

CS215 DISCRETE MATH

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

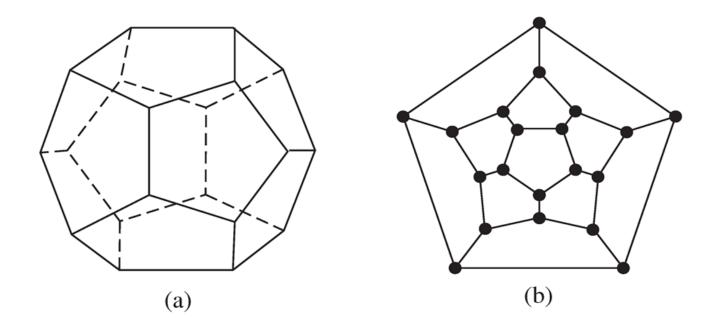
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Euler paths and circuits contained every edge only once.
What about containing every vertex exactly once?

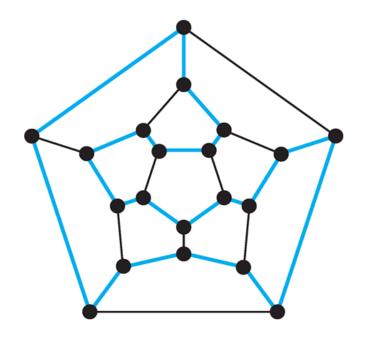


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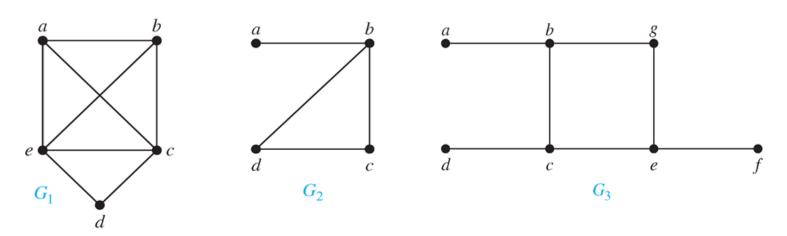


■ **Definition**: A simple path in a graph *G* that passes through every vertex exactly once is called a *Hamilton path*, and a simple circuit in a graph *G* that passes through every vertex exactly once is called a *Hamilton circuit*.



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Example Which of these simple graphs has a Hamilton circuit or, if not, a Hamilton path?





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But, there are some useful sufficient conditions.



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Hamilton path problem ∈ NPC



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Traveling Salesperson Problem (TSP) asks for the shortest route a traveling salesperson should take to visit a set of cities.



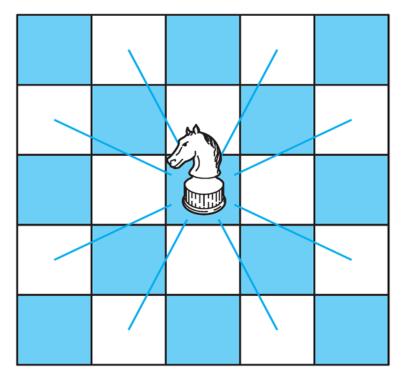
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the decision version of the $TSP \in NPC$

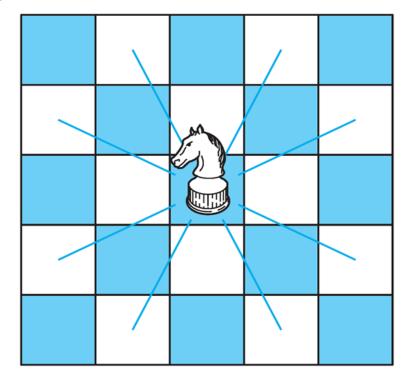


Can we traverse every space (and come back) in the 5×5 chessboard?





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What about in 6×6 chessboard?



Using graphs with weights assigned to their edges



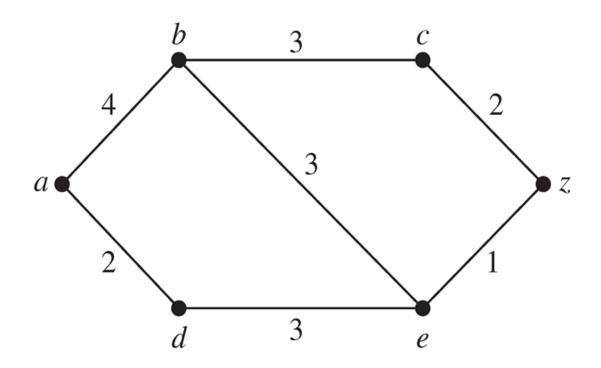
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Such graphs are called *weighted graphs* and can model lots of questions involving distance, time consuming, fares, etc.



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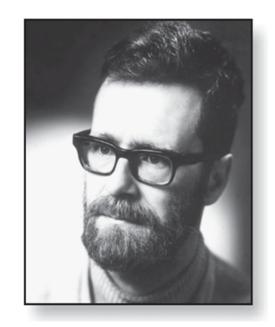
■ **Definition** Let G^{α} be an weighted graph, with a weight function $\alpha : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$ on its edges. If $P = e_1 e_2 \cdots e_k$ is a path, then its weight is $\alpha(P) = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha(e_i)$. The minimum weighted distance between two vertices is

$$d(u, v) = \min\{\alpha(P)|P : u \to v\}$$



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Edsger Wybe Dijkstra



• (i) Set $d(v_0) = 0$ and $d(v) = \infty$ for all $v \neq v_0$, $S = \emptyset$



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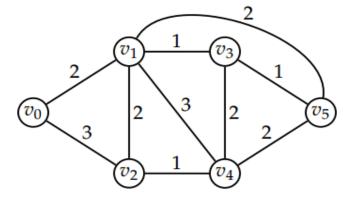


