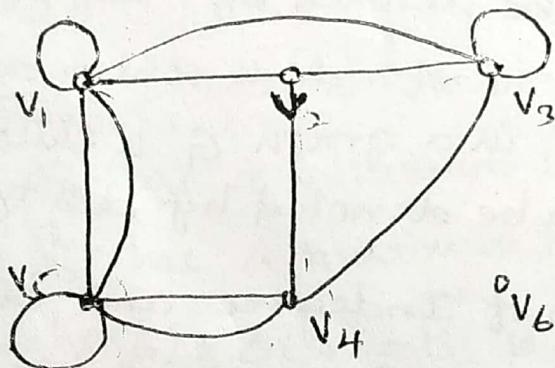
Incidence: Def: Let 'G' be a graph and  $e \in E$  then  $e$ ; ' $e$ ' is said to be incident with vertices  $u$  and  $v$ .

Ex:   $e \rightarrow$  incident to  $u$  and  $v$

Degree: Let 'G' be a graph and ' $v$ ' is vertices of  $G$ . The degree is obtained from no. of edges which are incident to a vertex ' $v$ '. The Degree of vertex ' $v$ ' can be denoted by  $\deg(v)$ ,  $d_G(v)$  (or)  $d(v)$ .

\* Every loop edge is counted Twice.

Ex:



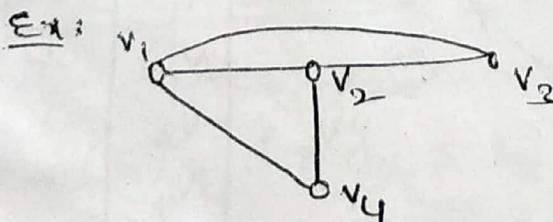
Here

$$\begin{aligned}\deg(v_1) &= 6 \\ \deg(v_2) &= 3 \\ \deg(v_3) &= 5 \\ \deg(v_4) &= 4 \\ \deg(v_5) &= 6 \\ \deg(v_6) &= 0\end{aligned}$$

\*

Theorem: Let 'G' be an undirected graph with  $|E|$  edges and  $|V| = n$  vertices then  $\sum_{i=1}^n \deg(v_i) = 2 \cdot |E|$

Proof: Let 'G' be a graph, with  $n$ -vertices (ie,  $v_1, v_2, \dots$ ). When we are finding the degree of all vertices, we are counting each edge Twice.



$$\begin{aligned}\deg(v_1) &= 3 \\ \deg(v_2) &= 3\end{aligned}$$

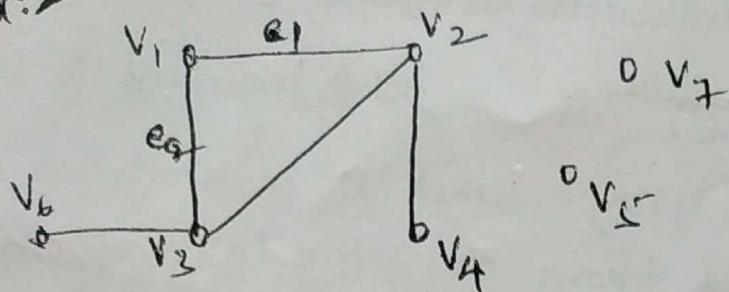
When we are taking the sum of degree of all vertices we count  $v_1$  to  $v_2$  is a edge. By  $v_2$  to  $v_1$  is also added from that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \deg(v_i) = 2 \cdot |E|$$

Def:

- A vertex of degree one is called Pendent vertex
- A vertex of degree zero is called Isolated vertex

Ex: →



Here

$v_4$  &  $v_6$  are pendent vertices

$v_5$  &  $v_7$  are Isolated vertices

Def:

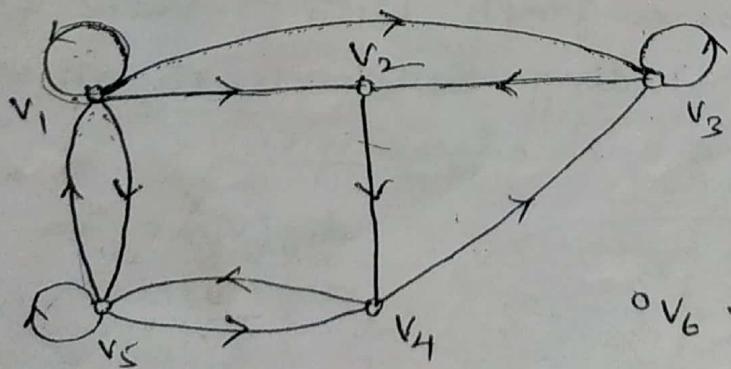
Outdegree: The no. of edges which are incident ~~from~~ <sup>out</sup> vertex 'v' in a graph 'G' is called Outdegree of vertex 'v'. It can be denoted by  $\deg^-(v)$ .

Indegree: The no. of edges which are incident ~~into~~ <sup>in</sup> of a vertex 'v' in a graph 'G' is called Indegree of vertex 'v'. It can be denoted by  $\deg^+(v)$ .

→ The sum of Indegree and Outdegree is called Total degree. It can be denoted by  $\deg(v)$ .

$$\therefore \deg(v) = \sum_{i=1}^m \deg^+(v) + \sum_{i=1}^n \deg^-(v)$$

Ex:



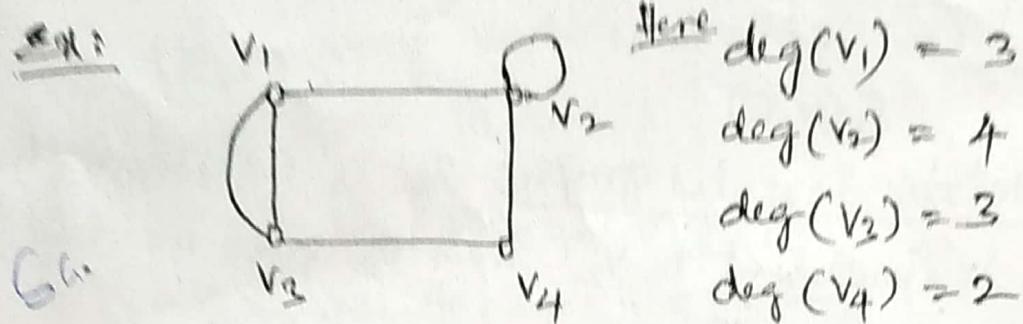
\* Every loop on a vertex will be counted in outdegree & Indegree also.

deg	Here	
	<u>Indegree</u> $\deg^+(v)$	<u>outdegree</u> $\deg^-(v)$
$v_1$	2	4
$v_2$	2	1
$v_3$	3	2
$v_4$	2	2
$v_5$	3	3
$v_6$	0	0

Def:

Minimum Degree: Any vertices which has degree  $\leq$  minimum  
It can be denoted by  $\delta(G)$ .

Maximum Degree: Any vertex which has degree  $\geq$  maximum  
It can be denoted by  $\Delta(G)$ .

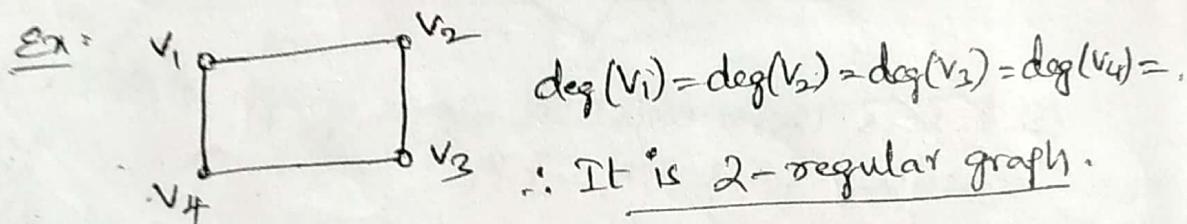


$$\therefore \delta(G) = 2 \quad \Delta(G) = 4.$$

Vertex ' $v_4$ ' has a minimum Degree.

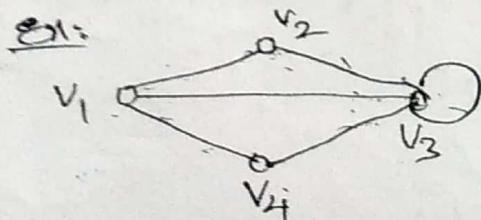
Vertex ' $v_2$ ' has a maximum Degree.

Def: If  $\delta(G) = \Delta(G) = k$  ie, if each vertex of a graph 'G' has degree  $k$ . Then that Graph is called  $k$ -regular (or) regular graph of degree  $k$ .



