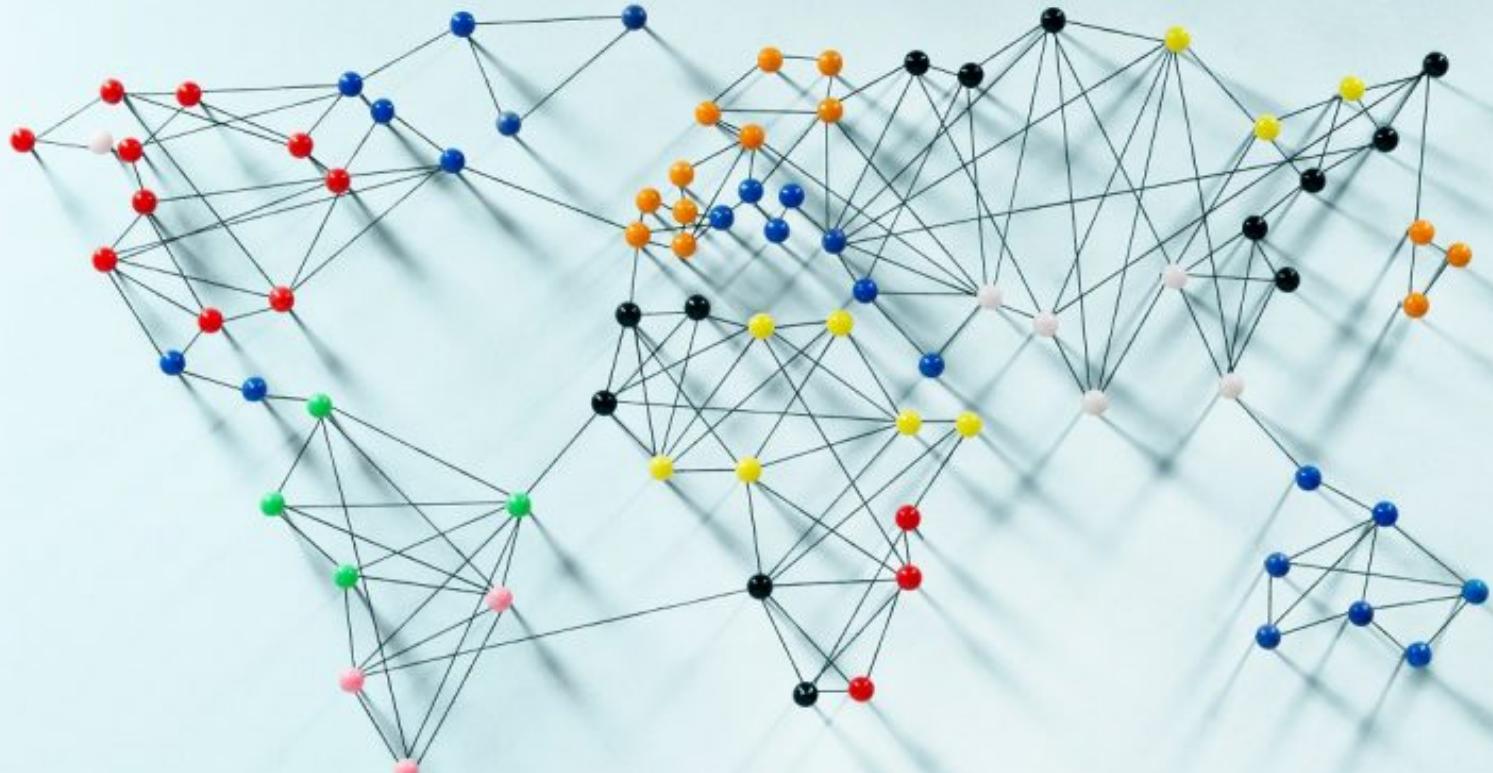


Graph Theory and Algorithms

An Introduction to the world of Graphs



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Preface

Preface

About the project

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About the report

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References and Acknowledgement

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MIT 6.042J

About it

Lecture 6: Graph Theory and Coloring

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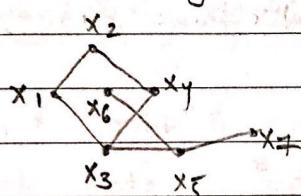
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L-6

Graphs are ^{incredibly} very useful structures in computer science. They come up in all sorts of applications, scheduling, optimization, communications, the design and analysis of algorithms.

⇒ Informally, a graph is just a bunch of dots and lines connecting the dots.



⇒ A graph G is a pair of sets (V, E) where

- V is a non-empty set of items called vertices or nodes
- E is a set of 2-item subsets of V called edges. (can be empty set). $\Rightarrow E = \emptyset$

$$V = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6, x_7\}$$

$$E = \{ (x_1, x_2), (x_2, x_4), (x_4, x_5), (x_3, x_1) \\ (x_5, x_6), (x_3, x_5), (x_5, x_7) \}$$

equivalent

to $x_1 - x_2$

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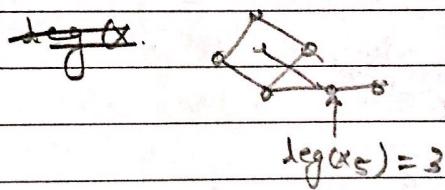
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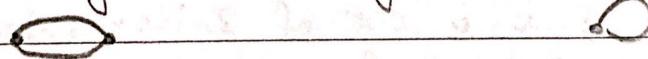
\Rightarrow Two nodes x_i & x_j are adjacent if they're connected by an edge i.e. $x_i - x_j \in E$

\Rightarrow An edge $e = (x_i, x_j)$ is said to be incident to its end-points x_i & x_j .

\Rightarrow The number of edges incident to a node is called the degree of the node.



\Rightarrow Graph is simple if it has no loops or multiples edges (multi-edge).



$|V| \rightarrow$ cardinality notation
i.e. no. of elements in set V.

Men-Women partners ratio

Lecture 6: Graph Theory and Coloring

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6.041 6.002

6.042

6.003

6.034

Slots

5-7

7-9

9-11

11-1

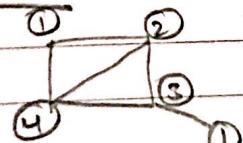
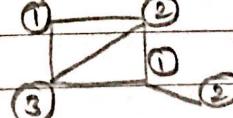
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Graph-coloring problem

Given a graph G and K colors, assign a color to each node so adjacent nodes get different colors.

Minimum value of K for which such a coloring exists is the Chromatic Number of G
 $\chi(G)$

→ Color \Rightarrow Slots
 Nodes \Rightarrow Courses

Option 1Option 2

$$\chi(G) = 3$$

2 colors can't work because of triangle formation

Lecture 6: Graph Theory and Coloring

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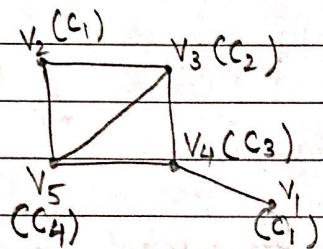
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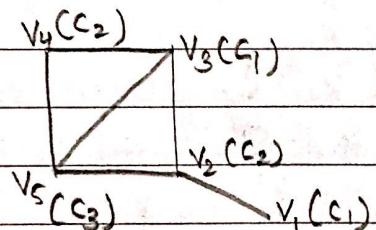
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Basic graph coloring algorithm

1. Order the nodes v_1, \dots, v_n
2. Order the colors c_1, \dots
3. For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
4. Assign the lowest legal color to v_i



We know this is not best case.



So, if you change the ordering, you may get a better answer.

Now this algorithm is an example of what's known as greedy algorithm.

You just go one step after the next, taking the best you can do at each step. You never go back and try to make things better.

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Thm. If every node in G has degree $\leq d$, then this basic algorithm uses atmost $d+1$ colors for G .

Proof By induction,

Induction hypothesis:

//Never induct on d , induct on b^d or e^d

Predicate "If every node in n -node graph G with max. degree d
 \downarrow
 $P(n)$ = then this basic algorithm uses atmost $d+1$ colors
 for G ."

Base case:

$$n=1 \Rightarrow |E|=0 \Rightarrow d=0 \Rightarrow \text{one color}$$

$\therefore P(1)$ is true

Ind. step: Assume $P(n)$ is true

Let G be any $n+1$ node graph.

Let d be the max. degree. of nodes in G

Order the nodes: v_1, \dots, v_n, v_{n+1}

Let G' be the graph after removing v_{n+1}

max. degree of nodes in $G' \leq d$

\therefore Basic algorithm uses atmost $d+1$ colors
 for G' .

Lecture 6: Graph Theory and Coloring

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In G , color nodes v_1, \dots, v_n same as G' .
 v_{n+1} has atmost d neighbours therefore
atleast one color is not present in
 v_{n+1} 's neighbours.
∴ Give v_{n+1} that color.

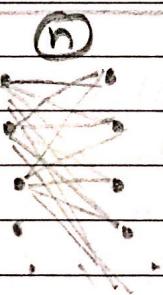
∴ $P(n+1)$ is true

$K_n \rightarrow$ n-node complete graph (or clique)



$$\text{Degree} = n-1$$

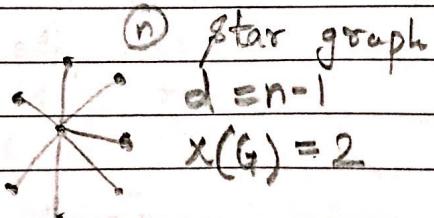
$$\chi(K_n) = n$$



Bipartite graph

$$d = n/2$$

$$\chi(G) = 2$$



(n) star graph

$$d = n-1$$

$$\chi(G) = 2$$

The Algorithm may be much better than the theorem

Lecture 6: Graph Theory and Coloring

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Good ordering - (2 colors)

(C ₁) V ₁	• V ₅ (C ₂)
(C ₁) V ₃	• V ₆ (C ₂)
(C ₂) V ₂	• V ₇ (C ₂)
(C ₁) V ₄	• V ₈ (C ₂)

Bad ordering ($\lceil n/2 \rceil$ colors)

(C ₁) V ₁	• V ₂ (C ₂)
(C ₂) V ₃	• V ₄ (C ₃)
(C ₃) V ₅	• V ₆ (C ₃)
(C ₄) V ₇	• V ₈ (C ₅)

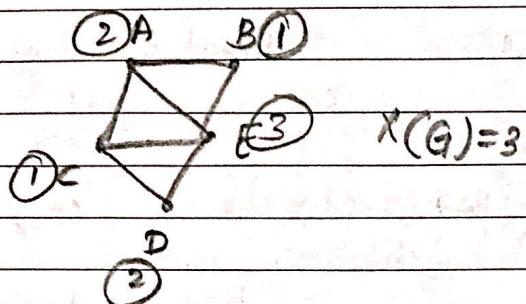
A graph $G = (V, E)$ is said to be bipartite if V can be split into V_L, V_R so that all the edges connect V_L to V_R .

Lecture 7: Matching Problems

resource allocation problems (load balancing + traffic on internet)
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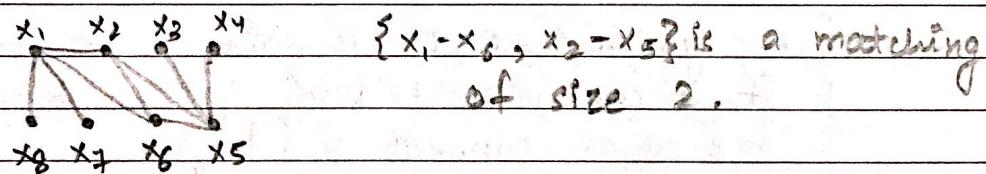
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Matching algorithm - usage: online dating agencies, assignments problems (matching interns to hospitals on Match day)

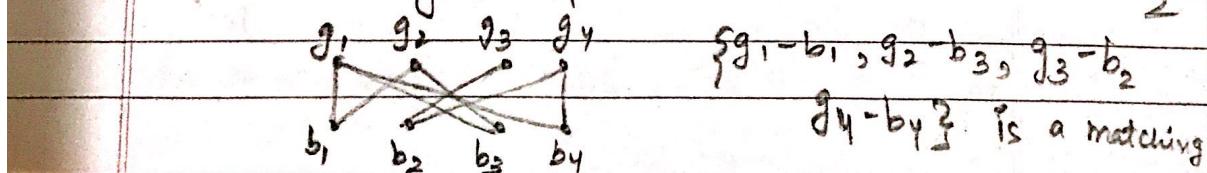
L-7 \Rightarrow Given a graph $G = (V, E)$, a matching is a subgraph of G where every node has degree 1.



$\{x_1-x_7, x_2-x_6, x_3-x_5\}$ is a matching of size 3.

Size 4 matching is not possible in this graph.

\Rightarrow A matching is perfect if it has size $\frac{|V|}{2}$



Lecture 7: Matching Problems

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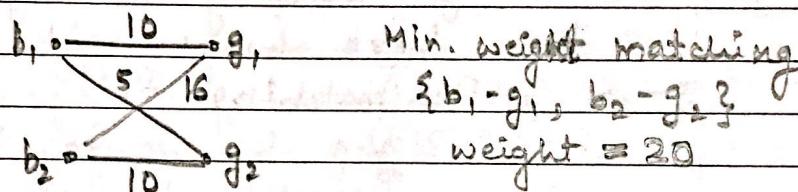
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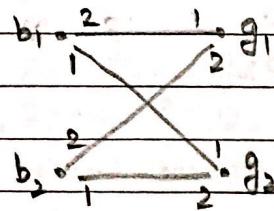
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Weights?

- ⇒ The weight of a matching (M) is the sum of the weights on the edge of M .
- ⇒ A minimum weight matching for graph G is a perfect matching for G with the minimum weight.



Preference list - similar to weights

If b_1-g_1, b_2-g_2 , then b_1-g_2 will be rogue couple.Given a matching M , $x \& y$ form rogue couple if they prefer each other to their mates in M .

A matching is stable if there aren't any rogue couple.