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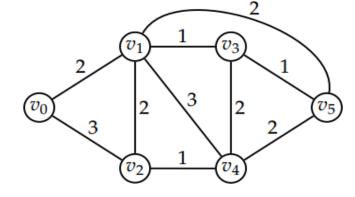
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(iii) return all d(v)'s



$$d(v_0) = 0$$
, all other $d(v) = \infty$



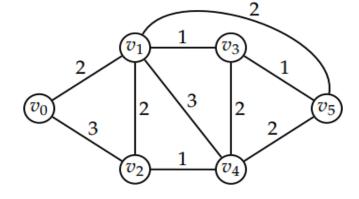
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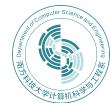
$$S = S \cup \{v\}$$
 for each $u \notin S$, replace $d(u)$ by $\min\{d(u), d(v) + \alpha(u, v)\}$

(iii) return all d(v)'s



d((v_0)) = 0,	all	other	d((v)	$)=\infty$
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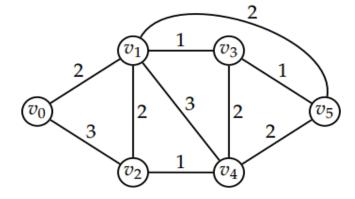
<i>v</i> ₀	v_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> ₃	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	8	8	8	8	8



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<i>v</i> ₀	V_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> ₃	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞

$$i = 0$$

 $d(v_1) = \min\{\infty, 2\} = 2, \ d(v_2) = \min\{\infty, 3\} = 3$

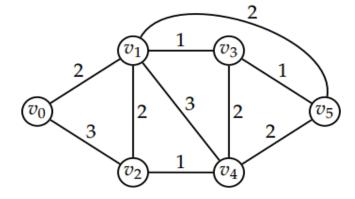


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V_0	v_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> ₃	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	∞	∞	∞

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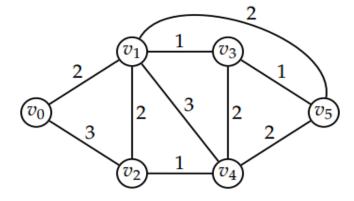
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Example

i = 1

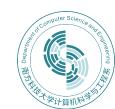


<i>V</i> ₀	v_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> ₃	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	∞	∞	8

$$d(v_2) = \min\{3, d(v_1) + \alpha(v_1v_2)\} = \min\{3, 4\} = 3,$$

 $d(v_3) = 2 + 1 = 3, d(v_4) = 2 + 3 = 5,$

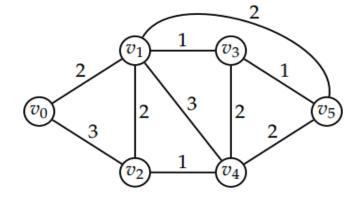
$$d(v_5) = 2 + 2 = 4$$



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 $\min\{d(u),d(v)+\alpha(u,v)\}$

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<i>v</i> ₀	V_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> 3	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	3	5	4

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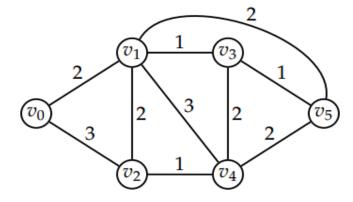
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 $d(v_5) = 2 + 2 = 4$



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<i>v</i> ₀	V_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> 3	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	3	5	4

I = Z
$d(v_3)=\min\{3,\infty\}=3,$
$d(v_4) = \min\{5, 3+1\} = 4$
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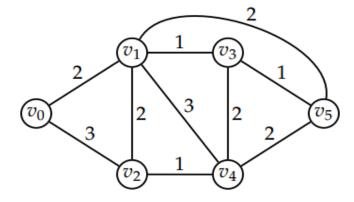


i-2

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Example



<i>v</i> ₀	V_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> 3	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	3	4	4

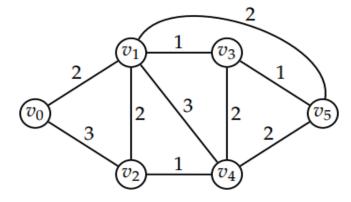
I - Z	
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<i>V</i> ₀	V_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> 3	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	3	4	4

$$i = 3$$

 $d(v_4) = \min\{4, 3 + 2\} = 4$,
 $d(v_5) = \min\{4, 3 + 1\} = 4$

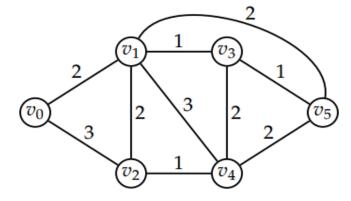


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<i>V</i> ₀	V_1	<i>V</i> ₂	<i>V</i> 3	<i>V</i> ₄	<i>V</i> ₅
0	2	3	3	4	4

$$i = 4$$

 $d(v_5) = \min\{4, 4 + 2\} = 4$



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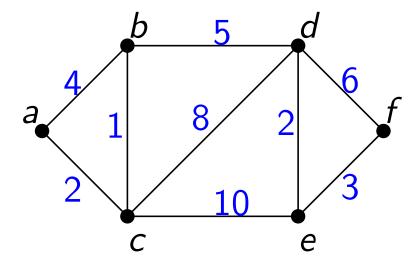
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Complexity

