

Module - 3

Q.5	<p>a. With an example explain the following.</p> <p>i. regular graph ii. complete graph iii. Bipartite graph</p> <p>iv. walk in graph v. paths in a graph</p>	10	L2	CO3
	<p>b. What is handshaking property? Verify the handshaking property to the following graph.</p> <div data-bbox="571 412 863 607" style="text-align: center;"> </div> <p style="text-align: center;">Fig. Q5b</p>	05	L2	CO3
	<p>c. List the in-degree and out-degree of all the vertices of the following graph.</p> <div data-bbox="555 734 879 949" style="text-align: center;"> </div> <p style="text-align: center;">Fig. Q5c</p>	05	L2	CO3

OR

Q.6	<p>a. What are isomorphic graphs? Verify whether the following graphs are isomorphic or not.</p> <div data-bbox="421 1167 1002 1435" style="text-align: center;"> </div> <p style="text-align: center;">Fig. Q6a</p>	10	L3	CO3
	<p>b. With an example explain the following.</p> <p>i. subgraphs ii. finite graph iii. infinite graph</p> <p>iv. circuit v. null graph</p>	10	L2	CO3

Module - 4

Q.7	<p>a. With an example explain the following.</p> <p>i. Eulerian circuit</p> <p>ii. Hamiltonian circuit</p>	10	L3	CO4
	<p>b. With an example explain the following operations on graphs.</p> <p>i. union ii. intersection. iii. compliment iv. ring sum</p>	10	L2	CO4

OR

Q.8	a.	Explain Konigsberg seven bridge problem.	05	2	4
	b.	With the help of a graph explain Travelling Salesman Problem.	05	2	4
	c.	Apply Dijkstra's algorithm to find the shortest distance from node 'A' to remaining nodes.	10	3	4

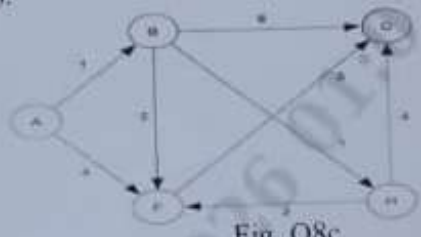


Fig. Q8c

Module - 5

Q.9	a.	What is graph coloring? What is chromatic number of a graph? With the help of an example find the chromatic number of complete graph and bipartite graph.	10	2	5
	b.	What is chromatic polynomial of a graph? Find the chromatic polynomial of the complete graph with 4 vertices.	10	3	5

OR

Q.10	a.	Explain five color theorem.	10	3	5
	b.	With an example explain greedy coloring algorithm.	10	3	5

.....

Discrete Mathematics & Graph Theory

Q1.

a) Set - A set is a collection of well-defined objects.

Let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $B = \{3, 4, 5\}$,

Universal Set $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

i. Union ($A \cup B$)

The Union of two sets contain all elements from both sets. $A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

ii. Intersection ($A \cap B$)

The intersection contains only the common elements in both sets.

$$A \cap B = \{3\}$$

iii. Complement (A')

The complement of a set contains all elements in the universal set that are not in A.

$$A' = U - A = \{4, 5, 6\}$$

iv. Relative complement ($A - B$)

Elements that are in A not in B.

$$A - B = \{1, 2\}$$

Similarly, $B - A = \{4, 5\}$

v. Symmetric Difference ($A \Delta B$)

Set of all elements that are in A or B but not in both.

$$A \Delta B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B)$$

1b. i. Distributive Laws

For any sets A, B, C :

$$a) A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$b) A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Let $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \quad \text{and} \quad x \in B \cup C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \quad \text{and} \quad x \in B \text{ or } x \in C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \text{ or } x \in A \text{ and } x \in C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in (A \cap B) \text{ or } x \in (A \cap C)$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$\therefore A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \text{ --- (1)}$$

