Department of Computer Science National Tsing Hua University

CS 2336: Discrete Mathematics Chapter 11 An Introduction to Graph Theory

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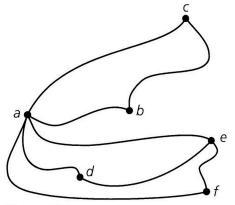
Outline

11.1 Definitions and Examples

- **11.2 Subgraphs, Complements, and Graph Isomorphism**
- **11.3 Vertex Degree: Euler Trails and Circuits**
- **11.4 Planar Graphs**
- **11.5 Hamilton Paths and Cycles**
- **11.6 Graph Coloring and Chromatic Polynomials**

Graph

- For a set of towns, which are connected by a set of roads, how can be find our way from our current location to the destination?
- We need a systematic way to describe the relation: town *A* can be reached from town *B* via road *R*
 - M1: Relations! But tedious.
 - M2: Map, which can be abstracted by a Graph



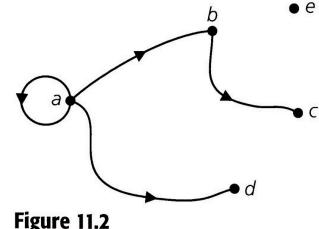


Definition

- Let V be the set of vertices, or nodes, and E is its (directed) edges, or arcs, where $E \subseteq V \times V$. G=(V,E) is called a directed graph, or digraph.
- When edge direction is not important, we call *G* a undirected graph, and *E* now contains unordered pairs of vertices.
- V is called the vertex set and E is called the edge set.

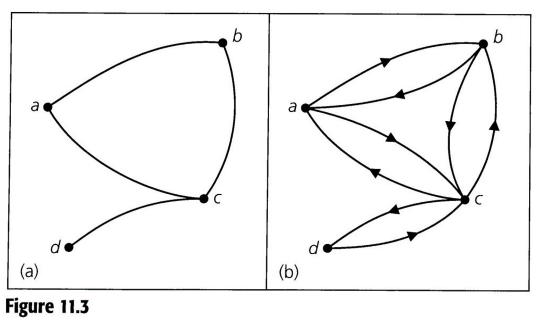
Example on Directed Graph

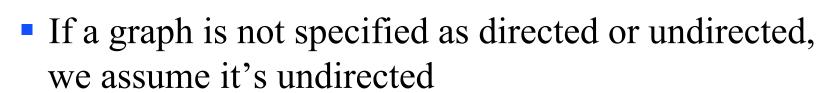
- What are the vertex and edge sets in this graph?
- For (b,c), we say c is adjacent from b, and b is adjacent to c.
- For (b,c), b is the origin or source, and c is the terminus or terminating vertex
- An edge (a,a) is a loop and a vertex that has no incident edge is an isolated vertex



Example on Undirected Graph

{a,b} stands for {(a,b),(b,a)}





• Graphs with no loops are called loop-free

Walk

Let x, y (not necessarily distinct) be vertices in a graph G=(V,E). An x-y walk in G is a (loop-free) finite alternating sequence: x=x₀,e₁,x₁,e₂,x₂,e₃, ...,e_{n-1},x_{n-1},e_n,x_n=y of vertices and edges.

- The length of this walk is n
 - If x=y, and the length is zero, the walk is called trivial.
 - If x=y, and length is nonzero, the walk is a closed one.

Example of Walks

- Ex 11.1: Three open walks
 - $\{a,b\},\{b,d\},\{d,c\},\{c,e\}\,\{e,d\}\,\{d,b\}$
 - $b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow e \rightarrow c \rightarrow f$
 - $\{f,c\}, \{c,e\}, \{e,d\}, \{d,a\}$
- Since the graph is undirected, an a-b walk is also a b-a walk!
- b→c→b is a b-b closed walk. Can we get a c-c closed walk?

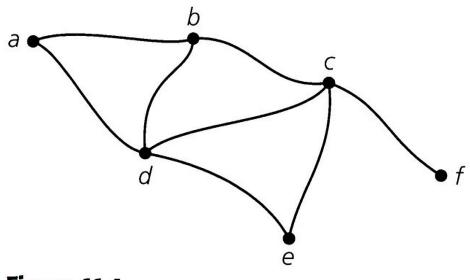


Figure 11.4

Trails and Paths

- For any *x*-*y* walk in G
 - If no edge in the x-y walk is repeated, we call it x-y trail
 - A closed trail is called a circuit
 - If no vertex of the *x*-*y* walk occurs more than once, we call it *x*-*y* path
 - A closed path is called a cycle

 Convention: Circuits have at least one edge. Cycles contain at least three edges.

Example of Trails and Paths

- Ex 11.2: Are the following two walks trails or paths?
 - $b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow e \rightarrow c \rightarrow f$
 - $\{f,c\}, \{c,e\}, \{e,d\}, \{d,a\}$
- Check if a→b→d→c→e→d→a is a circuit or cycle?
- a→b→c→d→a is an a-a cycle.

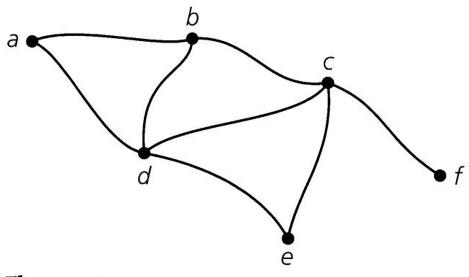


Figure 11.4



Table 11.1

Repeated Vertex (Vertices)	Repeated Edge(s)	Open	Closed	Name
Yes	Yes	Yes		Walk (open)
Yes	Yes		Yes	Walk (closed)
Yes	No	Yes		Trail
Yes	No		Yes	Circuit
No	No	Yes		Path
No	No		Yes	Cycle

Theorem

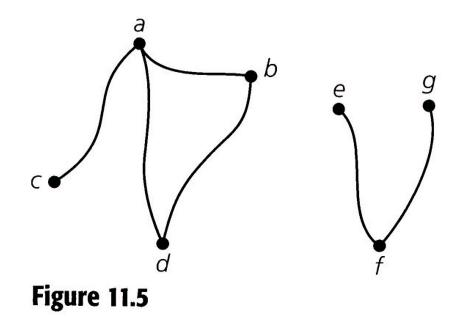
- Let G=(V,E) be an undirected graph. For two distinct vertices a and b, if there is a trial from a to b, then there is a path from a to b.
- Proof Sketch:
 - We select the shortest trail from *a* to *b*: $a \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow \dots$ $\rightarrow x_n \rightarrow b$
 - If it's a path, then we are done. Otherwise, we know the trail can be written as $a \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_{k-1} \rightarrow x_k \rightarrow x_{k+1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_{l-1} \rightarrow k_l \rightarrow k_{l+1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow x_n \rightarrow b$, where $x_k = x_l$
 - Then we found a shorter trail from *a* to *b*, $a \rightarrow x_1 \rightarrow ...$ $\rightarrow x_{k-1} \rightarrow x_k \rightarrow k_{l+1} \rightarrow ... \rightarrow x_n \rightarrow b$, contradiction!

Connected

- Let G=(V,E) be an undirected graph. G is connected if there is a path between any two distinct vertices.
- For a directed graph G, it's associated undirected graph is the graph obtained from G by ignoring the directions of edges. G is connected if its associated undirected graph is connected.
- A graph that is not connected is called disconnected.

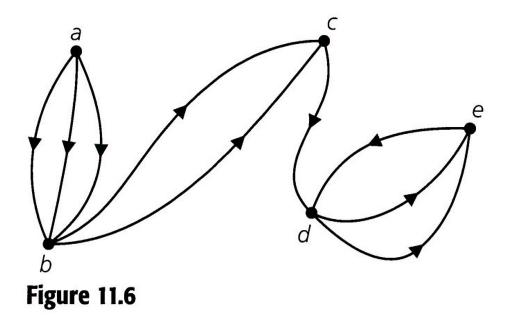
Connected Components

- Ex 11.3: Find the two connected components in the graph
 - A graph is connected if it has only one component
- The number of components of G is denoted by $\kappa(G)$



Multigraph

- (V,E) describes a multigraph G with vertex set V and edge set E if for some x, y ∈ V, there are two or more edges in E.
- Multigraphs can be directed or undirected.



