### Graph Theory Part Two

# Outline for Today

- Walks, Paths, and Reachability
  - Walking around a graph.
- Graph Complements
  - Flipping what's in a graph.
- The Pigeonhole Principle
  - Everyone finding a place.

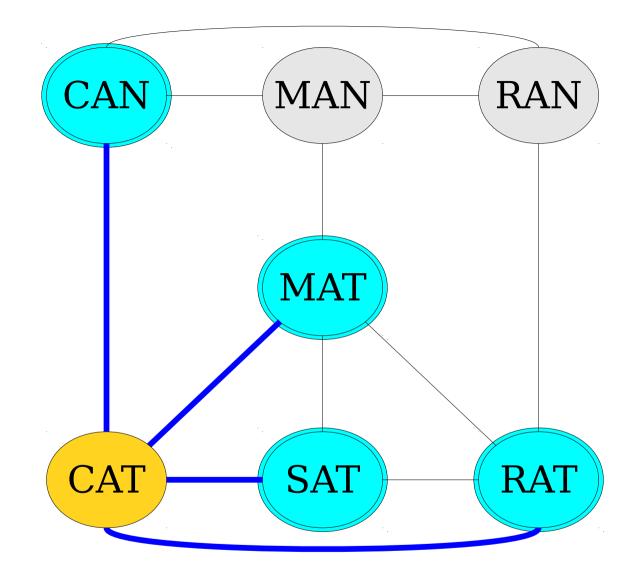
### Recap from Last Time

# Graphs and Digraphs

- A *graph* is a pair G = (V, E) of a set of nodes V and set of edges E.
  - Nodes can be anything.
  - Edges are **unordered pairs** (i.e., sets with cardinality 2) of nodes. If  $\{u, v\} \in E$ , then there's an edge from u to v.

#### New Stuff!

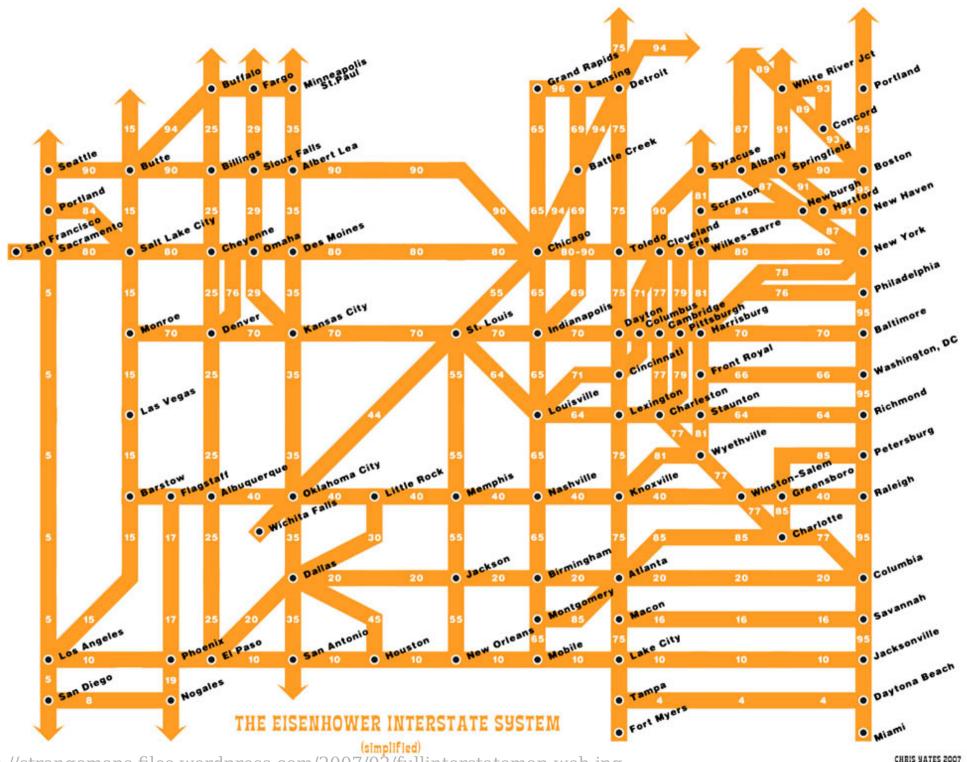
#### Walks, Paths, and Reachability



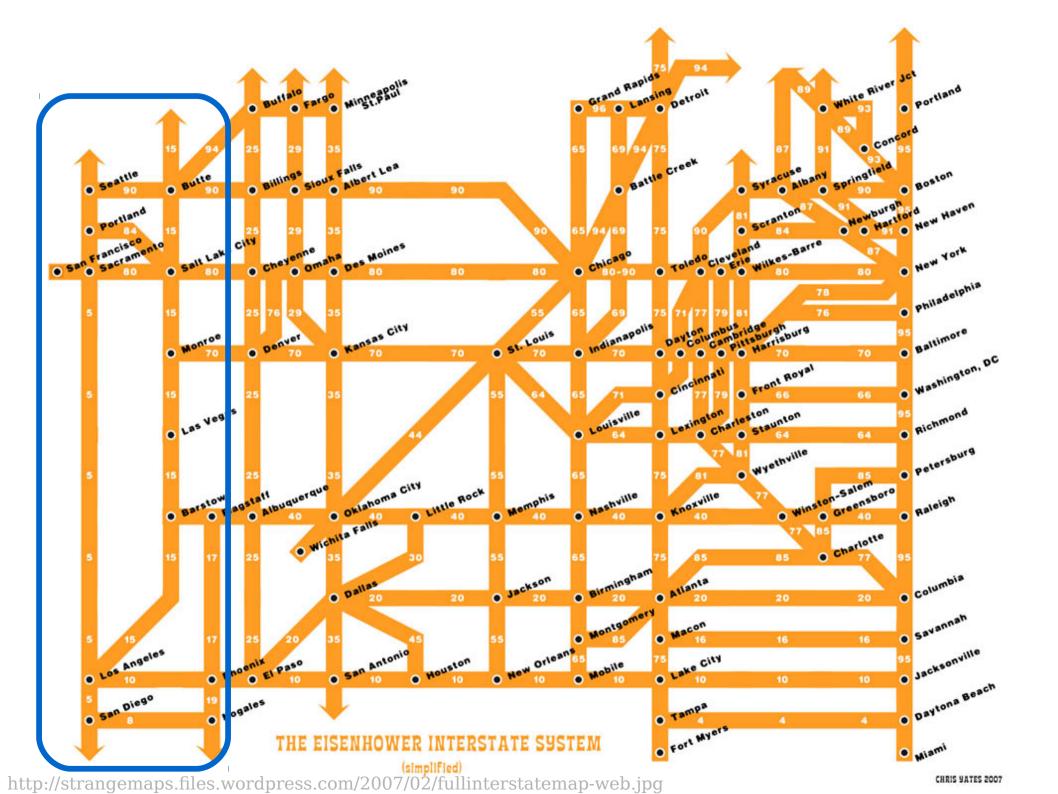
Two nodes are called *adjacent* if there is an edge between them.

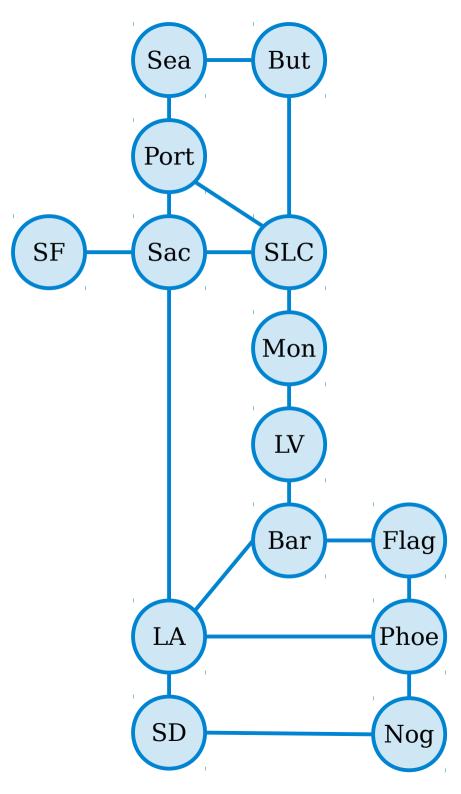
## Using our Formalisms

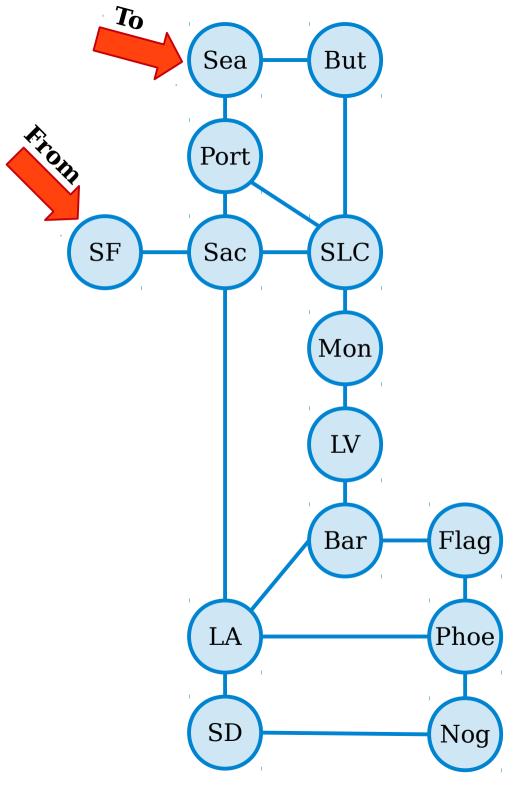
- Let G = (V, E) be an (undirected) graph.
- Intuitively, two nodes are adjacent if they're linked by an edge.
- Formally speaking, we say that two nodes  $u, v \in V$  are *adjacent* if we have  $\{u, v\} \in E$ .

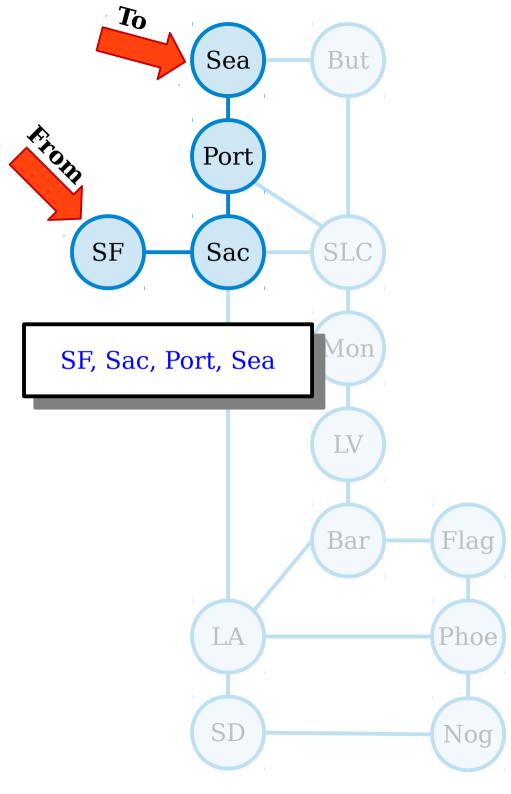


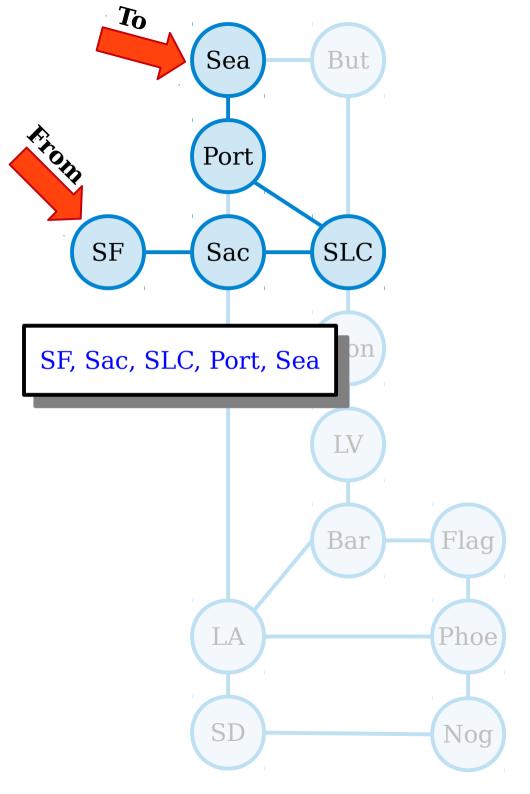
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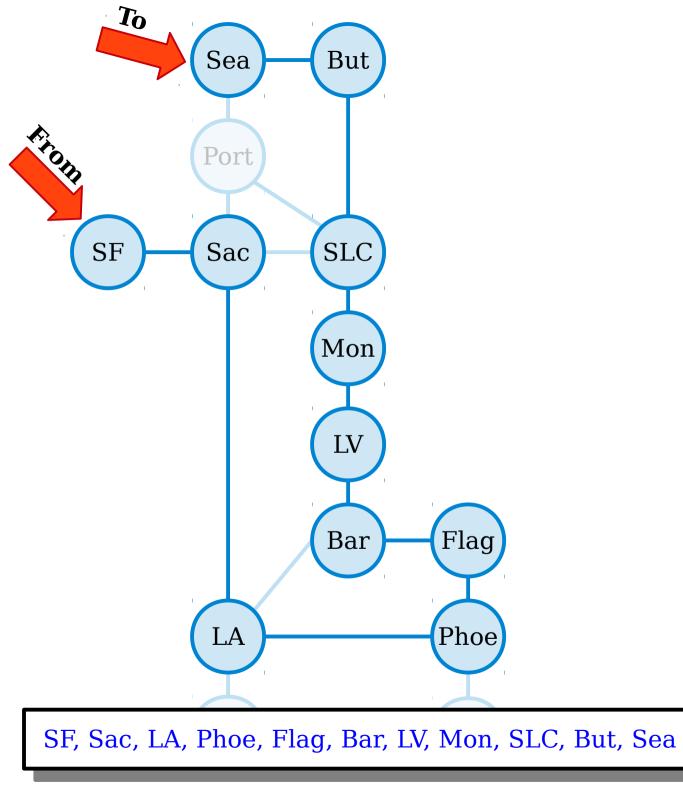