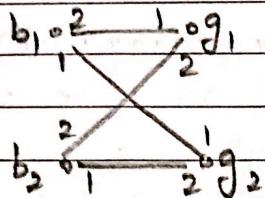
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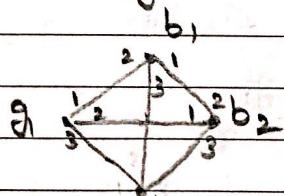
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$b_1-g_2 \wedge b_2-g_1$
is stable matching

If $b-g$ matching is only allowed
then there always exist a stable
perfect matching.

If $b-b$ & $g-g$ is allowed, it may not
always possible to find stable perfect
matching.



g_2 (Preference doesn't matter)

Theorem: There is no stable perfect matching

Proof: By contradiction,

If there is a stable matching,
 g_2 would be paired to someone
without loss of generality (by symmetry)
(the triangle is symmetric)
 $\{g_2-b_2, g_1-b_1\} \Rightarrow b_1, b_2$ form tongue couple.

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1962

David Lloyd

Gale-Shapley Algo

- N boys & N girls
- each boy has his own ranked list of all the girls. Same for each girl
- to find stable perfect matching.

Eg:- 5 boys & 5 girls

①	CBEAD	① A 35214
②	ABECD	② B 52143
③	DCBAE	③ C 43512
④	ACDBE	④ D 12345
⑤	ABDEC	⑤ E 23415

Using greedy algorithm,

1-C, 2-A, 3-D, 4-B, 5-E

Rogue Couple : 4-C

Using mating algorithm,
serenaders

Girls	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	
① CBEAD	A 245	5	5	5	A-5
② BECDA	B	2	21	2	B-2
③ DCBAE	C 1	4	4	4	C-4
④ ACDBE	D 3	3	3	3	D-3
⑤ ABDEC	E			1	E-1

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Need to show:

- ① Algorithm terminates (Matching returned)
- ② Everyone gets matched (Perfect matching)
- ③ No rogue couple (Stable matching)
- ④ It runs quickly
- ⑤ Fairness

Theorem 1 Algo terminates in less than N^2+1 daysProof

By contradiction.

Suppose, algo doesn't terminate in N^2+1 days.

Claim: If we don't terminate on a day,
 then atleast one girl had more than
 one boy and so she rejected atleast
 one boy who crosses her name.

If the algo doesn't terminate in N^2+1 days
 then atleast N^2+1 cross-outs have happened.

As there are N^2 names on N lists, there
 are atmost N^2 cross-outs. ($< N^2+1$)

Thus, not possible.

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Predicate $P =$ "If a girl G ever rejected a boy B , then G has a suitor who she prefers to B ".

Lemma 1 : P is an invariant for the algo

Proof: Base case: By induction on number of days.

Base case: Day 0 (Vacuously true)

(No one rejected yet)

Ind step: P holds at the end of Day d .

Case 1 G rejects B on day $d+1$.

Then there was a better boy

$\Rightarrow P$ holds on Day $d+1$

Case 2 G rejected B before day $d+1$

P on day $d \Rightarrow G$ had a better boy on day d .

$\Rightarrow P$ holds on Day $d+1$.

Theorem 2 Everyone is married in Algo

Proof By contradiction

Assume that some boy B is not married,

then he was rejected by every girl.

\Rightarrow every girl by Lemma 1 has a better suitor

\Rightarrow every girl is married \Rightarrow every boy is married $\Rightarrow B$ is married.

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Theorem 3 Algo produces a stable matching (No rogue couple)

Proof

Let B & G be any pair that are not married.

To prove: B & G aren't rogue.

Case 1 G rejected B

⇒ G has a better suitor than B (Lemma 1)

⇒ G married someone whom she prefers over B.

⇒ G is not rogue with B.

Case 2 G didn't reject B

⇒ B never serenaded G

⇒ G is lower in order than B's spouse.

⇒ B is not rogue with G

∴ No rogue couples.

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Let S be the set of all stable matching
 $S \neq \emptyset$ as algo produces one stable matching.

For each person P , we define the realm of possibility for P to be $\{Q | \exists M \in S \{P, Q\} \in M\}$

A person's optimal mate is his/her favorite from the realm of possibility.

A person's pessimal mate is his/her least favorite from the realm of possibility.

Theorem 4 Algo marries every boy with his optimal mate.

Proof —

Theorem 5 Algo marries every girl with her pessimal mate.

Proof —

TMA → The Marriage Algorithm

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- L-8
- Walks & Paths
 - Connectivity
 - Cycles & Closed walk
 - Spanning Tree (ST)
 - Min-weight spanning tree (MST)

Walks & Paths

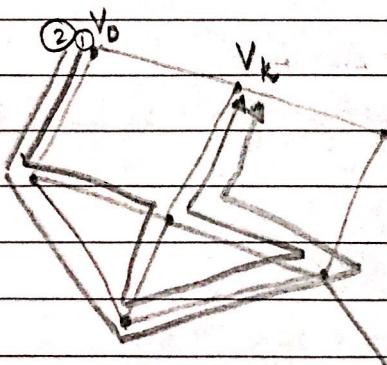
⇒ A walk is a sequence of vertices that are connected by edges

Eg:- $v_0 - v_1 - \dots - v_k$

Start

end

It has k -edges of length $= k$



① → walk, not path

② → walk, and path

⇒ A path is a walk where all v_i 's are distinct

Lecture 8: Graph Theory II: Minimum Spanning Trees

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Lemma 1 If I walk from u to v , then I path from u to v .

ProofI walk u to v .

By well-ordering principle: walk of minimal length.

$$u = v_0 - v_1 - \dots - v_k = v$$

We prove that this walk (of minimal length) is a path.

Case $k=0$ No edge length = 0

Case $k=1$ Just one edge length = 1

Case $k \geq 2$

Suppose this walk is not a path

then $i \neq j$ $v_i = v_j$

$$u = v_0 - \dots - v_i = v_j - \dots - v_k$$

Now this a shorter walk

thus contradicting our assumption.

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Connectivity

- \Rightarrow u and v are connected if there is a path from u to v .
- \Rightarrow A graph $G = (V, E)$ is connected if every pair of vertices $(v_1, v_2) \in V \times V$ are connected.

Not connected graph



Connected graph

Cycles & Closed walks

(also known as loops)

- \Rightarrow A closed walk is a walk starts and ends at exactly same vertex.

$$v_0 - v_1 - \dots - v_k = v_0$$

a closed walk with and

- \Rightarrow If $k \geq 3$, if all v_0, \dots, v_{k-1} are distinct then it is called a cycle

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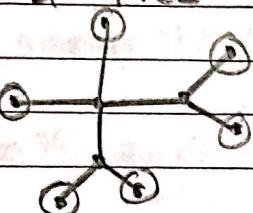
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Trees

⇒ A connected and acyclic graph is called a tree.

⇒ A leaf is a node with degree = 1 in a tree.



Lemma 2 Any connected subgraph of a tree is a tree.

Proof By contradiction,
if the connected subgraph is not a tree
then it must have a cycle.

As the subgraph is a part of a graph,
the graph must have a cycle.

But the graph is a tree.

We get a contradiction. ■

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Lemma 3 A tree with n vertices has $n-1$ edges.

Proof By Induction

P(n) Ind. Hypo. : $P(n)$ "There are $n-1$ edges in an n -vertex tree"

Base case: $P(1)$ is true. \textcircled{O}

Ind. step: Assume that $P(n)$ is true

Let T be an $(n+1)$ -vertex tree,

Let v be a leaf of the tree

Delete v ; this creates a connected subgraph
(which is also a tree (Lemma))

By $P(n)$: this subgraph has $n-1$ edges.

Re-attach v ; T has $(n-1)+1=n$ edges
(degree of $v=1$)

$P(n+1)$ is true



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Spanning Trees

→ A spanning tree (ST) of a connected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a subgraph that is a tree with same vertices as the graph.

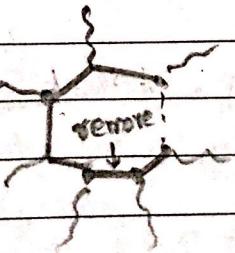
Theorem Every connected graph has a ST.

Proof By contradiction.

Assume a connected graph G with no ST.

Let T be a connected subgraph of G and has same vertices as G and has minimum number of edges.

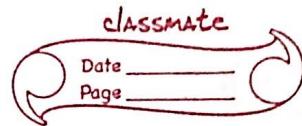
As T is not a spanning tree, it must have atleast one cycle.



if we remove one edge of the cycle, we still have a connected subgraph.

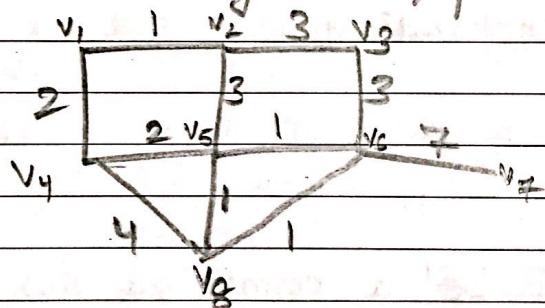
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Subgraph we obtain is smaller than T
(w.r.t. number of edges)
thus contradicting our minimum condition on T.

minimum-weighted spanning tree



$$ST_1 = \{v_1 - v_4, v_4 - v_5, v_5 - v_2, v_5 - v_6, v_6 - v_3, v_6 - v_7, v_5 - v_8\}$$

$$\text{Weight of } ST_1 = 2 + 2 + 3 + 1 + 3 + 7 + 1 = 19$$

$$ST_2 = \{v_1 - v_2, v_1 - v_4, v_4 - v_5, v_5 - v_6, v_6 - v_3, v_6 - v_7, v_5 - v_8\}$$

$$\text{Weight of } ST_2 = 1 + 2 + 2 + 1 + 3 + 7 + 1 = 17$$

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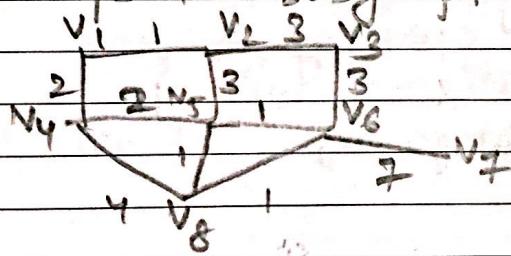
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⇒ The minimum spanning tree (MST) of an edge-weighted graph is defined as the ST of G with the smallest possible sum of edge-weights.

Algo

- Grow a subgraph one edge at a time, such that at each step:
- Add the minimum weighted edge keeps the subgraph acyclic.



$$+1 \quad ① \quad v_6 - v_8$$

$$+1 \quad ② \quad v_1 - v_2$$

$$+1 \quad ③ \quad v_5 - v_6 \Rightarrow v_5 - v_8 \text{ } \times$$

$$+2 \quad ④ \quad v_1 - v_4$$

$$+2 \quad ⑤ \quad v_4 - v_5 \Rightarrow v_4 - v_8 \text{ } \times, v_2 - v_5 \text{ } \times$$

$$+3 \quad ⑥ \quad v_2 - v_3 \Rightarrow v_3 - v_8 \text{ } \times$$

$$+2 \quad ⑦ \quad v_6 - v_7$$

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Theorem For any connected weighted graph G , the algo produces a MST.

Lemma Let S consists of first k -edges, by the algo, then \exists MST $T = (V, E)$ for G such that $S \subseteq E$

Proof (Assumed lemma is true)

Graph $G = (V, E)$
 $|V| = n$

1) Suppose $< n-1$ edges are picked, then \exists edge in $E - S$ that can be added without creating a cycle.

2) Once $n-1$ edges are ^{picked}, we know S is an MST.

Proof By Induction:

$P(m) = \# G \# S$ consisting of first m selected edges \exists MST of G such that $S \subseteq E$.
 $T = (V, E)$

Base Case: $m = 0 \Rightarrow S = \emptyset \subseteq E$ for any MST.
 $T = (V, E)$

Assume $P(m)$ holds

Ind. Step: Let e denote the $(m+1)$ -th selected edge.
 Let S denote the first m selected edges.

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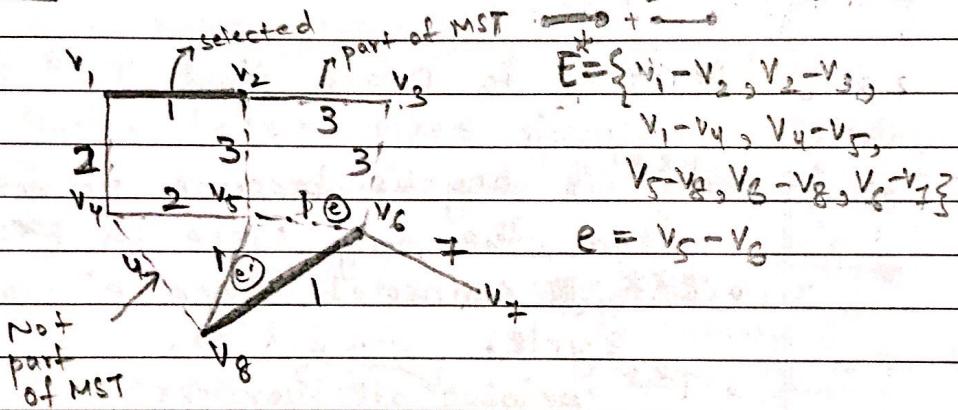
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Let $T^* = (V, E^*)$ be MST of G such that
 $S \subseteq E^*$

Case 1: $e \in E^* \Rightarrow S \cup \{e\} \subseteq E^* \Rightarrow P(m+1)$ holds

Case 2 $e \notin E^*$



From the algo,

$\{$ Algo $\rightarrow S \cup \{e\}$ has no cycle

(This is how we choose $(m+1)^{\text{th}}$ edge)

T^* is a tree $\Rightarrow (V, E^* \cup \{e\})$ must contain
 $= (V, E^*)$ a cycle. (Proof in book)

→ this cycle has edge $e' \in E^* - S$

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Algo could have selected e or e'
 \Rightarrow weight of $e \leq$ weight of e' .