read the Textbook p.712 – p.714



Another Example





Dijkstra's algorithm

```
O(v^2) using an array [Dijkstra 1956] O(e + v \log v) using a Fibonacci heap min-priority queue [Fredman & Tarjan 1984]
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Only for *nonnegative* edge weights!



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■ Bellman-Ford algorithm [Ford 1956] [Bellman 1958] Works for negative weights; no negative-weight cycle reachable from s O(ev)



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- Bellman-Ford algorithm [Ford 1956] [Bellman 1958] Works for negative weights; no negative-weight cycle reachable from s O(ev)
- New result



Negative-Weight Single-Source Shortest Paths in Near-linear Time

Aaron Bernstein* Danupon Nanongkai[†] Christian Wulff-Nilsen[‡]

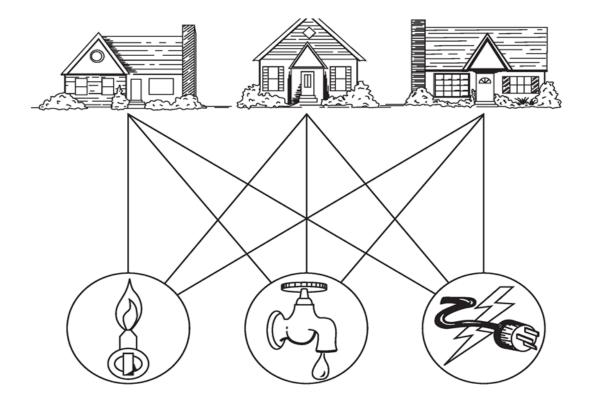
Abstract

We present a randomized algorithm that computes single-source shortest paths (SSSP) in $O(m \log^8(n) \log W)$ time when edge weights are integral and can be negative.¹ This essentially resolves the classic negative-weight SSSP problem. The previous bounds are $\tilde{O}((m+n^{1.5}) \log W)$ [BLNPSSSW FOCS'20] and $m^{4/3+o(1)} \log W$ [AMV FOCS'20]. Near-linear time algorithms were known previously only for the special case of planar directed graphs [Fakcharoenphol and Rao FOCS'01].

In contrast to all recent developments that rely on sophisticated continuous optimization methods and dynamic algorithms, our algorithm is simple: it requires only a simple graph decomposition and elementary combinatorial tools. In fact, ours is the first combinatorial algorithm for negative-weight SSSP to break through the classic $\tilde{O}(m\sqrt{n}\log W)$ bound from over three decades ago [Gabow and Tarjan SICOMP'89].

