# Graph Theory: CMSC 27530/37530 Lecture 14

Lecture by László Babai Notes by Geoffrey West Revised by instructor

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Please remember to send the instructor the list of challenge problems you solved (except 6.23:  $\alpha(C_7 * C_7)$ ) so he can check if his records are complete.

#### FRACTIONAL INDEPENDENCE NUMBER

A HW problem asked to prove  $\alpha^*(G) \cdot \alpha^*(\overline{G}) > n$ .

*Proof.* We give a simple proof of the stronger statement

$$\alpha^*(G) \cdot \alpha(\overline{G}) \ge n. \tag{1}$$

For the graph G = (V, E), recall the LP that defines the fractional independence number  $\alpha^*(G)$ . We associate the variable  $x_v$  with vertex v and impose the following constraints:

- $(1) \ (\forall v \in V)(x_v \ge 0)$
- (2)  $(\forall \text{ clique } C \text{ in } G)(\sum_{v \in C} x_v \leq 1).$

We seek to maximize  $\sum_{v \in V} x_v$  under these constraints. In order to give a lower bound on this maximum,  $\alpha^*(G)$ , it suffices to guess a feasible solution. Let us set  $x_v = \frac{1}{\alpha(\overline{G})} = \frac{1}{\omega(G)}$  for each  $v \in V$ . This is a feasible solution, i.e., it satisfies the constraints. (Verify this!) Therefore

$$\alpha^*(G) \ge \sum_{v \in V} x_v = \frac{n}{\alpha(\overline{G})}$$
 (2)

Note that we did not use the LP Duality Theorem for this proof.

This was a one-line proof; all that matters is contained in this line.

For 
$$v \in V$$
 let  $x_v = \frac{1}{\alpha(\overline{G})}$ . This is a feasible solution. Therefore,  $\alpha^*(G) \ge \sum_{v \in V} x_v = \frac{n}{\alpha(\overline{G})}$ .

#### CHROMATIC POLYNOMIAL

BONUS 14.1 (Due Thursday). (6 points) The chromatic polynomial has no roots in the open interval (0,1).

# RAMSEY THEORY

Let's play the **Ramsey Game** on six vertices: We have a Red player and a Blue player. The players alternate selecting edges of  $K_6$ . Every edge is selected only once, so the game is over in  $\binom{6}{2} = 15$  rounds. A player loses if their selected edges contain a triangle.

**Theorem 14.2.** No draw is possible in the Ramsey Game on six vertices.

*Proof.* We prove the following stronger statement.

Claim 14.3 (Baby Ramsey Theorem). No matter how we color  $E(K_6)$  red and blue, there exists a monochromatic triangle. ("Monochromatic" means all edges have the same color.)

Choose a vertex u. It has degree 5 in  $K_6$ . At least three of the edges from u must have the same color; let's say  $\{u, v_i\}$  are red for i = 1, 2, 3. One of two things must be true.

- 1.  $\{v_i, v_i\}$  is red for some  $\{i, j\} \subset \{1, 2, 3\}$
- 2. all the three edges  $\{v_i, v_j\}$  are blue  $(\{i, j\} \subset \{1, 2, 3\})$ .

In the first case,  $\{u, v_i, v_j\}$  is a red triangle. In the second case,  $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$  is a blue triangle.

**Notation 14.4** (Erdős–Rado arrow symbol). We write  $n \to (k, \ell)$  if

 $(\forall \text{ Red/Blue coloring of } E(K_n))(\exists \text{ Red } K_k \text{ or } \exists \text{ Blue } K_\ell).$ 

**Examples.**  $n \rightarrow (n,2), 6 \rightarrow (3,3), 5 \nrightarrow (3,3)$  (prove!)

**BONUS 14.5** (Erdős–Szekeres, 1934). **(6 points)** For  $k, \ell \ge 1$  we have  $\binom{k+\ell}{k} \to (k+1, \ell+1)$ .

Use induction on  $k + \ell$ . The base cases are k = 1 or  $\ell = 1$  (infinitely many base cases!); for the inductive step you may then assume  $k, \ell \geq 2$ .

Setting  $k=2,\ \ell=2$  we obtain  $6\to (3,3)$  (the baby case). This is tight:  $5 \nrightarrow (3,3)$ . Setting  $k=3,\ \ell=2$  we obtain  $10\to (4,3)$ . This can be improved.

