

Matrix Representation of Graph

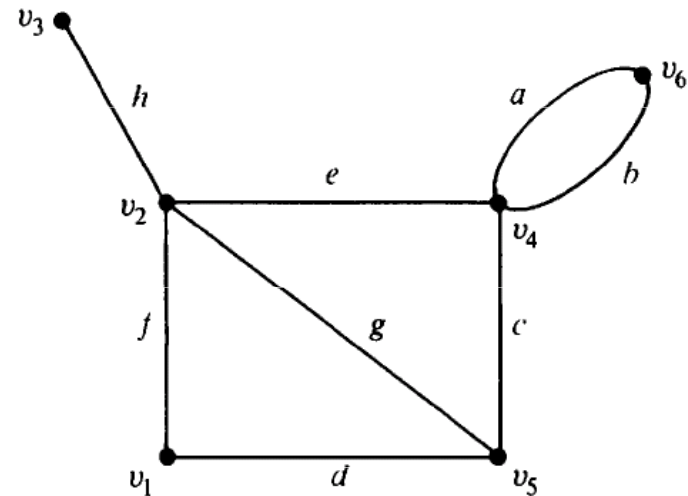
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Incidence Matrix

The matrix element

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } j\text{th edge } e_j \text{ is incident} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



	<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>h</i>
<i>v</i> ₁	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
<i>v</i> ₂	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
<i>v</i> ₃	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
<i>v</i> ₄	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
<i>v</i> ₅	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0
<i>v</i> ₆	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

1. Since every edge is incident on exactly two vertices, each column of A has exactly two 1's.
2. The number of 1's in each row equals the degree of the corresponding vertex.
3. A row with all 0's, therefore, represents an isolated vertex.
4. Parallel edges in a graph produce identical columns in its incidence matrix, for example, columns 1 and 2 in Fig. 7-1.
5. If a graph G is disconnected and consists of two components g_1 and g_2 , the incidence matrix $A(G)$ of graph G can be written in a block-diagonal form as

$$A(G) = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} A(g_1) & 0 \\ \hline 0 & A(g_2) \end{array} \right], \quad (7-1)$$

THEOREM 7-1

Two graphs G_1 and G_2 are isomorphic if and only if $A(G_1)$ and $A(G_2)$ differ only by permutations of rows :

THEOREM 7-2

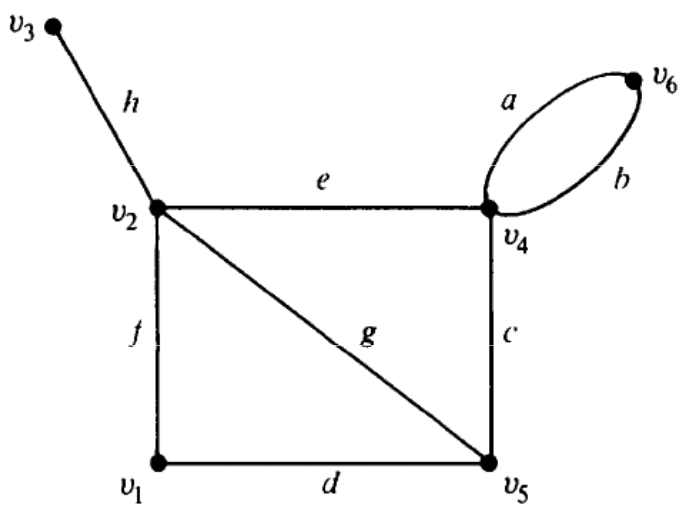
If $A(G)$ is an incidence matrix of a connected graph G with n vertices, the rank of $A(G)$ is $n - 1$.

