

The material in this handout is taken from: Reinhard Diestel, *Graph Theory (5th edition)*, Springer, 2017.

Given a set  $S$  and any  $k \in \{1, \dots, |S|\}$ ,  $[S]^k$  is the collection of all  $k$ -element subsets of  $S$ .

A graph  $G = (V, E)$  has a finite **vertex set**  $V$  and a finite **edge set**  $E \subseteq [V]^2$ . We use  $i, j, u, v, w, x$  to denote vertices in  $V$ . The number  $|V|$  of vertices is the **order** of  $G$ . A graph of order zero is empty, while graphs of order at most 1 are called trivial. An element of  $E$  is denoted by  $e$  or  $(i, j)$ . If  $(i, j) \in E$ , then  $i, j$  denote the endpoints of the edge (the order does not matter). A vertex  $i$  is **incident** with an edge  $e$  if  $e = (i, j)$ . Two vertices  $i, j$  are **adjacent** if  $(i, j) \in E$ . If  $E \equiv [V]^2$ , then  $G$  is the complete graph (or **clique**) on  $n$  vertices, denoted by  $K_n$ . Note that  $G$  has no self-loops  $(i, i)$  because  $(i, i) \notin [V]^2$ . Moreover, there can be at most one edge in  $G$  between any two pair of vertices. Such graphs are often called *simple*.

If  $G' = (V', E')$  is such that  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' \subseteq [V']^2 \cap E$ , then  $G'$  is a **subgraph** of  $G$ . If a subgraph  $G'$  is such that  $E' \equiv [V']^2 \cap E$ , then  $G'$  is called the subgraph induced by  $V'$ .

**Degrees.** The **neighborhood** of a vertex  $v$  of  $G$  is the set  $N(v)$  of vertices that are adjacent to  $v$ . The **degree**  $d(v)$  of  $v$  is the cardinality of  $N(v)$ . A vertex with degree zero is **isolated**. The numbers  $\delta(G) = \min \{d(v) : v \in V\}$  and  $\Delta(G) = \max \{d(v) : v \in V\}$  are the minimum and maximum degree of  $G$ . If  $\delta(G) = \Delta(G) = k$  then  $G$  is  **$k$ -regular**.

The **average degree** of  $G$  is

$$d(G) = \frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{v \in V} d(v)$$

and we obviously have  $\delta(G) \leq d(G) \leq \Delta(G)$ . A related quantity is the **edge density**  $\varepsilon(G) = |E|/|V|$ . Note that

$$|E| = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \in V} d(i) = \frac{1}{2} d(G) |V|$$

implying  $\varepsilon(G) = d(G)/2$ .

**Fact 1** *The number of vertices of odd degree is always even in any graph.*

PROOF. Since  $|E|$  is integer and  $|E| = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in V} d(v)$ , then  $\sum_{v \in V} d(v)$  must be even. Therefore, the number of vertices with odd degree must be even.  $\square$

We already know that the edge density is half the average degree. Now note that the minimum degree can be larger than the edge density. For instance, in  $K_2$  we have  $\delta(G) = 1$  and  $\varepsilon(G) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

**Fact 2** *Every  $G$  with at least one edge has an induced subgraph  $H$  such that  $\delta(H) > \varepsilon(H) \geq \varepsilon(G)$ .*

PROOF. Construct a sequence of nested subgraphs  $G \equiv G_0, G_1, \dots$  induced by the vertex sets  $V = V_0 \supseteq V_1 \supseteq V_2 \dots$  as follows. If  $V_i$  has a vertex  $v_i$  of degree  $d(v_i) \leq \varepsilon(G_i)$  then  $V_{i+1} \equiv V_i \setminus \{v_i\}$ . Otherwise, stop and set  $H = G_i$ . If  $G_{i+1}$  is created, then

$$\varepsilon(G_{i+1}) = \frac{|E_{i+1}|}{|V_{i+1}|} = \frac{|E_i| - d(v_i)}{|V_i| - 1} \geq \frac{|E_i| - \varepsilon(G_i)}{|V_i| - 1} = \frac{|E_i|}{|V_i|} = \varepsilon(G_i)$$

