Part A Graph Theory

Marc Lackenby

Trinity Term 2022

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆ 臣▶ ◆ 臣▶ ○ 臣 ○ の Q @

Graph theory is the mathematical theory of networks.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

Graph theory is the mathematical theory of networks. A graph has 'nodes' called vertices.



◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆臣▶ ◆臣▶ □臣 ○のへ⊙

Graph theory is the mathematical theory of networks. A graph has 'nodes' called vertices. These are connected by 'lines' called edges.



Graph theory is the mathematical theory of networks.

A graph has 'nodes' called vertices. These are connected by 'lines' called edges.

We will give a formal definition shortly.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

A famous result in graph theory is the Four Colour Theorem.

(ロ)、(型)、(E)、(E)、 E) の(()

A famous result in graph theory is the Four Colour Theorem.

This answers a question first posed by Francis Guthrie in 1852:

A famous result in graph theory is the Four Colour Theorem. This answers a question first posed by Francis Guthrie in 1852:

> Is it possible to colour the countries using only four different colours, so that any two countries sharing a border receive different colours?

> > ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

A famous result in graph theory is the Four Colour Theorem. This answers a question first posed by Francis Guthrie in 1852:

> Is it possible to colour the countries using only four different colours, so that any two countries sharing a border receive different colours?



A famous result in graph theory is the Four Colour Theorem. This answers a question first posed by Francis Guthrie in 1852:

> Is it possible to colour the countries using only four different colours, so that any two countries sharing a border receive different colours?



A famous result in graph theory is the Four Colour Theorem. This answers a question first posed by Francis Guthrie in 1852:

> Is it possible to colour the countries using only four different colours, so that any two countries sharing a border receive different colours?



This was proved by Appel and Haken in 1976, using a controversial computer-assisted proof.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

The government wants to build a new high speed rail network that links all of the major cities in the country.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

The government wants to build a new high speed rail network that links all of the major cities in the country.

It wants to decide which existing rail lines to upgrade.



▲ロ ▶ ▲周 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ● の Q @

The government wants to build a new high speed rail network that links all of the major cities in the country.

It wants to decide which existing rail lines to upgrade.

The government's main priority is not to minimise journey times, but rather to minimise the cost subject to making a connected network.



The government wants to build a new high speed rail network that links all of the major cities in the country.

It wants to decide which existing rail lines to upgrade.

The government's main priority is not to minimise journey times, but rather to minimise the cost subject to making a connected network.



Let us make some definitions and formulate this problem mathematically.

A graph G = (V(G), E(G)) consists of two sets:

V(G) (the vertex set) and E(G) (the edge set),

where each element of E(G) consists of a pair of elements of V(G).

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

A graph G = (V(G), E(G)) consists of two sets:

V(G) (the vertex set) and E(G) (the edge set),

where each element of E(G) consists of a pair of elements of V(G).



A graph G = (V(G), E(G)) consists of two sets:

V(G) (the vertex set) and E(G) (the edge set),

where each element of E(G) consists of a pair of elements of V(G).



A graph G = (V(G), E(G)) consists of two sets:

V(G) (the vertex set) and E(G) (the edge set),

where each element of E(G) consists of a pair of elements of V(G).



A graph G = (V(G), E(G)) consists of two sets:

V(G) (the vertex set) and E(G) (the edge set),

where each element of E(G) consists of a pair of elements of V(G).

We will always assume without further comment that

|V(G)| is finite.



We use the term 'graph' where some would say 'simple graph', using 'graph' for a more general structure which allows several 'parallel' edges between a given pair of vertices and 'loop' edges that join a vertex to itself.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

We use the term 'graph' where some would say 'simple graph', using 'graph' for a more general structure which allows several 'parallel' edges between a given pair of vertices and 'loop' edges that join a vertex to itself.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

We use the term 'graph' where some would say 'simple graph', using 'graph' for a more general structure which allows several 'parallel' edges between a given pair of vertices and 'loop' edges that join a vertex to itself.



We write $uv = \{u, v\} = vu$ for the (unordered) pair representing an edge between u and v.

<□▶ <□▶ < □▶ < □▶ < □▶ < □▶ = のへぐ

Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.



イロト イヨト イヨト

Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.



Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

If we want to specify the start and end then we call W an xy-walk with $x = v_1$ and $y = v_t$.



ヘロト ヘボト ヘヨト ヘヨト

Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

If we want to specify the start and end then we call W an xy-walk with $x = v_1$ and $y = v_t$.

If the vertices in *W* are distinct we call it a *path*, or if we want to specify the ends an *xy-path*.



Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

If we want to specify the start and end then we call W an xy-walk with $x = v_1$ and $y = v_t$.

If the vertices in *W* are distinct we call it a *path*, or if we want to specify the ends an *xy-path*.

If x = y we call W a *closed walk*.



Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

If we want to specify the start and end then we call W an xy-walk with $x = v_1$ and $y = v_t$.

If the vertices in *W* are distinct we call it a *path*, or if we want to specify the ends an *xy-path*.

If x = y we call W a *closed walk*.

If x = y but the vertices are otherwise distinct and W has at least 3 vertices then we call W a *cycle*.



Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

If we want to specify the start and end then we call W an xy-walk with $x = v_1$ and $y = v_t$.

If the vertices in *W* are distinct we call it a *path*, or if we want to specify the ends an *xy-path*.

If x = y we call W a *closed walk*.

If x = y but the vertices are otherwise distinct and W has at least 3 vertices then we call W a *cycle*.



Let G be a graph. A *walk* in G is a sequence W of vertices v_1, \ldots, v_t such that $v_i v_{i+1} \in E(G)$ for all $1 \le i < t$.

If we want to specify the start and end then we call W an xy-walk with $x = v_1$ and $y = v_t$.

If the vertices in *W* are distinct we call it a *path*, or if we want to specify the ends an *xy-path*.

If x = y we call W a *closed walk*.

If x = y but the vertices are otherwise distinct and W has at least 3 vertices then we call W a *cycle*.

We also regard paths and cycles as subgraphs of G.