Swap e and e' in T^* :

Let $T^{**} = (V, E^{**}) : E^{**} = (E^* - \{e'\}) \cup \{e\}$

We need to prove that T^{**} is an MST.

- T^{**} is acyclic because we removed e' from the only cycle in $E^* \cup \{e\}$.
- T^{**} is connected since e' was on a cycle.
- T^{**} contains all vertices of G

$\Rightarrow T^{**}$ is ST of G .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{weight of } T^{**} &= \text{weighted sum of } E^{**} \\ &= \text{Weighted sum of } E^* - \text{weight of } e' \\ &\quad + \text{weight of } e \\ &= \text{Weight sum of } T^* - \text{weight of } e' \\ &\quad + \text{weight of } e\end{aligned}$$

As weight of $e \leq$ weight of e'

Weight of $T^{**} \leq$ weight of T^*

And as T^* is MST, equality holds & T^{**} is also MST. \square

Lecture 9: Communication Networks

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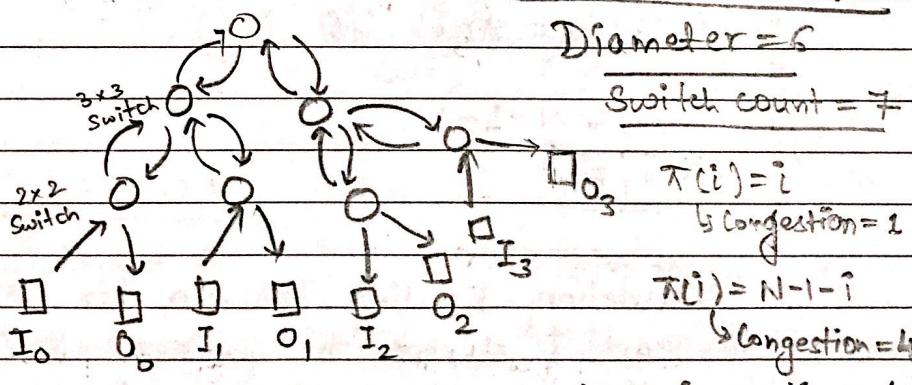
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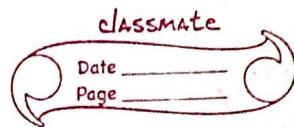
L-9Communication Networks1-10

- great application of graph theory
- how do you route packets through networks

 $N \times N$ Networks ($N = 2^k$)Complete Binary Tree \circ = switch (direct packets through a network) \square = terminal (source and destination of data)4x4 Network $N \times N$ NetworkDiameter = $2(1 + \log_2 N)$ Max. Switch size = 3×3 Switch count = $2N - 1$ Max Congestion = N

Lecture 9: Communication Networks

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Latency: Time that is required for a packet to travel from an input to an output.

Diameter: Length of the shortest path of a network b/w Input and Output that are farthest apart
(Maximum length of shortest path)

A permutation is a function $\pi: \{0, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ such that no two numbers are mapped to the same value
 $(\pi(i) = \pi(j) \text{ iff } i=j)$

$$\text{Eg: } \begin{aligned} \pi(i) &= n-1-i \\ \pi(i) &= i \end{aligned}$$

Permutation Routing Problem for π

- For each i direct the packet at I_i to $O_{\pi(i)}$
path taken is denoted by $P_{i,\pi(i)}$

The congestion of paths $P_{0,\pi(0)}, \dots, P_{n-1,\pi(n-1)}$ is equal to the largest number of paths that pass through a single switch.

Max congestion = max possible value of congestion. (over permutations with best path)

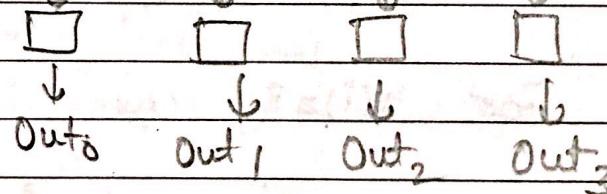
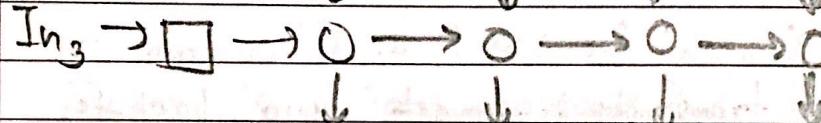
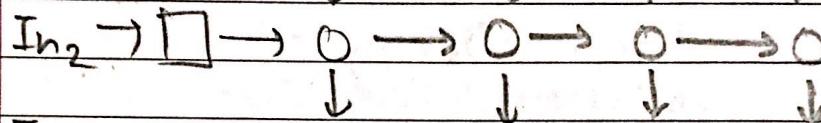
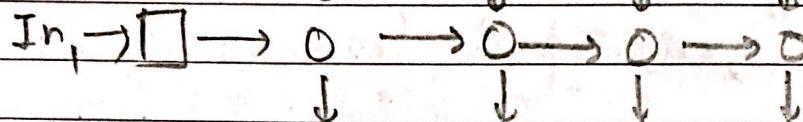
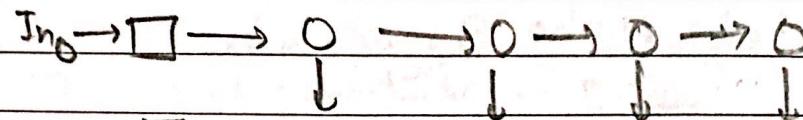
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2D Arrays (Grid structure)4x4 Network

Diameter = 8

Max. switch size = 2×2

No. of switches = 16

Max. Congestion = 2

 $N \times N$ NetworkDiameter = $2N$ Max. switch size = 2×2 No. of switches = N^2

Max. Congestion = 2

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Theorem ~~*Congestion~~ of an N -input array is 2.

Proof Let π be a permutation.

$P_{i,\pi(i)}$ = path from In_i rightward to column $\pi(i)$ and downward to $Out_{\pi(i)}$.

Switch in row i and column $\pi(i)$ ~~switch~~ transmits almost two packets.

For $\pi(i)=i$, Congestion = 2

□

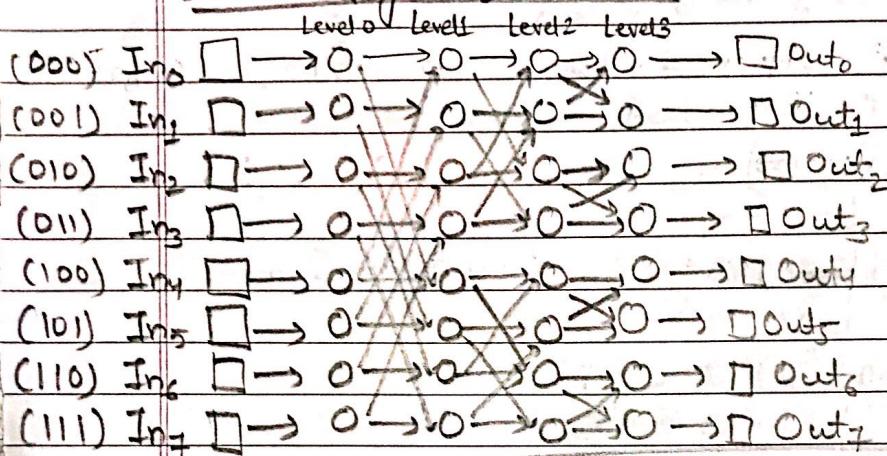
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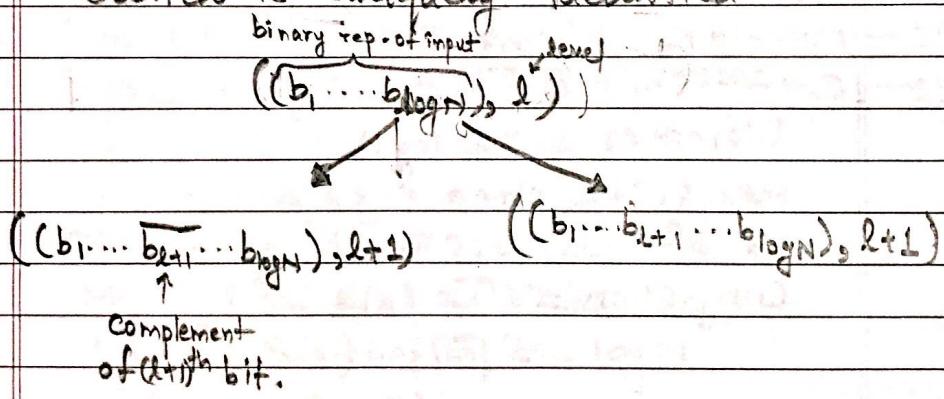
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Butterfly Structure

Switch is uniquely identified by its row & col



Routing

$$((x_1 \dots x_{\log N}), 0) \rightarrow ((y_1 \dots x_{\log N}), 1)$$

$$((y_1 \dots y_2 \dots x_{\log N}), 2)$$

$$((y_1 \dots y_{\log N}), \log N) \leftarrow ((y_1 \dots \overset{l}{y_2} \dots x_{\log N}), l)$$

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In3 → Out5

Eg:- 011 → 101

In3 → (011, 0)



(111, 1)



(101, 2)



Out5 ← (101, 3)

NN Network

$$\text{Diameter} = 2 + \log N$$

$$\text{Max. Switch size} = 2 \times 2$$

$$\text{No. of Switches} = N(1 + \log N)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Congestion} &= \sqrt{N} (N \cdot 2^{2n}) \\ &= \sqrt{N/2} (N \cdot 2^{2n+1}) \end{aligned}$$

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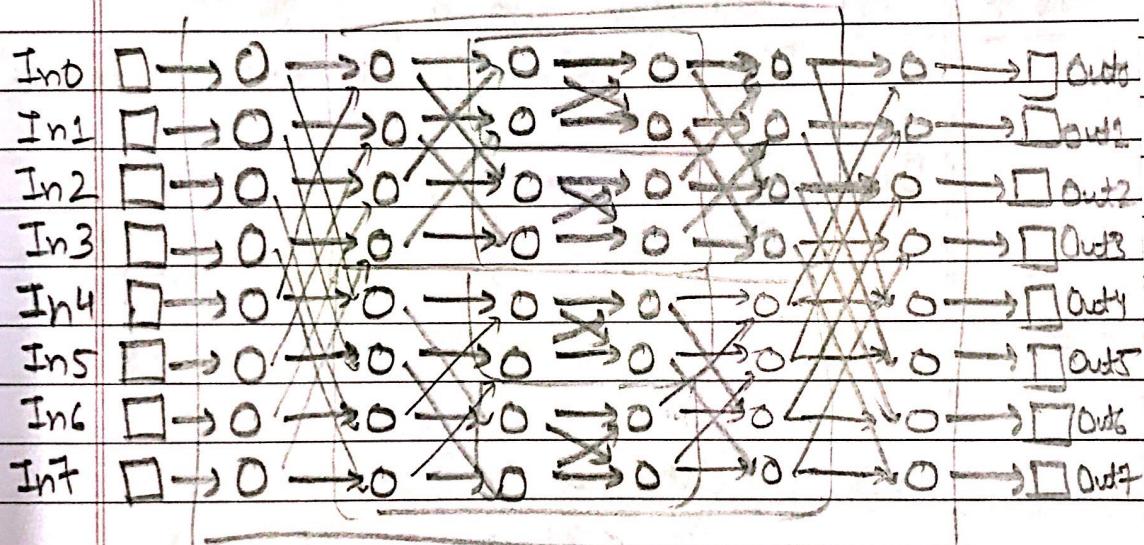
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Benes

1960s - Benes, a Bell Labs researcher

 $N \times N$ Network

$$\text{Diameter} = 1 + 2 \log N$$

$$\text{Max switch size} = 2 \times 2$$

$$\text{No of switches} = 2N \log N$$

$$\text{Congestion} = 1$$

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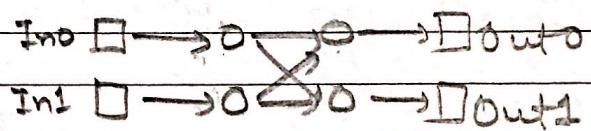
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Theorem | Congestion of N -input Benes network
 ≤ 1 , when $N = 2^a$ for some $a \geq 1$

Proof By induction on a ,
 $P(a) =$ "This theorem is true for a ".

Base case: $a=1 \quad N=2$



$$\pi(0)=0$$

$$\pi(1)=1$$

Congestion = 1

(Just straight)

$$\pi(0)=1$$

$$\pi(1)=0$$

Congestion = 1

(Just cross-over)

Ind. Step: Assume $P(a)$ is true

Example: $\pi(0)=1 \quad \pi(4)=3$

$\pi(1)=5 \quad \pi(5)=6$

$\pi(2)=4 \quad \pi(6)=0$

$\pi(3)=7 \quad \pi(7)=2$

Constraint graph

If two packets must pass through different subnetworks then there is an edge b/w them.

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Euler tours

↓
L-10

Directed graphs

- Definitions
- ~~No. of~~ # walks
- Strong connectivity
- DAGs

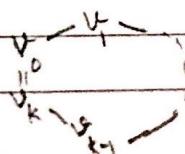
Tournament Graphs

Euler tour

- he lived in Konigsberg
- Seven bridges (birth of graph theory)

An Euler tour is a walk that traverses every edge exactly once, and starts and finishes at same vertex.

Theorem A connected graph has an Euler tour iff every vertex has even degree.

Proof (\Rightarrow)Assume $G = (V, E)$ has an Euler tour

Lecture 10: Graph Theory III

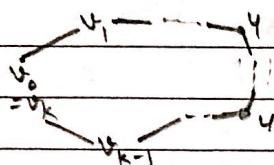
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Since every edge in E is traversed once;
 clearly $\deg(u) = (\# \text{ times } u \text{ appears in this tour } v_0 \dots v_k) \times 2$

 (\Leftarrow)

For $G = (V, E)$, assume $\deg(v)$ is even $\forall v \in V$
 let $W: v_0 - v_1 - \dots - v_k$ be the longest walk that traverses no edge more than once.

