

Basic concepts I, I, III

* indicates a definition different from the one in the book.

Graphs

Graph G consists of vertex set $V(G)$, edge set $E(G)$, incidence relation ψ_G mapping each edge to unordered pair of vertices.

Convention: $n = |V(G)|$, $m = |E(G)|$.

If $\psi_G(e) = uv$ say e incident with u, v .

Parallel edges are incident with same vertices. Loop is incident with same vertex twice.

Adjacent vertices u, v : some edge with $\psi_G(e) = uv$. Write $u \sim v$. (Can have $u \sim u$ if loop at u .)

Neighbor of v is u with $u \neq v$, $u \sim v$. (A vertex is never its own neighbor.) $N_G(v)$ or $N(v)$ is set of neighbors of v .

Null graph: $V(G) = E(G) = \emptyset$. Usually assume all graphs nonnull and finite.

Loopless graph has no loops. Simple graph has neither loops nor parallel edges.

* Standard (model) simple graph has $E(G) \subseteq \binom{V(G)}{2}$, ψ_G defined implicitly as identity map. Usually assume all simple graphs are standard model.

Underlying (standard) simple graph: delete parallel edges to single edge.

Complement \overline{G} of standard simple graph G : $V(\overline{G}) = V(G)$, $E(\overline{G}) = \binom{V(G)}{2} - E(G)$. Note that $\overline{\overline{G}} = G$.

Matrices

Incidence matrix M_G : index rows by vertices, columns by edges, ve -entry is how many times e is incident with v (2 for a loop).

Adjacency matrix A_G : index both rows and columns by vertices. For $u \neq v$, uv -entry is number of edges incident with both u and v . For $u = v$, uu -entry is TWICE number of loops incident with u .

Degrees

Degree $d_G(v)$ or $d(v)$: number of ends of edges incident with v . (Loops count twice. Degree is sum of v 's row in M_G , and sum of v 's row or v 's column in A_G .)

k -regular: all degrees are k . Cubic = 3-regular.

Maximum degree is $\Delta(G)$, minimum degree is $\delta(G)$, average degree is $d(G)$.

Degree sequence of G : list of all degrees, in no particular order. (Technically, multiset of degrees. Often convenient to list in ascending or descending order.)

Degree-Sum Formula: $\sum_{v \in V(G)} d_G(v) = 2|E(G)| = 2m$. Proof: Count ends of edges in two ways. ■
(Hence sum of degrees must be even.)

Corollary: $d(G) = 2m/n$.

Complement degrees: $d_{\overline{G}}(v) = n - 1 - d_G(v)$.

Isomorphisms and automorphisms

Identical graphs G and H have $V(G) = V(H)$, $E(G) = E(H)$, $\psi_G = \psi_H$.

Isomorphism from G to H is pair (θ, φ) where $\theta : V(G) \rightarrow V(H)$ is a bijection, $\varphi : E(G) \rightarrow E(H)$ is a bijection, and incidence is preserved: $\psi_G(e) = uv \Leftrightarrow \psi_H(\varphi(e)) = \theta(u)\theta(v)$ for all $e \in E(G)$. If isomorphism exists say G and H are isomorphic, write $G \cong H$.

For standard simple graphs G and H , just give θ . If $u \sim v$ in $G \Leftrightarrow \theta(u) \sim \theta(v)$ in H for all $u, v \in V(G)$ then we have isomorphism; φ is given by natural extension of θ to pairs of vertices.

For finite graphs, if know $|E(G)| = |E(H)|$ and θ, φ are bijections, enough to check one direction, $\psi_G(e) = uv \Rightarrow \psi_H(\varphi(e)) = \theta(u)\theta(v)$.

Properties of isomorphisms:

- (1) $(\text{id}_{V(G)}, \text{id}_{E(G)})$ is an isomorphism of G to itself.
- (2) If (θ, φ) is an isomorphism from G to H , then $(\theta^{-1}, \varphi^{-1})$ is an isomorphism from H to G .
- (3) If (θ_1, φ_1) is an isomorphism from G to H , and (θ_2, φ_2) is an isomorphism from H to K , then $(\theta_2 \circ \theta_1, \varphi_2 \circ \varphi_1)$ is an isomorphism from G to K .