Connectedness and components

We say that G is *connected* if for any x, y in V(G) there is an *xy*-walk in G.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

Connectedness and components

We say that G is *connected* if for any x, y in V(G) there is an *xy*-walk in G.

We say that two vertices x and y of a graph G lie in the same component if they are joined by an xy-walk.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Connectedness and components

We say that G is *connected* if for any x, y in V(G) there is an *xy*-walk in G.

We say that two vertices x and y of a graph G lie in the same component if they are joined by an xy-walk.



(日) (四) (日) (日) (日)
Connectedness and components

We say that G is *connected* if for any x, y in V(G) there is an *xy*-walk in G.

We say that two vertices x and y of a graph G lie in the same component if they are joined by an xy-walk.



Clearly this forms an equivalence relation and the partition of V(G) into equivalence classes expresses G as a union of disjoint connected graphs called its *components*.

Let G be a connected graph.

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

For any $S \subseteq E(G)$ we call

$$c(S) = \sum_{e \in S} c(e)$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

the cost of *S*.

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

For any $S \subseteq E(G)$ we call

$$c(S) = \sum_{e \in S} c(e)$$

the cost of S.

Our task:

Find $S \subseteq E(G)$ with minimum possible c(S) such that (V(G), S) is a connected graph.

A silly way of solving this task would be to list all $S \subseteq E(G)$, check each one to see whether (V(G), S) is a connected graph, compute c(S) for each, and take the best one.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

A silly way of solving this task would be to list all $S \subseteq E(G)$, check each one to see whether (V(G), S) is a connected graph, compute c(S) for each, and take the best one.

This is silly because there are $2^{|E(G)|}$ subsets of E(G), so we could never check them all in practice unless G is very small.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

A silly way of solving this task would be to list all $S \subseteq E(G)$, check each one to see whether (V(G), S) is a connected graph, compute c(S) for each, and take the best one.

This is silly because there are $2^{|E(G)|}$ subsets of E(G), so we could never check them all in practice unless G is very small.

We are interested in 'efficient algorithms'. We will not define this concept precisely in this course, but it will be exemplified by the algorithms that we present.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

What can we say about the possible $S \subseteq E(G)$ that solves our task?

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆ 臣▶ ◆ 臣▶ ○ 臣 ○ の Q @

What can we say about the possible $S \subseteq E(G)$ that solves our task?

One obvious property is that (V(G), S) is 'minimally connected', i.e. (V(G), S) is connected but $(V(G), S \setminus \{e\})$ is not connected for any $e \in S$ (otherwise we contradict minimality of c(S)).

What can we say about the possible $S \subseteq E(G)$ that solves our task?

One obvious property is that (V(G), S) is 'minimally connected', i.e. (V(G), S) is connected but $(V(G), S \setminus \{e\})$ is not connected for any $e \in S$ (otherwise we contradict minimality of c(S)).

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

This motivates the next section.

Trees



A *tree* is a minimally connected graph.



Trees

A *tree* is a minimally connected graph.



◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ 三三 - のへで

If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

▲ロ ▶ ▲周 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ● の Q @

If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C.



▲ロ ▶ ▲周 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ▲ 国 ▶ ● の Q @

If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C.



If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C. Let $e \in E(C)$.



If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C. Let $e \in E(C)$. We will obtain our contradiction by showing that $G - e := (V(G), E(G) \setminus \{e\})$ is

connected.



If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C. Let $e \in E(C)$.

We will obtain our contradiction by showing that $G - e := (V(G), E(G) \setminus \{e\})$ is

connected.

Let P be the path obtained by deleting e from C.



If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C. Let $e \in E(C)$.

We will obtain our contradiction by showing that $G - e := (V(G), E(G) \setminus \{e\})$ is

connected.

Let P be the path obtained by deleting e from C.

```
Consider any x, y in V(G).
```



If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C. Let $e \in E(C)$.

We will obtain our contradiction by showing that $G - e := (V(G), E(G) \setminus \{e\})$ is

connected.

Let P be the path obtained by deleting e from C.

Consider any x, y in V(G). As G is connected, there is an xy-walk W in G.



If a graph G has no cycle we call it *acyclic*.

Lemma 1. Any tree is acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> Let G be a tree, i.e. G is minimally connected.

Suppose for a contradiction that G contains a cycle C. Let $e \in E(C)$.

We will obtain our contradiction by showing that $G - e := (V(G), E(G) \setminus \{e\})$ is

connected.

Let P be the path obtained by deleting e from C.

Consider any x, y in V(G). As G is connected, there is an xy-walk W in G. Replacing any use of e in W by P gives an xy-walk in G - e. Thus G - e is connected, contradiction.



ロト (日) (日) (日) (日) (日) (日) (日)

There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ □ のへぐ

Lemma 2. G is a tree if and only if G is connected and acyclic.

There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Lemma 2. G is a tree if and only if G is connected and acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> (\Rightarrow) If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and acyclic by Lemma 1.

There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Lemma 2. G is a tree if and only if G is connected and acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> (\Rightarrow) If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and acyclic by Lemma 1.

(\Leftarrow) Conversely, let *G* be connected and acyclic.

There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

Lemma 2. G is a tree if and only if G is connected and acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> (\Rightarrow) If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and acyclic by Lemma 1.

(\Leftarrow) Conversely, let *G* be connected and acyclic. Suppose for a contradiction that G - e is connected for some $e = xy \in E(G)$.



There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

Lemma 2. G is a tree if and only if G is connected and acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> (\Rightarrow) If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and acyclic by Lemma 1.

(\Leftarrow) Conversely, let *G* be connected and acyclic. Suppose for a contradiction that *G* - *e* is connected for some *e* = *xy* \in *E*(*G*). Let *W* be a shortest *xy*-walk in *G* - *e*. Then *W* must be a path, i.e. have no repeated vertices, otherwise we would find a shorter walk by deleting a segment of *W* between two visits to the same vertex.



There are many equivalent characterisations of trees, any of which could be taken as the definition. Here is one:

Lemma 2. G is a tree if and only if G is connected and acyclic.

<u>Proof.</u> (\Rightarrow) If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and acyclic by Lemma 1.