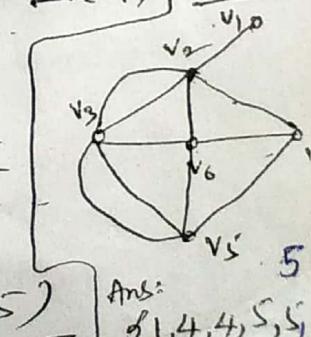
Degree sequence: Let 'G' be a graph with  $n$ -vert  
then the degree sequence is obtained as

$$\delta(G) = d_1 \leq d_2 \leq d_3 \leq \dots \leq d_n = \Delta(G)$$



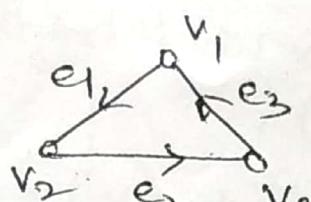
- $\deg(v_1) = 3$
- $\deg(v_2) = 2$
- $\deg(v_3) = 5$
- $\deg(v_4) = 2$

The degree sequence is  $(2, 2, 3, 5)$

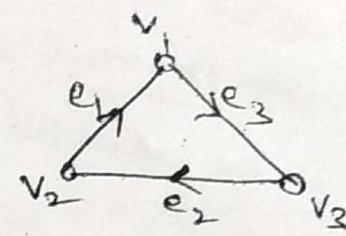


► Converse Directed graph: The converse is obtained from reversing the directions of the edges in  $G(V, E)$ . It can be denoted by  $\tilde{G}(V, \tilde{E})$ .

Ex:



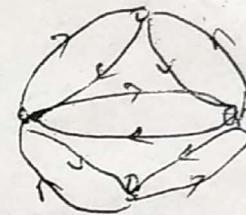
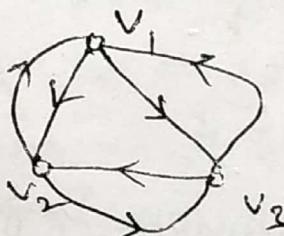
$G(V, E)$



$\tilde{G}(V, \tilde{E})$

► Symmetric Directed graph: If 'G' is a diagraph, if  $v_1$  is incident to  $v_2$  then  $v_2$  also incident to  $v_1$ .

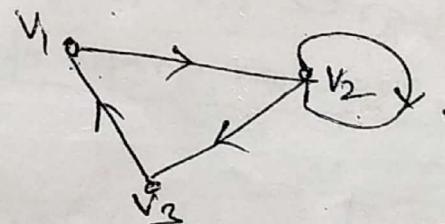
Ex:



► Asymmetric Directed graph:

If  $v_1$  is incident to  $v_2$  then  $v_2$  is not incident to  $v_1$ . Loops are allowed in Asymmetric diagraph.

Ex:



Ex: 1 Does there exist a simple graph with the Degree sequence  $\{3, 3, 3, 3, 2\}$ ?

Sol: The no. of vertices = 5.

Min degree = 2 =  $\delta(G)$

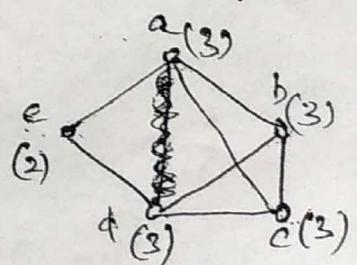
Max degree = 3 =  $\Delta(G)$

Ex: 2 Is there a simple graph with the Degree sequence  $\{1, 1, 3, 3, 3, 4, 6, 7\}$  [Intu 2000/c]

The no. of vertices = 8.

Min. degree = 1.

Max. degree = 7.



[Intu 2000/c]

Ex:3 How many vertices does a regular graph of degree 4 with 10 edges?

Sol: Degree of regular graph = 4.

No. of edges in a graph = 10.

No. of vertices =  $n$  (assume)

$$\sum \deg(v_i) = 2 \cdot |E|$$

$$n \times 4 = 2 \times 10$$

$$n = \frac{20}{4} = 5$$

$$n=5$$

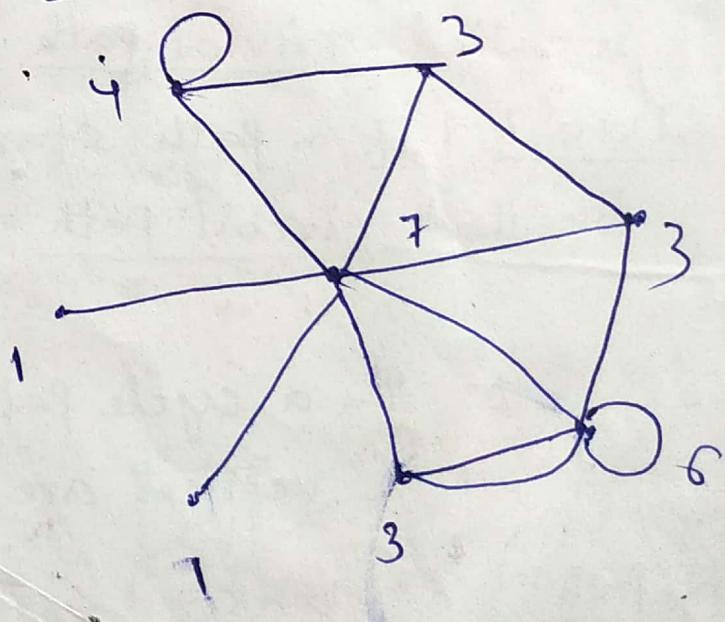
Ex:2

~~Answer~~

~~Not Possible~~

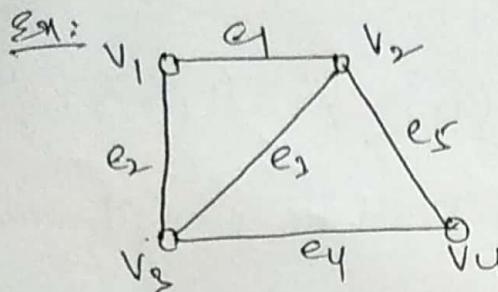
Ex:2

~~Answer~~

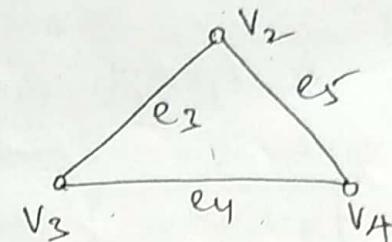


Subgraph: Let 'G' be a graph. And 'H' is said to be a subgraph if  $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$  and  $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$ .

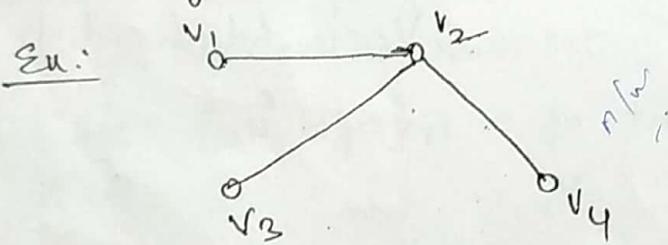
The subgraph of 'G' is denoted by  $H \subseteq G$ .



Subgraph is:



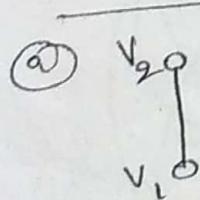
Df: If  $V(H) = V(G)$  then the graph is called spanning sub graph of 'G'.



Complete simple graph: A simple graph 'G' is said to be complete simple graph if it has an edge between every pair of vertices.

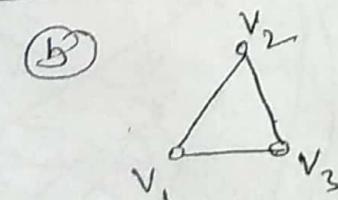
Ex: If a graph has  $n$ -vertices ~~and~~ then it have  $nC_2 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  edges. Then it is complete.

Some examples are:



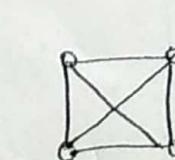
$$|V|=2$$

$$|E| = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = 1$$



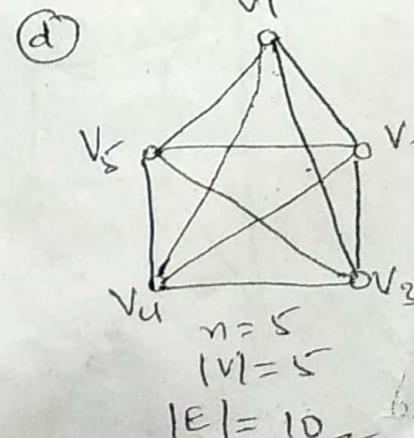
$$|V|=3$$

$$|E| = 3$$



$$|V|=4$$

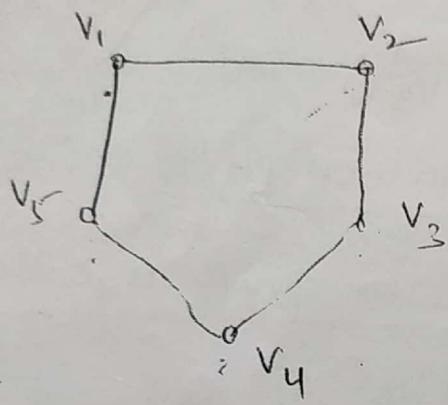
$$|E| = 6$$



Complement of a Graph: Let 'G' be a Graph come  
Said to be complement if the ~~Adjacent~~ Vertices of 'G'  
~~not adjacent~~, those vertices are not Adjacent in  
Graph. ie,  $\bar{G}$ .

ie,  $V(\bar{G}) = V(G)$  but  $E(\bar{G}) = \{(x, y) : (x, y) \notin E(G)\}$

Ex:1 A graph  $G'$  is below? find its complement?



Sol:  $v_1$  is incident (or) Adjacent to  $v_2$  and  $v_5$ .