Circuit Matrix

7-3. CIRCUIT MATRIX

Let the number of different circuits in a graph G be q and the number of edges in G be e . Then a *circuit matrix* $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]$ of G is a q by e , $(0, 1)$ -matrix defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} b_{ij} &= 1, && \text{if } i\text{th circuit includes } j\text{th edge, and} \\ &= 0, && \text{otherwise.} \end{aligned}$$



$$\mathbf{B}(G) = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c & d & e & f & g & h \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

1. A column of all zeros corresponds to a noncircuit edge (i.e., an edge that does not belong to any circuit).
2. Each row of $B(G)$ is a circuit vector.
3. Unlike the incidence matrix, a circuit matrix is capable of representing a self-loop—the corresponding row will have a single 1.
4. The number of 1's in a row is equal to the corresponding circuit.
5. If graph G is separable (or disconnect (or components) g_1 and g_2 , the circuit a block-diagonal form as

$$B(G) = \left[\begin{array}{c|c} B(g_1) & \\ \hline 0 & E \end{array} \right]$$

6. Permutation of any two rows or columns in a circuit matrix simply corresponds to relabeling the circuits and edges.
7. Two graphs G_1 and G_2 will have the same circuit matrix if and only if G_1 and G_2 are 2-isomorphic (Theorem 4-15). In other words, (unlike

THEOREM 7-4

Let B and A be, respectively, the circuit matrix and the incidence matrix (of a self-loop-free graph) whose columns are arranged using the same order of edges. Then every row of B is orthogonal to every row A ; that is,

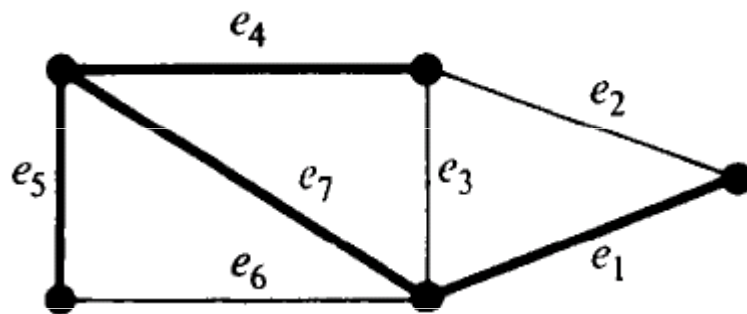
$$A \cdot B^T = B \cdot A^T = 0 \quad (\text{mod } 2), \quad (7-4)$$

Proof: Consider a vertex v and a circuit Γ in the graph G . Either v is in Γ or it is not. If v is not in Γ , there is no edge in the circuit Γ that is incident on v . On the other hand, if v is in Γ , the number of those edges in the circuit Γ that are incident on v is exactly two.

Fundamental Circuit Matrix

A submatrix (of a circuit matrix) in which all rows correspond to fundamental circuits is called a *fundamental circuit matrix* \mathbf{B}

As in matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} , permutations of rows and columns do not affect \mathbf{B}_f . If n is the number of vertices and e is the number of edges of graph, then \mathbf{B}_f is an $(e - n + 1)$ by e matrix. The number of fundamental circuits is $e - n + 1$, each fundamental circuit is formed by one chord.



$$\begin{array}{cccc|cccc}
 & e_2 & e_3 & e_6 & e_1 & e_4 & e_5 & e_7 \\
 \left[\begin{array}{cccc|cccc}
 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1
 \end{array} \right]
 \end{array}$$

A matrix B_f thus arranged can be written as

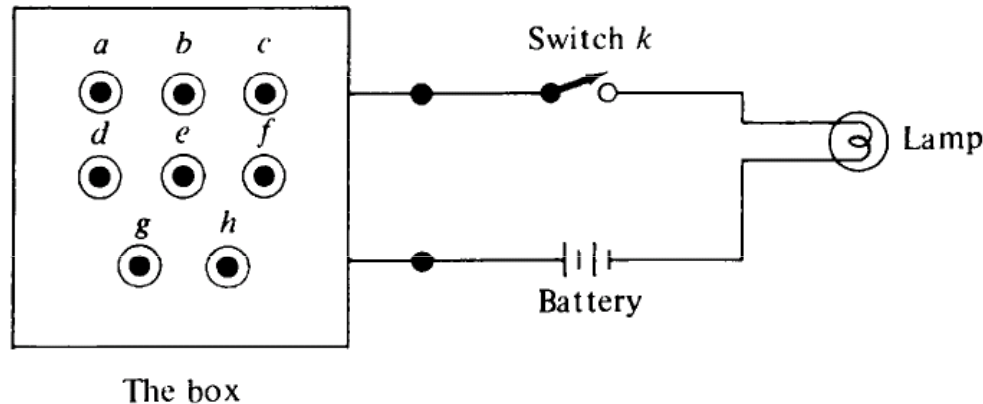
$$B_f = [I_\mu | B_t], \quad (7-5)$$

where I_μ is an identity matrix of order $\mu = e - n + 1$, and B_t is the remaining μ by $(n - 1)$ submatrix, corresponding to the branches of the spanning tree.

