# Fractals in Cubic Graphs \& Hamiltonian Cycles 

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Thanks to: Vladimir Ejov, Jerzy Filar, Jessica Nelson, Giang Nguyen, Peter Zograf

## Outline

- Graphs as Matrices.
- The fractals.
- Proofs.
- The Hamiltonian Cycle Problem
- The HCP as a Polynomial Problem


## Graphs Definitions

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are the same graph.
- Some graphs include loops (join a vertex to itself), multiple edges (more than one edges join a pair of vertices), or direction (arrows not lines).


## Graphs as Matrices



A graph $G$ has an associated adjacency matrix $A$, where
$a_{i j}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if an edge joins vertices } i, j, \\ 0, & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}$

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$a_{i j}= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if an edge joins vertices } i, j, \\ 0, & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}$
In this case, $A=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0\end{array}\right)$.

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- Plot a single dot of mean versus variance.


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| $n$ | $\# G$ |
| ---: | ---: |
| 10 | 19 |
| 12 | 85 |
| 14 | 509 |
| 16 | 4060 |

$n=10$


$$
n=12
$$



$$
n=14
$$



$$
n=16
$$



$$
n=16
$$



## $n=16$, Zoom in on Leftmost Filar



## $n=16$, Zoom in on 4th Subfilar of 1st Filar



## $n=16$, Zoom in on 5th Subsubfilar of 4th Subfilar of 1st Filar



## $n=16, \mathbf{Z o o m}$ in on $\mathbf{5 t h}$ Subsubfilar of 4th Subfilar of 1st Filar



## Ten Vertex Cubic Graphs in Detail




(5)


(7)

(8)


(16)


(19)

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Graphs 17,15 have the same number of subcycles of length 4.

## Clustering Into Filars

- $\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{j}$, and the $(k, k)$ th element of $A^{j}$ is the number of closed walks starting and finishing at vertex $k$ of length $j$.


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- The mean of the exponentials of the eigenvalues of $A / 3$ is

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\mu=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp \left(\lambda_{i}\right)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{j}}{j!}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j!} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{j}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{j}\right)}{3^{j} j!}
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- For all cubic graphs, $\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{0}\right)=n, \operatorname{tr}\left(A^{1}\right)=0$ and $\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{2}\right)=3 n$, so

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- Number of closed walks of increasing length separate graphs in different filars, subfilars, etc.


## (Roughly) Filars as Straight Lines

$$
\text { Similarly, } s^{2}=\frac{1}{n-1}\left(\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{2^{j} \operatorname{tr}\left(A^{j}\right)}{3^{j} j!}-n \mu^{2}\right) .
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Assume we move from graph $A$ with mean $\mu_{A}$ to graph $B$ with mean $\mu_{B}$ where $\operatorname{tr}\left(B^{j}\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{j}\right)$ for all $j \neq k$ and $\operatorname{tr}\left(B^{k}\right)=\operatorname{tr}\left(A^{k}\right)+\delta$.

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Then $\mu_{B}=\mu_{A}+\frac{\delta}{n 3^{k} k!}$, and
$s_{B}^{2}=s_{A}^{2}+\frac{\delta 2^{k}}{(n-1) 3^{k} k!}-\frac{2 \delta \mu_{A}}{(n-1) 3^{k} k!}-\frac{\delta^{2}}{n(n-1) 3^{2 k}(k!)^{2}}$.

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When moving from graphs $A$ to $B, \mu$ increases by $\delta /\left(n 3^{k} k!\right)$ and $s^{2}$ increases by $\delta\left(2^{k}-2 \mu\right) /\left((n-1) 3^{k} k!\right)$.

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Now $\mu$ only changes over a very small range. So the ratio ( $s^{2}$ increase $/ \mu$ increase) equals $(n /(n-1))\left(2^{k}-2 \mu\right)$.

## More Formal Derivation

The Ihara-Selberg trace formula for regular graphs of degree $q+1$ can be written as
$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{t \lambda_{i}}=\frac{q+1}{2 \pi} \int_{-2 \sqrt{q}}^{2 \sqrt{q}} e^{s t} \frac{\sqrt{4 q-x^{2}}}{(q+1)^{2}-x^{2}} d x+\frac{1}{n} \sum_{\gamma} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{l(\gamma)}{2^{k l(\gamma) / 2}} I_{k l(\gamma)}(2 \sqrt{q} t)$,
where $\gamma$ runs over all oriented primitive closed geodesics, and $l(\gamma)$ is the length of $\gamma$.

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where $\gamma$ runs over all oriented primitive closed geodesics, and $l(\gamma)$ is the length of $\gamma$. Letting $n_{l}$ be the number of geodesics of length $l$, and setting $q=2$,

$$
\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{t \lambda_{i}}=J(t)+\frac{2}{n} \sum_{l=3}^{\infty} l n_{l} F_{l}(t)
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where $J(t)=\frac{3}{2 \pi} \int_{-2 \sqrt{2}}^{2 \sqrt{2}} e^{t x} \frac{\sqrt{8-x^{2}}}{9-x^{2}} d x$ and $F_{l}(t)=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{I_{k l}(2 \sqrt{2} t)}{2^{k l / 2}}$.