(\Leftarrow) Conversely, let *G* be connected and acyclic. Suppose for a contradiction that G - e is connected for some $e = xy \in E(G)$. Let *W* be a shortest *xy*-walk in G - e. Then *W* must be a path, i.e. have no repeated vertices, otherwise we would find a shorter walk by deleting a segment of *W* between two visits to the same vertex. Combining *W* with *xy* gives a cycle, contradiction.



・ロト ・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ・ つ へ の

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

Lemma 3. Any two vertices in a tree are joined by a unique path.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

Lemma 3. Any two vertices in a tree are joined by a unique path.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose for a contradiction that this fails for some tree G.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

Lemma 3. Any two vertices in a tree are joined by a unique path.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose for a contradiction that this fails for some tree G. Choose x, y in V(G) so that there are distinct xy-paths P_1 , P_2 , and P_1 is as short as possible over all such choices of x and y.


Paths in trees

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

Lemma 3. Any two vertices in a tree are joined by a unique path.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose for a contradiction that this fails for some tree G. Choose x, y in V(G) so that there are distinct xy-paths P_1 , P_2 , and P_1 is as short as possible over all such choices of x and y. Then P_1 and P_2 only intersect in x and y.



Paths in trees

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

Lemma 3. Any two vertices in a tree are joined by a unique path.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose for a contradiction that this fails for some tree G. Choose x, y in V(G) so that there are distinct xy-paths P_1 , P_2 , and P_1 is as short as possible over all such choices of x and y. Then P_1 and P_2 only intersect in x and y.



Paths in trees

The fact that a shortest walk between two points is a path is often useful. More generally, considering an extremal (shortest, longest, minimal, maximal, ...) object is often a useful proof technique. Another example:

Lemma 3. Any two vertices in a tree are joined by a unique path.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose for a contradiction that this fails for some tree G. Choose x, y in V(G) so that there are distinct xy-paths P_1 , P_2 , and P_1 is as short as possible over all such choices of x and y. Then P_1 and P_2 only intersect in x and y. So their union is a cycle, contradicting Lemma 2.



Adjacency and degree

Let G be a graph.



Adjacency and degree

Let G be a graph.

If $uv \in E(G)$ we say that u and v are *neighbours*. We also say that u and v are *adjacent*.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

Adjacency and degree

Let G be a graph.

If $uv \in E(G)$ we say that u and v are *neighbours*. We also say that u and v are *adjacent*.

The degree d(v) of v is the number of neighbours of v in G.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●



A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.



A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.

Lemma 4. Any tree with at least two vertices has at least two leaves.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.

Lemma 4. Any tree with at least two vertices has at least two leaves.

Proof. Consider any tree *G*.



(日) (四) (日) (日) (日)

A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.

Lemma 4. Any tree with at least two vertices has at least two leaves.

<u>Proof.</u> Consider any tree G. Let P be a longest path in G.



A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.

Lemma 4. Any tree with at least two vertices has at least two leaves.

<u>Proof.</u> Consider any tree G. Let P be a longest path in G. The two ends of P must be leaves.



A *leaf* is a vertex of degree one, i.e. with a unique neighbour.

<u>Lemma 4.</u> Any tree with at least two vertices has at least two leaves.

<u>Proof.</u> Consider any tree *G*. Let *P* be a longest path in *G*. The two ends of *P* must be leaves. Indeed, an end cannot have a neighbour in $V(G) \setminus V(P)$, or we could make *P* longer, and cannot have any neighbour in V(P) other than the next in the sequence of *P*, or we would have a cycle.



◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆□▶ □ ○ ○ ○

Given
$$v \in V(G)$$
, let $G - v$ be the graph with $V(G - v) = V(G) \setminus \{v\}$ and $E(G - v) = \{xy \in E(G) : v \notin \{x, y\}\}.$

Given $v \in V(G)$, let G - v be the graph with $V(G - v) = V(G) \setminus \{v\}$ and $E(G - v) = \{xy \in E(G) : v \notin \{x, y\}\}.$

Lemma 5. If G is a tree and v is a leaf of G then G - v is a tree.



Given $v \in V(G)$, let G - v be the graph with $V(G - v) = V(G) \setminus \{v\}$ and $E(G - v) = \{xy \in E(G) : v \notin \{x, y\}\}.$

Lemma 5. If G is a tree and v is a leaf of G then G - v is a tree.

<u>Proof.</u> By Lemma 2 it suffices to show that G - v is connected and acyclic.



Given $v \in V(G)$, let G - v be the graph with $V(G - v) = V(G) \setminus \{v\}$ and $E(G - v) = \{xy \in E(G) : v \notin \{x, y\}\}.$

Lemma 5. If G is a tree and v is a leaf of G then G - v is a tree.

<u>Proof.</u> By Lemma 2 it suffices to show that G - v is connected and acyclic. Acyclicity is immediate from Lemma 2.



Given $v \in V(G)$, let G - v be the graph with $V(G - v) = V(G) \setminus \{v\}$ and $E(G - v) = \{xy \in E(G) : v \notin \{x, y\}\}.$

Lemma 5. If G is a tree and v is a leaf of G then G - v is a tree.

Proof. By Lemma 2 it suffices to show that G - v is connected and acyclic. Acyclicity is immediate from Lemma 2. Connectivity follows by noting for any x, y in $V(G) \setminus \{v\}$ that the unique xy-path in G is contained in G - v.



・ロト ・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ・ つ へ の

Lemma 6. Any tree on *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

Lemma 6. Any tree on n vertices has n - 1 edges. <u>Proof.</u> By induction on the number of vertices.

(ロ)、(型)、(E)、(E)、 E) の(()

Lemma 6. Any tree on *n* vertices has n-1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> By induction on the number of vertices. A tree with 1 vertex has 0 edges.