From Eq. (7-5) it is clear that the

$$\text{rank of } B_f = \mu = e - n + 1.$$

Application to Switching Network



$(a, b, f, h, k), (a, b, g, k), (a, e, f, g, k), (a, e, h, k),$
 $(b, c, e, h, k), (c, f, h, k), (c, g, k), (d, k).$

Solution: Consider the switching network as a graph whose edges represent switches. We can assume that the graph is connected, and has no self-loop. Since a lit lamp implies the formation of a circuit, we can regard the preceding list as a partial list of circuits in the corresponding graph. With this list we form a circuit matrix:

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{array}{c} \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccccccc} a & b & c & d & e & f & g & h & k \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

Therefore, we can delete the first, third, and fifth rows from matrix \mathbf{B} , without any loss of information. Remaining is a 5 by 9 matrix \mathbf{B}_1 :

$$\mathbf{B}_1 = \begin{array}{c} \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 4 \\ 6 \\ 8 \end{array} \begin{array}{cccccccccc} a & b & c & d & e & f & g & h & k \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

Adding the fourth row in B_2 to the first, we get B_3 .

$$B_3 = \begin{array}{ccccc|cccc} & b & e & f & g & d & a & c & h & k \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & & & & & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} = [I_5 | F]$$

number of edges $E=9$

nullity $\mu=4$

rank $R=4$

number of vertices $N=5$

Since,

$$B_3 = [I_5 | F],$$

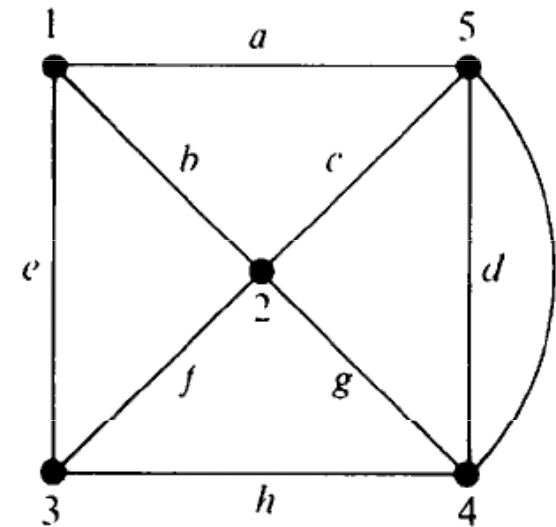
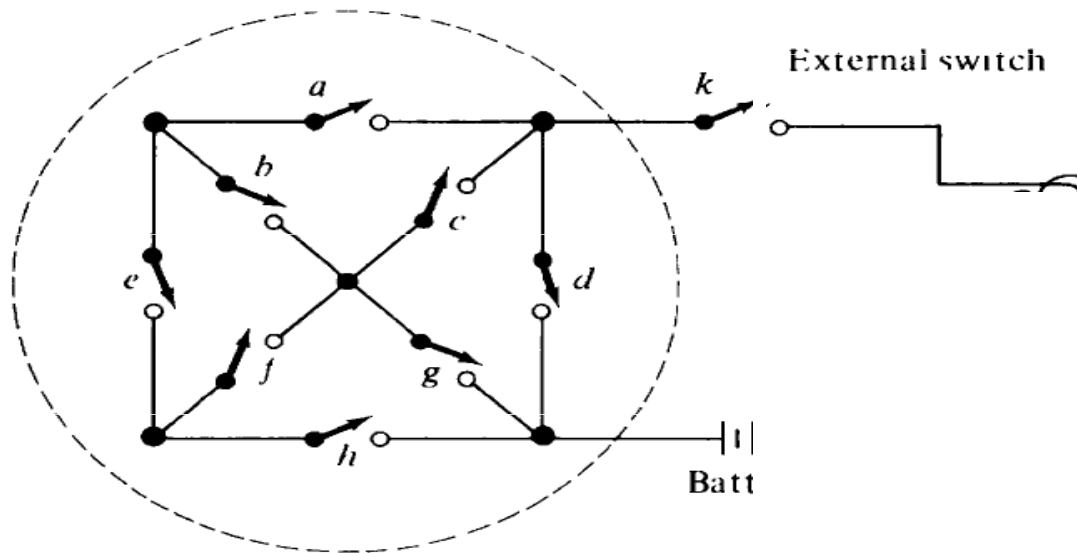
an orthogonal matrix to B_3 is

