Administrivia

- Assignment 1 due 23:59 tomorrow.
- Quiz 4 up tonight, due 15:00 Thursday 31 August.

Lecture 3: Recap

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- Equivalence relations: (S), (R), (T)
- Total orders: (AS), (R), (T), (L)
- Partial orders: (AS), (R), (T)
 - Hasse diagrams
 - lub, glb
 - Topological sort
- Matrices
 - Transpose
 - Sum and product

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COMP9020 Lecture 4 Session 2, 2017 Graphs and Trees

- Textbook (R & W) Ch. 3, Sec. 3.2; Ch. 6, Sec. 6.1–6.5
- Problem set 4
- Supplementary Exercises Ch. 6 (R & W)
- A. Aho & J. Ullman. Foundations of Computer Science in C, p. 522–526 (Ch. 9, Sec. 9.10)

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Bridges of Königsberg problem



Can you find a route which crosses each bridge exactly once?

Five rooms problem



Can you find a route which passes through each door exactly once?

Crossed house problem



Can you draw this without taking your pen off the paper?

Bridges of Königsberg problem



Can you find a route which crosses each bridge exactly once?

Bridges of Königsberg problem



Can you find a route which crosses each bridge exactly once?

Graphs in Computer Science

Examples

- The WWW can be considered a massive graph where the nodes are web pages and arcs are hyperlinks.
- O The possible states of a program form a directed graph.
- O Circuit components and their connections form a graph.
- Social networks can be viewed as a graph where the nodes are users and the edges are connections.
- The map of the earth can be represented as an undirected graph where edges delineate countries.

Graphs in Computer Science

Applications of graphs in Computer Science are abundant, e.g.

- route planning in navigation systems, robotics
- optimisation, e.g. timetables, utilisation of network structures, bandwidth allocation
- compilers using "graph colouring" to assign registers to program variables
- circuit layout (Untangle game)
- determining the significance of a web page (Google's pagerank algorithm)
- modelling the spread of a virus in a computer network or news in social network

Graphs

Terminology (the most common; there are many variants): **Graph** — pair (V, E) where V – set of vertices (or nodes) E – set of edges

Undirected graph: Every edge $e \in E$ is a two-element set of vertices, i.e. $e = \{x, y\} \subseteq V$ where $x \neq y$

Directed graph: Every edge (or arc) $e \in E$ is an ordered pair of vertices, i.e. $e = (x, y) \in V \times V$, note x may equal y.

NB

Binary relations on finite sets correspond to directed graphs. Symmetric, antireflexive relations correspond to undirected graphs.

Graph: $V = \{a, b, c\}$ $E = \{\{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$

Pictorially:



Directed graph: $V = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$

Pictorially:



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Graph: $V = \{a, b, c\}$ $E = \{\{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$

Adjacency matrix:

Directed graph: $V = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$

Adjacency matrix:

$$\left(\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{rrr} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array}\right)$$

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Graph: $V = \{a, b, c\}$ $E = \{\{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$

Adjacency list:

Directed graph: $V = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$

Adjacency list:

$$1: 2$$

2: 3
 $3:$

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Graph: $V = \{a, b, c\}$ $E = \{\{a, b\}, \{b, c\}\}$

Incidence matrix (vertices=rows, edges=columns):

$$\left(\begin{array}{rrr}1&0\\1&1\\0&1\end{array}\right)$$

Directed graph: $V = \{1, 2, 3\}$ $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2)\}$

Incidence matrix (vertices=rows, edges=columns):

$$\left(egin{array}{ccc} -1 & 0 & 0 \ 1 & -1 & 1 \ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{array}
ight)$$

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Vertex Degrees (Undirected graphs)

• Degree of a vertex

$$\deg(v) = |\{ w \in V : \{v, w\} \in E \}|$$

i.e., the number of edges attached to the vertex

- Regular graph all degrees are equal
- Degree sequence $D_0, D_1, D_2, \dots, D_k$ of graph G = (V, E), where $D_i =$ no. of vertices of degree i

Question

What is $D_0 + D_1 + \ldots + D_k$?