Lemma 6. Any tree on *n* vertices has n-1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> By induction on the number of vertices. A tree with 1 vertex has 0 edges. Let *G* be a tree on n > 1 vertices.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ □ のへぐ

Lemma 6. Any tree on *n* vertices has n-1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> By induction on the number of vertices. A tree with 1 vertex has 0 edges. Let G be a tree on n > 1 vertices. By Lemma 4, G has a leaf v.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

Lemma 6. Any tree on *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> By induction on the number of vertices. A tree with 1 vertex has 0 edges. Let G be a tree on n > 1 vertices. By Lemma 4, G has a leaf v. By Lemma 5, G - v is a tree.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

Lemma 6. Any tree on *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> By induction on the number of vertices. A tree with 1 vertex has 0 edges. Let *G* be a tree on n > 1 vertices. By Lemma 4, *G* has a leaf *v*. By Lemma 5, G - v is a tree. By the induction hypothesis, G - v has n - 2 edges. Replacing *v* gives n - 1 edges in *G*.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Spanning trees

Any connected graph G contains a minimally connected subgraph (i.e. a tree) with the same vertex set, which we call a *spanning tree* of G.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ □ のへぐ

Spanning trees

Any connected graph G contains a minimally connected subgraph (i.e. a tree) with the same vertex set, which we call a *spanning tree* of G.



Another characterisation of trees

Lemma 7. A graph G is a tree on n vertices if and only if G is connected and has n - 1 edges.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

Another characterisation of trees

Lemma 7. A graph G is a tree on n vertices if and only if G is connected and has n - 1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and has n-1 edges by Lemma 6.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

Another characterisation of trees

Lemma 7. A graph G is a tree on n vertices if and only if G is connected and has n - 1 edges.

<u>Proof.</u> If G is a tree then G is connected by definition and has n-1 edges by Lemma 6.

Conversely, suppose that *G* is connected and has n - 1 edges. Let *H* be a spanning tree of *G*. Then *H* has n - 1 edges by Lemma 6, so H = G, so *G* is a tree.

Minimum Cost Spanning Trees

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆ 臣▶ ◆ 臣▶ ○ 臣 ○ の Q @

Recall our high-speed rail network problem:

Recall our high-speed rail network problem:

Let G be a connected graph.

Recall our high-speed rail network problem:

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

Recall our high-speed rail network problem:

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

For any $S \subseteq E(G)$ we call

$$c(S) = \sum_{e \in S} c(e)$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

the cost of S.

Recall our high-speed rail network problem:

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

For any $S \subseteq E(G)$ we call

$$c(S) = \sum_{e \in S} c(e)$$

the cost of S.

Recall that a spanning tree for G is a tree T = (V(G), S) where $S \subseteq E(G)$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00
Minimum cost spanning trees

Recall our high-speed rail network problem:

Let G be a connected graph.

Suppose that for each edge $e \in E(G)$ we are given a 'cost' c(e) > 0.

For any $S \subseteq E(G)$ we call

$$c(S) = \sum_{e \in S} c(e)$$

the cost of S.

Recall that a spanning tree for G is a tree T = (V(G), S) where $S \subseteq E(G)$.

A spanning tree T for G has minimum cost if any other spanning tree T' satisfies $c(T') \ge c(T)$.

How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ □ のQで

How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.

Start with $A_0 = \emptyset$.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ □ のQで

How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.

Start with $A_0 = \emptyset$. At step $i \ge 0$, is there an edge $e \in E(G) \setminus A_i$ such that $(V(G), A_i \cup \{e\})$ is acyclic? If no, then output $A = A_i$ and stop. If yes, then set $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\}$ for one such e such that c(e) is minimal, and proceed to step i + 1.



How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.

Start with $A_0 = \emptyset$. At step $i \ge 0$, is there an edge $e \in E(G) \setminus A_i$ such that $(V(G), A_i \cup \{e\})$ is acyclic? If no, then output $A = A_i$ and stop. If yes, then set $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\}$ for one such e such that c(e) is minimal, and proceed to step i + 1.



How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.

Start with $A_0 = \emptyset$. At step $i \ge 0$, is there an edge $e \in E(G) \setminus A_i$ such that $(V(G), A_i \cup \{e\})$ is acyclic? If no, then output $A = A_i$ and stop. If yes, then set $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\}$ for one such e such that c(e) is minimal, and proceed to step i + 1.



How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.

Start with $A_0 = \emptyset$. At step $i \ge 0$, is there an edge $e \in E(G) \setminus A_i$ such that $(V(G), A_i \cup \{e\})$ is acyclic? If no, then output $A = A_i$ and stop. If yes, then set $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\}$ for one such e such that c(e) is minimal, and proceed to step i + 1.



How can we find a minimum cost spanning tree efficiently?

Kruskal's Algorithm.

At step $i \ge 0$, we will keep track of a subset $A_i \subseteq E(G)$. This will have the property that $(V(G), A_i)$ is acyclic.

Start with $A_0 = \emptyset$. At step $i \ge 0$, is there an edge $e \in E(G) \setminus A_i$ such that $(V(G), A_i \cup \{e\})$ is acyclic? If no, then output $A = A_i$ and stop. If yes, then set $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\}$ for one such e such that c(e) is minimal, and proceed to step i + 1.



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

Proof.

<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>**Proof.**</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected.



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected.



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected. Let u, v lie in different components of (V(G), A).



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected. Let u, v lie in different components of (V(G), A). As G is connected, there is a uv-walk.



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected. Let u, v lie in different components of (V(G), A). As G is connected, there is a uv-walk. This must contain an edge e of G whose endpoints are in different components of (V(G), A).



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected. Let u, v lie in different components of (V(G), A). As G is connected, there is a uv-walk. This must contain an edge e of G whose endpoints are in different components of (V(G), A). So $A \cup \{e\}$ is acyclic.



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A) is not connected. Let u, v lie in different components of (V(G), A). As G is connected, there is a uv-walk. This must contain an edge e of G whose endpoints are in different components of (V(G), A). So $A \cup \{e\}$ is acyclic. So, the algorithm should not have terminated when it did. Instead, it should have added e to A_i .



<u>Theorem 9.</u> (V(G), A) is a minimum cost spanning tree of G.

<u>Proof.</u> (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.

By construction, it is is acyclic.