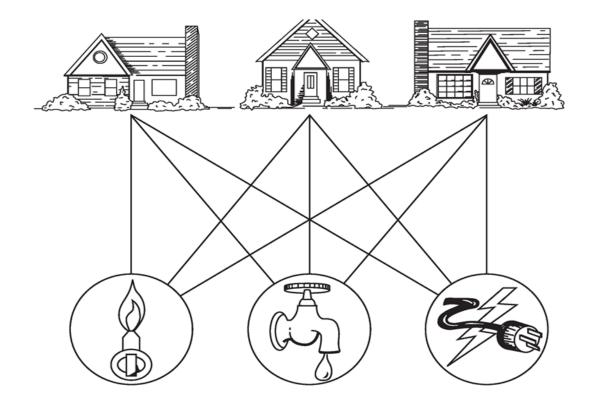


Join three houses to each of three seperate utilities.





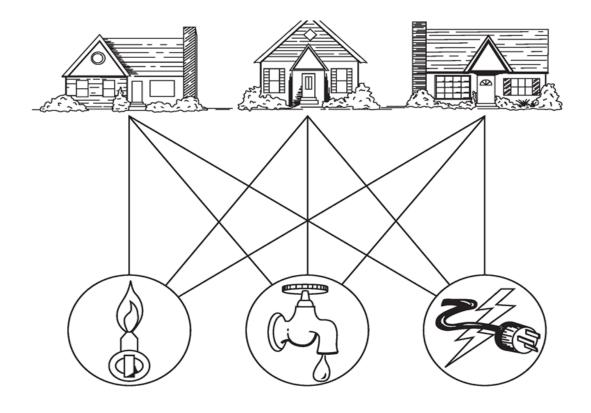
Join three houses to each of three seperate utilities.



Can this graph be drawn in the plane s.t. no two of its edges cross?



Join three houses to each of three seperate utilities.



Can this graph be drawn in the plane s.t. no two of its edges cross? $K_{3,3}$

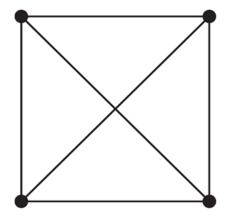


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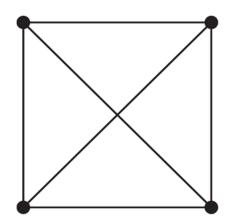
Example Is K_4 planar?

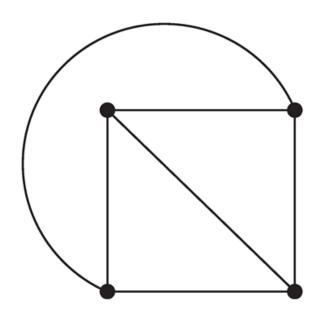




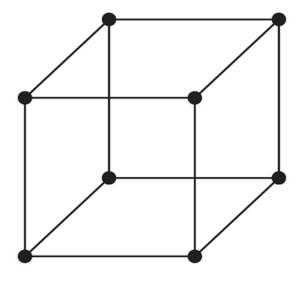
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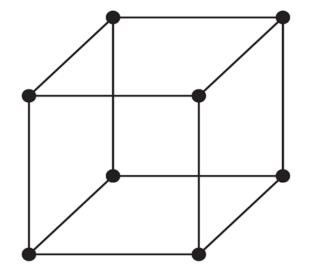


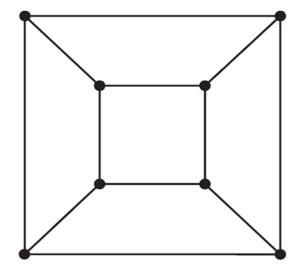




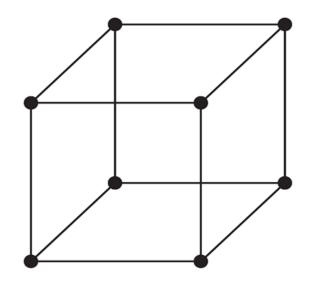


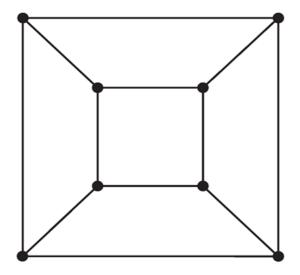


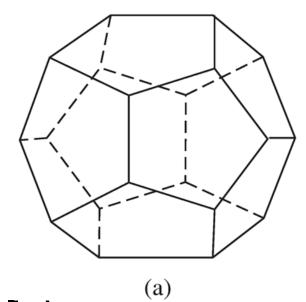




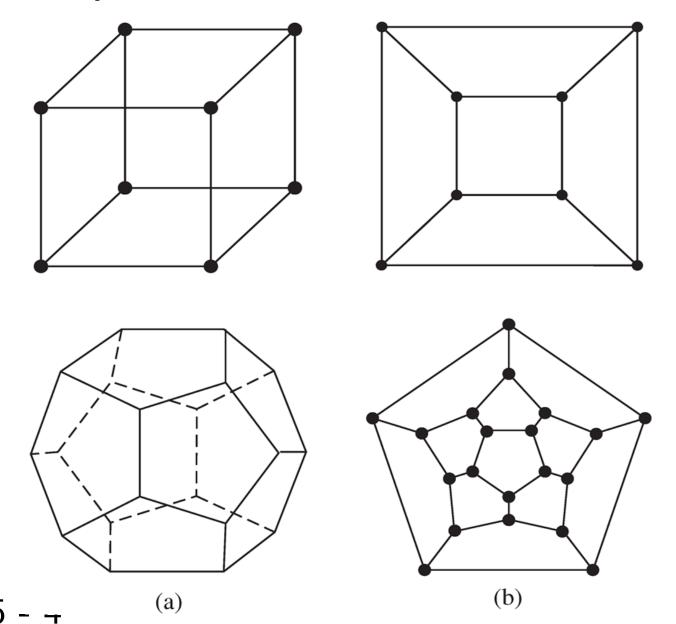




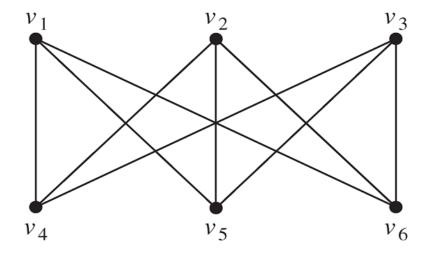






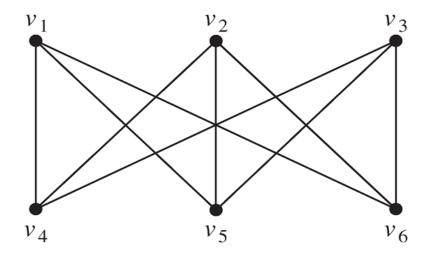








Example



Applications

- ♦ IC design
- design of road networks



Theorem (Euler's Formula) Let G be a connected planar simple graph with e edges and v vertices. Let r be the number of regions in a planar representation of G. Then r = e - v + 2.

Proof (by induction)



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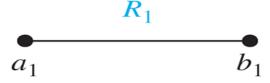