The procedure stops before emptying the graph because  $\varepsilon(K_1) = 0 < \varepsilon(G)$ . When the procedure stops (say at  $H \equiv G_k$  for some  $k \geq 0$ ), it must be that  $\delta(H) > \varepsilon(H) \geq \varepsilon(G)$ , concluding the proof.  $\square$

**Paths and cycles.** A **path** in  $G = (V, E)$  of length  $k \geq 0$  is a subgraph  $P_k$  containing  $k + 1$  distinct vertices  $v_0, \dots, v_k \in V$  and  $k$  edges  $e_1, \dots, e_k \in E$  such that  $e_i = (v_{i-1}, v_i)$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$ . If  $k = 0$  then  $P_0 = K_1$ . A **cycle**  $C_k$  in  $G$  of length  $k \geq 3$  is formed when a path  $P_{k-1}$  can be extended in  $G$  to include the edge  $(v_{k-1}, v_0) \in E$ . The length of a shortest cycle in  $G$  is the **girth**  $g(G)$ , while the length of a longest cycle in  $G$  is the **circumference**. A **chord** is any edge between two vertices of a cycle which is not itself an edge of the cycle.

If a graph has a large minimum degree, then it contains long paths and cycles.

**Fact 3** *Every graph  $G$  with  $\delta(G) \geq 2$  contains a path of length  $\delta(G)$  and a cycle of length at least  $\delta(G) + 1$ .*

PROOF. Let  $v_0, \dots, v_k$  be the vertices on any longest path  $P_k$  in  $G$ . Then  $N(v_k)$  all belong to  $P_k$  (otherwise  $P_k$  is not the longest path). Therefore,  $k \geq d(v_k) \geq \delta(G)$ . Now let  $v_i$  the vertex of  $P_k$  with smallest index  $i$  such that  $(v_i, v_k) \in E$ . Then the vertices  $v_i, \dots, v_k$  form a cycle of length at least  $\delta(G) + 1$  because the degree of  $v_k$  is at least  $\delta(G)$ .  $\square$

The **distance**  $d(i, j)$  between two vertices  $i, j$  is the length of the shortest path between them (if no path exists between the two vertices, then the distance is infinite). The **diameter**  $\text{diam}(G)$  of  $G$  is the largest distance between any two vertices in  $G$  (note that the diameter can be infinite, for example when the graph has an isolated vertex). The **radius**  $\text{rad}(G)$  of a graph  $G$  is the smallest distance  $d$  such that there exists a vertex whose distance from any other vertex in  $G$  is at most  $d$ . Formally,

$$\text{rad}(G) = \min_{i \in V} \max_{j \in V} d(i, j)$$

Clearly,  $\text{rad}(G) \leq \text{diam}(G)$ . Also, let  $x \in V$  such that  $d(x, v) \leq \text{rad}(G)$  for all  $v \in V$ . Pick any two vertices  $u, v \in V$  then  $d(u, v) \leq d(u, x) + d(x, v) \leq 2 \text{rad}(G)$ . This shows that  $\text{diam}(G) \leq 2 \text{rad}(G)$ .

Girth and diameter are related as follows.

**Fact 4** *Every graph  $G$  containing at least a cycle satisfies  $g(G) \leq 2 \text{diam}(G) + 1$ .*

PROOF. Let  $C$  be the shortest cycle in  $G$ . If  $g(G) \geq 2 \text{diam}(G) + 2$ , then  $C$  contains at least  $2 \text{diam}(G) + 2$  edges. Take any two vertices  $x, y$  at opposite extremes of  $C$ . Then  $x, y$  are connected by two paths in  $C$ , say  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , whose each length is at least  $\text{diam}(G) + 1$ . On the other hand, the distance between  $x$  and  $y$  in  $G$  can be at most  $\text{diam}(G)$  by definition of diameter. Let  $P$  be a path joining  $x$  to  $y$  in  $G$ . Note that not all the edges of  $P$  can be in  $C$  (otherwise,  $C$  is not the

shortest cycle in  $G$ ). Then  $P$  together with the shortest between  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  forms a cycle shorter than  $C$ , and we have a contradiction.  $\square$