① $v_k - u$ not in $W \Rightarrow v_0 - v_1 - \dots - v_k - u$ is longer than $W \Rightarrow$ contradicts.
 \therefore All the edges $\overset{\text{int}}{\in}$ incident of v_k are traversed in W .

② $v_k \neq v_0 \Rightarrow v_k$ has odd degree in walk W
 As we have showed that all edges $\overset{\text{int}}{\in}$ of v_k are in W , so $\deg(v_k)$ is odd in G
 \Rightarrow contradicts as $\deg(v)$ is even $\forall v \in V$.

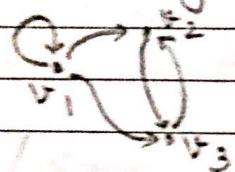
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Directed graph (digraphs)indegree (v_2) = 2outdegree (v_2) = 1

Theorem Let $G = (V, E)$ be an n -node graph with $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$. Let $A = \{a_{ij}\}$ denote the adjacency matrix for G that is

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v_i \rightarrow v_j \text{ is an edge.} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Let $p_{ij}^{(k)} = \#$ directed walks of length k from v_i to v_j .

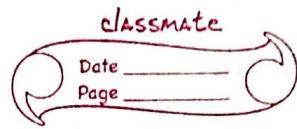
then $A^k = \{p_{ij}^{(k)}\}$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ v_1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ v_2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ v_3 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Proof $a_{ij}^{(k)}$ denote the $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$ entry in A^k

By induction:

Predicate $\rightarrow P(k) = \text{"Theorem is true for } k\text{"}$
 $= \text{"}\forall i, j \quad a_{ij}^{(k)} = p_{ij}^{(k)}\text{"}$

Base case $k=1$

Edge $v_i \rightarrow v_j : p_{ij}^{(1)} = 1 = a_{ij}^{(1)}$

No edge $v_i \rightarrow v_j : p_{ij}^{(1)} = 0 = a_{ij}^{(1)}$

$\therefore \forall i, j \quad a_{ij}^{(1)} = p_{ij}^{(1)}$

Ind. step

Assume $P(k)$ holds.

$$P_{ij}^{(k+1)} = \sum_{h: v_h \rightarrow v_j} p_{ih}^{(k)} = \sum_{h=1}^n p_{ih}^{(k)} \cdot a_{hj}^{(k)}$$

$v_i \xrightarrow{k} v_n \xrightarrow{?} v_j$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{Ind. step}} = \sum_{h=1}^n a_{ih}^{(k)} \cdot a_{hj}^{(k)}$$

$$= a_{ij}^{(k+1)} \Rightarrow P(k+1)$$

Matrix multiplication holds

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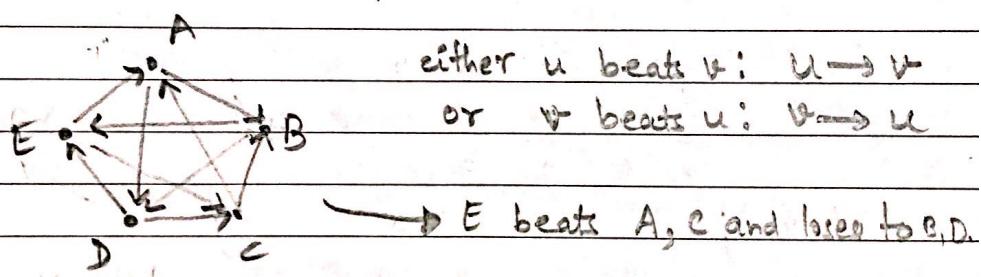
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\Rightarrow A digraph $G = (V, E)$ is called strongly connected if $\forall u, v \in V \exists$ directed path from u to v in G .

\Rightarrow A digraph is called directed acyclic graph (DAG) if it does not contain any directed cycles.

Tournament Graph

\Rightarrow A directed Hamiltonian path is a directed walk that visits every vertex exactly once.

Theorem Every tournament graph contains a directed Hamiltonian path.

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Proof By induction (on number of nodes)

$P(n)$ = "Every tournament graph on n -nodes contains a directed Ham-path."

Base case : $P(1)$ holds

Ind. step : Assume $P(n)$ holds

Consider a tournament graph on $(n+1)$ -nodes

Take out a node v . We are left with a tournament graph on n -nodes.

By $P(n)$, $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v_n$

Approach ①
If $v \rightarrow v_i$ is an edge, then $P(n+1)$ holds.
(if $v_i \rightarrow v$ and $v \rightarrow v_n$) then

Claim: $\exists i$ such that $v_i \rightarrow v$ & $v \rightarrow v_{i+1}$

Proof by contradiction

If no such i exists and we know
 $v_i \rightarrow v \not\Rightarrow$ then $v_i \rightarrow v \nexists i$ (by induction)
But $v \rightarrow v_n$ contradicts this.

There is also proof by strong induction.
See it.

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Approach ②

Case 1 $v \rightarrow v_1$

Case 2 $v_1 \rightarrow v$

Smallest i such that $v \rightarrow v_i$
 $\Rightarrow v_k \rightarrow v$ & $k < i$
 $\Rightarrow v_{i-1} \rightarrow v$

$v_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v_{i-1} \rightarrow v_i \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v_n$

directed
A new Hamiltonian path
is formed

$\therefore P(n+1)$ holds

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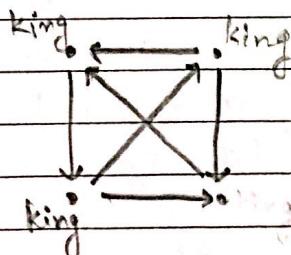
King Chicken Problem

either chicken u pecks chicken v : $u \rightarrow v$
 or chicken v pecks chicken u : $v \rightarrow u$

u "virtually" pecks v if

- $u \rightarrow v$, or
- $\exists w \ u \rightarrow w \rightarrow v$

A chicken that virtually pecks every other chicken is called king chicken.



Theorem The chicken with highest outdegree is definitely a king.

Proof

By contradiction,

Let u have highest outdegree.

Suppose u is not king

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 $\Rightarrow \exists v : v \rightarrow u, \text{ and } \nexists w : u \rightarrow w \rightarrow v \rightarrow w$
 $(\text{Outdegree of } v) \geq (\text{Outdegree of } u) + 1$

So, our assumption is false.

L-11

- Relations
- Properties
- Equivalence Relations
- Partial Orders
 - Hasse diagrams
 - Total Order
 - Topological Sort
- Parallel Task Scheduling
- Dilworth's Lemma

Relations

\Rightarrow A relation from a set A to a set B
is a subset $R \subseteq A \times B$

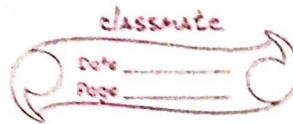
Ex :- $R = \{(a, b) : \text{student } a \text{ is taking class } b\}$

$(a, b) \in R : a R b, a \underset{\substack{\text{Relational} \\ \uparrow}}{R} b$

↑
Relational symbol

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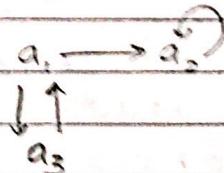
\Rightarrow Relation on A is a subset $R \subseteq A \times A$

Eg:- $A = \mathbb{Z} : xRy \text{ iff } x \equiv y \pmod{5}$

$A = \mathbb{N} : xRy \text{ iff } x | y$

$A = N : xRy \text{ iff } x \leq y$

Set A together with R is a directed graph $G = (V, E)$ with $V = A, E = R$.



Properties

A relation R on A is

* reflexive if $xRx \quad \forall x \in A$

* symmetric if $xRy \Rightarrow yRx \quad \forall x, y \in R$

* anti-symmetric if $xRy \wedge yRx \Rightarrow x = y$

* transitive if $xRy \wedge yRz \Rightarrow xRz$

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Answers

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Ex | Reflexive Symmetric Anti-Symmetric Transitive

$x \equiv y \pmod{5}$ ✓ ✓ ✗ (2, 7) / Equivalence

$x \mid y$ ✓ ✗ ✓ (1, 2) / Symmetric
Divides

$x \leq y$ ✓ ✗ ✓ (1, 2) ✓

⇒ An equivalence relation is reflexive, symmetric, transitive.

Ex! $A = \mathbb{Z} : x R y \text{ iff } x = y$

$A = \mathbb{Z} : x R y \text{ iff } x \equiv y \pmod{5}$

⇒ The equivalence class of $x \in A$ is the set of all elements in A related to x by R : denoted by $[x]$

$$[x] = \{y : x R y\}$$

Ex: $A = \mathbb{Z} : x R y \text{ iff } x \equiv y \pmod{5}$

$$[7] = \{ \dots, -3, 2, 7, 12, 17, \dots \}$$

$$[7] = [2] = [12] = [17] = \dots$$

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A partition of A is a collection of disjoint nonempty sets A_1, \dots, A_n EA whose union is A.

Ex: $A = \mathbb{Z}$: xRy iff $x \equiv y \pmod{5}$

$$A_0 = \{ \dots -5, 0, 5, \dots \}$$

$$A_1 = \{ \dots -4, 1, 6, \dots \}$$

$$A_2 = \{ \dots -3, 2, 7, \dots \}$$

$$A_3 = \{ \dots -2, 3, 8, \dots \}$$

$$A_4 = \{ \dots -1, 4, 9, \dots \}$$

Theorem

The equivalence classes of equivalence relation on a set A form a partition of A.

Partial Orders

A relation is a (weak) partial order if it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.

A relation is a (strong) partial order if it is irreflexive, antisymmetric and transitive
 (See book).

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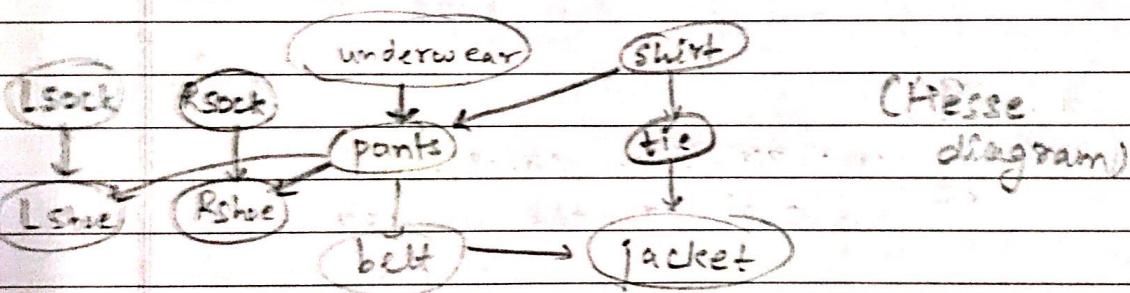
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A partial order relation is denoted by \leq instead of R .

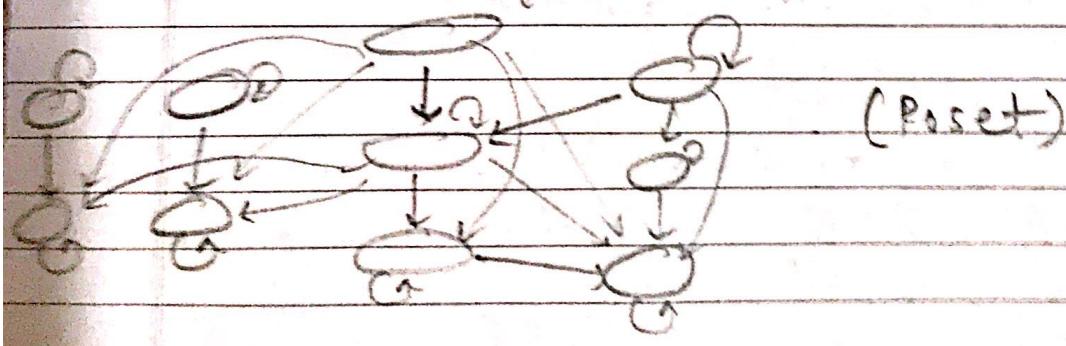
(A, \leq) is actually called partial ordered set or poset.

A poset is a directed graph with vertex set A and edge set \leq .



Transitive \Rightarrow No directed cycles

Antisymmetric \Rightarrow Only one directed edges b/w two vertices



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A Hasse diagram for a poset (A, \leq) is a directed graph with vertex set A and edge set \leq minus:

- * all self-loops, and
- * all edges implied by transitivity

Theorem A poset has no directed cycles other than self loops.

Proof By contradiction

Suppose $\exists n (\geq 2)$ distinct elements

a_1, \dots, a_n such that

$$a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots \leq a_n \leq a_1 \Rightarrow a_1 \leq a_1 \quad \text{(induction)} \quad \text{---} \quad \text{---}$$

By transitivity $\Rightarrow a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_n \Rightarrow a_1 \leq a_n \quad \text{---} \quad \text{---}$

By anti-symmetry $a_1 = a_n \quad \text{---} \quad \text{---}$

$$a_1 = a_n$$

Contradicts distinct element assumption. \blacksquare

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~~Conclusion of the theorem~~

So, deleting self-loops from a poset, makes a directed acyclic graph (DAG)

\Rightarrow a and b are incomparable if neither $a \leq b$ nor $b \leq a$.

\Rightarrow a and b are comparable if ~~not~~ $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$.

\Rightarrow A total order is a partial order in which every pair of elements is comparable.

Hesse diagram of a total order is a straight line.

A total order consistent with a partial order is called a Topological sort.

A topological of a poset (A, \leq) is a total order (A, \leq_T) such that

$$\leq \subseteq \leq_T$$

$$(x \leq y \Rightarrow x \leq_T y)$$

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Theorem Every finite poset has a topological sort.

Proof $\Rightarrow x \in A$ is minimal if there doesn't exist $y \in A : y \neq x$ such that $y \leq x$.

