

# GRAPHS

## OUTLINE:

- 1) Various types of graphs
- 2) Some special graphs
- 3) Operations on graphs
- 4) Representing graphs
- 5) Properties of graphs

# 1. VARIOUS TYPES OF GRAPHS

# Graphs

- There are various types of graphs, which are used to represent different situations.
- Common features of all types of graphs:
  - 1) A set  $V$  of **vertices** (points) representing **objects**
  - 2) A set  $E$  of **edges** (segments) connecting pairs of vertices and **representing relations between objects**
- Notation:  $G = (V, E)$

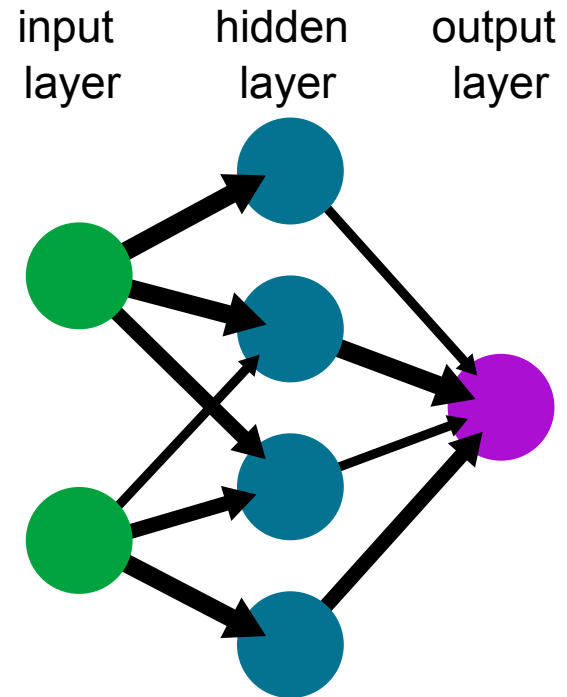
# Directed graphs

- A **directed graph** consists of a set  $V$  of **vertices** (aka **nodes** or **points**) and a set  $E \subseteq V \times V$  of **edges**. If  $(a,b) \in E$ , then  $a$  is the **initial vertex** and  $b$  is the **terminal vertex** of the edge  $(a,b)$ . An edge of the form  $(a,a)$  is a **loop**. Edges are drawn as arrows from their initial to their terminal vertex.
- Between 2 vertices there may only be 1 edge.

# Example

- (natural or artificial) neural networks
- Vertices: “neurons”
- Edges: “synapses”
- Well represented by a directed graph because the flux of information has a direction

A simple neural network

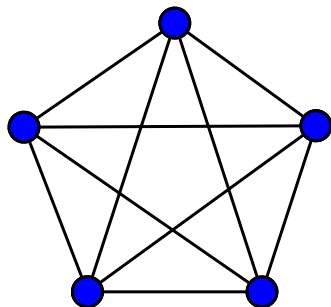


# Undirected graphs

- **Edges** are non-directional: an edge connects 2 vertices (called the endpoints) without distinguishing between an initial vertex and a terminal vertex.
- Edges connecting a vertex with itself are called **loops**.
- Between 2 vertices there may only be 1 edge.
- Useful to represent “connections”

# Example

- How many handshakes happen at a meeting with 5 people?
- Count the edges!




- Directed and undirected graphs are also called **simple graphs** to mark the distinction with.....



# Directed multigraphs

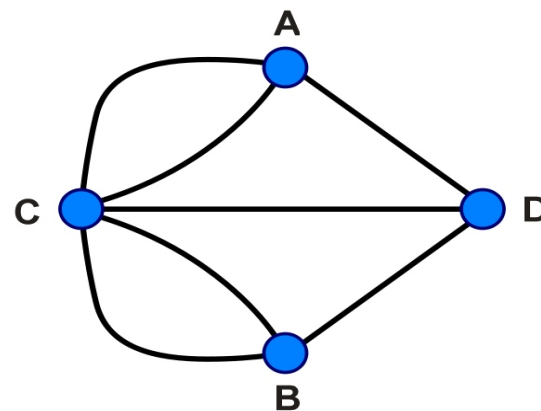
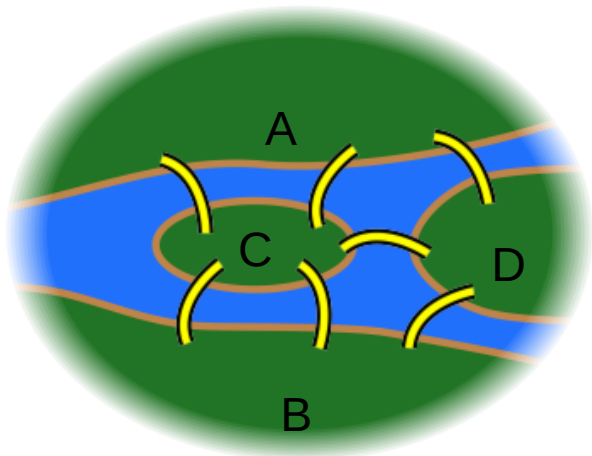
- **Edges** are directional (as in directed graphs): each edge has **an initial vertex and a terminal vertex**.
- Edges for which the initial and terminal vertex are the same are called **loops**.
- The same pair of vertices may be connected by multiple edges.
- Useful to represent a “flux” in which the number and identity of “connection channels” matter

# Undirected multigraphs

- **Edges** are non-directional: an edge connects 2 vertices (called the **endpoints**) **without distinguishing between an initial vertex and a terminal vertex.** 
- Edges connecting a vertex with itself are called **loops**.
- The same pair of vertices may be connected by multiple edges.
- Useful to represent “connections” in which the number and identity of “connection channels” matter

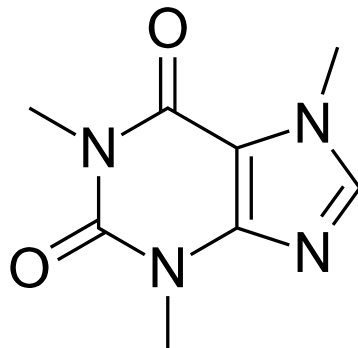
# Example

- **Königsberg bridges** (the problem which founded topology):
- The city of Königsberg in Prussia was set on both sides of a River, and included two islands which were connected to each other, or to the two mainland portions of the city, by seven bridges. The problem was to devise a walk through the city that would cross each of those bridges once and only once.



# Example

- Graph representation of molecules



Molecular structure of caffeine.

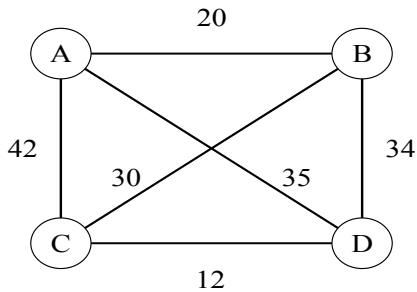
By Vaccinationist - Own work, based on PubChem,  
Public Domain, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=54417143>

# Weighted (multi)graphs

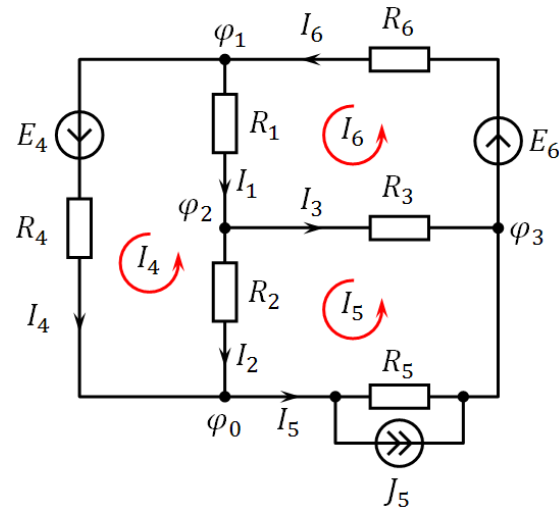
- A number (the weight) is assigned to each edge. The weight might represent lengths, or any other quantity associated with the edge.
- Weights can be applied to directed or undirected graphs or multigraphs