$$\begin{aligned} M &= [-F^T | I_4] \\ &= [F^T | I_4], \end{aligned}$$

$$M = \begin{array}{ccccc|cccc} & b & e & f & g & d & a & c & h & k \\ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} & & & & & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} b & e & f & g & d & a & c & h & k \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

Inside Black Box

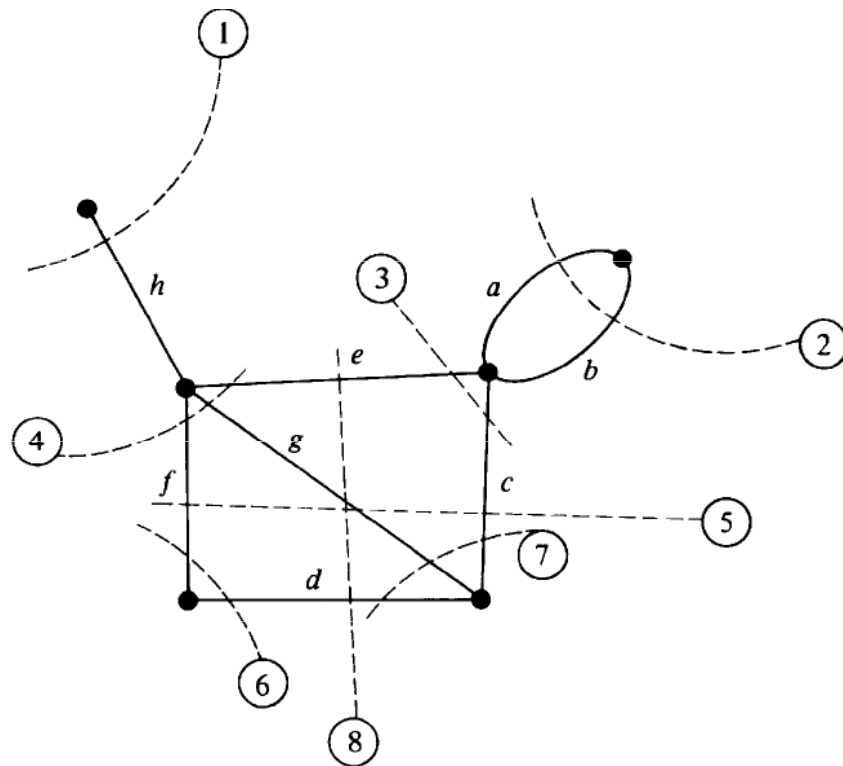


Cut-Set Matrix

$$c_{ij} = 1, \quad \text{if } i\text{th cut-set contains } j\text{th edge, and} \\ = 0, \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

1. As in the case of the incidence matrix, a permutation of rows or columns in a cut-set matrix corresponds simply to a renaming of the cut-sets and edges, respectively.
2. Each row in $C(G)$ is a cut-set vector.
3. A column with all 0's corresponds to an edge forming a self-loop.
4. Parallel edges produce identical columns in the cut-set matrix (e.g., first two columns in Fig. 7-5).
5. In a nonseparable graph, every set of edges incident on a vertex is a cut-set (Problem 4-8). Therefore, every row of incidence matrix $A(G)$ is included as a row in the cut-set matrix $C(G)$. In other words, for a

$$B \cdot C^T = C \cdot B^T = 0 \quad (\text{mc})$$



$$C = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} a & b & c & d & e & f & g & h \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

THEOREM 7-6

The rank of cut-set matrix $C(G)$ is equal to the rank of the incidence matrix $A(G)$, which equals the rank of graph G .