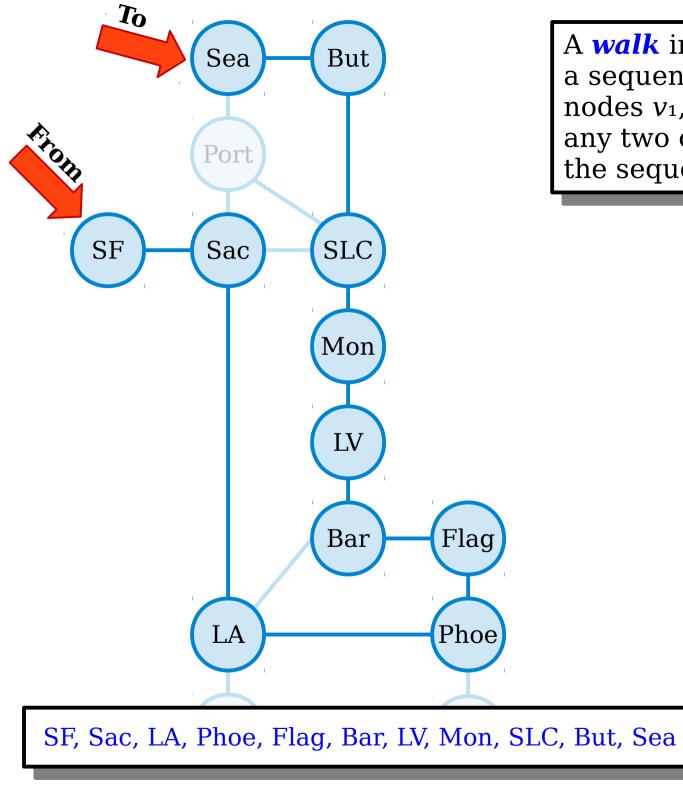


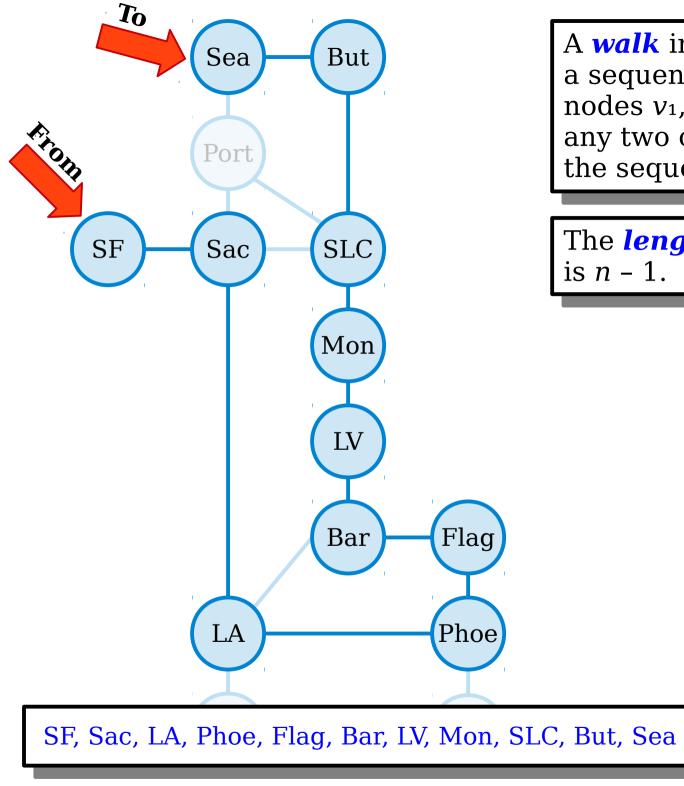




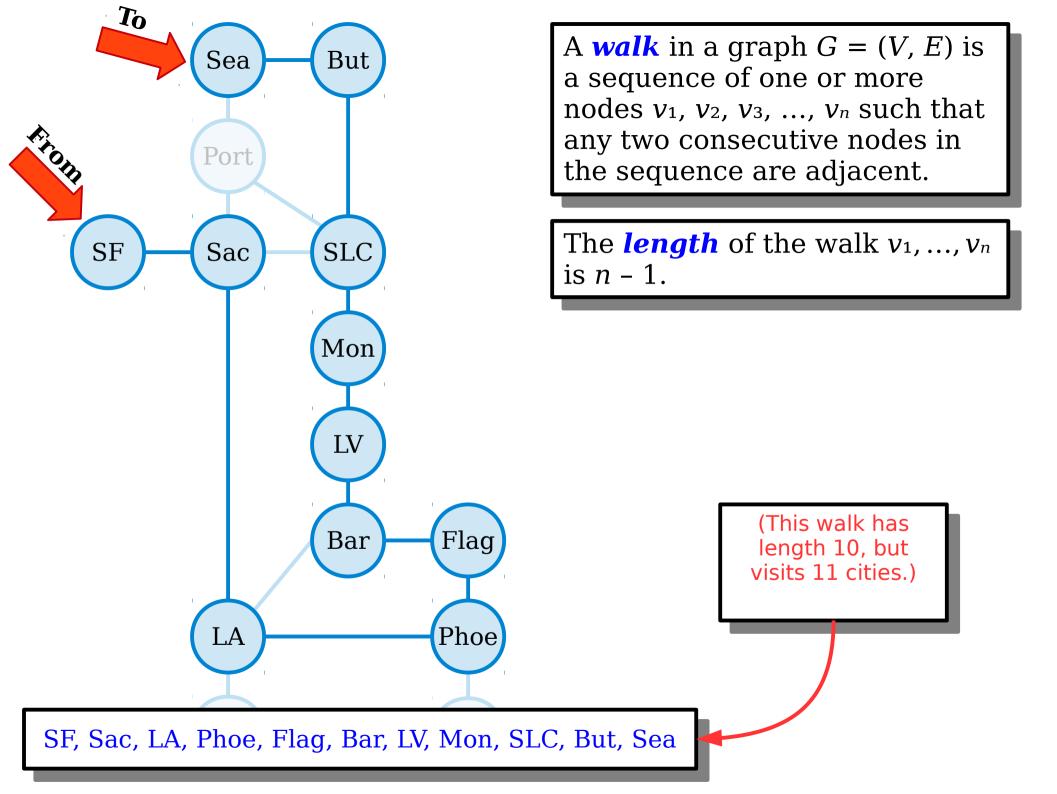


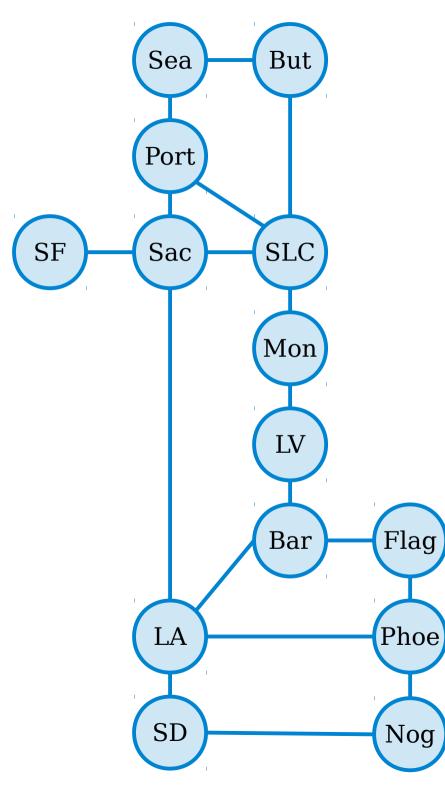




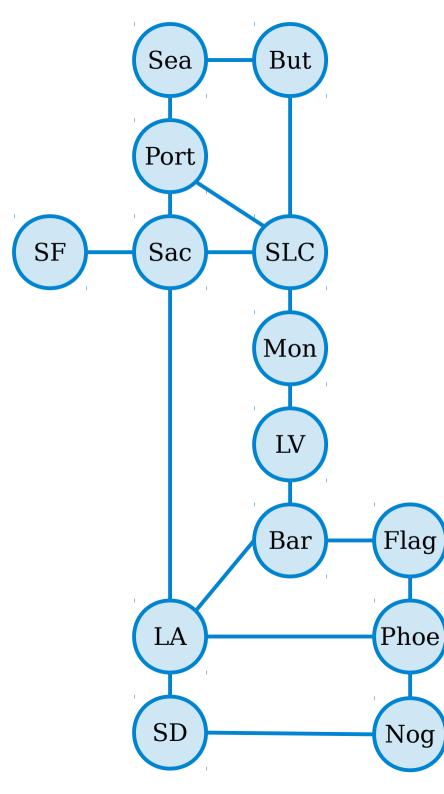


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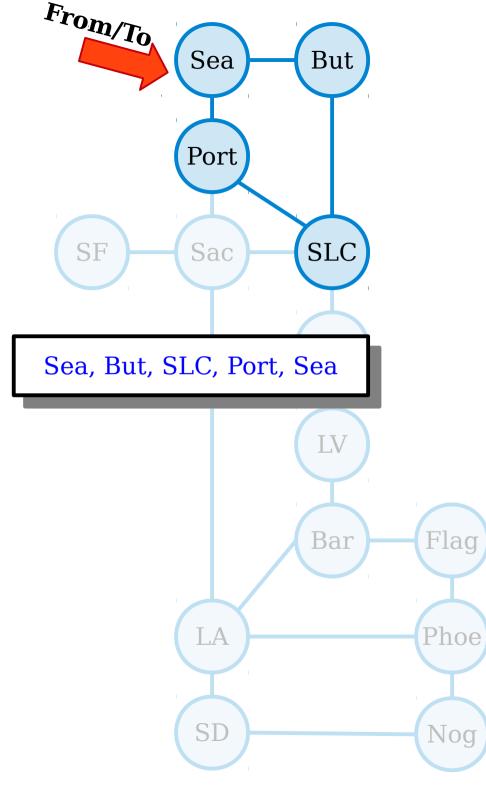
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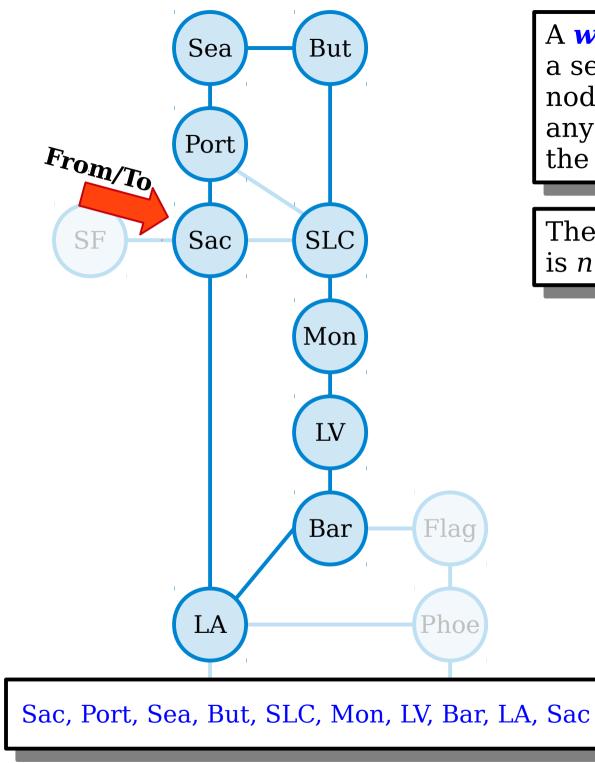
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#### **Question:**

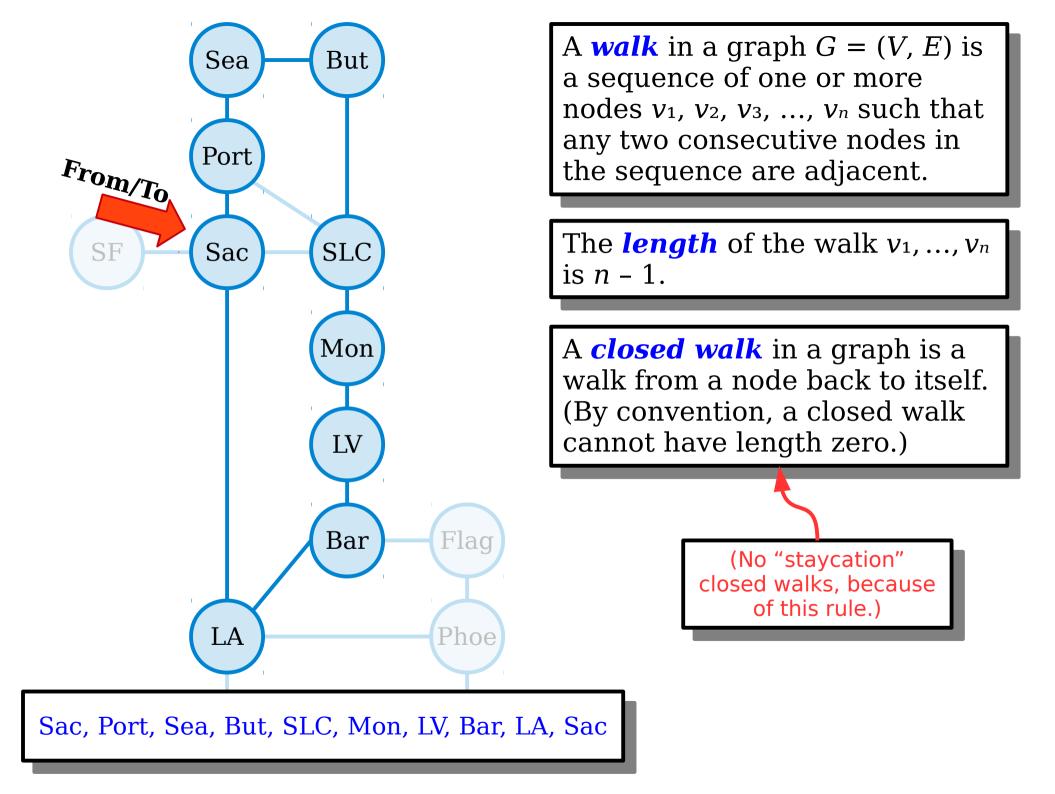
Is a "staycation" a valid walk? In other words, can a walk be just "SF"?

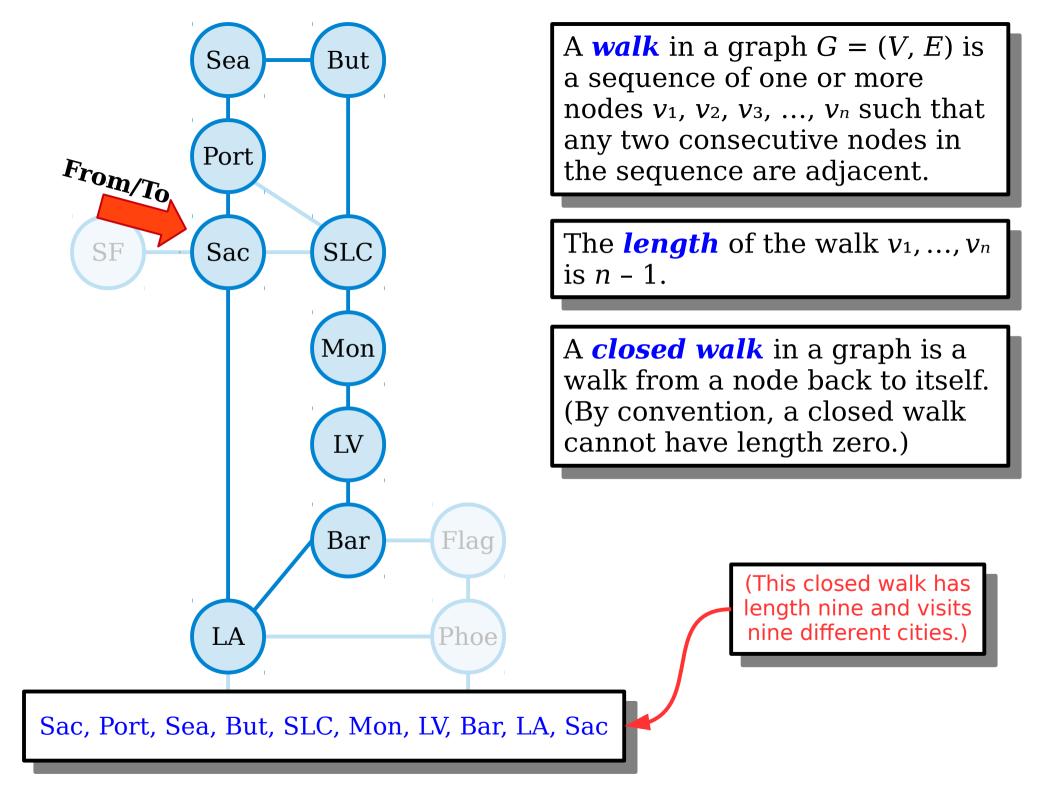


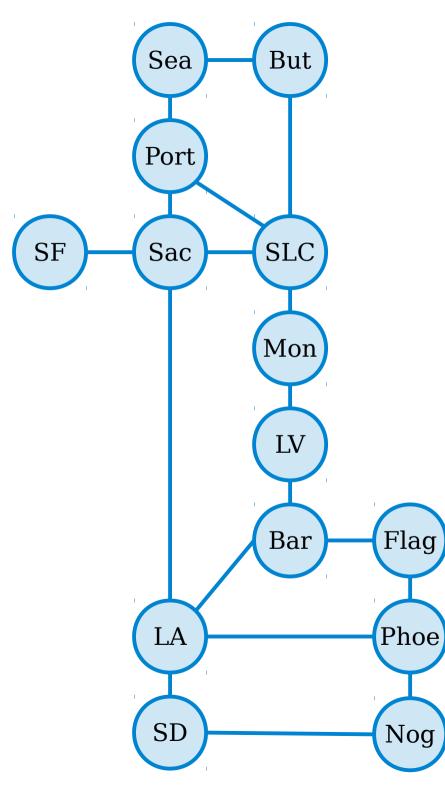
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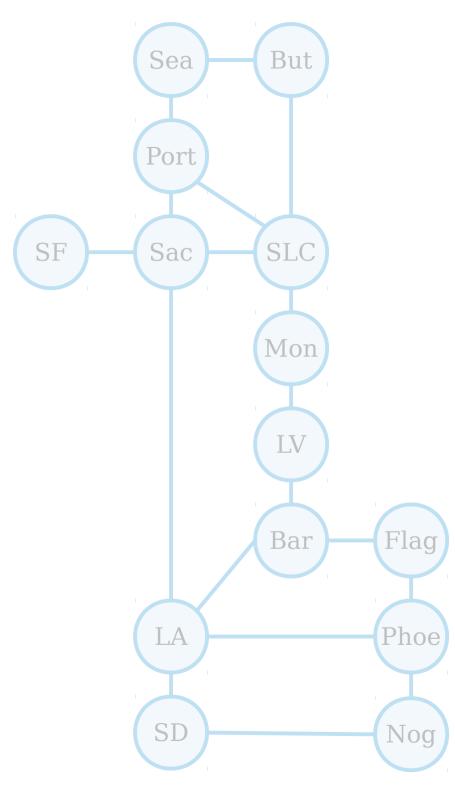






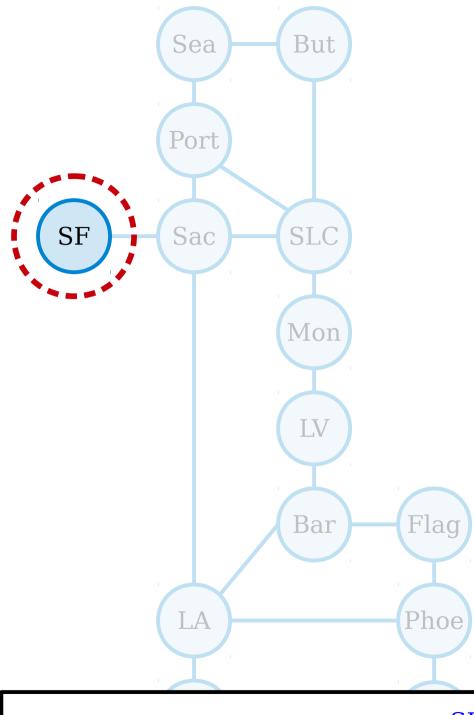
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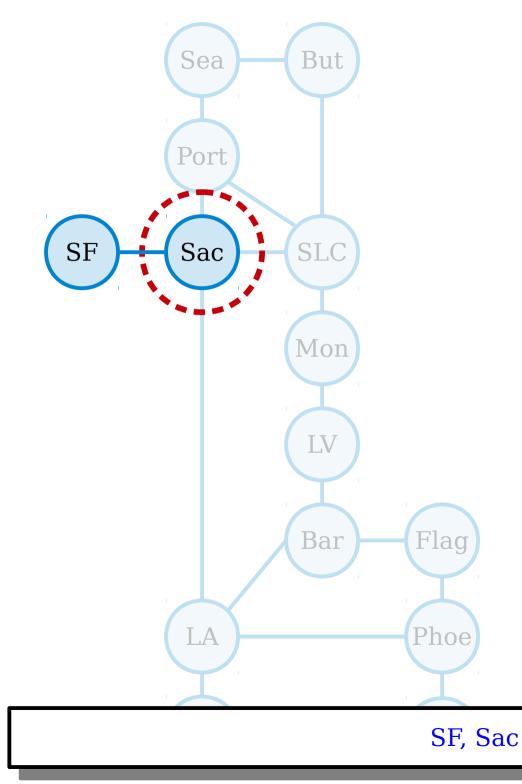
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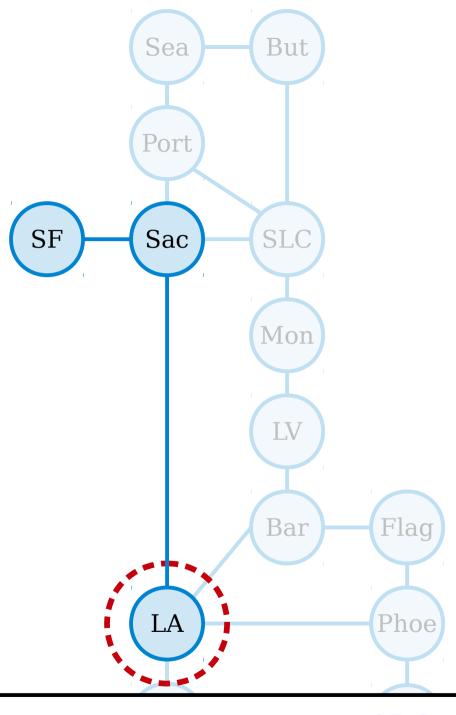
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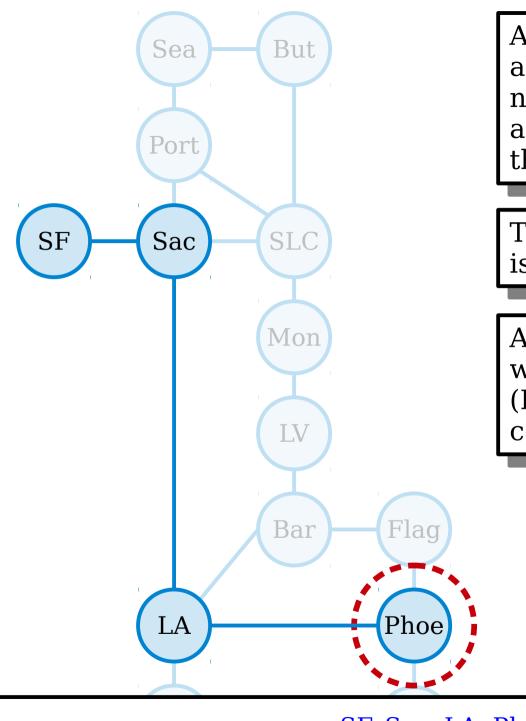
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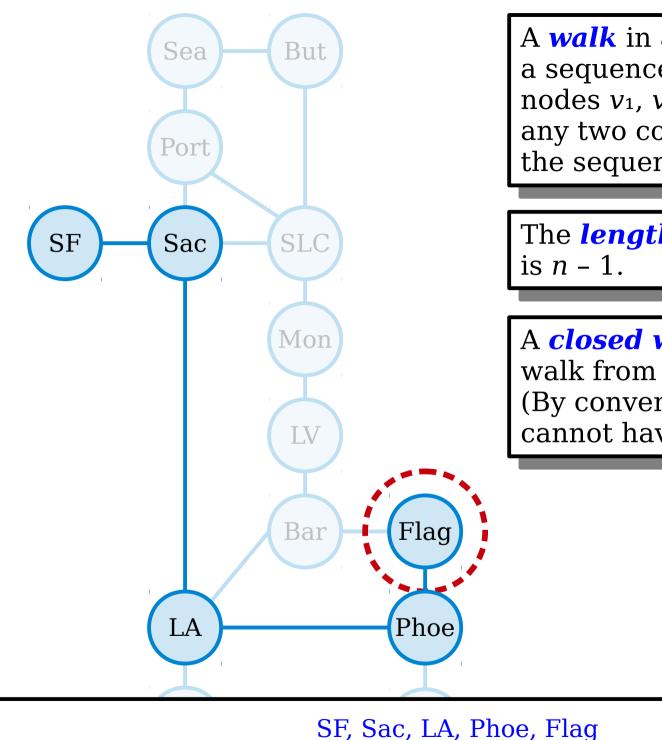
SF, Sac, LA