For any well-defined class of graphs, (1), (2) and (3) show that isomorphism is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. Hence it is an equivalence relation.

Labelled graph = graph, as previously defined. *Unlabelled graph* represents equivalence class of graphs, draw picture of graph with no labels on vertices or edges.

Invariant of graphs is property that is same for all isomorphic graphs.

Automorphism of G is isomorphism of G to itself. Properties (1), (2), (3) above, together with associativity of composition, show that set of all automorphisms of G , $\text{Aut } G$, is a group under composition.

Asymmetric graph: only automorphism is identity.

Similar vertices u and v : there is an automorphism mapping u to v ; equivalence relation. *Vertex-transitive graph*: all vertices are similar.

Common invariant properties

* *Coboundary* $\delta_G X$ or δX of $X \subseteq V(G)$: set of edges of G with one end in X , other end in $V(G) - X$.

Disconnected if can partition $V(G)$ into two nonempty sets X, Y so no edge from X to Y . Equivalently, there is $X \neq \emptyset, V(G)$ with $\delta X = \emptyset$. *Connected* if not disconnected. (Equivalent condition in terms of paths, later.)

Planar graph: can be drawn in plane without edge crossings. *Embeddable in surface* Σ if can be drawn in Σ without edge crossings.

Cycles and paths

* *Cycle* C_n = connected n -vertex 2-regular (unlabelled) graph.

* *Path* $P_n = C_n$ with one edge deleted.

Independent sets and cliques

Independent or *stable* set $S \subseteq V(G)$: no loops on S and vertices of S are pairwise nonadjacent. *Independence number* $\alpha(G)$ = maximum number of vertices in an independent set.

Clique $S \subseteq V(G)$: any two distinct vertices of S are adjacent. *Clique number* $\omega(G)$ = maximum number of vertices in a clique. (*Clique* also used to refer to subgraph.)

For simple graphs $\alpha(\overline{G}) = \omega(G)$, $\omega(\overline{G}) = \alpha(G)$.

Complete graph K_n : simple n -vertex, any two distinct vertices are adjacent. ($E(K_n) = \binom{V(K_n)}{2}$), whole vertex set is clique.)

Trivial graph is K_1 .

* *Supercomplete graph* is not necessarily simple, but any two distinct vertices are adjacent.

Empty or * *edgeless graph* \overline{K}_n : n vertices, no edges.

Bipartite graph: can partition $V(G)$ into X, Y (may be empty) so that every edge has one end in X , other end in Y . Write $G = G[X, Y]$. (So X, Y are independent.)

Complete bipartite graph $K_{m,n}$: simple $G[X, Y]$, $|X| = m$, $|Y| = n$, every $x \in X$ adjacent to every $y \in Y$.

k-partite graph: can partition $V(G)$ into V_1, V_2, \dots, V_k (sets may be empty) so that each V_i is independent.

Complete k-partite graph K_{n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k} : k -partite simple graph with $|V_1| = n_1$, $|V_2| = n_2$, etc., any two vertices adjacent unless in the same V_i .

Subgraphs

Subgraph F of G , $F \subseteq G$: F is a graph, $V(F) \subseteq V(G)$, $E(F) \subseteq E(G)$, and $\psi_F = \psi_G|_{E(F)}$.

Proper subgraph, $F \subset G$: $F \subseteq G$, $F \neq G$.

$G - v$: delete vertex v and all incident edges. Repeat: $G - S$, $S \subset V(G)$.

$G - e$: delete edge e (do not delete any vertices). Repeat: $G - T$, $T \subseteq E(G)$.

G/e (G contract e): delete e , identify ends of e if distinct. Repeat: G/T , $T \subseteq E(G)$.

$G/\{u, v\}$: identify vertices u and v .

