## Combinatorics

## Book 2

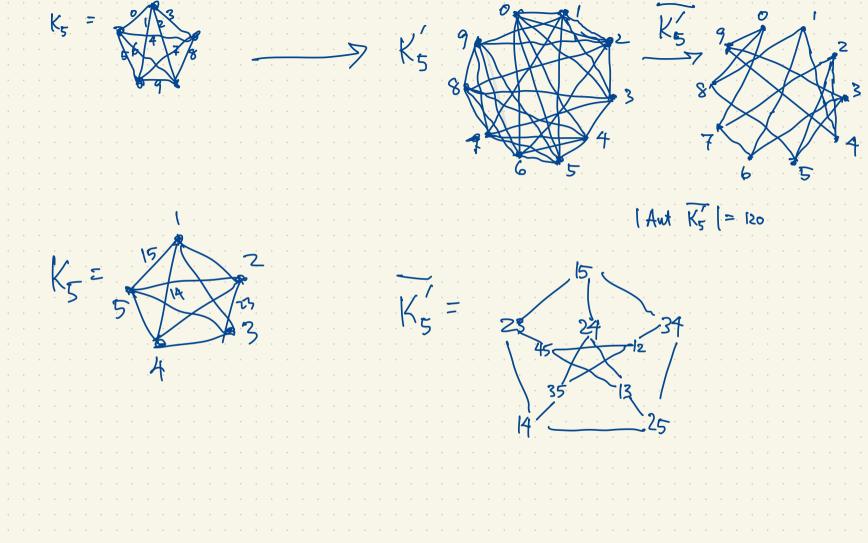
The graph Tiv (formed by removing v and its alges from T) has one fewer vertex, so it can be properly colored using at most 6 colors. And since v has at most 5 neighbors in Tiv, there is a color left over which can be used to color vertex v. This gives a proper coloring of T using at most 6 colors (a contradiction)
We will improve this to show that actually 5 colors suffice to properly color every
We will improve this to show that actually 5 colors suffice to properly color every planar graph. If \$\$ \$7 Th
Given a graph I, the chromatic number of T, denoted $\chi(\Gamma)$ , <u>Abc xXx</u>
is the smallest number of colors we can use to properly color the vertices for of $\Gamma$ . A proper coloring of the vertices of $\Gamma$ is a coloring of the vertices Greek "chi"
such that no edge has both endpoints of the same color.
The theorem of Appel and Haken (1976) is that every planar graph T has $\chi(F) \leq 4$ .
Note that $y(K_n) = n$ . Here $K_n$ is the complete graph of order n.
A graph I have $\gamma(\Gamma) = 1$ iff it has vertices but no edges.
A graph $\Gamma$ has $\chi(\Gamma) \leq 2$ iff $\Gamma$ is bipartite iff $\Gamma$ has no circuits of odd length.
Computing X(r) is hard in general.
Theorem IF $\Gamma$ is a finite planar graph then $\chi(\Gamma) \leq 5$ . Proof due to the wood.
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

Proof If the theorem fails then there is a smallest counterexample  $\Gamma$  with n vertices (so  $\Gamma$  is planar and every planar graph of order n-1 has chrometic number  $\leq 5$  while  $\gamma(\Gamma) \geq 6$ . We seek a contradiction.  $\Gamma$  has a vertex v of degree  $\leq 5$ . In fact deg v = 5. (If deg  $v \leq 4$ H) vertices in lee prothen  $\gamma(\Gamma) \leq 5$ , a contradiction.) Let  $\Gamma'$  be the graph obtained  $\chi'_{1}$  from  $\Gamma$  by deliting v and its five edges,  $\chi'_{2}$  so  $\chi(\Gamma') \leq 5$ . Say v: has color i (i=1,2,...,5). Colors 1,3 only. This graph is bipartite. I can assume  $v_r$  is joined to  $v_s$  in  $\Gamma_{13} = \Gamma(v_{rs})$  in part of  $\Gamma_{12}$  rangers colors 1.3 only this graph is bipartite. I can assume  $v_r$  is joined to  $v_s$  in  $\Gamma_{13}$  (otherwise closed using 12  $\Gamma_{12} = \Gamma(V_{12})$  in part of  $\Gamma_{13}$ , noverse colors 1,3 so that  $V_3$  gets color '. Then we are free to color V using color 3  $V_1$ ,  $V_2$ ,  $\Gamma_{12}$ ,  $\Gamma_{13}$ ,  $\Gamma_{14,5}$ ,  $\Gamma_{14,5}$ ,  $\Gamma_{14,5}$ ,  $\Gamma_{15}$ Similarly there is a path from v\_ to v\_ using only vertices of elors v\_ 2 and 4. Contradiction!