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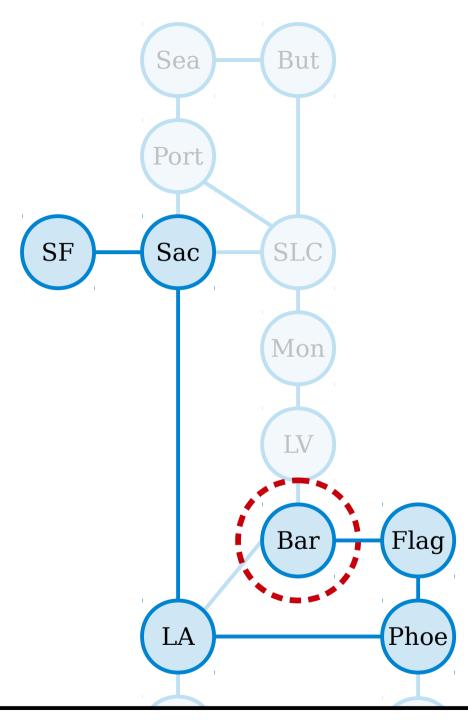
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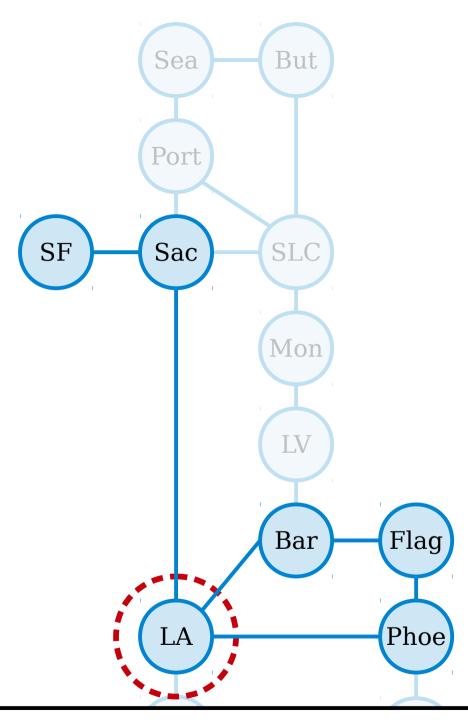
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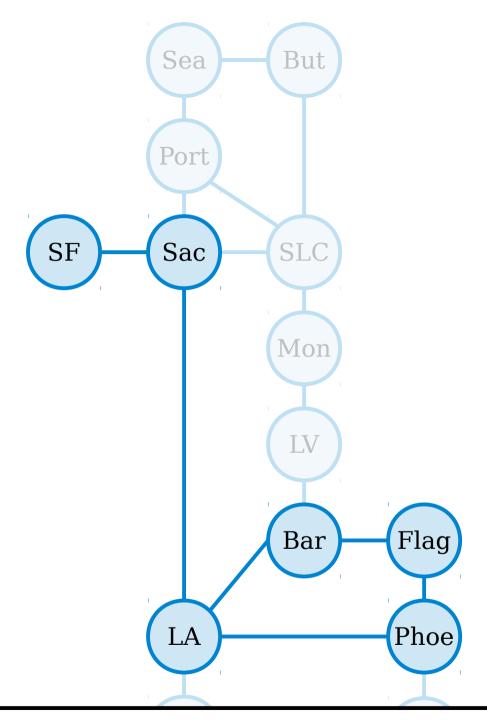
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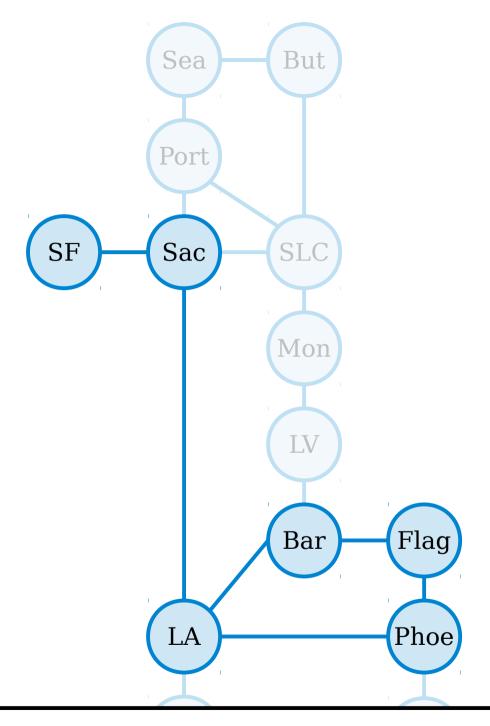
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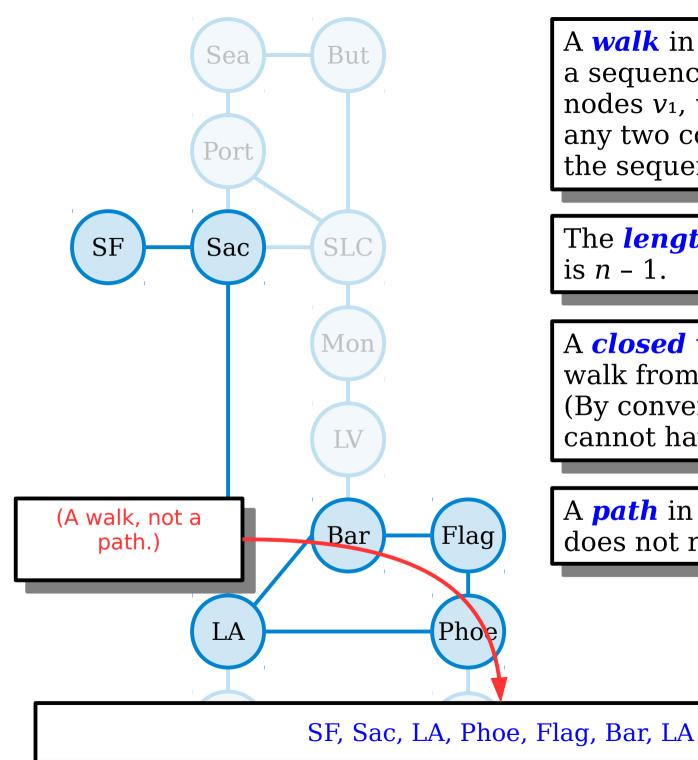
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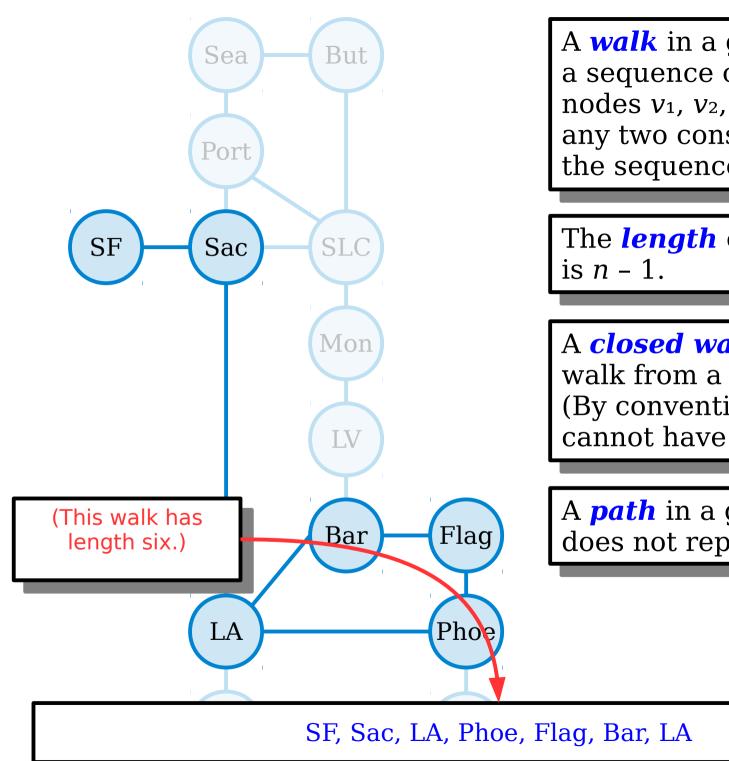
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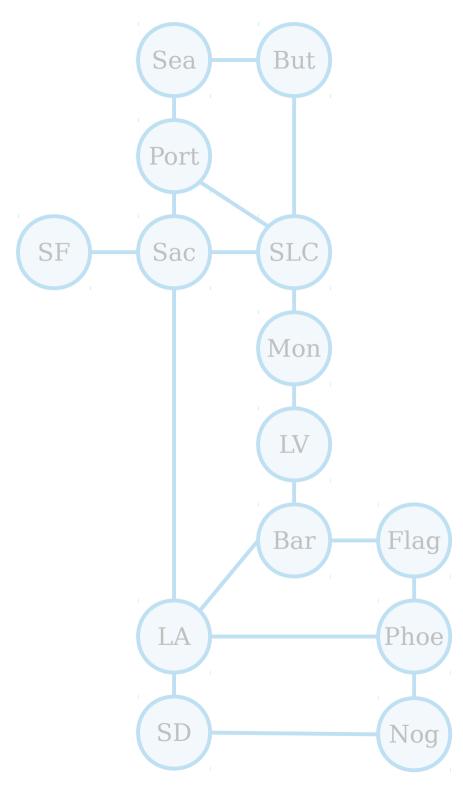
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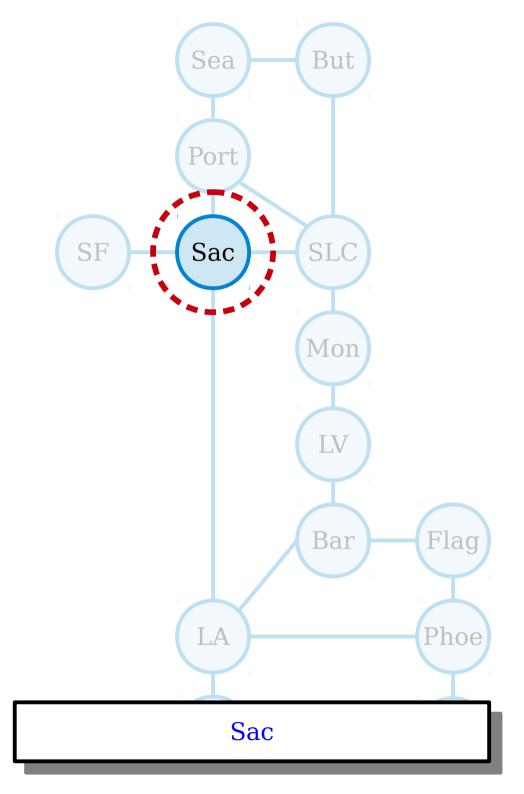
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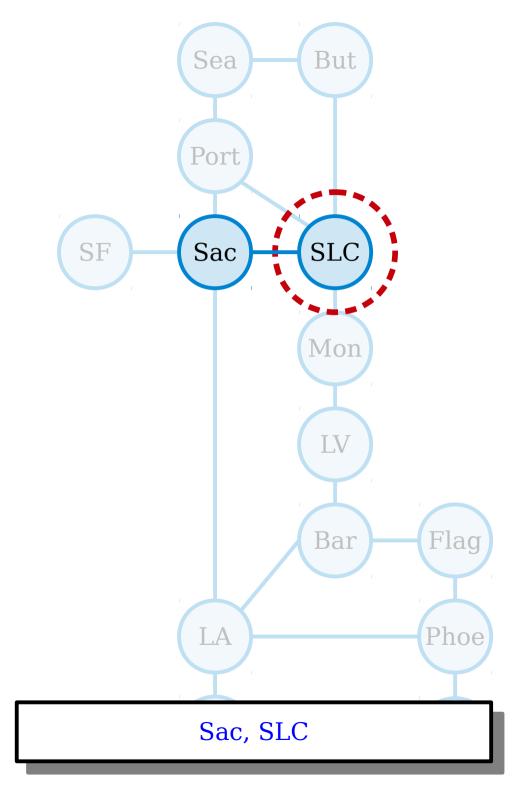
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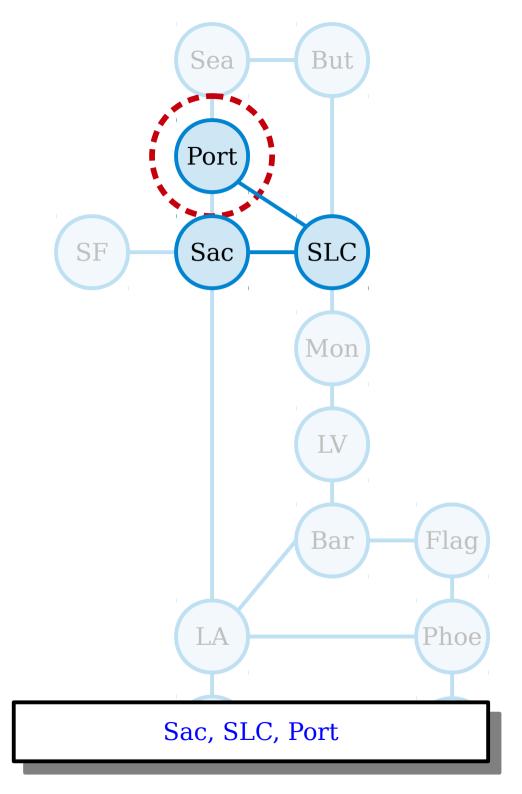
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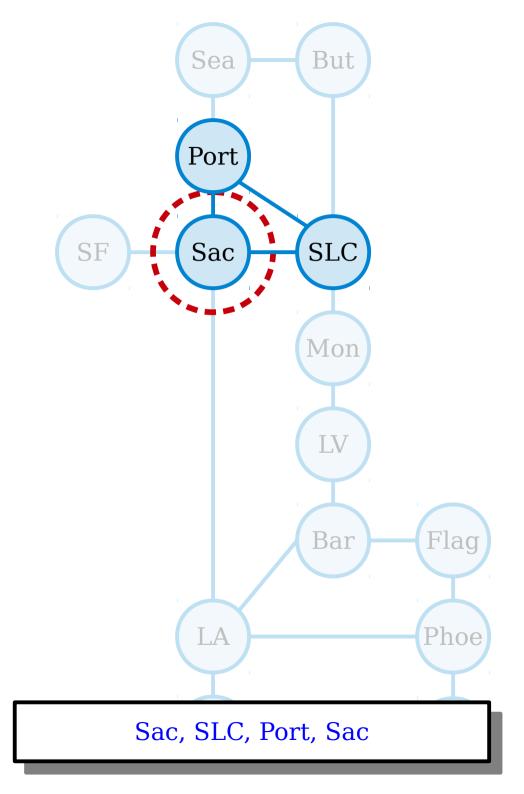
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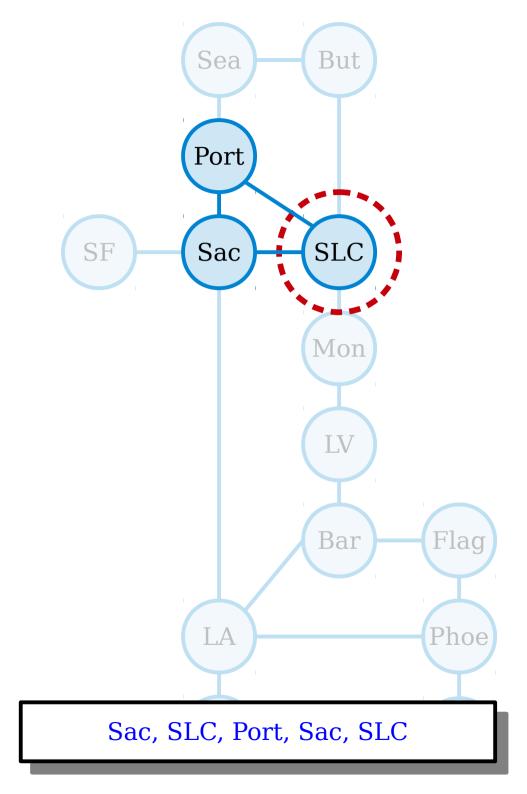
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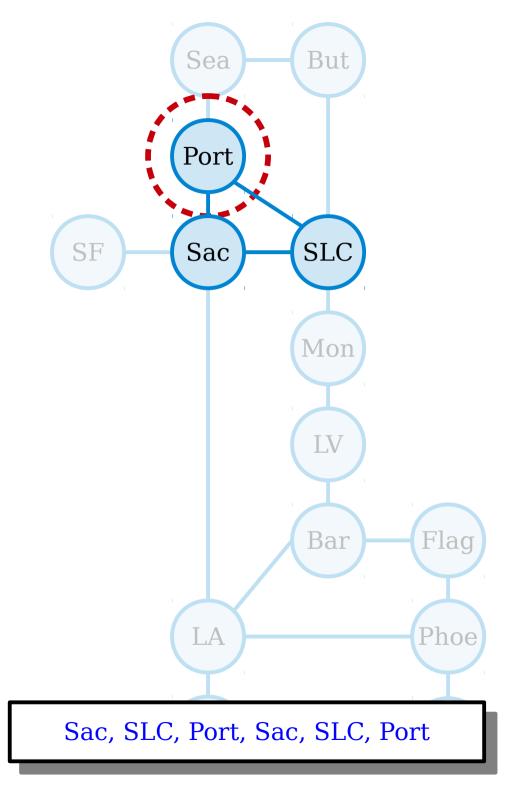
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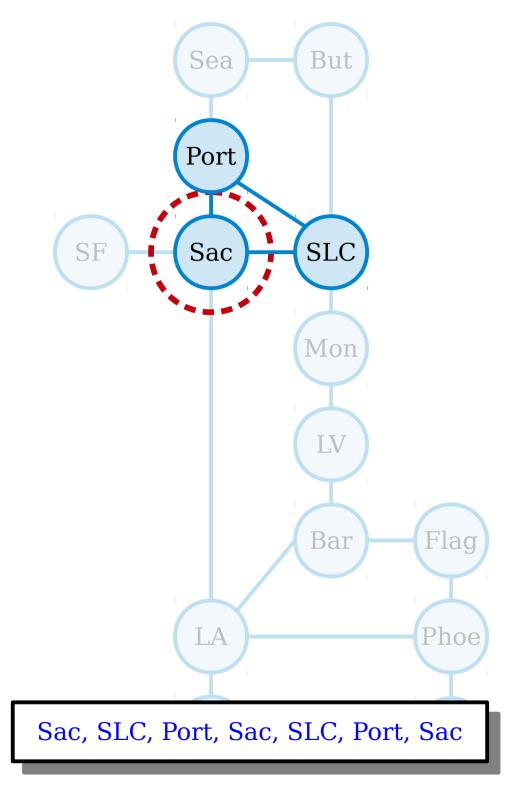
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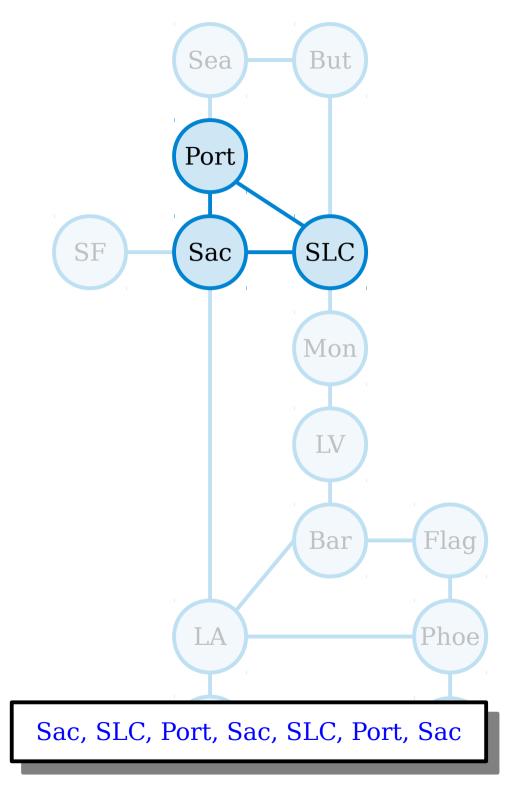
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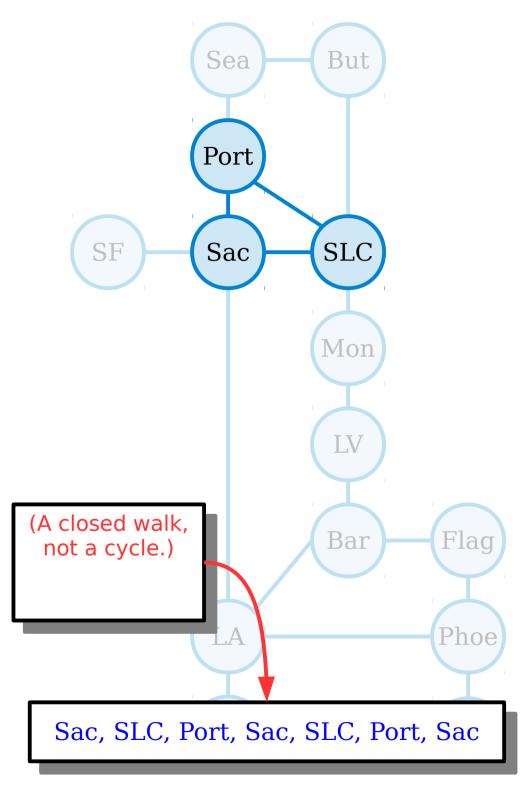
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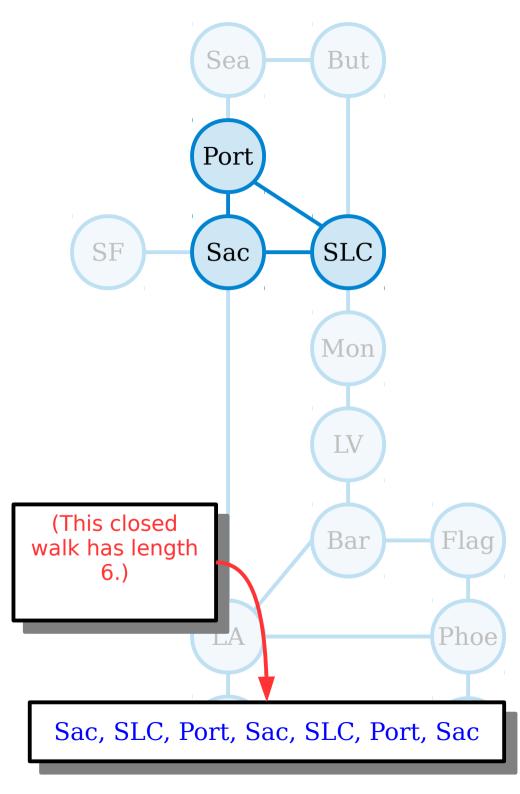
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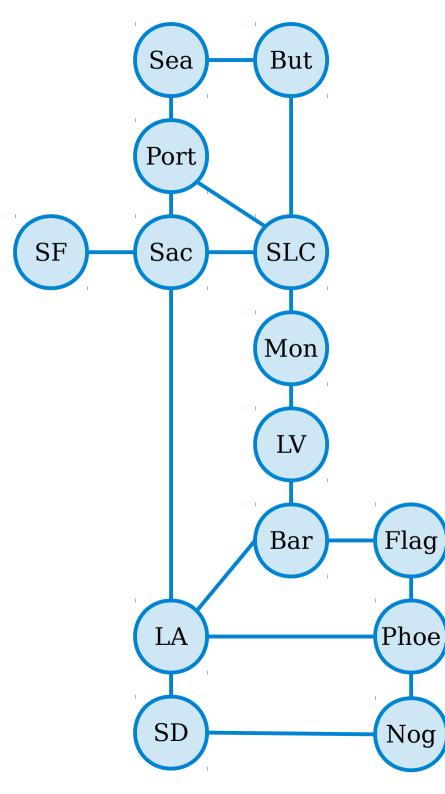
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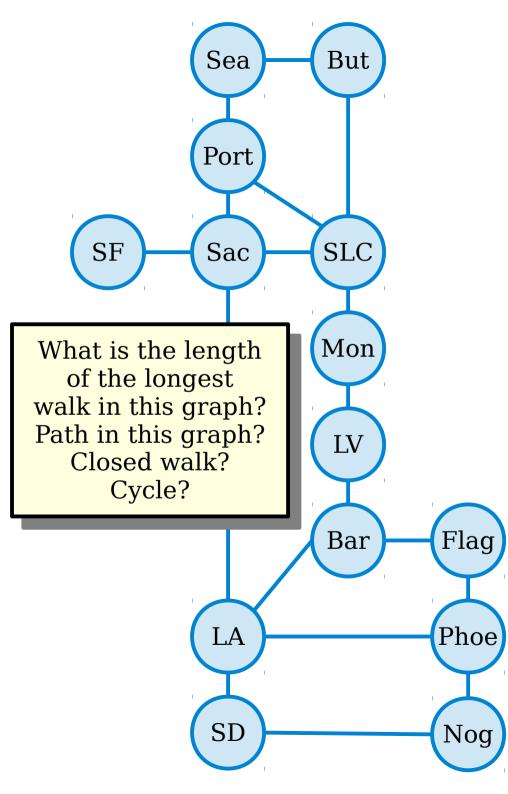
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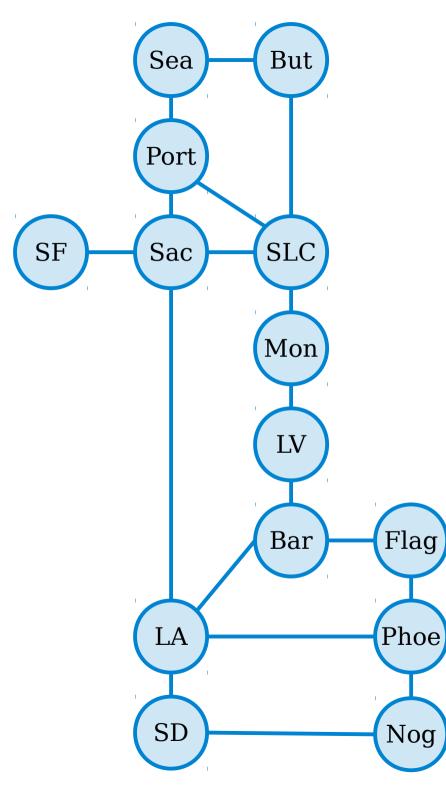
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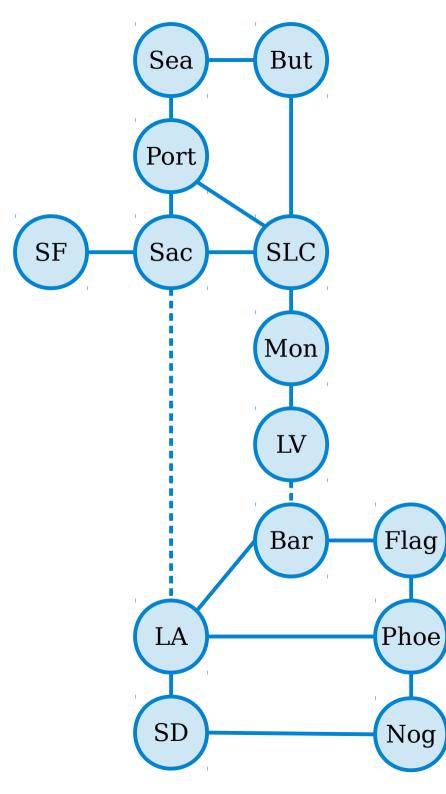