Now let $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \cap B \text{ or } x \in A \cap C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \text{ or } x \in A \text{ and } x \in C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \text{ and } x \in B \text{ or } x \in C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \quad \text{and} \quad x \in B \cup C$$

$$\Rightarrow x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$$

$$\therefore (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C) \text{ --- (2)}$$

From (1) & (2)

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

ii) De Morgan's laws

To prove

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$

Consider RHS = $\overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$

$$= \{x / x \in \overline{A} \text{ and } x \in \overline{B}\}$$

$$= \{x / x \notin A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$$

$$= \{x / x \notin A \cup B\}$$

$$= \{x / x \in \overline{A \cup B}\} = \overline{A \cup B} = \text{LHS}$$

To prove

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

Consider $\overline{A \cap B} = \{x / x \in \overline{A} \text{ or } x \in \overline{B}\}$

$$= \{x / x \notin A \text{ or } x \notin B\}$$

$$= \{x / x \notin A \cap B\}$$

$$= \{x / x \in \overline{A \cap B}\} = \overline{A \cap B}$$

$$\therefore \overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$

Q2 a. Let S be the set of all television viewers of a sports channel. Let A, B, C be the set of all viewers who watch Cricket, Hockey, Football respectively.

$$\text{Given } |S| = 500, |A| = 285, |B| = 195, |C| = 115$$

$$|A \cap C| = 45, |A \cap B| = 70, |B \cap C| = 50, |\overline{A \cap B \cap C}| = 50$$

$$(i) |A \cap B \cap C| = ?$$

$$\textcircled{8} |A \cup B \cup C| = |S| - |\overline{A \cap B \cap C}|$$

$$= 500 - 50$$

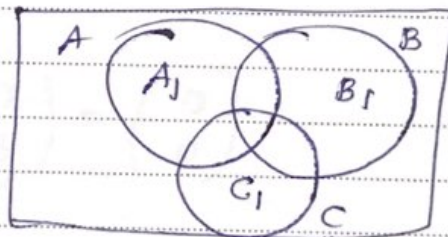
$$= 450$$

$$\text{Wkt, } |A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|$$

$$450 = 430 + |A \cap B \cap C|$$

$$\Rightarrow |A \cap B \cap C| = 450 - 430 = 20$$

(ii) Let A_1, B_1, C_1 be the set of all students who watch only Cricket, only Hockey & Only Football.



$$|A_1| = |A| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|$$

$$= 285 - 70 - 45 + 20$$

$$\text{Wkly } = 190$$

$$|B_1| = |B| - |A \cap B| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|$$

$$= 95$$

$$\text{Wkly } |C_1| = |C| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|$$

$$= 40$$



No of viewers who watch exactly one of the sports =

$$190 + 95 + 40 = 325$$

2b. A scalar λ is called an eigen value of a square matrix A if there exists a non-zero vector X such that

$$AX = \lambda X$$

A non-zero vector X satisfying the equation $AX = \lambda X$ is called the eigen vector corresponding to λ .

Consider $|A - \lambda I| = 0$

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1-\lambda & 4 \\ -4 & -7-\lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\lambda^2 + 6\lambda + 9 = 0$$

$$\lambda = -3, -3$$

Consider $(A - \lambda I)X = 0$

when $\lambda = -3$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ -4 & -4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$4x + 4y = 0$$

$$x = -y \Rightarrow (1, -1)$$

Eigen value : $\lambda = -3$ (double root)

Eigen vector : Any scalar multiple of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Q3 (a) A compound proposition which is always true regardless of truth values of its components is called a Tautology.

(i) $\{(p \vee q) \wedge ((p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r))\} \rightarrow r$

p	q	r	$(p \vee q)$	$(p \rightarrow r)$	$(q \rightarrow r)$	$(p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$	$\textcircled{1}$	$\textcircled{1}$	$\rightarrow r$
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	
0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	
0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	
1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	

Since all the entries of last column are 'one's', given compound proposition is a tautology.

