

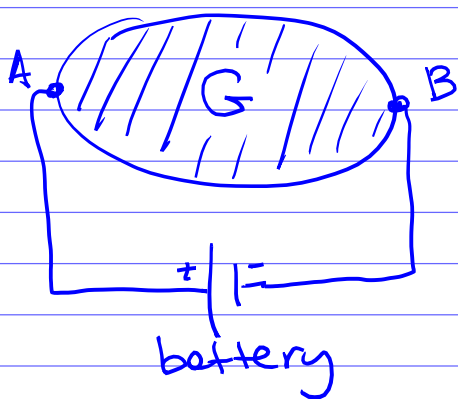
An electrical network :

$G = (V, E)$ with edge weights

$$C_e = \frac{1}{R_e}, e \in E$$

(C_e = the conductivity of edge e
= (resistance) $^{-1}$.)

$A, B \in V$ two selected vertices



$R_{AB}(G)$ = the resistance of
between vertices
 A, B of G ,

Series connection :

$$R_{Ac} \left(\overset{A}{\bullet} \text{---} \text{G} \text{---} \overset{B}{\bullet} \text{---} \text{H} \text{---} \overset{c}{\bullet} \right) = R_{AB}(G) + R_{Bc}(H)$$

Parallel connection :

$$R_{AB} \left(\overset{G}{\text{---}} \text{---} \overset{H}{\text{---}} \right)^{-1} = R_{AB}(G)^{-1} + R_{AB}(H)^{-1}$$

In general,

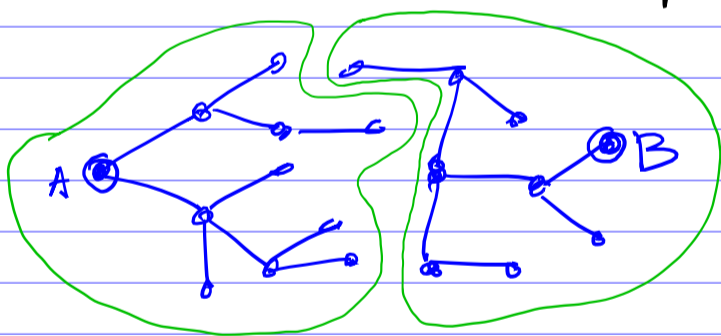
Theorem. $R_{AB}(G) =$

$$= \frac{\sum_{F \subset G} \text{weight}(F)}{\sum_{T \subset G} \text{weight}(T)}$$

$$;$$

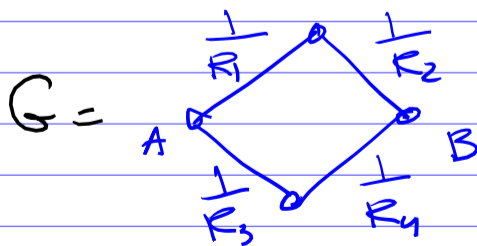
where

- The sum in the denominator is over all spanning trees T in G
- The sum in the numerator is over all forests F in G st
 - F contains all vertices of G
 - F has exactly 2 connected components
 - A & B belong to different connected components of F .