Suppose, for a contradiction, that (V(G), A)is not connected. Let u, v lie in different components of (V(G), A). As G is connected, there is a *uv*-walk. This must contain an edge e of G whose endpoints are in different components of (V(G), A). So $A \cup \{e\}$ is acyclic. So, the algorithm should not have terminated when it did. Instead, it should have added e to A_i . This contradiction shows that (V(G), A) is a spanning tree of G.



(V(G), A) has minimum cost.



(V(G), A) has minimum cost.

Let \mathcal{M} be the set of $B \subset E(G)$ such that (V(G), B) is a MCST.

(V(G), A) has minimum cost.

Let \mathcal{M} be the set of $B \subset E(G)$ such that (V(G), B) is a MCST.

We will prove by induction on i that

(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.



(V(G), A) has minimum cost.

Let \mathcal{M} be the set of $B \subset E(G)$ such that (V(G), B) is a MCST. We will prove by induction on *i* that

(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.

Note that (*) will suffice to prove the theorem, as when we apply it to $A_i = A$ we will have $A \subseteq B$ for some $B \in \mathcal{M}$ and so |A| = |B|by Lemma 6, and so $A = B \in \mathcal{M}$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆臣▶ ◆臣▶ 臣 の�?

(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Base case i = 0 of (*). We have $A_0 = \emptyset$, so any $B \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfies (*).

(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.

Base case i = 0 of (*). We have $A_0 = \emptyset$, so any $B \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfies (*).

Induction step. Suppose for some $i \ge 0$ we have $A_i \subseteq B \in \mathcal{M}$. We can suppose $A_i \neq A$, otherwise the proof is complete.



(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.

Base case i = 0 of (*). We have $A_0 = \emptyset$, so any $B \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfies (*).

Induction step. Suppose for some $i \ge 0$ we have $A_i \subseteq B \in \mathcal{M}$. We can suppose $A_i \neq A$, otherwise the proof is complete.



(*) there is a $B \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_i \subseteq B$.

Base case i = 0 of (*). We have $A_0 = \emptyset$, so any $B \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfies (*).

Induction step. Suppose for some $i \ge 0$ we have $A_i \subseteq B \in \mathcal{M}$. We can suppose $A_i \ne A$, otherwise the proof is complete. Consider $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\}$ given by the algorithm. We need to find $B' \in \mathcal{M}$ with $A_{i+1} \subseteq B'$. We can assume $e \notin B$, otherwise we could take B' = B.



Let e = xy and let P be the unique xy-path in the spanning tree (V(G), B).



・ロト ・ 国 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ト

э

Let e = xy and let P be the unique xy-path in the spanning tree (V(G), B).

Then $C = P \cup \{e\}$ is a cycle. As A_{i+1} is acyclic, we can choose $f \in C \setminus A_{i+1}$.



・ロト ・ 国 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ト

Let e = xy and let P be the unique xy-path in the spanning tree (V(G), B).

Then $C = P \cup \{e\}$ is a cycle. As A_{i+1} is acyclic, we can choose $f \in C \setminus A_{i+1}$. Let $B' = (B \setminus \{f\}) \cup \{e\}$.



・ロット (雪) ・ (日) ・ (日) ・ 日

Let e = xy and let P be the unique xy-path in the spanning tree (V(G), B).

Then $C = P \cup \{e\}$ is a cycle. As A_{i+1} is acyclic, we can choose $f \in C \setminus A_{i+1}$. Let $B' = (B \setminus \{f\}) \cup \{e\}$.

To finish the proof we need to show that

1.
$$A_{i+1} \subseteq B'$$
,

- 2. (V(G), B') is a spanning tree, and
- 3. $c(B') \leq c(B)$.



・ロト ・四ト ・ヨト ・ヨト ・ヨ

 $A_{i+1} \subseteq B'$:



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ
$A_{i+1} \subseteq B'$: Note that $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\} \subseteq B'$, as $A_i \subseteq B$ and $f \notin A_{i+1}$.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

 $A_{i+1} \subseteq B'$:

Note that $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\} \subseteq B'$, as $A_i \subseteq B$ and $f \notin A_{i+1}$.

(V(G), B') is a spanning tree:



 $A_{i+1} \subseteq B'$:

Note that $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{e\} \subseteq B'$, as $A_i \subseteq B$ and $f \notin A_{i+1}$.

(V(G), B') is a spanning tree:

Note that B' is connected, for the following reason. Any two vertices in V(G) are joined by a path in B. Replace each occurence of f in this path by $C \setminus \{f\}$. Also B' has |V(G)| - 1 edges. So it is a spanning tree by Lemma 7.



- 日本 本語 本 本 田 本 王 本 田 本

 $c(B') \leq c(B)$:



◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆三▶ ◆三▶ 三三 - のへで

 $c(B') \leq c(B)$: Note that $A_i \cup \{f\} \subseteq B$, so $A_i \cup \{f\}$ is acyclic.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

 $c(B') \leq c(B)$:

Note that $A_i \cup \{f\} \subseteq B$, so $A_i \cup \{f\}$ is acyclic.

Now *e* was chosen so that c(e) is minimal among all edges *e* such that $A_i \cup \{e\}$ is acyclic. Hence, $c(e) \leq c(f)$.



 $c(B') \leq c(B)$:

Note that $A_i \cup \{f\} \subseteq B$, so $A_i \cup \{f\}$ is acyclic.

Now *e* was chosen so that c(e) is minimal among all edges *e* such that $A_i \cup \{e\}$ is acyclic. Hence, $c(e) \leq c(f)$.

So
$$c(B') = c(B) - c(f) + c(e) \le c(B)$$
.



 $c(B') \leq c(B)$:

Note that $A_i \cup \{f\} \subseteq B$, so $A_i \cup \{f\}$ is acyclic.

Now *e* was chosen so that c(e) is minimal among all edges *e* such that $A_i \cup \{e\}$ is acyclic. Hence, $c(e) \leq c(f)$.

So
$$c(B') = c(B) - c(f) + c(e) \le c(B)$$
.

This finishes the proof of the inductive step of (*), and so of the theorem.



How fast is this algorithm?



How fast is this algorithm?

To make this question mathematically precise would take us far afield (we would need to define a model of computation). In this course, we will take the intuitive approach of estimating the number of 'steps' taken by an algorithm, where a 'step' should be a 'simple' operation.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

In each iteration we add an edge, so there will be |V(G)| - 1 iterations.