(ii) $\{(p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r)\} \leftrightarrow \{p \rightarrow (q \vee r)\}$

Let $x: (p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r)$ & $y: p \rightarrow (q \vee r)$

p	q	r	$p \rightarrow q$	$(p \rightarrow r)$	x	$q \vee r$	y	$x \leftrightarrow y$
0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Since all the entries of last column are '1's', given compound proposition is a tautology.

$$3 b) i) (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \rightarrow (q \wedge r))$$

$$\text{LHS} = (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r)$$

$$\text{wkt } p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow \neg p \vee q$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (\neg p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \neg p \vee (q \wedge r)$$

Distributive law

$$\Leftrightarrow p \rightarrow (q \wedge r)$$

$$\text{using } \neg p \vee q \Leftrightarrow p \rightarrow q$$

$$= \text{RHS}$$

$$ii) (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge \neg r) \rightarrow \neg q$$

$$\text{LHS} = (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$$

$$\text{RHS} = (p \wedge \neg r) \rightarrow \neg q$$

$$\cdot (\neg p \vee q) \rightarrow r$$

$$\neg(p \wedge \neg r) \vee \neg q$$

$$\neg(\neg p \vee q) \vee r$$

$$\neg p \vee r \vee \neg q$$

$$(p \wedge \neg r) \vee r$$

Q4 a) Let p : A quadrilateral is a parallelogram.

q : Diagonals of the ~~parallelogram~~ quadrilateral bisect each other.

Given $p \rightarrow q$

Converse: $q \rightarrow p$ quadrilateral

ie. If the diagonals of a ~~parallelogram~~ quadrilateral bisect each other then it is a parallelogram.

Inverse: $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$

ie. If the quadrilateral is not a parallelogram then its diagonals do not bisect each other.

Contrapositive: $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

ie. If the diagonals of a quadrilateral do not bisect each other then it is not a parallelogram.

4 b) Let p : It rains
 q : I drive the car.

Given $p \rightarrow \neg q$

Negation: $\neg(p \rightarrow \neg q)$

$\Leftrightarrow p \wedge \neg(\neg q)$

$\Leftrightarrow p \wedge q$

ie., It rains and I drive the car.

4.c)


$p \rightarrow q$	\Rightarrow	$p \rightarrow r$	Rule of syllogism
$q \rightarrow r$		$r \rightarrow s$	
$r \rightarrow s$		$\neg s$	
$\neg s$		$\frac{p \vee t}{\therefore t}$	
$\frac{p \vee t}{\therefore t}$			

\Rightarrow	$p \rightarrow s$	Rule of syllogism
	$\neg s$	
	$\frac{p \vee t}{\therefore t}$	

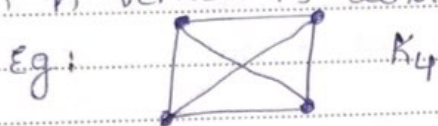
\Rightarrow	$\neg p$	Modus Tollens
	$\frac{p \vee t}{\therefore t}$	

\Rightarrow	$\neg p$	$\neg p \rightarrow t \Leftrightarrow p \vee t$
	$\frac{\neg p \rightarrow t}{\therefore t}$	

This is a valid argument using Modus Ponens.

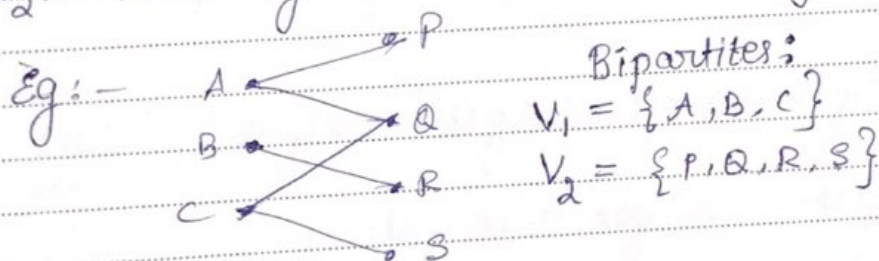
5 a) (i) Regular Graph - A graph in which degree of all vertices is same is called a regular graph. Eg: 

(ii) Complete Graph - A simple graph with minimum 2 vertices in which there is an edge between every pair of vertices is called a complete graph & a complete graph with n vertices is denoted by K_n .