# Example

- **Travelling salesman problem:** Given a list of cities, what is the shortest possible route that visits each city exactly once and returns to the origin city?
- **weighted undirected graph:** vertices = cities, edges = routes, labels = distances
- **Electric circuits:** weighted directed multigraph: vertices = intersections, edges = actual wires, labels = electric currents



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<https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=17509343>

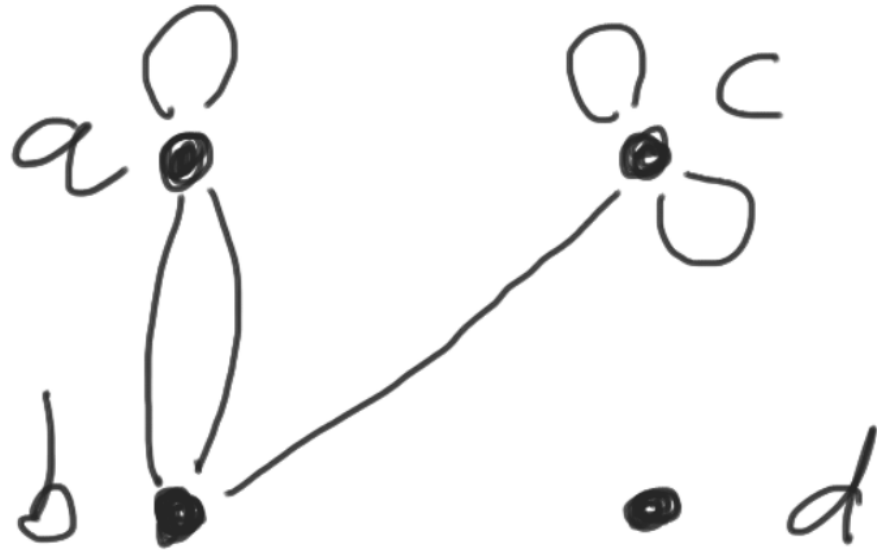
# Degrees in undirected graphs

- Two vertices in an undirected (multi)graph  $G = (V, E)$  are called **adjacent** (or neighbours of each other) if there is an edge connecting them.
- The **neighbourhood** of a vertex  $v$  is the set  $N(v)$  of all vertices adjacent to  $v$ . If  $A$  is a subset of  $V$ , the **neighbourhood** of  $A$  is the set  $N(A)$  of all all vertices adjacent to at least one  $v \in A$ , that is:

$$N(A) = \bigcup_{v \in A} N(v)$$

- The **degree** of a vertex  $v$  in an undirected (multi)graph (denoted  $\deg(v)$ ) is the number of edges having  $v$  as endpoint (counting loops twice)

# Example



- $\deg(a) = 4$ ;  $N(a) = \{a, b\}$
- $\deg(b) = 3$ ;  $N(b) = \{a, c\}$   
*loop counts as 2.*
- $\deg(c) = 5$ ;  $N(c) = \{b, c\}$
- $\deg(d) = 0$ ;  $N(d) = \emptyset$
- (a and c are neighbours of themselves thanks to the loops)



# Theorem

- **Handshaking Theorem**: for any undirected (multi)graph  $G = (V, E)$ ,

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

- Proof: each edge has 2 endpoints, so the sum of all the vertex degrees is twice the number of edges.
- Corollary: the sum of the degrees of the vertices of an undirected (multi)graph is even

# Example consequences

- If at a meeting of 19 people everybody shakes hands with everybody else (only once), how many handshakes happen?
- SOL: introduce a graph with vertices  $V = \{\text{people at the meeting}\}$ , edges  $E = \{\text{handshakes}\}$ .
- There are 19 vertices; each is connected to any other vertex via 1 edge. So each vertex has degree 18.
- By the handshaking theorem,  $2|E| = 19 \cdot 18$
- Therefore  $|E| = 19 \cdot 9 = 171$ .

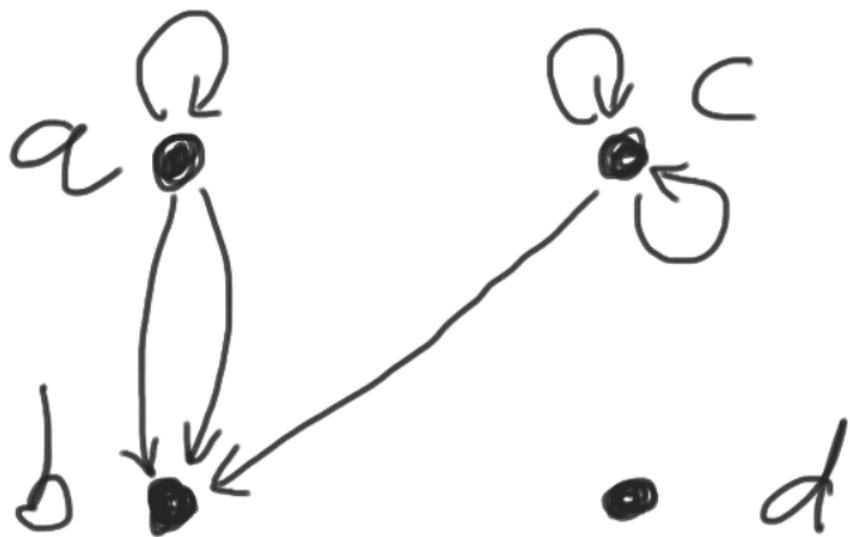
# Example consequences

- Can there be a (multi)graph with 7 vertices, all of degree 3?
  - No: if such a graph existed, the sum of the degrees of the vertices would be  $3 \cdot 7 = 21$  which is odd.
- Can there be a (multi)graph in which the number of vertices of odd degree is odd?
  - No: if such a graph existed, the sum of the degrees of its vertices would be odd [why?].
- So a (multi)graph can only have an even number of vertices of odd degree.

# Degrees in directed graphs

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

# Example



- $\deg^-(a) = 1$ ;  $\deg^+(a) = 3$
- $\deg^-(b) = 3$ ;  $\deg^+(b) = 0$
- $\deg^-(c) = 2$ ;  $\deg^+(c) = 3$
- $\deg^-(d) = 0$ ;  $\deg^+(d) = 0$

# Theorem

- For any directed (multi)graph  $G = (V, E)$ ,

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

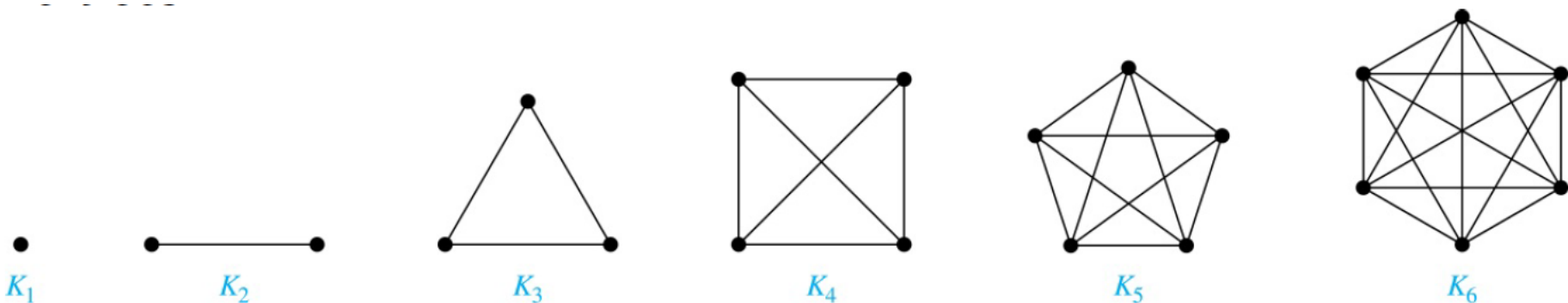
- Proof: Each edge has precisely 1 initial vertex and precisely 1 terminal vertex, so the number of edges matches the number of terminal vertices (1<sup>st</sup> sum) and the number of initial vertices (2<sup>nd</sup> sum).

## 2. SOME SPECIAL GRAPHS

# Complete graphs

- A **complete graph** on  $n$  vertices, denoted by  $K_n$ , is an undirected (simple) graph in which there is exactly one edge between each pair of distinct vertices.

