The spectral theory of graphs

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A graph is a pair G = (V, E) with

► V a set

 \blacktriangleright *E* a set of two element subsets of *V*

Example (A little example)

G = (V, E) with

$$V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\},\$$

$$E = \{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{3, 4\}, \{4, 1\}, \{3, 5\}\},\$$

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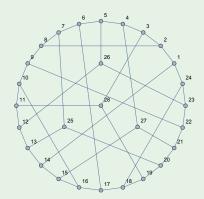
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Example (The Coxeter graph)

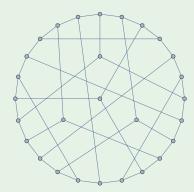
 $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, \\ 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28\},\label{eq:V}$

$$\begin{split} & E = \big\{\{1,2\},\{1,14\},\{1,24\},\{2,3\},\{2,8\},\{3,4\},\{3,28\},\{4,5\},\\ & \{4,27\},\{5,6\},\{5,26\},\{6,7\},\{6,17\},\{7,8\},\{7,25\},\{8,9\},\\ & \{9,10\},\{9,22\},\{10,11\},\{10,16\},\{11,12\},\{11,28\},\\ & \{12,13\},\{12,26\},\{13,14\},\{13,25\},\{14,15\},\{15,16\},\\ & \{15,27\},\{16,17\},\{17,18\},\{18,19\},\{18,24\},\{19,20\},\\ & \{19,28\},\{20,21\},\{20,25\},\{21,22\},\{21,27\},\{22,23\},\\ & \{23,24\},\{23,26\}\big\} \end{split}$$

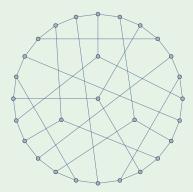
Example (The Coxeter graph)

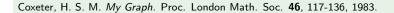








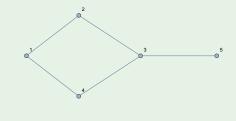




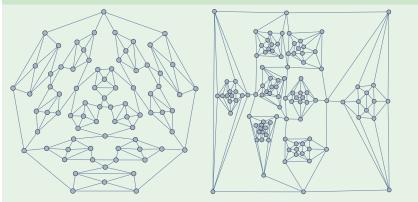
Example (A little example)

G = (V, E) with

$$\begin{split} V &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}, \\ E &= \big\{\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{3, 4\}, \{4, 1\}, \{3, 5\}\big\}. \end{split}$$



Example (van Cleemput-Zamfirescu graphs)



van Cleemput, N. and Zamfirescu, C. T. Regular Non-Hamiltonian Polyhedral Graphs. Appl. Math. Comput. **338** 192-206, 2018.

We write *n* for the *number of vertices* of a graph.

We will almost always suppose that the set of vertices is

 $V = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, n\}.$

The *adjacency matrix* of a graph G = (V, E) is the matrix

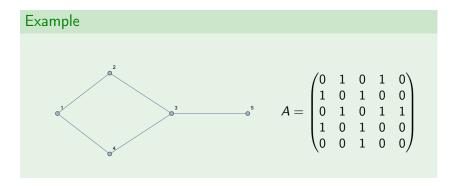
$$A = (a_{i,j}) \in \mathsf{M}_n(\mathbb{R}), \qquad \qquad a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{i,j\} \in E; \\ 0 & \text{if not.} \end{cases}$$

Example

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

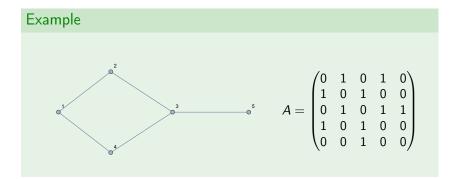
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The entries of A have a very simple combinatorial interpretation:

 $a_{i,j} = #\{ \text{paths from } i \text{ to } j \text{ of length } 1 \}.$



The observation generalizes:

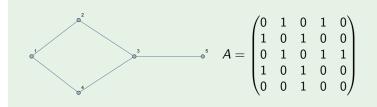
Lemma

If $\ell \in \mathbb{N}_0$ and $A^\ell = (a_{i,j}^{(\ell)})$, then

$$a_{i,j}^{(\ell)} = \#\{\text{paths from } i \text{ to } j \text{ of length } 1\}.$$

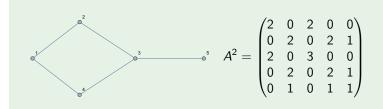
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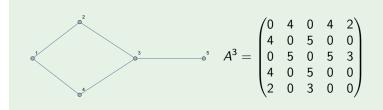
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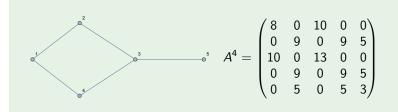
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Lemma

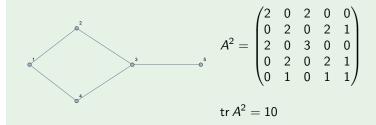
The number C_ℓ of closed paths of length ℓ is

tr
$$A^{\ell} = a_{1,1}^{(\ell)} + a_{2,2}^{(\ell)} + \dots + a_{n,n}^{(\ell)}$$

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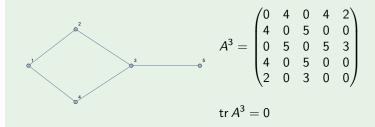
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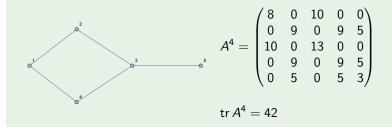
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Linear algebra enters the picture

Since
$$A = (a_{i,j})$$
 has
 $a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{i,j\} \in E; \\ 0 & \text{if not,} \end{cases}$

it is a symmetric real matrix and therefore

- \blacktriangleright it is diagonalizable over $\mathbb R$ with real eigenvalues, and
- there is a orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n of eigenvectors of A.

Definition

We let $\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_n$ be the eigenvalues of A, indexed so that

 $\theta_1 \geq \theta_2 \geq \cdots \geq \theta_n.$

These numbers the *eigenvalues* of the graph G.

Linear algebra enters the picture

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Linear algebra enters the picture

We know there is an orthogonal matrix P such that

$$A = PDP^{-1}, \qquad D = \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1 & & & \\ & \theta_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \theta_n \end{pmatrix}$$

In particular, for all ℓ we have

$$\operatorname{tr} A^{\ell} = \operatorname{tr} D^{\ell} = \operatorname{tr} \begin{pmatrix} \theta_1^{\ell} & & \\ & \theta_2^{\ell} & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & & \theta_n^{\ell} \end{pmatrix}$$

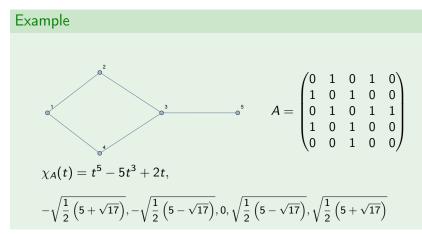
Linear algebra enters the picture

Proposition

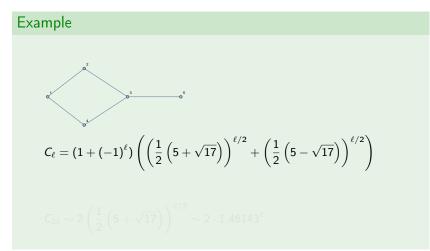
If $\theta_1 \ge \theta_2 \ge \cdots \ge \theta_n$ are the eigenvalues of G, then the number of closed paths of length ℓ is

$$\theta_1^\ell + \theta_2^\ell + \dots + \theta_n^\ell.$$

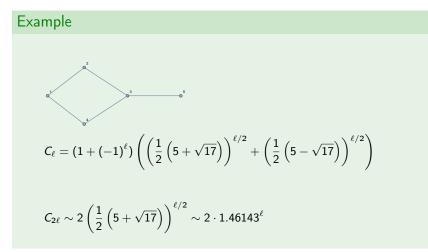
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Proposition