(iii) Bipartite graph:

Suppose a simple graph G is such that its vertex set V is the union of two of its mutually disjoint nonempty subsets V_1 & V_2 which are such that each edge in G joins a vertex in V_1 & a vertex in V_2 . then G is called a bipartite graph.



(iv) walk in graph:

Let G be a graph with atleast one edge. Consider a finite, alternating sequence of vertices & edges of the form,

$$v_i e_j v_{i+1} e_{j+1} \dots e_k v_m$$

which begins and

ends with vertices and which is such that each edge in the sequence is incident on the vertices preceding & following it in the sequence, such sequence is called a walk in G .

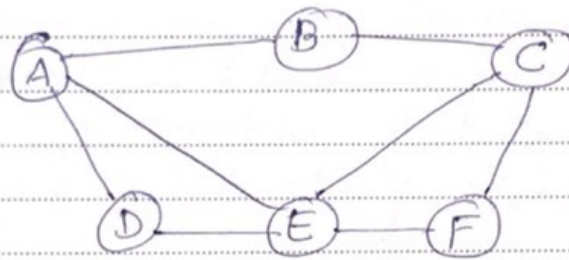
(v) If in an open walk no edge and no vertex appears more than once then it is called a path.

5b) Handshaking Property:

The sum of the degrees of all the vertices in a graph is an even number and this number is twice the number of edges in the graph.

In a graph $G(V, E)$,

$$\sum \deg(v) = 2|E|$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \sum \deg(v) = \deg(A) + \deg(B) + \deg(C) + \\ &\quad \deg(D) + \deg(E) + \deg(F) \end{aligned}$$

$$= 3 + 2 + 3 + 2 + 4 + 2$$

$$= 16, \text{ even no.}$$

$$\text{RHS} = 2|E| = 2(8) = 16$$

$$\text{LHS} = \text{RHS} = \text{even no.}$$

Hence, verified.

5 c)

~~deg~~

Vertex

In-degree

Out-degree

0

2

0

1

0

2

2

2

2

3

1

0

4

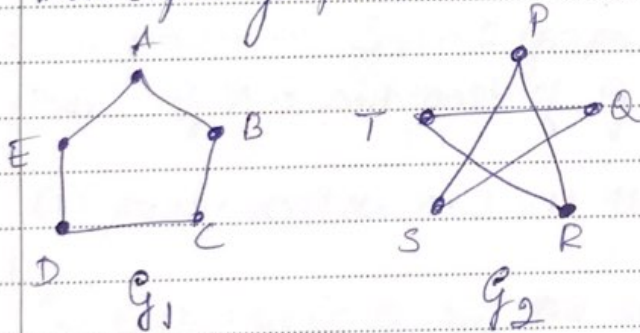
0

1

 5

 5

6 a) Isomorphism: Consider two graphs $G=(V, E)$ & $G'=(V', E')$. Suppose there exists a funcⁿ $f: V \rightarrow V'$ such that (i) f is a one-to-one correspondence & (ii) for all vertices A, B of G , $\{A, B\}$ is an edge of G if & only if $\{f(A), f(B)\}$ is an edge of G' . Then f is called an isomorphism between G & G' , and we say that G & G' are isomorphic graphs.



Both G_1 & G_2 have 5 vertices & 5 edges.

Both G_1 & G_2 are 2-regular graphs.