$$\bullet \text{ weight}(F) = \prod_{e \text{ edge of } F} \frac{1}{R_e}$$

Example

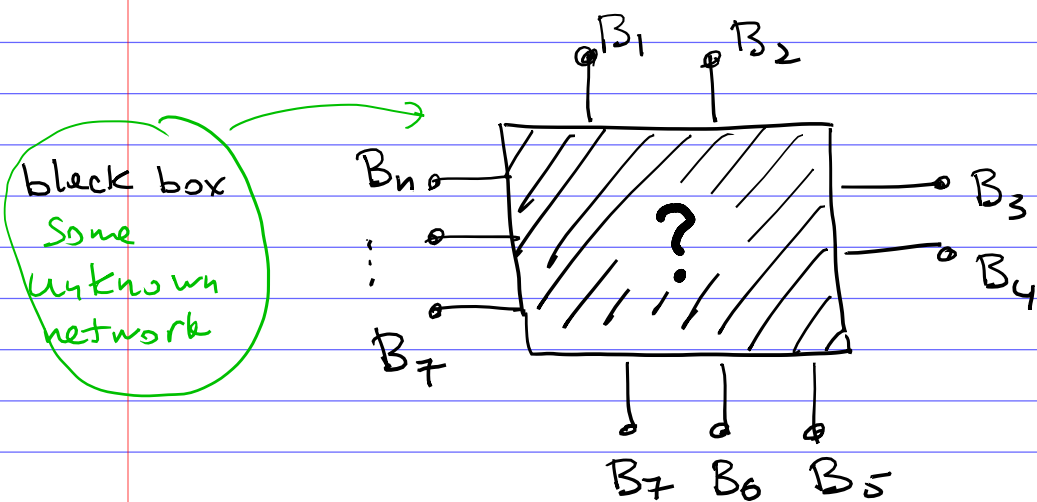


$$R_{AB} = \frac{\frac{1}{R_1} \cdot \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot \frac{1}{R_4} + \frac{1}{R_3} \cdot \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot \frac{1}{R_4}}{\frac{1}{R_1} \cdot \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot \frac{1}{R_3} + \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot \frac{1}{R_4} + \frac{1}{R_1} \cdot \frac{1}{R_3} \cdot \frac{1}{R_4} + \frac{1}{R_2} \cdot \frac{1}{R_3} \cdot \frac{1}{R_4}}$$

$$;$$

Black box problem or

Inverse Boundary Problem



B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n boundary vertices

Boundary Measurements : We can measure the resistances

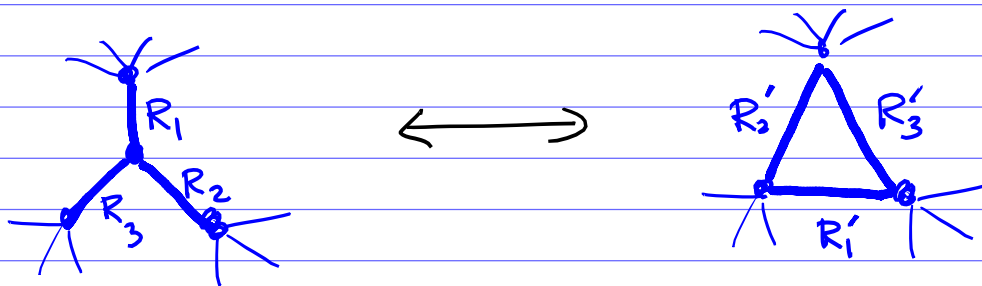
$$R_{ij} = R_{B_i B_j}(G).$$

Question: Can we reconstruct a network G from its boundary measurements R_{ij} ?

What can we say about G if we know all R_{ij} ?

[Curtis, Ingerman, Morrow, 1998] solved this for planar graphs.

Y- Δ transform:



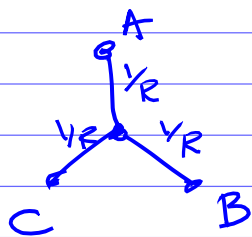
For any 3 edges in G with resistances R_1, R_2, R_3 forming "Y" (where central vertex is not a boundary vertex), we can replace them by 3 edges forming " Δ " with certain resistances R'_1, R'_2, R'_3 s.t. all boundary measurements remain the same.

$(R_1, R_2, R_3) \leftrightarrow (R'_1, R'_2, R'_3)$
is a certain invertible transformation.