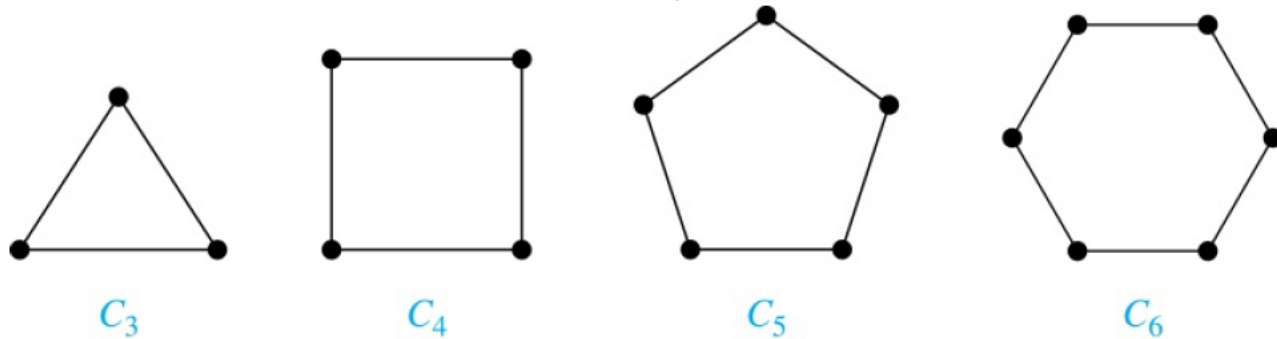
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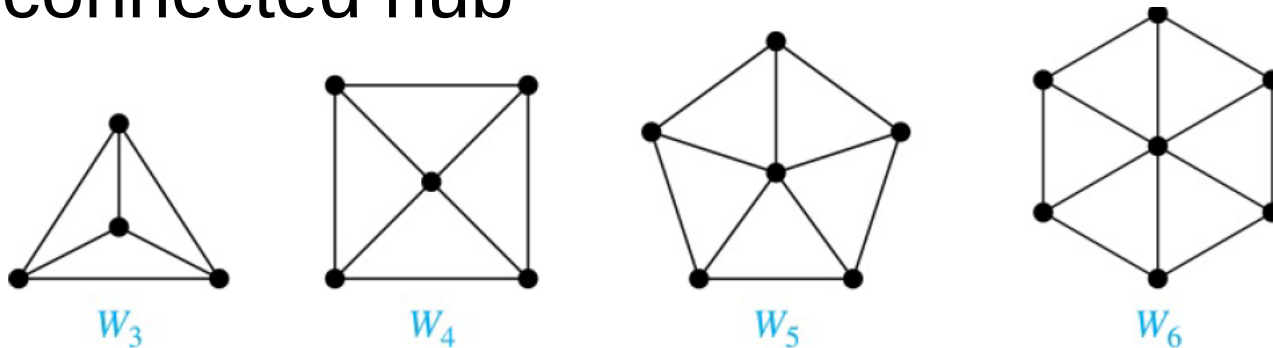
# Cycles and wheels

- A **cycle**  $C_n$  ( $n \geq 3$ ) is an undirected (simple) graph made of  $n$  vertices, in which each vertex is connected to the previous and the following one, and the last vertex is connected with the 1st.
- Used to model local area networks



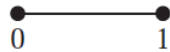
# Cycles and wheels

- A **wheel**  $W_n$  ( $n \geq 3$ ) is an undirected (simple) graph built adding one additional vertex to the cycle  $C_n$  and connecting the new vertex to all the other vertices.
- Used to model local area networks with a central highly-connected hub

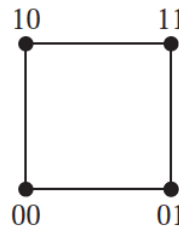


# Cubes

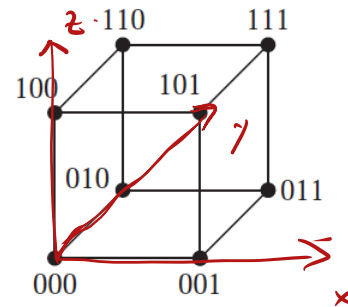
- An  $n$ -cube, or  $n$ -dimensional hypercube, is a graph  $Q_n$  whose vertices can be associated to the  $2^n$  bit strings of length  $n$ . Two vertices are adjacent if and only if the bit strings that they represent differ in exactly one bit.
- Used to arrange several microprocessors in parallel computing



$Q_1$



$Q_2$



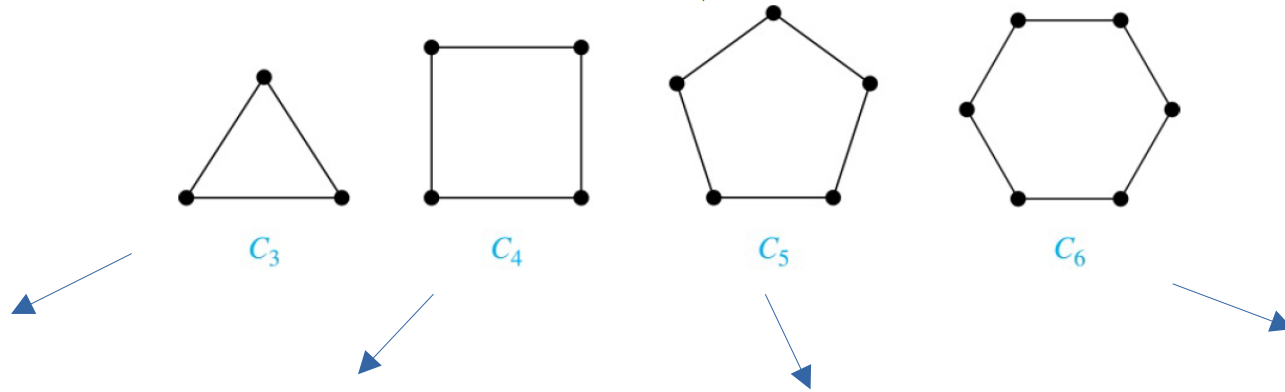
$Q_3$

# Bipartite graphs

- An undirected simple graph  $G = (V, E)$  is <sup>二部图</sup>bipartite if  $V$  can be partitioned into 2 (disjoint) subsets  $A$  and  $B$  such that every edge connects a vertex in  $A$  and a vertex in  $B$ . That is, there are no edges between either two vertices in  $A$  or two vertices in  $B$ .
- Graphically, an undirected simple graph is bipartite if we can colour its vertices with 2 colours in such a way that there are no edges between vertices of the same colour.

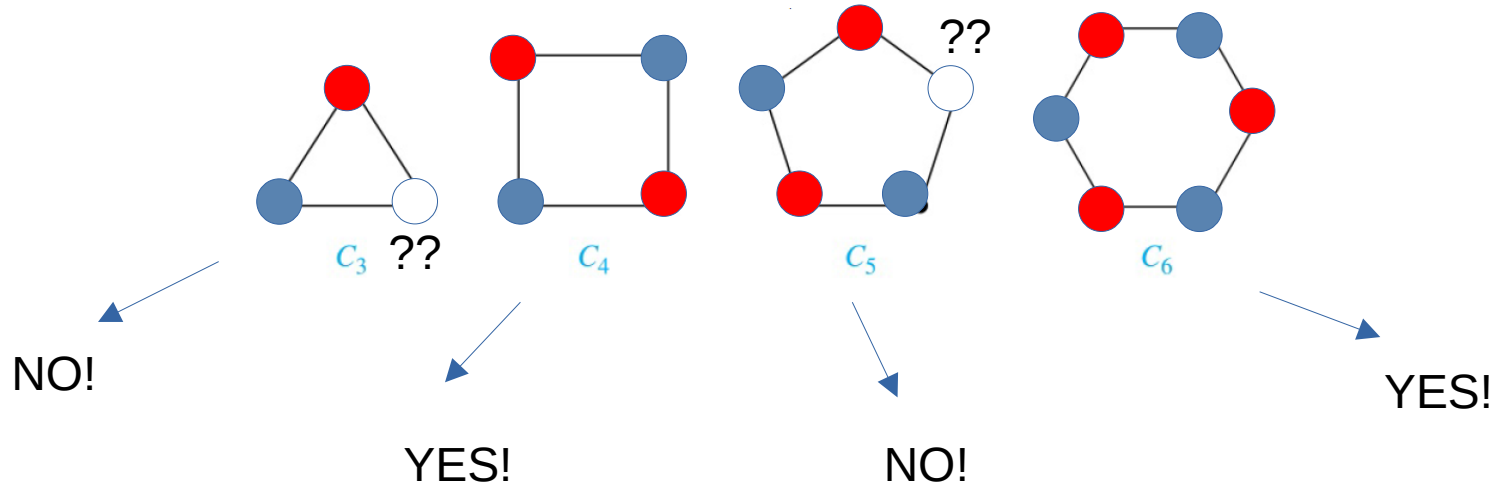
# Bipartite graphs

- EX: which of the following is bipartite?