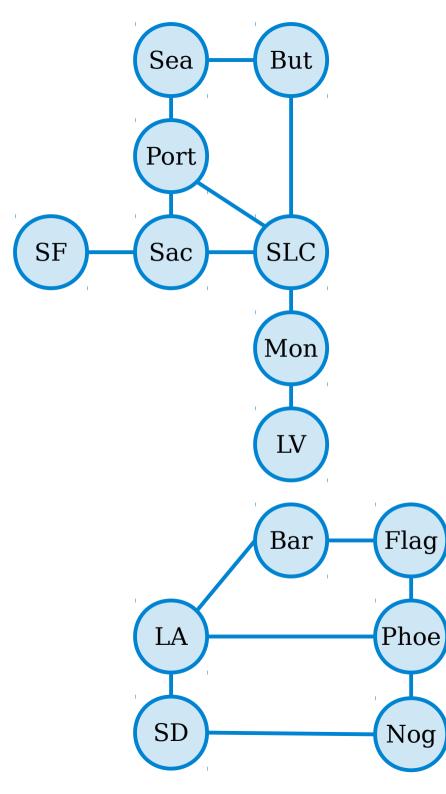
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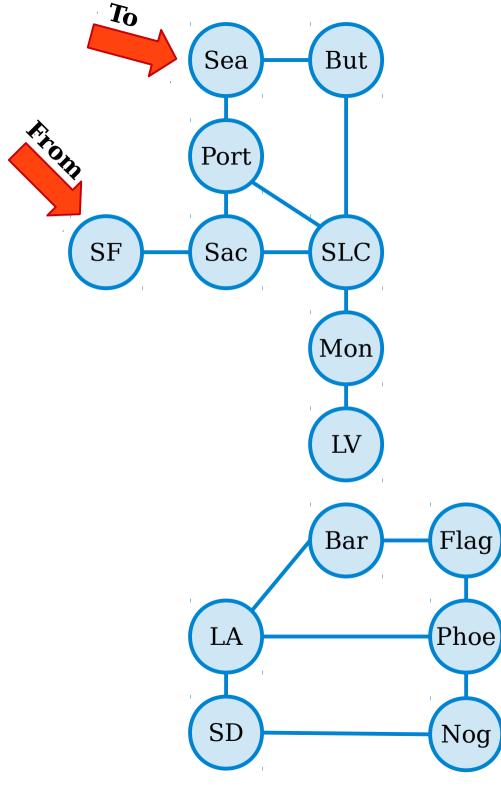
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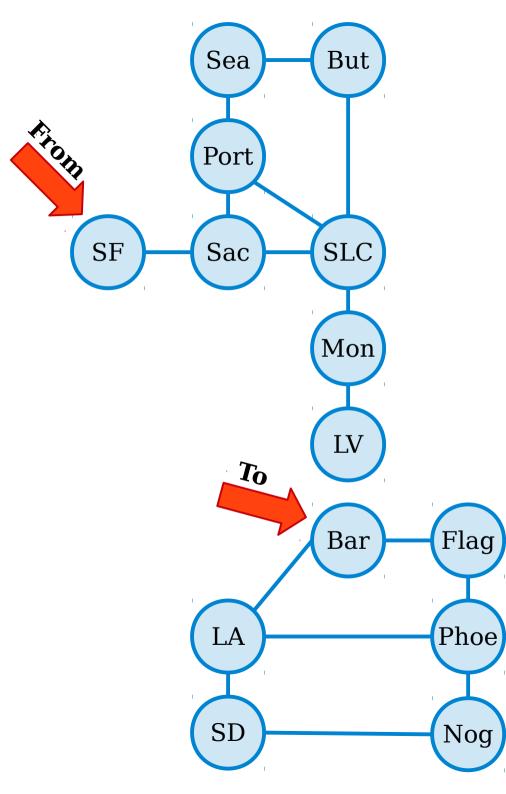
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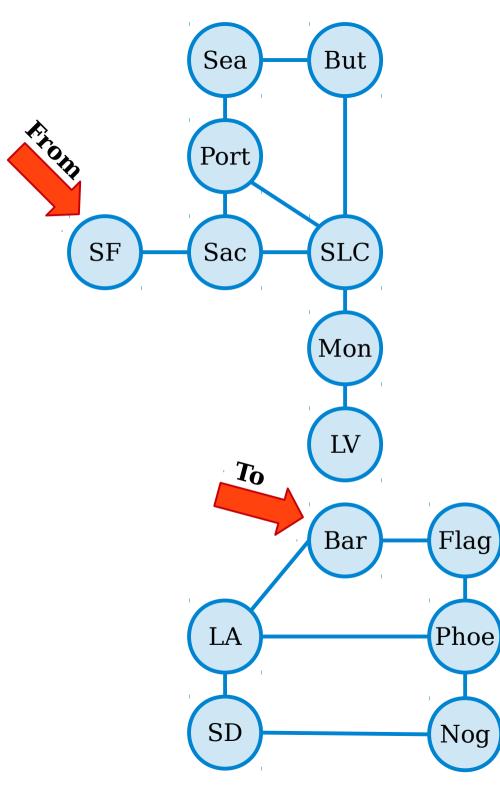






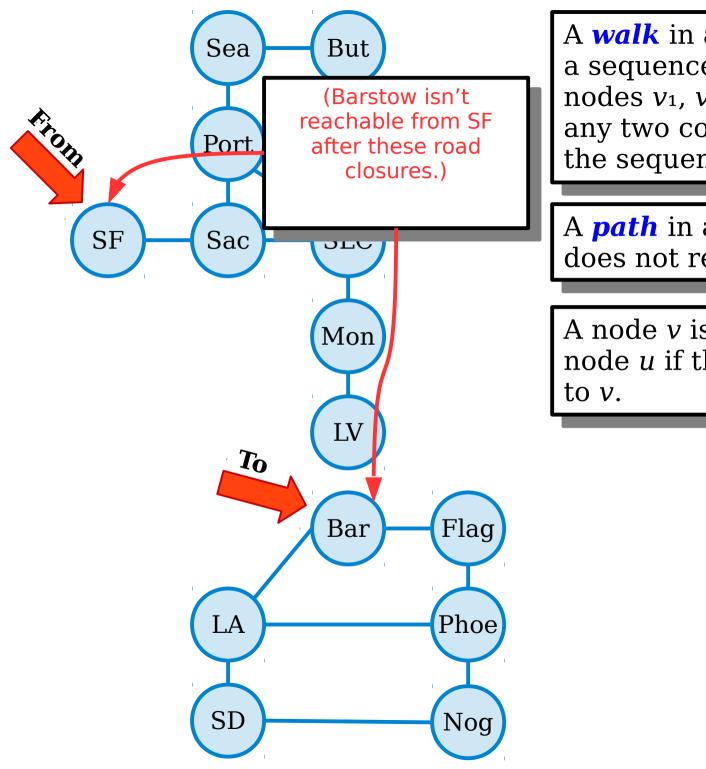






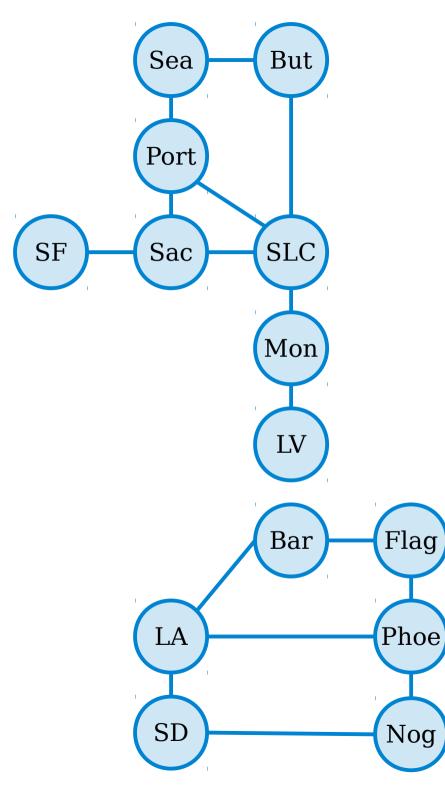
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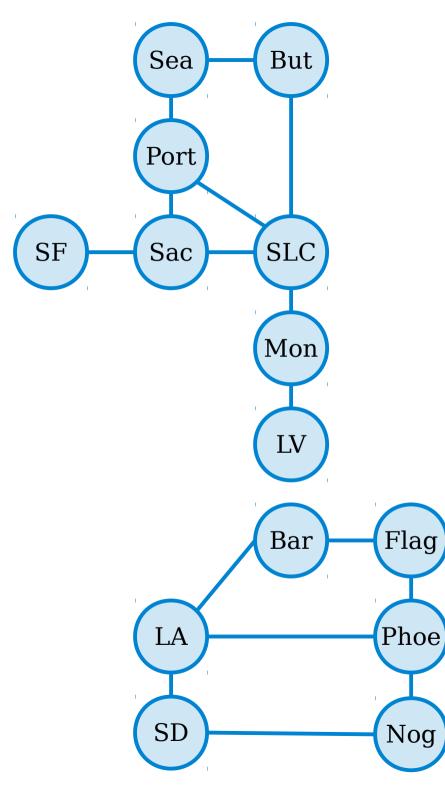
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A graph *G* is called *connected* if all pairs of distinct nodes in *G* are reachable.

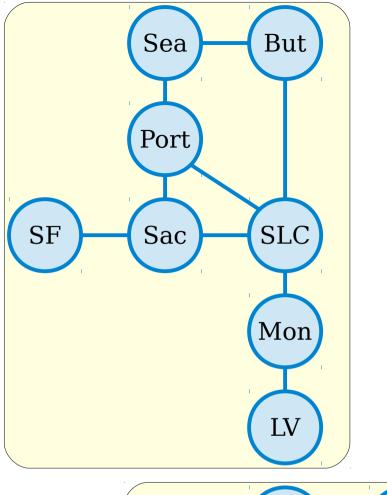


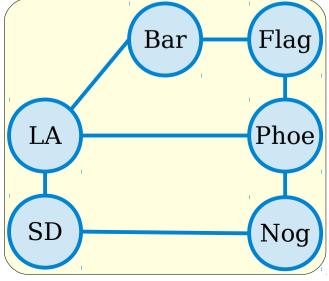
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(This graph is not connected.)

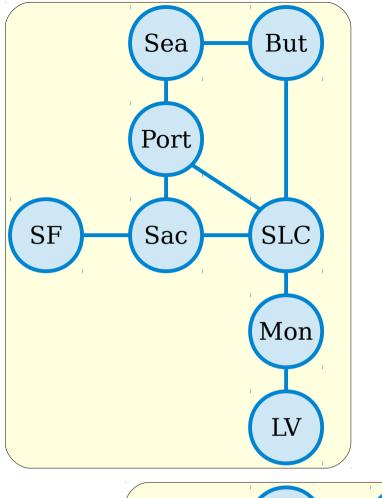


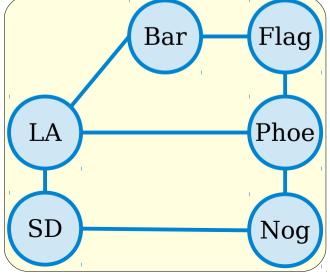


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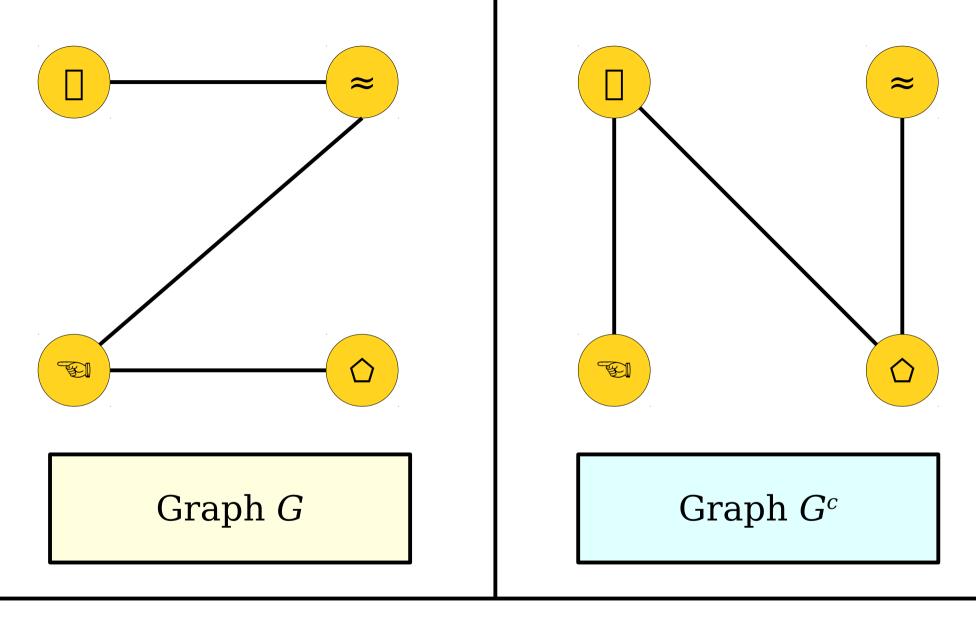
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A *connected component* (or *CC*) of *G* is a maximal set of mutually reachable nodes.