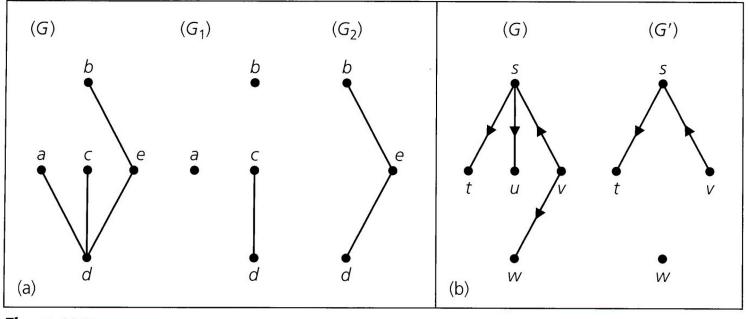
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Subgraph

• If G=(V,E) is a graph (directed or undirected), then $G_1=(V_1,E_1)$ is a subgraph of G if $\emptyset \neq V_1 \subseteq V, E_1 \subseteq E$, where each edge in E_1 is incident with vertices in V_1 .



Spanning Subgraph

• For a graph G=(V,E), let $G_1=(V_1,E_1)$ is a subgraph of G. If $V_1=V$, then G_1 is a spanning subgraph of G.

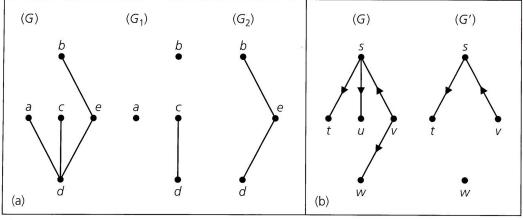
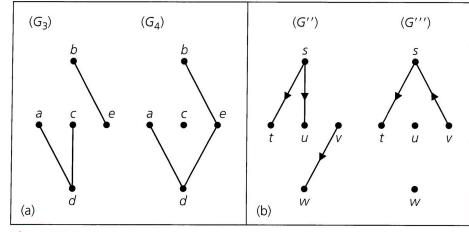


Figure 11.14

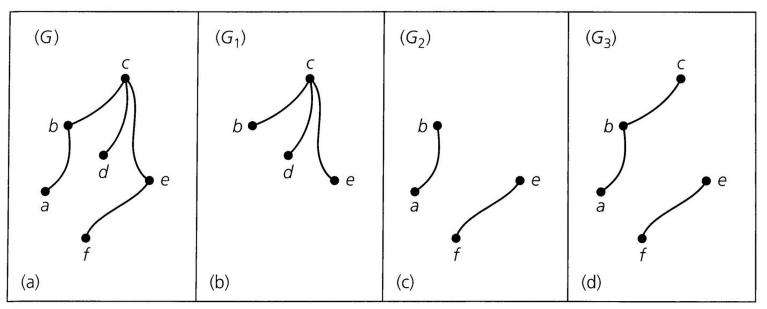


Induced Subgraph

- For a graph G=(V,E), if Ø ≠ U ⊆ V, the subgraph of G induced by U is the subgraph with all edges from G with the form: (a) (x,y) where x, y ∈ U or (b) {x,y} where x, y ∈ U. We denote this subgraph as <U>.
- A subgraph G' is called an induced subgraph if there exists a correspondent U such that G'=<U>.

Examples of Induced Subgraph

• Ex 11.5: In the figure, which subgraphs are induced subgraph?



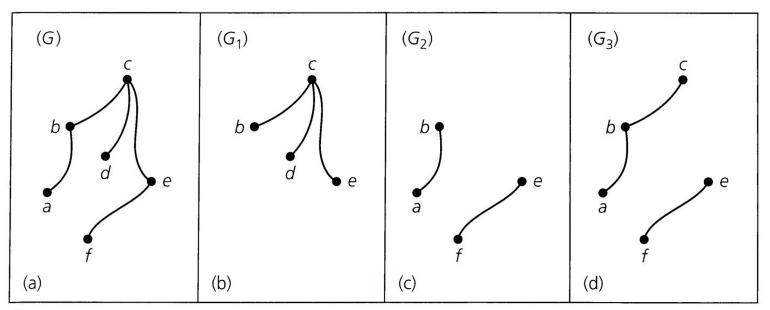
Removing a Vertex/Edge

- For a graph G=(V,E), the subgraph G-v has the vertex set V₁=V-{v} and edge set E₁ containing all the edges in E that are not incident with v.
 - G-v is the subgraph of G induced by V_I

• Subgraph G-e= (V_1, E_1) , where E_1 =E- $\{e\}$ and V1=V.

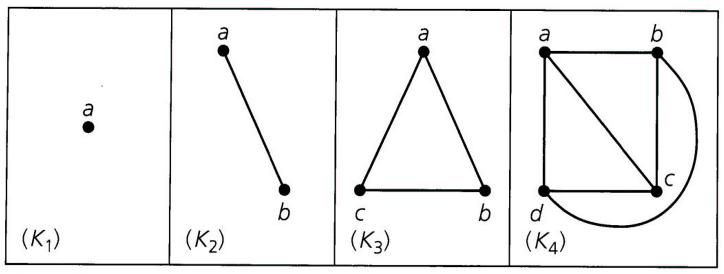
Examples of Removing Vertexs/Edges

■ Ex 11.6: What is *G*-*c*=<*V*-{*c*}>, *G*-*e*, and (*G*-*b*)-*f*



Complete Graph

Let V be a set of n vertices. The complete graph on V, denoted K_n, is a loop-free undirected graph, where for any two distinct vertices a and b, there is an edge {a,b}.



Complement

- For a graph G=(V,E) with n vertices. The complement of G, denoted Ḡ, is the subgraph of K_n consisting of the n vertices of G and all edges that are not in G.
 - What is \overline{K}_n ? \overline{K}_n Is called a null graph.

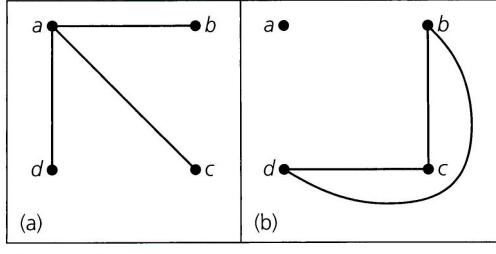
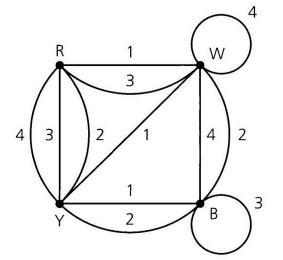


Figure 11.19

A Puzzle Problem

- Ex 11.7: Instant Insanity is played with four cubes. The objective of this game is to place the four cubes in a column, such that all four colors appear on each of the four sides.
- How can we keep track of the colors?



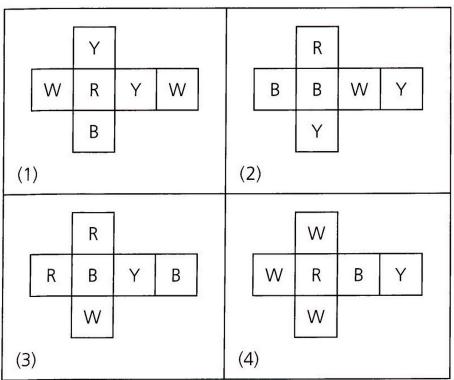
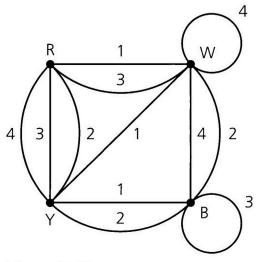


Figure 11.20

A Puzzle Problem (cont.)

 What we are looking for are two subgraphs with four vertices, so that each color appears only once, and each cube appears only once.