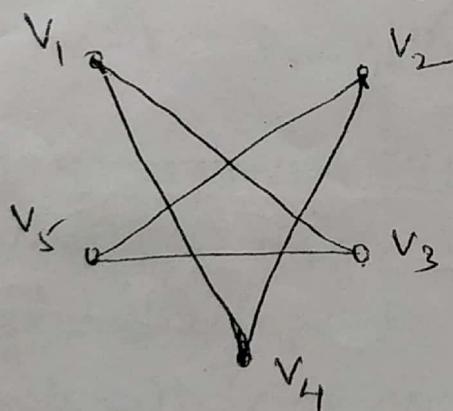
$v_2$  is Adjacent to  $v_1$  and  $v_3$ .

$v_3$  is Adjacent to  $v_2$  and  $v_5$ .

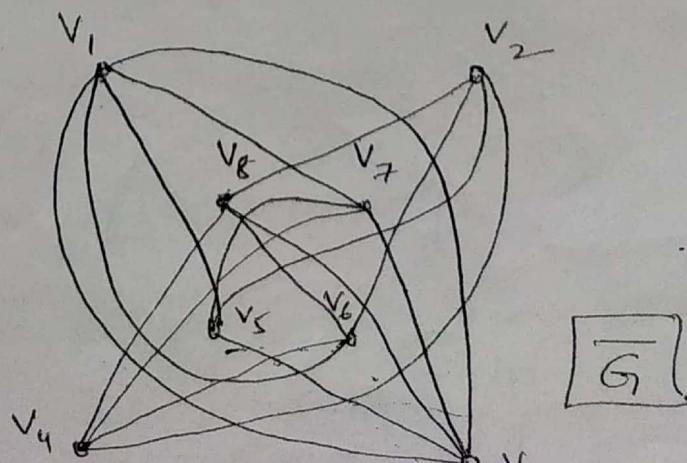
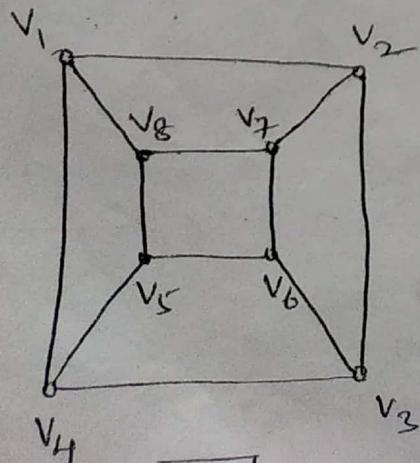
$v_4$  is Adjacent to  $v_3$  and  $v_5$ .

$v_5$  is Adjacent to  $v_1$  and  $v_4$ .

So, the complement of a graph is.



Ex:2 find the complement of the graph?



1) Adjacency Matrix: Let 'G' be a graph with  $n$  vertices. The adjacency matrix is defined by \* It can be denoted by  $A_G$ .

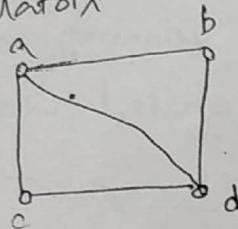
$$A_G = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$$

\* If  $a_{ij} = 1$  if  $v_i, v_j$  are adjacent.

= 0 if  $v_i, v_j$  are not adjacent.

Ex: 1 consider the graph. Represent the graph with Adjacency matrix

Matrix



$$A_G = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ a & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ b & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ c & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ d & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex: 2 without constructing graph. P.T the graph whose adjacency matrix is given by  $X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  is connected.

Def: If 'G' is connected means ~~all~~ ~~all~~ entries in the Matrix  $Y = X + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-1}$  is a non-zero. Then the graph is connected.

$$\text{Sol: } X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The order of  $X = 3$ , we find  $X^2$ .

$$X^2 = X * X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} * \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0+1+0 & 0+0+0 & 0+0+0 \\ 0+0+0 & 1+0+0 & 0+0+0 \\ 0+0+0 & 0+0+0 & 0+0+0 \end{bmatrix}$$

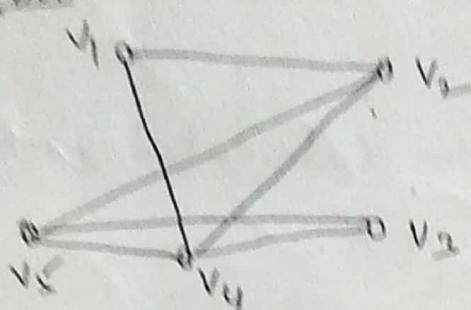
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y = X + X^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Some entries in  $Y$  is equal to zero. so, its not conn

Ex: 1 Draw the graph for which the following is the adjacency matrix:

Sol:



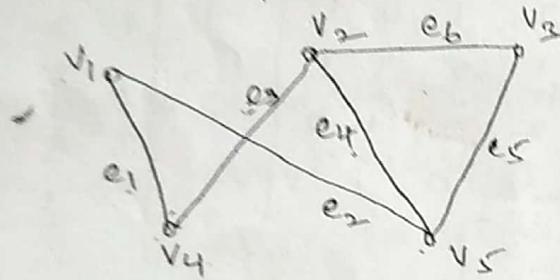
	v <sub>1</sub>	v <sub>2</sub>	v <sub>3</sub>	v <sub>4</sub>	v <sub>5</sub>
v <sub>1</sub>	0	1	0	1	0
v <sub>2</sub>	1	0	0	1	1
v <sub>3</sub>	0	0	0	1	1
v <sub>4</sub>	1	1	1	0	1
v <sub>5</sub>	0	1	1	1	0

2) Incidence Matrix: Let 'G' be a undirected graph with n-vertices and m-edges. Then the incident matrix is obtained as

$a_{ij} = 1$  if  $e_j$  is incident to  $v_i$

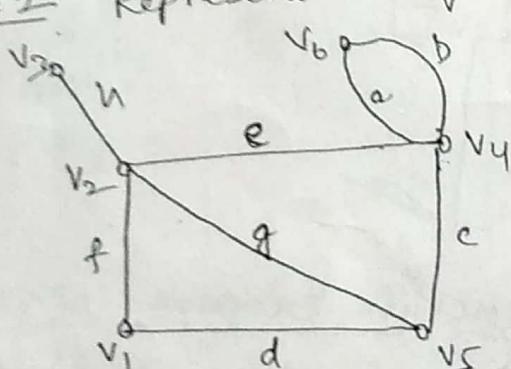
$= 0$  if not. \* It is denoted by  $I_G$

Ex: 1 Represent the graph with an incident matrix.



	e <sub>1</sub>	e <sub>2</sub>	e <sub>3</sub>	e <sub>4</sub>	e <sub>5</sub>	e <sub>6</sub>
v <sub>1</sub>	1	1	0	0	0	0
v <sub>2</sub>	0	0	1	1	0	1
v <sub>3</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	1
v <sub>4</sub>	1	0	1	0	0	0
v <sub>5</sub>	0	1	0	1	1	0

Ex: 2 Represent the graph with an Incidence Matrix.



	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h
v <sub>1</sub>	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
v <sub>2</sub>	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
v <sub>3</sub>	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
v <sub>4</sub>	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
v <sub>5</sub>	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
v <sub>6</sub>	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

Ex: A graph has the following Adjacency. check whether it is connected (Or) not.

$$A(G) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ order} = 5.$$

$$B = A + A^2 + A^3 + A^4.$$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 3 & 1 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 1 & 7 & 5 & 4 \\ 1 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 4 \\ 4 & 4 & 4 & 8 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

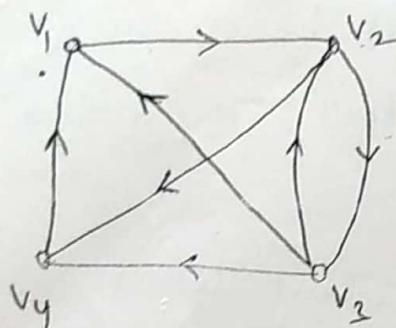
It is connected

3) Path Matrix: Let 'G' be a simple digraph with  $n$  vertices. Then the path matrix is obtained as

$$P_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if elements of } i^{\text{th}} \text{ row \& } j^{\text{th}} \text{ column of } B_n \\ 0 & \text{if not.} \end{cases}$$

\*Note: The path matrix can be calculated from + Matrix  $P_G = A + A^2 + A^3 + \dots + A^n$ .

Ex: Consider the graph. Find Path Matrix.



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 \\ v_1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ v_2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ v_3 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ v_4 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{4 \times 4}$$

To Find  $P_G$

$$P_G = A + A^2 + A^3 + A^4 \quad \text{B'cos order} = 4.$$

$$A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A^4 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 3 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } P_G = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 2 & 3 \\ 5 & 5 & 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 7 & 4 & 7 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P_G = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Another Method:

$$A = \boxed{\quad}$$

$$A^2 = A \cap A$$

$$A^3 = A^2 \cap A$$

$$A^4 = A^3 \cap A$$

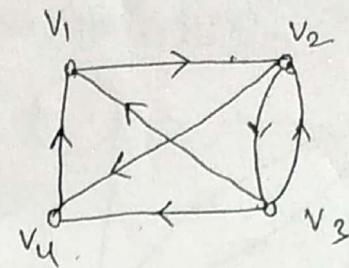
Transitive closure

$$P_{i,j} = A \cup A^2 \cup A^3 \cup A^4$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = A^+ \text{ Same as Path Matrix}$$

Ex: Consider the graph. Find Path Matrix by using Warshall's Algorithm.