Given a graph I, e subgraph of I is formed by taking a subset of the edges of I together with all their vertices. An induced subgraph of I is formed by takin a subset of the vertices of I together with all their edges in I	•
$\Gamma = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix} + eg. \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 6 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma$ . (not an induced subgraph of $\Gamma$ )	ph
eg. 'I is an induced subgraph of $\Gamma$ .	
An induced subgraph of I is a subgraph of I, but not conversely.	
An induced subgraph of $\Gamma$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma$ , but not conversely. A <u>k-clique</u> in $\Gamma$ is a complete subgraph of $\Gamma$ , i.e. a subset of the vertices, any two of which are joined. In $\Gamma$ above, $\xi_{1,2,6}$ is a clique (in fact a 3-clique). The clique number of denoted $w(\Gamma)$ , is the size of the largest clique in $\Gamma$ . It is hard to compute $W$ vs. $w$ , $w(\Gamma)$ .	Γ,
denoted w(T), is the size of the largest clique in T. It is hard to compute	
W vs. $\omega$ $\omega(\Gamma)$ . Roman Greek Theorem For every graph $\Gamma$ , $\chi(\Gamma) \ge \omega(K)$ . $\frac{2}{2} = \frac{2}{3} \chi(P) = 3$	3
W vs. $\omega$ $\omega(T)$ . Roman Greek Theorem For every graph $\Gamma$ , $\chi(T) \ge \omega(K)$ . Warning: this not equality! For the Petersen graph P, $\omega(P)=2$ . Proof: The vertices in a clique of size $\omega(T)$ require $\omega(T)$ different colors. P.	egh

Dual to the clique number w(r) we have the coclique number a(r) which is the maximum
number of vertices in F, no two of which are joined. (This is $\alpha(\Gamma) = \omega(\Gamma)$ where
Dual to the clique number $w(\Gamma)$ we have the coclique number $\alpha(\Gamma)$ which is the maximum number of vertices in $\Gamma$ , no two of which are joined. (This is $\alpha(\Gamma) = w(\Gamma)$ where $\overline{r}$ is the complementary graph). Cocliques are also called independent sets of vertices
Eq. $\alpha(P) = 4$ . $ \chi(P)  \ge \frac{10}{4} = 2.5 \implies \chi(P) \ge 3.$
2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
4 8 A maximum coclique (i.e. a coclique of maximum size) is \$1,3,7,83
This is maximum size because P has vertex set 20,39,6,13 U \$2,9,5,
as a union of two 5-cycles (circuits of length 5). Any set of \$183
at least 5 vertices has either 3 on the inner 5-cycle \$2,7,5,48 or 8 and m
the outer Scycle \$0,3,9,6,13. In either case there is an edge in that 5-cycle
as a union of two 5-cycles (circuits of length 5). Any set of size 4,83 at least 5 vertices has either 3 on the inner 5-cycle \$2,7,5,4,83 or 8 vertices on the outer Scycle \$0,3,9,6,13. In either case there is an edge in that 5-cycle joining two vertices we have chosen.
Theorem $\chi(\Gamma) \ge \frac{ V }{\alpha(\Gamma)}$ where $ V  = the number of vertices = the order of \Gamma.$
Proof Let k= g(r). Properly color the vertices 1,2,, k and let V: be the subset
of vertices colored i, for i=1,2,, k. This gives a partition V = V, 11 V2 LI LI Vk
V. V. = union of V. and V.: V. LIV. = disjoint union of Vi and Vi). Each Vi is a
$V_{\cdot} \vee V_{\cdot} = \text{union of } V_{\cdot} \text{ and } V_{\cdot j}  V_{\cdot} \sqcup V_{\cdot} = \text{disjoint union of } V_{\cdot} \text{ and } V_{\cdot} \text{ ). Each } V_{\cdot} \text{ is a } \mathcal{O}_{\cdot} \text{ coclique so } (V_{\cdot}  \leq \alpha(\Gamma) \text{ so }  V  =  V_{\cdot}  +  V_{k}  + \dots +  V_{k}  \leq \alpha(\Gamma) + \alpha(\Gamma) + \dots + \alpha(\Gamma) = k \alpha(\Gamma) \text{ so }  V  = k \neq \frac{ V }{\alpha(\Gamma)}.$
$\lambda = \lambda =$