Exercise Find an explicit expression for R'_1, R'_2, R'_3 in terms of R_1, R_2, R_3

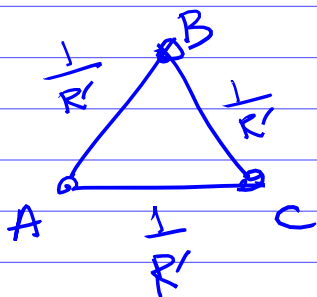
Example

$$R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R$$



$$R_{AB} = \frac{2 \left(\frac{1}{R}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{1}{R}\right)^3} = 2R$$

$$R_{AB} = R_{AC} = R_{BC} = 2R$$



$$R_{AB} = \frac{2 \left(\frac{1}{R'}\right)^2}{3 \left(\frac{1}{R'}\right)^3} = \frac{2}{3} R'$$

$$2R = \frac{2}{3} R'$$

$$\text{So } R' = 3R.$$

Theorem [CIM]. Let G_1, G_2 be

two planar networks with n

boundary vertices. Then G_1 & G_2

have the same boundary

measurements iff they can

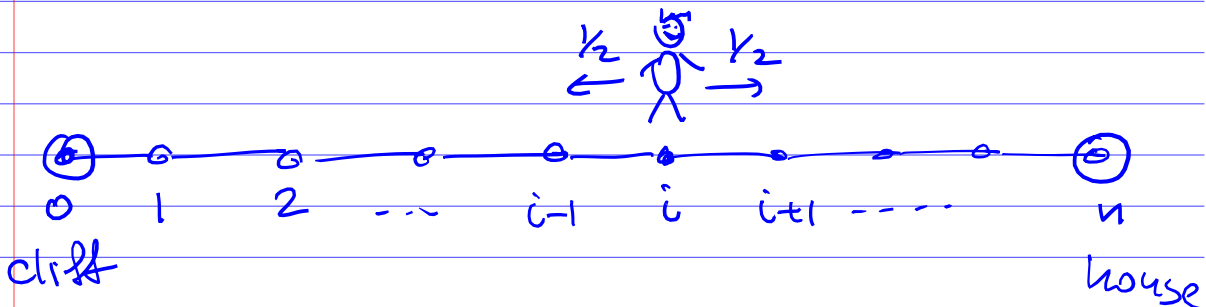
be obtained from each other by

a sequence of

- Υ - Δ transforms
-
-

Random Walks on Graphs

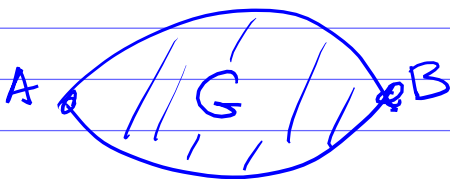
Example (Drunkard's walk, see Lecture 2)



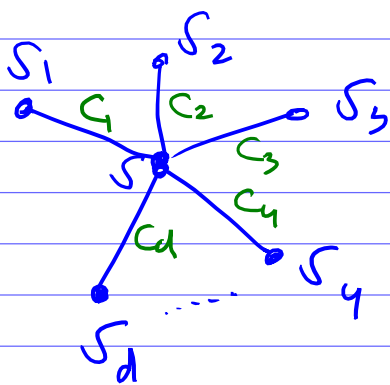
We start at vertex i and walk randomly until we reach vertex 0 or vertex n . If we reach n first, we win; if we reach 0 then we lose.

$$\text{Prob} \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{start at } i \\ \text{and win} \end{array} \right) = \frac{i}{n}$$

Let's generalize this to any finite graph G with edge weights $c_e > 0$ and two marked vertices A & B