$G + e$: add edge e with known incidences. Repeat: $G + T$, T set of edges.

Disjoint subgraphs: no common vertices. *Edge-disjoint subgraphs*: no common edges.

* *Component* is a maximal connected subgraph (maximal under subgraph ordering).

Spanning subgraph F of G : $V(F) = V(G)$. Spanning path or cycle usually called *hamilton path* or cycle.

Spanning k -regular subgraph usually called *k-factor*.

Induced subgraph $G[S]$ for $S \subseteq V(G)$: vertex set is S , all edges of G with both ends in S .

Edge-induced subgraph $G[T]$ for $T \subseteq E(G)$: edge set is T , vertex set is all ends of all edges in T .

Graphs from other graphs

Line graph $L(G)$ of simple graph G : $V(L(G)) = E(G)$, make e and f adjacent in $L(G)$ if they are incident with a common vertex in G .

* *Union and intersection* of graphs G, H can be defined if they are *consistent*: incidence function agrees for any edges in $E(G) \cap E(H)$. Take union/intersection of vertex and edge sets, and inherit incidence from G or H (or both).

Cartesian product $G \square H$ of simple G, H :

$$V(G \square H) = V(G) \times V(H) = \{(u, v) \mid u \in V(G), v \in V(H)\};$$

$$E(G \square H) = \{(u_1, v)(u_2, v) \mid u_1 u_2 \in E(G), v \in V(H)\} \cup \{(u, v_1)(u, v_2) \mid u \in V(G), v_1 v_2 \in E(H)\}$$

(Sometimes also denoted $G \times H$.)

$m \times n$ grid = $P_m \square P_n$.

Join $G \vee H$ of disjoint G, H : join every vertex of G to every vertex of H by one edge. (Sometimes also denoted $G + H$.) If simple, $\overline{G \vee H} = \overline{G} \cup \overline{H}$.

Moving around

Walk in G : alternating sequence of vertices and edges $W = v_0 e_1 v_1 e_2 v_2 \dots v_{\ell-1} e_{\ell} v_{\ell}$ where $\psi_G(e_i) = v_{i-1} v_i$ for each i . (In simple graph can just write $W = v_0 v_1 v_2 \dots v_{\ell-1} v_{\ell}$.) *Length* is ℓ . *Initial vertex* v_0 , *terminal* or * *final vertex* v_{ℓ} , *ends* v_0 and v_{ℓ} , *internal vertices* $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{\ell-1}$.

Reverse of walk W : $W^{-1} = v_{\ell} e_{\ell} v_{\ell-1} \dots v_1 e_1 v_0$.

uv-walk has initial vertex u , final vertex v .

Closed walk has initial vertex = final vertex.

Trail is walk with no repeated edges.

* *Path* is walk with no repeated vertices. (So defines subgraph that is path graph.)

* *Cycle* is closed walk with no repeated vertices except that initial vertex = final vertex, no repeated edges, and at least one edge. (So defines subgraph that is cycle graph.) In simple graph write $(v_0 v_1 v_2 \dots v_{\ell-1})$.

* *Reachability relation* R_G : $u R_G v$ if there is a uv -walk in G . $R_G(u) = \{v \in V(G) \mid u R_G v\}$. This is an equivalence relation.

The *distance* from u to v in G , $d_G(u, v)$, is the length of a shortest uv -path.

* *Euler trail* = trail using all edges **and vertices** of G ,

Euler tour = closed euler trail,

Trees

acyclic graph or *forest*: no cycles;

tree: (nonnull) connected forest;

leaf: degree 1 vertex.

cutedge e : $G - e$ has more components than G ;

cutvertex v : $G - v$ has more components than G .

Lemma: A nontrivial tree has at least two leaves.

Equivalent characterizations of a tree:

- (i) connected and acyclic (definition!);
- (ii) connected, $m = n - 1$;
- (iii) acyclic, $m = n - 1$;
- (iv) connected, every edge is a cutedge;
- (v) loopless, unique uv -path for all vertices u, v .