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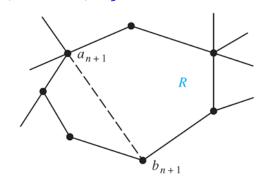
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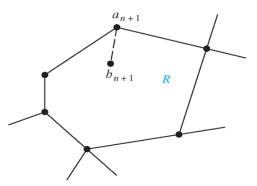
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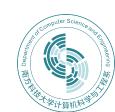
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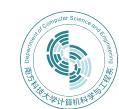






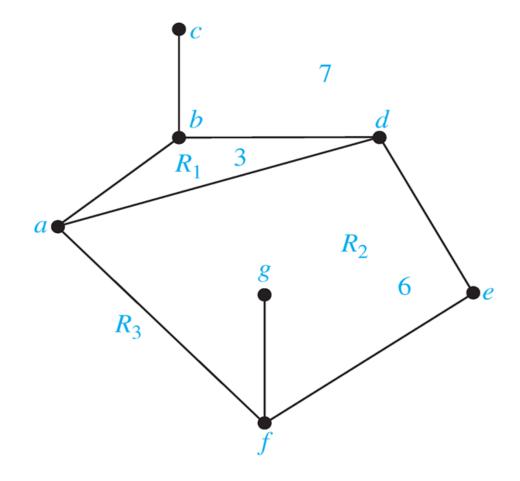
The Degree of Regions

Definition The degree of a region is defined to be the number of edges on the boundary of this region. When an edge occurs twice on the boundary, it contributes two to the degree.



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By Euler's formula, the proof is completed.



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Corollary 3 In a connected planar simple graph has e edges and v vertices with $v \ge 3$ and no circuits of length three, then e < 2v - 4.

Proof similar to that of Corollary 1.



• Show that K_5 is nonplanar.



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Using Corollary 1



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Using Corollary 1

Show that $K_{3,3}$ is nonplanar.



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Show that $K_{3,3}$ is nonplanar.

Using Corollary 3



• Show that K_5 is nonplanar.

Using Corollary 1

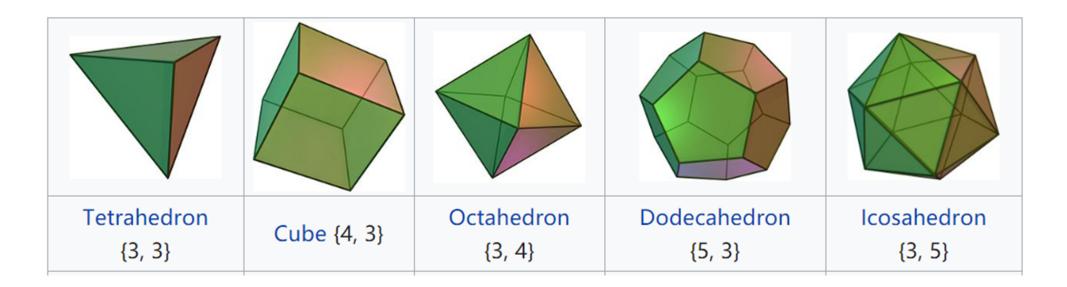
Show that $K_{3,3}$ is nonplanar.

Using Corollary 3

Corollary 2 is used in the proof of Five Color Theorem.

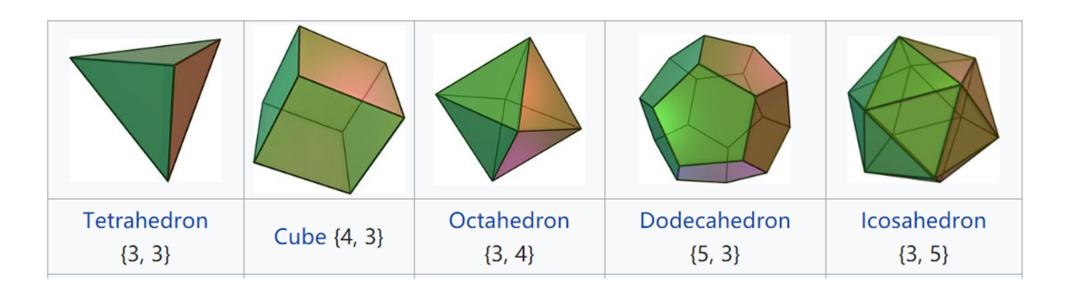


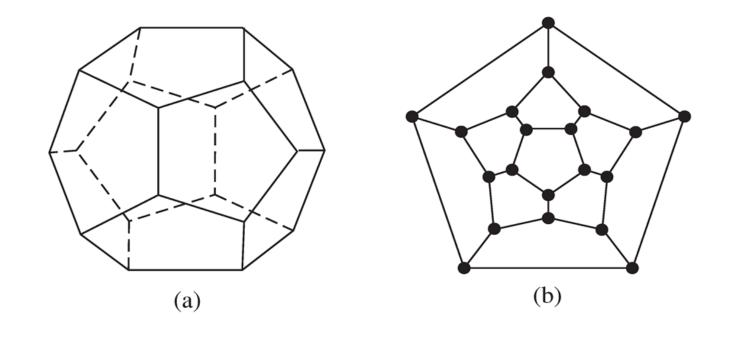
Only 5 Platonic Solids





Only 5 Platonic Solids





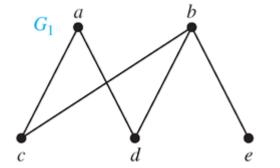