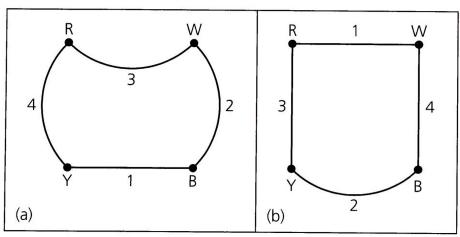
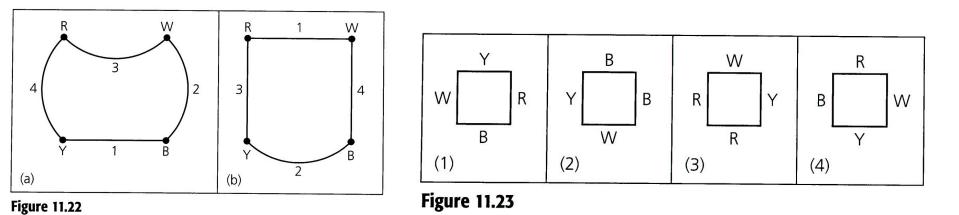


Figure 11.22

A Puzzle Problem (cont.)

- Generally, we construct a labeled multigraph, and try to find two subgraphs
 - Each subgraph contains all four vertices, and four labels
 - Each vertex is incident with two edges
 - No edge appears in both subgraphs



Isomorphism

- Let G₁=(V₁,E₁) and G₂=(V₂,E₂) be two undirected graph. A function f : V₁ → V₂ is a graph isomorphism if
 - f is one-to-one and onto
 - For $\forall a, b \in V_1, \{a, b\} \in E_1$ iff $\{f(a), f(b)\} \in E_2$
- When such *f* exists, *G*₁ and *G*₂ are isomorphic graphs

Examples of Isomorphism

What are the graph isomorphism function: (i) from
(a) to (b), and (ii) from (c) to (d)

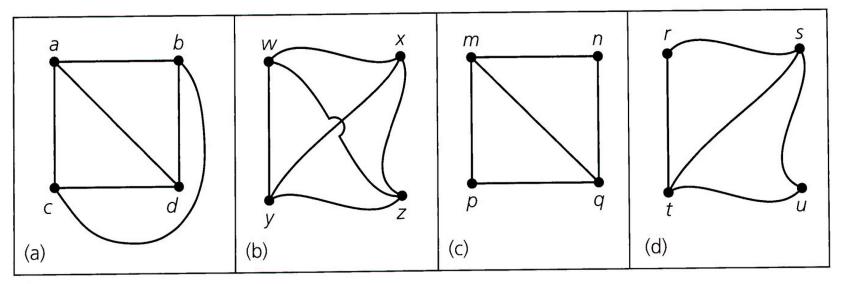
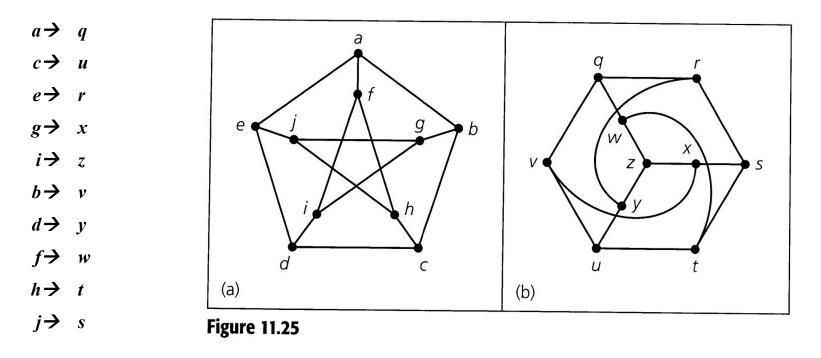


Figure 11.24

A Real Example

- Ex 11.8: Are the isomorphic?
- Observe: $a \rightarrow f \rightarrow i \rightarrow d \rightarrow e \rightarrow a$, a cycle with length 5. Can we find a similar substructure in Fig. (b)?
- Verify the mapping:



A Real Example

- Ex 11.9: Are the isomorphic?
 - Circuit?
 - Number of degree-4 vertices

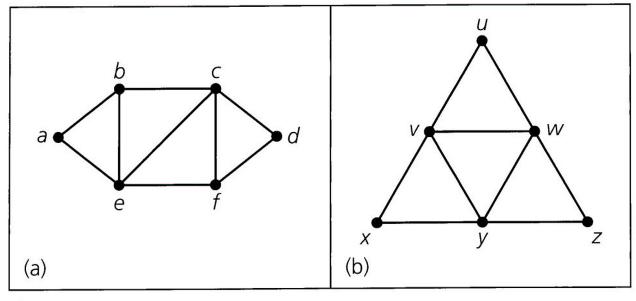


Figure 11.26

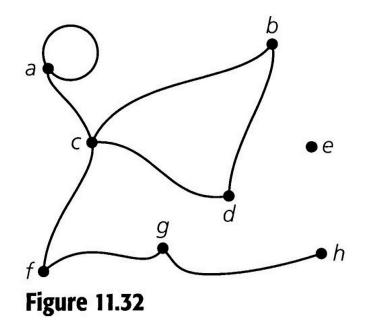
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- Let G be an undirected graph or multigraph. For each vertex v of G, the degree of v, deg(v), is the number of edges into v. A loop is counted twice.
- Ex 11.10: What are the degrees of each vertex? We call a vertex with degree 1 as pendant vertex



Number of Edges

- If G=(V,E) is an undirected graph or multigraph, we have ∑_{v∈V} deg(v) = 2|E|
- For any undirected graph or multigraph, the number of vertices of odd degree must be even

Regular Graphs

- An undirected graph, where each vertex has the same degree is called a regular graph. If deg(v)=k for all vertices v, the graph is called k-regular.
- Ex 11.11: Is it possible to have 4-regular graph with 10 edges?
 - 2|E|=20=4|V|
- How about 4-regular graph with 15 edges?
 - 2|E|=30=4|V|?

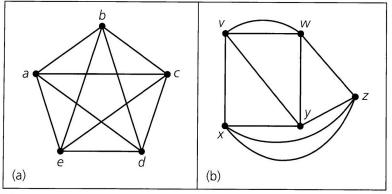


Figure 11.33

Hupercube

- Ex 11.12: To maximize the performance of a parallel computer, we need to build a network among all the processors
- Ideally in fully-mesh, fast but expensive
- Grid (or mesh) graph is cheaper, but may not scale well.

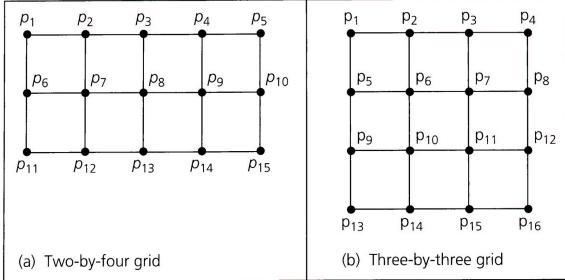


Figure 11.34

Hupercube (cont.)

- N-cube is denoted as Q_n, and has 2ⁿ vertices. Each vertex is labeled by a n-bit sequence, ranges from 0 to 2ⁿ-1.
- Two vertices are connected if they differ in 1 bit.

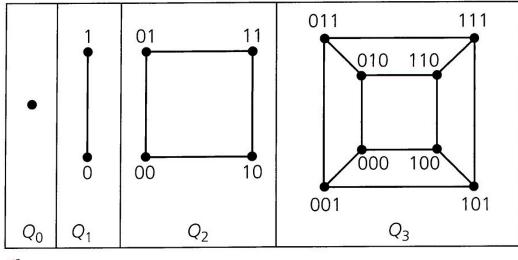


Figure 11.35

Leads to shorter distance!

Hupercube (cont.)

• How about Q_5 ?