**BONUS 14.6** (Due Thursday). (6 points)  $9 \rightarrow (4,3)$ .

**HW 14.7.** (5 points)  $17 \rightarrow (3,3,3)$ . Define the arrow symbol for this case. (Use three colors.)

**DO 14.8.**  $4^k > \binom{2k}{k}$ . Use  $2^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i}$ .

But  $4^k$  is not much bigger than  $\binom{2k}{k}$ .

HW 14.9. (4 points)

$$\frac{\binom{2k}{k}}{4^k} \sim \frac{c}{\sqrt{k}}.$$

Determine the constant c. Use **Stirling's formula**, the most famous asymptotic equality:

$$n! \sim \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \sqrt{2\pi n} \ .$$
 (3)

**Notation 14.10** (Diagonal case of the arrow symbol). We write  $n \to (k)_2$  for  $n \to (k, k)$  and  $n \to (k)_3$  for  $n \to (k, k, k)$ , etc.

From the Erdős–Szekeres Theorem we get

$$\binom{2k}{k} \to (k+1)_2 \tag{4}$$

Combining this with the inequality  $4^k > {2k \choose k}$  we obtain

$$4^k \to (k+1)_2 \tag{5}$$

or, writing  $n = 2^k$ ,

$$n \to \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\log_2 n\right)_2 \tag{6}$$

**QUESTION 14.11.** How far is this from best possible? In other words, can we estimate the smallest value of k such that  $n \rightarrow (k)_2$ ?

To better understand this question, let us rephrase the meaning of the arrow notation. Given a graph G = (V, E), let us say that a subset  $A \subseteq V$  is **homogeneous** if A is either a clique or an independent set in G.

**DO 14.12.** The statement  $n \to (k, \ell)$  is equivalent to the following:

For all graphs G with n vertices we have

$$\omega(G) \ge k \quad \text{or} \quad \alpha(G) \ge \ell$$
 . (7)

In particular, the statement  $n \to (k)_2$  is equivalent to saying that

every graph on n vertices has a homogeneous subset of size k.

Erdős showed (1949) that for all sufficiently large n,

$$n \to (1 + 2\log_2 n)_2. \tag{8}$$

Comparing this with Eq. (6) we see a gap of 4 between the upper and lower bounds. These bounds have been known for 70 years, yet nobody has been able to reduce the gap of 4 by any constant amount (say to 3.99). This remains one of the great <u>open questions</u> in graph theory and in Ramsey theory.

Integrality gap. Erdős's result (Eq. (8)) tells us that there exist graphs that simultaneously satisfy

$$\alpha(G) = O(\log n)$$
 and  $\alpha(\overline{G}) = O(\log n)$ . (9)

In particular, such graphs satisfy

$$\alpha(G) \cdot \alpha(\overline{G}) = O((\log n)^2) . \tag{10}$$

Contrast this with the result we proved at the beginning of this class:

$$\alpha^*(G) \cdot \alpha(\overline{G}) \ge n \ . \tag{11}$$

So for Erdős's graphs we have  $\alpha(G) = O(\log n)$  while  $\alpha^*(G) = \Omega(n/\log n)$ , a huge "integrality gap." Moreover, Erdős's bounds hold for **almost all graphs** (they hold for random graphs with probability approaching 1 as  $n \to \infty$ ), which shows that  $\alpha^*$  is an extremely poor approximation to  $\alpha$  for most graphs.

**DO 14.13.** Prove: for all sufficiently large n we have  $(\log_2 n)^{100} < n$ .

**Proof of existence vs. explicit construction.** Erdős's result says that there exist graphs without a homogenous subset of size  $1 + 2\log_2 n$ . But Erdős did not construct such graphs. In an early display of the power of his **probabilistic method**, he just proved that such graphs exist, by proving that almost all graphs have this property. The next question is, construct **explicit graphs** with only very small homogeneous subsets.

**HW 14.14.** (4 points) Give a constructive proof of the relation  $k^2 \rightarrow (k+1)_2$ . In other words, for all k, construct a graph with  $k^2$  vertices that does not have a homogeneous subset of size k+1.