The next result, which we state without proof, shows that the order of  $G$  is lower bounded by a function  $n_0(d, g)$  of its average degree  $d$  and girth  $g \geq 3$ , where

$$n_0(d, g) = \begin{cases} 1 + d \sum_{i=0}^{(g-1)/2-1} (d-1)^i & \text{if } g \text{ is odd} \\ 2 \sum_{i=0}^{g/2-1} (d-1)^i & \text{if } g \text{ is even.} \end{cases}$$

**Theorem 5 (Alon, Hoory, and Linial, 2002)** *For any graph  $G = (V, E)$ ,  $|V| \geq n_0(d, g)$  for all  $d = d(G) \geq 2$  and  $g = g(G) \geq 3$ .*

Using the well-known formula

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a^i = \frac{a^n - 1}{a - 1} \quad a, n \in \mathbb{N} \quad a > 1, n \geq 1$$

we have that  $n_0(d, g) = d^{\Theta(g)}$  for  $d \geq 2$ . Therefore, the above theorem says that  $|V| = d^{\Omega(g)}$ . Also, using again the same formula,

$$n_0(3, g) = 2 \sum_{i=0}^{g/2-1} 2^i = 2(2^{g/2} - 1) = 2^{g/2} + 2^{g/2} - 2 > 2^{g/2} + 4 - 2 > 2^{g/2} \quad (\text{for } g \geq 3 \text{ even})$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} n_0(3, g) &= 1 + 3 \sum_{i=0}^{(g-1)/2-1} 2^i = 1 + 3(2^{(g-1)/2} - 1) = \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} 2^{g/2} - 2 \\ &> \left( \frac{3}{\sqrt{2}} - 1 \right) 2^{3/2} - 2 + 2^{g/2} > 2^{g/2} \end{aligned} \quad (\text{for } g \geq 3 \text{ odd})$$

Therefore,  $n_0(3, g) \geq 2^{g/2}$ . So when  $\delta(G) \geq 3$  we have  $|V| \geq 2^{g(G)/2}$ , which in turn implies  $g(G) < 2 \log_2 |V|$ .

**Connectivity.** A non-empty graph  $G$  is **connected** if any two of its vertices are linked by a path in  $G$ . A maximal connected subgraph of  $G$  is a **component** of  $G$ . Any non-empty graph corresponds to a set containing at least one component.  $G$  is  **$k$ -connected** if  $|V| > k$  and for all  $X \subset V$  with  $|X| < k$ , the subgraph induced by  $V \setminus X$  is connected. Every non-empty graph is 0-connected, and the 1-connected graphs are precisely the non-trivial connected graphs ( $K_1$  is not 1-connected because it does not have order 2).

The largest integer  $k$  such that  $G$  is  $k$ -connected is the **connectivity**  $\kappa(G)$  of  $G$ . Thus  $\kappa(G) = 0$  if and only if  $G$  is disconnected or  $G \equiv K_1$ , and  $\kappa(K_n) = n - 1$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

We now relate connectivity to minimum degree and to the existence of a set of edges whose removal disconnects the graph.

**Theorem 6** *If  $G$  is non-trivial, then  $\kappa(G) \leq |F| \leq \delta(G)$  where  $F$  is any smallest set of edges whose removal causes the graph to disconnect.*

PROOF. Let  $G = (V, E)$  be non-trivial and let  $v$  be any vertex with minimum degree  $\delta(G)$ . Then  $|F| \leq \delta(G)$  because  $v$  can be disconnected by removing the edges that are incident with  $N(v)$ . We now show that  $\kappa(G) \leq |F|$  by a case analysis. Let  $G' = (V, E \setminus F)$ .

**Case 1.**  $G$  has a vertex  $v$  that is not incident with an edge in  $F$ . Let  $C$  be the component of  $G'$  that contains  $v$  and consider the set  $V_C$  of vertices of  $C$  that are incident with an edge of  $F$ . If we remove these vertices, then  $v$  is disconnected from the other component of  $G$ . Hence  $\kappa(G) \leq |V_C|$ . On the other hand, no edge in  $F$  can have both ends in  $C$  (otherwise,  $F$  is not minimal). Therefore,  $|V_C| \leq |F|$ .