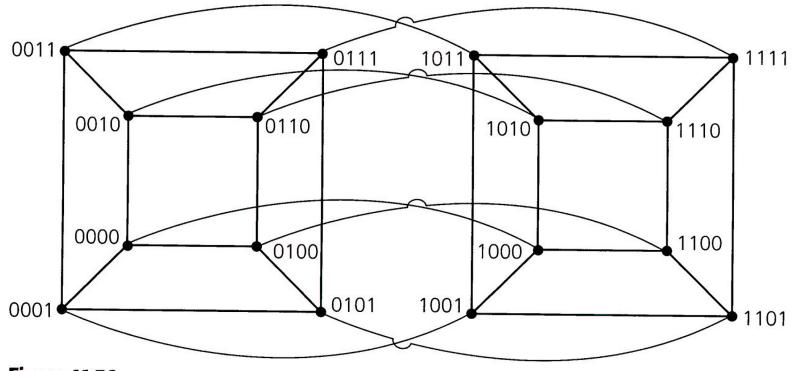


Figure 11.36

Seven Bridges of Konigsberg

Ex 11.13: The city is divided into four sections. The residents spent Sundays trying to find a way to walk around the city so that they cross each bridge exactly once and return to the starting point.

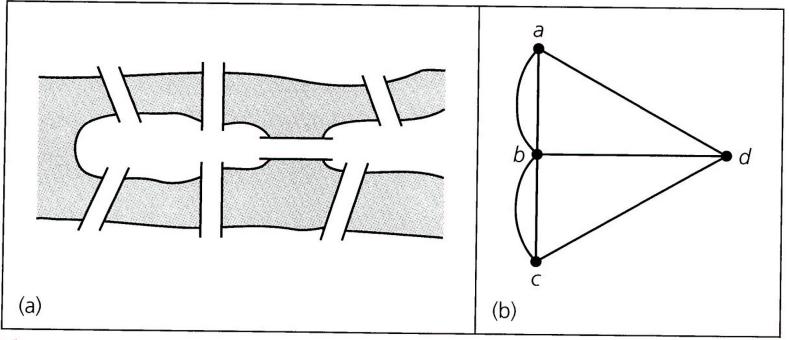


Figure 11.37

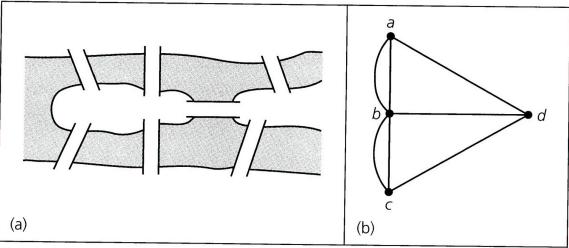
Euler Circuit

- Let G(V,E) is a graph with no isolated vertices. G has an Euler circuit if there is a circuit in G that traverses every edge of the graph exactly once.
 - For a trail going through each edge once, it is called Euler trail
- A graph (without isolated vertices) has an Euler circuit iff *G* is connected and every vertex in *G* has even degree.

Euler Circuit (cont.)

 A graph (without isolated vertices) contains an Euler trail iff G is connected and has exactly two vertices with odd degree.

Do we have Euler circuit or trail?





Incoming and Outgoing Degrees

- Let G(V,E) be a directed graph or multigraph. For each v
 - Incoming (or in) degree, *id*(v) is the number of edges incident into v
 - Outgoing (or out) degree, od(v) is the number of edges incident from v
- Each loop counts as one incoming and one outgoing degrees.

Directed Euler Circuit

Let G(V,E) be a directed graph with no isolated vertices. The graph G has a directed Euler circuit iff G is connected and id(v)=od(v) for all vertex v.

Example of Directed Euler Circuit

Consider a rotating drum

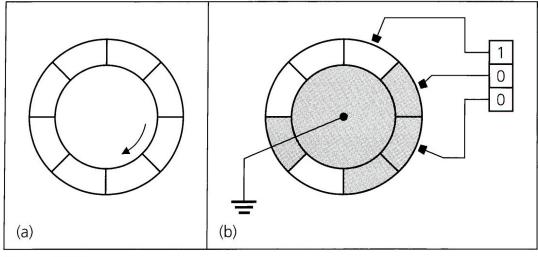


Figure 11.39

Can we represent all 3-digital numbers by turning the drum?

Example of Directed Euler Circuit (cont.)

- Construct a directed graph with $V=\{00,01,10,11\}$ and (b_1b_2,b_2b_3) in E if b_1b_2 and b_2b_3 are in V.
- Since each v has id(v)=od(v), there is a directed Euler circuit $10 \rightarrow 00 \rightarrow 00 \rightarrow 01 \rightarrow 10 \rightarrow 01 \rightarrow 11 \rightarrow 11$

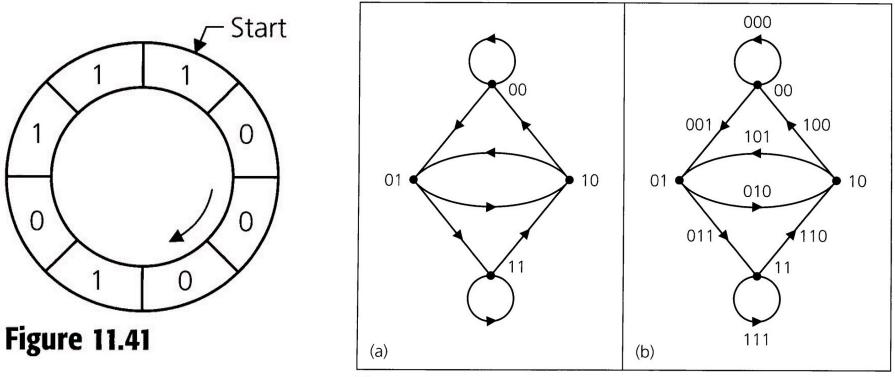


Figure 11.40

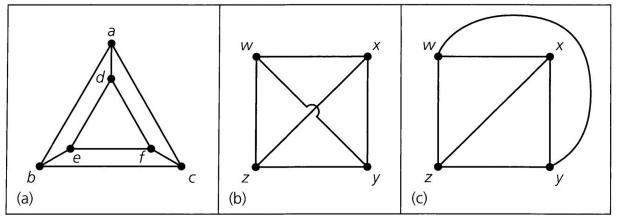
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Planar Graphs

- A graph (or multigraph) G is planar if G can be drawn in the plane, where all its edges only intersect at its vertices.
 - We call such a drawing of G as an embedding of G in the plane
- Ex 11.15: Are the following graphs planar or nonplanar?





Complete Graphs and Planar

- K_1, K_2, K_3 , and K_4 are all planar.
- Ex 11.16: Is *K*₅ Planar?

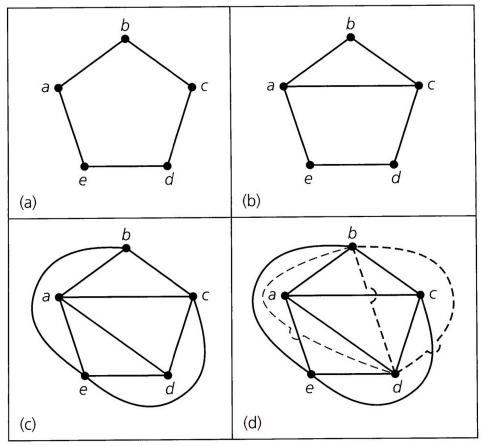


Figure 11.48

Bipartite Graph

G=(V,E) is bipartite if V can be divided into a partition of V₁ and V₂, and each edge is in the form of {a,b} where a is in V₁ and b is in V₂.

• If every vertex in V_1 is connected to every vertex in V_2 , then we have a complete bipartite graph. This graph is denoted as $K_{m,n}$, where $|V_1|=m$ and $|V_2|=n$.

Hypercubes are Bipartite

• Ex 11.17: If we divide the vertices based on the even/odd numbers of one's in the binary strings

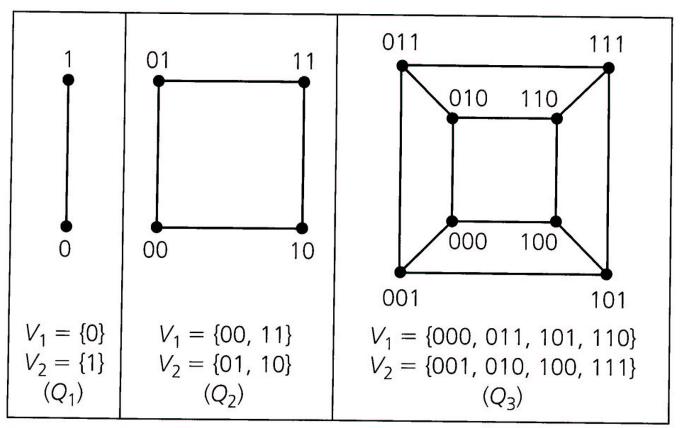


Figure 11.49

Utility Graph

- The left bipartite graph can be expanded to complete bipartite graph $K_{2,3}$, which is planar. How?
- The right bipartite graph can also be expanded to K_{3,3}. But can it be planar?
- Preview: K_5 and $K_{3,3}$ are the source of nonplanar.