This will show that  $n \to (1+\sqrt{n})_2$  for infinitely many values of n (namely, the values  $n=k^2$ ).

**CH 14.15** (H. L. Abbott). (8 points) Give a constructive proof of the relation  $5^k \rightarrow (2^k + 1)_2$ . Hint: invent another graph product. Don't look it up.

This will show that  $n \nrightarrow (1 + n^{\log 2/\log 5})_2$  for infinitely many values of n (verify!). Since  $\log 2/\log 5 \approx 0.43$ , this is an improvement over exercise 14.14.

#### POLYNOMIALS OF MATRICES

**DO 14.16.** Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ . If  $\lambda \in \operatorname{spec}(A)$  then  $\lambda^2 \in \operatorname{spec}(A^2)$ .

*Proof.* Let 
$$\mathbf{x}$$
 be an eigenvector to eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , so  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  and  $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}$ . Then  $A^2\mathbf{x} = A(A\mathbf{x}) = A(\lambda \mathbf{x}) = \lambda A\mathbf{x} = \lambda^2 \mathbf{x}$ .

**HW 14.17.** (5 points) Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$ . If g is a polynomial and  $\lambda \in \operatorname{spec}(A)$ , then  $g(\lambda) \in \operatorname{spec}(g(A))$ .

**HW 14.18.** (5 points) Let g be a polynomial. If A is a diagonalizable matrix and spec $(A) = \{\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}\}$ , then g(A) is also diagonalizable and spec $(g(A)) = \{\{g(\lambda_1), \ldots, g(\lambda_n)\}\}$ .

CH 14.19. (6 points) Over  $\mathbb{C}$  every matrix is similar to a triangular matrix. Do not use Jordan normal form.

**BONUS 14.20.** (6 points) Use the preceding problem to show that over  $\mathbb{C}$  the same relation as in problem 14.18 holds between the spectrum of A and the spectrum of g(A) regardless of the diagonalizability of A. In other words, prove the following. If  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{C})$  and  $\operatorname{spec}(A) = \{\{\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n\}\}$ , then  $\operatorname{spec}(g(A)) = \{\{g(\lambda_1), \ldots, g(\lambda_n)\}\}$ .

CH 14.21. (4 points) Diagonalizable matrices are dense in  $M_n(\mathbb{C})$ . Use any reasonable metric.

#### GRAPH SPECTRA

Recall that for a graph G = ([n], E), the **adjacency matrix**  $A_G = (a_{ij})$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix defined by

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i \sim j \\ 0 & \text{o/w} \end{cases}$$

In particular,  $a_{ii} = 0$ . An important observation about the adjacency matrix is that it is symmetric:  $A_G = A_G^T$ . This permits us to apply the Spectral Theorem to it; this will be our basic tool.

In particular, the eigenvalues of  $A_G$  are real; we shall list them in decreasing order:

$$\lambda_1(G) \ge \lambda_2(G) \ge \dots \ge \lambda_n(G)$$
 (12)

Notation 14.22. For a graph G, we speak of the **spectrum of the graph**, meaning the spectrum of its adjacency matrix:  $\operatorname{spec}(G) := \operatorname{spec}(A_G)$ .

DO 14.23.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i(G) = 0 . (13)$$

**DO! 14.24.** Let  $A_G^k = (a_{ij}^{(k)})$ . Then  $a_{ij}^{(k)} = \#$  of i...j walks of length k.

Let us look at the trace of the powers of  $A_G$ . We have  $trace(A_G) = 0$  because  $a_{ii} = 0$ .

**DO 14.25.** trace $(A_G^2) = 2m$ . Hint.  $a_{ii}^{(2)} = \deg(i)$ .

**HW 14.26.** (5 points) What is  $trace(A_G^3)$ ? Explain the answer in terms of counting certain subgraphs.

A previous challenge problem stated the following. If  $t_G$  is the number of triangles in G and  $m_G$  is the number of edges, then

$$t_G \le \frac{\sqrt{2}}{3} m_G^{3/2}. \tag{14}$$

We have also seen that for  $G = K_n$  we have LHS  $\sim$  RHS (previous HW).

**BONUS 14.27** (Due Thursday). (7 points) Prove inequality (14). Use only the tools from class.

Once done with this problem, take a moment to marvel at the power of linear algebra. Naturally, this problem ceases to be a challenge problem.