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



Assign  $M_0 = A$ .

Step 1: consider 1<sup>st</sup> row & 1<sup>st</sup> column elements of  $M_0$  which are equal to 1.

$$m_0(v_1, v_2) = m_0(v_2, v_1) = m_0(v_4, v_1) = 1$$

from the above ordered pairs form a new ordered pair

We get,

$$M_1(v_3, v_2) = M_1(v_4, v_2) = 1$$

$$M_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 2: consider 2<sup>nd</sup> row & 2<sup>nd</sup> column elements of  $M_1$  which are equal to 1.

$$M_1(v_1, v_2) = M_1(v_3, v_2) = M_1(v_4, v_2) = M_1(v_2, v_3) = M_1(v_2, v_4) = 1$$

We get,

$$M_2(v_1, v_3) = M_2(v_1, v_4) = M_2(v_3, v_3) = M_2(v_3, v_4) = M_2(v_4, v_3) = M_2(v_4, v_4) = 1$$

$$M_2(v_4, v_4) = M_2(v_2, v_2) = 1$$

$$M_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Step 3.i consider 3<sup>rd</sup> row & 3<sup>rd</sup> column elements equal to 1

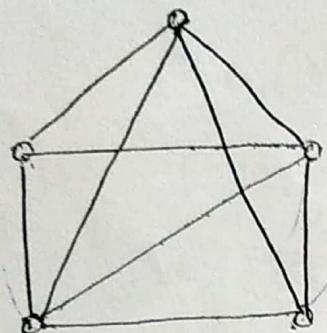
$$M_2(v_1, v_2) = M_2(v_2, v_2) = M_2(v_3, v_3) = M_2(v_4, v_3) = M_2(v_3, v_1) \\ = M_2(v_3, v_2) = M_2(v_3, v_4) = 1$$

We get  $M_3(v_1, v_3) = M_3(v_1, v_4) = M_3(v_1, v_2) = M_3(v_1, v_4) = M_3(v_2, v_3) = M_3(v_2, v_4) = 1$

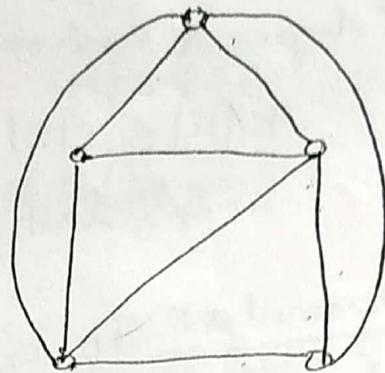
$$M_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \text{Path Matrix of } A.$$

Planar Graphs: A graph 'G' is said to be planar if it doesn't have any edge crossing. Otherwise it is Non-Planar Graph.

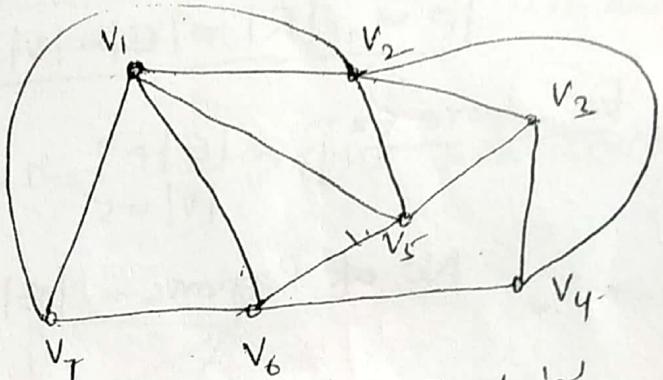
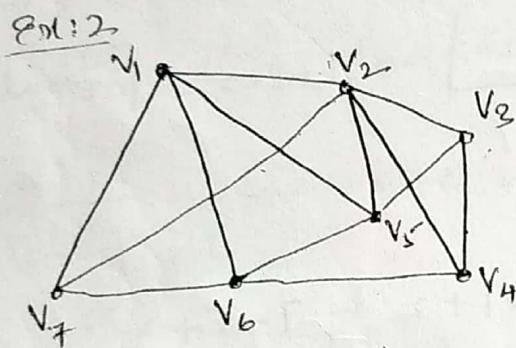
Ex:1 Let the Graph 'G' be



Graph 'G'.

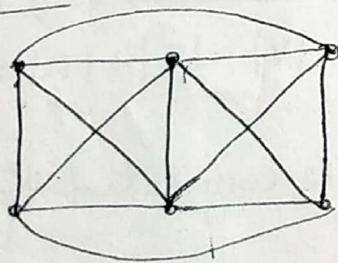


Planar graph of 'G'.



planar Graph of 'G'.

Ex:3



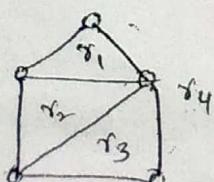
It is a Non-Planar Graph b'cos it cannot draw without crossing of edges.

NOTE: Planar graph is also called as Plane Graph.

A Plane Graph divides the plane into Regions.

Region: A region is a cycle that forms its boundary.

Ex:



A Graph has Four Regions.

$r_1, r_2, r_3$  and  $r_4$ .

$r_1, r_2, r_3$  are Interior regions.

Result: In a plane graph 'G', if the degree of each vertex is  $K$  then  $K|R| \leq 2|E|$ .

for above example -

$$|R| = \text{no. of Regions} = 4$$

$$|E| = \text{no. of edges} = 7$$

$$K = \text{degree of each region} = 3$$

$$K|R| \leq 2|E|$$

$$3 \times 4 \leq 2 \times 7 \Rightarrow 12 \leq 14$$

Euler's formula: If 'G' is a connected planar graph, then it forms  $|E| - |V| + 2$  regions. (Including Exterior)

$$\therefore |R| = |E| - |V| + 2$$

→ Euler's formula.

For above ex:

$$|E| = 7$$
$$|V| = 5$$

$$\text{No. of Regions} = |E| - |V| + 2 = 7 - 5 + 2 = 4 \text{ regions.}$$

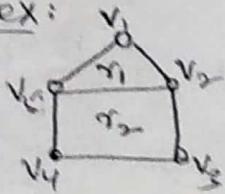
Theorem: Prove that Euler's formula (or) If 'G' is a connected plane graph then p.T  $|V| - |E| + |R| = 2$ .

Proof:

Assume that suppose 'G' is connected plane graph having  $(K+1)$  regions.

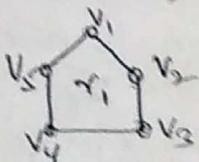
Now Delete an edge which is common to both regions.

Ex:



Here the common edge for both regions  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  is  $(v_2 - v_5)$ . Delete it.

We get,



In the resulting graph, we have same no. of vertices and lack of one edge & one region.

## Isomorphism on Graphs :-

Let  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are two graph, then  $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$  is called an isomorphism if

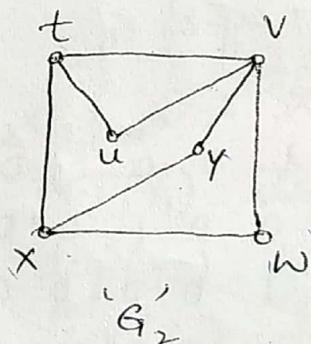
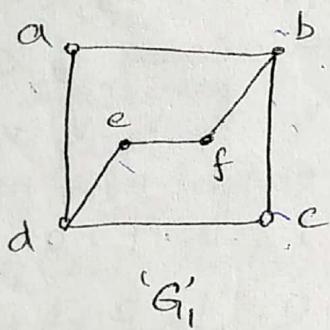
(i) 'f' is one to one [no. of vertices in  $G_1$  = no. of vertices in  $G_2$ ]  
ie,  $G_1(v) = G_2(v)$  (or)  $v(G_1) = v(G_2)$

(ii) 'f' is on to [no. of edges in  $G_1$  = no. of edges in  $G_2$ ]  
ie,  $E(G_1) = E(G_2)$

(iii) The degree sequence of both graphs  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are same.

(iv) The Adjacency Matrix of  $G_1$  &  $G_2$  are same.

Ex:- Determine whether the graphs are isomorphic or not.



Sol:

Graph  $G_1$

(i)  $|V| = 6$

(ii)  $|E| = 7$

Graph  $G_2$

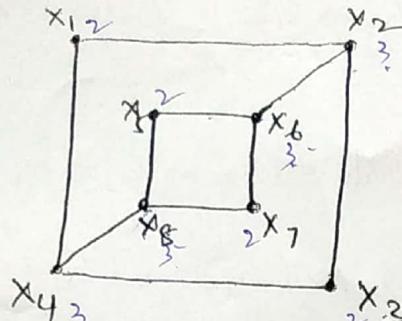
(i)  $|V| = 6$

(ii)  $|E| = 8$

The no. of edges in  $G_1$  and no. of edges in  $G_2$  are not equal. So,  $G_1$  is not isomorphic to  $G_2$ .

$\therefore$  They are not isomorphic.

EX:2 Determine whether the given Graphs are Isomorphic (or) Not.