Rooted trees: r -tree or *tree rooted at r* is tree with special designated vertex r , the *root*. In an r -tree T there is a unique rv -path rTv .

ancestor of v : any vertex of rTv (inc. v)

parent $p(v)$: immediate predecessor on rTv (root has no parent)

proper ancestor (not v itself), *descendant*, *related*

level of v : $\ell(v) = d_T(r, v)$

* **Global Tree Construction Method (Global TCM)**: Start with edgeless spanning subgraph F . At each step choose an edge not forming a cycle (equivalently, joining two distinct components) with F and add it to F . When we cannot continue F is a spanning tree.

* **Local Tree Construction Method (Local TCM)**: Choose particular vertex r . Apply Global TCM, at each step adding an edge leaving the component containing r .

* **Breadth First Search (BFS)**: Use Local TCM, adding uv with $u \in V(T)$, $v \notin V(T)$, where u was added to T as early as possible.

Edge exchange properties: Let T, U be distinct spanning trees of a graph G , and $e \in E(T) - E(U)$.

(EE1) There is $e' \in E(U) - E(T)$ such that $T - e + e'$ is a spanning tree.

(EE2) There is $e'' \in E(U) - E(T)$ such that $U + e - e''$ is a spanning tree.

Kruskal's Algorithm: Apply Global TCM, being greedy, i.e., picking an available edge of minimum weight at each step.

Jarník-Prim Algorithm: Apply Local TCM, being greedy, i.e., picking an available edge of minimum weight at each step.

Directed graphs

directed graph or *digraph*: D has vertex set $V(D)$, set of arcs/ or *directed edges* $A(D)$, incidence function ψ_D mapping each arc to *ordered* pair of vertices.

strict digraph: no loops or parallel arcs (but opposite arcs are allowed); denote arc as uv .

Arc from u to v : *head* v , *tail* u , u *dominates* v .

outdegree $d^+(v)$, *indegree* $d^-(v)$.

Set of *outneighbours* $N^+(v) = \{u \in V(D) \mid u \neq v, v \text{ dominates } u\}$; *inneighbours* $N^-(v)$.

underlying graph: ignore directions.

associated digraph of graph G : replace each edge by pair of opposite arcs.

orientation of graph G : replace each edge by *one* of possible arcs; *oriented graph* = orientation of simple graph.

tournament: orientation of complete graph K_n .

source: vertex of indegree 0; *sink*: vertex of outdegree 0.

converse of D : reverse all arcs.

Moving around in digraphs: Have directed versions of walks, trails, paths, cycles, euler trails and euler tours: must follow edges in correct direction. Directed uv -walk goes *from* u to v .

connected: underlying graph connected.

If $X, Y \subseteq V(D)$, $A(X, Y)$ = edges with tail in X , head in Y . Let \overline{X} denote $V(D) - X$. $\delta^+(X) = A(X, \overline{X})$ and $\delta^-(X) = A(\overline{X}, X)$.

strong or *strongly connected*: $\delta^+(X) \neq \emptyset$ for all proper nonempty subsets X of $V(D)$. (Or equivalently, $\delta^-(X) \neq \emptyset$ for all such X .)

reachability in digraphs means directed reachability: uR^+v if there is a directed uv -walk (or equivalently a directed uv -path); say v is *reachable from* u .

$R_D^+(v)$ means vertices reachable from v ; $R_D^-(v)$ means vertices that can reach v .

branching or *outbranching* or *arborescence*: rooted tree where all edges directed outward from root. Can be constructed via *Directed Local TCM*; special cases *Directed BFS* and *Directed DFS* (only consider edges going outward from root).

acyclic digraph (computer scientists call it a *DAG*): no directed cycles.

Lemma: An acyclic digraph has at least one source and at least one sink.

distance in networks: given digraph D , nonnegative weight (distance) $w(a)$ for each arc, $d(u, v)$ is minimum length (total weight) of uv -path.