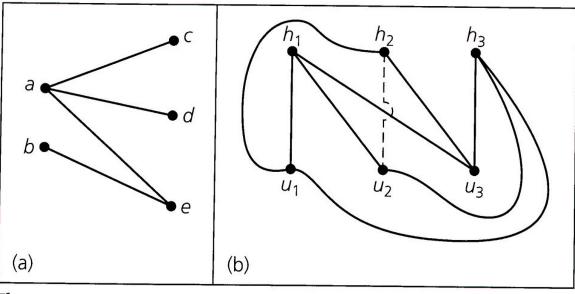


Figure 11.50

Elementary Subdivision

 G=(V,E) is a loop-free undirected group with nonempty E. An elementary subdivision of G leads to removing an edge e={u,w} and adding the edges{u,v} and {v,w} where v was not in V.

Two loop-free undirected graphs G₁ and G₂ are homeomorphic if they are isomorphic or if they can both be obtained from the same graph H by a sequence of elementary subdivisions.

Some Examples

- G=(V,E) is a loop-free undirected group with |E|
 >=1. Any G' derived from G by an elementary subdivision has |V|+1 vertices and |E|+1 edges
- Ex 11.18: G₁ is derived from G₂ by an elementary subdivision. G₁, G₂, and G₃ are mutually homeomorphic. Can we get G₂ from G₁?

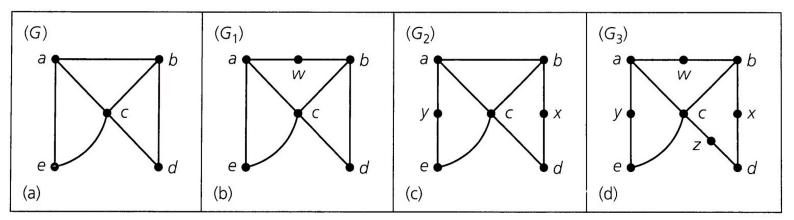


Figure 11.51

Homeomorphic

 Can be thought as isomorphic except vertices of degree 2

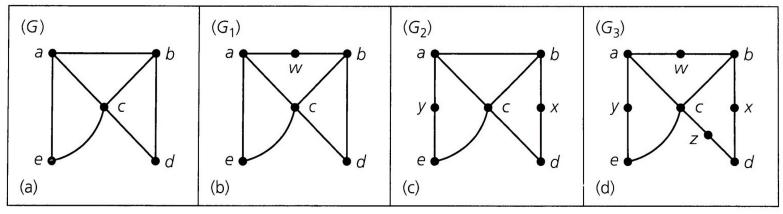


Figure 11.51

 If two graphs are homeomorphic, they are either both planar or both nonplanar

Kuratowski's Theorem

• A graph is nonplanar iff it contains a subgraph that is homeomorphic to either K_5 or $K_{3,3}$

Ex 11.19 (a): Petersen graph contains a subgraph that is homeomorphic to K_{3.3} and thus is nonplanar

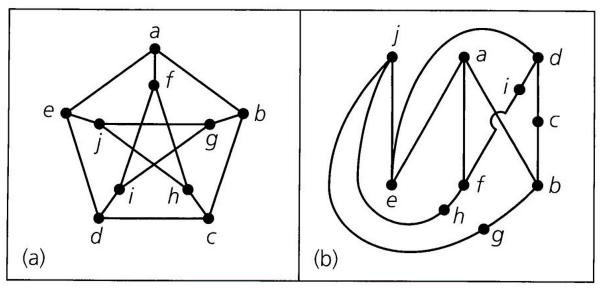


Figure 11.52

More Examples

- Ex 11.19 (b):
 - Q3 is planar
 - The complement of Q3 looks like nonplanar
 - H is a subgraph of the complement of Q3, which shows the complement of Q3 is nonplanar

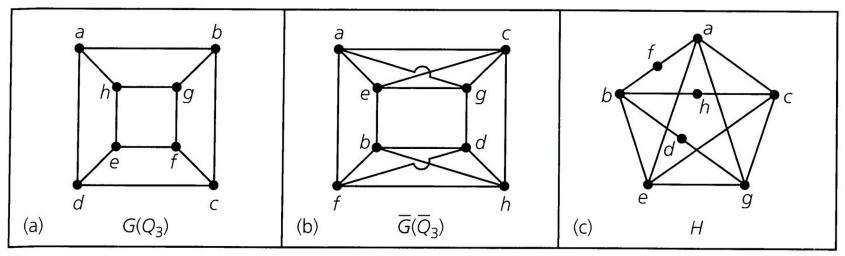


Figure 11.54



- Each planar embedding of a graph defines regions
 - Infinite regions
- Nonplanar graphs' regions are not defined

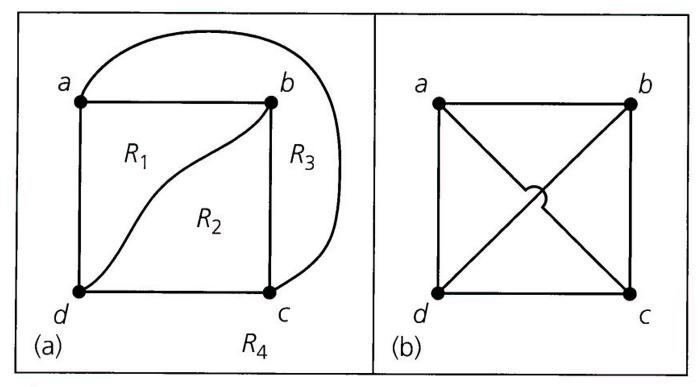


Figure 11.55

Euler's Theorem

 G=(V,E) is a connected planar graph or multigraph, where |V|=v and |E|=e. Let r be the number of regions. Then v-e+r=2

Proved by induction: see text for details.

Degree of a Region

- Degree of a region R, deg(R), is the number of edges traversed in a shortest closed walk about the edges in the boundary of R.
- Ex:
 - $\deg(R_1)=5$, $\deg(R_2)=3$, $\deg(R_3)=3$, $\deg(R_4)=7$
 - $\deg(R_5)=4$, $\deg(R_6)=3$, $\deg(R_7)=5$, $\deg(R_8)=6$

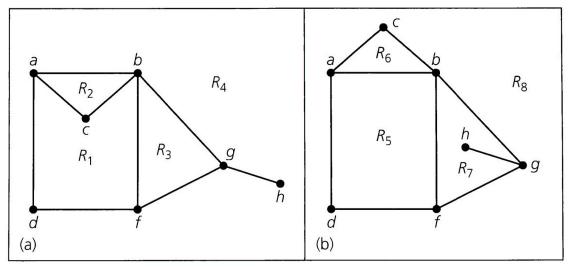


Figure 11.58

Corollary

- G=(V,E) is a loop-free connected planar graph with |V|=v, |E|=e>2, and r regions. Then, 3r<=2e and e<=3v-6
 - One way
- Ex 11.20: K₅ has 5 vertices and 10 edges. Show it is nonplanar
- Ex 11.21: K_{3,3} has 6 vertices and 9 edges. Can we say it is planar by 9<=12? NO!</p>
 - Bipartile graphs don't have triangle subgraph. So each region has degree >= 4. This leads to a contradiction to Euler's theorem

Platonic Solids

- Ex 11.22: Platonic Solids: Solids with all faces are congruent and all angles are equal.
- Tetrahedron: four faces, each face is a equilateral triangle.
- Cube: the planar graph has six regions, where three regions meets at each vertex

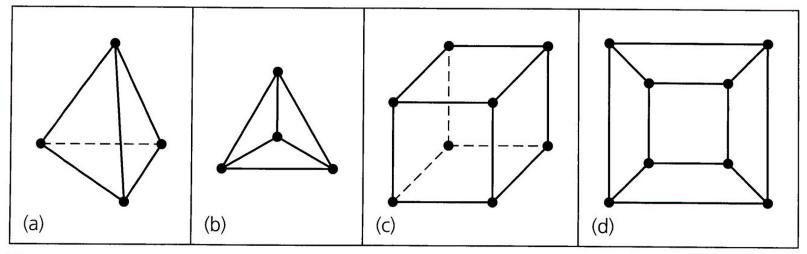


Figure 11.59

Platonic Solids (cont.)