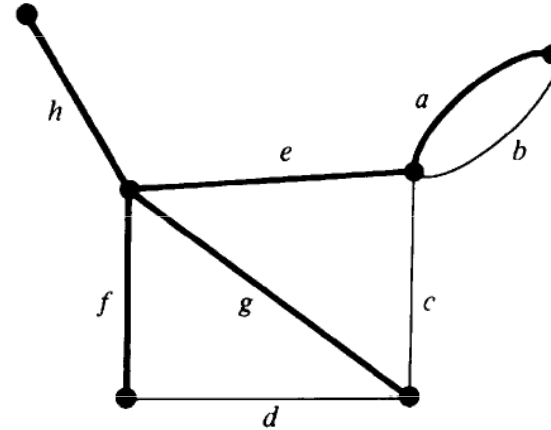
As in the case of a fundamental circuit matrix, a fundamental cut-set matrix C_f can also be partitioned into two submatrices, one of which is an identity matrix I_{n-1} of order $n - 1$. That is,

$$C_f = [C_c \mid I_{n-1}], \quad (7-9)$$

Relationship between A_f , B_f and C_f

$$B_f = [I_\mu \mid B_t],$$

$$C_f = [C_c \mid I_{n-1}]$$



$$A_f = [A_c \mid A_t],$$

$$C_f = \left[\begin{array}{ccc|cccc} b & c & d & a & e & f & g & h \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_f \cdot B_f^T &= 0 \\
 [A_c \mid A_t] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_\mu \\ -B_t^T \end{bmatrix} &= 0, \\
 A_c + A_t \cdot B_t^T &= 0, \\
 A_t^{-1} \cdot A_c &= -B_t^T.
 \end{aligned}$$

Since in mod 2 arithmetic $-1 = 1$,

$$B_t^T = A_t^{-1} \cdot A_c.$$

Similarly, since the columns in B_f and C_f are arranged in the same order, according to Eq. (7-4), we have (in mod 2 arithmetic)

$$\begin{aligned}
 C_f \cdot B_f^T &= 0. \\
 [C_c \mid I_{n-1}] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_\mu \\ -B_t^T \end{bmatrix} &= 0, \\
 C_c &= -B_t^T \\
 &= B_t^T \\
 &= A_t^{-1} \cdot A_c,
 \end{aligned}$$

$$A_f = \begin{array}{c|cccc} & b & c & d & a & e & f & g & h \\ \hline & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} = [A_c | A_t],$$

$$B_f = \begin{array}{c|cccc} & b & c & d & a & e & f & g & h \\ \hline & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

$$C_f = \begin{array}{c|cccc} & b & c & d & a & e & f & g \\ \hline & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}$$

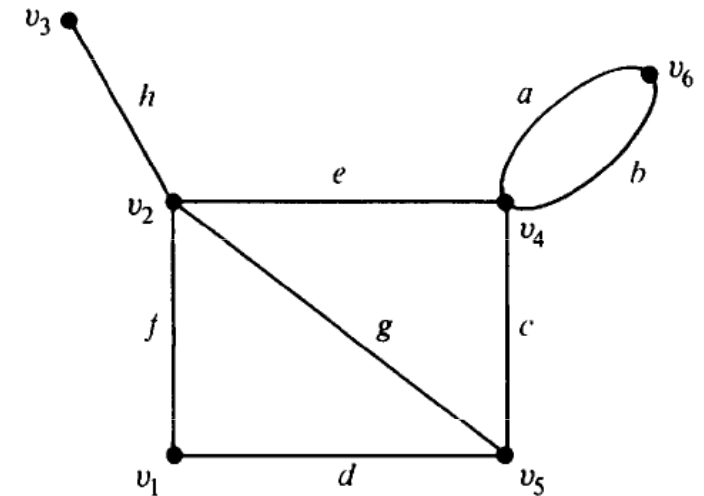
$B_t^T = C_c$ is immediate. It can also be readily verified that

$$A_t^{-1} \cdot A_c = B_t^T.$$

Path Matrix

$p_{ij} = 1,$ if j th edge lies in i th path, and
 $= 0,$ otherwise.

$$P(v_3, v_4) = \begin{matrix} & a & b & c & d & e & f & g & h \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$



1. A column of all 0's corresponds to a path between x and y .
2. A column of all 1's corresponds to a path between x and y .
3. There is no row with all 0's.