Flows

Network (D, c) : digraph D ($V = V(D)$, $A = A(D)$), each arc has nonnegative *capacity* $c(a)$.

δ^+X , δ^+v , δ^-X , δ^-v : arcs out of/into set of vertices X or single vertex v .

$\overline{X} = V - X$.

A *flow* is $f \in \mathbf{R}^A$, i.e., f is a function $f : A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$.

If $S \subseteq A$ then $f(S)$ means $\sum_{a \in S} f(a)$.

If $X \subseteq V$ and $v \in V$ then $f^+(X)$, $f^+(v)$, $f^-(X)$, $f^-(v)$ mean $f(\delta^+X)$, $f(\delta^+v)$, $f(\delta^-X)$, $f(\delta^-v)$ respectively.

$\partial f(X) = f^+(X) - f^-(X)$ is *net outflow from* X and $\partial f(v)$ is defined similarly.

Proposition (Vertex additivity of net flow): For any $f : A(D) \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ and any $X \subseteq V(D)$, $\partial f(X) = \sum_{v \in X} \partial f(v)$.

Say f *conserved* at v if $f^+(v) = f^-(v)$, i.e., $\partial f(v) = 0$.

f is a *circulation* if f is conserved at all $v \in V$.

Given *supply vertex* x and *demand vertex* y an *xy-flow* (or often just *flow*) is a flow $f : A \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ conserved at every $v \in V - \{x, y\}$.

Feasible flow in (D, c) : flow (not necessarily *xy-flow*) that satisfies $0 \leq f(a) \leq c(a) \forall a \in A(D)$.

The *value* of an *xy-flow* is $\text{val } f = \partial f(x)$ (net flow out of x). (Linear function on *xy-flows*.)

Special flows: - if P directed *xy-path*, $\chi_P(a) = 1$ if $a \in A(P)$, 0 otherwise. $\text{val } \chi_P = 1$.

- if P direction-insensitive *xy-path*, $\overrightarrow{\chi}_P(a) = 1$ if P uses a forwards, -1 if P uses a backwards, 0 otherwise. $\text{val } \overrightarrow{\chi}_P = 1$.

- if C directed cycle (may or may not contain x or y), $\chi_C(a) = 1$ if $a \in A(C)$, 0 otherwise. $\text{val } \chi_C = 0$.

An *xy-cut* is a set of arcs K for which there exists some set of vertices X with $x \in X$, $y \notin X$ and $K = \delta^+X$.

The *capacity* of the cut $K = \delta^+X$ is just $c(K) = c^+(X)$.

A *minimum xy-cut* means an *xy-cut* of minimum capacity.

Lemma: $\partial f(X) = \text{val } f$ for any *xy-cut* δ^+X .

Observation: For any feasible *xy-flow* f and *xy-cut* $K = \delta^+X$, we have $\text{val } f \leq c(K)$. Moreover, equality holds if and only if $f(a) = c(a) \forall a \in \delta^+X$ and $f(a) = 0 \forall a \in \delta^-X$.

Residual network $(D^*, c^*) = \text{Res}(D, c, f)$: shows how we can modify flow f . Same vertex set as D . Up to two arcs for every arc a of D :

if $f(a) < c(a)$ add a^+ , copy of a , to D^* with capacity $c^*(a) = c(a) - f(a)$ (shows we can push extra flow along a);

if $f(a) > 0$ add a^- , opposite to a , to D^* with capacity $c^*(a) = f(a)$ (shows that we can ‘push some flow backwards’ along a , i.e., reduce flow in a).

f-augmenting path: directed *xy-path* in D^* .

Observe: If P is an *f-augmenting path* then we can augment along f to get a new feasible *xy-flow* of higher value. **Ford-Fulkerson Algorithm** repeatedly searches for *f-augmenting path* and augments; if no *f-augmenting path*, vertices X reachable from x in D^* give minimum cut δ^+X . **Edmonds-Karp Algorithm** is special version guaranteed to terminate in polynomial time.