**Case 2.** All vertices of  $G$  are incident with some edge in  $F$ . Pick an arbitrary vertex  $v$  and let  $C$  be the component of  $G'$  that contains  $v$ . Some  $u \in N(v)$  are such that  $(v, u) \in F$ . The other nodes in the neighborhood of  $v$  must belong to  $C$  and are incident with distinct edges of  $F$  (otherwise,  $F$  is not minimal). Therefore  $d(v) \leq |F|$ , which implies  $d(v) = |F| = \delta(G)$ , because we already know that  $|F| \leq \delta(G)$ . As removing  $N(v)$  disconnects  $v$ , we conclude  $\kappa(G) \leq \delta(G) = |F|$ .  $\square$

**Trees and forests.** An acyclic graph, one not containing any cycles, is called a forest. A connected forest is called a tree. (Thus, a forest is a graph whose components are trees.) The vertices of degree 1 in a tree are its leaves, the others are its inner vertices. Every non-trivial tree has a leaf—consider, for example, the ends of a longest path. The next theorem (whose proof is left as exercise) characterizes which graphs are trees.

**Theorem 7** *The following assertions are equivalent for a graph  $T$ :*

1.  $T$  is a tree;
2. Any two distinct vertices  $x, y$  of  $T$  are linked by a unique path in  $T$  (denoted by  $xTy$ );
3.  $T$  is minimally connected, i.e., removing any edge disconnects  $T$ ;
4.  $T$  is maximally acyclic, i.e., adding an edge between any two non-adjacent vertices create a cycle.

A **spanning tree** of a connected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a subgraph  $T = (V, E')$  that is a tree (note that  $T$  and  $G$  share the same vertex set). A common application of the theorem above is to prove that every connected graph contains a spanning tree: take a minimal connected spanning subgraph and use 3, or take a maximal acyclic subgraph and apply 4. Spanning trees can be found in time  $\mathcal{O}(|E|)$  via breadth-first or depth-first search of  $G$ .

**Corollary 8** *A connected graph with  $n$  vertices is a tree if and only if it has  $n - 1$  edges.*

PROOF. First, we prove that a tree has  $n - 1$  edges. Note that there always exists a permutation  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  of the vertices of a tree so that every  $v_i$  with  $i \geq 2$  has a unique neighbour in  $\{v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}\}$ . Induction on  $i = 2, \dots, n$  shows that the subgraph spanned by the first  $i$  vertices has  $i - 1$  edges. For  $i = n$  this proves the claim.

Conversely, let  $G$  be any connected graph with  $n$  vertices and  $n - 1$  edges. Let  $G'$  be a spanning

tree in  $G$ . Since  $G'$  has  $n - 1$  edges by the first implication, it follows that  $G = G'$ .  $\square$

A tree  $T = (V, E)$  with a fixed root  $r$  is a **rooted tree**. Writing  $x \leq y$  for  $x \in rTy$  then defines a partial order on  $V$ , the **tree-order** associated with  $T$  and  $r$ .

**Bipartite graphs.** Let  $r \geq 2$  be an integer. A graph  $G = (V, E)$  is called  $r$ -partite if  $V$  admits a partition into  $r$  elements such that every edge has its ends in different elements: vertices in the same partition elements must not be adjacent. Instead of 2-partite one usually says bipartite. An  $r$ -partite graph in which every two vertices from different partition elements are adjacent is called complete. Note that a bipartite graph is not necessarily connected.

Clearly, a bipartite graph cannot contain an odd cycle, a cycle of odd length. We now prove that also the converse is true.

**Fact 9** *If a graph does not contain an odd cycle, then it is bipartite.*

PROOF. Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph without odd cycles. If  $G$  is bipartite, then all its components are bipartite or trivial. So we may assume that  $G$  is connected. Let  $T = (V, E_T)$  be a spanning tree in  $G$ , pick a root  $r$  and denote the associated tree-order on  $V$  by  $\leq_T$ . For each  $v \in V$ , the unique path  $rTv$  has odd or even length. This defines a bipartition of  $V$ . We show that  $G$  is bipartite with this partition. Let  $e = (x, y) \in E$ . If  $e \in E_T$ , say with  $x \leq_T y$ , then  $rTy = rTxy$  and so  $x$  and  $y$  lie in different partition elements. If  $e \notin E_T$ , then  $C_e = (xTy, e)$  is a cycle (because of 4 in the theorem above), and the vertices along  $xTy$  alternate between the two partition elements. Since  $C_e$  is even by assumption,  $x$  and  $y$  again lie in different elements.  $\square$

**Euler tours.** A walk (resp., a closed walk) is a path (resp., cycle) whose vertices may not be all distinct. A closed walk in a graph is an Euler tour if it traverses every edge of the graph exactly once. A graph is **Eulerian** if it admits an Euler tour.