- General case: v=|V|, e=|E|, r=number of planar regions determined by (V,E), m=number of edges at the boundary of each region, n=number of regions meet at each vertex
 - 2e=mr \leftarrow each edge is next to two regions
 - 2e=nv \leftarrow counting the endpoints
- Applying Euler's theorem, we have (m-2)(n-2)<4
- There are only five cases!
 - m=n=3 (thtrahedron), m=4,n=3 (cube)

Platonic Solids (cont.)

- Octahedron: m=3, n=4
- Dodecahedron: m=5, n=3
- Icosahedron: m=3, n=5

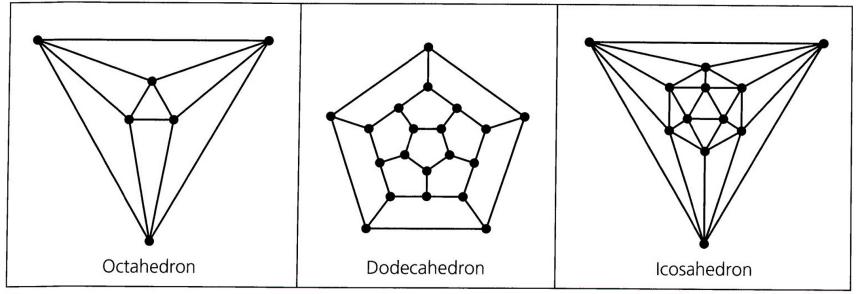
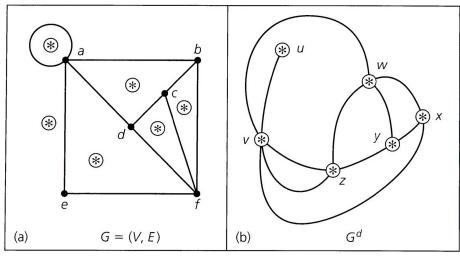


Figure 11.60

Dual Graph

- To construct a dual graph G^d with G
 - Place a vertex inside each region of G, including the infinite one
 - Draw an edge in G^d connecting the two regions sharing an edge in G
 - For an edge of G that is traversed twice in the closed walk around a region, draw a loop at the vertex in G^d





Cut-Set

For an undirected graph or multigraph G=(V,E), a subset E' of E is called a cut-set of G is by removing the edges (but not the vertices) in E' from G, we have k(G) < k(G'), where G'=(V,E-E'). Moreover, if we remove any other proper subset E'' of E', we have k(G)=k(G''), where G''=(V,E-E'')

• For a cut-set with only one edge, we call it a bridge

Example of Cut-Sets

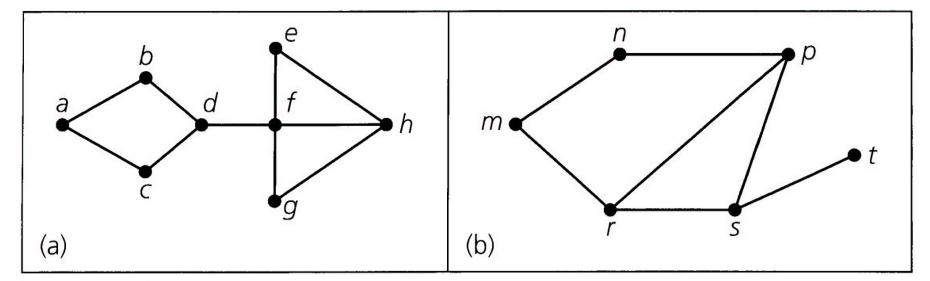
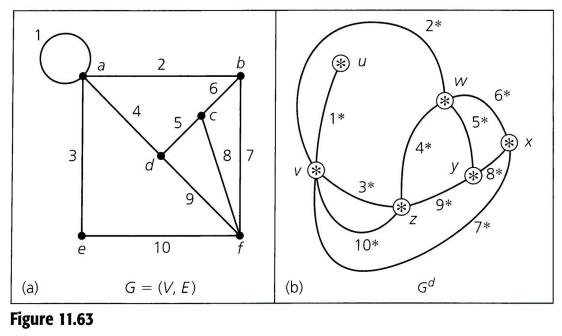


Figure 11.62

Some Observations

- 6,7, and 8 forms a cycle in G. What if we remove 6^* , 7^* , and 8^* in G^d ? → G^d becomes disconnected!
 - A cut-set in G^d
- Check 2,4,and 10 in G?



More observations can be found on page 551

Map Coloring Problem

- Ex 11.24: A dual graph without the infinite region.
- Mapmaker's problem: How can we color the regions so that no two adjacent regions share the same color?

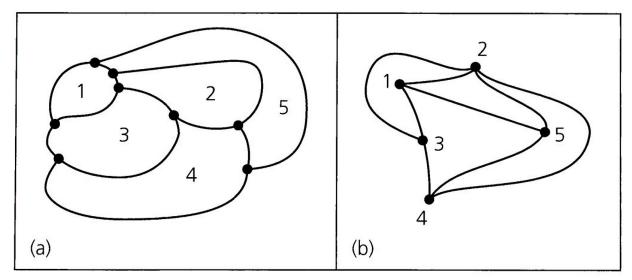
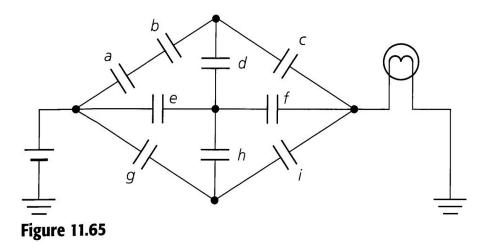


Figure 11.64

A Real Application

• Ex 11.25: A network with 9 switches



Switches maybe by default open or closed

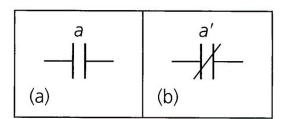
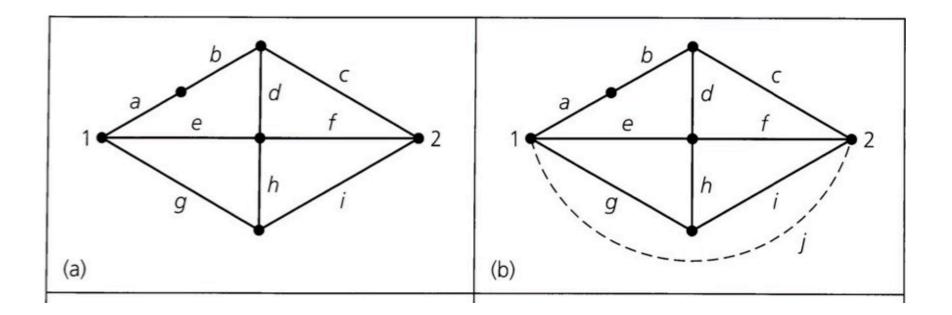


Figure 11.66

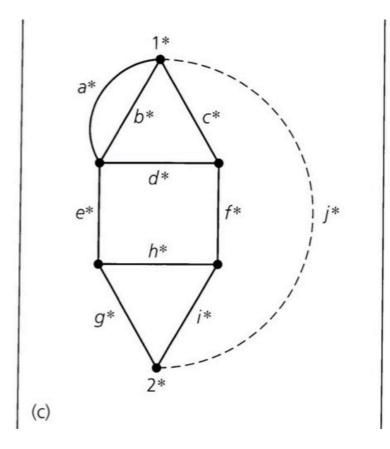
A Real Application (cont.)