(i)

Sol:

T ✓

V ✓

S ✓

Graph 'G<sub>1</sub>'

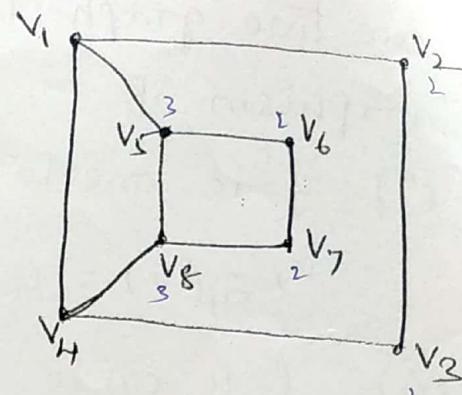
$$(ii) |V| = 8$$

$$(iii) |E| = 10$$

(iv) Degree sequence of  $G_1$   
 $= \{2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3\}$

Adjacency of  $G_1$

$x_1$	$x_2$	$x_3$	$x_4$	$x_5$	$x_6$	$x_7$	$x_8$
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0



(ii)

Graph 'G<sub>2</sub>'

$$(i) |V| = 8$$

$$(ii) |E| = 10$$

(iii) Degree sequence of  $G_2$   
 $= \{2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3\}$

Adjacency of  $G_2$ .

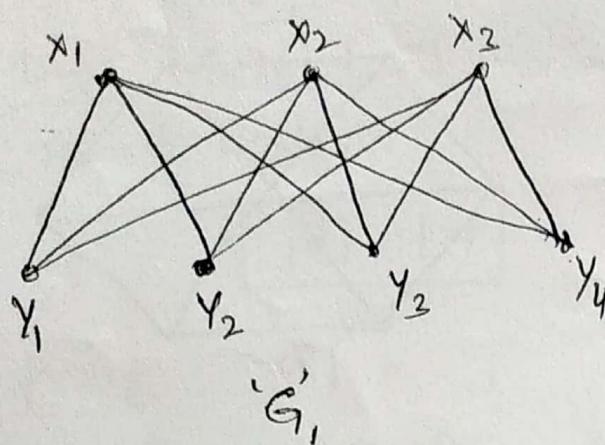
$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$	$v_5$	$v_6$	$v_7$	$v_8$
0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0

The Adjacency of Graphs  $G_1$  &  $G_2$  are not equal.

∴ They are Not isomorphic.

and lack of one pair

Ex:3 Determine whether the given graphs are isomorphic (or) Not. (5)



Sol: Graph 'G<sub>1</sub>'

(i)  $|V| = 7$

(ii)  $|E| = 12$

(iii) Degree sequence is  
 $= \{3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4\}$

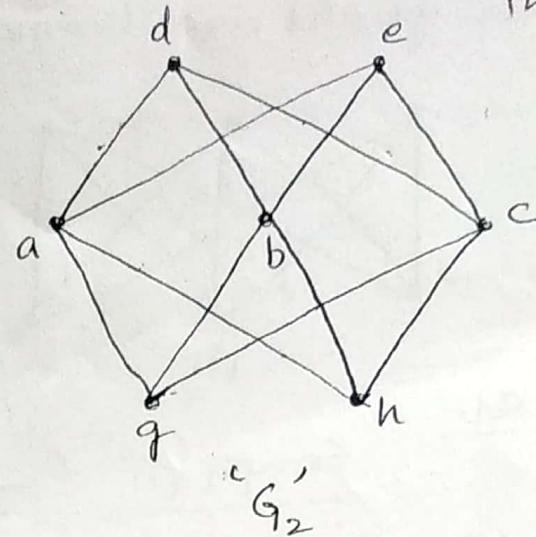
(iv) Adjacency

$$\deg(x_1) = \deg(a)$$

$$\deg(x_2) = \deg(b)$$

$$\deg(x_3) = \deg(c)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{array}$$



Graph 'G<sub>2</sub>'

(i)  $|V| = 7$

(ii)  $|E| = 12$

(iii) Degree sequence is  
 $= \{3, 3, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4\}$

(iv) Adjacency.

$$\deg(y_1) = \deg(d)$$

$$\deg(y_2) = \deg(e)$$

$$\deg(y_3) = \deg(g)$$

$$\deg(y_4) = \deg(h)$$

So, the Adjacency of two Graphs G<sub>1</sub> and G<sub>2</sub> are same.

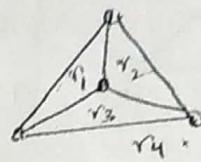
∴ They are isomorphic

Theorem: Show that if a plane graph is self-dual, then  $|E| = 2|V| - 2$ . (6)

Def: Self-dual means if no. of vertices is equal to no. of regions.

$$|R| = |V|$$

Ex:



Proof:

From Euler's formula, we have

$$|E| - |V| + 2 = |R|$$

But 'G' is self-dual, ie  $|R| = |V|$

$$|E| - |V| + 2 = |V|$$

$$|V| - |E| + |V| = 2$$

$$2|V| - |E| = 2$$

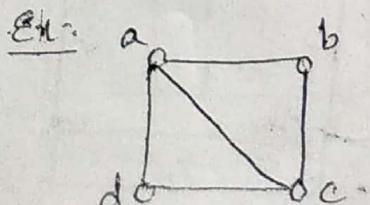
$$\therefore |E| = 2|V| - 2$$

$\therefore$  Hence Theorem proved.

## Eulerian Graphs:-

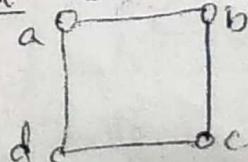
Euler Path: A path in the Graph 'G' is called an Euler path if it visits every edge exactly once and each vertex of the graph is atleast once. Then it is the Euler path of the graph.

Euler circuit: The Euler path starts at one point and ends at the same. Then the graph is Euler circuit.



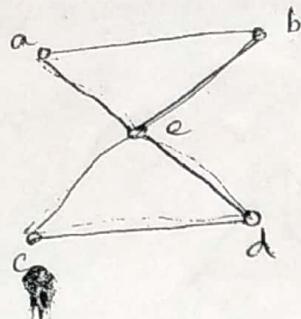
Euler path is  
 $a - b - c - d - a - c$ .

Ex: Euler circuit



$a - b - c - d - a$

Ex: consider the graph in the following figure.



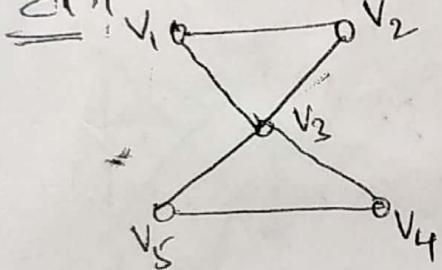
This graph has an Euler circuit of the path  $a-b-e-c-d-e-a$ .

\* Starting & end points are identical  
So, it is an Euler circuit.

NOTE: A Directed Multigraph 'G' has an Euler circuit iff the indegree of each vertex is equal to outdegree of that vertex.

The indegree of one vertex is one larger than its outdegree & indegree of one vertex is one less than its outdegree. Then it has an Eulerpath, but it ~~does not~~ have ~~euler~~ circuit.

Ex:1 check whether the graph is Eulerian [JNTU]



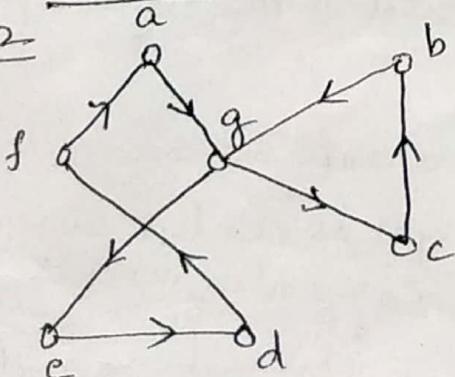
Vertex	Indegree	outdegree
$v_1$	2	2
$v_2$	2	2
$v_3$	4	4
$v_4$	2	2
$v_5$	2	2

So, the indegree & outdegree of each vertex is same.

So, it is an Euler circuit of path  $v_1-v_2-v_3-v_5-v_4-v_3-v_1$ .

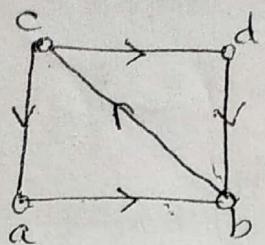
So, it is Eulerian

Ex: 2



Euler circuit of path  $a-g-c-b-g-e-d-f-a$ .

$V(G)$	Indegree	outdegree
a	1	1
b	1	1
c	1	1
d	1	1
e	1	1
f	1	1
g	2	2



$V(G)$	Indegree	Outdegree
a	1	1
b	2	1
c	1	2
d	1	1

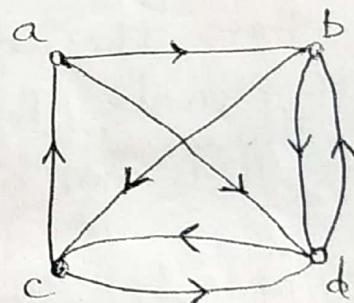
Here the indegree of vertex 'B' is one greater than the outdegree. and indegree of vertex 'C' is one less than the outdegree.

It is ~~not~~ an Euler circuit, but the Euler path is  $c-a-b-c-d-b$ .