Note: If all capacities integral, F-F Algorithm shows that an integer-valued maximum flow exists.

Max Flow Min Cut Theorem: The value of a maximum *xy-flow* equals the capacity of a minimum *xy-cut*.

Note: Can allow infinite capacities, MFMC Theorem still holds.

Note: Vertex capacities $c(v)$ implemented by splitting v into v^- with all in-arcs, v^+ with all out-arcs, and arc v^-v^+ of capacity $c(v)$.

Support of f , $\text{supp } f = \{a | f(a) \neq 0\}$. *Acyclic flow* has acyclic support.

Flow Decomposition Algorithm: Given nonnegative flow f_0 , first remove flow around directed cycles (remove circulation f_C) to get acyclic f_A , then remove flow along maximal directed paths to get 0.

Gallai's Flow Decomposition Theorem (FDT): Every nonnegative flow f_0 may be written

$$f_0 = \overbrace{\alpha_1 \chi_{C_1} + \alpha_2 \chi_{C_2} + \dots + \alpha_s \chi_{C_s}}^{f_C} + \overbrace{\beta_1 \chi_{P_1} + \beta_2 \chi_{P_2} + \dots + \beta_t \chi_{P_t}}^{f_A}$$

where

- (i) f_C is a nonnegative circulation, $s \geq 0$, $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_s > 0$, and C_1, \dots, C_s are directed cycles;
- (ii) f_A is a nonnegative acyclic flow, $t \geq 0$, $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_t > 0$, and each P_i is a directed $x_i y_i$ -path with $\partial f_0(x_i) > 0$, $\partial f_0(y_i) < 0$; and
- (iii) if f_0 is integer-valued then we may choose $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_s, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_t$ to all be integers, so that f_C and f_A are also integer-valued. ■

New

Connectivity

τ *edge cutset*: $S \subseteq E(G)$ so $G - S$ is disconnected.

τ *edge cut*: $S \subseteq E(G)$ so that there exists $X \subseteq V(G)$, $X \neq \emptyset, V(G)$, with $S = \delta X$.

$p'(x, y)$ = maximum number of *edge-disjoint* xy -paths.

xy -*edge cutset*: $S \subseteq E(G)$ so that $G - S$ has no xy -path; $s'(x, y)$ = minimum cardinality of an xy -edge cutset.

xy -*edge cut*: $S = \delta X = E(X, \overline{X})$ where $x \in X$, $y \in \overline{X}$; $c'(x, y)$ = minimum cardinality of an xy -edge cut.

Observe: Any xy -edge cut is an xy -edge cutset. Any xy -edge cutset contains an xy -edge cut. Hence $s'(x, y) = c'(x, y)$.

Also, $p'(x, y) \leq s'(x, y) = c'(x, y)$ for every distinct x, y . So if they are equal we have maximum number of edge-disjoint xy -paths, minimum xy -edge cutset and minimum xy -edge cut.

Menger's Theorem (Edge Version): If x, y are distinct vertices of a graph G , $p'(x, y) = c'(x, y) = s'(x, y)$.

G is k -*edge-connected* if $G - S$ is connected for all $S \subseteq E(G)$ with $|S| < k$. (Equivalent to $s'/c'/p'(x, y) \geq k \forall$ distinct $x, y \in V(G)$.)

Edge-connectivity $\kappa'(G)$ is maximum k for which G is k -edge-connected.

$p(x, y)$ = maximum number of *internally disjoint* xy -paths (nothing in common except x and y).

xy -*vertex cut(set)*: $S \subseteq V(G) - \{x, y\}$ so that $G - S$ has no xy -path; $c^v(x, y)$ = minimum cardinality of an xy -vertex cutset.

Unit in a graph is either a vertex or an edge;

xy -*unit cutset*: $U \subseteq (V(G) - \{x, y\}) \cup E(G)$ so $G - U$ has no xy -path;

$c(x, y)$ = minimum size of xy -unit cutset.

Notes: xy -vertex cut only exists if x, y not adjacent, and then $c^v(x, y) = c(x, y)$.