March Test 1: Wed Mar 8 8 10 Break 13 15 You can use nairty to test isomorphism between two graphs. Using nauty Software G= Aut F  $G = \left( (1,3)(4,5)(6,7)(8,9) \right) (0,2)(1,4)(3,5)(6,9)(7,8) \right)$ (61 = 4 G has 3 orbits on the vertices: 80,23, 81,3,4,53, 86,7,8,93



The Petersen graph P has a Hamilton path A 5 8 3 6 7 2 (9,123,6,8,579) (a path touching each vertex exactly once) but no Hamilton circuit (ending at the same vertex where it started). The Hamming cale H3 = 001 (11) = does have a Hamilton 000 100 100 circuit 000 Gray code " A graph having a Hamilton circuit Every Harring graph Hu (n72) has a Hamilton circuit. 001 is called Hamiltonian. Looking for Hamilton paths or circuits known to be difficult in general. Testing whether a giving graph F 12 Hamiltonian is NP-complete.

Theorem: The Petersen graph P is not Hamiltonian, i.e. it does not have a Hamilton circuit/cycle. 9 Proof Suppose P has a Hamilton circuit. Without (4,0,1,2) (This is because P has 120 automorphing 5 6 T 2 napping any such path of length 3 to any other.) The Hamilton circuit uses two of the edges from vertex 3, so it uses either {3,43 or {2,3}; so without We cannot use the edge {3,4} as this would complete the circuit without passing through all vertices; so we must me the edges {3,6} and {4,5}. To continue the circuit from vertex 6, we have two choices: proceed through and \$4,5?. proceed through vertex 8 or retex 9. Neither of these This is a contradiction. Choices leads to a Hamilton circuit Euler paths and circuits

The Seven bridges of Königsberg e \_ e D A and the part of the second and the second second An Enler trail is a trail (repeating vertices but not edges) which uses each edge exactly once. An Enler circuit is an Enler frail that returns to its starting point. In order to have an Enler trail. In order to have an Enler trail, a graph must have either 0 or 2 vertices of sold degree. When there are no vertices of sold degree, we have an Enler circuit. Theorem (Enler) A graph has an Euler freil iff it is connected and it has either 0 or 2 vertices of odd degree. In the case every vertex has even degree, we have an Enler circuit/cycle.

We sometimes speak of labelled graphs and unlabelled graphs. Eq. on the vertex set  $\{1,2,3,4\}$ , there are  $2^6 = 64$  labelled graphs  $(\frac{4}{2}) = 6$  pairs of vertices. 2. .3 There are (2) labelled graphs on a vertices. But many of them are isoanorphic. 2. 13 # 2. 3 These are different (abelled graphs but they are isomorphic. N = X As unlabelled graphes they are isomorphic, hence the same graph. L'UNKKNHZM There are 11 unlabelled graphs of order 4 i.e. 11 isomorphism types of graphs of order 4, i.e. 11 graphs of order 4 up to isomorphism.

The Petersen graph has girth 5 ( the shortest cycle has length 5). It has 15 edges. for a graph on 10 vertices, 15 edges is the maximum possible for girth 5. for a graph on 10 vertices without triangles (i.e. girth >=4), what is the maximum possible number of edges? Km, is bipartite so it has no cycles of odd length. In particular it has no triangles. Kmin has no edges Recall: Km, n = Kz,8 has 16 edges hearen If  $\Gamma$  is a graph of order a with no triangles (i.e. its girth is at least 4) then  $\Gamma$  has at most  $\frac{n}{4}$  edges. K2,8 K5,5 16 edges 25 edges girth 4 If a is even then  $K_{\frac{n}{2},\frac{n}{2}}$  attains the upper bound of  $\frac{n^2}{4}$  edges. What if n is odd? (no triangles) Ou quertices, any graph without triangles has at most 20 elges. Kais .