Vertex mapping:

$$E \leftrightarrow T$$

$$A \leftrightarrow Q$$

$$B \leftrightarrow S$$

$$C \leftrightarrow P$$

$$D \leftrightarrow R$$

Edge mapping:

$$\{A, B\} \leftrightarrow \{Q, S\}$$

$$\{B, C\} \leftrightarrow \{S, P\}$$

$$\{C, D\} \leftrightarrow \{P, R\}$$

$$\{D, E\} \leftrightarrow \{R, T\}$$

$$\{E, A\} \leftrightarrow \{T, Q\}$$

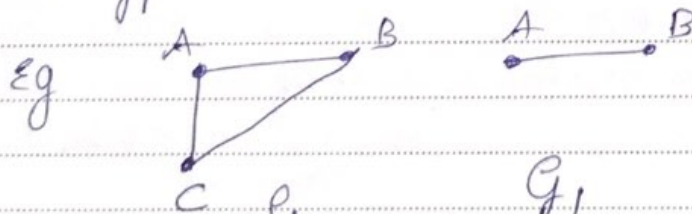
\therefore There exists a 1-1 mapping b/w the vertices & edges of G_1 & G_2 . Hence, they are isomorphic.

(i)

6b. Subgraphs - Given 2 graphs G and G_1 , we say that G_1 is a subgraph of G if

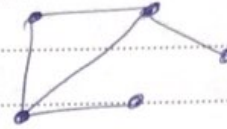
(1) All the vertices and all the edges of G_1 are in G .

(2) Each edge of G_1 has the same end vertices in G as in G_1 .



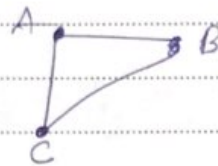
G_1 is a subgraph of G .

(ii) Finite graph : A graph with finite no of graphs is called a finite graph. Eg:



(iii) Infinite Graph : A graph with infinite no of vertices is called an infinite graph.

(iv) Circuit - A closed ~~graph~~^{walk} in which no edge is repeated is called a circuit.

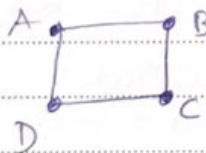


ABCA is a circuit.

(v) Null graph - A graph that has only vertices & no edges is called a null graph.

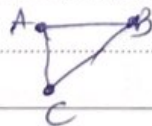


7a) Eulerian Circuit - A closed walk in which each edge in the graph is traversed exactly once is called an Eulerian Circuit.



Eg: ABCDA

Hamiltonian Circuit - A closed walk in which each vertex in the graph is traversed exactly once is called a Hamiltonian circuit.



Eg: ABCA

7b. Consider two graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ & $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$

(i) Then the graph whose vertex set is $V_1 \cup V_2$ & edge set is $E_1 \cup E_2$ is called the union of G_1 & G_2 . It is denoted by

$$G_1 \cup G_2 = (V_1 \cup V_2, E_1 \cup E_2).$$

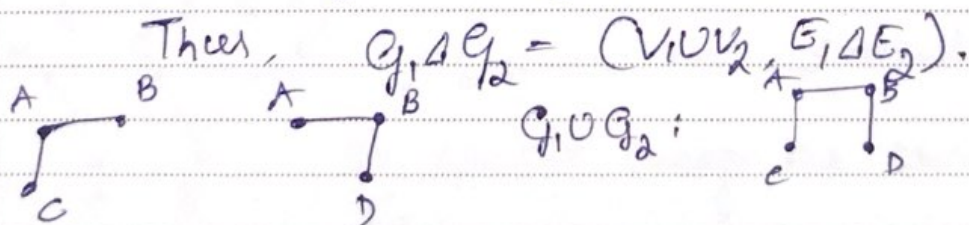
(ii) If $V_1 \cap V_2 \neq \emptyset$, the graph whose vertex set is $V_1 \cap V_2$ & the edge set is $E_1 \cap E_2$ is called the intersection of G_1 & G_2 ; it is denoted by $G_1 \cap G_2$.

$$G_1 \cap G_2 = (V_1 \cap V_2, E_1 \cap E_2).$$

(iii) Complement: Given a graph G & a subgraph G_1 of G , the subgraph of G obtained by deleting from G all the edges that belong to G_1 is called the complement of G_1 in G and is denoted by $G - G_1$.

(iv) Ring sum.