Ex-4 consider the directed graph. check whether it is Eulerian (or) Not:

Sol:

$V(G)$	Indegree	Out Degree
a	1	2
b	2	2
c	2	2
d	3	2



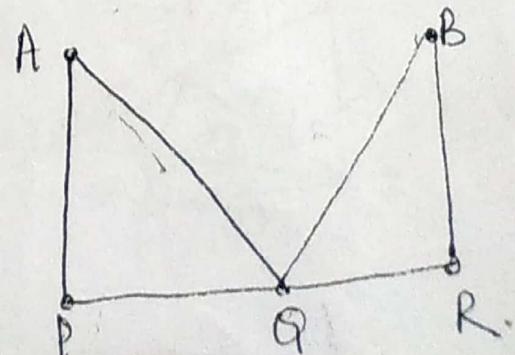
Hence, the indegree & outdegree of the vertices are not equal. So, it doesn't form an Euler's circuit. But the Euler's path is  $a-b-d-b-c-d-e-a-d$ .

Ex-5: S.T the following graph is Eulerian.

Sol:

$V(G)$	Indegree	Outdegree
A	2	2
B	2	2
P	2	2
Q	4	4
R	2	2

[JNTU June 2003]



The indegree & outdegree of all the vertices are ..

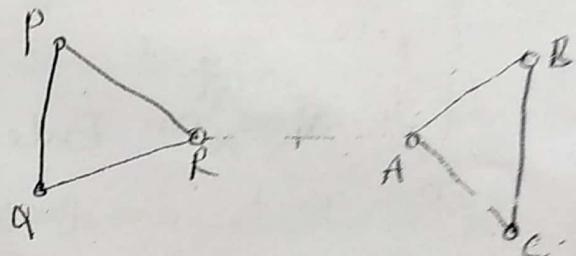
So, it is an Euler's circuit (or) Eulerian.  
The Euler path of the given graph is

$$A - P - Q - R - B - \underline{Q} - A.$$

Ex:6: Verify the following graph is not Eulerian?

V(G)	Indegree	outdegree
P	2	2
Q	2	2
R	3	3
A	3	3
B	2	2
C	2	2

[JNTU June 2003]



Here the indegree & outdegree of all the vertices are equal. But it doesn't have an Euler's path.

So, it is not an Euler circuit (or) Eulerian.

Theorem: The number of vertices of odd degree in a graph is always even.

Proof: we consider the vertices with odd degree & even degree separately.

$$\text{we know that } \sum_{i=1}^n \deg(v_i) = 2|E|$$

where  $|E|$  is number of edges.

$v_i$  is vertices from  $1, 2, 3, \dots, n$ .

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \deg(v_i) = \sum_{i=\text{Even}} \deg(v_i) + \sum_{i=\text{odd}} \deg(v_i)$$

$$2 \cdot E = \underbrace{\sum_{\text{even}} \deg(v_i)}_{\text{even}} + \underbrace{\sum_{\text{odd}} \deg(v_i)}_{\text{odd}}$$

↙  
This expression is always even [sum of even numbers]

$$\therefore \sum_{\text{odd}} \deg(v_i) = 2 \cdot E - \sum_{\text{even}} \deg(v_i)$$

RHS is always Even.

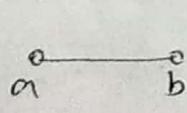
So, No. of vertices of odd degree = Even.

Hence Theorem proved.

Theorem: Every tree with 2 (or) More vertices is 2-chrom. i.e.

Prof: Tree is a Acyclic graph. It does not have any cycles.

Ex: Consider two vertices

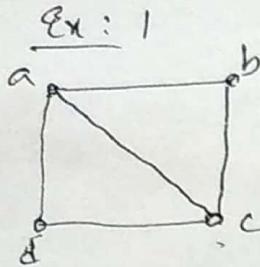


It is a Tree.

→ chromatic means min. no. of colors required to coloring the vertices of

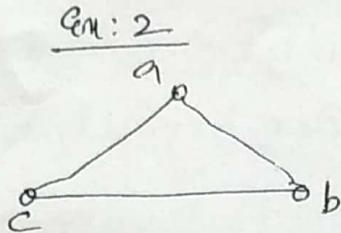
Hamilton graph: Let 'G' be the Graph is said to be Hamilton graph if it contains Hamilton ~~path~~ cycle.

Hamilton cycle is nothing but, it is a path which covers all the vertices of a Graph 'G' and forms a cycle. (It may or may not cover all the edges of the Graph 'G').



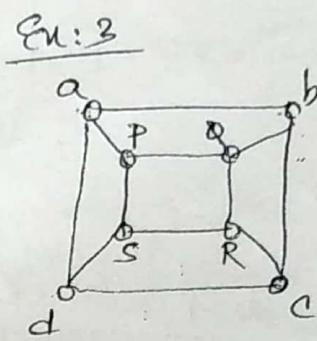
$a - b - c - d - a \rightarrow$  cycle.

so, 'G' is Hamilton Graph.



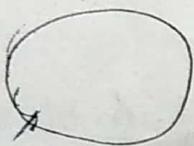
$a - b - c \rightarrow$  cycle

so, Hamilton Graph



$a - b - c - d - s - r - q - p = 9$   
is a cycle.

so, it is Hamilton graph



## Chromatic Numbers:-

(6)

The chromatic Number of a graph 'G' is the minimum number of colors to color the vertices of the Graph 'G'.

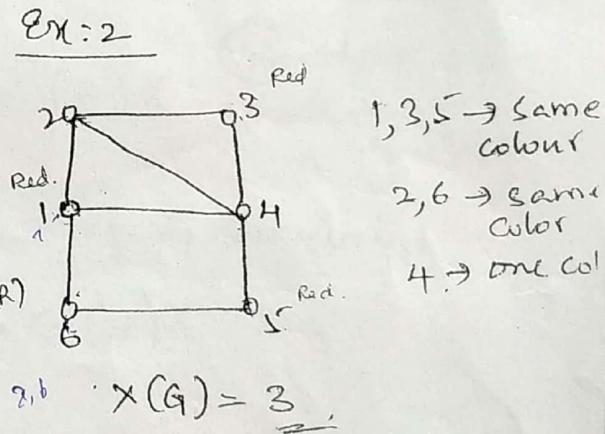
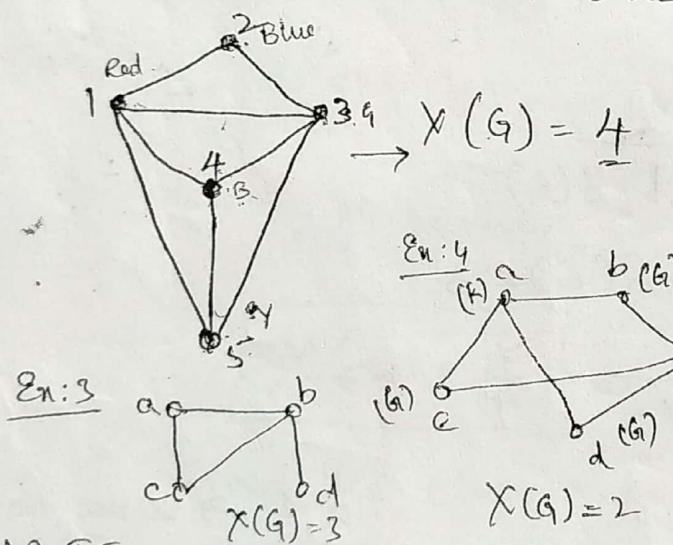
Chromatic number of the graph is denoted by  $\chi(G)$ .

If  $\chi(G) = K$  then it is  $K$ -chromatic graph.

If  $\chi(G) = 2$  then it is 2-chromatic.

Vertex coloring: The assignment of colors to the vertex is called Vertex colouring, <sup>that is</sup> such that each vertex is assigned by different colours. <sup>assigning.</sup>

Ex: 1 What is the chromatic Number of given graph



NOTE: It is very difficult to find the chromatic number of the graph 'G', if 'G' has more no. of vertices.

So, the following rules are helpful to find the chromatic number of the graph.

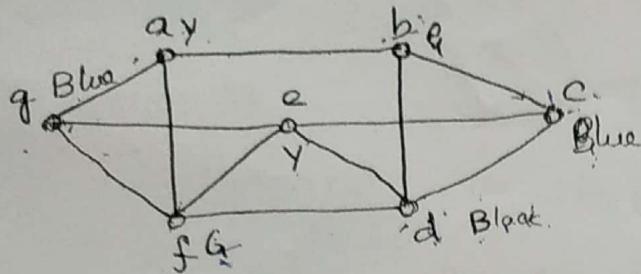
- (i)  $\chi(G) \leq |V|$ , where  $|V|$  is the number of vertices of 'G'.
- (ii) A triangle requires 3 colours. i.e., A complete graph with  $n$ -vertices requires  $n$ -colours.  
 $\downarrow$  The atleast  $n$  colours are required to colour the vertices.

ii) for any graph  $G$ ,  $\chi(G) \leq 1 + \Delta(G)$ , where  $\Delta(G)$  is the largest degree of the vertex of  $G$ .

v) For any graph  $G$ ,  $\chi(G) \geq \frac{|V|}{|V| - \delta(G)}$ , where  $\delta(G)$  is the minimum degree of the vertex of  $G$ .

v) Degree of all vertices <sup>all same</sup> it has at most  $n$ -colors.