The number of closed paths of length ℓ is

$$C_\ell \sim
ho^\ell$$
 with $ho := \max\{| heta_1|, \dots, | heta_n|\}.$

The spectral theory of graphs

Our subject is the following problem:

Problem

Study the graph G by looking at properties of the sequence

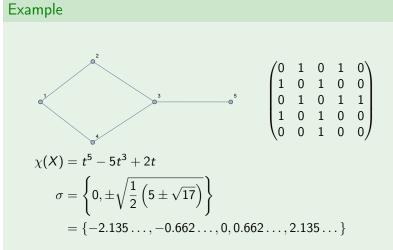
 $\sigma(G) = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \ldots, \theta_n)$

of its eigenvalues and the corresponding eigenvectors.

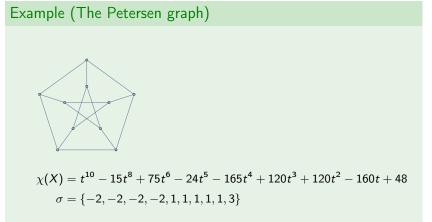
The part of mathematics that deals with this is the

spectral theory of graphs.

Spectra



Spectra



Spectra

Example (The Coxeter graph)

$$\begin{split} \chi(X) &= t^{28} - 42t^{26} + 777t^{24} - 8344t^{22} - 48t^{21} \\ &+ 57666t^{20} + 1232t^{19} - 268716t^{18} - 13104t^{17} \\ &+ 860314t^{16} + 74256t^{15} - 1893960t^{14} \\ &- 239568t^{13} + 2827965t^{12} + 433776t^{11} \\ &- 2790970t^{10} - 396816t^9 + 1772925t^8 \\ &+ 118192t^7 - 719376t^6 + 44352t^5 + 170464t^4 \\ &- 37632t^3 - 16128t^2 + 7168t - 768 \end{split}$$



$$\begin{split} \sigma &= \{-1-\sqrt{2}, -1-\sqrt{2}, -1-\sqrt{2}, -1-\sqrt{2}, -1-\sqrt{2}, -1-\sqrt{2}, \\ &-1, -1, -1, -1, -1, -1, \sqrt{2}-1, \sqrt{2}-1, \sqrt{2}-1, \\ &\sqrt{2}-1, \sqrt{2}-1, \sqrt{2}-1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3\} \end{split}$$

The spectral theory of graphs

The diameter

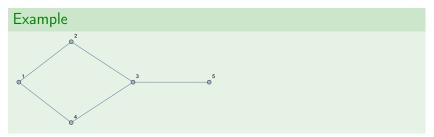
The *diameter* of a graph is the maximal distance between its vertices.

Example Example

The spectral theory of graphs

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The diameter

Proposition

If G is connected and d is its diameter, then G has at least d + 1 different eigenvalues.

Proof. Let t be the number of distinct eigenvalues.

Since A is diagonalizable, its minimal polynomial has degree t, and there are real numbers $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_{t-1}$ such that

$$A^t = \alpha_0 A^0 + \alpha_1 A + \dots + \alpha_{t-1} A^{t-1}.$$

Suppose $t \leq d$ and let i and j be two vertices such that dist(i, j) = t. Then

$$a_{i,j}^{(t)} > 0$$
 and $a_{i,j}^{(k)} = 0$ if $k < t$.

This is absurd.

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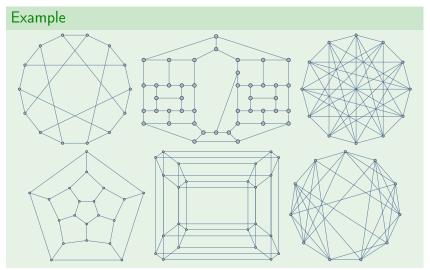
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Regular graphs

A graph is *regular* if all its vertices have the same number of neighbors. That number is then the *degree* of G.



Regular graphs

Proposition Let G be a connected graph. If G is regular of degree k, then θ₁ = k. If G is not regular, then k_{min} ≤ k̄ ≤ θ₁ ≤ k_{max} In any case, θ₁ is a simple eigenvalue.