**Theorem 10 (Euler, 1736)** *A connected graph is Eulerian if and only if every vertex has even degree.*

PROOF. The degree condition is clearly necessary: a vertex appearing  $k$  times in an Euler tour (or  $k + 1$  times, if it is the starting and finishing vertex and as such counted twice) must have degree  $2k$ . Conversely, we show by induction on  $|E|$  that every connected graph  $G = (V, E)$  with all degrees even has an Euler tour. The induction starts trivially with  $|E| = 0$ . Now let  $|E| \geq 1$ . Since all degrees are even, we can find in  $G$  a non-trivial closed walk that contains no edge more than once (see Exercise 4). Let  $W$  be such a walk of maximal length, and write  $F$  for the set of its edges. If  $F = E$ , then  $W$  is an Euler tour and we are done. Suppose, therefore, that  $E' = E \setminus F$  has at least an edge. For every vertex  $v \in V$ , an even number of the edges  $\{(v, u) : u \in N(v)\}$  lies in  $F$  (because  $W$  is a closed walk containing each edge only once), so the degrees of the subgraph  $G' = (V, E')$  are again all even. Since  $G$  is connected,  $G'$  has an edge  $e$  incident with a vertex on  $W$ . By the induction hypothesis, the component  $C$  of  $G'$  containing  $e$  has an Euler tour. Concatenating this with  $W$ , we obtain a closed walk in  $G$  that contradicts the maximal length of  $W$ .  $\square$

Euler tours can be found in time  $\mathcal{O}(|E|)$  using Hierholzer's algorithm.

**Hamilton cycles.** A Hamilton cycle is a cycle that contains all vertices. A graph is Hamiltonian if it contains a Hamilton cycle.

Unlike Euler tours, only sufficient conditions are known for the existence of Hamilton cycles.

**Theorem 11 (Dirac 1952)** *Every graph  $G$  with  $n \geq 3$  vertices and  $\delta(G) \geq n/2$  is Hamiltonian.*

PROOF. Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph with  $|G| = n \geq 3$  and  $\delta(G) \geq n/2$ . Then  $G$  is connected: otherwise, the degree of any vertex in the smallest component  $C$  of  $G$  would be less than  $|C| \leq n/2$ . Let  $P_k = v_0, \dots, v_k$  be a longest path in  $G$ . Let us call  $v_i$  the left end of the edge  $(v_i, v_{i+1})$ , and  $v_{i+1}$  its right end. By the maximality of  $P_k$ , each of the  $d(v_0) \geq n/2$  neighbours of  $v_0$  is the right end of an edge of  $P$ , and these  $d(v_0)$  edges are distinct. Similarly, at least  $n/2$  edges of  $P$  are such that their left end is adjacent to  $v_k$ . Since  $P$  has fewer than  $n$  edges, it has an edge  $(v_i, v_{i+1})$  with both properties.

We claim that the cycle  $C = v_0, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_k, v_i, v_{i-1}, \dots, v_0$  of length  $k + 1$  is a Hamilton cycle of  $G$ . Indeed, since  $G$  is connected,  $C$  would otherwise have a neighbour not in  $C$  which could be used to extend  $P_k$ , violating the maximality of  $P_k$ .  $\square$

The problem of determining whether an Hamiltonian path exists in a graph is NP-complete.

### Exercises.

1. Show that every 2-connected graph contains a cycle.
2. Show that every connected graph  $G = (V, E)$  contains a path of length at least

$$\min \{2\delta(G), |V| - 1\}$$

3. Prove Theorem 7.
4. Show that in every connected graph whose each vertex has even degree there exists a non-trivial closed walk that contains no edge more than once.

Thanks to Ivan Masnari for spotting a mistake in the previous version of this exercise.