Random walk on G



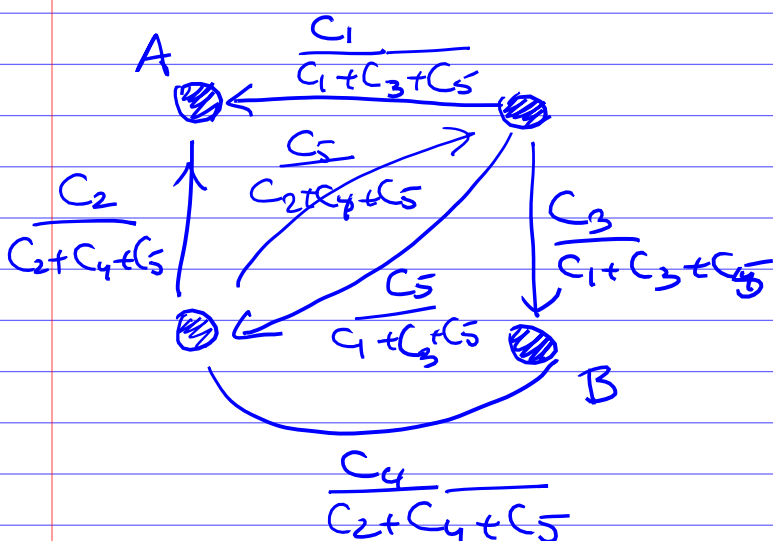
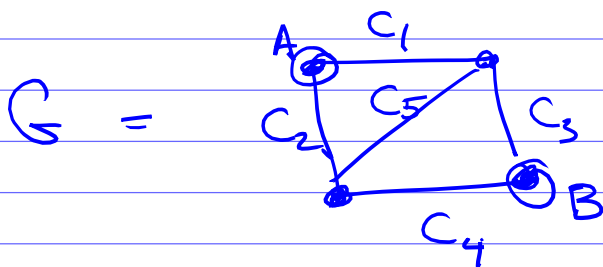
At each step we go from a vertex v to one of its neighbors v_i ($i=1, \dots, d=\deg(v)$) with probability

$$\frac{c_i}{c_1 + \dots + c_d}$$

We stop when we reach vertex A or vertex B .

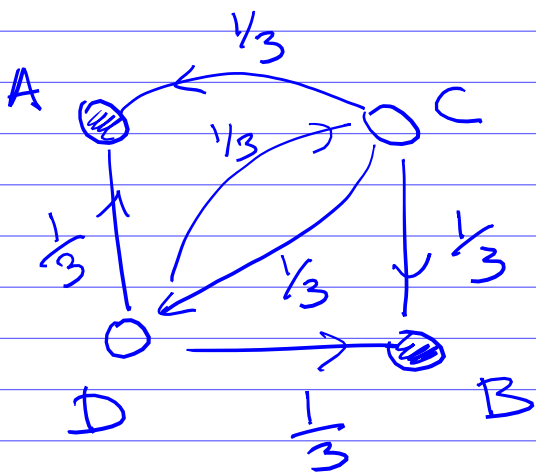
We win if we reach B and we lose if we reach A .

Example



Let $p(v)$ = the probability that a random walk starting at vertex v reaches B (before reaching A)

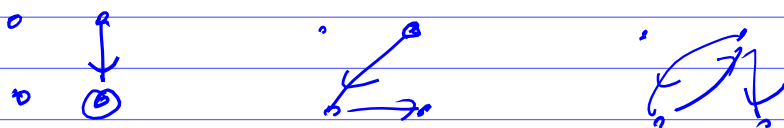
Example (same as before
with all $C_e = 1$.)



$$P(A) = 0, \quad P(B) = 1$$

$$P(C) = P(D) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} + \dots$$



$$= \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} \right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

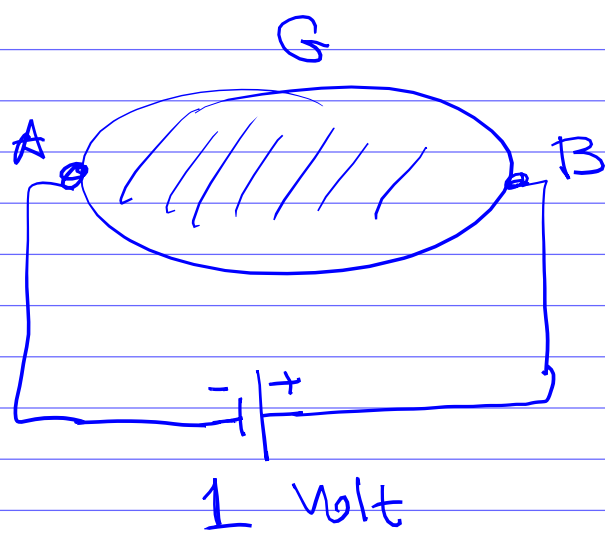
In general, $P(A) = 0$
 $P(B) = 1$ and
 $0 \leq P(S) \leq 1$ for any
vertex S .