- $\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 2 \cdot e(G)$; thus the sum of vertex degrees is always even.
- There is an even number of vertices of odd degree (6.1.8)

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Vertex Degrees (Directed graphs)

• Out-degree of a vertex

 $outdeg(v) = |\{ w \in V : (v, w) \in E \}|$

i.e., the number of edges going out of the vertex

In-degree of a vertex

$$indeg(v) = |\{ w \in V : (w, v) \in E \}|$$

i.e., the number of edges going in to the vertex

• $\sum_{v \in V} outdeg(v) = \sum_{v \in V} indeg(v) = e(G).$

Paths

• A (directed) path in a (directed) graph (V, E) is a sequence of edges that link up

$$v_0 \xrightarrow{\{v_0, v_1\}} v_1 \xrightarrow{\{v_1, v_2\}} \dots \xrightarrow{\{v_{n-1}, v_n\}} v_n$$

where $e_i = \{v_{i-1}, v_i\} \in E$ (or $e_i = (v_{i-1}, v_i) \in E$)

- length of the path is the number of edges: n neither the vertices nor the edges have to be all different
- Subpath of length $r: (e_m, e_{m+1}, \ldots, e_{m+r-1})$
- Path of length 0: single vertex v_0
- Connected graph (undirected) each pair of vertices joined by a path
- Strongly connected graph (directed) each pair of vertices joined by a directed path in both directions

6.1.13(a) Draw a connected, regular graph on four vertices, each of degree 2

6.1.13(b) Draw a connected, regular graph on four vertices, each of degree 3

6.1.13(c) Draw a connected, regular graph on five vertices, each of degree 3

6.1.14(b) Two graphs each with 4 vertices and 4 edges

6.1.13 Connected, regular graphs on four vertices



6.1.14 Graphs with 3 vertices and 3 edges must have a *cycle*



NB

We use the notation v(G) = |V| for the no. of vertices of graph G = (V, E)e(G) = |E| for the no. of edges of graph G = (V, E)

6.1.20(a) Graph with e(G) = 21 edges has a degree sequence $D_0 = 0, D_1 = 7, D_2 = 3, D_3 = 7, D_4 = ?$ Find v(G)

6.1.20(b) How would your answer change, if at all, when $D_0 = 6$?

6.1.20(a) Graph with e(G) = 21 edges has a degree sequence $D_0 = 0, D_1 = 7, D_2 = 3, D_3 = 7, D_4 = ?$ Find v(G)

$$\sum_{v} \deg(v) = 2|E|; \text{ here}$$

7 · 1 + 3 · 2 + 7 · 3 + x · 4 = 2 · 21 giving x = 2, thus
 $v(G) = \sum D_i = 19.$

6.1.20(b) How would your answer change, if at all, when $D_0 = 6$? No change to D_4 ; v(G) = 25.

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Cycles

Recall paths $v_0 \xrightarrow{e_1} v_1 \xrightarrow{e_2} \ldots \xrightarrow{e_n} v_n$

- simple path $e_i \neq e_j$ for all edges of the path $(i \neq j)$
- closed path $v_0 = v_n$
- cycle closed path, all other v_i pairwise distinct and $\neq v_0$
- *acyclic path* $v_i \neq v_j$ for *all* vertices in the path $(i \neq j)$

NB

- $C = (e_1, ..., e_n)$ is a cycle iff removing any single edge leaves an acyclic path. (Show that the 'any' condition is needed!)
- C is a cycle if it has the same number of edges and vertices and no proper subpath has this property.
 (Show that the 'subpath' condition is needed, i.e., there are graphs G that are not cycles and |E_G| = |V_G|; every such G must contain a cycle!)

Trees

- Acyclic graph graph that doesn't contain any cycle
- Tree connected acyclic [undirected]graph
- A graph is acyclic *iff* it is a *forest* (collection of disjoint trees)

NB

Graph G is a tree iff

- ⇔ it is acyclic and $|V_G| = |E_G| + 1$. (Show how this implies that the graph is connected!)
- \Leftrightarrow there is exactly one simple path between any two vertices.
- ⇔ G is connected, but becomes disconnected if any single edge is removed.
- ⇔ G is acyclic, but has a cycle if any single edge on already existing vertices is added.