$\Rightarrow x \in A$ is maximal if $\forall y \in A, y \leq x$ s.t. $x \neq y$.
 not there exists

Lemma Every finite poset has a minimum element.

\Rightarrow A chain is a sequence of elements such that $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_t$ (length of chain is t). distinct

Proof Let $c = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ be the max length chain.

case 1: $a \notin \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$
 if $a \leq a_1$, then c is not the longest chain.

so, $a \nleq a_1$

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Case 2: $a \in \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$

if $a \leq a_i$, then we have
 a directed cycle which
 contradicts Theorem _____.

So, $\forall a \leq a_i$,

$\therefore \nexists a \in A \setminus \{a_i\}$
 So, by definition, a_i is the
 minimum element.

Add Parallel Task Scheduling

& Dilworth's Lemma.

L-13

(45:30)

Asymptotic Notationtilde $f(x) \sim g(x)$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1$ oh, big-oh $f(x) = O(g(x))$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| < \infty$

(finite)

Multiple usage :

Formal math way
 $f(x) \leq O(g(x))$; $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$; $f(x) \in O(g(x))$ $O(g(x))$ is a
 set of all func.
 that grow slowly than $g(x)$

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Theorem

Let $f(x) = x$, $g(x) = x^2$
 Then $f(x) \in O(g(x))$

Proof
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x^2} = 0$ which is finite
Theorem
 $x^2 \notin O(x)$
Proof
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x$ is infinite.

Q. Is $x^2 \in O(10^6 x)$ true?

A. No.

Q. Is $10^6 x^2 \in O(x^2)$ true?

A. Yes

Q. Is $x^2 + 100x + 10^7 = O(x^2)$ true?

A. Yes
Theorem $x^{10} \in O(e^x)$ Proof
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{10}}{e^x} = 0$ which is finite.
 (L'Hopital's rule)

Part of Lecture 13: Asymptotics

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Theorem

$$4^x \notin O(2^x)$$

Proof

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4^x}{2^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2^x \rightarrow \infty$$

Q. Is $10 \in O(1)$ true?

A. Yes

 $f(x) \geq O(g(x))$ is meaningless.

 omega $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| > 0$
Theorem $f(x) = O(g(x))$ iff $g(x) = \Omega(f(x))$
 $f(x) \leq O(g(x))$ iff $g(x) \geq \Omega(f(x))$

$$x^2 = \Omega(x)$$

$$2^x = \Omega(x^2)$$

$$\frac{x}{100} = \Omega(100x + 25)$$

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$\theta(f(x)) = \Theta(g(x))$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| < \infty$

Theorem $f(x) = \Theta(g(x))$ iff $f(x) = O(g(x))$ &
 $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$

$$10x^3 - 20x + 1 \in \Theta(x^3)$$

$$\frac{x}{\ln(x)} \notin \Theta(x) \quad \left| \frac{x}{\ln(x)} \in O(x) \right.$$

$T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ means T grows quadratically in n .

$$O \Rightarrow \leq$$

$$\Omega \Rightarrow \geq$$

$$\Theta \Rightarrow =$$

$$o \Rightarrow < \quad (\leq \text{ not } =)$$

$$w \Rightarrow > \quad (\geq \text{ not } =)$$

Part of Lecture 13: Asymptotics

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little oh $f(x) = o(g(x))$ iff $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| = 0$

little omega $f(x) = \omega(g(x))$ iff $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| = \infty$

$$\frac{x}{\ln(x)} \in o(x)$$

$$\frac{x}{100} \notin o(x) \quad \frac{x}{100} \in \Theta(x)$$

$$x^2 \in \omega(o)$$

what not do

example.

MIT 6.006

About it

Lecture 13: Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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L-13

Graph I : BFS

- applications of graph search
- graph representation
- BFS → Breadth-first search

Graph search

"explore" a graph

Eg:- $\textcircled{S} \rightsquigarrow \textcircled{+}$ find path

Recall: graph $G = (V, E)$

Every undirected graph is a directed graph $\{u, v\} \rightarrow (u, v), (v, u)$

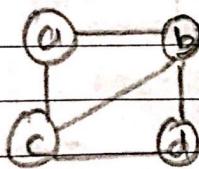
\downarrow set of vertices

\downarrow set of edges

undirected, $e = \{u, v\} \leftarrow$ unordered pairs

graph OR

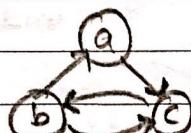
Directed $\rightarrow e = (u, v) \leftarrow$ ordered pairs



UNDIRECTED

$$V = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

$$E = \{\{a, b\}, \{b, c\}, \{c, d\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, d\}\}$$



DIRECTED

$$V = \{a, b, c\}$$

$$E = \{(a, c), (b, c), (c, b), (b, a)\}$$

Lecture 13: Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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Applications:

- web crawling
- social networking
- network broadcast
- garbage collection
- model checking
- check mathematical conjecture
- solving puzzles & games

Pocket Cube : $2 \times 2 \times 2$

- configuration graph

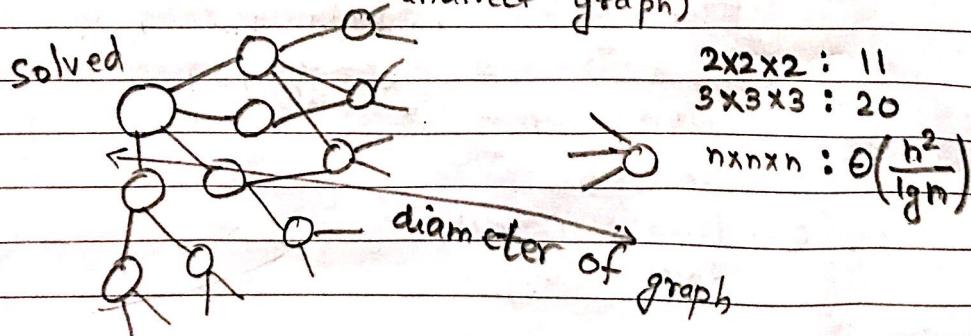
- vertex for each possible state of cube

$$\# \text{ vertices} = 8! \cdot 3^8 = 264,539,520$$

24 symmetries

 $\frac{1}{3}$ rd of states can only be reached
without breaking it apart

- edge for each possible move

(as every move is undoable,
undirected graph)

Lecture 13: Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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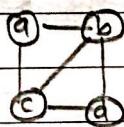
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Graph representation:Adjacency Listsarray Adj of size $|V|$

- each element is a pointer to a linked list

for each vertex $u \in V$, $\text{Adj}[u]$ stores u 's neighbours

$$\hookrightarrow \{v \in V \mid (u, v) \in E\}$$

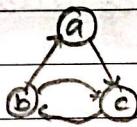


$$\text{Adj}[a] = \{b, c\}$$

$$\text{Adj}[b] = \{a, c, d\}$$

$$\text{Adj}[c] = \{a, b, d\}$$

$$\text{Adj}[d] = \{b, c\}$$



$$\text{Adj}[a] = \{c\}$$

$$\text{Adj}[b] = \{a, c\}$$

$$\text{Adj}[c] = \{b\}$$

Object-oriented patternVertex $v \rightarrow v.\text{neighbours} = \text{Adj}[v]$

The reason why object-oriented is not used is because you can simply have adjacency list of sub-graph in the direct method.

If you are dealing with only one graph, object-oriented method is more cleaner.

Lecture 13: Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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Implicit representation

- $\text{Adj}(u)$ is a function

- $v.\text{neighbours}()$ is a method

uses less space

This would be helpful for puzzles like Rubik's cube.

Fun fact: $7 \times 7 \times 7$ has configurations more than number of atoms in the known universe.

Space used by the basic rep. is $\Theta(|V| + |E|)$

Breadth-first Search

- Visit all the nodes reachable from given $s \in V$

- $O(V+E)$ time

- look at nodes reachable in 0 moves, 1 move, 2 moves, ...
 $\{s\}$ $\text{Adj}[s]$

- careful to avoid duplicates

Lecture 13: Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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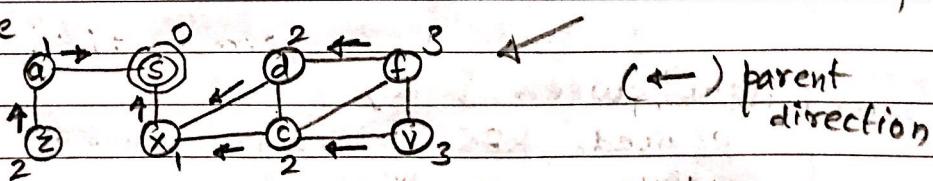
BFS(s , Adj) $\text{level} = \{s: 0\}$ $\text{parent} = \{s: \text{None}\}$ $i=1$ $\text{frontier} = [s] \leftarrow \text{level } i-1$

while frontier:

 $\text{next} = [] \leftarrow \text{level } i$ for u in frontier:for v in $\text{Adj}[u]$:if v not in level: $\text{level}[v] = i$ $\text{parent}[v] = u$ $\text{next.append}(v)$ $\text{frontier} = \text{next}$ $i += 1$

UNDIRECTED Graph

Example

 $i=1 \quad \text{next} = [a, x]$ $i=2 \quad \text{next} = [z, d, c]$ $i=3 \quad \text{next} = [f, v]$ $i=4 \quad \text{next} = [e]$

Lecture 13: Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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Shortest paths

$$v \leftarrow \text{parent}[v] \leftarrow \text{parent}[\text{parent}[v]]$$

↑
|
|
|
s

is the shortest path from s to v .
of length $\text{level}[v]$.

Each vertex is checked once

Each edge is considered once (or twice)
(UDG)

$$\sum_{v \in V} |\text{Adj}[v]| = \begin{cases} 2|E| & (\text{UDG}) \\ |E| & (\text{DG}) \end{cases}$$

R-13

(Halloween Day)

Revised BFS

and operations on Byte Vs Word
(8 bit) (16 bit)

Lecture 14: Depth-First Search (DFS), Topological Sort

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L-14 Graph II: DFS

- depth-first search
- edge classification
- cycle detection
- topological sort

Depth-first search (DFS)

- recursively explore graph, backtracking as necessary
- careful not to repeat

parent = {s: None}

DFS-Visit(V, Adj, s):

```

for v in Adj[s]:
    if v not in parent:
        parent[v] = s
        DFS-Visit(v, Adj, v)
    
```

DFS(V, Adj):

```

parent = {}
for s in V:
    if s not in parent:
        parent[s] = None
        DFS-Visit(s, Adj, s)
    
```

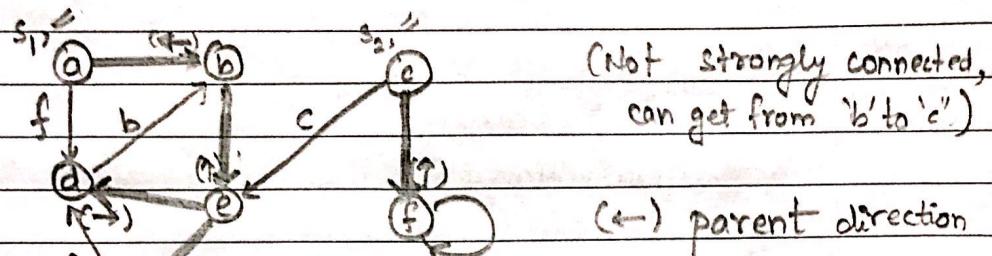
Lecture 14: Depth-First Search (DFS), Topological Sort

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Running time

$$O(V+E) \quad (\text{Linear time})$$

- visit each vertex once in DFS alone $O(V)$

- DFS-Visit(\dots, \dots, v) called at most once per vertex v .

\hookrightarrow pay $|Adj[v]|$

$$\downarrow O\left(\sum_{v \in V} |Adj[v]| \right) = O(E) \longrightarrow O(V+E)$$

Edge classification

- free edges (parent pointers) (**Bold**)

visit new vertex via that edge.

- forward edges (**f**)

goes from a node to a descendant in the tree

- backward edges (**b**)

goes from a node to an ancestor in the tree

- cross edges (or others) (**c**)

between two non-ancestor-related subtrees

Lecture 14: Depth-First Search (DFS), Topological Sort

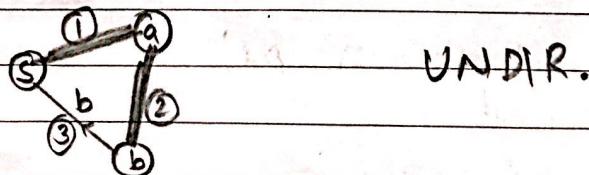
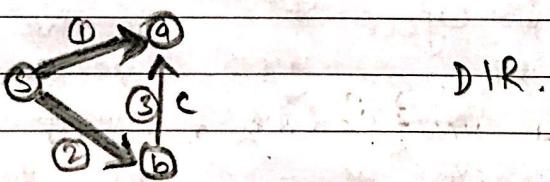
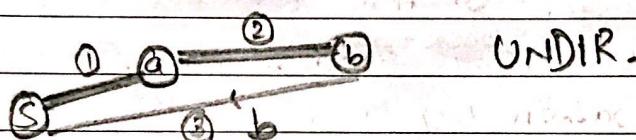
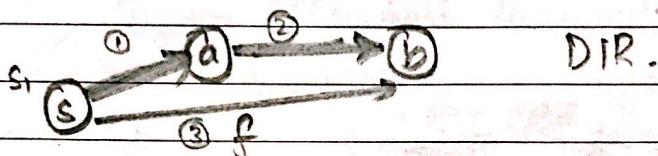
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For undirected graphs,
forward and cross edges don't
exist.



Useful for cycle detection
and topological sort.