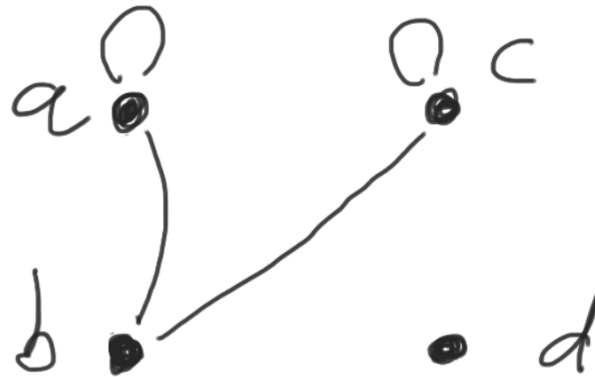
# Bipartite graphs

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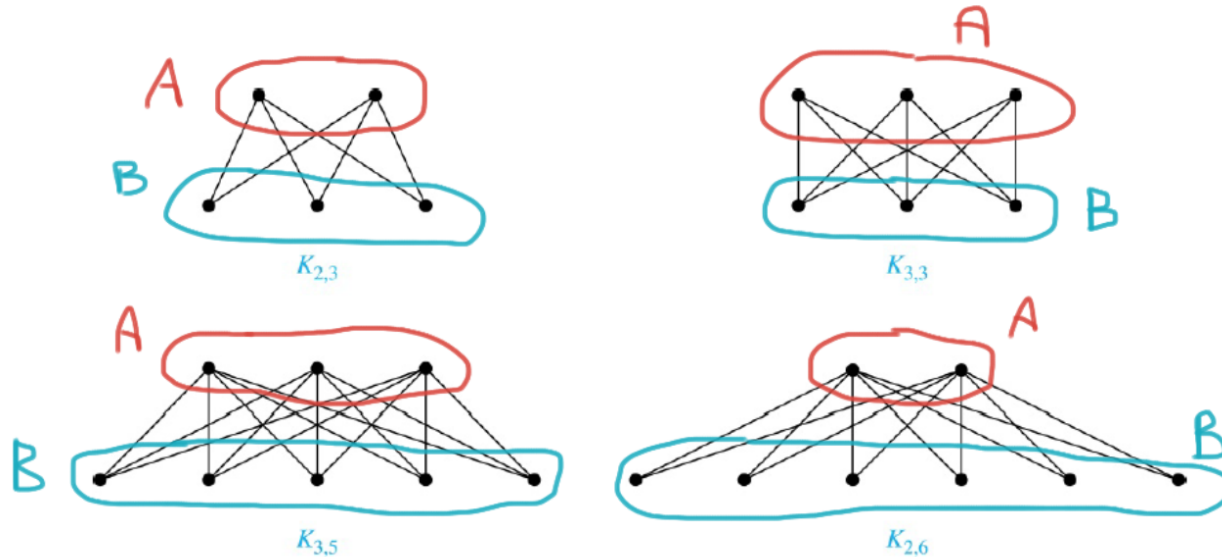
# Bipartite graphs

- A graph with loops cannot be bipartite: no matter what colour you assign to a vertex with a loop, the loop would connect 2 vertices with the same colour (the same vertex!).



# Bipartite graphs

- A **complete bipartite graph**  $K_{m,n}$  is a bipartite graph that has its vertex set partitioned into two subsets A of size m and B of size n, such that each vertex in A is connected to all and only the vertices in B. That is, there are no edges between vertices in A or between vertices in B, and there is 1 edge between every vertex in A and every vertex in B.





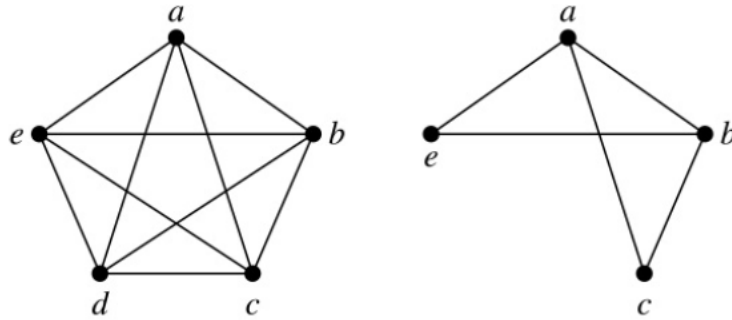
# 3. OPERATIONS ON GRAPHS

# Subgraphs

- A **sub(multi)graph** of a (multi)graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a (multi)graph  $H = (W, F)$  with  $\underline{W \subseteq V}$  and  $\underline{F \subseteq E}$ . A sub(multi)graph  $H$  of  $G$  is a **proper** sub(multi)graph of  $G$  if  $H \neq G$ .
- Let  $G = (V; E)$  be a (simple) graph and  $W \subseteq V$ . The subgraph **induced** by  $W$  is the graph  $(W; F)$ , where the edge set  $F$  contains those edges in  $E$  both endpoints of which are in  $W$ .

# Subgraphs

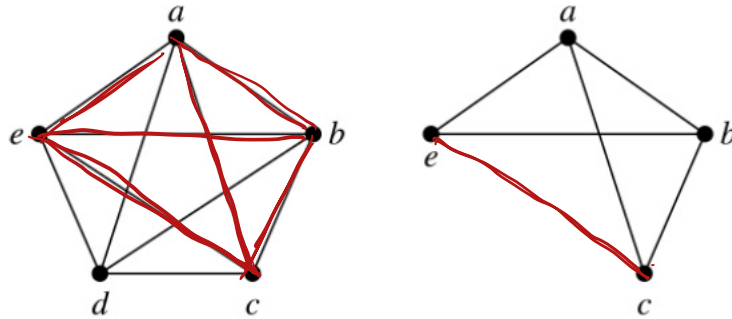
- EX: The picture shows a  $K_5$  and a subgraph on the subset of vertices  $W = \{a, b, c, e\}$



- Is the subgraph induced by  $W$ ?

# Subgraphs

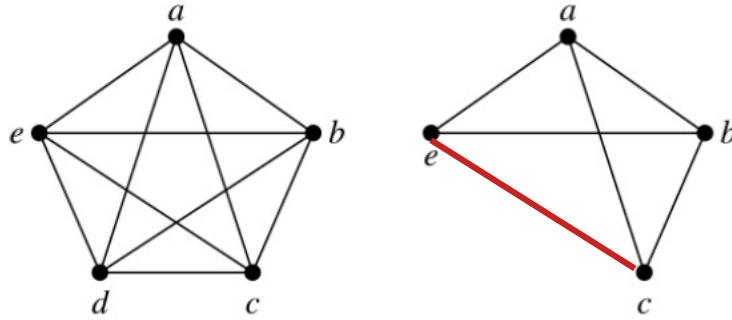
- EX: The picture shows a  $K_5$  and a subgraph on the subset of vertices  $W = \{a, b, c, e\}$



- Is the subgraph induced by  $W$ ?
- No, because  $e$  and  $c$  are both in  $W$ , but the subgraph misses the edge between them