A graph with vertex set $V_1 \cup V_2$ & edge set is $E_1 \Delta E_2$ (symmetric difference of E_1 & E_2) is called the ring sum of G_1 & G_2 .



$$G_1 \cap G_2 = \begin{array}{c} A \text{ --- } B \end{array}$$

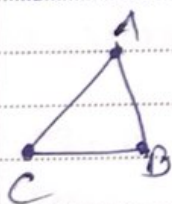
$$G_1 \Delta G_2 = \begin{array}{c} A \quad B \\ | \quad | \\ C \quad D \end{array}$$

9. a) Given planar or non-planar graph G , if we assign colours to its vertices in such a way that no two adjacent vertices have the same colour, then we say that the graph G is properly coloured.

A graph G which is k -colourable, but not $(k-1)$ colourable is called a k -chromatic graph.

If a graph G is k -chromatic, then k is called the chromatic no of G & is usually denoted by $\chi(G)$.

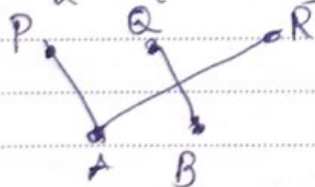
Consider a complete graph with 3 vertices, K_3 .



3 colours are required to color this graph, say $A \rightarrow C_1$, $B \rightarrow C_2$, $C \rightarrow C_3$.

So, chromatic no is 3.

Consider a bipartite graph with bipartites $V_1 = \{A, B\}$
 $V_2 = \{P, Q, R\}$



A & B are not adjacent.

So, we can assign the same colour C_1 .

P, Q, R are not adjacent. So, we can assign the same colour C_2 to them.

So, chromatic no = 2.

9b) The no of different ways of properly coloring a graph G with λ no of colours is called a chromatic polynomial & is denoted by $P(G, \lambda)$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(K_n, \lambda) &= 0 \text{ if } \lambda < n \\
 &= 1 \text{ if } \lambda = n \\
 &= \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2) \dots (\lambda-n+1) \text{ if } \lambda > n.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \therefore P(K_4, \lambda) &= 0 \text{ if } \lambda < 4 \\
 &= 1 \text{ if } \lambda = 4 \\
 &= \lambda(\lambda-1)(\lambda-2)(\lambda-3) \text{ if } \lambda > 4.
 \end{aligned}$$

10 a) It states: "Every planar graph can be colored using at most five colors such that no two adjacent regions share the same color."

The proof used mathematical induction.

Step 1: In any planar graph there is always at least one vertex with degree ≤ 5 .

Step 2: Remove that vertex from the graph.

Then ~~remove that~~ color the remaining graph using 5 colors.

Step 3: Add back the vertex.

That vertex has at most 5 neighbours.

If fewer than 5 colors are used among neighbours

assign a free color.

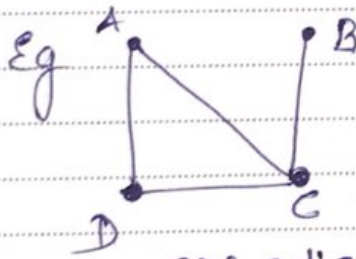
Step 4: A clever argument: rearranges colors.
This ensures one color becomes available.

So, the vertices can always be colored with one of the colors.

10 b) Greedy coloring algorithm:

It is an easy way to colour a graph. The idea is to no the vertices and then starting

$c(v_i) = 1$, visit the remaining vertices in order, assigning them the lowest numbered colour not yet used for a neighbor.



Let us assign the colour C_1 to A. We can't assign C_1 to C & D as C and D

are adjacent to A.

Now, let us assign color C_2 to B. Since B and D not adjacent to D, we can assign C_2 to D also. Assign a new color C_3 to C as C is adjacent to both A and B.

$A \rightarrow C_1$, $B \rightarrow C_2$, $C \rightarrow C_3$, $D \rightarrow C_2$.

Greedy coloring algorithm is used to color the above graph.