Exercise (Supplementary)

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6.7.3 (Supp) Tree with *n* vertices, $n \ge 3$. Always true, false or could be either? (a) $e(T) \stackrel{?}{=} n$ (b) at least one vertex of deg 2 (c) at least two v_1, v_2 s.t. $deg(v_1)=deg(v_2)$ (d) exactly one path from v_1 to v_2

Exercise (Supplementary)

6.7.3 (Supp) Tree with *n* vertices, $n \ge 3$. Always true, false or could be either? (a) $e(T) \stackrel{?}{=} n$ — False (b) at least one vertex of deg 2 — Could be either (c) at least two v_1, v_2 s.t. $deg(v_1)=deg(v_2)$ — True (d) exactly one path from v_1 to v_2 — True (characterises a tree)

NB

A tree with one vertex designated as its root is called a rooted tree. It imposes an ordering on the edges: 'away' from the root — from parent nodes to children. This defines a level number (or: depth) of a node as its distance from the root. Another very common notion in Computer Science is that of a DAG — a directed, acyclic graph.

Graph Isomorphisms

 $\phi: G \longrightarrow H$ is a graph isomorphism if (i) $\phi: V_G \longrightarrow V_H$ is a bijection (ii) $(x, y) \in E_G$ iff $(\phi(x), \phi(y)) \in E_H$ Two graphs are called *isomorphic* if there exists (at least one) isomorphism between them.

Example

All nonisomorphic trees on 2, 3, 4 and 5 vertices.

Graph Isomorphisms

 $\phi: G \longrightarrow H$ is a graph isomorphism if (i) $\phi: V_G \longrightarrow V_H$ is a bijection (ii) $(x, y) \in E_G$ iff $(\phi(x), \phi(y)) \in E_H$ Two graphs are called *isomorphic* if there exists (at least one) isomorphism between them.

Example

All nonisomorphic trees on 2, 3, 4 and 5 vertices.



Automorphisms and Asymmetric Graphs

An isomorphism from a graph to itself is called *automorphism*. Every graph has at least the trivial automorphism;

(trivial meaning $\phi(v) = v$ for all $v \in V_G$)

Graphs with no non-trivial automorphisms are called *asymmetric*.

The smallest non-trivial asymmetric graphs have 6 vertices.



(Can you find another one with 6 nodes? There are seven more.)

Edge Traversal

Definition

- Euler path path containing every edge exactly once
- Euler circuit closed Euler path

Characterisations

- G (connected) has an Euler circuit iff deg(v) is even for all v ∈ V.
- G (connected) has an Euler path iff either it has an Euler circuit (above) or it has exactly two vertices of odd degree.

NB

- These characterisations apply to graphs with loops as well
- For directed graphs the condition for existence of an Euler circuit is indeg(v) = outdeg(v) for all v ∈ V

6.2.11 Construct a graph with vertex set $\{0,1\} \times \{0,1\} \times \{0,1\}$ and with an edge between vertices if they differ in exactly two coordinates.

- (a) How many components does this graph have?
- (b) How many vertices of each degree?
- (c) Euler circuit?

6.2.12 As Ex. 6.2.11 but with an edge between vertices if they differ in two or three coordinates.

6.2.11 This graph consists of all the *face diagonals* of a cube. It has two disjoint components.

No Euler circuit







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Must have an Euler circuit (why?)

Special Graphs

• Complete graph K_n

n vertices, all pairwise connected, $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ edges.

• Complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$

Has m + n vertices, partitioned into two (disjoint) sets, one of n, the other of m vertices. All vertices from different parts are connected; vertices from the same part are disconnected. No, of edges is m = n

the same part are disconnected. No. of edges is $m \cdot n$.

• Complete *k*-partite graph $K_{m_1,...,m_k}$

Has $m_1 + \ldots + m_k$ vertices, partitioned into k disjoint sets, respectively of m_1, m_2, \ldots vertices.