Interpretation of this random walk on G in terms of electrical network

Let's view G as an electrical network with resistances

$$R_e = \frac{1}{C_e}$$

Connect vertices A & B to the battery with voltage = 1 (volt)



Let $\mathcal{J} \mapsto U_{\mathcal{J}}$ be the resulting potential function on vertices \mathcal{J} of G .

$$U_A = 0, \quad U_B = 1$$

$$0 \leq U_{\mathcal{J}} \leq 1 \quad \forall \text{ vertex } \mathcal{J}.$$

Theorem

$$\text{Prob}(\mathcal{J}) = U_{\mathcal{J}}.$$

the probability to
a random walk starting
at \mathcal{J} reaches B
before reaching A

the potential
of vertex \mathcal{J}
in the electrical
network

Proof. In last lecture, we've seen that the potential can be found by solving the system of linear equations with Kirchhoff's matrix K (same as Laplacian matrix L).

$$(*) \quad K \begin{bmatrix} U_1 \\ U_2 \\ \vdots \\ U_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -I \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ I \end{bmatrix}$$

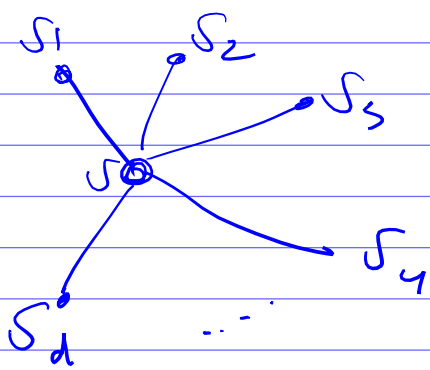
$$U_1 = 0, \quad U_n = 1$$

Unknowns: U_2, \dots, U_{n-1}, I

(Here G has vertices $1, \dots, n$;
 $A = 1$ and $B = n$.)

Let's show that the probabilities $p_v = \text{prob}(J)$ satisfy the same system $(*)$ of linear equations.

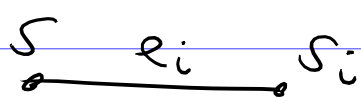
Indeed



$v \neq A, B$

$d = \deg(v)$, v_1, \dots, v_d all neighbors of v .

e_1, \dots, e_d edges adjacent to v



$$p_v = \sum_{i=1}^d \frac{c_{e_i}}{c_{e_1} + \dots + c_{e_d}} \cdot p_{v_i}$$

or, equivalently,

$$(c_{e_1} + \dots + c_{e_d}) p_v + \sum_{i=1}^d (-c_{e_i}) p_{v_i} = 0$$

a diagonal entry of Kirchhoff's (Laplacian) matrix K

an off diagonal entry of K

In matrix form we get

$$K \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -I \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ I \end{bmatrix}$$

$$p_1 = 0, \quad p_n = 1$$

unknowns: p_2, \dots, p_{n-1}, I

(Here we assume that $A=1$ and $B=n$.)

This is exactly the same linear system as (*).

So $p_v = U_v$ for any vertex v . \square

Exercise. Two people

Alice & Bob play the following game:

There are 6 cards labelled $1, 2, \dots, 6$.

Initially, Alice has k cards and Bob has the remaining $6 - k$ cards.