Lecture 14: Depth-First Search (DFS), Topological Sort

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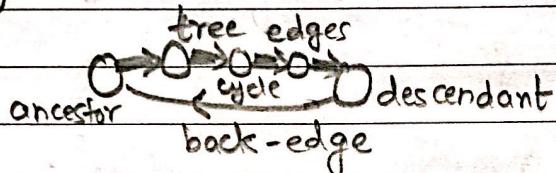
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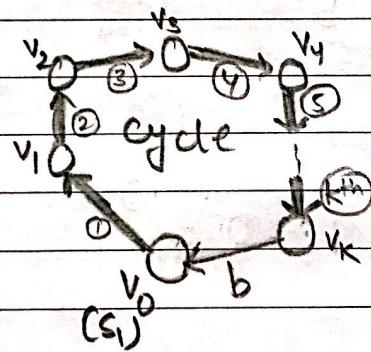
Cycle detection

Thm. G has a cycle \Leftrightarrow DFS has a back edge

Proof. (\Leftarrow)



(\Rightarrow)



Assuming v_0 is the first vertex in cycle visited by DFS. then $v_k \rightarrow v_0$ is back-edge

Lecture 14: Depth-First Search (DFS), Topological Sort

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Job Scheduling

given directed acyclic graph (DAG)
 order vertices such that all edges point
 from lower vertices to higher order

```

graph LR
    A((A)) --> B((B))
    A --> C((C))
    B --> C
    B --> E((E))
    C --> F((F))
    D((D)) --> E
    D --> H((H))
    G((G)) --> H
    I((I))
    E --> F
  
```

Topological sort (Sorting vertices):
 run DFS
 output reverse of finishing times of vertices.

Correctness

for any edge $e = (u, v)$
 v finishes before u finishes. (To show)

Case 1: u starts before v

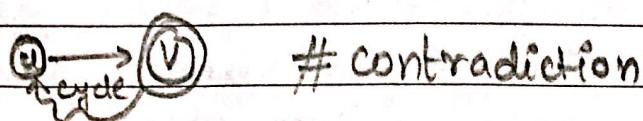
$\text{visit } u \rightarrow \text{visit } v \Rightarrow \text{visit } v \text{ before } u \text{ finishes}$

$\text{visit } u \rightarrow \text{start } u \rightarrow \text{visit } v \rightarrow \text{start } v \rightarrow \text{finish } v \rightarrow \text{finish } u$

Lecture 14: Depth-First Search (DFS), Topological Sort

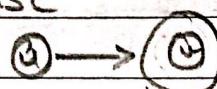
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contradiction

else



No path from v to u
then v finishes first
(Actually even before
 u starts)

R-14

Procedurally analysed
example of applying DFS
on a direct graph and an undirected
graph.

Lecture 15: Single-Source Shortest Paths Problem

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L-15 Shortest Path I : Intro

- Weighted graphs
- General approach
- Negative edges
- Optimal substructure

$G(V, E, w)$

vertices edges weight $w: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Two algos

- Dijkstra (after Edsger Dijkstra)
 - non-negative weight edges.
 - $O(V \lg V + E) \approx O(E) \quad \because E = O(V^2)$
(almost)
- Bellman - Ford
 - +/- weight edges
 - $O(VE)$

Lecture 15: Single-Source Shortest Paths Problem

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Path $p = \langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle$ (sequence)
 $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E \quad \forall 0 \leq i \leq k$

$$w(p) = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} w(v_i, v_{i+1})$$

find p with minimum weight.



$A \rightarrow B$ 1 paths
 $A \rightarrow C$ 2 paths
 $A \rightarrow E$ 4 paths
 $A \rightarrow G$ 8 paths

Paths increase exponentially

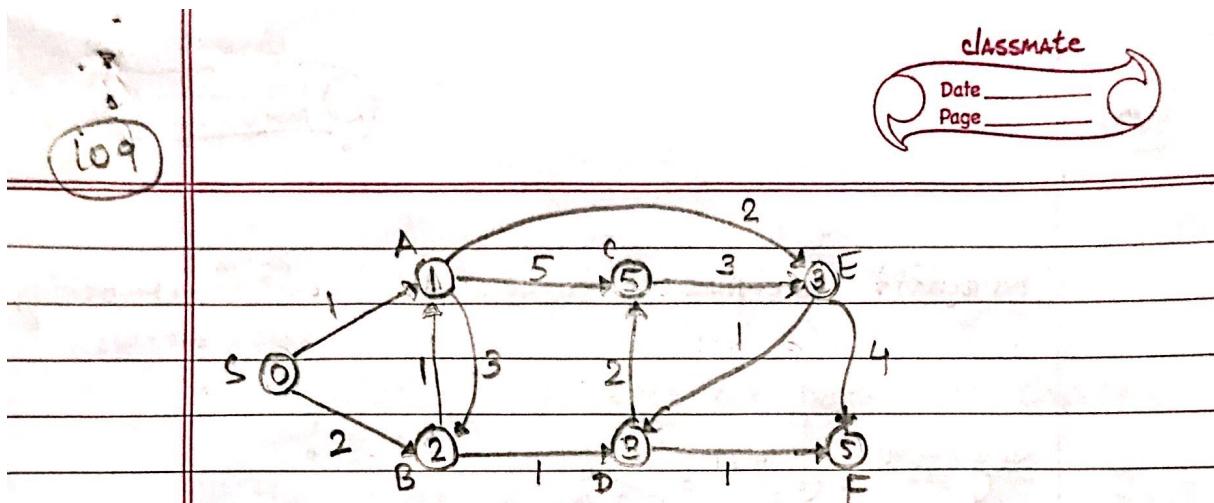
Weighted graphs

$v_0 \xrightarrow{P} v_k$ (v_0) is a path from v_0 to v_k of weight 0.

Shortest path weight from u to v as

$$\delta(u, v) = \begin{cases} \min\{w(p) : u \xrightarrow{P} v\} & \exists \text{ such path} \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Lecture 15: Single-Source Shortest Paths Problem



$d(u)$: current weight
 $\pi(u)$: predecessor

	S	A	B	C	D	E	F
0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
From S	0	1	2	∞	∞	∞	∞
From A	0	1	$2(<4)$	<u>6</u>	∞	3	∞
From C	0	1	2	6	∞	$3(<9)$	∞
From E	0	1	2	6	4	3	<u>7</u>
From D	0	1	2	6	4	3	<u>5(<7)</u>
From F	0	1	2	6	4	3	5
From B	0	1(<3)	2	6	<u>3(<4)</u>	3	5
From D	0	1	2	<u>5(<6)</u>	4	3	5
From C	0	1	2	5	4	3	5

$$\begin{array}{lll} \delta(S, A) = 1 & \delta(S, B) = 2 & \delta(S, C) = 5 \\ \delta(S, D) = 4 & \delta(S, E) = 3 & \delta(S, F) = 5 \end{array}$$

Lecture 15: Single-Source Shortest Paths Problem

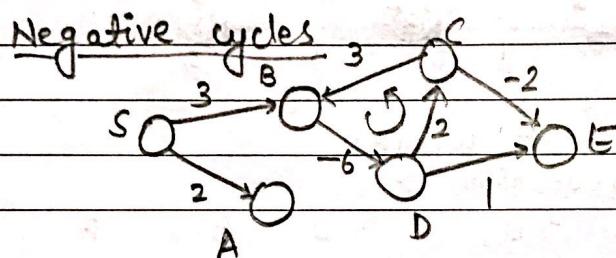
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Negative weights : reverse tolls, social networking
(likes & dislikes)



$$d(S, S) = 0 \quad d(S, A) = 2$$

$$d(S, B) = d(S, C) = d(S, D) = d(S, E) = -\infty$$

Bellman-Ford detects negative cycles and thus, terminates in finite time.

General structure (no negative cycles)

Initialize for $u \in V$ $d[u] \leftarrow \infty$ $\pi[u] \leftarrow \text{NIL}$
 $d[s] \leftarrow 0$

Repeat select edge (u, v) [Somehow]
 "Relax" edge (u, v) : if $d[v] > d[u] + w(u, v)$
 $d[v] = d[u] + w(u, v)$
 $\pi[v] \leftarrow u$

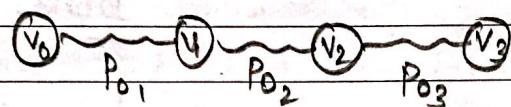
Until all edges have $d[v] \leq d[u] + w(u, v)$

(Tutorial) Recitation 15: Shortest Paths

Optimal substructure

- Subpaths of a shortest path are shortest paths

$$\{P_{0_1}, P_{0_2}, P_{0_3}\} = SP$$

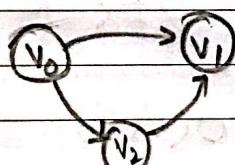


$$\text{then } \{P_{0_1}\} = SP$$

$$\{P_{0_2}\} = SP$$

$$\{P_{0_3}\} = SP$$

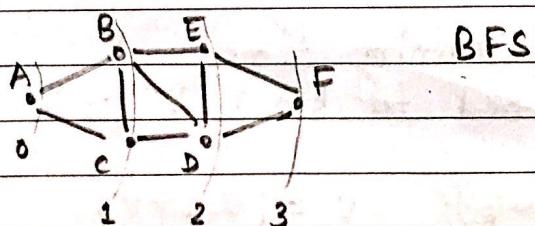
Triangle
inequality
(used in i-16)



$$s(v_0, v_1) \leq s(v_0, v_2) + s(v_2, v_1)$$

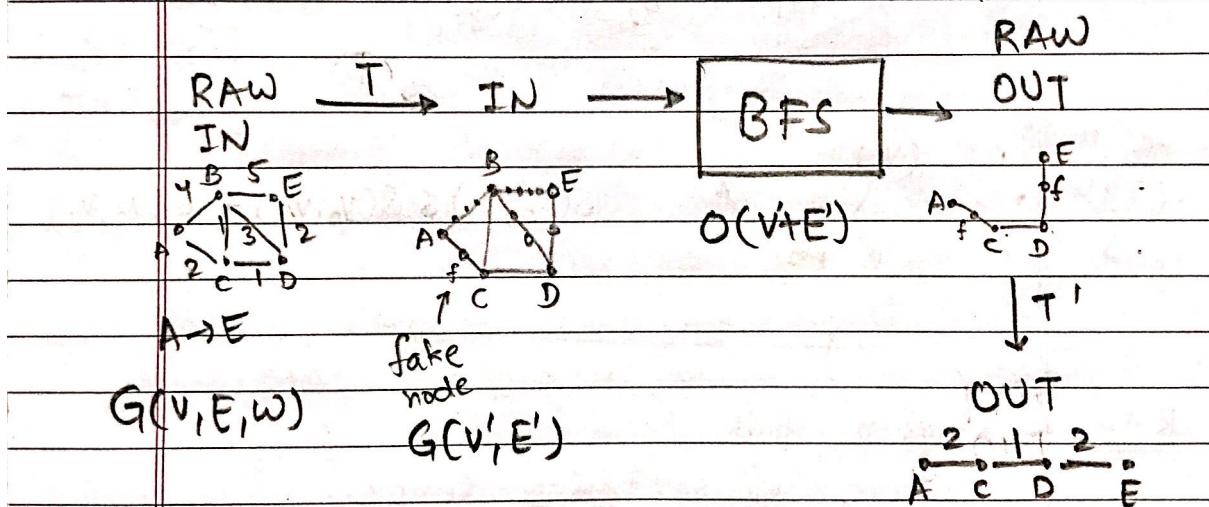
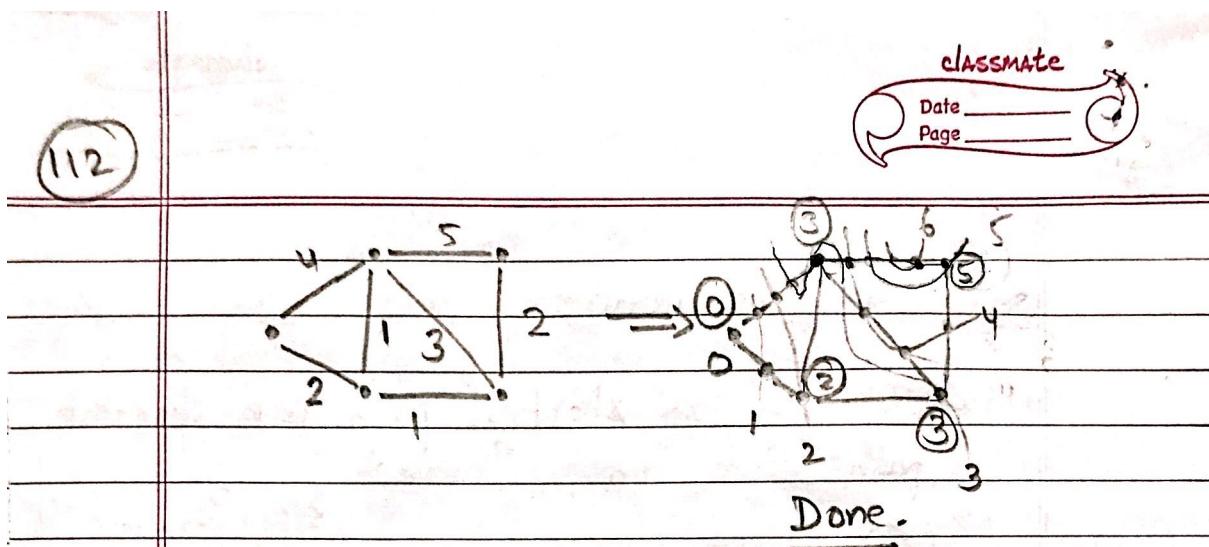
R-15Shortest path

Thinking of something simple.