No. of edges is $\sum_{i < j} m_i m_j = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} m_i m_j$

• These graphs generalise the complete graphs $K_n = K_1, \ldots, 1$

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6.2.14 Which complete graphs K_n have an Euler circuit? When do bipartite, 3-partite complete graphs have an Euler circuit?

 K_n has an Euler circuit for n odd $K_{m,n}$ — when both m and n are even $K_{p,q,r}$ — when p + q, p + r, q + r are all even, ie. when p, q, r are all even or all odd



6.2.14 Which complete graphs K_n have an Euler circuit? When do bipartite, 3-partite complete graphs have an Euler circuit?

 K_n has an Euler circuit for n odd $K_{m,n}$ — when both m and n are even $K_{p,q,r}$ — when p + q, p + r, q + r are all even, ie. when p, q, r are all even or all odd

Bridges of Köngisberg

Bridges of Königsberg problem



Can you find a route which crosses each bridge exactly once? Not

Bridges of Köngisberg

Bridges of Königsberg problem



Can you find a route which crosses each bridge exactly once? No!

Vertex Traversal

Definition

- Hamiltonian path visits every vertex of graph exactly once
- Hamiltonian circuit visits every vertex exactly once except the last one, which duplicates the first

NB

Finding such a circuit, or proving it does not exist, is a difficult problem — the worst case is NP-complete.

Examples (when the circuit exists)

- All five regular polyhedra (verify!)
- *n*-cube; Hamiltonian circuit = *Gray code*
- K_m for all m; $K_{m,n}$ iff m = n; $K_{a,b,c}$ iff a, b, c satisfy the triangle inequalities: $a + b \ge c$, $a + c \ge b$, $b + c \ge a$
- Knight's tour on a chessboard (incl. rectangular boards)

Examples when a Hamiltonian circuit does not exist are much harder to construct.

Also, given such a graph it is nontrivial to verify that indeed there is no such a circuit: there is nothing obvious to specify that could assure us about this property.

In contrast, if a circuit is given, it is immediate to verify that it is a Hamiltonian circuit.

These situations demonstrate the often enormous discrepancy in difficulty of 'proving' versus (simply) 'checking'.

6.5.5(a) How many Hamiltonian circuits does $K_{n,n}$ have? Let $V = V_1 \cup V_2$

- start at any vertex in V_1
- go to any vertex in V_2
- go to any *new* vertex in V_1
-

There are n! ways to order each part and two ways to choose the 'first' part, implying $c = 2(n!)^2$ circuits.

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6.5.5(a) How many Hamiltonian circuits does $K_{n,n}$ have? Let $V = V_1 \stackrel{.}{\cup} V_2$

- start at any vertex in V_1
- go to any vertex in V_2
- go to any *new* vertex in V_1
-

There are n! ways to order each part and two ways to choose the 'first' part, implying $c = 2(n!)^2$ circuits.

Colouring

Informally: assigning a "colour" to each vertex (e.g. a node in an electric or transportation network) so that the vertices connected by an edge have different colours.

Formally: A mapping $c: V \longrightarrow [1 ... n]$ such that for every $e = (v, w) \in E$ $c(v) \neq c(w)$

The minimum *n* sufficient to effect such a mapping is called the **chromatic number** of a graph G = (E, V) and is denoted $\chi(G)$.

NB

This notion is extremely important in operations research, esp. in scheduling.

There is a dual notion of 'edge colouring' — two edges that share a vertex need to have different colours. Curiously enough, it is much less useful in practice.

Properties of the Chromatic Number

•
$$\chi(K_n) = n$$

• If G has n vertices and $\chi(G) = n$ then $G = K_n$

Proof.

Suppose that G is 'missing' the edge (v, w), as compared with K_n . Colour all vertices, except w, using n - 1 colours. Then assign to w the same colour as that of v.

- If $\chi(G) = 1$ then G is totally disconnected: it has 0 edges.
- If $\chi(G) = 2$ then G is bipartite.
- For any tree $\chi(T) = 2$.
- For any cycle C_n its chromatic number depends on the parity of n — for n even χ(C_n) = 2, while for n odd χ(C_n) = 3.

Cliques

Graph (V', E') subgraph of $(V, E) - V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.