Kuratowski's Theorem

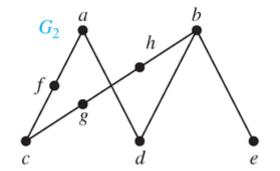
■ **Definition** If a graph is planar, so will be any graph obtained by removing an edge $\{u, v\}$ and adding a new vertex w together with edges $\{u, w\}$ and $\{w, v\}$. Such an operation is called an *elementary subdivision*. The graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ are called *homomorphic* if they can be obtained from the same graph by a sequence of elementary subdivisions.

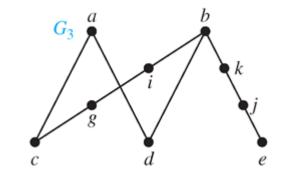


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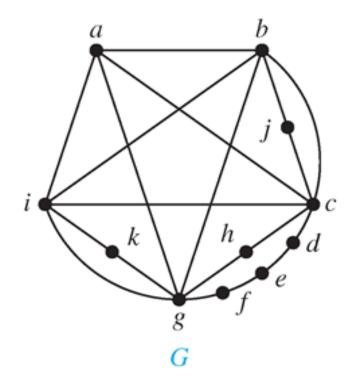


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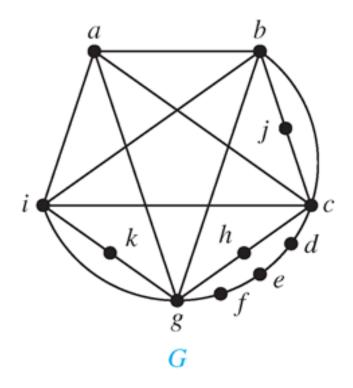
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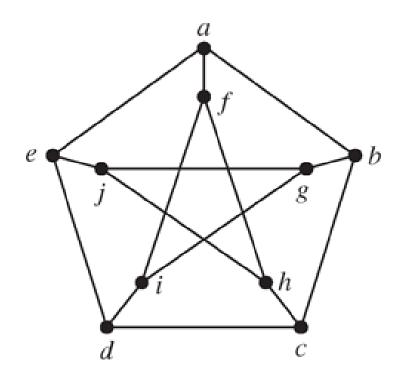
Theorem A graph is nonplanar if and only if it contains a subgraph homomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ or K_5 .



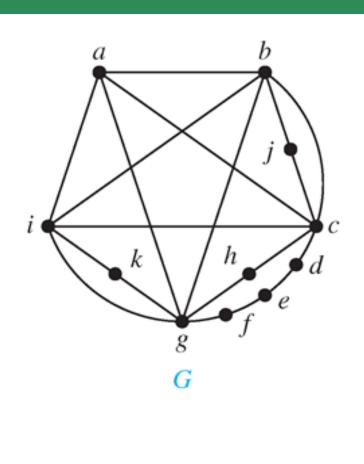


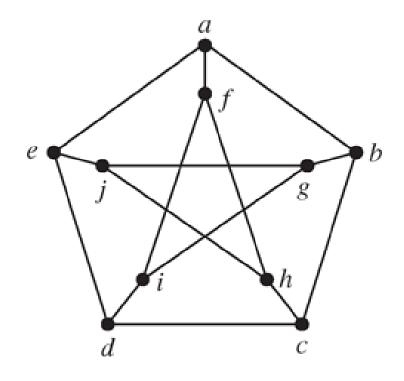


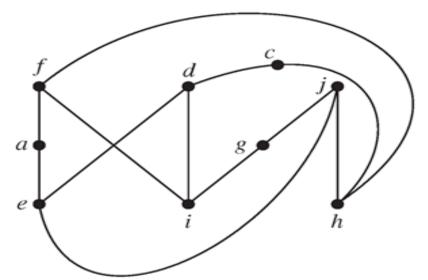






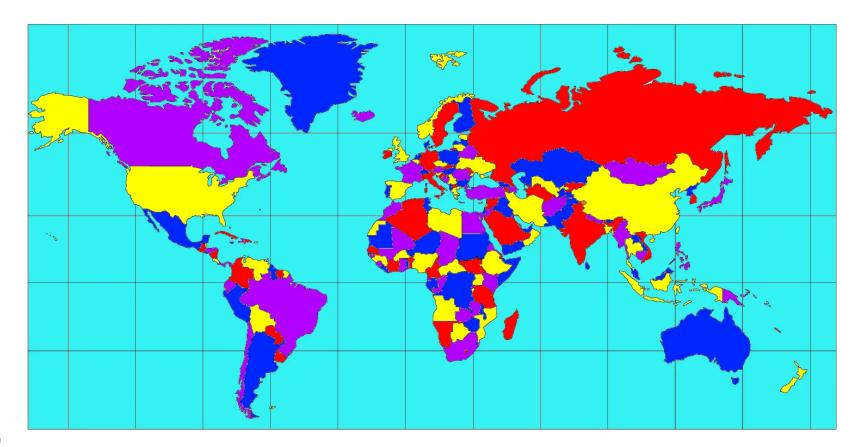








■ Four-color theorem Given any separation of a plane into contiguous regions, producing a figure called a map, no more than four colors are required to color the regions of the map so that no two adjacent regions have the same color.





Four-color theorem

- first proposed by Francis Guthrie in 1852
- his brother Frederick Guthrie told Augustus De Morgan
- De Morgan wrote to William Hamilton
- Alfred Kempe proved it incorrectly in 1879
- Percy Heawood found an error in 1890 and proved the five-color theorem