## Fun Facts

- Here's a collection of useful facts about graphs that you can take as a given.
  - **Theorem:** If G = (V, E) is a graph and  $u, v \in V$ , then there is a path from u to v if and only if there's a walk from u to v.
  - **Theorem:** If G is a graph and C is a cycle in G, then C's length is at least three and C contains at least three nodes.
  - **Theorem:** If G = (V, E) is a graph, then every node in V belongs to exactly one connected component of G.
  - **Theorem:** If G = (V, E) is a graph, then G is connected if and only if G has exactly one connected component.
- Looking for more practice working with formal definitions? Prove these results!

Graph Complements



Let G = (V, E) be an undirected graph. The **complement of G** is the graph  $G^c = (V, E^c)$ , where  $E^c = \{ \{u, v\} \mid u \in V, v \in V, u \neq v, \text{ and } \{u, v\} \notin E \}$  **Theorem:** For any graph G = (V, E), at least one of *G* and  $G^c$  is connected.

## Proving a Disjunction

• We need to prove the statement

G is connected V G<sup>c</sup> is connected.

- Here's a neat observation.
  - If *G* is connected, we're done.
  - Otherwise, *G* isn't connected, and we have to prove that *G*<sup>*c*</sup> is connected.
- We will therefore prove

G is not connected  $\rightarrow$  G<sup>c</sup> is connected.

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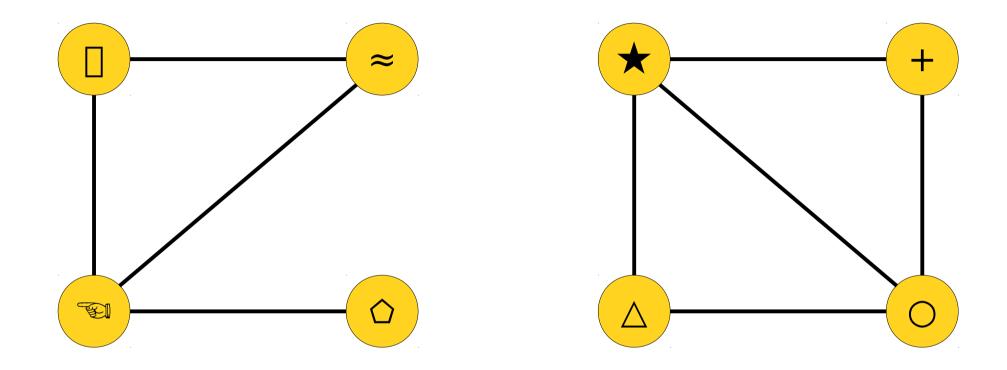
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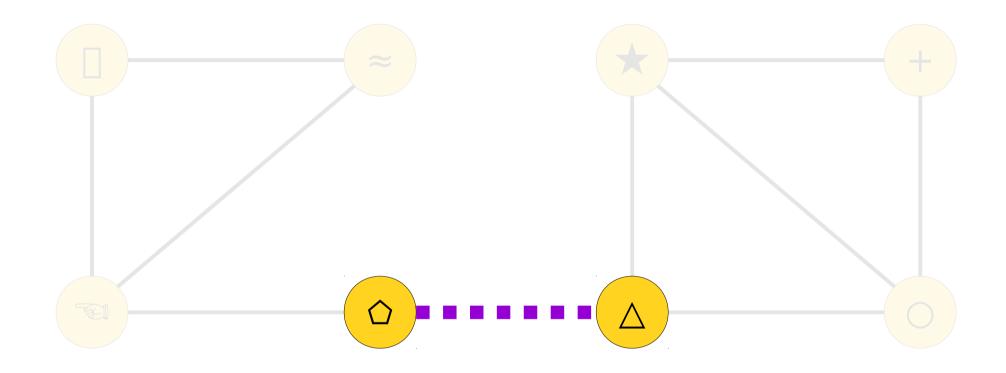
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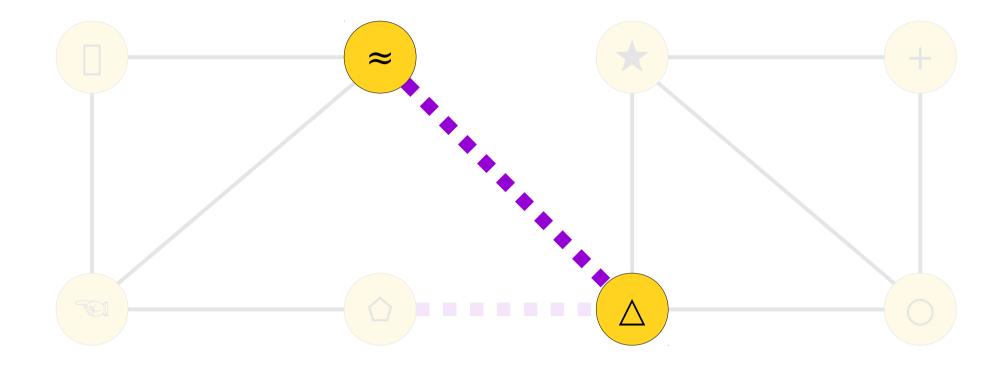
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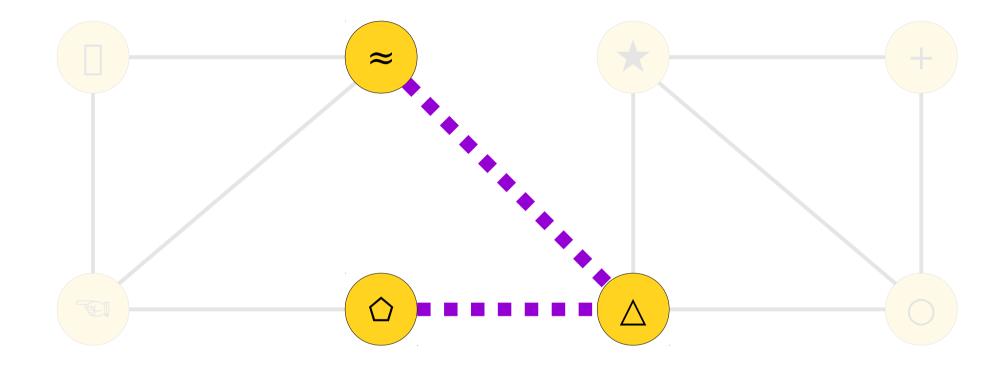
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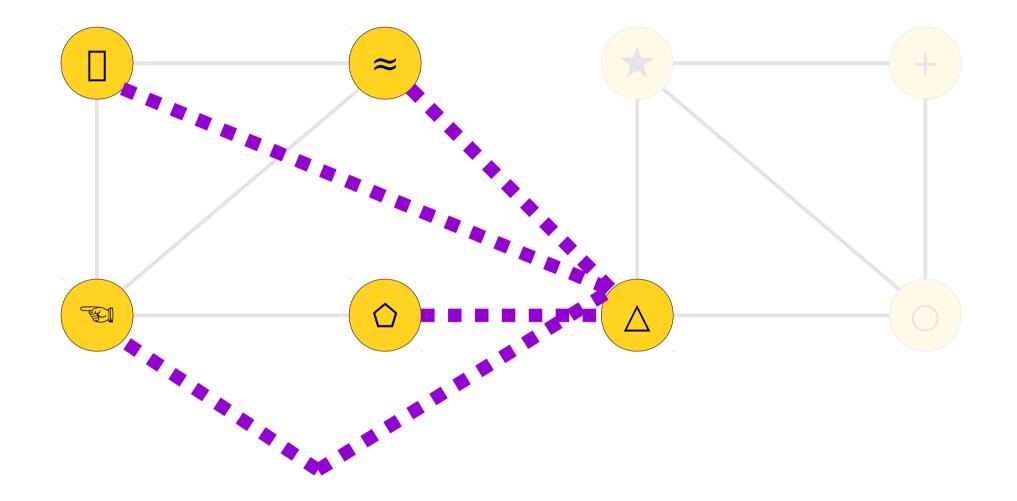
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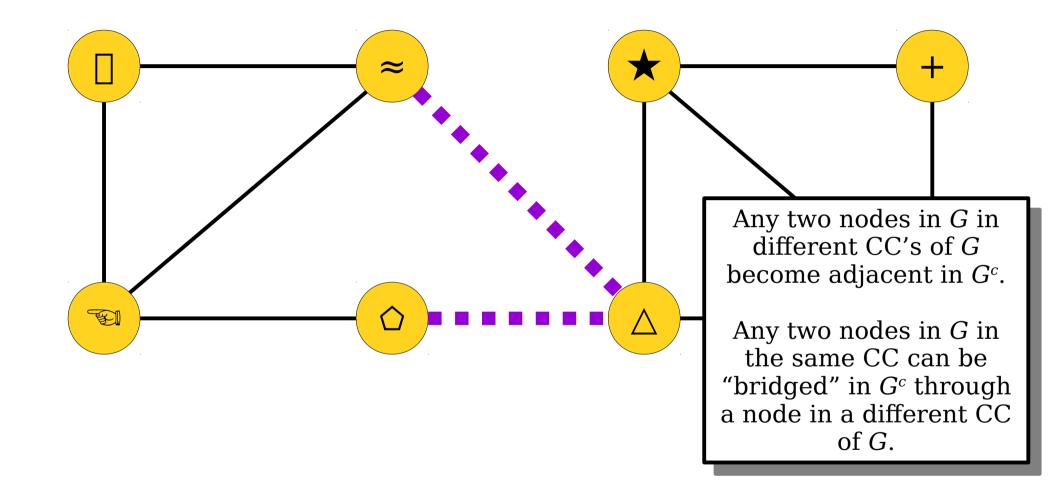












For any graph G = (V, E), if G is not connected, then  $G^c$  is connected.

**Proof:** 

- **Theorem:** If G = (V, E) is a graph, then at least one of G and  $G^c$  is connected.
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**Proof:** Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary graph and assume G is not connected. We need to show that  $G^c = (V, E^c)$  is connected. To do so, consider any two distinct nodes  $u, v \in V$ . We need to show that there is a path from u to v in  $G^c$ . We consider two cases:

*Case 1: u* and *v* are in different connected components of *G*.

*Case 2: u* and *v* are in the same connected component of *G*.

**Proof:** Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary graph and assume G is not connected. We need to show that  $G^c = (V, E^c)$  is connected. To do so, consider any two distinct nodes  $u, v \in V$ . We need to show that there is a path from u to v in  $G^c$ . We consider two cases:

Case 1: *u* and *v* are in different connected components of *G*. This means that  $\{u, v\} \notin E$ , since otherwise the path *u*, *v* would make *u* reachable from *v* and they'd be in the same connected component of *G*.

Case 2: u and v are in the same connected component of G.

**Proof:** Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary graph and assume G is not connected. We need to show that  $G^c = (V, E^c)$  is connected. To do so, consider any two distinct nodes  $u, v \in V$ . We need to show that there is a path from u to v in  $G^c$ . We consider two cases:

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Case 2: u and v are in the same connected component of G.

- **Theorem:** If G = (V, E) is a graph, then at least one of G and  $G^c$  is connected.
- **Proof:** Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary graph and assume G is not connected. We need to show that  $G^c = (V, E^c)$  is connected. To do so, consider any two distinct nodes  $u, v \in V$ . We need to show that there is a path from u to v in  $G^c$ . We consider two cases:

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Case 2: u and v are in the same connected component of G. Since G is not connected, there is at least one node that is not connected to u or v—pick one such node and call it z.

**Proof:** Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary graph and assume G is not connected. We need to show that  $G^c = (V, E^c)$  is connected. To do so, consider any two distinct nodes  $u, v \in V$ . We need to show that there is a path from u to v in  $G^c$ . We consider two cases:

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**Proof:** Let G = (V, E) be an arbitrary graph and assume G is not connected. We need to show that  $G^c = (V, E^c)$  is connected. To do so, consider any two distinct nodes  $u, v \in V$ . We need to show that there is a path from u to v in  $G^c$ . We consider two cases:

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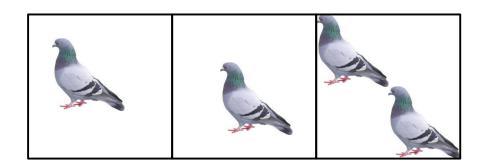
In either case, we find a path from u to v in  $G^c$ , as required.

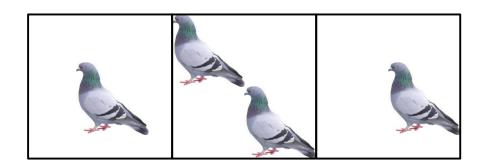
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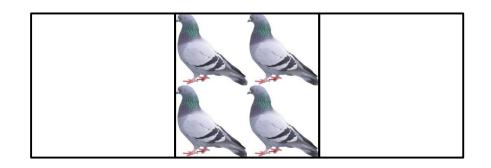
*Case 2: u* and *v* are in the same connected component of *G*. Since *G* is not connected, there are at least two connected components of *G*. Pick any node *z* that belongs to a different connected component of *G* than *u* and *v*. Then by the reasoning from Case 1 we know that  $\{u, z\} \in E^c$  and  $\{z, v\} \in E^c$ . This gives a path u, z, v in  $G^c$  from *u* to *v*.

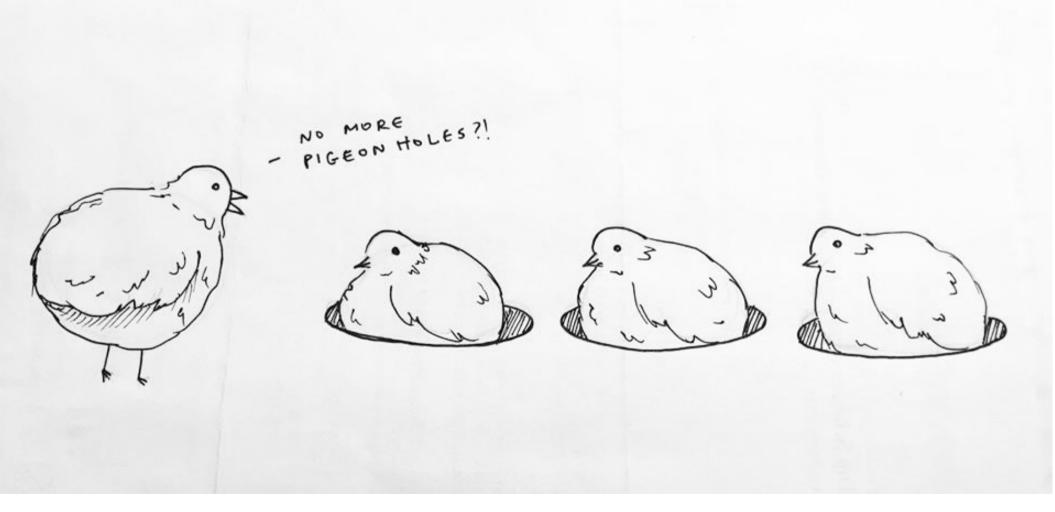
In either case, we find a path from *u* to *v* in  $G^c$ , as required.











#### m = 4, n = 3

Thanks to Amy Liu for this awesome drawing!

# Some Simple Applications

- Any group of 367 people must have a pair of people that share a birthday.
  - 366 possible birthdays (pigeonholes).
  - 367 people (pigeons).
- Two people in San Francisco have the exact same number of hairs on their head.
  - Maximum number of hairs ever found on a human head is no greater than 500,000.
  - There are over 800,000 people in San Francisco.

**Theorem (The Pigeonhole Principle)**: If m objects are distributed into n bins and m > n, then at least one bin will contain at least two objects.

Let A and B be finite sets (sets whose cardinalities are natural numbers) and assume |A| > |B|. How many of the following statements are true?

(1) If  $f: A \to B$ , then f is injective. (2) If  $f: A \to B$ , then f is not injective. (3) If  $f: A \to B$ , then f is surjective. (4) If  $f: A \to B$ , then f is not surjective.

### Proving the Pigeonhole Principle

**Theorem:** If m objects are distributed into n bins and m > n, then there must be some bin that contains at least two objects.

**Proof:** Suppose for the sake of contradiction that, for some m and n where m > n, there is a way to distribute m objects into n bins such that each bin contains at most one object.

Number the bins 1, 2, 3, ..., n and let  $x_i$  denote the number of objects in bin i. There are m objects in total, so we know that

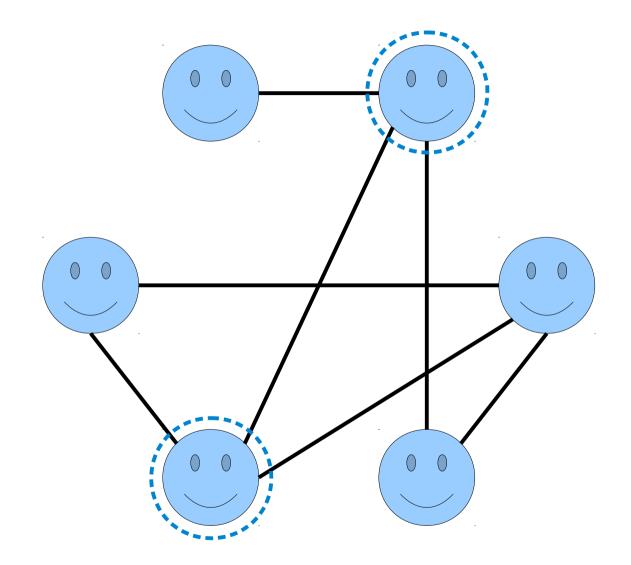
$$m = x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n.$$

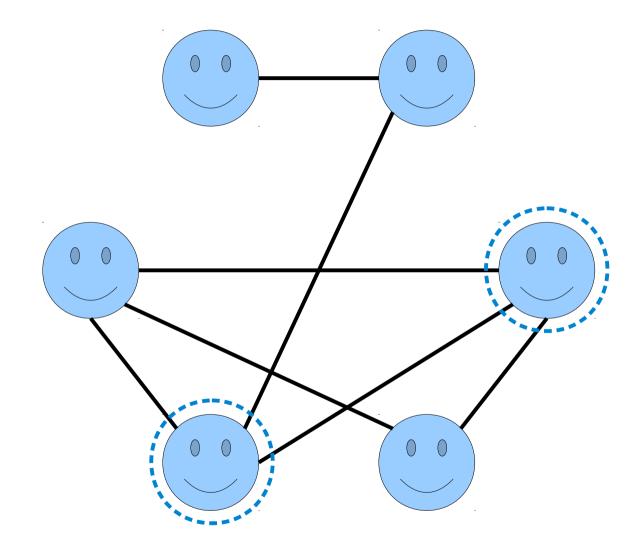
Since each bin has at most one object in it, we know  $x_i \le 1$  for each *i*. This means that

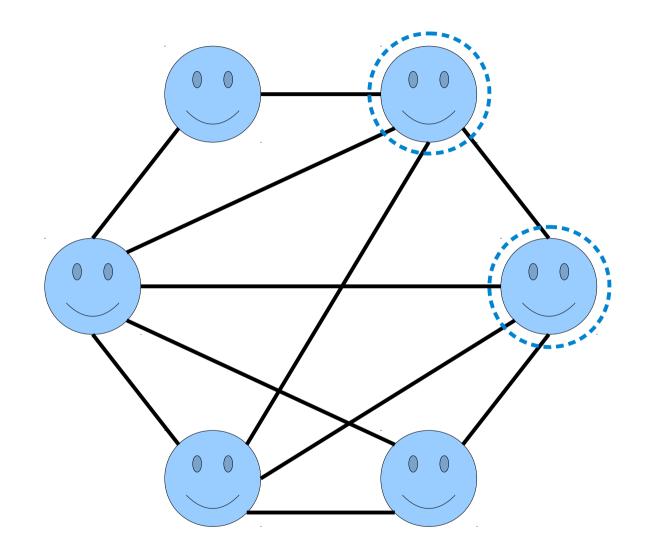
$$m = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n \\ \leq 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 \quad (n \text{ times}) \\ = n.$$

This means that  $m \le n$ , contradicting that m > n. We've reached a contradiction, so our assumption must have been wrong. Therefore, if m objects are distributed into n bins with m > n, some bin must contain at least two objects.