So, now converting a weighted graph to
a non-weighted graph

(Tutorial) Recitation 15: Shortest Paths



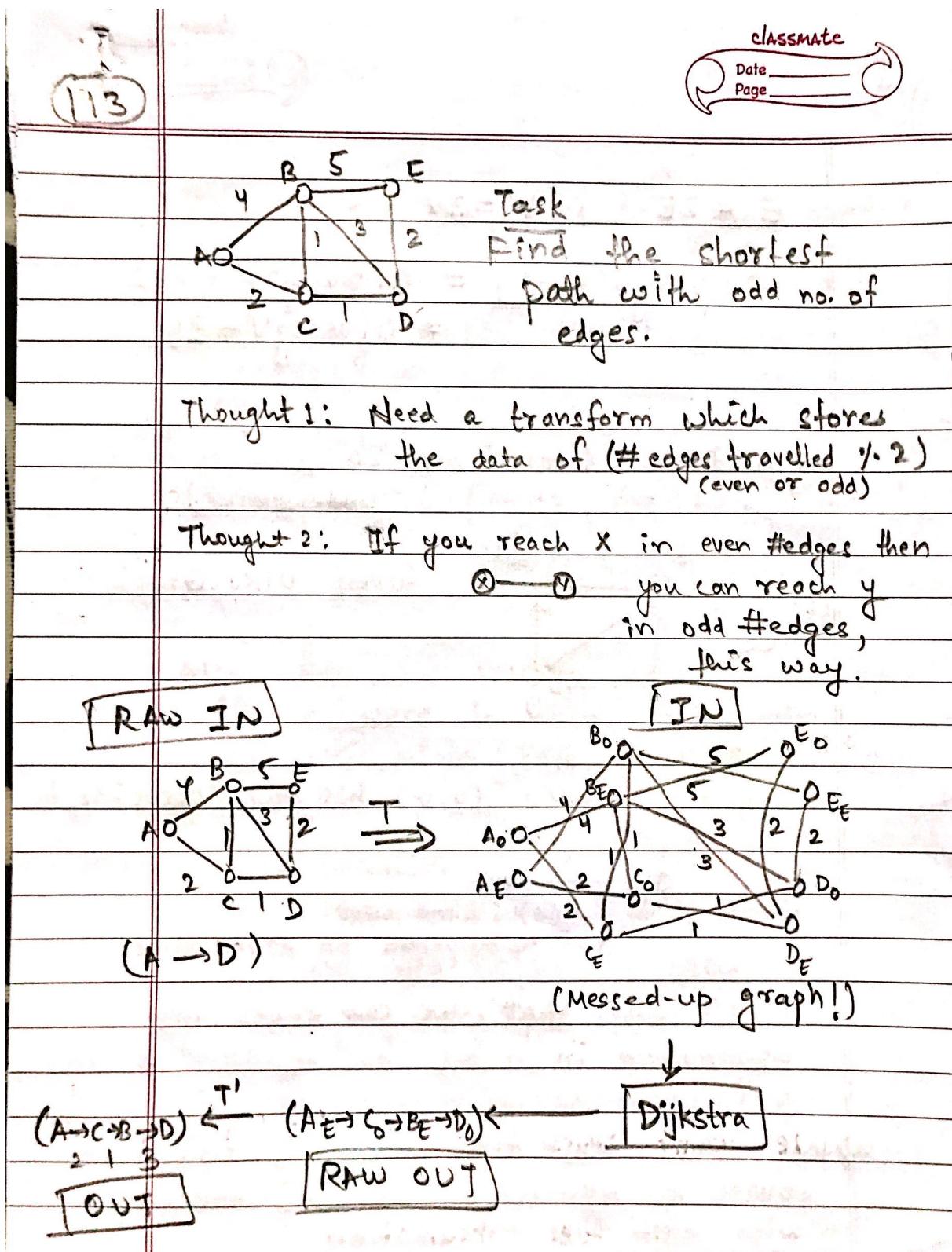
To find out running time,
we need to know V' , E' .

$$E' = O(WE) \quad V' = (WE + V)$$

$$O(V' + E') = O(WE + V)$$

For small paths, this is a nice algo.

(Tutorial) Recitation 15: Shortest Paths



(Tutorial) Recitation 15: Shortest Paths

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$E' = 2E$ $V' = 2V$

$$\begin{aligned} O(V' \log V' + E') &= O(2V \log 2V + 2E) \\ &= O(V \log V + E) \end{aligned}$$

A hard one (took me 20 min to understand)

Given DIR. Graph

```

graph LR
    A((A)) --> B((B))
    A((A)) --> C((C))
    B((B)) --> D((D))
    C((C)) --> D((D))
    C((C)) --> E((E))
  
```

Now each edge (u, v) has two costs: f_c, t_c .

f_c : fuel cost
 $u \xrightarrow{} v$

$t_c(s)$: time cost
depends on start time.

We are given that we can reach any destination in a day and $t_c(u, v, s)$ has resolution of minutes.

\Rightarrow We want least time consuming path from source to destination, if many then one with least fuel consumption

(Tutorial) Recitation 15: Shortest Paths

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In previous ques, we had two states:
even & odd # edges.

Here, every vertex will have 1440 [60x24]
states (M=1440)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Transform}(T) : V &\xrightarrow{(x M)} N, t+1 \\
 (u, v) &\xrightarrow{(x M)} ((u, t), (v, t+t_c(u, v), t))
 \end{aligned}$$

fuel cost = f_c

Also, say we are on vertex u at time t .
if we were to wait for one minute
then we might have a smaller t_c .

So, new edges $((u, t), (u, t+1))$ are added.
fuel cost = 0.

(You can think these as extension of $(u, u) \xrightarrow{x M} ((u, t), (u, t+1))$)

Now, we use Dijkstra's algo to
find required path from (source, 0)
to (dest., i), incrementing i till
we get a finite soln.

(Tutorial) Recitation 15: Shortest Paths

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$i=0$	∞	} No such path
$i=1$	∞	
$i=2$	∞	
$i=3$	∞	
$i=k+1$	∞	
$j=k$	p	
$i=k+1$		

\rightarrow eco-friendly fastest path.

Using this we can get the shortest path taking a certain amount of time.
(Feature)

Complexity of Dijkstra
 $= O(V \lg V + E)$ (To be proved
in L-16)

Here, $V' = V \cdot M$
 $E' = E \cdot M + V \cdot M$

Complexity of algo
 $= O(V' \lg V' + E')$
 $= O(V \cdot M \lg (V \cdot M) + E \cdot M + V \cdot M)$
 $= O(V \lg V + E)$

(though, constant is much worse than Dijkstra)

Lecture 16: Dijkstra

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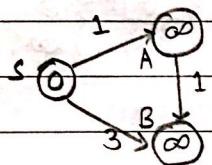
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L-16

Shortest Paths II : Dijkstra

- Review
- Shortest paths - DAGs
- SPs - graphs w/o \rightarrow edges
- Dijkstra's algo

Review

$d[v]$: length of current s.p. from source (s) to v .

$$d[s] = 0, d[A] = \infty, d[B] = \infty$$

$\delta(s, v)$: length of a shortest path from s to v .

$$d[s] = 0, d[A] = 1, d[B] = 3$$

\downarrow

$\pi[A] = s, \pi[B] = s$

$\pi(v)$: predecessor of v in the s.p. from s to v .

$$d[s] = 0, d[A] = 1, d[B] = 2$$

$\pi[A] = s, \pi[B] = A$

S.P. from S to B : $B \leftarrow \pi[B] \leftarrow \pi[\pi[B]] \leftarrow \dots \leftarrow s$

$$= A \qquad \qquad = s$$

$$\Rightarrow B \xleftarrow{1} A \xleftarrow{1} s$$

$$d[B] = 2 \quad w(p) = 2$$

Lecture 16: Dijkstra

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$\text{Relax}(u, v, w)$: ^{weight}

if $d[v] > d[u] + w(u, v)$

$$d[v] = d[u] + w(u, v)$$

$$\pi[v] = u$$

Lemma: The relaxation operation maintains the invariant that $d[v] \geq \delta(s, v)$ $\forall v \in V$.

Proof: By Induction on # steps.

Base case: $n=0$ $d[v] = \begin{cases} 0 & v=s \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ satisfies

Inductive step:

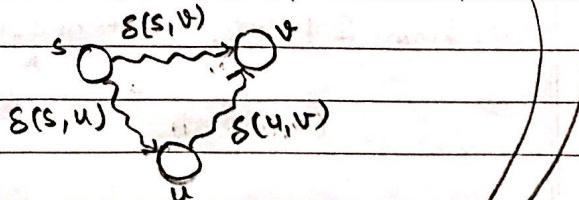
For $n=k$ steps, the lemma satisfies.

In $(k+1)^{\text{th}}$ step, we Relax (u, v, w) .

We know that $d[u] \geq \delta(s, u)$

By triangle-inequality

$$\delta(s, v) \leq \delta(s, u) + \delta(u, v)$$



$$\delta(s, v) \leq d[u] + \delta(u, v)$$

$$\delta(u, v) \leq w(u, v)$$

$$\therefore \delta(s, v) \leq d[u] + w(u, v)$$

$\therefore \delta(s, v) \leq d[v]$ Proved.

Lecture 16: Dijkstra

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DAGs (can't have (-ve) cycles)

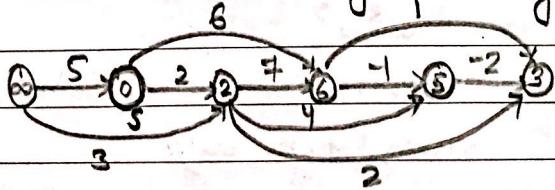
1. Topologically sort the DAG.

Path from u to v implies that u is before v in the ordering.

2. One pass over vertices in topologically sorted order relaxing each edge that leaves that vertex.

 $O(V+E)$ time

• This works for any starting vertex.

Step 0 ∞ 0 ∞ ∞ ∞ ∞ Step 1 ∞ 0 2 6 ∞ ∞ Step 2 ∞ 0 2 6(∞) 6 4Step 3 ∞ 0 2 6 5(∞) 4(∞)Step 4 ∞ 0 2 6 5 3(∞)Step 5 ∞ 0 2 6 5 3

Lecture 16: Dijkstra

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Demo of DijkstraMechanically validating Dijkstra
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Dijkstra is a greedy algo.
 It is easy to understand but not so easy
 to prove its correctness.

Dijkstra (G, ω, s) :

Initialize (G, s) $S' \leftarrow \emptyset$ $Q = V[G]$

$d[s] = 0$

while $Q \neq \emptyset$

$u \leftarrow \text{extract-min}(Q)$

$S' \leftarrow S' \cup \{u\}$

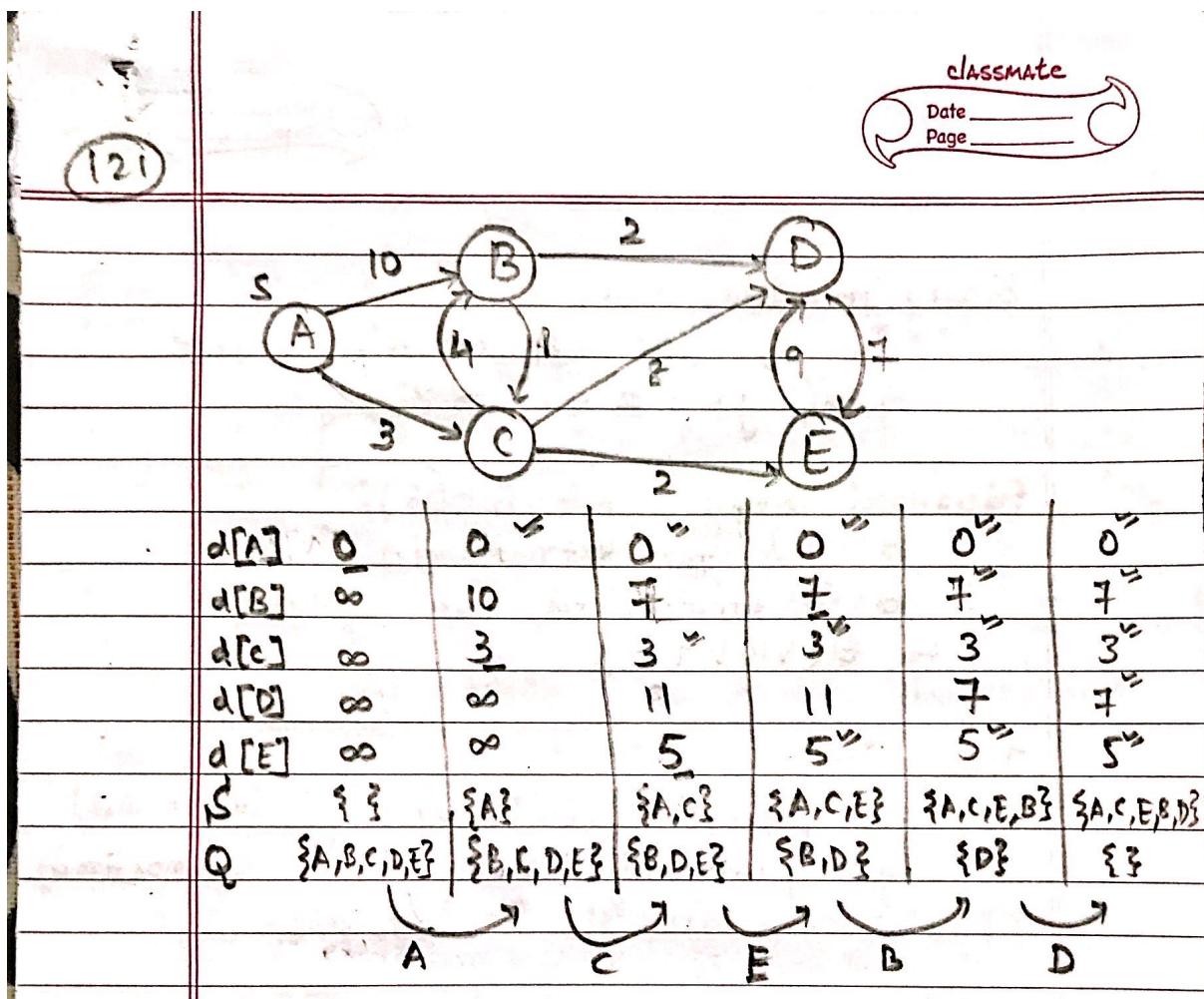
 for each vertex $v \in \text{Adj}[u]$

 Relax (u, v, ω)

Q is a priority-queue of $d[v] \neq \infty$.
 $\text{extract-min}(Q)$ returns vertex not yet
 evaluated and has minimum $d[\cdot]$.