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Note that $I_{m}(z) \approx \frac{1}{m!}\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^{m}$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$ and $0<z \ll \sqrt{m+1}$.

## Mean and Variance

$$
\mu=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{\lambda_{i} / 3}=J(1 / 3)+\frac{2}{n} \sum_{l=3}^{\infty} \ln _{l} F_{l}(1 / 3)
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=\left(J(2 / 3)-J(1 / 3)^{2}\right)+\frac{2}{n} \sum_{l=3}^{\infty} \ln _{l}\left(F_{l}(2 / 3)-2 J(1 / 3) F_{l}(1 / 3)\right) \\
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$$

Ignoring the (small) quadratic term, a change $\delta_{l}$ to $n_{l}$ changes $\mu$ by $2 l F_{l}(1 / 3) \delta_{l} / n$ and $\sigma$ by $2 l\left(F_{l}(2 / 3)-2 J(1 / 3) F_{l}(1 / 3)\right) \delta_{l} / n$ - each filar is a straight line.

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- Even the Hamiltonian cycle problem on cubic graphs is NP-Complete.
- A bridge graph is one that can be split in pieces by removing an edge (or vertex). This can be established in polynomial time, and a bridge graph is clearly not Hamiltonian.



## Hamiltonian Cycles and Cubic Graph Filars



Most non-Hamiltonian graphs are at the ends of filars, and are bridge graphs. What is the relationship between bridge graphs and their JIAMES position in a filar?

## Eigenanalysis Inadequate



These twenty vertex cubic graphs are co-spectral (have the same eigenvalues), the one on the left has Hamiltonian cycles, the one on the right does not.

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Robinson and Wormald proved that almost all regular graphs are Hamiltonian.

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| Graph | Number | Number | Ratio | Number Cubic | Ratio |
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| 10 | 19 | 2 | 0.1053 | 1 | 0.5000 |
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| 14 | 509 | 35 | 0.0688 | 29 | 0.8286 |
| 16 | 4060 | 219 | 0.0539 | 186 | 0.8493 |
| 18 | 41301 | 1666 | 0.0403 | 1435 | 0.8613 |
| 20 | 510490 | 14498 | 0.0284 | 12671 | 0.8740 |
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Conjecture (Filar, Haythorpe \& Nguyen):
Almost all regular non-Hamiltonian graphs are bridge graphs.

## A Property of Hamiltonian Cycles

- A directed graph $G$ has an adjacency matrix $A$, where

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Theorem: An $n \times n$ permutation matrix is the adjacency matrix of some Hamiltonian cyclic graph on $n$ vertices if and only if its characteristic polynomial is $\lambda^{n}-1=0$.

## A System of Polynomial Equations

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$$
X=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
0 & 0 & x_{1,3} & 0 & 0 \\
x_{2,1} & 0 & 0 & x_{2,4} & 0 \\
0 & x_{3,2} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x_{4,5} \\
x_{5,1} & 0 & 0 & x_{5,4} & 0
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A Hamiltonian cycle is equivalent to the solution of the system of polynomial equations ( $x_{i j}=1$ if (directed) edge is in Hamiltonian cycle)

$$
\left\{\begin{aligned}
x_{i j}\left(1-x_{i j}\right) & =0 \text { for all }(i, j) \in E, \\
\sum_{j} x_{i j}-1 & =0, \text { for all } i, \\
\sum_{i} x_{i j}-1 & =0 \text { for all } j \\
\operatorname{det}(\lambda I-X)-\lambda^{n}+1 & =0
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\sum_{i} x_{i j}-1 & =0 \text { for all } j \\
\operatorname{det}(\lambda I-X)-\lambda^{n}+1 & =0
\end{aligned}\right.
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If no solution, no Hamiltonian cycle.

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But, $\operatorname{det}(\lambda I-X)$ grows exponentially in number of vertices.

## Using the Symbolic Determinant

Theorem: The product terms making up the symbolic determinant of the modified adjacency matrix represent sets of subcycles on all vertices of a given graph. In addition, a Hamiltonian cycle will be obtained when the path from any vertex visits every other vertex before returning.

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Elementary products can be scanned in linear time, but there are an exponential number of them, and exponential time is required to form them in the symbolic determinant.

## An Example

4 $X=\left(\begin{array}{cccccc}0 & x_{1,2} & 0 & x_{1,4} & x_{1,5} & 0 \\ x_{21} & 0 & x_{2,3} & 0 & 0 & x_{2,6} \\ 0 & x_{3,2} & 0 & x_{3,4} & 0 & x_{3,6} \\ x_{4,1} & 0 & x_{4,3} & 0 & x_{4,5} & 0 \\ x_{5,1} & 0 & 0 & x_{5,4} & 0 & x_{5,6} \\ 0 & x_{6,2} & x_{6,3} & 0 & x_{6,5} & 0\end{array}\right)$

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## Further Work and References

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- Prove the bridge graph conjecture, or look at other kinds of graphs.
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