THEOREM 7-7

If the edges of a connected graph are arranged in the same order for the columns of the incidence matrix A and the path matrix $P(x, y)$, then the product (mod 2)

$$A \cdot P^T(x, y) = M,$$

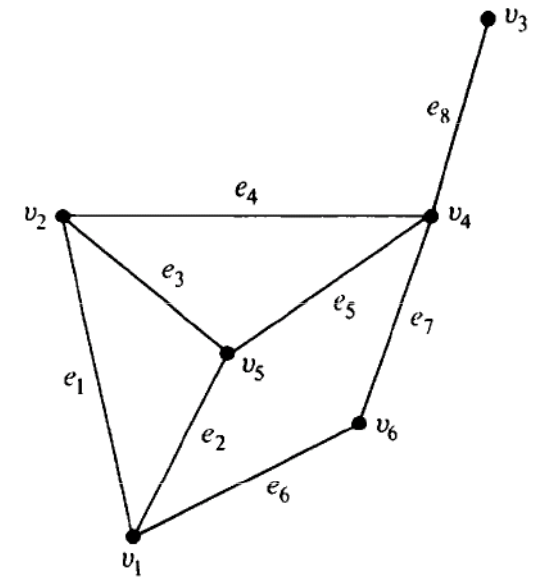
where the matrix M has 1's in two rows x and y , and the rest of the $n - 2$ rows are all 0's.

$$A \cdot P^T(v_3, v_4) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \\ v_5 \\ v_6 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} \quad (\text{mod } 2).$$

Adjacency Matrix

$x_{ij} = 1,$ if there is an edge between i th
 $= 0,$ if there is no edge between the



$$X = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 & v_4 & v_5 & v_6 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \\ v_5 \\ v_6 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

1. The entries along the principal diagonal of the adjacency matrix are 0, since the graph has no self-loops. A self-loop at vertex i would be represented by $x_{ii} = 1$.
2. The definition of adjacency matrix assumes that the graph has no parallel edges. This is why the adjacency matrix is symmetric without parallel edges.[†]
5. A graph G is disconnected and is in two components g_1 and g_2 if and only if its adjacency matrix $X(G)$ can be partitioned as

$$X(G) = \begin{bmatrix} X(g_1) & 0 \\ 0 & X(g_2) \end{bmatrix},$$

Powers of X, Path Matrix

The value of an off-diagonal entry in X^2 , the

= number of 1's in the dot product of i th row) of X .

= number of vertices that are adjacent to both $X^2 =$

= number of different paths of length two between

i th entry in X^2

= dot product of i th row X^2 and j th column (or row) of X .

= $\sum_{k=1}^n ik$ th entry of $X^2 \cdot kj$ th entry of X .

= $\sum_{k=1}^n$ number of all different edge sequences† of three edges from i th to j th vertex via k th vertex.

= number of different edge sequences of three edges between i th and j th vertices.

$$X^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 7 & 3 & 2 & 7 & 6 \\ 7 & 4 & 1 & 8 & 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 8 & 4 & 2 & 8 & 7 \\ 7 & 5 & 1 & 8 & 4 & 2 \\ 6 & 2 & 0 & 7 & 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

THEOREM 7-8

Let X be the adjacency matrix of a simple graph G . Then the ij th entry in X^r is the number of different edge sequences of r edges between vertices v_i and v_j .

COROLLARY A

In a connected graph, the distance between two vertices v_i and v_j (for $i \neq j$) is k , if and only if k is the smallest integer for which the i, j th entry in x^k is nonzero.

COROLLARY B

If X is the adjacency matrix of a graph G with n

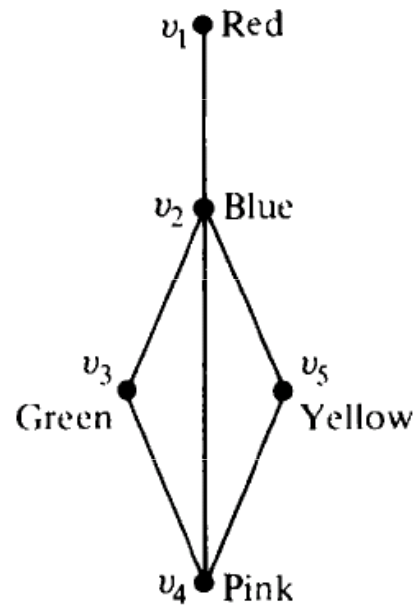
$$Y = X + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-1}, \quad (\text{in th}$$

then G is disconnected if and only if there exists at
that is zero.