# Subgraphs

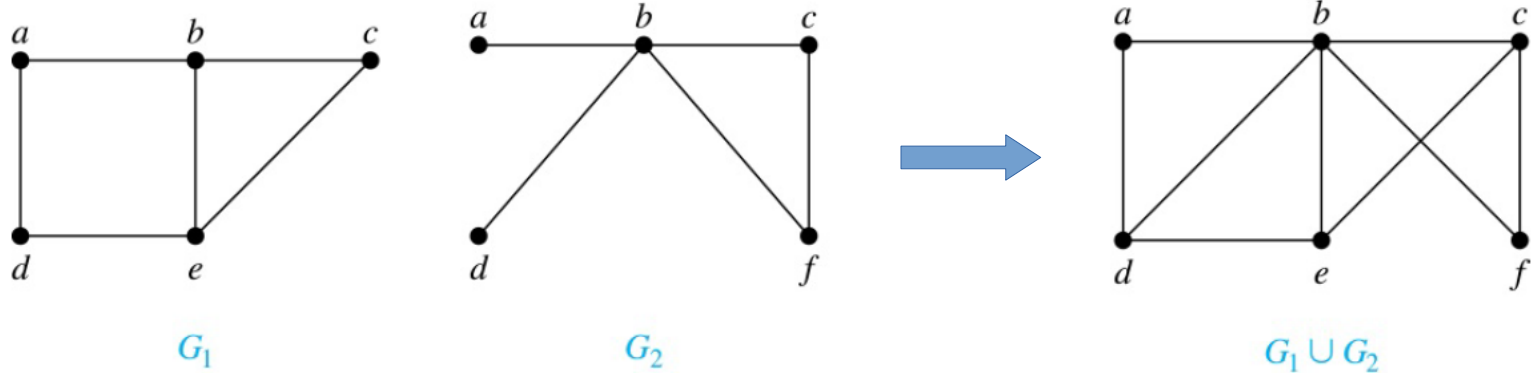
- The subgraph induced by  $W$  is the following (on the right)



# Unions of graphs

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

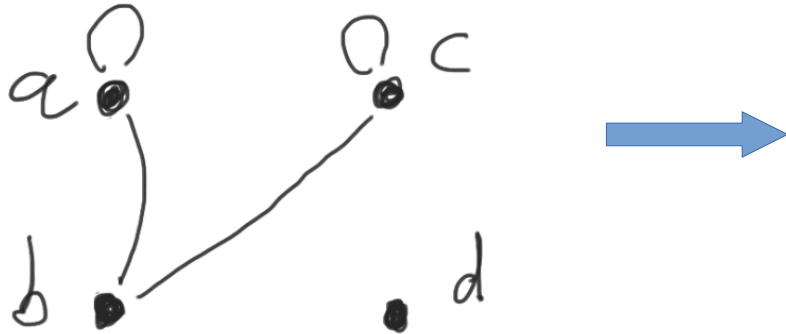
• EX:



## 4. REPRESENTING GRAPHS

# Adjacency lists

- An adjacency list is a table specifying the vertices that are adjacent to each vertex of the graph.
- EX (undirected graph):

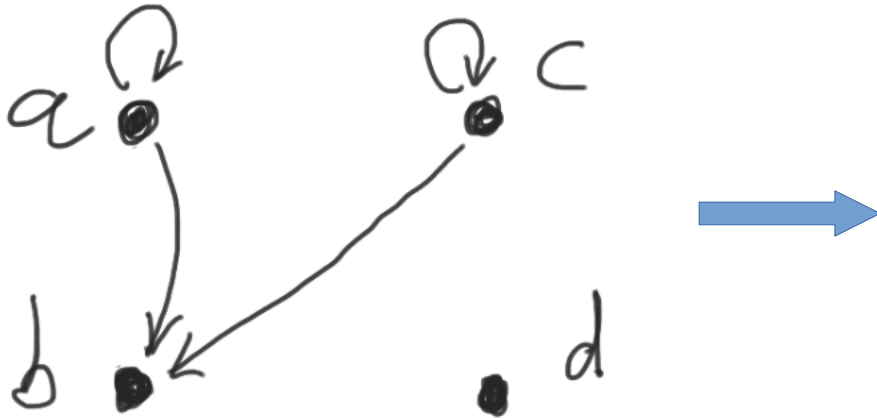


vertex	Adjacent vertices
a	a,b
b	a,c
c	b,c
d	/



# Adjacency lists

- For directed graphs, we distinguish between initial and terminal vertices.
- EX (directed graph):



Initial vertex	terminal vertices
a	a,b
b	a,c
c	b,c
d	/

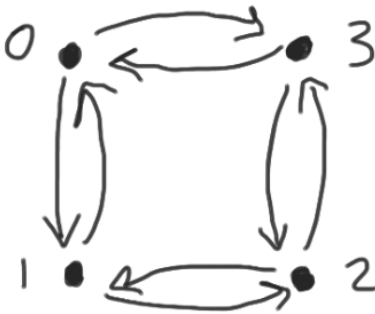
# Adjacency matrices

- Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a **directed** graph. Assume  $|V| = n$  and choose an ordering  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices in  $V$ .
- The adjacency matrix of  $G$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A_G = [a_{ij}]$  with

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (v_i, v_j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- That is,  $a_{ij} = 1$  iff there is an edge with initial vertex  $v_i$  and terminal vertex  $v_j$
- The adjacency matrix depends on the chosen ordering of the vertices

# Adjacency matrices

- EX: let  $G =$  

- With the ordering 0,1,2,3

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

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# Adjacency matrices

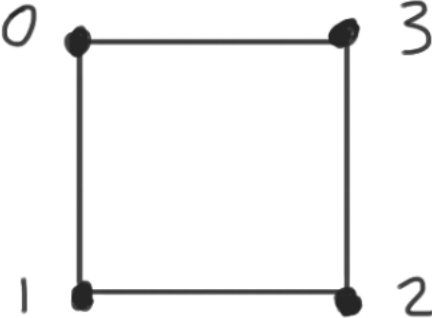
- Let  $G = (V, E)$  be an **undirected** graph. Assume  $|V| = n$  and choose an ordering  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices in  $V$ .

- The adjacency matrix of  $G$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A_G = [a_{ij}]$  with

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } E \text{ contains an edge between } v_i \text{ and } v_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Note that the adjacency matrix of an undirected graph is symmetric by construction
- The adjacency matrix depends on the chosen ordering of the vertices

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

# Adjacency matrices

- The previous 2 examples also show that we can think of undirected graphs as directed graphs in which the edge set is a **symmetric** binary relation, that is, directed graphs with the property that, whenever  $(a,b)$  is an edge,  $(b,a)$  is an edge as well

# Adjacency matrices

- Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a **directed multigraph**. Assume  $|V| = n$  and choose an ordering  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices in  $V$ .
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$$a_{ij} = \text{number of edges with initial vertex } v_i \text{ and terminal vertex } v_j$$
- The adjacency matrix depends on the chosen ordering of the vertices

# Adjacency matrices

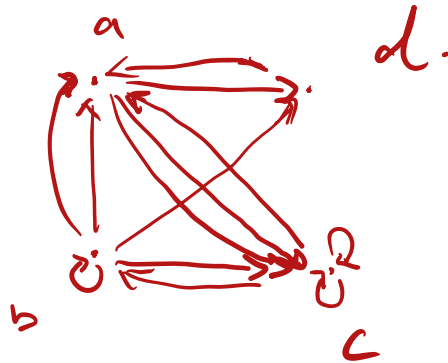
- Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a **undirected multigraph**. Assume  $|V| = n$  and choose an ordering  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices in  $V$ .
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 $a_{ij}$  = number of edges between vertices  $v_i$  and  $v_j$
- Note that the adjacency matrix of an undirected multigraph is symmetric by construction
- The adjacency matrix depends on the chosen ordering of the vertices



# Adjacency matrices

- EX: construct a graph with adjacency matrix

$$A_G = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c & d \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} a \\ b \\ c \\ d \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$



# Adjacency matrices

- EX: construct a graph with adjacency matrix

$$A_G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Preliminary remarks:
  - the matrix is not symmetric, so the graph is directed
  - the matrix contains entries = 2, so it is a multigraph