The effect of transforming a vector x by the adjacency matrix.

Let  $\mathbf{y} = A_G \mathbf{x}$ . Then each entry  $y_i$  in the vector  $\mathbf{y}$  has a simple form:

$$y_i = \sum_{j:j \sim i} x_j \ . \tag{15}$$

**DO 14.28.** Verify Eq. (15).

What is the effect on the all-ones vector?

DO 14.29.

$$A_G \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \deg(1) \\ \deg(2) \\ \vdots \\ \deg(n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

**DO 14.30.** If G is r-regular, meaning  $(\forall v)(\deg(v) = r)$ , then r is an eigenvalue of G.

In fact, it is the largest eigenvalue. This follows from the following exercise.

**HW 14.31.** (6 points) For every graph G,  $(\forall i)(|\lambda_i(G)| \leq \deg_{\max})$ .

**HW 14.32.** (6 points) Prove:

$$\lambda_1(G) \ge \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \deg(i)}{n}.\tag{16}$$

Hint. Give a one-line solution using Rayleigh's Principle.

**CH 14.33.** (9 points) Prove:

$$\lambda_1(G) \ge \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \deg(i)^2}{n}}.$$
(17)

In the light of the inequality between the arithmetic mean and quadratic mean, this lower bound is stronger than Eq. (16).

**BONUS 14.34.** (5 points) Use Eq. (17) to prove that equality holds in Eq. (16) if and only if G is regular.

**HW 14.35** (Herbert Wilf, 1961). (7 points) Prove:  $\chi(G) \leq 1 + \lambda_1(G)$ .

In the light of exercise 14.31, this result strengthens the easy upper bound  $\chi(G) \leq 1 + \deg_{\max}$ 

**Notation 14.36.** The characteristic polynomial of a graph G is  $f_G := f_{A_G}$ .

**DO 14.37.** If a matrix A has the  $2 \times 2$  block-triangular form

$$A = \left[ \begin{array}{c|c} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ \hline 0 & A_{22} \end{array} \right]$$

where the diagonal blocks  $A_{11}$  and  $A_{22}$  are square matrices then  $\det(A) = \det(A_{11}) \cdot \det(A_{22})$  and consequently  $f_A = f_{A_{11}} \cdot f_{A_{22}}$ .

This works for  $k \times k$  block-triangular matrices as well. Here is a picture of the  $3 \times 3$  case.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & A_{13} \\ \hline 0 & A_{22} & A_{23} \\ \hline 0 & 0 & A_{33} \end{bmatrix}$$

In this case,  $\det(A) = \det(A_{11}) \cdot \det(A_{22}) \cdot \det(A_{33})$  and consequently  $f_A = f_{A_{11}} \cdot f_{A_{22}} \cdot f_{A_{33}}$ . We use this to reduce the determination of the characteristic polynomial of a matrix to its connected components.

Denote a disconnected graph G by  $G = H_1 \sqcup H_2 \sqcup \ldots \sqcup H_k$  where the  $H_i$  are the connected components. Then  $A_G$  has the block-diagonal form  $\operatorname{diag}(A_{H_1}, \ldots, A_{H_k})$ , illustrated here in the k = 3 case.

$$A_G = \begin{bmatrix} A_{H_1} & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & A_{H_2} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & A_{H_3} \end{bmatrix}.$$

It follows by the lemma that  $f_G(t) = f_H(t) \cdot f_L(t)$ .

**DO 14.38.** If  $G = H_1 \sqcup H_2 \sqcup \ldots \sqcup H_k$  where the  $H_i$  are the connected components of G, then  $\lambda_1(G) = \max(\lambda_1(H_i) \mid i = 1, \ldots, k)$ .

**DO 14.39.** If G is r-regular and has k connected components then  $\lambda_1 = \cdots = \lambda_k = r$ .

We shall show that  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$  can only occur for disconnected graphs.

**Theorem 14.40.** If G is connected then  $\lambda_2 < \lambda_1$ .

This condition is not "if and only if."

