

On the Proof of the Friendship Theorem

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Preliminaries

A graph in the plane is an ordered pair $G = (V, E)$ where:

- $V = V(G)$ is called the vertex set, and is the set of vertices or nodes in the graph G .
- $E = E(G)$ is called the edge set, and is the set of edges or connections between the vertices.

For $u, v \in V(G)$.

- The undirected edges are represented by $\{u, v\}$.
- The directed edges are represented by (u, v) .

Finally let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph.

- Two nodes that are connected by an edge are adjacent.
- The neighbourhood of a node v , denoted $N(v)$, is the set of all the nodes that are adjacent to it, and $|N(v)|$ is its cardinality.

Main Theorem

Theorem

Suppose that $G = (V, E)$ is a finite graph in which

$$\forall u, v \in V(G) \quad |N(u) \cap N(v)| = 1.$$

Then there exists a vertex $z \in V(G)$ that is adjacent to all other vertices.

Informally, one can say

Theorem

Suppose a *group of at least three people* has the property that every pair of people has exactly one friend in common, then there must be *one person* who is a friend to all the others.

History and Application

- It is not yet known who formulated this problem, or who gave it the human touch that it has.
- In 1966, Paul Erdős, Alfred Renyi and Vera Sos Published the first proof of this theorem.
- This Theorem has a lot of applications, it is mainly used in the fields of
 - Block Designs
 - Coding Theory
 - Set Theory
- The Friendship Theorem is listed among Paul and Jack Abad's "100 Greatest Theorems".
- In 2001, Aigner and Ziegler mentioned the Friendship Theorem in there book titled "*Proofs from the Book* "as one of the greatest theorems of Erdős of all time.

More History

Several different approaches have been used to prove this theorem:

- In 1971, **Herbert Wilf** provided a geometric proof.
- In 1972, **Judith Longyear** and **Torrence Parsons** gave a proof by counting neighbors, walks and cycles in regular graphs.
- In 1983, **Hammersley** provided a proof using numerical techniques. He later extended this theorem to the so called "Love Problem".
- In 2001, **Douglas West** gave a proof similar to the one by **Longyear** and **Parsons**, counting common neighbors and cycles.
- Finally, in 2002 **Craig Huneke** gave two proofs, one being more combinatorial and one that combines combinatorics and linear algebra.

Proof

Theorem

Suppose that $G = (V, E)$ is a finite graph in which

$$\forall u, v \in V(G) \quad |N(u) \cap N(v)| = 1. \quad (*)$$

Then there exists a vertex $z \in V(G)$ that is adjacent to all other vertices.

Proof :

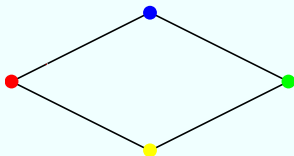
We will proceed by contradiction. Suppose that G is a finite graph satisfying $(*)$. furthermore suppose that G has no vertex adjacent to all other vertices. Our proof today will be divided into two parts.

Proof-Part one

We claim that G is a regular graph. Here a graph $T = (V(T), E(T))$ is called regular whenever

$$\forall u, v \in V(T) \quad |N(u)| = |N(v)|.$$

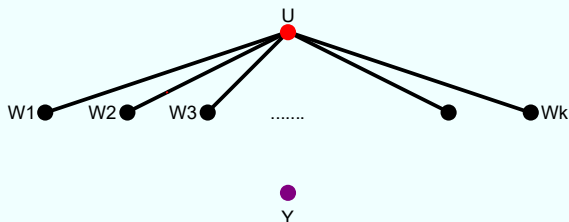
Turning our attention back to proving the Claim. Notice that the condition (\star) ensures that G has no cycles of length 4, indeed consider the 4-cycle.



where the *RED*, and the *GREEN* vertices, have to vertices in common violating (\star) .

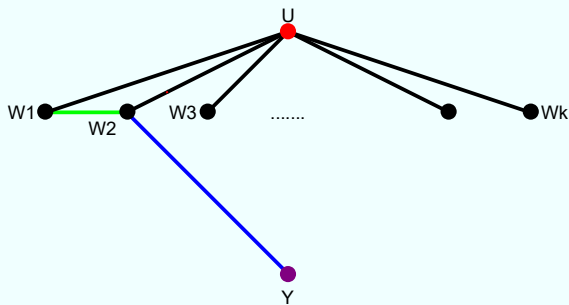
Continuation of Proof-Part one

Now let U and Y be two non-adjacent distinct vertices in G . Consider $|N(U)| = k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider $N(U) = \{W_1, W_2, \dots, W_k\}$



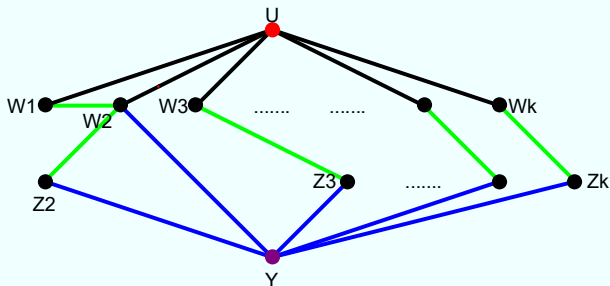
Continuation of Proof-Part one

U and Y must have exactly one vertex in common. Let us say that is $W2$. Similarly $W2$ and U must have exactly one vertex in common. Let us say that is $W1$.