In each iteration we add an edge, so there will be |V(G)| - 1 iterations.

If at each stage of the algorithm, we naively find the next edge by checking every edge then there will be |E(G)| steps in each iteration, giving about |V(G)||E(G)| steps in total.

In each iteration we add an edge, so there will be |V(G)| - 1 iterations.

If at each stage of the algorithm, we naively find the next edge by checking every edge then there will be |E(G)| steps in each iteration, giving about |V(G)||E(G)| steps in total.

We say that the running time is O(|V(G)||E(G)|), where the 'big O' notation means that there is a constant C so that for any graph G the running time is at most C|V(G)||E(G)|.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

In each iteration we add an edge, so there will be |V(G)| - 1 iterations.

If at each stage of the algorithm, we naively find the next edge by checking every edge then there will be |E(G)| steps in each iteration, giving about |V(G)||E(G)| steps in total.

We say that the running time is O(|V(G)||E(G)|), where the 'big O' notation means that there is a constant C so that for any graph G the running time is at most C|V(G)||E(G)|.

Here 'running time' could be measured in any units, say milliseconds on your favourite computer, as changing the units or using a different computer will just replace C by a different constant.

A smarter implementation is to start by making a list of all edges ordered by cost, cheapest first. Then at each step we go through the list from the start, discarding edges that make a cycle until we find the first edge which can be added.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

A smarter implementation is to start by making a list of all edges ordered by cost, cheapest first. Then at each step we go through the list from the start, discarding edges that make a cycle until we find the first edge which can be added.

This gives a running time that is 'roughly comparable' with the number of edges, which is essentially best possible.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

The town of Königsberg is divided into 4 districts by the river Pregel.

(ロ)、(型)、(E)、(E)、 E) の(()

The town of Königsberg is divided into 4 districts by the river Pregel.



(日) (四) (日) (日) (日)

The town of Königsberg is divided into 4 districts by the river Pregel.



(日) (四) (日) (日) (日)

In the 18th century, the river was spanned by 7 bridges.

The town of Königsberg is divided into 4 districts by the river Pregel.



In the 18th century, the river was spanned by 7 bridges.

Is it possible to take a walk that crosses every bridge exactly once?

The town of Königsberg is divided into 4 districts by the river Pregel.



In the 18th century, the river was spanned by 7 bridges.

Is it possible to take a walk that crosses every bridge exactly once?

The town of Königsberg is divided into 4 districts by the river Pregel.



In the 18th century, the river was spanned by 7 bridges.

Is it possible to take a walk that crosses every bridge exactly once?

Let W be a walk in a graph G. We call W an *Euler trail* if every edge of G appears exactly once in W.

The problem was solved by Leonard Euler in 1766.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

The problem was solved by Leonard Euler in 1766.



Let W be an Euler trail. We call W an *Euler tour* if it is closed, i.e. it starts and ends at the same vertex.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

The problem was solved by Leonard Euler in 1766.



Let W be an Euler trail. We call W an *Euler tour* if it is closed, i.e. it starts and ends at the same vertex.

Here we will only solve the problem of finding an Euler tour; the solution of the Euler trail problem can be deduced (see exercise sheet 1).

What can we say about a graph G with an Euler tour W?

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

What can we say about a graph G with an Euler tour W?

Clearly, *G* must be connected after we delete all *isolated* vertices (i.e. vertices of degree zero).

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

What can we say about a graph G with an Euler tour W?

Clearly, *G* must be connected after we delete all *isolated* vertices (i.e. vertices of degree zero).

Next we note that each visit of W to a vertex v uses two edges at v (one to arrive and one to leave). This is also true of the start and end vertex of W if we consider them to be a single visit.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

What can we say about a graph G with an Euler tour W?

Clearly, *G* must be connected after we delete all *isolated* vertices (i.e. vertices of degree zero).

Next we note that each visit of W to a vertex v uses two edges at v (one to arrive and one to leave). This is also true of the start and end vertex of W if we consider them to be a single visit.

As every edge is used exactly once, we deduce that every vertex has even degree; we call a graph with this property *Eulerian*.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

What can we say about a graph G with an Euler tour W?

Clearly, *G* must be connected after we delete all *isolated* vertices (i.e. vertices of degree zero).

Next we note that each visit of W to a vertex v uses two edges at v (one to arrive and one to leave). This is also true of the start and end vertex of W if we consider them to be a single visit.

As every edge is used exactly once, we deduce that every vertex has even degree; we call a graph with this property *Eulerian*.



is not Eulerian.

Euler's theorem

These necessary conditions are also sufficient:

(ロ)、(型)、(E)、(E)、 E) の(()

These necessary conditions are also sufficient:

<u>Theorem 9.</u> (Euler) Let G be a connected Eulerian graph. Then G has an Euler tour.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

These necessary conditions are also sufficient:

<u>Theorem 9.</u> (Euler) Let G be a connected Eulerian graph. Then G has an Euler tour.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

In fact, we will show that we can find an Euler tour efficiently, using the following algorithm.

Fleury's Algorithm.

Start at any vertex of G.
Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again).

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- 1. when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- 1. when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.

Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



・ロット (雪) ・ (日) ・ (日) ・ 日

Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



Start at any vertex of G. We will follow a walk, erasing each edge after it is used (erased edges cannot be used again). At each stage, ensure that the following holds:

- when the edge is removed, the resulting graph is connected once isolated vertices are removed, and
- we do not run along an edge to a leaf, unless this is the only edge of the graph.

We will show that when G is Eulerian, this produces an Euler tour.



We require a useful lemma.



We require a useful lemma.

Lemma 10. In any graph, there are an even number of vertices with odd degree.

◆□▶ ◆□▶ ◆臣▶ ◆臣▶ □臣 ○のへ⊙

We require a useful lemma.

Lemma 10. In any graph, there are an even number of vertices with odd degree.

Proof. Since every edge has two endpoints,

$$\sum_{v\in V(G)}d(v)=2|E(G|.$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

We require a useful lemma.