We have $p(x, y) \leq c(x, y)$ so if they are equal we have a maximum number of internally disjoint xy -paths and a minimum xy -unit cutset.

Menger's Theorem (Vertex or Unit Version): If x, y are distinct vertices of a graph G , $p(x, y) = c(x, y)$.

G is k -*connected* if $G - U$ is connected for every set of vertices and edges U with $|U| < k$. (Equivalent to $c/p(x, y) \geq k \forall$ distinct $x, y \in V(G)$.)

Connectivity $\kappa(G)$ is the largest k for which G is k -connected.

$m(x, y)$ = number of edges between x and y .

$x \sim y$ means x, y adjacent.

G is *supercomplete* if every pair of distinct vertices are adjacent. (My term, not standard.)

Observe: If G is supercomplete then $p(x, y) = n - 2 + m(x, y)$ for distinct vertices x, y . Hence $\kappa(G) = n - 2 + \min_{x \neq y} m(x, y)$.

Lemma: If G is not supercomplete and $c(u, v) \geq k$ for all distinct nonadjacent u, v , then $c(x, y) \geq k$ for all distinct adjacent x, y . Hence $\kappa(G) = \min_{x \neq y} c(x, y) = \min_{x \neq y} p(x, y) = \min_{x \neq y} c^v(x, y)$: only need to look at nonadjacent vertices (not adjacent ones) and vertex (not unit) cuts.

Lemma: If G is k -connected and add new vertex v adjacent to at least k vertices of G , result is also k -connected.

Fan Lemma: Suppose G is k -connected and $S \subseteq V(G)$ with $|S| \geq k$, and $x \in V(G)$. Then there are k paths from x to S that are vertex-disjoint except at x and have no internal vertices in S (a k -fan from x to S).

Corollary: Suppose G is k -connected and $S, T \subseteq V(G)$ with $|S|, |T| \geq k$. Then there are k vertex-disjoint paths from S to T (with no internal vertices in $S \cup T$).

Application (Dirac): Suppose G is k -connected, $k \geq 2$, and $S \subseteq V(G)$ with $|S| = k$. Then there is a cycle C in G that includes all vertices of S .

Hamilton cycles

hamilton path or cycle: spanning.

hamiltonian graph: has hamilton cycle.

traceable graph: has hamilton path.

$c(G)$: number of components of G .

G is t -tough if $c(G - S) \leq |S|/t \forall S \subseteq V(G)$ with $c(G - S) \geq 2$. Hamiltonian \Rightarrow 1-tough (or just 'tough').

Theorem (Dirac): If G is a simple graph with $\delta \geq n/2$, $n \geq 3$, then G is hamiltonian.

Theorem (Ore): Suppose G is an n -vertex simple graph, $n \geq 3$, and $d(u) + d(v) \geq n$ for all distinct nonadjacent u, v . Then G is hamiltonian.

Lemma: Let G be an n -vertex simple graph with distinct nonadjacent vertices u, v . If $d(u) + d(v) \geq n$ (uv is *addable edge*) then G is hamiltonian $\Leftrightarrow G + uv$ is hamiltonian.

Bondy-Chvátal closure: Given G , repeatedly add addable edges until reach graph G^c with no more addable edges. Can show G^c is unique: *Bondy-Chvátal closure of G* . G hamiltonian $\Leftrightarrow G^c$ hamiltonian. Theorems of Dirac and Ore just cases where G^c is complete.

Chvátal-Erdős Theorem: If $n \geq 3$ and $\kappa(G) \geq \alpha(G)$ then G is hamiltonian.

Matchings

Matching M : set of independent edges (pairwise nonadjacent, no common vertices).

M -saturated vertex: incident with edge of M , otherwise *M -unsaturated*.

Perfect matching or *1-factor*: saturates all vertices.

$\alpha'(G)$ = size of maximum matching.

M -alternating path: Edges alternately in, not in, M .

M -augmenting path: M -alternating, ends are M -unsaturated.