Definition

A **clique** in G is a *complete* subgraph of G. A clique of k nodes is called *k*-*clique*.

The size of the largest clique is called the *clique number* of the graph and denoted $\kappa(G)$.

Theorem

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

Proof.

Every vertex of a clique requires a different colour, hence there must be at least $\kappa(G)$ colours.

However, this is the only restriction. For any given k there are graphs with $\kappa(G) = k$, while $\chi(G)$ can be arbitrarily large.

NB

This fact (and such graphs) are important in the analysis of parallel computation algorithms.

- $\kappa(K_n) = n, \ \kappa(K_{m,n}) = 2, \ \kappa(K_{m_1,...,m_r}) = r.$
- If $\kappa(G) = 1$ then G is totally disconnected.
- For a tree κ(T) = 2.
- For a cycle C_n $\kappa(C_3) = 3$, $\kappa(C_4) = \kappa(C_5) = \ldots = 2$

The difference between $\kappa(G)$ and $\chi(G)$ is apparent with just $\kappa(G) = 2$ — this does not imply that G is bipartite. For example, the cycle C_n for any odd n has $\chi(C_n) = 3$.





9.10.3 (Ullmann) Let G = (V, E) be an undirected graph. What inequalities must hold between

- the maximal deg(v) for $v \in V$
- $\chi(G)$
- κ(G)

 $max_{v\in V} deg(v) + 1 \ge \chi(G) \ge \kappa(G)$

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9.10.3 (Ullmann) Let G = (V, E) be an undirected graph. What inequalities must hold between

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- the maximal deg(v) for $v \in V$
- $\chi(G)$
- κ(G)

 $max_{v \in V} deg(v) + 1 \ge \chi(G) \ge \kappa(G)$

Planar Graphs

Definition

A graph is **planar** if it can be embedded in a plane without its edges intersecting.

Theorem

If the graph is planar it can be embedded (without self-intersections) in a plane so that all its edges are straight lines.

NB

This notion and its related algorithms are extremely important to VLSI and visualizing data.

Two minimal nonplanar graphs



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9.10.2 (Ullmann)



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Is (the undirected version of) this graph planar?

9.10.2 (Ullmann)



Is (the undirected version of) this graph planar? Yes

Theorem

If graph G contains, as a subgraph, a nonplanar graph, then G itself is nonplanar.

For a graph, *edge subdivision* means to introduce some new vertices, all of degree 2, by placing them on existing edges.



We call such a derived graph a subdivision of the original one.

Theorem If a graph is nonplanar then it must contain a subdivision of K_5 or $K_{3,3}$.

Theorem

 K_n for $n \ge 5$ is nonplanar.

Proof.

It contains K_5 : choose any five vertices in K_n and consider the subgraph they define.

Theorem

 $K_{m,n}$ is nonplanar when $m \ge 3$ and $n \ge 3$.

Proof.

They contain $K_{3,3}$ — choose any three vertices in each of two vertex parts and consider the subgraph they define.

Question Are all K_{m,1} planar?

Answer

Yes, they are trees of two levels — the root and m leaves.



Question

Are all K_{m,1} planar?

Answer

Yes, they are trees of two levels — the root and m leaves.

Question

Are all K_{m,2} planar?

Answer

Yes; they can be represented by "glueing" together two such trees at the leaves.

Sketching $K_{m,2}$



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Also, among the *k*-partite graphs, planar are $K_{2,2,2}$ and $K_{1,1,m}$. The latter can be depicted by drawing one extra edge in $K_{2,m}$, connecting the top and bottom vertices.

NB

Finding a 'basic' nonplanar obstruction is not always simple



It contains a subdivision of both $K_{3,3}$ and K_5 while it does not directly contain either of them.

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Summary

- Graphs, trees, vertex degree, connected graphs, paths, cycles
- Graph isomorphisms, automorphisms
- Special graphs: complete, complete bi-, k-partite
- Traversals
 - Euler paths and circuits (edge traversal)
 - Hamiltonian paths and circuits (vertex traversal)
- Graph properties: chromatic number, clique number, planarity

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