<u>Lemma 10.</u> In any graph, there are an even number of vertices with odd degree.

Proof. Since every edge has two endpoints,

$$\sum_{v\in V(G)}d(v)=2|E(G|.$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Therefore, in the sum, there must be an even number of occurrences of d(v) for which d(v) is odd.

Note first that at each stage of the algorithm, either there are two vertices of odd degree (the initial vertex u and the current one) or there are no vertices of odd degree.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Note first that at each stage of the algorithm, either there are two vertices of odd degree (the initial vertex u and the current one) or there are no vertices of odd degree.

Suppose for a contradiction Fleury's Algorithm fails. Say it stops at some vertex v and can go no further. Let H be the component of the current graph containing v.

Note first that at each stage of the algorithm, either there are two vertices of odd degree (the initial vertex u and the current one) or there are no vertices of odd degree.

Suppose for a contradiction Fleury's Algorithm fails. Say it stops at some vertex v and can go no further. Let H be the component of the current graph containing v.

The degree of v in H must be positive, as otherwise in the previous step, we ran along an edge to a leaf violating (2).



Note first that at each stage of the algorithm, either there are two vertices of odd degree (the initial vertex u and the current one) or there are no vertices of odd degree.

Suppose for a contradiction Fleury's Algorithm fails. Say it stops at some vertex v and can go no further. Let H be the component of the current graph containing v.

The degree of v in H must be positive, as otherwise in the previous step, we ran along an edge to a leaf violating (2).



Note first that at each stage of the algorithm, either there are two vertices of odd degree (the initial vertex u and the current one) or there are no vertices of odd degree.

Suppose for a contradiction Fleury's Algorithm fails. Say it stops at some vertex v and can go no further. Let H be the component of the current graph containing v.

The degree of v in H must be positive, as otherwise in the previous step, we ran along an edge to a leaf violating (2).

If the degree of v in H is one, then we can continue the walk.



・ロト ・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ・ つ へ の

So there are at least two edges of H containing v.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

So there are at least two edges of H containing v. Since the algorithm cannot continue, the graph H - e is disconnected for each edge e containing v.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ □ のQで

So there are at least two edges of H containing v.

Since the algorithm cannot continue, the graph H - e is disconnected for each edge e containing v.

Hence, the edges e incident to v all have endpoints in distinct components of H - v.



・ ロ ト ・ 雪 ト ・ 雪 ト ・ 目 ト

So there are at least two edges of H containing v.

Since the algorithm cannot continue, the graph H - e is disconnected for each edge e containing v.

Hence, the edges *e* incident to *v* all have endpoints in distinct components of H - v. So, we can choose one edge *vw*, such that the component *C* of G - vw which contains *w* does not contain the first vertex *u* of the walk.



・ロト ・ 何ト ・ ヨト ・ ヨト … ヨ

So there are at least two edges of H containing v.

Since the algorithm cannot continue, the graph H - e is disconnected for each edge e containing v.

Hence, the edges *e* incident to *v* all have endpoints in distinct components of H - v. So, we can choose one edge *vw*, such that the component *C* of G - vw which contains *w* does not contain the first vertex *u* of the walk.

But then w is the only vertex of odd degree in C, which is impossible by Lemma 10.



・ロト ・ 何ト ・ ヨト ・ ヨト … ヨ

ふして 山田 ふぼやえばや 山下

One can ask the following about a connected graph G:

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

One can ask the following about a connected graph G:

Does there exists a closed walk that visits every vertex exactly once?

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ □ のへぐ

One can ask the following about a connected graph G:

Does there exists a closed walk that visits every vertex exactly once?



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで

One can ask the following about a connected graph G:

Does there exists a closed walk that visits every vertex exactly once?



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲三▶ ▲三▶ 三三 のへで
One can ask the following about a connected graph G:

Does there exists a closed walk that visits every vertex exactly once?



In fact, such a walk is a cycle (provided G has more than two vertices) and is known as a *Hamiltonian cycle*.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□ ● ● ●

One can ask the following about a connected graph G:

Does there exists a closed walk that visits every vertex exactly once?



In fact, such a walk is a cycle (provided G has more than two vertices) and is known as a *Hamiltonian cycle*.

When a graph G contains such a cycle, it is *Hamiltonian*.

Unlike the case of Eulerian tours, it turns out that there is, almost certainly, no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Unlike the case of Eulerian tours, it turns out that there is, almost certainly, no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

By 'efficient', we mean that the algorithm gives the answer after polynomially many 'steps', as a function of |V(G)| and |E(G)|.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Unlike the case of Eulerian tours, it turns out that there is, almost certainly, no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

By 'efficient', we mean that the algorithm gives the answer after polynomially many 'steps', as a function of |V(G)| and |E(G)|.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

But what do we mean by 'almost certainly'?

Unlike the case of Eulerian tours, it turns out that there is, almost certainly, no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

By 'efficient', we mean that the algorithm gives the answer after polynomially many 'steps', as a function of |V(G)| and |E(G)|.

But what do we mean by 'almost certainly'?

Currently, mathematicians do not have a proof that there is no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三 のへぐ

Unlike the case of Eulerian tours, it turns out that there is, almost certainly, no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

By 'efficient', we mean that the algorithm gives the answer after polynomially many 'steps', as a function of |V(G)| and |E(G)|.

But what do we mean by 'almost certainly'?

Currently, mathematicians do not have a proof that there is no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

However, we do no know that there is no efficient algorithm if we assume the famous conjecture $P \neq NP$.

・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・
・

Unlike the case of Eulerian tours, it turns out that there is, almost certainly, no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

By 'efficient', we mean that the algorithm gives the answer after polynomially many 'steps', as a function of |V(G)| and |E(G)|.

But what do we mean by 'almost certainly'?

Currently, mathematicians do not have a proof that there is no efficient algorithm to determine whether a general graph G is Hamiltonian.

However, we do no know that there is no efficient algorithm if we assume the famous conjecture $P \neq NP$.

But to discuss this conjecture would take us too far afield.

A sufficient condition

We will therefore content ourselves with a sufficient condition for a graph to be Hamiltonian.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

A sufficient condition

We will therefore content ourselves with a sufficient condition for a graph to be Hamiltonian.