# Adjacency matrices

- EX: construct a graph with adjacency matrix

$$A_G = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



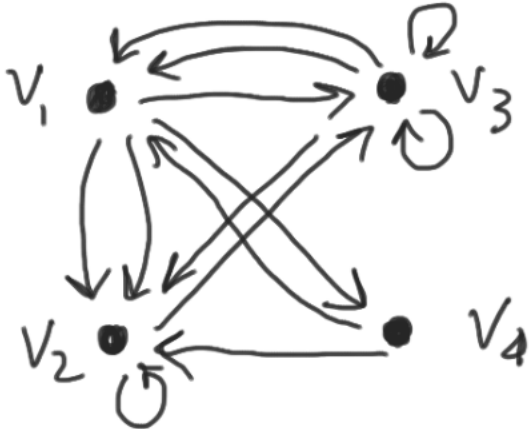
# Adjacency matrices

- EX: construct a graph with adjacency matrix

$$A_G = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

A different  
order

→



# Incidence matrices

- Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a directed (multi)graph. Assume  $|V| = n$  and choose an ordering  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices in  $V$ . Assume  $|E| = k$  and choose an ordering  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  of the edges in  $E$
- The incidence matrix of  $G$  is the  $n \times k$  matrix  $M_G = [m_{ij}]$  with

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } v_i \text{ is the initial vertex of } e_j \\ 1 & \text{if } v_i \text{ is the terminal vertex of } e_j \\ 0 & \text{if } e_j \text{ is a loop on } v_i, \text{ or if } v_i \text{ is unrelated to } e_j \end{cases}$$

- The adjacency matrix depends on the chosen orderings of the vertices and of the edges

# Incidence matrices

- Let  $G = (V, E)$  be an undirected (multi)graph. Assume  $|V| = n$  and choose an ordering  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices in  $V$ . Assume  $|E| = k$  and choose an ordering  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  of the edges in  $E$
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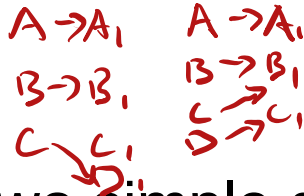
$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } e_j \text{ is a loop at } v_i \\ 1 & \text{if } e_j \text{ is not a loop and } v_i \text{ is one of its endpoints} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- The adjacency matrix depends on the chosen orderings of the vertices and of the edges

# 5. PROPERTIES OF GRAPHS

双射: 映射且满射

同构



# Graph isomorphisms

- Two simple graphs  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$  are **isomorphic** if there is a bijective function  $f : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$  with the property that, for any two vertices  $a, b \in V_1$ , there is an edge from  $a$  to  $b$  in  $G_1$  if and only if there is an edge from  $f(a)$  to  $f(b)$  in  $G_2$ . Such a function  $f$  is called an **isomorphism of graphs**.
- Sometimes it is easy to show two graphs are not isomorphic finding a property, preserved by isomorphism (a so-called **graph invariant**), that only one of the two graphs has. Examples of graph invariants: number of vertices, number of edges, degree sequence (list of the degrees of the vertices in non-increasing order).

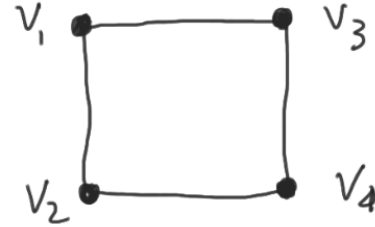


# Graph isomorphisms

- EX: The 2 graphs



and



are

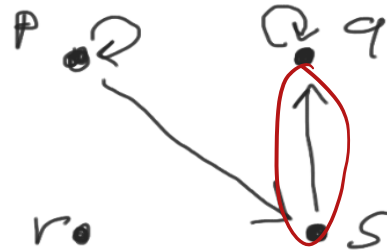
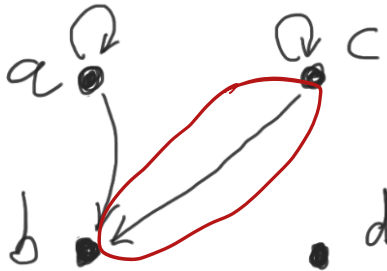
- An isomorphism is given by

$$f : \{a,b,c,d\} \rightarrow \{v_1,v_2,v_3,v_4\}, f(a)=v_1, f(b)=v_2, f(c)=v_4, f(d)=v_3.$$

- a is adjacent to b and d, and  $f(a)=v_1$  is adjacent to  $f(b)=v_2$  and  $f(d)=v_3$ .
- b is adjacent to a and c, and  $f(b)=v_2$  is adjacent to  $f(a)=v_1$  and  $f(c)=v_4$ .
- Etc.

# Graph isomorphisms

- EX: The following 2 graphs are not isomorphic



- In fact, the in-and out-degrees don't match:
  - The sequence of out-degrees for G is 0,0,2,2 (corresponding to the vertex ordering d,b,a,c)
  - The sequence of out-degrees for G is 0,1,1,2 (corresponding to the vertex ordering r,q,s,p)

# Graph isomorphisms

- Checking whether two graphs are isomorphic by brute force is long and painful.
- The best known algorithms for determining whether two graphs are isomorphic have exponential worst-case time complexity (in the number of vertices)...
- ... but linear average-case time complexity.
- Graph isomorphism is a problem of special interest because it is NP, but it is not known to be either NP-complete or not.

# Application of graph isomorphisms

- When a new chemical compound is synthesized, it is checked against a database of molecular graphs to determine whether the graph representing the new compound is isomorphic to the graph of an already known compound.
- Graph isomorphisms are used in electric circuit analysis to check
  - whether a particular layout of a circuit corresponds to the design's original schematics.
  - whether a chip from one producer includes the intellectual property of another producer.

# Paths

- Informally, a path in a graph is a sequence of edges that begins at a vertex, travels from vertex to vertex along edges of the graph, and ends up at another vertex.
- **BEWARE**: other sources (e.g. Wikipedia) use a different terminology, so check which definitions are adopted in the book/article/project you have at hands

# Paths

- A **path of length  $n$**  in an **undirected** (multi)graph is a sequence of  $n$  edges  $(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$  such that, for all  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ ,  $e_i$  and  $e_{i+1}$  have a common endpoint. In other words, there exists a sequence  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n)$  of vertices such that, for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $e_i$  has the endpoints  $v_{i-1}$  and  $v_i$ . In this case we speak of a **path from  $v_0$  to  $v_n$** . If the graph is simple, we can unambiguously identify a path with the sequence of vertices  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n)$  it passes through.
- A **circuit** is a path of length  $\geq 0$  from a vertex to itself.
- A path or circuit is **simple** if it does not have repeated edges.

# Paths

- A **path of length  $n$**  in a **directed** (multi)graph is a sequence of  $n$  edges  $(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)$  such that, for all  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ , the terminal vertex of  $e_i$  coincides with the initial vertex of  $e_{i+1}$ . In other words, there exists a sequence  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n)$  of vertices such that, for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $e_i$  has initial vertex  $v_{i-1}$  and terminal vertex  $v_i$ . In this case we speak of a **path from  $v_0$  to  $v_n$** . If the graph is simple, we can unambiguously identify a path with the sequence of vertices  $(v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n)$  it passes through.
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Circuit: 

Simple circuit:  else: 

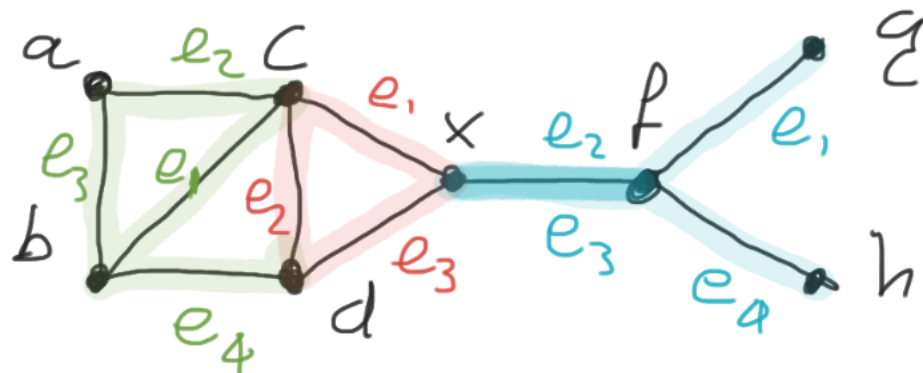
# Paths

- **BEWARE:** other sources (e.g. Wikipedia) use a different terminology, so check which definitions are adopted in the book/article/project you have at hands