Ex:3 Find the chromatic number of the following graph.



$$\deg(a) = \deg(b) = \deg(c) =$$

$$\deg(g) = 3$$

$$\deg(e) = \deg(f) = \deg(d) = 4.$$

The maximum degree of the vertex of  $G$  is

$$\Delta(G) = 4.$$

By rule ③

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

$$\chi(G) \leq 5. \checkmark$$

By rule ④

$$\chi(G) \geq \frac{|V|}{|V| - \delta(G)}$$

minimum degree is  $\delta(G) = 3$ .

$$\chi(G) \geq \frac{7}{7-3} = \frac{7}{4} = 1.7$$

$$\chi(G) \geq 2.$$

$$2 \leq \chi(G) \leq 5. \checkmark$$

2-coloring is not possible.

3-coloring is not possible.

5-coloring is also not possible.

a, e  $\rightarrow$  same colour.

b, f  $\rightarrow$  same colour.

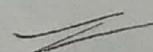
g, c  $\rightarrow$  same colour.

d  $\rightarrow$  one colour.

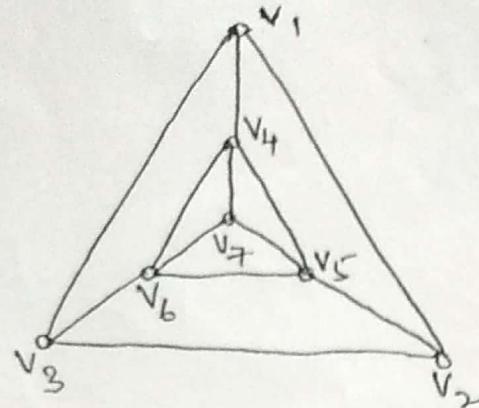
so,

$\chi(G) = 4$

It is 4-chromatic



Ex: 4 Consider the graph. Find the chromatic number.



$$\deg(v_1) = \deg(v_2) = \deg(v_3) =$$

$$\deg(v_7) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_4) = \deg(v_5) = \deg(v_6) = 4$$

The Maximum degree  $\Delta(G) = 4$ .

$$X(G) \leq 5.$$

The minimum degree is  $\delta(G) = 3$

$$X(G) = \frac{7}{7-3}$$

$$X(G) \geq 2$$

$$2 \leq X(G) \leq 5.$$

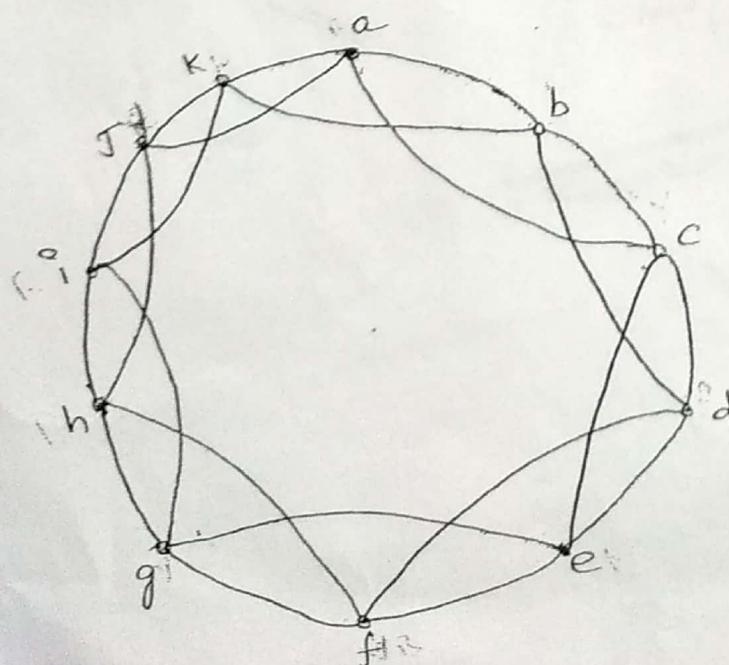
$v_1, v_7 \rightarrow$  same colour  
 $v_3, v_4 \rightarrow$  same colour  
 $v_2, v_6 \rightarrow$  same colour  
 $v_5 \rightarrow$  one colour.

2-coloring, 3-coloring, 5-coloring is not possible.

So,

$X(G) = 4$

Ex: 5 find the chromatic Number of the graph.



Degree of each vertex

$$\deg(v) = 4$$

Max. degree

$$\Delta(G) = 4$$

$$X(G) \leq 5$$

$$\text{Min. degree } \delta(G) = 4$$

$$X(G) \geq \frac{11}{11-4}$$

$$X(G) \geq 3$$

Degree of all vertices are same.  
ie,  $\deg(v) = 4$ .

$$3 \leq \chi(G) \leq 4.$$

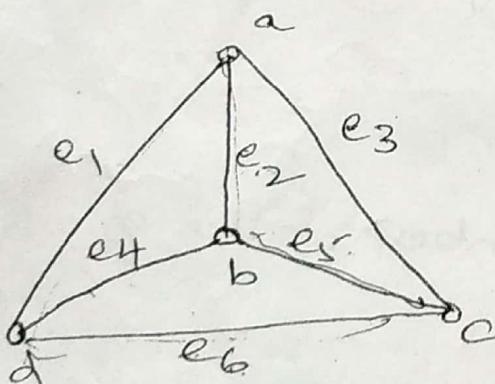
3-coloring is not possible.

so  $\boxed{\chi(G) = 4}$

### Edge chromatic Number:

The Edge chromatic Number of 'G' is the minimum number of colors required to color the all edges of 'G', But the edges with common end points are colored different colors.

Ex: What is the edge chromatic Number of the following graph.



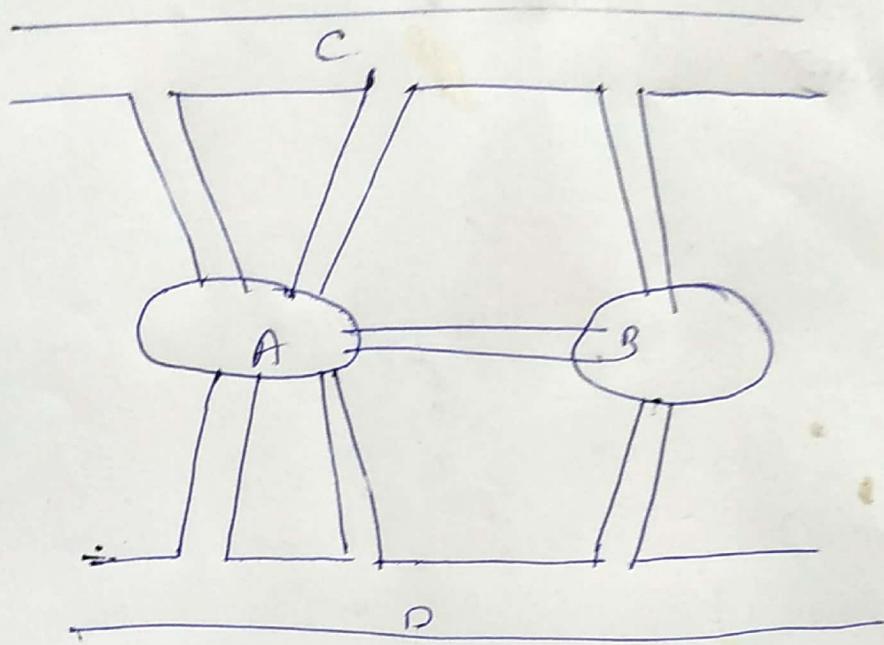
~~edges 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6~~

- $e_1, e_5 \rightarrow$  Same colour  
 $e_2, e_6 \rightarrow$  Same colour  
 $e_3, e_4 \rightarrow$  "

✓

## Konigsberg Bridge problem:

There are two islands A & B formed by a river. They are connected to each other and to the river banks C & D by means of 7-bridges.

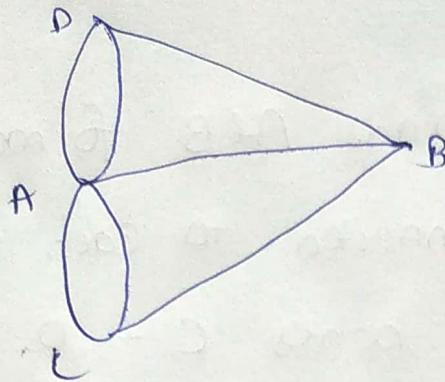


The problem is to start from any one of the 4 land areas A, B, C, D walk across each bridge exactly once and return to the starting point.

This problem has no solution.