**HW 14.41.** (5 points) Find a disconnected graph G with  $\lambda_1 = 87$  and  $\lambda_2 = 14$ .

### RAYLEIGH'S PRINCIPLE REVISITED

Recall that for  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ , the function  $R_A : \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\} \to \mathbb{R}$ , called the *Rayleigh quotient* of A, is defined by

$$R_A(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}.$$

**DO 14.42.** Prove that the  $\mathbb{R}_A$  function has a maximum value. Do not use the Spectral Theorem.

**DO 14.43.** Prove: if **v** is an eigenvector of A to eigenvalue  $\mu$  then  $R_A(\mathbf{v}) = \mu$ .

What we previously stated as "Rayleigh's Principle" is only part of the story. Here is a more complete form.

**Theorem 14.44** (Rayleigh's Principle). Let  $A \in M_n(\mathbb{R})$ . Let  $\lambda = \max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}} R_A(\mathbf{x})$ . If  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies  $R_A(\mathbf{u}) = \lambda$  then  $\mathbf{u}$  is an eigenvector.

**DO 14.45.** Show that the eigenvalue corresponding to the vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in Theorem 14.44 is necessarily  $\lambda$ , and  $\lambda$  is the largest real eigenvalue of A. Do not use the Spectral Theorem. Hint. Use Exercise 14.43.

**DO 14.46.** Use Theorem 14.44 to prove the same result regarding the minimum value of  $R_A$  and the smallest real eigenvalue of A. Do not use the Spectral Theorem.

Hint. Apply Theorem 14.44 to the matrix -A.

Remark 14.47. The significance of not using the Spectral Theorem in several of the problems above is that a simple inductive proof of the Spectral Theorem is based on an elegant direct proof of Rayleigh's Principle.

CH 14.48. (6 points) Give a direct proof of Rayleigh's Principle. Do not use the Spectral Theorem. Do not hand in your solution if you looked it up.

Hint. Let **u** be a vector that maximizes the Rayley quotient. (Why does such a vector exist?) Show that **u** is an eigenvector. To prove this, let  $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{u}$ . Consider the function  $h(t) = R_A(\mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v})$  ( $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ). Use the fact that this function attains its maximum at t = 0.

## MORE SPECTRAL GRAPH THEORY

We define the Rayleigh quotient of a graph G as  $R_G = R_{A_G}$ .

**Theorem 14.49.**  $\lambda_1(G)$  has a non-negative eigenvector.

*Proof.* Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$  be an eigenvector to eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$ ; therefore  $R_G(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_1$  by Exercise 14.43. Let  $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|)$ . Then

$$\lambda_1 \ge R_G(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) \ge R_G(\mathbf{x}) \ge \lambda_1 \ . \tag{18}$$

(Why?) So we have  $R_G(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) = \lambda_1$ . Therefore, by Rayleigh's Principle,  $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}$  is an eigenvector to eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  (see Remark 14.47).

**BONUS 14.50.** (7 points) Assume G is connected. Let  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  be an eigenvector to  $\lambda_1$ . Then either all the  $x_i$  are positive or all the  $x_i$  are negative.

**DO 14.51.** If G is connected, then  $\lambda_1$  is unique.

*Proof.* Suppose  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are two linearly independent eigenvectors to eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$ . Then every nontrivial linear combination of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is also an eigenvector to  $\lambda_1$  (why?). Among these one can find a vector  $\mathbf{w}$  that is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{u}$ . Now either all coordinates of  $\mathbf{u}$  are positive or all are negative by Problem 14.50, and the same holds for  $\mathbf{w}$ . But two such vectors cannot be orthogonal. (Why?)

Corollary 14.52. If G is connected then  $\lambda_2(G) < \lambda_1(G)$ .

Indeed, this is just a restatement of the uniqueness of  $\lambda_1$ .

**HW 14.53.** (6 points) If G is bipartite, then  $\operatorname{spec}(G) = -\operatorname{spec}(G)$ .

What this means is that  $\lambda_n = -\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_{n-1} = -\lambda_2$ , ..., i. e.,  $\lambda_{n-i} = -\lambda_{i+1}$  for every i.

**BONUS 14.54** (Due Thursday). (7 points) If G is connected and  $\lambda_n = -\lambda_1$ , then G is bipartite.

**CH 14.55.** (8+8 points) (a) Prove: If G is connected and has diameter d then G has at least d+1 distinct eigenvalues. (b) This bound is tight for the d-cube  $Q_d$ .