### Pigeonhole Principle Party Tricks

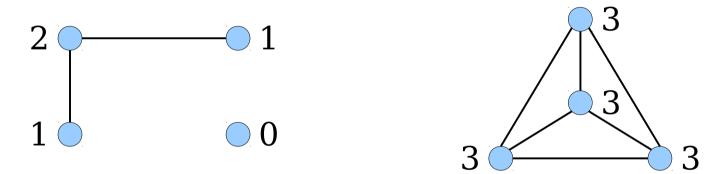




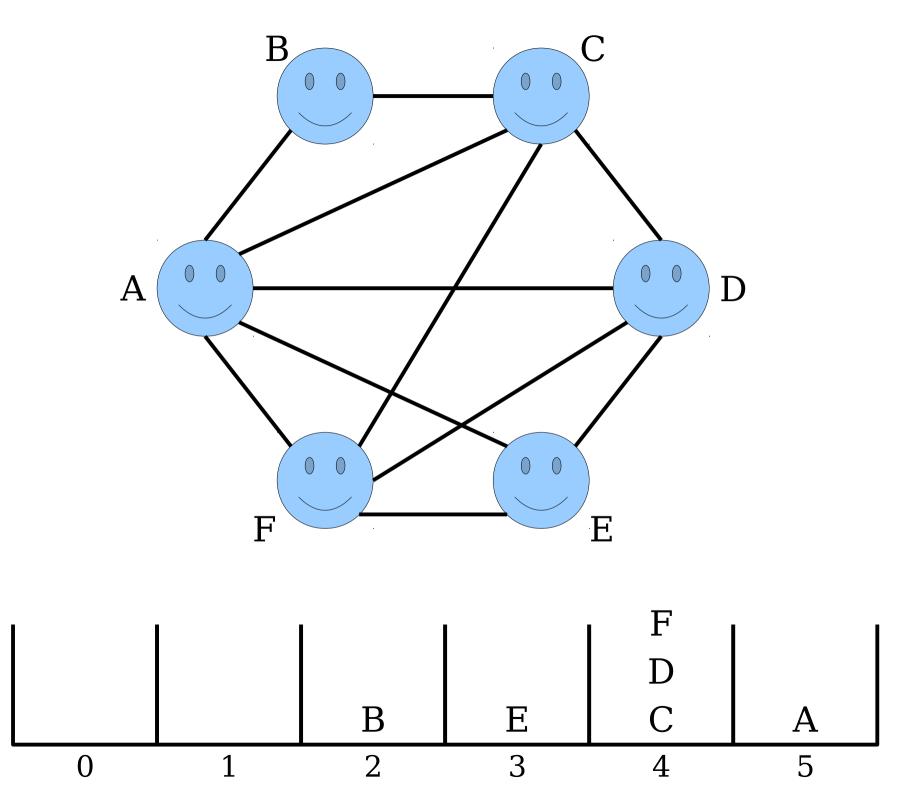


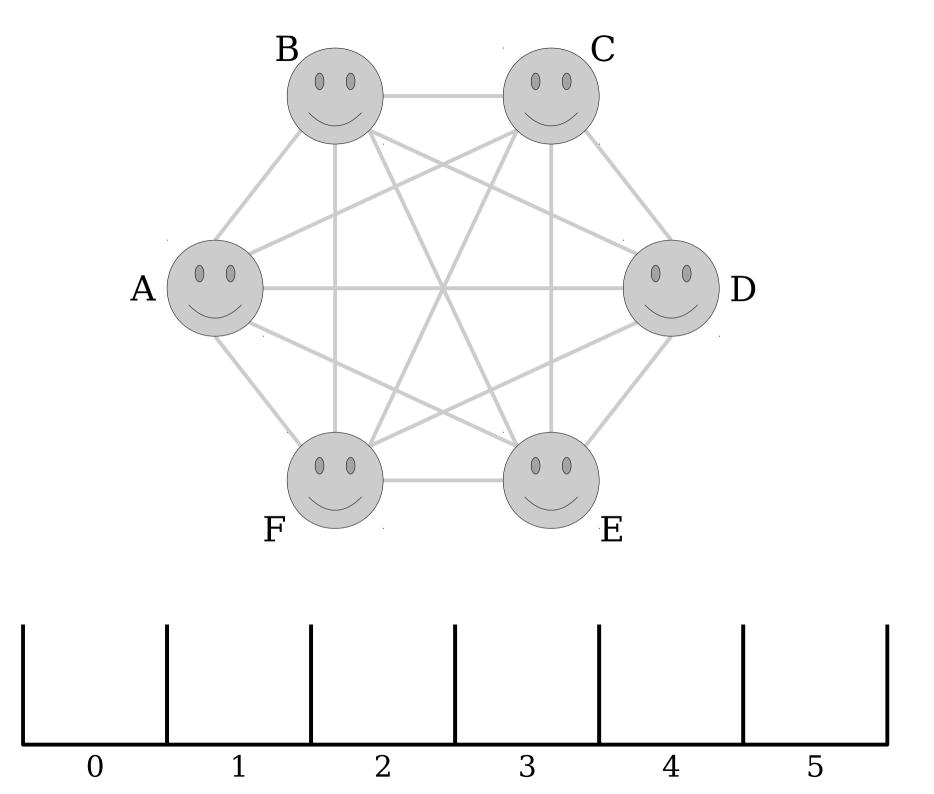
### Degrees

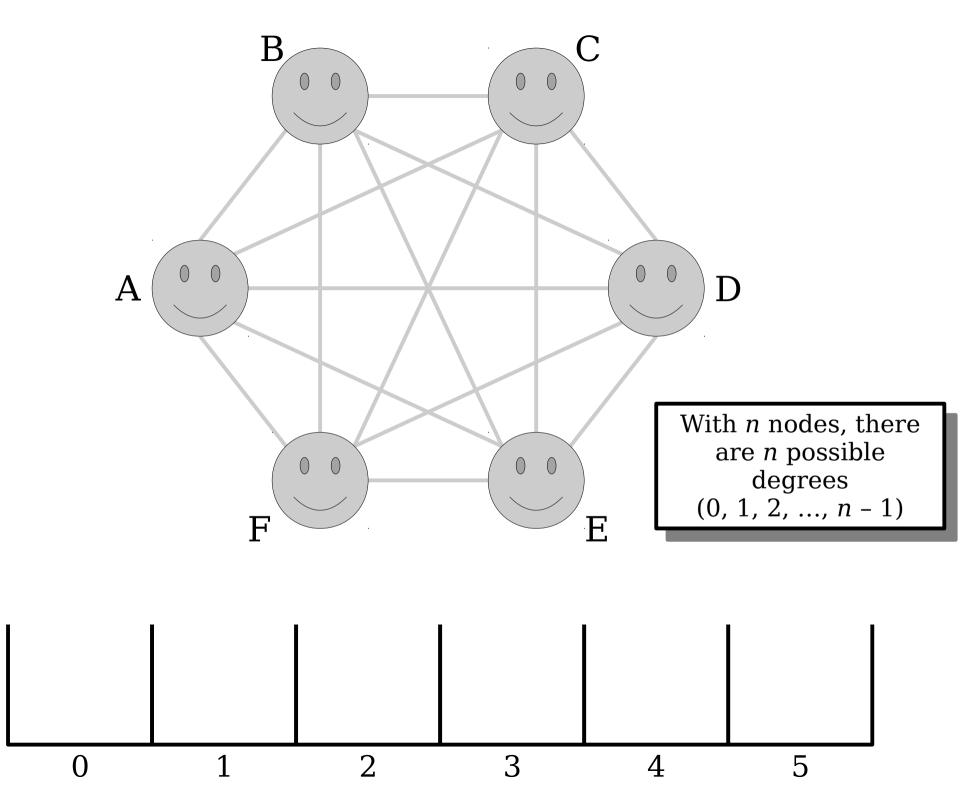
• The **degree** of a node v in a graph is the number of nodes that v is adjacent to.

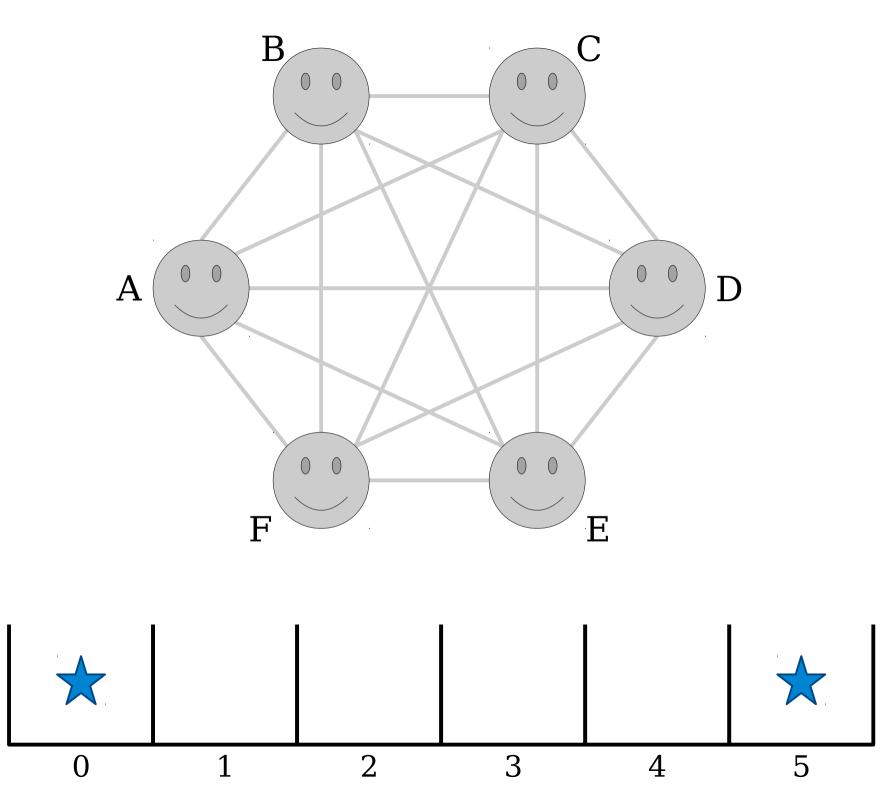


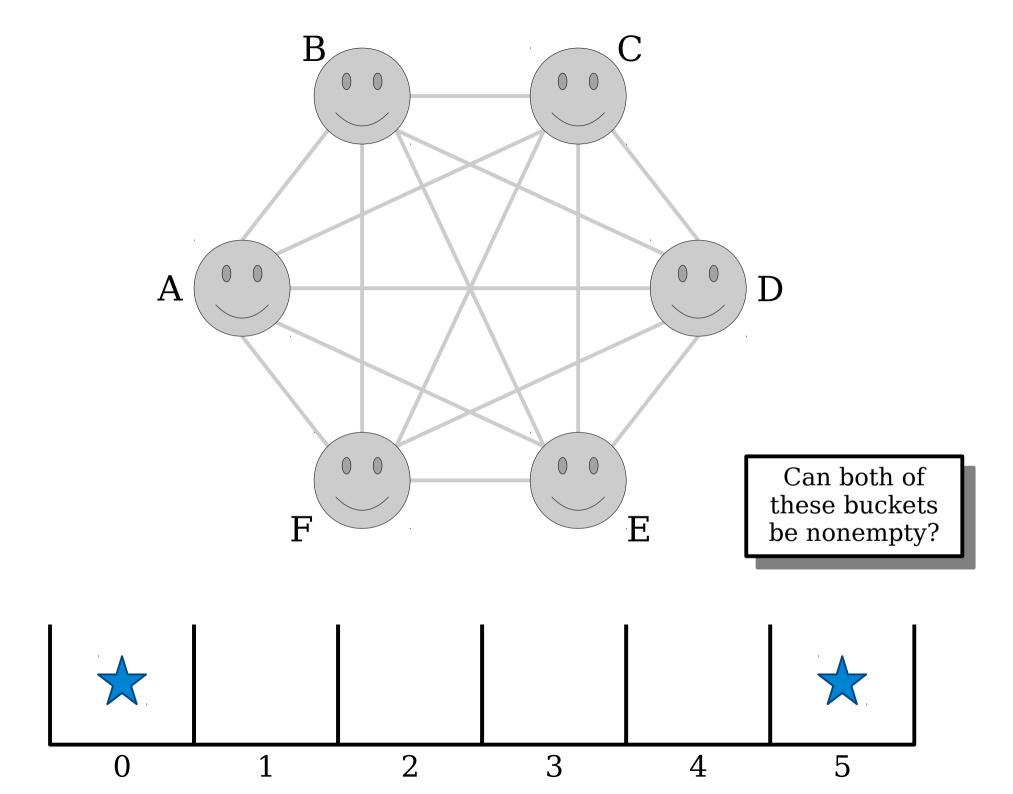
- **Theorem:** Every graph with at least two nodes has at least two nodes with the same degree.
  - Equivalently: at any party with at least two people, there are at least two people with the same number of friends at the party.

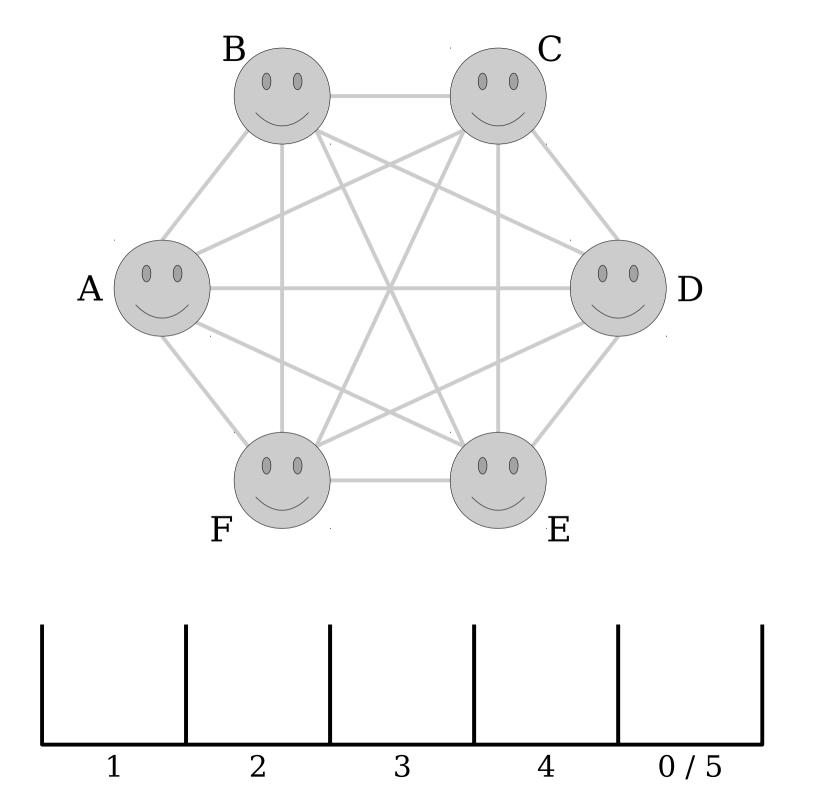












**Proof 1:** 

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- **Theorem:** In any graph with at least two nodes, there are at least two nodes of the same degree.
- **Proof 1:** Let G be a graph with  $n \ge 2$  nodes. There are n possible choices for the degrees of nodes in G, namely, 0, 1, 2, ..., and n 1.

We claim that G cannot simultaneously have a node u of degree 0 and a node v of degree n - 1: if there were such nodes, then node u would be adjacent to no other nodes and node v would be adjacent to all other nodes, including u. (Note that u and v must be different nodes, since v has degree at least 1 and u has degree 0.)

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We therefore see that the possible options for degrees of nodes in *G* are either drawn from 0, 1, ..., n - 2 or from 1, 2, ..., n - 1.

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We therefore see that the possible options for degrees of nodes in *G* are either drawn from 0, 1, ..., n - 2 or from 1, 2, ..., n - 1. In either case, there are n nodes and n - 1 possible degrees, so by the pigeonhole principle two nodes in *G* must have the same degree.

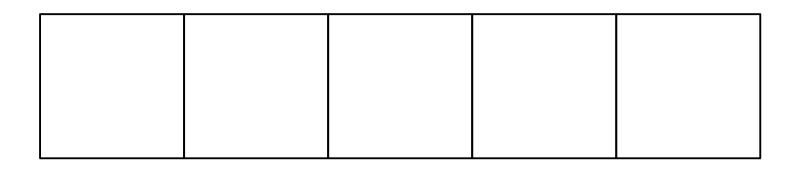
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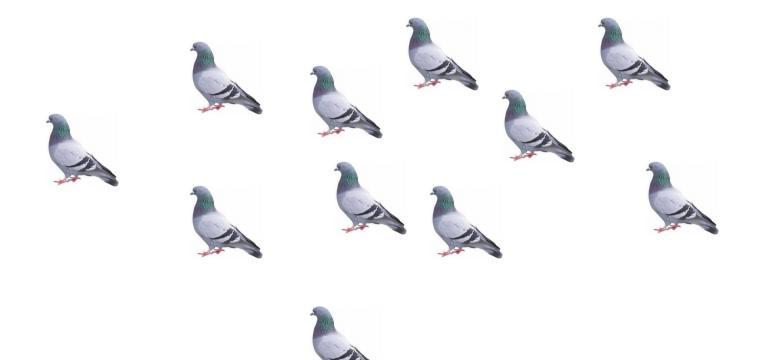
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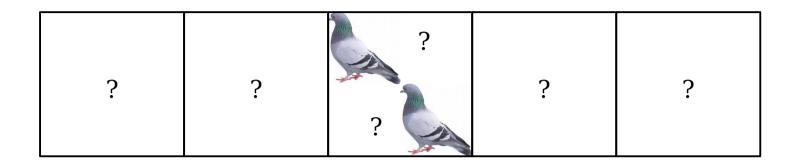
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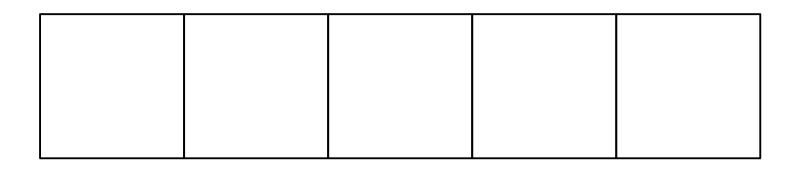
- **Theorem:** In any graph with at least two nodes, there are at least two nodes of the same degree.
- **Proof 2:** Assume for the sake of contradiction that there is a graph G with  $n \ge 2$  nodes where no two nodes have the same degree. There are n possible choices for the degrees of nodes in G, namely 0, 1, 2, ..., n 1, so this means that G must have exactly one node of each degree. However, this means that G has a node of degree 0 and a node of degree n 1. (These can't be the same node, since  $n \ge 2$ .) This first node is adjacent to no other node, which is impossible.
  - We have reached a contradiction, so our assumption must have been wrong. Thus if G is a graph with at least two nodes, G must have at least two nodes of the same degree.