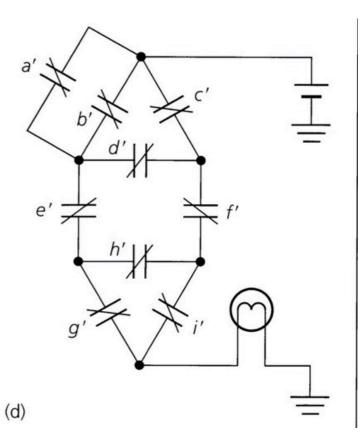
- One-terminal-pair graph: two terminal vertices
- Planar-one-terminal-pair graph: if adding an edge connecting the terminals still leads to a planar graph



A Real Application (cont.)

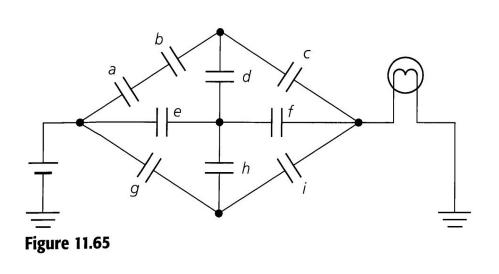
The dual graph!

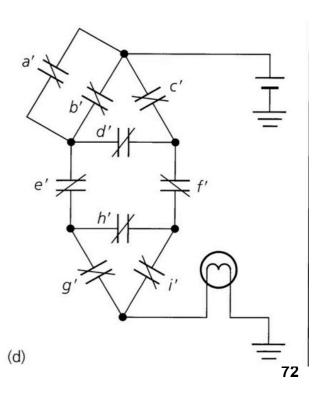




A Real Application (cont.)

- What happens if we close a,b,c,j in G? How do they affect G^d?
- How about closing c,d,e,g,j in G?
- Cycles versus disconnections!





Outline

11.1 Definitions and Examples

- **11.2 Subgraphs, Complements, and Graph Isomorphism**
- **11.3 Vertex Degree: Euler Trails and Circuits**
- **11.4 Planar Graphs**
- **11.5 Hamilton Paths and Cycles**
- **11.6 Graph Coloring and Chromatic Polynomials**

Hamilton Cycle

- G=(V,E) is a graph or multigraph with |V|>=3. We say G has a Hamilton cycle if there is a cycle in G containing every vertex of V.
- A Hamilton path is a path in G that contains every vertex.

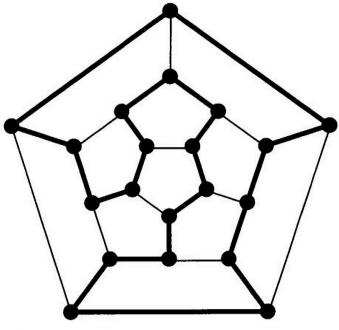


Figure 11.77

Hamilton Cycle (cont.)

- Sounds like Euler circuits (trails): edges for Euler circuits (trails)
- Unlike Euler circuits (trails), we don't know any necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of Hamilton cycle.
 - Theorems are for necessary or sufficient conditions
- Ex 11.26: Find Hamilton cycles in Q₂ and Q₃.

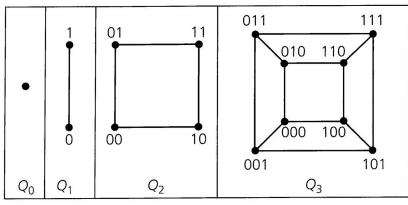
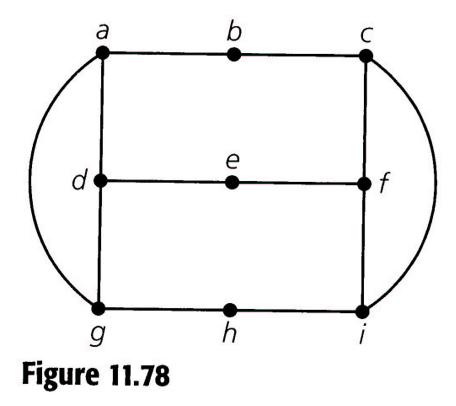


Figure 11.35

Another Example

- Ex 11.27: Find a Hamilton cycle in the figure.
- Is there a Hamilton cycle in this graph?



Finding Hamilton Cycle

- If G has a Hamilton cycle, then deg(v)>=2 for all vertices
- If a is a vertex and deg(a)=2, then the two edges incident with a must appear in every Hamilton cycle
- If a is a vertex and deg(a)>2, then once we pass through a, all other edges incident with a are removed (as they cannot be part of the cycle)
- We cannot find a Hamilton cycle for a subgraph of G unless it contains all vertices

An Example

- Ex 11.28: We re-label Subfig (a) into (b) by alternating x and y.
- Should contain alternating x's (5 of them) and y's (5 of them). But we don't have enough x, so Subfig (a) doesn't contain a Hamilton cycle
- Subfig (c): Bipartile cannot have odd-length cycles

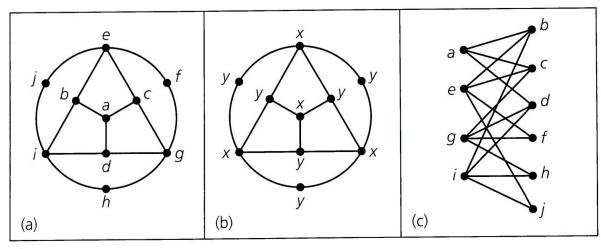


Figure 11.79

In a Complete Graph

- Ex 11.29: In a science camp, 17 students have lunch together daily at a circular table. Students sit next to two different colleagues every day. For how many days can they do this? Any systematic way to arrange the seats?
- Each arrangement is in fact a Hamilton cycle of all students.
- There are n vertices and n(n-1)/2 edges. It is a K_n .
- Since every cycle has n edges, we have at most (n-1)/2 cycles ← these many days

In a Complete Graph (cont.)

- Systematic approach: rotate the Hamilton cycle by $\frac{1}{n-1}2\pi$
- For (n-1)/2 times

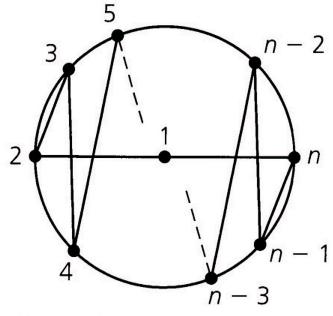


Figure 11.80

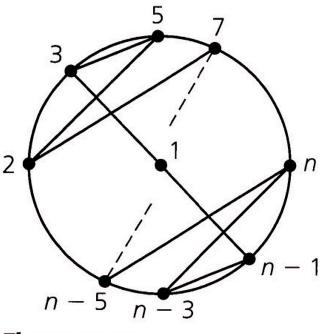


Figure 11.81

Due to L. Redei

- Let K_n^{*} be a complete directed graph. That is it has n vertices and for distinct vertices x,y, exactly one of (x,y) or (x,y) exists in K_n^{*}. It is called a tournament. Such a graph always contains a directed Hamilton path.
- Proof Sketch: By incrementally adding edges to a path until it convers all vertices. See text for details.
- Ex 11.30: In a round-robin tournament each player plays every other player once. A Hamilton path over the directed graph lists the players so that each has beaten the next one on the list.

Sufficient Condition for Hamilton Path

- G=(V,E) is a loop-free graph with |V|=n>=2. If deg(x)+deg(y)>=n-1 for all distinct vertices x, y, then G has a Hamilton path.
- Proof: Given in the text.

Corollary: If deg(v)>=(n-1)/2 for all vertex v, the graph has a Hamilton path.

Sufficient Condition for Hamilton Cycle

- G=(V,E) is a loop-free graph with |V|=n>=3. If deg(x)+deg(y)>=n for all nonadjacent vertices x,y, then G contains a Hamilton cycle.
- Proof: Given in the text.

- Corollary 11.5: If deg(v)>=n/2 for all ertex v, then G has a Hamilton cycle.
- Corollary 11.6: If $|E| \ge \binom{n-1}{2} + 2$, then G has a Hamilton cycle

Traveling Salesman Problem

- A traveling salesperson leaves his/her home, and must visit a set of locations before returning. The goal is to find the order to visit the locations, to maximize his/her efficiency.
 - Objectives can be cost or distance.
- TSP can be modeled as a labeled graph, where the most efficient Hamilton cycle is wanted.