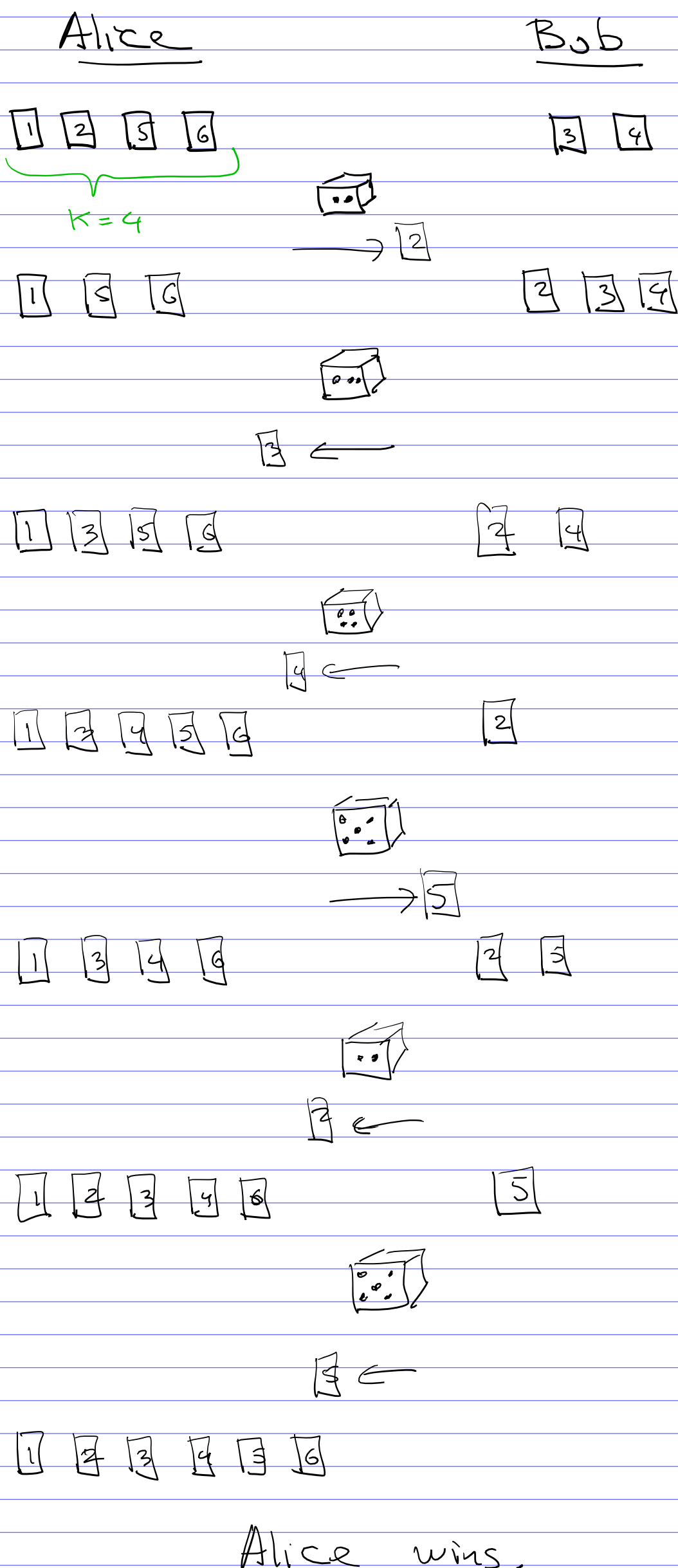
Each turn they roll a dice which randomly (and uniformly) generates a number $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, 6\}$.

Then the person who has the i th card gives this card to the opponent.

The game continues until one person collects all 6 cards and wins the game.

Find the probability that Alice wins the game.

Example



Alice wins.