# Examples

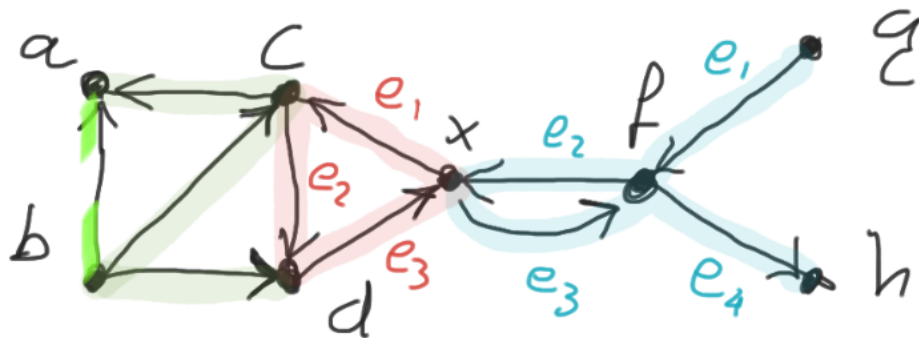
- In the following undirected simple graph



- $(g, f, x, f, h)$  is a path of length 4 which is not a circuit ( $g \neq h$ ) nor simple (it goes through the edge  $xf$  twice)
- $(b, c, a, b, d)$  is a simple path of length 4
- $(x, c, d, x)$  is a simple circuit of length 3

# Examples

- In the following directed simple graph



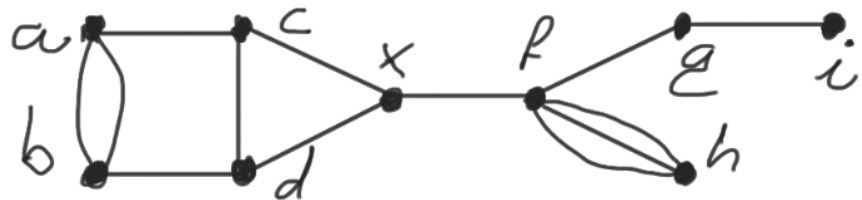
- (g,f,x,f,h) is a simple path of length 4 which is not a circuit ( $g \neq h$ ) (note that (f,x) and (x,f) count as distinct edges)
- (b,c,a,b,d) is **not** a path ((a,b) is not an edge)
- (x,c,d,x) is a simple circuit of length 3

# Connectivity (undirected)

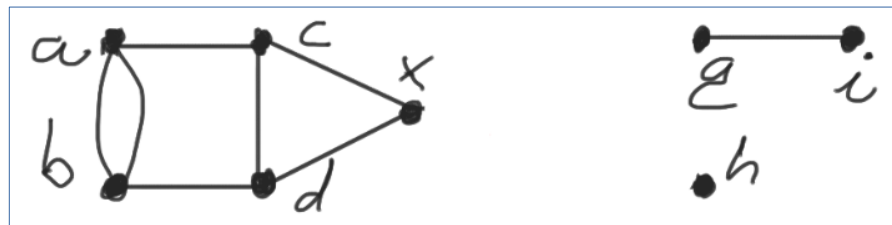
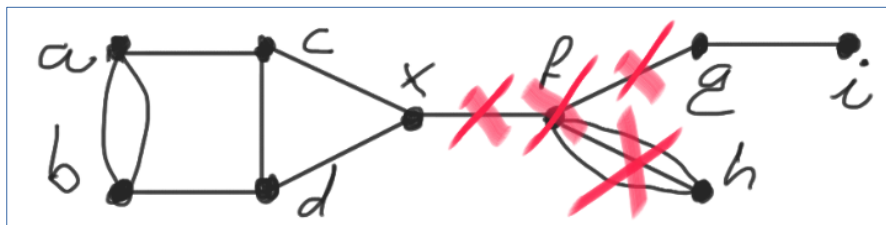
- An undirected (multi)graph is **connected** if between every pair of vertices there is (at least) one path. Otherwise the graph is **disconnected**.
- The **connected components** of a (multi)graph are its maximal (w.r.t. inclusion) connected subgraphs (if a graph is connected, its only connected component is itself).
- We say that we **disconnect a (multi)graph** when we remove vertices or edges to produce a subgraph which is disconnected.

# Examples

- This is a connected multigraph:

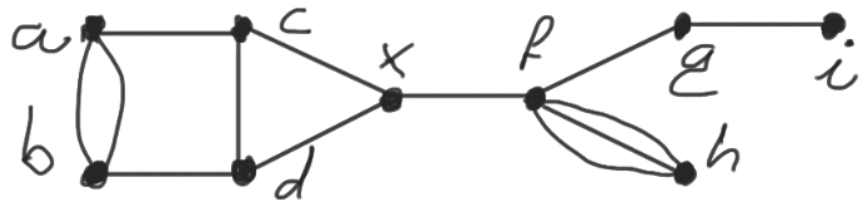


- If we remove the vertex  $f$  (and therefore all the edges with endpoint  $f$ ), we disconnect the multigraph:

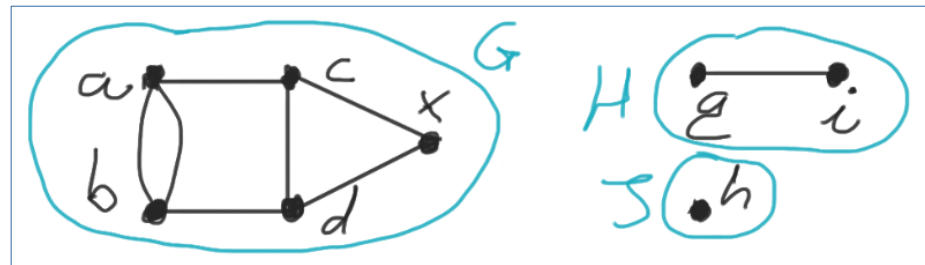
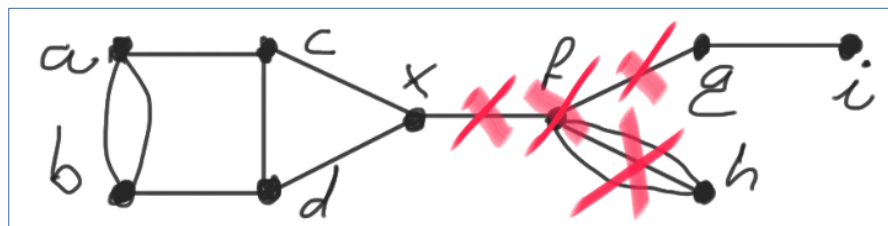


# Examples

- This is a connected multigraph:



- If we remove the vertex  $f$  (and therefore all the edges with endpoint  $f$ ), we disconnect the multigraph:



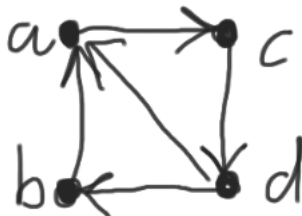
- The new graph has 3 connected components: the subgraphs  $G$ ,  $H$ ,  $J$

# Connectivity (directed)

- A directed (multi)graph is **strongly connected** if between every pair of vertices there is (at least) one path. The graph is **weakly connected** if the **underlying undirected graph**, which is the undirected graph obtained by ignoring the directions of the edges of the directed graph, is connected. Otherwise the graph is **disconnected**.
- The **strongly connected** components of a directed (multi)graph are its maximal (w.r.t. inclusion) strongly connected subgraphs. Its **weakly connected** components are the connected components of its underlying undirected graph.

# Examples

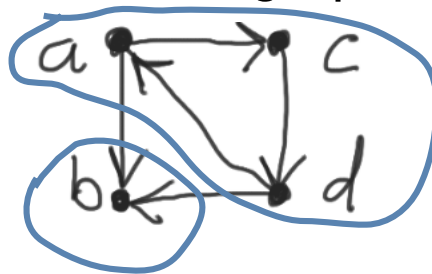
- The directed graph



is strongly connected: starting from any vertex we can reach any other vertex going around the square (although this may not give the shortest path).

- Its only strongly connected component is itself.