Proof in CLRS Textbook (Introduction to
 Algorithms, 3rd ed.)
 (Reference Book 1)

Lecture 16: Dijkstra

Complexity

$\Theta(v)$ inserts into the priority-queue Q

$\Theta(v)$ extract-min ops.

$\Theta(E)$ Decrease-key / update ops.

Arrays: $\Theta(1)$ for insert, update

$\Theta(v)$ for extract-min

$$\rightarrow \Theta(v + v^2 + E) = \Theta(v^2) \quad (E = O(v^2))$$

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Binary min heap:

$$\Theta(\lg V) \text{ for extract-min, update}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Theta(V \lg V + E \lg V)$$

Fibonacci heap (not 6.006):

$$\Theta(\lg V) \text{ for extract-min}$$

$$\Theta(1) \text{ amortized for update}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Theta(V \lg V + E)$$

Theoretically,
 complexity is $\Theta(E \lg V)$ (worst-case)
 but practically, $\Theta(V \lg V + E)$ (amortized).

(Tutorial) Recitation 16: Rubik's Cube, StarCraft Zero

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R-16 2x2x2 Rubik's cube

Plastic faces Wireframe

8 cublets 24 faces

Configuration is an array of 24

yob	boy	oyb	-	-	.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
0	1	2	3	-	-	.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
(fur)	(ruf)	(urf)																							

Total configurations: $24!$

Six types of moves: $f_c, f_{cc}, r_c, r_{cc}, u_c, u_{cc}$

Finding Starcraft game strategy
(Using Dijkstra)

Lecture 17: Bellman-Ford

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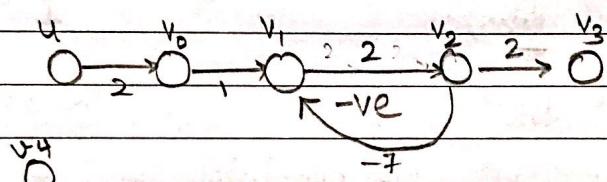
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L-17

Shortest Paths III : Bellman-Ford

- Negative cycles
- Generic S.P. Algorithm
- Bellman-Ford Algo
 - Analysis
 - Correctness


 $\delta(u, v_1), \delta(u, v_2), \delta(u, v_3)$ not defined ($-\infty$)

$$\delta(u, v_0) = 2$$

$$\delta(u, v_4) = \infty$$

This is what is required.

Generic S.P. Algo

Initialize for $v \in V$ $d[v] \leftarrow \infty$ $\pi[v] \leftarrow \text{None}$

$$d[s] = 0$$

Main loop : Repeat \rightarrow select edge [somehow]
 \rightarrow Relax(u, v, w)

until you can't relax anymore.

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Problems

① Complexity could be exponential time
(even for +ve edge weights)

② Will not terminate if there is a negative weight cycle reachable from the source

If we assume no cycles, i.e., DAGs, we have a $O(V+E)$ time algo (using topo. sort)

If we assume no -ve weights, we have a $O(V^2V+E)$ time algo (Dijkstra)

Bellman-Ford (G, w, s)

Initialize()

for $i=1$ to $i=|V|-1$
 $O(VE)$ for each edge $(u,v) \in E$
Relax (u,v,w)

$\text{Relax}(u,v,w):$
if $d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v)$
 $d[v] = d[u] + w(u,v)$
 $\pi[v] = u$

 $O(E)$ Check

 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{for each edge } (u,v) \in E \\ \text{if } d[v] > d[u] + w(u,v) \end{array} \right.$

then report -ve cycle exists.

Complexity : $O(VE)$

Lecture 17: Bellman-Ford

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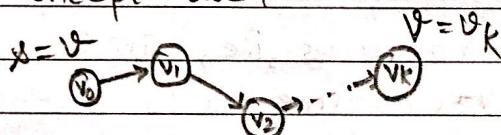
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- Thm. If $G = (V, E)$ contains no -ve weight cycle then after B-F executes, $d[v] = \delta(s, v) \forall v \in V$
- Corollary If a value $d[v]$ fails to converge after $|V|-1$ passes, there exists a -ve weight cycle reachable from s .

Concept used



v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k is a path from s to v
 $\Rightarrow k \leq |V| - 1$

IF $k > |V| - 1$ then it is a walk with atleast a cycle.

ProofLet $v \in V$

$$P = \langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle \quad v_0 = s \quad \text{to} \quad v_k = v$$

This path P is a shortest path with min # edges.
 No -ve weight cycle $\Rightarrow P$ has no cycles $\Rightarrow k \leq |V| - 1$

After one pass thru E , we have $d[v_i] = \delta(s, v_i)$

because we will relax edge (v_0, v_1)

(If not, then P is not a shortest path.)

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After 2 passes, $d[v_2] = \delta(s, v_2)$ because
 in 2nd pass, we will relax (v_1, v_2) as well.

After k passes, $d[v_k] = \delta(s, v_k)$
 $\because k \leq |V| - 1$

$|V| - 1$ passes \Rightarrow all reachable vertices have
 $d[v] = \delta(s, v)$

Proof After $|V| - 1$ passes, we find an edge that
(Corollary) can be relaxed.

\Rightarrow current shortest path from s to
 some vertex v is not simple.

\Rightarrow Have a repeated vertex

\Rightarrow A repeated cycle

\Rightarrow As the path weight decreases
 this cycle has -ve weight.

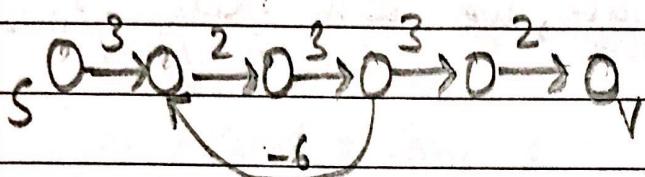
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Shortest Simple Path

shortest simple path is 13.

Bellman-Ford can't solve this.

Turns out this is a NP-hard problem.

i.e. we don't know an algo that is better than exponential time to solve this problem.

Lecture 18: Speeding up Dijkstra

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L-18 Shortest Paths IV : Speeding up Dijkstra

- Single source, single target
- Bi-directional search
- Goal-directed search - potentials, landmarks

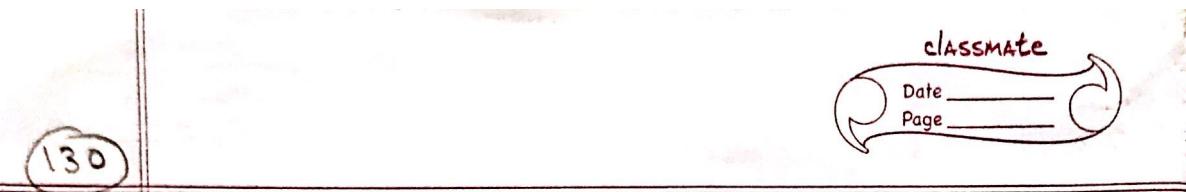
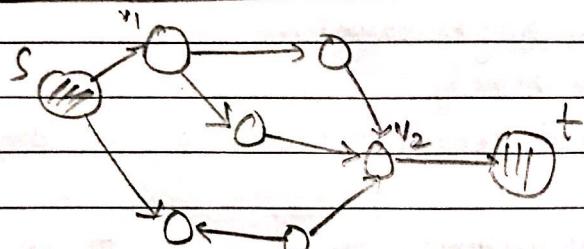
Unlike previous lectures, we're going to be talking about optimizations that don't change the worst-case, or asymptotic, complexity, but improve empirical, real-life performance. (Performance in average case)

1. $\text{Dijkstra}(G, W, s)$:

2. Initialize() $\leftarrow d[s] = 0, d[u \neq s] = \infty$
3. $Q \leftarrow V[G]$
4. while $Q \neq \emptyset$
 5. do $u \leftarrow \text{extract-min}(Q)$
 6. for each vertex $v \in \text{Adj}[u]$
 7. do $\text{Relax}(u, v, w)$

If we are asked to find shortest path from s to t , then we can replace 4. by while($Q \neq \emptyset \& u \neq t$) This optimizes the run-time. Worst-case run-time still stays same but average improves.

Lecture 18: Speeding up Dijkstra

Bi-directional search

$$\pi_f[v_1] = s$$

$$\pi_b[v_2] = t$$

- Alternate forward search from s
- backward search from t
(following edges backward)

$$d_f[s] = 0 \quad d_b[t] = 0$$

$$d_f[u \neq s] = \infty \quad d_b[u \neq t] = \infty$$

Distances for
forward search

π_f : normal parent

Priority Queues:

Distances for
backward search

π_b : reverse parent

Q_f (forward)

Q_b (backward).

Termination condition

- some vertex u has been processed both in the forward search & backward search i.e., deleted from Q_f & Q_b .

Lecture 18: Speeding up Dijkstra

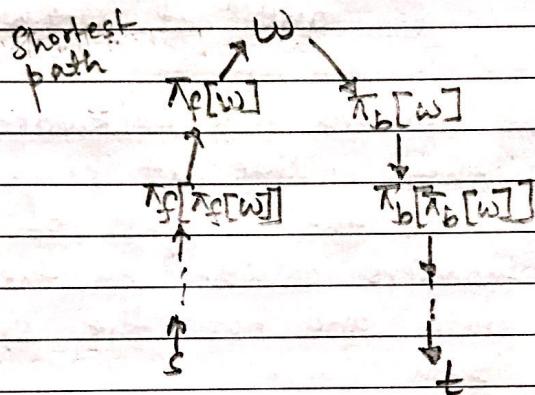
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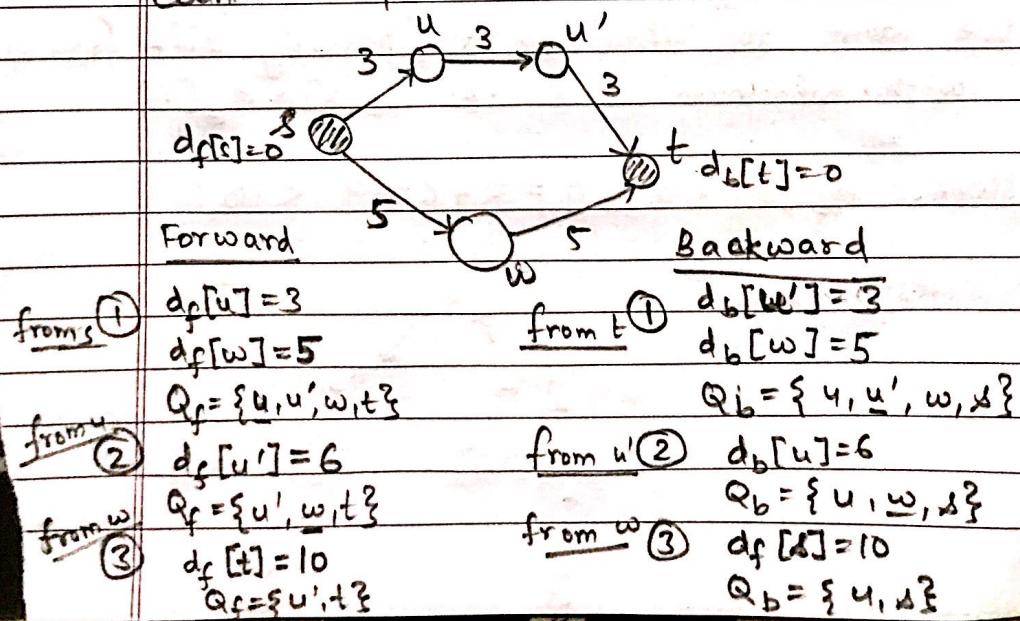
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Finding the shortest path
 Claim: If w was processed first from both Q_f & Q_b .



This claim is actually false.

Counter-example:



Lecture 18: Speeding up Dijkstra

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 w has been processed from Q_b & Q_f

$$\pi_b[w] = t \quad \pi_f[w] = u$$

But, the shortest path is $s \rightarrow u \rightarrow u' \rightarrow t$
and not $s \rightarrow w \rightarrow t$.

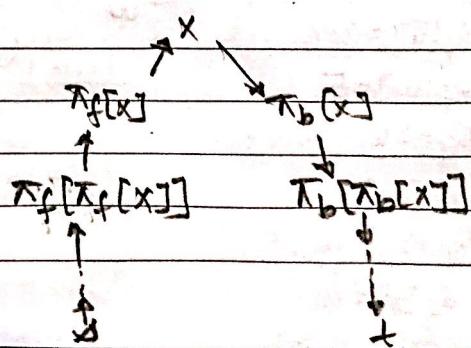
When the forward and backward frontiers collide, they collide at some vertex, regardless of the weights of the edges.

So, the frontiers collide on the shortest length path and not the shortest weight path (here).

So, how do we find the shortest weight path.

We want to find an x (possibly diff from w) with minimum value of $d_f[x] + d_b[x]$ (Here, $d_f[u] + d_b[u] = 3 + 6 = 9 < 10$)

Shortest path:



Lecture 18: Speeding up Dijkstra

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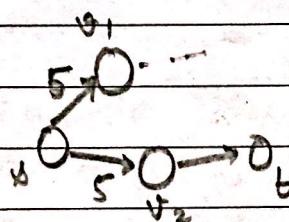
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Goal-directed search

- modify edge weights with potential functions.
- $$\bar{w}(u, v) = w(u, v) - \lambda(u) + \lambda(v)$$



we wish to increase
the potential value of (u_1, v_1)
(like going upwards)
so that Dijkstra's algo
chooses v_2 over v_1 .

$$\bar{w}(p) = w(p) - \lambda_t(s) + \lambda_t(t)$$

Landmark $l \in V$ precompute $\delta(u, l) \forall u \in V$

$$\lambda_t(u) = \delta(u, l) - \delta(t, l)$$

Further

About it