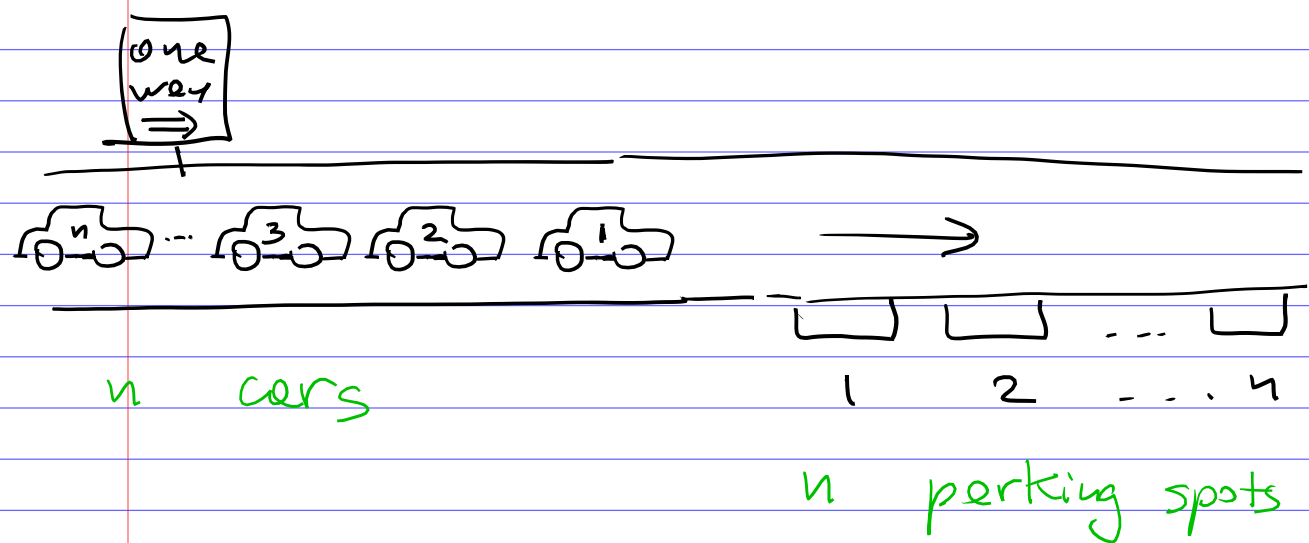
More on Cayley's formula

spanning trees in $K_n = n^{n-2}$

Other interpretations of the number n^{n-2} (or $(n+1)^{n-1}$)

Parking functions:

- n cars & n parking spots on a one way road.



Each driver prefers some parking spot. Let $f_i \in [n]$ be the favorite parking spot of the driver of the i^{th} car.

Each car goes directly to its favorite spot f_i .

If the spot is empty, the car parks there. Otherwise it keeps driving and takes the first available spot.

(f_1, \dots, f_n) is called a parking function if all n cars can park.

Example $n=3$

parking functions:

$(1, 2, 3)$ & all other permutations
of $1, 2, 3$

$(1, 1, 2)$, $(1, 1, 3)$, $(1, 2, 2)$
permutations.

$(1, 1, 1)$

Not parking functions:

$(1, 3, 3)$, $(2, 2, 2)$, $(2, 2, 3)$

$(2, 3, 3)$, $(3, 3, 3)$

parking functions

$$6 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 1 = 16.$$

Theorem # parking functions
for n cars is $(n+1)^{n-1}$.

Exercise Find a bijection
between parking functions for
 n cars and spanning trees
in K_{n+1} .

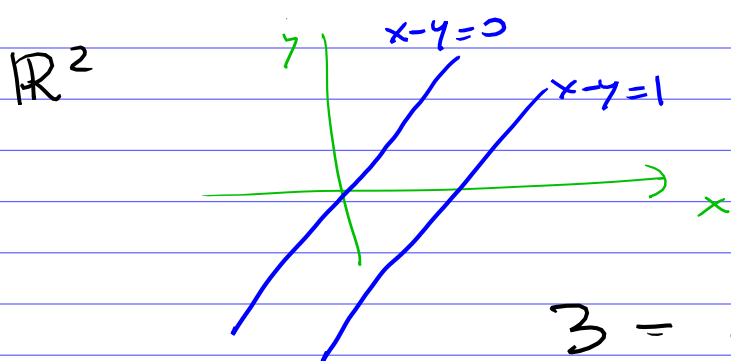
Shi hyperplane arrangement

$2 \binom{n}{2}$ hyperplanes in \mathbb{R}^n
given by the equations

$$\begin{aligned}x_i - x_j &= 0 \\x_i - x_j &= 1\end{aligned}\quad \text{for } 1 \leq i < j \leq n$$

Theorem These hyperplanes
subdivide \mathbb{R}^n into $(n+1)^{n-1}$
regions.