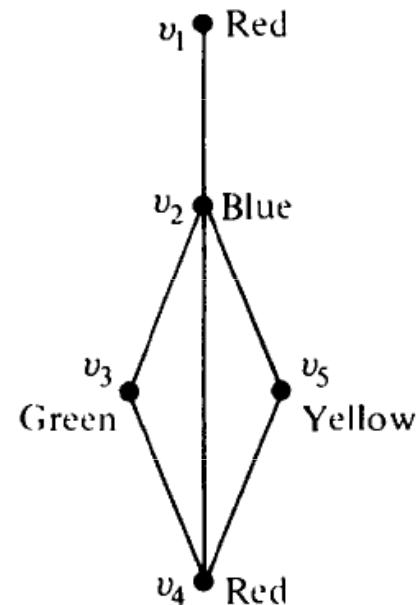
COLORING, COVERING & PARTITIONING

Coloring

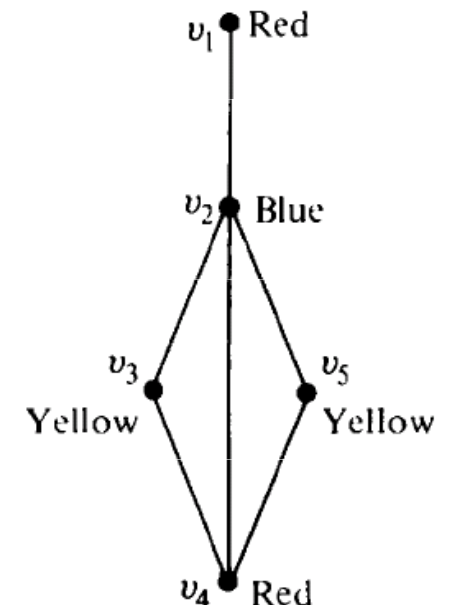
Chromatic number



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 8-1 Proper colorings of a graph.

1. A graph consisting of only isolated vertices is 1-chromatic.
2. A graph with one or more edges (not a complete graph) is 2-chromatic (also called *bichromatic*).
3. A complete graph of n vertices is n -chromatic. Hence a graph containing a complete graph of n vertices is at least n -chromatic. For instance, every complete graph is at least 3-chromatic.

THEOREM 8-1

Every tree with two or more vertices is 2-chromatic.

THEOREM 8-2

A graph with at least one edge is 2-chromatic if and only if it has no circuits of odd length.

THEOREM 8-3

If d_{\max} is the maximum degree of the vertices in a graph G ,

$$\text{chromatic number of } G \leq 1 + d_{\max}.$$

Brooks [8-1] showed that this upper bound can be improved by 1 if G has no complete graph of $d_{\max} + 1$ vertices. In that case

$$\text{chromatic number of } G \leq d_{\max}.$$

Chromatic Partitioning

A proper coloring of a graph naturally induces a partitioning of the vertices into different subsets. For example, the coloring in Fig. 8-1(c) produces the partitioning

$$\{v_1, v_4\}, \quad \{v_2\}, \quad \text{and} \quad \{v_3, v_5\}.$$

No two vertices in any of these three subsets are adjacent. Such a subset of vertices is called an independent set; more formally:

A set of vertices in a graph is said to be an *independent set* of vertices or simply an *independent set* (or an *internally stable set*) if no two vertices in the set are adjacent. For example, in Fig. 8-3, $\{a, c, d\}$ is an independent set. A single vertex in any graph constitutes an independent set.

A *maximal independent set* (or *maximal internally stable set*) is an independent set to which no other vertex can be added without destroying its independence property. The set $\{a, c, d, f\}$ in Fig. 8-3 is a maximal indepen-

The number of vertices in the largest independent set of a graph G is called the *independence number* (or *coefficient of internal stability*), $\beta(G)$.