- ⋄ Finally, Kenneth Appel and Wolfgang Haken proved it with case by case analysis by computer in 1976 (the first computeraided proof)
- Kempe's incorrect proof serves as a basis

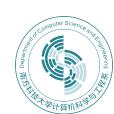


A coloring of a simple graph is the assignment of a color to each vertex of the graph so that no two adjacent vertices are assigned the same color.



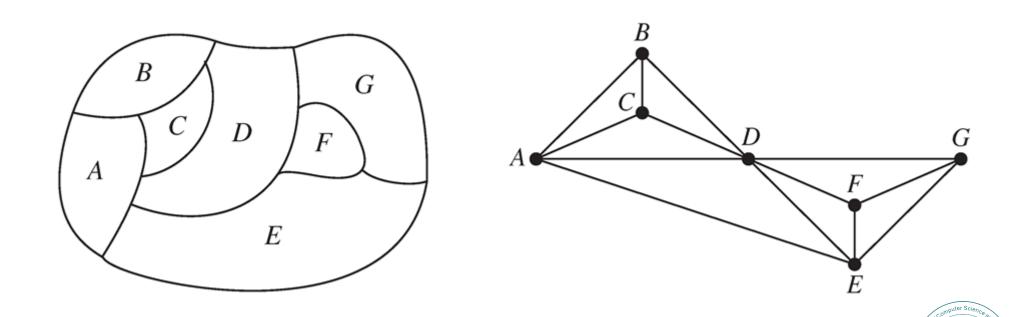
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The *chromatic number* of a graph is the least number of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by $\chi(G)$.



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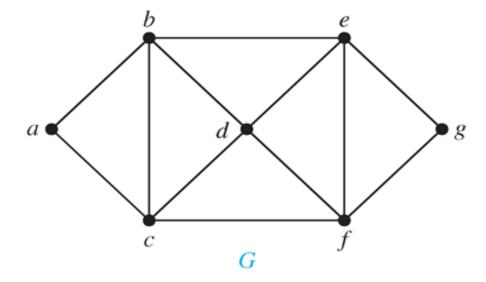
The *chromatic number* of a graph is the least number of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by $\chi(G)$.



■ **Theorem** (Four Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than four.

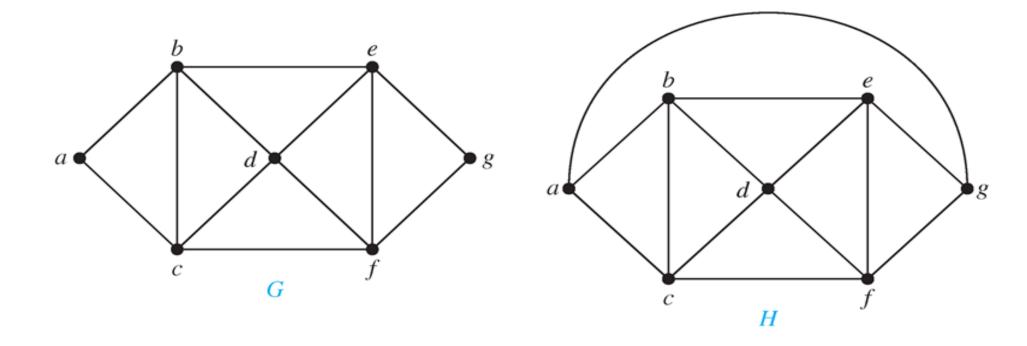


Theorem (Four Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than four.





■ **Theorem** (Four Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than four.





■ **Theorem** (Six Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than six.



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■ **Theorem** (Five Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than five.



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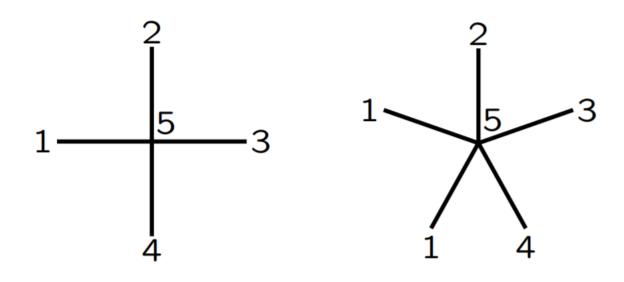
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Proof (by induction on the number of vertices) w.l.o.g., assume that the graph is connected.