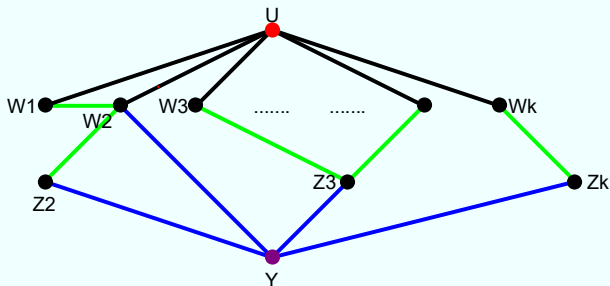
Continuation of Proof-Part one

Turning our attention to Y , it must have exactly one vertex in common with each W_i . Call these common vertices Z_i 's for $i \in \{2, \dots, k\}$.



Continuation of Proof-Part one

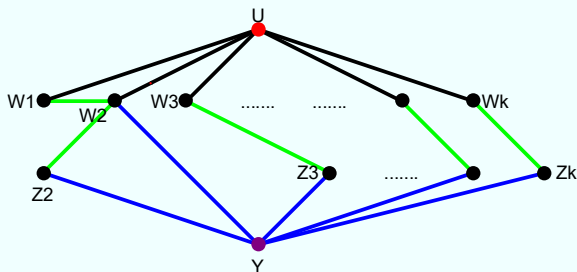
Turning our attention to Y , it must have exactly one vertex in common with each W_i . Call these common vertices Z_i 's for $i \in \{2, \dots, k\}$.



The Z_i 's that we just added have to be distinct other wise we get a 4-cycle, which we proved can't exist.

Continuation of Proof-Part one

Hence this is what our graph looks like now. Moving on, we count the edges of Y .



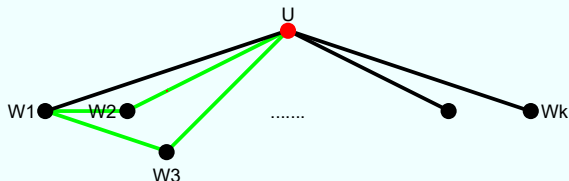
We get that $|N(Y)| \geq |N(U)|$. Finally, by symmetry we conclude that $|N(Y)| = |N(U)|$. To finish the proof of the claim, Notice that aside from $W2$ any vertex is either non-adjacent to Y or non-adjacent to U .

Continuation of Proof-Part one

To finish the first part of the proof we will count the number of vertices we have in total in G .

- Starting from U we have k adjacent vertices W_i 's
- Each W_i also has k adjacent vertices, so we get k^2 .
- But one of the vertices adjacent to each W_i is U . Hence the total is $k^2 - k + 1$. Since we counted U k -times.

Notice that each W_i is adjacent to exactly one other W_j other wise if adjacent to more we run again into a 4-cycle.



Proof-Part two

Moving on, we will present the second part of the proof which is a beautiful algebraic argument to reach contradiction. Start by introducing the adjacency matrix A , which for $G = (V(G), E(G))$ is defined as follows:

$$a_{ij} := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{v_i, v_j\} \in E(G) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Here, $V(G) = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, where $n = k^2 - k + 1$. With this in hand, and using the condition (\star) we have

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} k & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & k & & 1 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \cdots & 1 & k \end{pmatrix} = (k-1)I_n + J_n \quad (\star\star)$$

Here I_n is the identity Matrix, and J_n is a matrix of 1's.

Continuation of Proof-Part two

Now Using (**), we deduce that the eigenvalues of A^2 are

$$\begin{cases} k - 1 + n = K^2 & \text{of multiplicity } 1 \\ K - 1 & \text{of multiplicity } n - 1 \end{cases}$$

So A has the following eigenvalues

$$\begin{cases} k & \text{of multiplicity } 1 \\ \sqrt{K - 1} & \text{of multiplicity } r \\ -\sqrt{K - 1} & \text{of multiplicity } s \end{cases}$$

where $r + s = n - 1$.

Continuation of Proof-Part two

Finally, we use the fact that the trace of A (which is 0) is equal to the sum of its eigenvalues , we have

$$K + r\sqrt{k-1} - s\sqrt{k-1} = 0$$

This implies that $r \neq s$, and we can write

$$\sqrt{k-1} = \frac{k}{s-r}$$

Using the fact that, if the square root of a natural number is rational then it must be an integer, we deduce that $\exists h \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$h = \sqrt{k-1} \quad \text{which implies} \quad h(s-r) = k = h^2 + 1.$$

Then, h divides $h^2 + 1$, and h^2 . This forces $h = 1$ and thus $k = 2 \implies n = 3$, which satisfies the theorem. Hence a contradiction.

Kotzig's Conjecture

Let us first rephrase our theorem, the condition (\star) can be formulated as :

Suppose G is a graph with the property that between any two vertices there is exactly one path of length 2.

This lead to the consideration of the following problem:

Let $\ell \geq 2$. Is there a finite graphs with the property that between any two vertices there is precisely one path of length ℓ .

- **Kotzig** conjectured in 1974 that there exists no such graphs. He proved this conjecture for $3 \leq \ell \leq 8$.
- **Kostochka** proved in 1988 that the conjecture is true for $\ell \leq 20$.
- **Xing** and **Hu** proved the Kotzig's conjecture in 1994 for $\ell \geq 12$.

Thus, the Kotzig's conjecture is valid now as a theorem.

THANK YOU