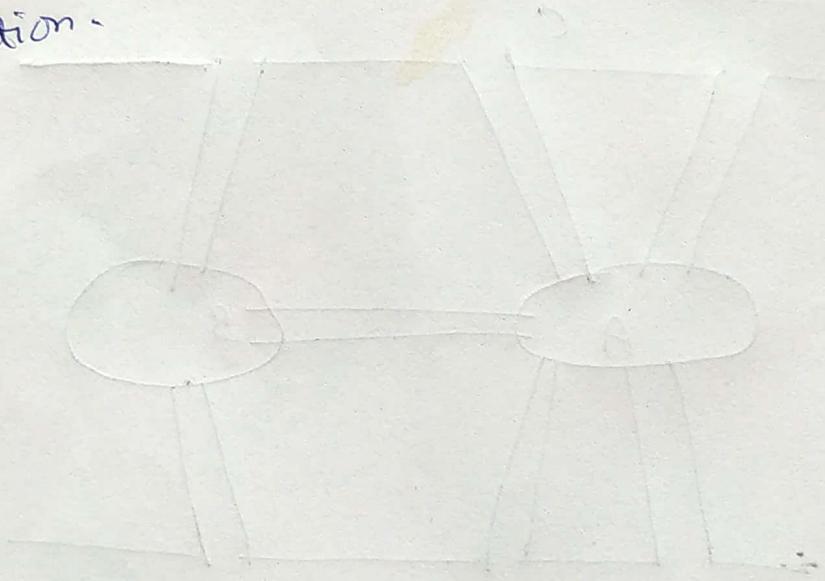
when the situation is represented by a graph with vertices representing the lands

~~Here~~



Here we can't find a Eulerian circuit.

Hence Konigsberg Bridge problem has no solution.



## Graph Traversal

Graph traversal is the problem of visiting all the vertices of a graph in some systematic order. There are mainly two ways to traverse a graph.

- Breadth First Search
- Depth First Search

### Breadth First Search

Breadth First Search (BFS) starts at starting level-0 vertex  $X$  of the graph  $G$ . Then we visit all the vertices that are the neighbors of  $X$ . After visiting, we mark the vertices as "visited," and place them into level-1. Then we start from the level-1 vertices and apply the same method on every level-1 vertex and so on. The BFS traversal terminates when every vertex of the graph has been visited.

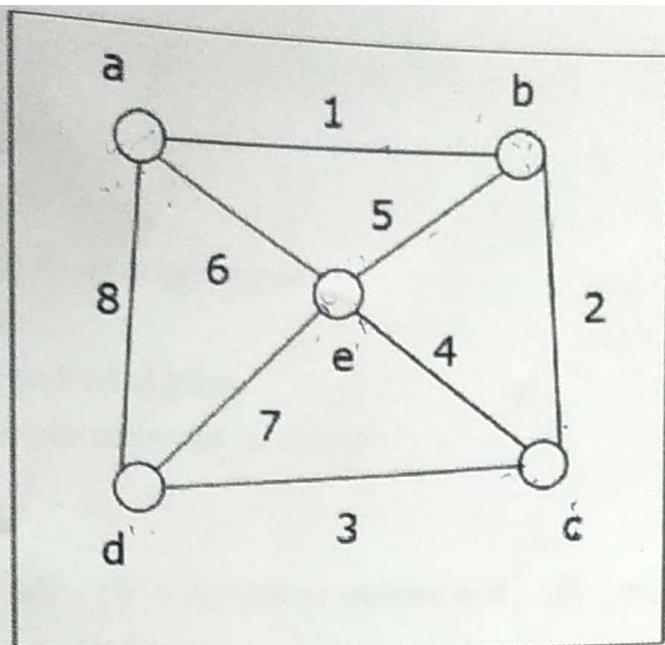
#### BFS Algorithm

The concept is to visit all the neighbor vertices before visiting other neighbor vertices of neighbor vertices.

- Initialize status of all nodes as "Ready".
- Put source vertex in a queue and change its status to "Waiting".
- Repeat the following two steps until queue is empty -
  - Remove the first vertex from the queue and mark it as "Visited".
  - Add to the rear of queue all neighbors of the removed vertex whose status is "Ready". Mark their status as "Waiting".

#### Problem

Let us take a graph (Source vertex is 'a') and apply the BFS algorithm to find out the traversal order.



Solution -

- Initialize status of all vertices to "Ready".
- Put  $a$  in queue and change its status to "Waiting".
- Remove  $a$  from queue, mark it as "Visited".
- Add  $a$ 's neighbors in "Ready" state  $b, d$  and  $e$  to end of queue and mark them as "Waiting".
- Remove  $b$  from queue, mark it as "Visited", put its "Ready" neighbor  $c$  at end of queue and mark  $c$  as "Waiting".
- Remove  $d$  from queue and mark it as "Visited". It has no neighbor in "Ready" state.
- Remove  $e$  from queue and mark it as "Visited". It has no neighbor in "Ready" state.
- Remove  $c$  from queue and mark it as "Visited". It has no neighbor in "Ready" state.
- Queue is empty so stop.

So the traversal order is -

$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow d \rightarrow e \rightarrow c$$

The alternate orders of traversal are -

$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow e \rightarrow d \rightarrow c$$

Or,

$$a \rightarrow d \rightarrow b \rightarrow e \rightarrow c$$

Or,

$$a \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow d \rightarrow c$$

Or,

$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow e \rightarrow d \rightarrow c$$

$a \rightarrow d \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$

### Application of BFS

- Finding the shortest path
- Minimum spanning tree for un-weighted graph
- GPS navigation system
- Detecting cycles in an undirected graph
- Finding all nodes within one connected component

### Complexity Analysis

Let  $G(V, E)$  be a graph with  $|V|$  number of vertices and  $|E|$  number of edges. If breadth first search algorithm visits every vertex in the graph and checks every edge, then its time complexity would be -

$$O(|V| + |E|) \cdot O(|E|)$$

It may vary between  $O(1)$  and  $O(|V^2|)$

### Depth First Search

Depth First Search (DFS) algorithm starts from a vertex  $v$ , then it traverses to its adjacent vertex (say  $x$ ) that has not been visited before and mark as "visited" and goes on with the adjacent vertex of  $x$  and so on.

If at any vertex, it encounters that all the adjacent vertices are visited, then it backtracks until it finds the first vertex having an adjacent vertex that has not been traversed before. Then, it traverses that vertex, continues with its adjacent vertices until it traverses all visited vertices and has to backtrack again. In this way, it will traverse all the vertices reachable from the initial vertex  $v$ .

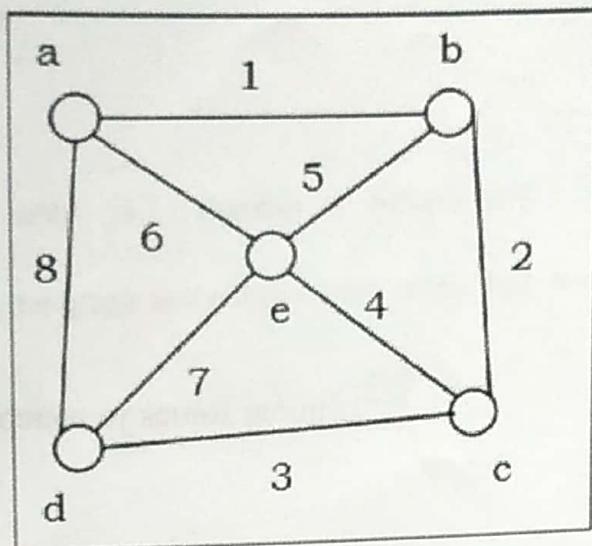
### DFS Algorithm

The concept is to visit all the neighbor vertices of a neighbor vertex before visiting the other neighbor vertices.

- Initialize status of all nodes as "Ready"
- Put source vertex in a stack and change its status to "Waiting"
- Repeat the following two steps until stack is empty –
  - Pop the top vertex from the stack and mark it as "Visited"

- Push onto the top of the stack all neighbors of the removed vertex whose status is "Ready". Mark their status as "Waiting".

Let's take a graph (Source vertex is 'a') and apply the DFS algorithm to find out the traversal order.



### Solution

- Initialize status of all vertices to "Ready".
- Push  $a$  in stack and change its status to "Waiting".
- Pop  $a$  and mark it as "Visited".
- Push  $a$ 's neighbors in "Ready" state  $e, d$  and  $b$  to top of stack and mark them as "Waiting".
- Pop  $b$  from stack, mark it as "Visited", push its "Ready" neighbor  $c$  onto stack.
- Pop  $c$  from stack and mark it as "Visited". It has no "Ready" neighbor.
- Pop  $d$  from stack and mark it as "Visited". It has no "Ready" neighbor.
- Pop  $e$  from stack and mark it as "Visited". It has no "Ready" neighbor.
- Stack is empty. So stop.

So the traversal order is -

$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow e$$

The alternate orders of traversal are -

$$a \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$$

Or,

$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow e \rightarrow c \rightarrow d$$

$a \rightarrow d \rightarrow e \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$

Or,  $a \rightarrow d \rightarrow c \rightarrow e \rightarrow b$

Or,  $a \rightarrow d \rightarrow c \rightarrow b \rightarrow e$

## Complexity Analysis

Let  $G(V, E)$  be a graph with  $|V|$  number of vertices and  $|E|$  number of edges. If DFS

algorithm visits every vertex in the graph and checks every edge, then the time complexity is –

$$\Theta(|V| + |E|)$$

## Applications

- Detecting cycle in a graph
- To find topological sorting
- To test if a graph is bipartite
- Finding connected components
- Finding the bridges of a graph
- Finding bi-connectivity in graphs
- Solving the Knight's Tour problem
- Solving puzzles with only one solution