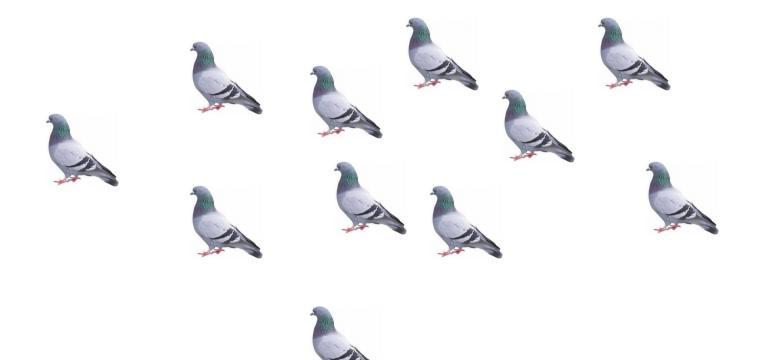
#### The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

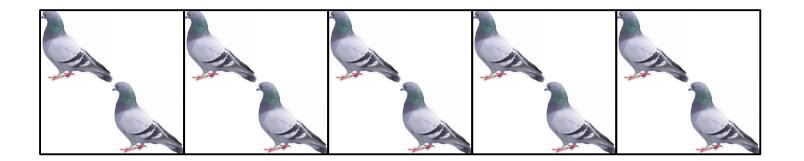




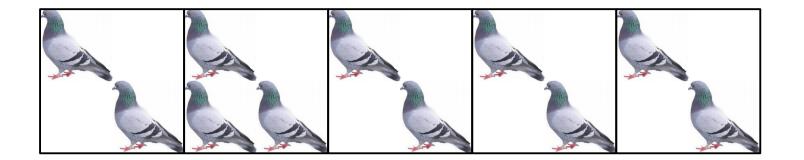


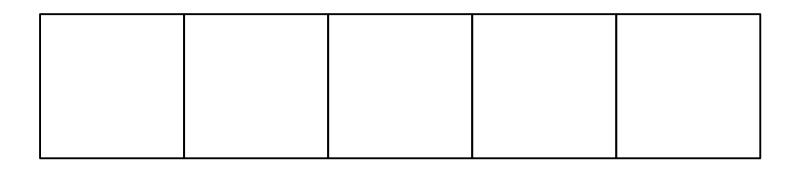


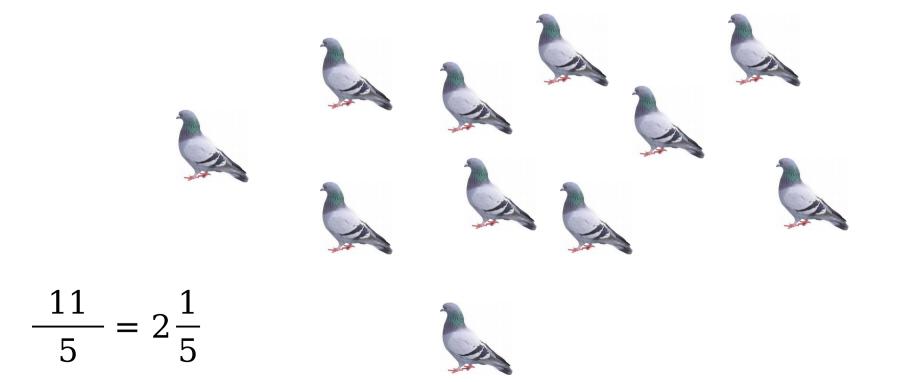












### A More General Version

- The *generalized pigeonhole principle* says that if you distribute *m* objects into *n* bins, then
  - some bin will have at least  $\lceil m/n \rceil$  objects in it, and
  - some bin will have at most  $\lfloor m/n \rfloor$  objects in it.

[<sup>m</sup>/<sub>n</sub>] means "<sup>m</sup>/<sub>n</sub>, rounded up."
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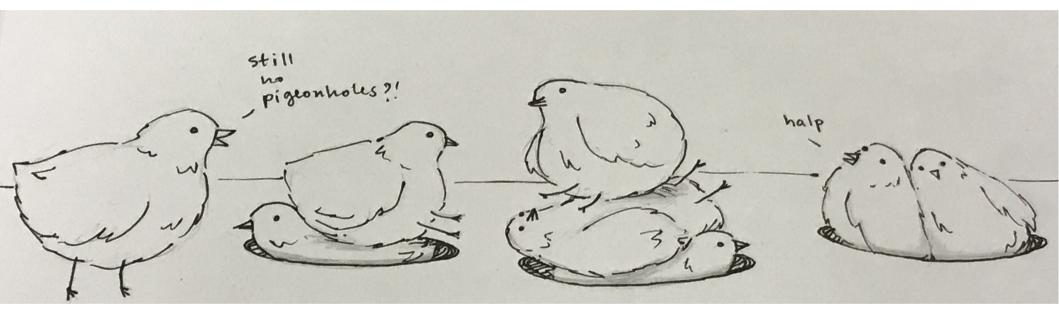
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$$m = 8, n = 3$$

Thanks to Amy Liu for this awesome drawing!

**Theorem:** If *m* objects are distributed into n > 0 bins, then some bin will contain at least  $\lceil m/n \rceil$  objects.

**Proof:** We will prove that if *m* objects are distributed into *n* bins, then some bin contains at least m/n objects. Since the number of objects in each bin is an integer, this will prove that some bin must contain at least [m/n] objects.

To do this, we proceed by contradiction. Suppose that, for some m and n, there is a way to distribute m objects into n bins such that each bin contains fewer than m/n objects.

Number the bins 1, 2, 3, ..., n and let  $x_i$  denote the number of objects in bin i. Since there are m objects in total, we know that

 $m = x_1 + x_2 + \ldots + x_n$ .

Since each bin contains fewer than m/n objects, we see that  $x_i < m/n$  for each *i*. Therefore, we have that

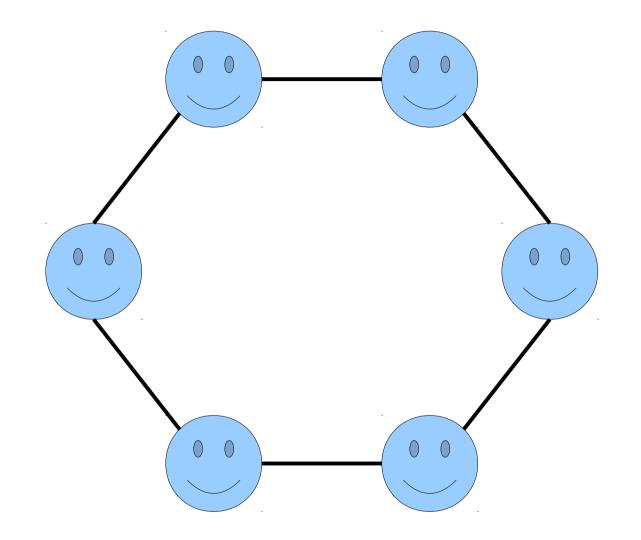
 $m = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$  $< {}^m/_n + {}^m/_n + \dots + {}^m/_n \text{ (n times)}$ = m.

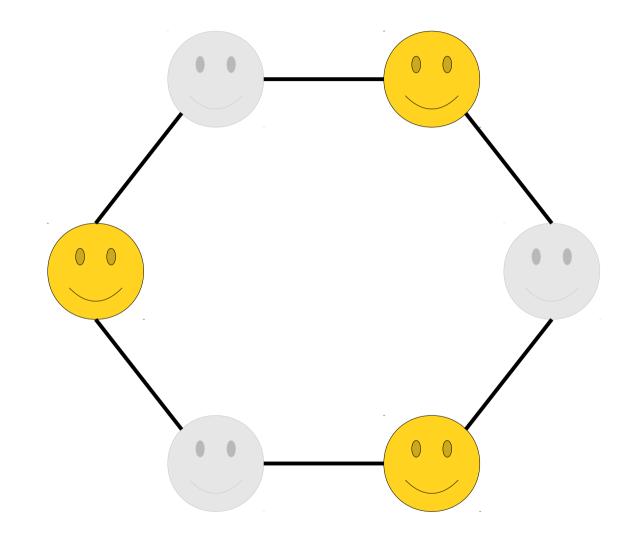
But this means that m < m, which is impossible. We have reached a contradiction, so our initial assumption must have been wrong. Therefore, if m objects are distributed into n bins, some bin must contain at least  $\lceil m/n \rceil$  objects.

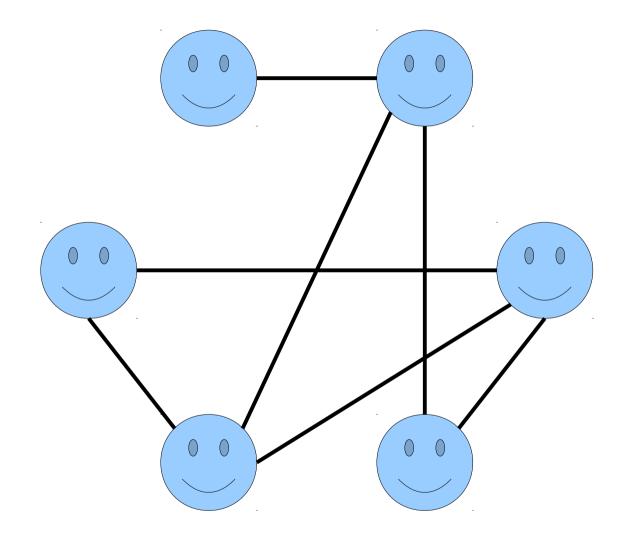
#### An Application: Friends and Strangers

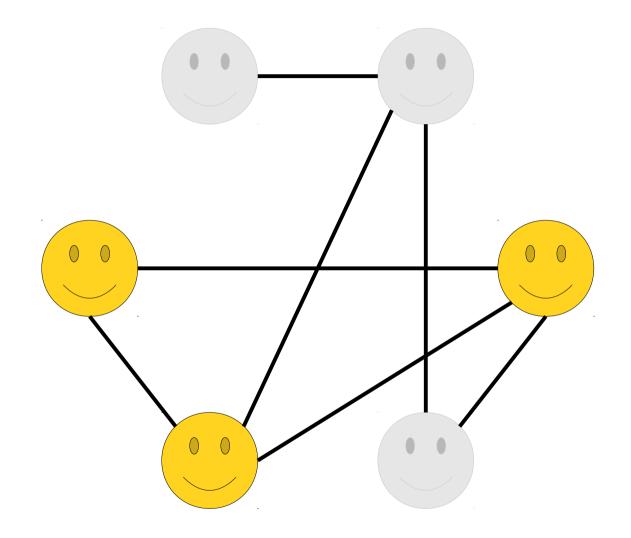
## Friends and Strangers

- Suppose you have a party of six people. Each pair of people are either friends (they know each other) or strangers (they do not).
- **Theorem:** Any such party must have a group of three mutual friends (three people who all know one another) or three mutual strangers (three people, none of whom know any of the others).





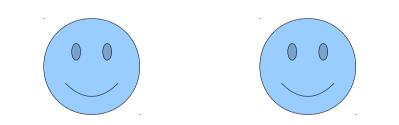


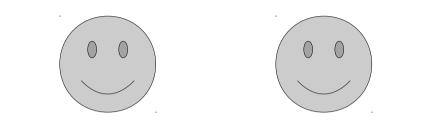






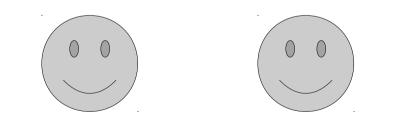


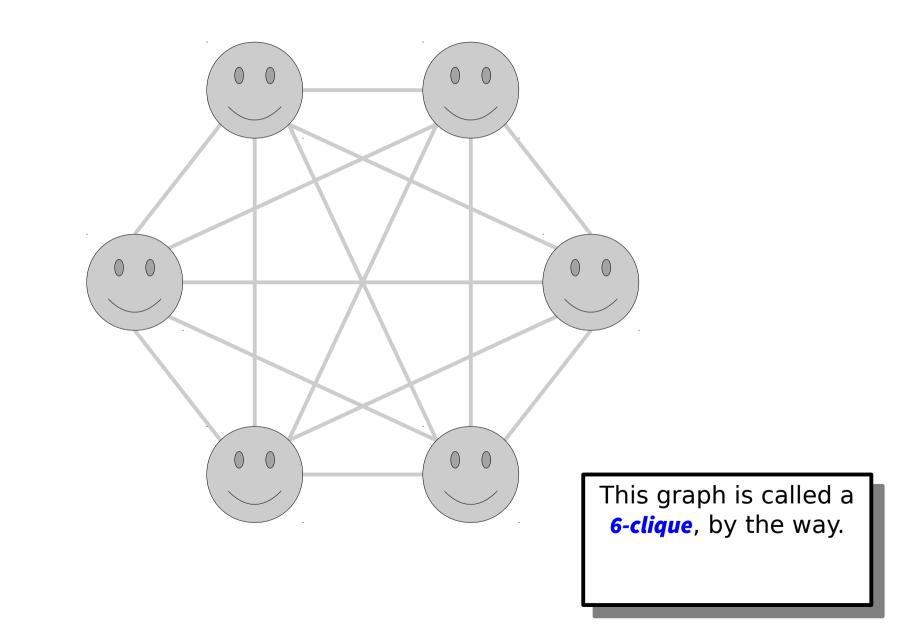


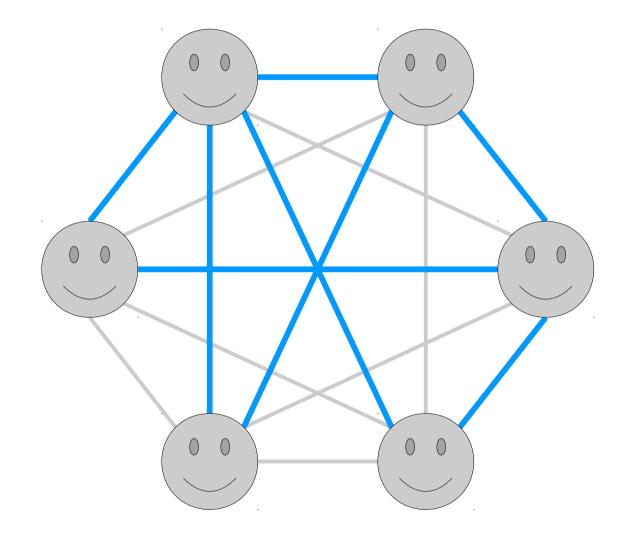


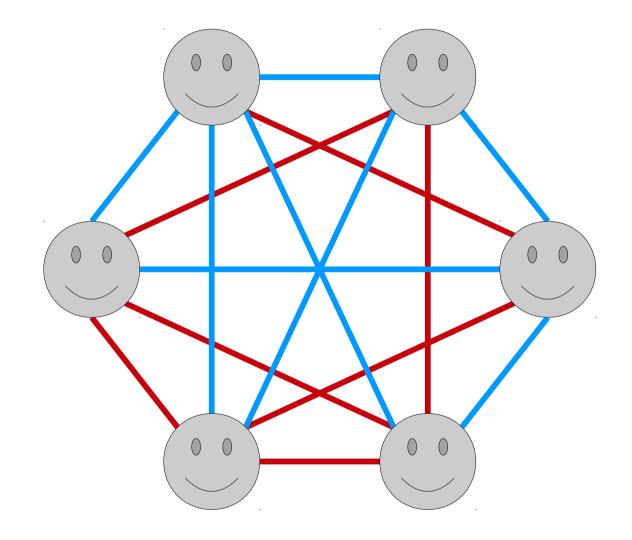


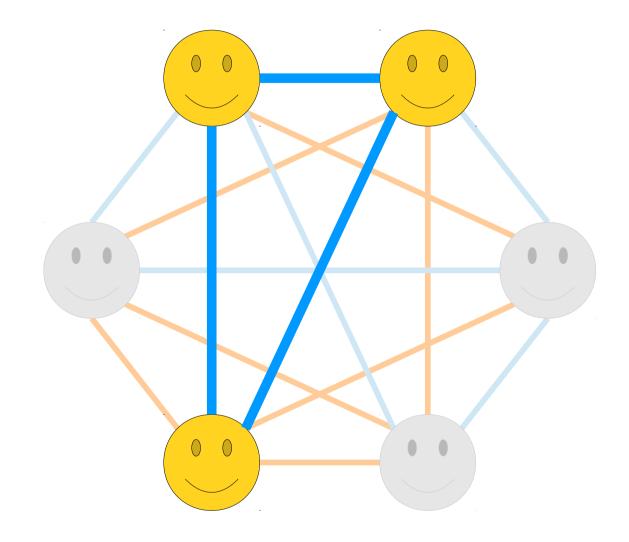


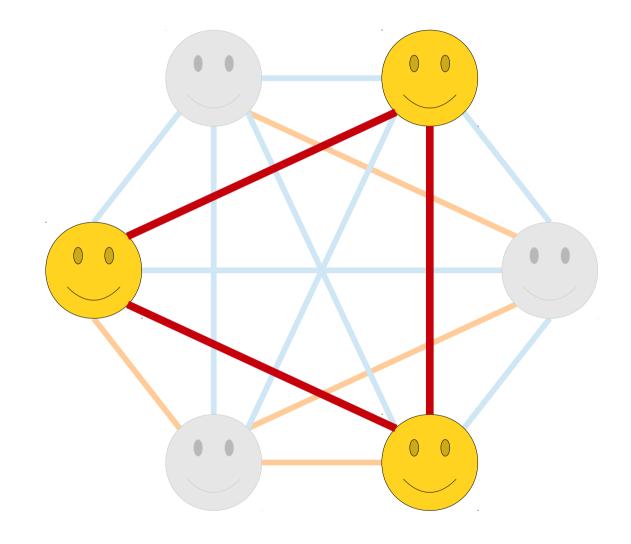










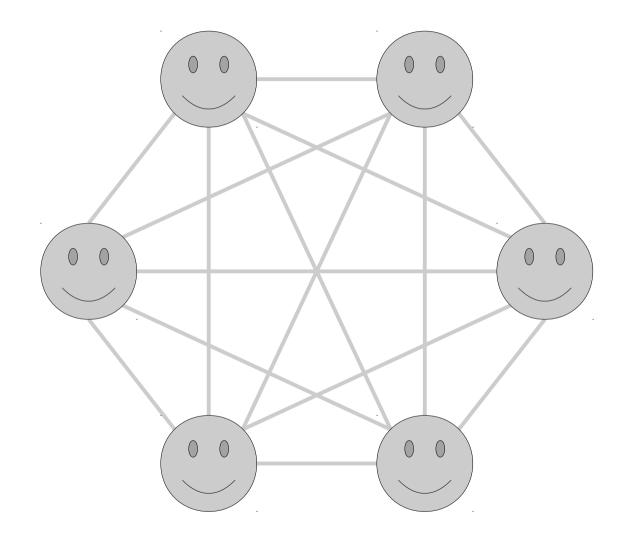


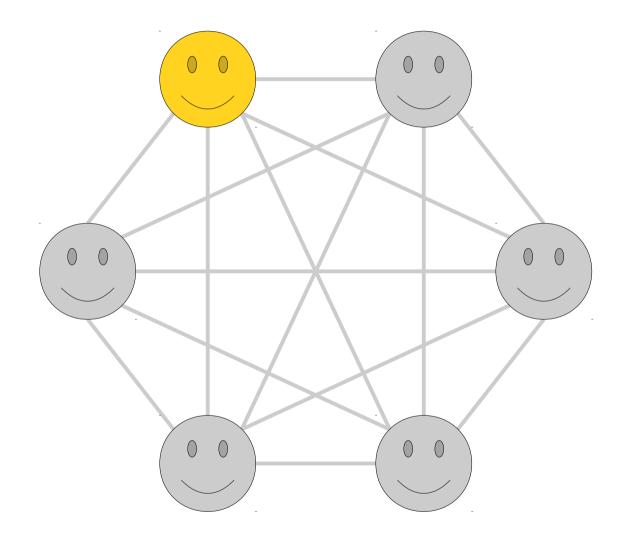
## Friends and Strangers Restated

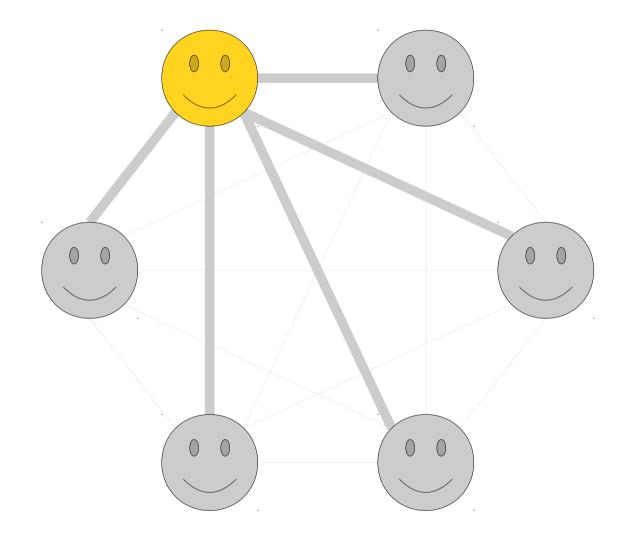
• From a graph-theoretic perspective, the Theorem on Friends and Strangers can be restated as follows:

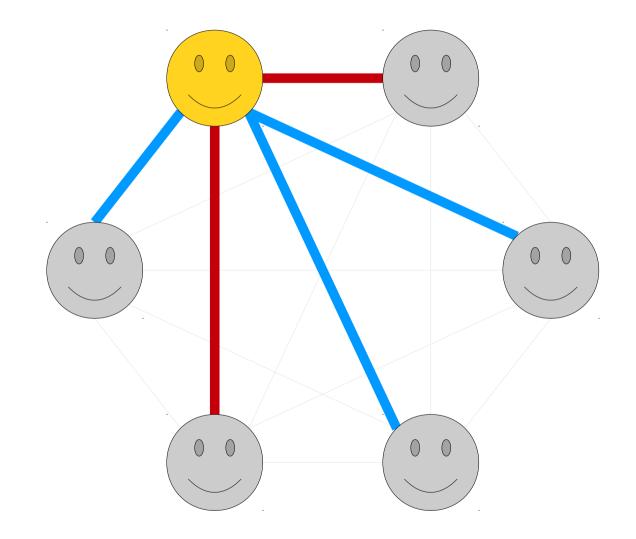
**Theorem:** Any 6-clique whose edges are colored red and blue contains a red triangle or a blue triangle (or both).

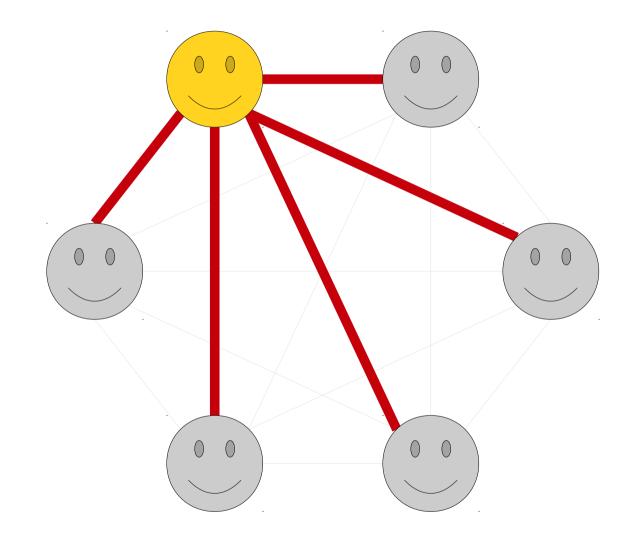
• How can we prove this?

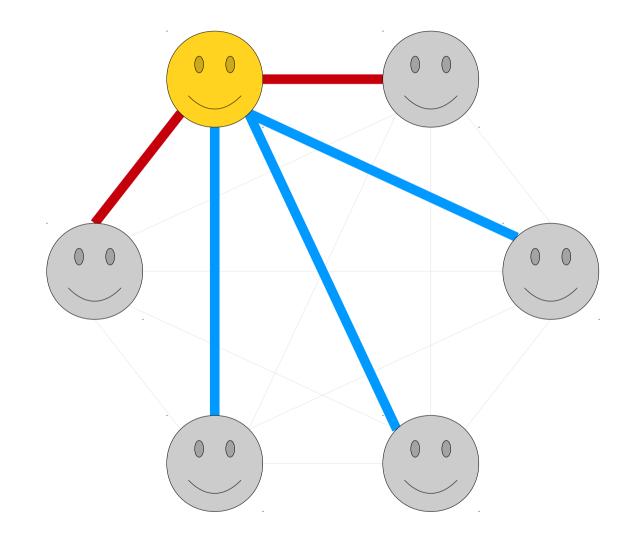


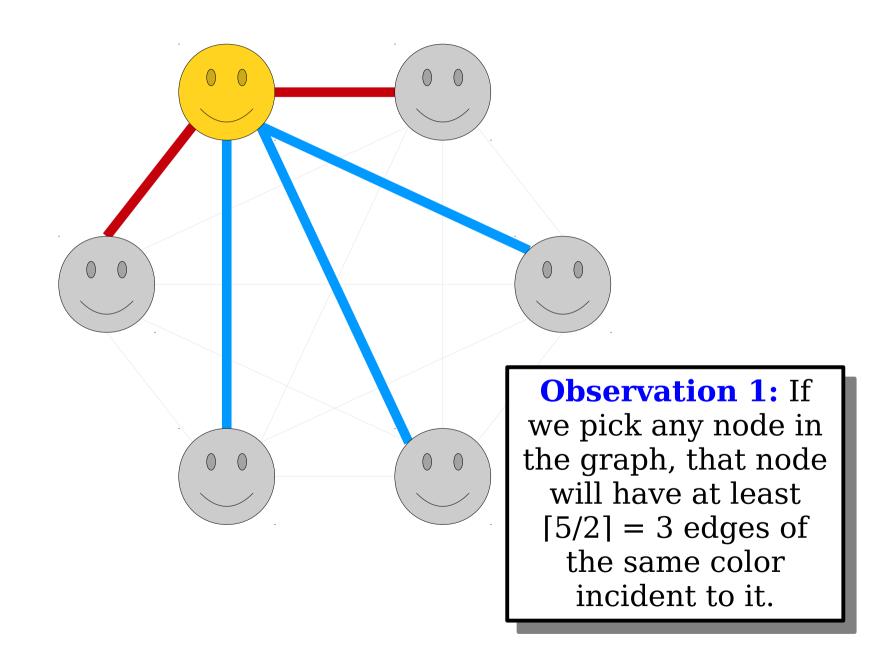


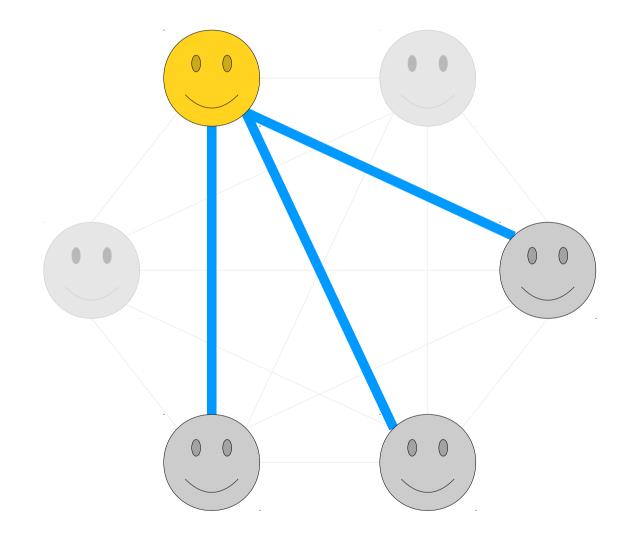


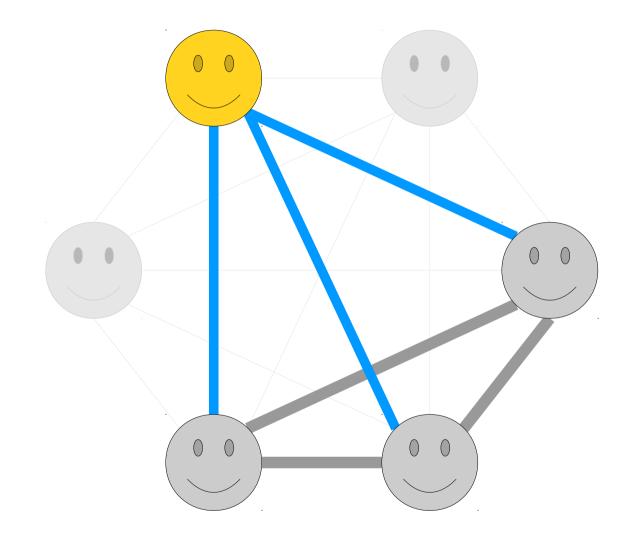


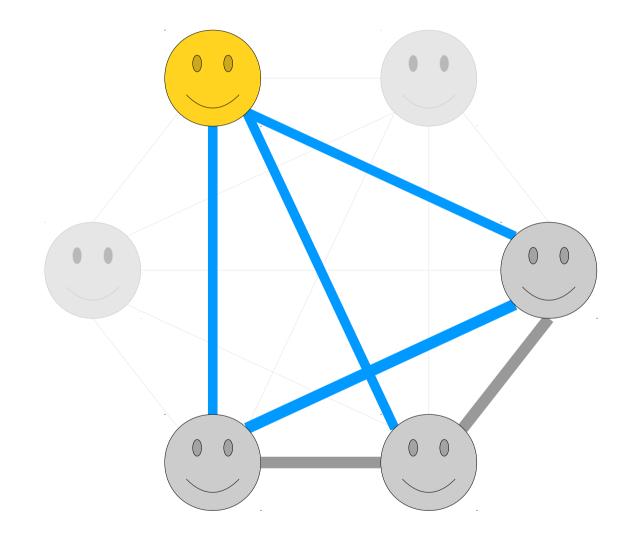


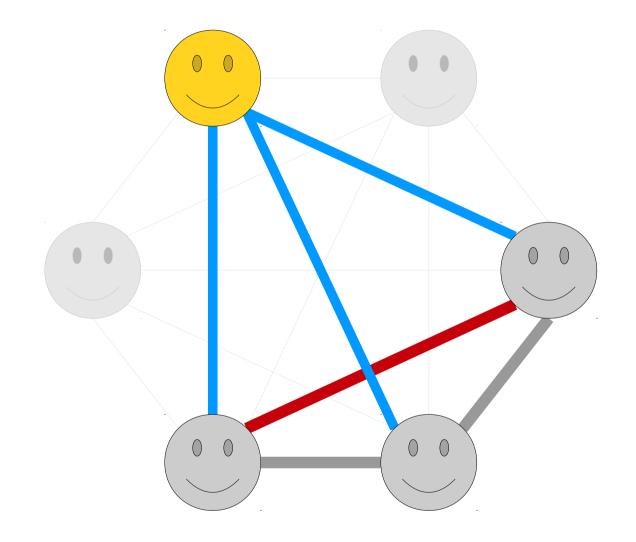


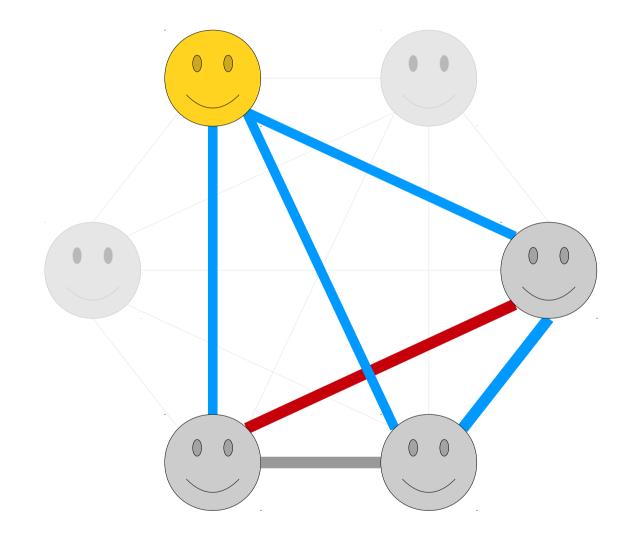


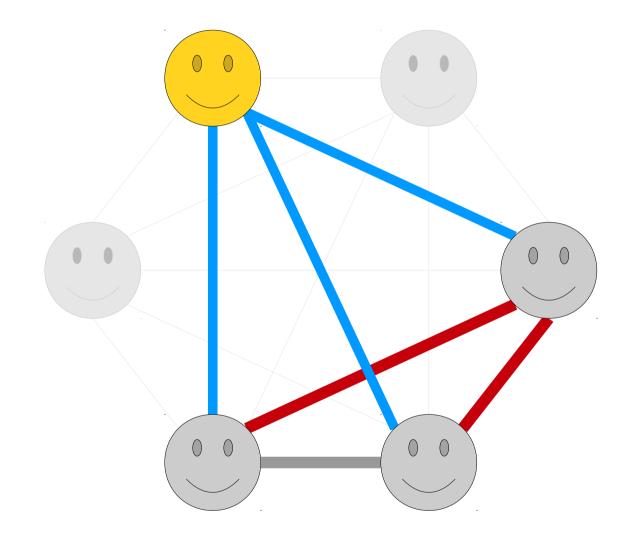


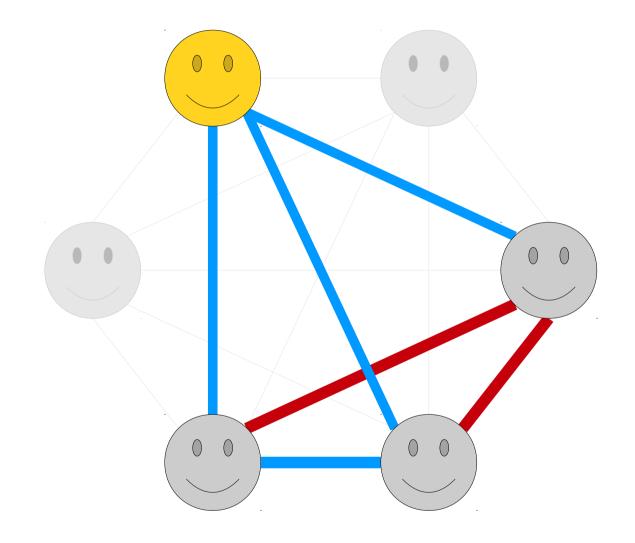


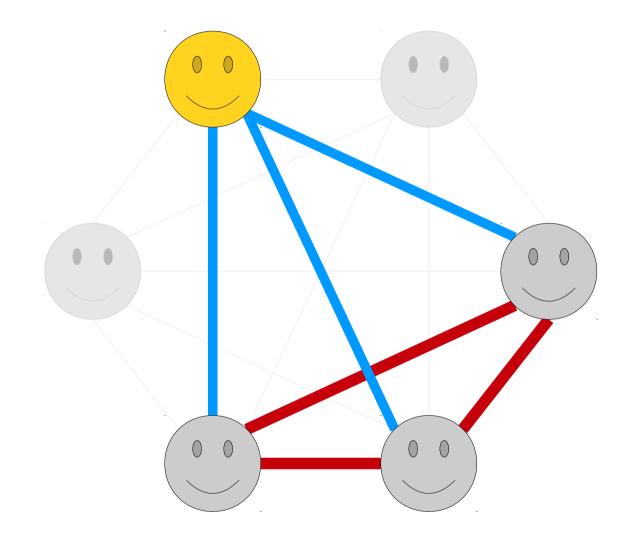












**Theorem:** Consider a 6-clique in which every edge is colored either red or blue. Then there must be a triangle of red edges, a triangle of blue edges, or both.

**Proof:** We need to show that the colored 6-clique contains a red triangle or a blue triangle.

Let x be any node in the 6-clique. It is incident to five edges and there are two possible colors for those edges. Therefore, by the generalized pigeonhole principle, at least [5/2] = 3 of those edges must be the same color. Without loss of generality, assume those edges are blue.

Let r, s, and t be three of the nodes adjacent to node x along a blue edge. If any of the edges  $\{r, s\}$ ,  $\{r, t\}$ , or  $\{s, t\}$  are blue, then one of those edges plus the two edges connecting back to node x form a blue triangle. Otherwise, all three of those edges are red, and they form a red triangle. Overall, this gives a red triangle or a blue triangle, as required.

## Ramsey Theory

- The theorem we just proved is a special case of a broader result.
- Theorem (Ramsey's Theorem): For any natural number n, there is a number R(n) where for any clique with R(n) or more nodes that's painted red or blue, that clique has either a red n-clique or a blue n-clique, and for all cliques with fewer than R(n) nodes, there's a way to paint it red and blue so it has no red n-cliques and no blue n-cliques.
  - Our proof was that  $R(3) \leq 6$ .
- A more philosophical take on this theorem: true disorder is impossible at a large scale, since no matter how you organize things, you're guaranteed to find some interesting substructure.

## Going Further

- The pigeonhole principle can be used to prove a *ton* of amazing theorems. Here's a sampler:
  - There is always a way to fairly split rent among multiple people, even if different people want different rooms. (Sperner's lemma)
  - You and a friend can climb any mountain from two different starting points so that the two of you maintain the same altitude at each point in time. (*Mountain-climbing theorem*)
  - If you model coffee in a cup as a collection of infinitely many points and then stir the coffee, some point is always where it initially started. (*Brower's fixed-point theorem*)
  - A complex process that doesn't parallelize well must contain a large serial subprocess. (Mirksy's theorem)
  - Any positive integer *n* has a nonzero multiple that can be written purely using the digits 1 and 0. (*Doesn't have a name, but still cool!*)

## More to Explore

- Interested in more about graphs and the pigeonhole principle? Check out...
  - ... *Math* 107 (Graph Theory), a deep dive into graph theory.
  - ... *Math 108* (Combinatorics), which explores a bunch of results pertaining to graphs and counting things.
  - ... **CS161** (Algorithms), which explores algorithms for computing important properties of graphs.
  - ... **CS224W** (Deep Learning on Graphs), which uses a mix of mathematical and statistical techniques to explore graphs.

## Next Time

- Mathematical Induction
  - Reasoning about stepwise processes!
- Applications of Induction
  - To numbers!
  - To anticounterfeiting!
  - To puzzles!