- The directed graph

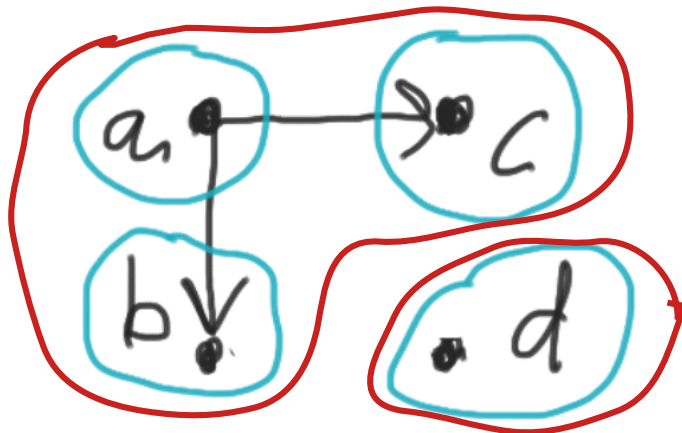


is weakly but not strongly connected: e.g. there is no path from b to any vertex.

- It has 2 strongly connected components, circled in blue.
- It has 1 weakly connected component (the graph itself).

# Examples

- The directed graph



is neither weakly nor strongly connected. It has 4 strongly connected components (the isolated vertices with no edges, circled in blue). It has 2 weakly connected components: the subgraph induced by  $\{a, b, c\}$  and the isolated vertex  $d$  (circled in red).



# Counting paths between vertices

- **Awesome theorem:** Let  $G$  be a directed or undirected (multi)graph on  $n$  vertices with adjacency matrix  $A$  (with respect to the vertex ordering  $v_1, \dots, v_n$ ).

For any integer  $k > 0$ , the number of distinct paths of length  $k$  from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$  is equal to the  $(i,j)$  entry of  $A^k$ .

- The proof is by induction on  $k$ .

# Counting paths between vertices

- EX: the directed multigraph



Has adjacency matrix  
(w.r.t. the ordering a,b,c)

$$A = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

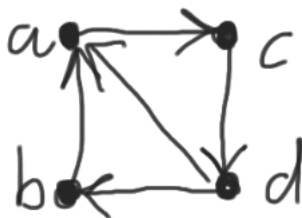
- Since  $\underline{A}^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 4 & 10 \\ 6 & 4 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ , there are 4 circuits of length 3 starting (and ending) at b.

# Euler paths and circuits

- How did Leonard Euler solve the Königsberg bridges problem?
- Let  $G$  be a directed or undirected (multi)graph.
- An **Euler path** in  $G$  is a simple path containing every edge of  $G$ .
- An **Euler circuit** in a graph  $G$  is a simple circuit containing every edge of  $G$ .

# Examples

- The directed graph



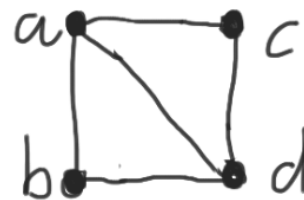
has exactly 1 Euler path (d,a,c,d,b,a) and no Euler circuits

↑

Euler circuit:

1. start & end at same vertex (Circuit).
2. simple
3. contain every edge.

- The undirected graph



has 12 Euler paths (you can check that they ought to start at either a or d and end at the other) and no Euler circuit

# Conditions for Euler paths and circuits

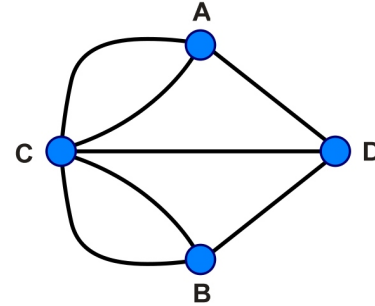
- An **undirected graph** has an Euler cycle <sup>277</sup>if and only if every vertex has even degree, and all of its vertices with nonzero degree belong to a single connected component.
- In fact, each time the circuit passes through a vertex, it contributes +2 to the vertex's degree (this is true for the start vertex as well, since it is also the end vertex).
- The same reasoning shows that the start vertex and the end vertex of an Euler path have odd degree, while every other vertex has even degree. That is, If a graph has an Euler path (but not an Euler circuit), then all of its vertices with nonzero degree belong to a single connected component, and exactly two of its vertices have an odd degree.

# Conditions for Euler paths and circuits

- A **directed graph** has an Euler cycle iff all of its vertices with nonzero degree belong to a single strongly connected component, and every vertex has equal in-degree and out-degree.
- A directed graph has an Euler path (but not an Euler cycle) iff all of its vertices with nonzero degree belong to a single strongly connected component, and exactly 1 vertex has  $(\text{out-degree}) - (\text{in-degree}) = 1$ , and exactly 1 vertex has  $(\text{in-degree}) - (\text{out-degree}) = 1$

# Königsberg, solved

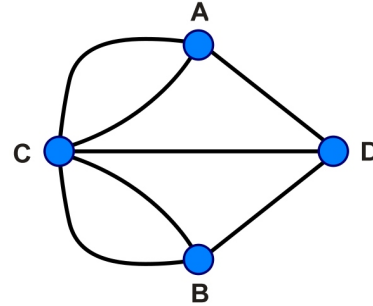
- Is it possible to walk over all 7 bridges exactly once and return at the starting point?
- That is, is there an Euler circuit in the Königsberg multigraph?



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# Königsberg, solved

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- That is, is there an Euler circuit in the Königsberg multigraph?
- NO! all 4 vertices have odd degrees, so there is not even an Euler *path*.

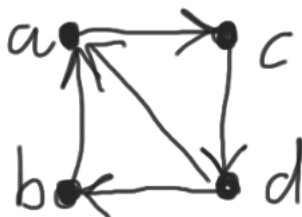


# Hamilton paths and circuits

- (Euler) : (edges) = (Hamilton) : (vertices)
- Let  $G$  be a directed or undirected (multi)graph.
- A **Hamilton path** in  $G$  is a simple path passing through every vertex of  $G$  exactly once.
- A **Hamilton circuit** in  $G$  is a simple circuit passing through the start vertex exactly twice (at the beginning and at the end) and through every other vertex of  $G$  exactly once.

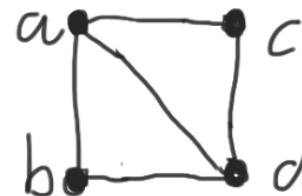
# Examples

- The directed graph



- has 4 Hamilton circuits:  
(a,c,d,b,a), (c,d,b,a,c),  
(d,b,a,c,d), (b,a,c,d,b) and 4  
additional Hamilton paths  
(a,c,d,b), (c,d,b,a), (d,b,a,c),  
(b,a,c,d)

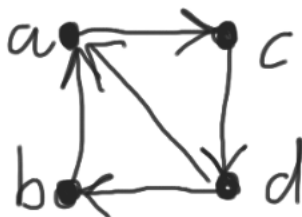
- The undirected graph



- has 8 Hamilton circuits (2  
starting at each vertex, and  
running along the perimeter of  
the square in either direction)  
and 8 additional Hamilton paths  
obtained removing the last edge  
from a circuit.

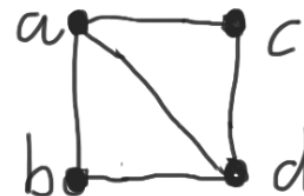
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# Conditions for Hamilton paths and circuits

- Unlike for Euler paths and circuits, no simple necessary and sufficient conditions are known for the existence of Hamilton paths and circuits. However, various sufficient conditions have been proved.
- **Theorem** [G. A. Dirac]: If  $G$  is an undirected simple graph with  $n \geq 3$  vertices such that the degree of every vertex in  $G$  is  $\geq n/2$ , then  $G$  has a Hamilton circuit.
- **Theorem** [Ghouila-Houri]: If  $G$  is a strongly connected directed simple graph with  $n$  vertices such that each vertex has both out-degree and in-degree at least  $n/2$ , then  $G$  has a Hamilton circuit.

# Travelling salesman problem

- Recall the problem: Given a list of cities, what is the shortest possible route that visits each city exactly once and returns to the origin city?
- The problem is represented as a weighted undirected graph:
  - vertices = cities,
  - edges = routes,
  - weights = distances
- This problem reduces to finding a Hamilton circuit such that the total sum of the weights of its edges is as small as possible.