Proof. The hypothesis means that

 $A \cdot 1 = k \cdot 1.$

Moreover, if t > k, then the matrix

$$t \cdot I_n - A$$

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Proposition

G is regular if and only if
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i^2 = n \cdot \theta_1$$
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Proof. If G is regular of degree k, then $\theta_1 = k$ and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i^2 = \operatorname{tr} A^2 = \#\{\operatorname{closed} \text{ parths of length } 2\} = n \cdot k = n \cdot \theta_1.$$

Conversely, if the condition holds, then

$$\overline{k} = \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{tr} A^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \theta_i^2 = \theta_1$$

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The largest eigenvalue

Since

 $\overline{k} < \theta_1$

graphs with small $heta_1$ should be very simple. . .

Suppose G is connected.

• If
$$\theta_1 = 0$$
 then $G = K_1$.

• If
$$0 < \theta_1 \leq 1$$
, then $G = K_2$ and $\theta_1 = 1$.

• If
$$1 < \theta_1 \le \sqrt{2}$$
, then G is a path of length 3 and $\theta_1 = \sqrt{2}$.

The largest eigenvalue

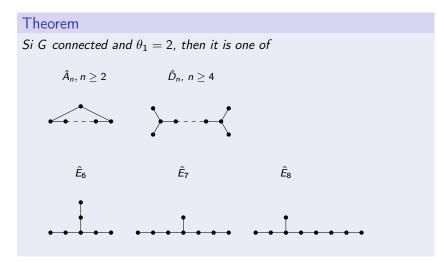
Using Frobenius-Perron theory one can prove:

Proposition

If H is obtained from G by removing a vertex, then

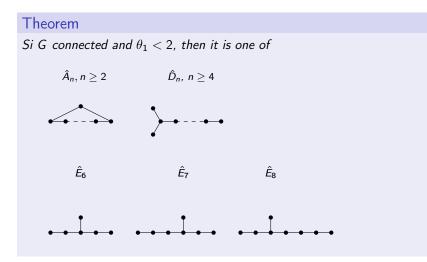
 $\theta_1(H) < \theta_1(G).$

The largest eigenvalue



These are the *extended Dynkin diagrams*.

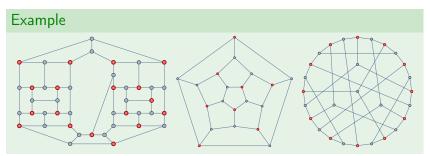
The largest eigenvalue



These are the *Dynkin diagrams*.

The independence number

The *independence number* $\alpha(G)$ is the maximum cardinal of a set of vertices which are not neighbors of each other.



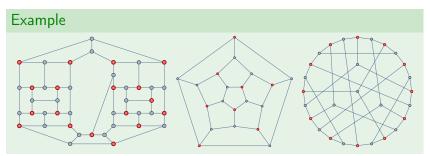
Theorem

We have that

 $\alpha(G) \le \#\{i: \theta_i \ge 0\}, \qquad \alpha(G) \le \#\{i: \theta_i \le 0\}$

The independence number

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Theorem

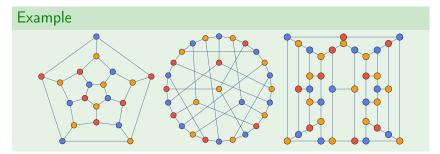
We have that

 $\alpha(G) \leq \#\{i: \theta_i \geq 0\}, \qquad \alpha(G) \leq \#\{i: \theta_i \leq 0\}$

The chromatic number

The *chromatic number* $\chi(G)$ is the minimum number of colors with which we can paint the vertices so that

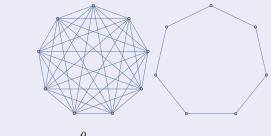
no two neighbors have the same color



The chromatic number

Theorem

Suppose G is connected with some edge.



$$\blacktriangleright \chi(G) \ge 1 - \frac{\theta_1}{\theta_n}$$