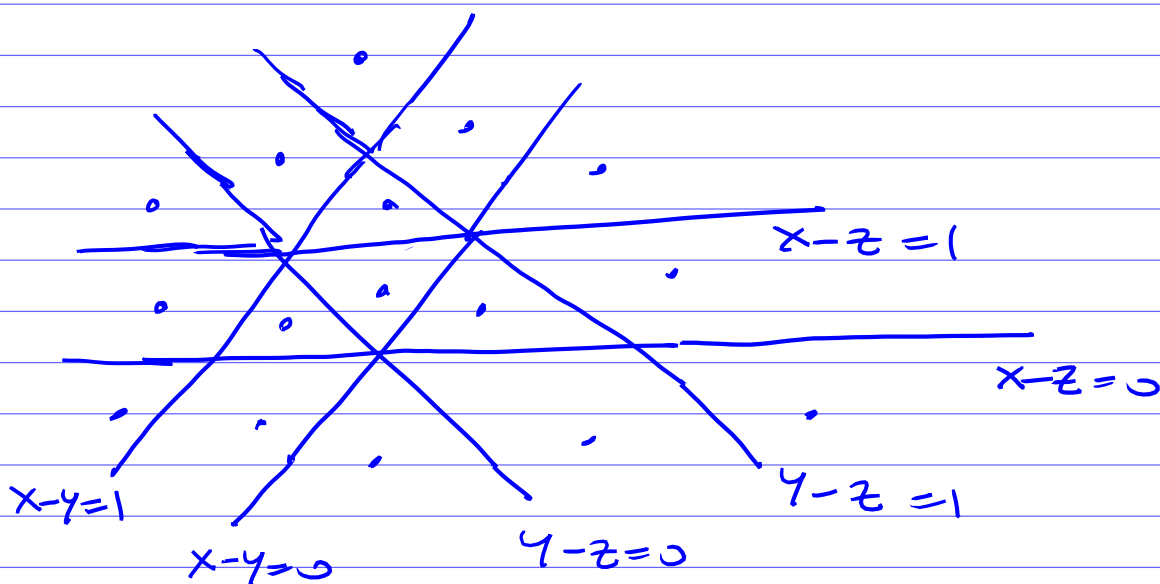
Examples: $n=2$



$$3 = (2+1)^{2-1}$$

regions

$n=3$ we'll draw 2-dim
sections of \mathbb{R}^3 by the
hyperplane $x+y+z=0$



$$16 = (3+1)^{3-1}$$

regions.

The permutahedron

Π_n = the convex hull
of $n!$ points

$(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for
all permutations w_1, \dots, w_n

Π_n is an $(n-1)$ dimensional
polytope in \mathbb{R}^n ,
because it lies in the
hyperplane $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = \text{const.}$

Let $\Pi'_n = p(\Pi_n) \subset \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ be
the projection of Π_n under

$$p: (x_1, \dots, x_n) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}).$$

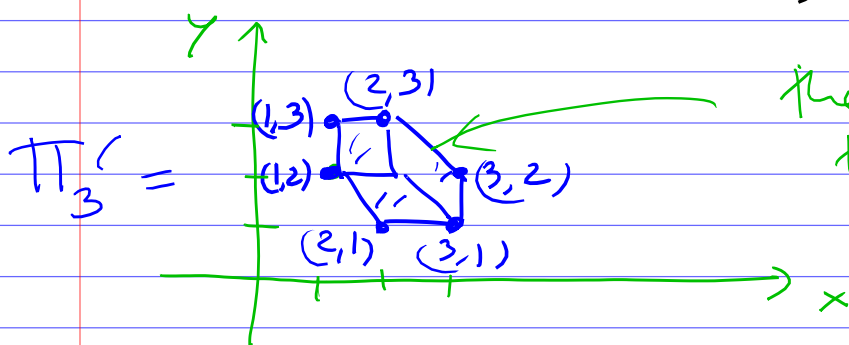
Theorem. $\text{Vol}_{n-1}(\Pi'_n) = n^{n-2}$

Example $n=3$

Π_3 is the convex hull of
6 points:

$(1, 2, 3), (1, 3, 2), \dots, (3, 2, 1)$

projecting onto \mathbb{R}^2 , we get



the area of
this hexagon
is $3 = (2+1)^{2-1}$.