Outline

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- **11.6 Graph Coloring and Chromatic Polynomials**

Proper Coloring

- For an undirected graph G=(V,E), if a coloring scheme of G is called a proper coloring if any adjacent vertices have different colors.
- The minimum number of colors needed to properly color G is called the chromatic number of G, χ(G)

Example: An aquarium has 10 kinds of fish. Certain types of fish cannot be put into the same fish tanks. What is the minimum number of tanks we need to hold all of them?

Four Color Theorem

- Four colors are enough to color any planar maps
 - The first computer-assisted proof in 1976
 - 1936 subgraphs
- For nonplanar graphs, more than 4 colors might be needed!

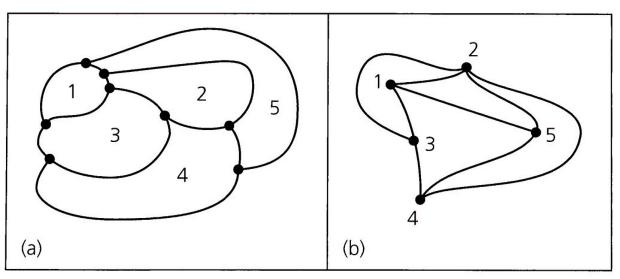
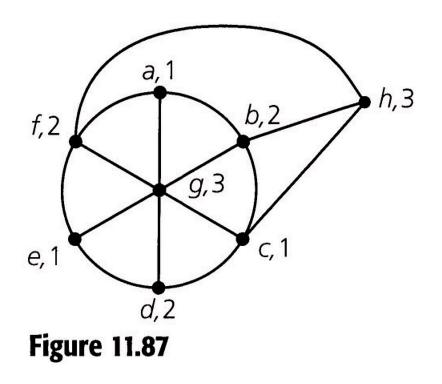


Figure 11.64

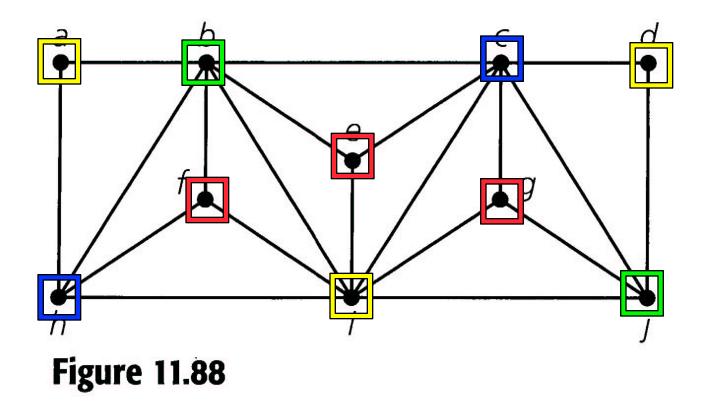
Very Simple Example

- Ex 11.31: What is $\chi(G)$?
 - Show $\chi(G) \ge 3$ by showing K_3 is a subgraph of G
 - Show $\chi(G) \leq 3$ by labeling the vertices (showing a sample coloring scheme.



More Examples

- Ex 11.32, 11.33:
 - $\chi(K_n) = n$
 - Show $\chi(G) = 4$



Chromatic Polynomial

- Let λ be the number of available number. The chromatic polynomial P(G, λ) tells us how many different ways we can properly color G
- A proper coloring scheme is a function from domain V to codomain {1, 2, 3, ..., λ}
- Different ways mean different functions

Simple Examples

- Ex 11.34:
 - For graph G with n vertices and zero edge, $P(G, \lambda) = \lambda^n$
 - For K_n , $P(G, \lambda) = \lambda(\lambda 1)(\lambda 2) \cdots (\lambda n + 1)$, $\lambda \ge n$
 - $P(G, \lambda) = 0$, o.w.
 - We write $P(G, \lambda) = \lambda^{(n)}$
 - What is the chromatic polynomials of the graphs? Generalize the results. $a_{\lambda} \lambda$
 - If G consists of components, its P fcn is the product of all components' P fcns.

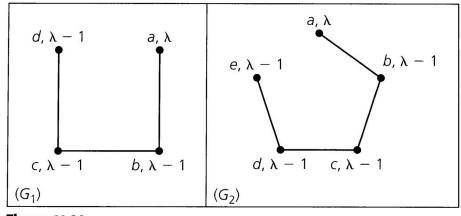


Figure 11.89

Two Special Subgraphs

- What happen if G is a connected (and a rather large) graph?
- For e={a,b} is an edge of G
 - let subgraph G_e=G-e
 - coalescing $\{a,b\}$ into a subgraph G'_e
- Ex 11.35:

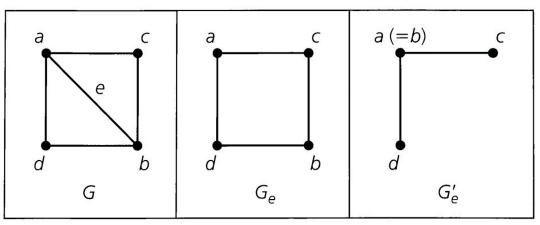
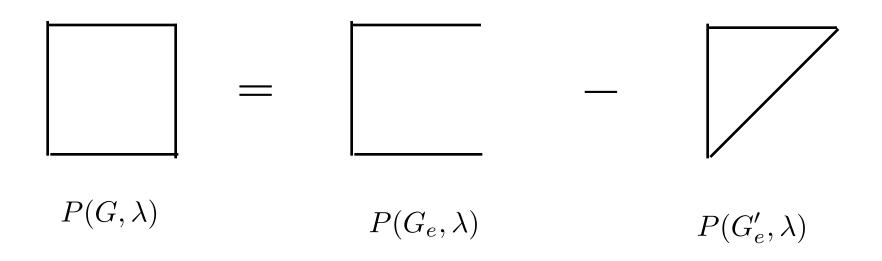


Figure 11.90

Example

• Ex 11.36: How to get $P(G, \lambda) = \lambda^4 - 4\lambda^3 + 6\lambda^2 - 3\lambda$?



• How to determine $\chi(G)$?

Properties of Chromatic Poly.

- For any graph G, the constant term of $P(G, \lambda)$ is 0
 - Otherwise P(G,0)>0, means we can color the graph using zero color!
- For graph G with |E| > 0. The sum of the coefficient of $P(G, \lambda)$ is 0
 - At least an edge, need at least two colors, so P(G,1)=0

Another Approach

• For a connected graph, we can also add more edges until we get a complete graph, in order to compute its chromatic polynomial

• For two vertices a,b where $\{a,b\}$ is not an edge in G. Let G_e^+ be the graph G with an addition edge $\{a,b\}$, coalescing a,b in G gives a subgraph G_e^{++} . We have $P(G_e^+, \lambda) = P(G, \lambda) + P(G_e^{++}, \lambda)$

Complete Graphs

• G contains two subgraphs G_1 , G_2 . If $G = G_1 \cup G_2$ and $G = G_1 \cap G_2 = K_n$

• Then,
$$P(G, \lambda) = \frac{P(G_1, \lambda)P(G_2, \lambda)}{\lambda^{(n)}}$$

Proof Sketch: There are $\lambda^{(n)}$ ways to color K_n . There are $\frac{P(G_1, \lambda)}{\lambda^{(n)}}$ ways to color the rest vertices of G_1 and $\frac{P(G_2, \lambda)}{\lambda^{(n)}}$ ways to color the rest vertices of G_2 .

• Then,
$$P(G,\lambda) = P(K_n,\lambda) \frac{P(G_1,\lambda)}{\lambda^{(n)}} \frac{P(G_2,\lambda)}{\lambda^{(n)}}$$

Take-home Exercises

- Exercise 11.1: 2, 3, 5, 8, 13
- Exercise 11.2: 1, 2, 3, 9, 15
- Exercise 11.3: 3, 4, 5, 20, 23
- Exercise 11.4: 2, 3, 13, 14, 26
- Exercise 11.5: 1, 3, 4, 6, 19
- Exercise 11.6: 1, 2, 5, 6, 13