Berge's Theorem: A matching M is maximum if and only if there is no M -augmenting path.

Vertex cover K is set of vertices, every edge has at least one end in K .

$\beta(G)$ = cardinality of minimum vertex cover.

Observe: $\alpha'(G) \leq \beta(G)$, so if we have matching M and vertex cover K with $|M| = |K|$ then M is maximum and K is minimum.

König-Egerváry Theorem: For bipartite G , $\alpha'(G) = \beta(G)$. (Not true for general graphs.)

König-Ore Formula: For bipartite $G(X, Y)$, $\alpha'(G) = |X| - \max_{S \subseteq X} (|S| - |N(S)|)$.

Hall's Theorem: Bipartite $G(X, Y)$ has a matching saturating $X \Leftrightarrow |N(S)| \geq |S| \forall S \subseteq X$.

Corollary: Every k -regular bipartite graph, $k \geq 1$, has a perfect matching. Hence every k -regular bipartite graph, $k \geq 0$, has a partition of its edges into perfect matchings (a *1-factorization*).

Defect of M is $\text{def}(M) = \text{number of } M\text{-unsaturated vertices} = n - 2|M|$.

Observe: For any matching M and $S \subseteq V(G)$, $\text{def}(M) \geq c_{\text{odd}}(G - S) - |S| = \text{shf}(S)$, *shortfall* of S (not standard term).

Berge's Formula, 1958: For any G ,

$$\min_{\text{matchings } M \text{ of } G} \text{def}(M) = \max_{S \subseteq V(G)} \text{shf}(S)$$

or equivalently $\alpha'(G) = \frac{1}{2} \left(|V(G)| - \max_{S \subseteq V(G)} (c_{\text{odd}}(S) - |S|) \right).$

Tutte's 1-Factor Theorem: G has a perfect matching $\Leftrightarrow c_{\text{odd}}(S) \leq |S| \forall S \subseteq V(G)$.

Colourings

k-colouring: $c : V(G) \rightarrow S$, $|S| = k$ (often $S = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$).

Proper colouring: no two adjacent vertices get the same colour.

k-colourable: G has a proper k -colouring.

Chromatic number $\chi(G)$: smallest k for which G is k -colourable.

Brooks' Theorem: If G is simple and connected and not a complete graph or odd cycle, then $\chi(G) \leq \Delta(G)$.

Chromatic polynomial $P(G, k)$ is number of proper k -colourings of G with colours $1, 2, \dots, k$. Turns out to be polynomial in k .

$$P(K_n, k) = k(k-1)(k-2) \dots (k-n+1).$$

$$P(\overline{K}_n, k) = k^n.$$

$$P(T, k) = k(k-1)^{n-1} \text{ for any } n\text{-vertex tree } T.$$

Expansion formula: If $xy \notin E(G)$, $P(G, k) = P(G + xy, k) + P(G_{x=y}, k)$.

Deletion-contraction formula: If $xy \in E(G)$, $P(G, k) = P(G - xy, k) - P(G/xy, k)$.

Euler's formula: Let G be a *plane graph* (specific crossing-free drawing of planar graph) with r *faces* (regions determined by graph, including outside). If G is connected then $n - m + r = 2$.

- *degree* $d(f)$ of face f = total length of all boundary walks.

- $F(G)$ = set of faces of G .

Face Degree-Sum Formula: $\sum_{f \in F(G)} d(f) = 2m$. (Every face has two sides. Or apply Degree-Sum Formula to dual.)

Theorem. Let G be a simple planar graph with $n \geq 3$. Then $m \leq 3n - 6$.

Corollary. K_5 is not planar.

Corollary. (a) The average degree of a simple planar graph is less than 6. (b) Thus, a planar graph G must have a vertex of degree at most 5.

Observation: Every planar graph is 6-colourable (by greedy colouring).

Five Colour Theorem. Every planar graph G is 5-colourable.

Four Colour Theorem (Appel and Haken, 1976): Every planar graph G is 4-colourable.