<u>Theorem 11.</u> Let G be a connected graph with n vertices. Suppose that for every pair of non-adjacent vertices x and y,

$$d(x)+d(y)\geq n.$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Then G is Hamiltonian.

A sufficient condition

We will therefore content ourselves with a sufficient condition for a graph to be Hamiltonian.

<u>Theorem 11.</u> Let G be a connected graph with n vertices. Suppose that for every pair of non-adjacent vertices x and y,

$$d(x)+d(y)\geq n.$$

Then G is Hamiltonian.

<u>Corollary 12.</u> If G is connected with n vertices and for every vertex v, $d(v) \ge n/2$, then G is Hamiltonian.

We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n - 1.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ □ のへぐ

We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

<u>Lemma 13.</u> If G is connected and non-Hamiltonian, then the length of the longest path is least the length of the longest cycle.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

<u>Lemma 13.</u> If G is connected and non-Hamiltonian, then the length of the longest path is least the length of the longest cycle.

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Proof.

We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

<u>Lemma 13.</u> If G is connected and non-Hamiltonian, then the length of the longest path is least the length of the longest cycle.

<u>Proof.</u> Let *C* be a longest cycle, with length ℓ .



We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

<u>Lemma 13.</u> If G is connected and non-Hamiltonian, then the length of the longest path is least the length of the longest cycle.

<u>Proof.</u> Let *C* be a longest cycle, with length ℓ . Since *G* is non-Hamiltonian, there is some vertex not in *C*.



We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

<u>Lemma 13.</u> If G is connected and non-Hamiltonian, then the length of the longest path is least the length of the longest cycle.

<u>**Proof.</u>** Let *C* be a longest cycle, with length ℓ . Since *G* is non-Hamiltonian, there is some vertex not in *C*. Since *G* is connected, there is therefore some edge uv with one endpoint u in *C* and one endpoint v not in *C*.</u>



We first note if G is Hamiltonian and has n vertices, then the length of the longest cycle is n and the length of the longest path is n-1. (The *length* of a path is its number of edges.)

<u>Lemma 13.</u> If G is connected and non-Hamiltonian, then the length of the longest path is least the length of the longest cycle.

Proof. Let *C* be a longest cycle, with length ℓ . Since *G* is non-Hamiltonian, there is some vertex not in *C*. Since *G* is connected, there is therefore some edge uv with one endpoint u in *C* and one endpoint v not in *C*. Removing an edge of *C* incident to u and adding uv gives a path of length ℓ .



<u>Theorem 11.</u> Let G be a connected graph with n vertices. Suppose that for every pair of non-adjacent vertices x and y,

$$d(x) + d(y) \ge n.$$

▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ■ ●の00

Then G is Hamiltonian.

<u>**Proof.**</u> Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian.

(ロ)、(型)、(E)、(E)、(E)、(O)へ(C)

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that *G* is not Hamiltonian.

Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ 三▶ ▲ 三▶ 三三 - のへぐ

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian. Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian. Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian. Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian.

Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$. There is no integer i such that x_1 is adjacent to x_{i+1} and x_k is adjacent x_i .

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian. Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$. There is no integer i such that x_1 is adjacent to x_{i+1} and x_k is adjacent x_i . Otherwise, $x_1 \cdots x_i x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_{i+1} x_1$ would be a cycle of length k.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that *G* is not Hamiltonian.

Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$. There is no integer i such that x_1 is adjacent to x_{i+1} and x_k is adjacent x_i . Otherwise, $x_1 \cdots x_i x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_{i+1} x_1$ would be a cycle of length k. So the sets

 $A = \{i : x_1 x_{i+1} \in E(G)\}, \qquad B = \{i : x_i x_k \in E(G)\}$

are disjoint subsets of $\{1, \cdots, k-1\}$.

<u>Proof.</u> Suppose that *G* is not Hamiltonian.

Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$. There is no integer i such that x_1 is adjacent to x_{i+1} and x_k is adjacent x_i . Otherwise, $x_1 \cdots x_i x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_{i+1} x_1$ would be a cycle of length k. So the sets

$$A = \{i : x_1 x_{i+1} \in E(G)\}, \qquad B = \{i : x_i x_k \in E(G)\}$$

are disjoint subsets of $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$. Every neighbour of x_1 lies in P, and similarly every neighbour of x_k lies in P, as P is a longest path.

A D N A 目 N A E N A E N A B N A C N

Proof. Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian.

Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$. There is no integer i such that x_1 is adjacent to x_{i+1} and x_k is adjacent x_i . Otherwise, $x_1 \cdots x_i x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_{i+1} x_1$ would be a cycle of length k. So the sets

$$A = \{i : x_1 x_{i+1} \in E(G)\}, \qquad B = \{i : x_i x_k \in E(G)\}$$

are disjoint subsets of $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$. Every neighbour of x_1 lies in P, and similarly every neighbour of x_k lies in P, as P is a longest path. So, A has size $d(x_1)$, and B has size $d(x_k)$.

Proof. Suppose that G is not Hamiltonian.

Let $P = x_1 \cdots x_k$ be a longest path. It has length k - 1.



So by Lemma 13, G does not have a cycle of length k. So x_1 and x_k are not adjacent. Hence, by our assumption, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \ge n$. There is no integer *i* such that x_1 is adjacent to x_{i+1} and x_k is adjacent x_i. Otherwise, $x_1 \cdots x_i x_k x_{k-1} \cdots x_{i+1} x_1$ would be a cycle of length k. So the sets

$$A = \{i : x_1 x_{i+1} \in E(G)\}, \qquad B = \{i : x_i x_k \in E(G)\}$$

are disjoint subsets of $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$.

Every neighbour of x_1 lies in P, and similarly every neighbour of x_k lies in P, as P is a longest path. So, A has size $d(x_1)$, and B has size $d(x_k)$. Since A and B are disjoint, $d(x_1) + d(x_k) \le k - 1 < n$, which is a contradiction. Hence, G must be Hamiltonian. 同 ト イヨ ト イヨ ト ヨ うらつ