Consider a κ -chromatic graph G of n vertices properly colored with κ different colors. Since the largest number of vertices in G with the same color cannot exceed the independence number $\beta(G)$, we have the inequality

$$\beta(G) \geq \frac{n}{\kappa}.$$

Finding Maximally independent Set

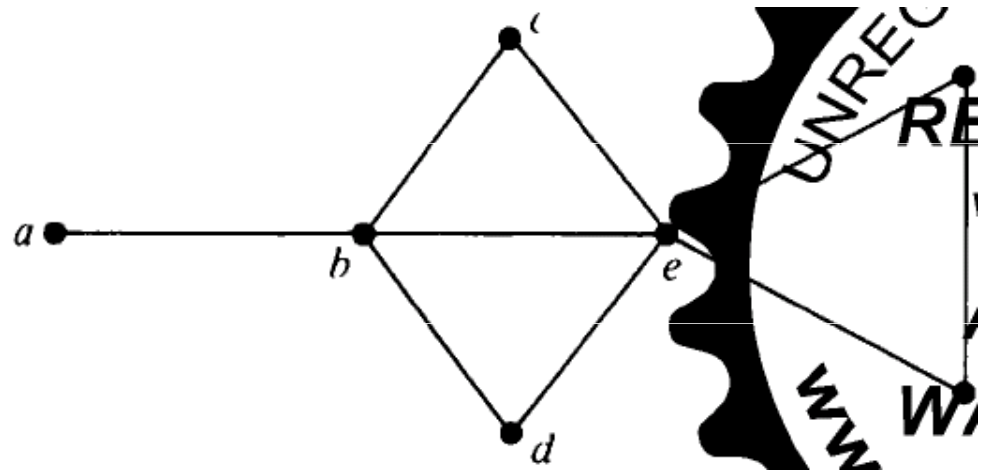
For a given graph G we must find a maximal subset of vertices that does not include the two end vertices of any edge in G . Let us express an edge (x, y) as a Boolean product, xy , of its end vertices x and y , and let us sum all such products in G to get a Boolean expression

$$\varphi = \Sigma xy \quad \text{for all } (x, y) \text{ in } G.$$

$$\varphi' = f_1 + f_2 + \cdots + f_k$$

$$\varphi = ab + bc + bd + be + ce + de + ef + eg + fg,$$

$$\varphi' = (a' + b')(b' + c')(b' + d')(b' + e')(c' + e')(d' + e') \\ (e' + f')(e' + g')(f' + g').$$



$$aa = a,$$

$$a + a = a,$$

$$a + ab = a,$$

$$\varphi' = b'e'f' + b'e'g' + a'c'd'e'f' + a'c'd'e'g' + b'c'd'f'g'.$$

$acdf$, $acd g$, bg , bf , and ae .

Chromatic Partitioning

Dominating Sets: A *dominating set* (or an *externally stable set*) in a graph G is a set of vertices that dominates every vertex v in G in the following sense: Either v is included in the dominating set or is adjacent to one or more vertices included in the dominating set. For instance, the vertex set $\{b, g\}$ is a

5. Every maximal independent set is a dominating set.
6. An independent set has the dominance property only if it is a maximal independent set. Thus an *independent dominating set* is the same as a maximal independent set.
7. In any graph G ,

$$\alpha(G) \leq \beta(G).$$

Finding Minimal Dominating Set

Finding Minimal Dominating Sets: A method for obtaining all minimal dominating sets in a graph will now be developed. The method, like the one for finding all maximal independent sets, also uses Boolean arithmetic.

To dominate a vertex v_i we must either include v_i or any of the vertices adjacent to v_i . A minimum set satisfying this condition for every vertex v_i is a desired set. Therefore, for every vertex v_i in G let us form a Boolean product of sums $(v_i + v_{i_1} + v_{i_2} + \cdots + v_{i_d})$, where $v_{i_1}, v_{i_2}, \dots, v_{i_d}$ are the vertices adjacent to v_i , and d is the degree of v_i :

$$\theta = \prod (v_i + v_{i_1} + v_{i_2} + \cdots + v_{i_d}) \quad \text{for all } v_i \text{ in } G.$$

$$\theta = (a + b)(b + c + d + e + a)(c + b + \\ (e + b + c + d + f + g)(f + e + g)(g +$$

Since in Boolean arithmetic $(x + y)x = x$,

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= (a + b)(b + c + e)(b + d + \\ &= ae + be + bf + bg + acdf \end{aligned}$$

Chromatic Polynomial