If the vertex has degree less than 5, or if it has degree 5 and only \leq 4 colors are used for vertices connected to it, we can pick an available color for it.

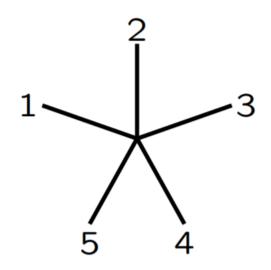




■ **Theorem** (Five Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than five.

Proof (by induction on the number of vertices)

If the vertex has degree 5, and all 5 colors are connected to it, we label the vertices adjacent to the "special" vertex (degree 5) 1 to 5 (in order).





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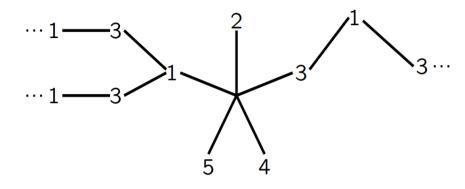
We make a subgraph out of all the vertices colored 1 or 3. If the adjacent vertex colored 1 and the adjacent vertex colored 3 are not connected by a path in the subgraph.



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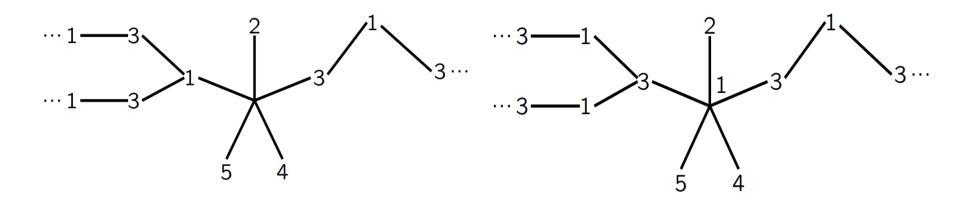




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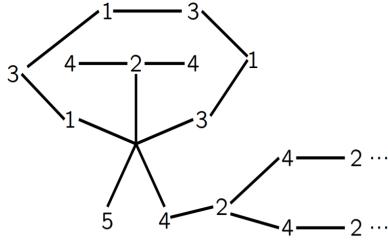
On the other hand, if the vertices colored 1 and 3 are connected via a path in the subgraph, we do the the same for the vertices colored 2 and 4. Note that this will be a disconnected pair of subgraphs, separated by a path connecting the vertices colored 1 and 3 (Why?)



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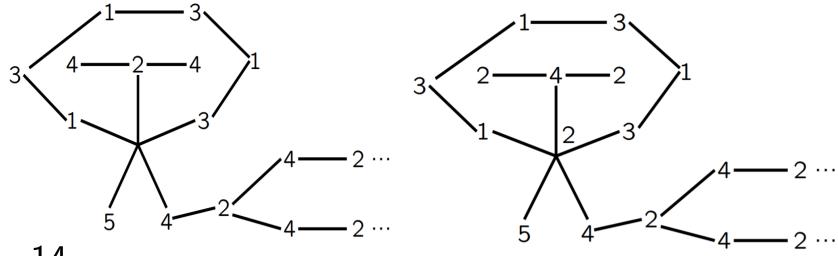




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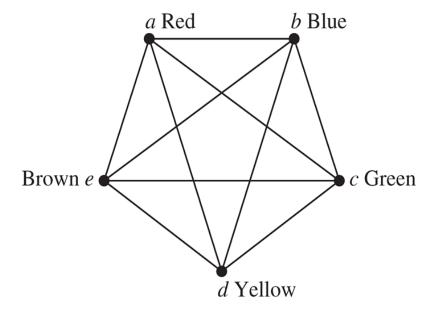
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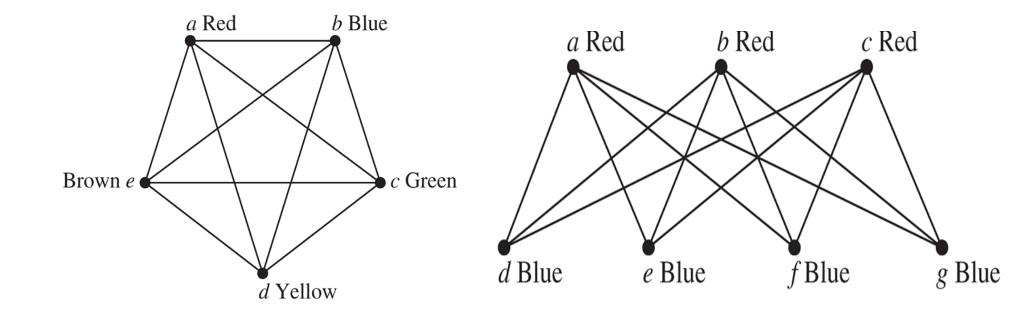






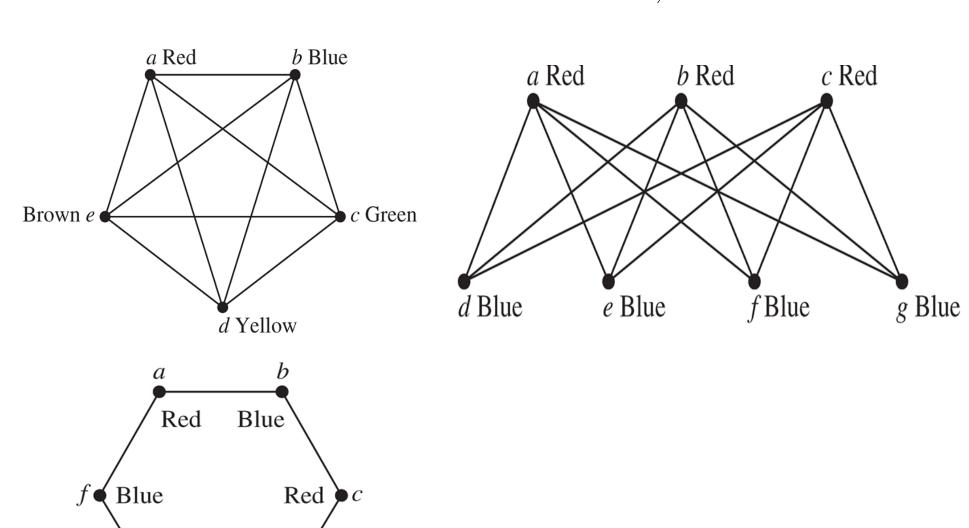








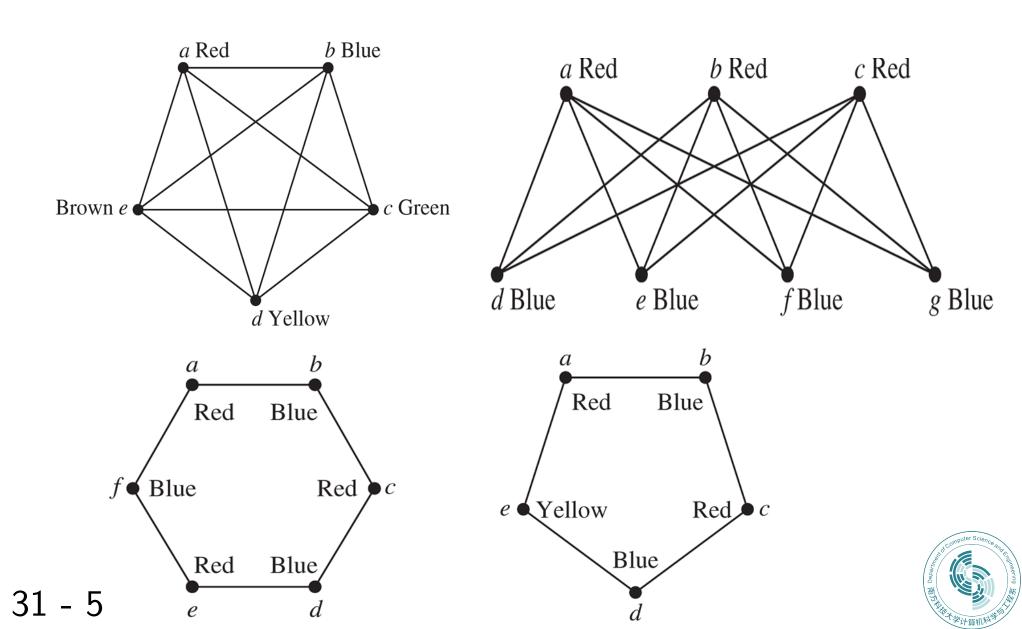
• What is the chromatic number of K_n , $K_{m,n}$, C_n ?





Red

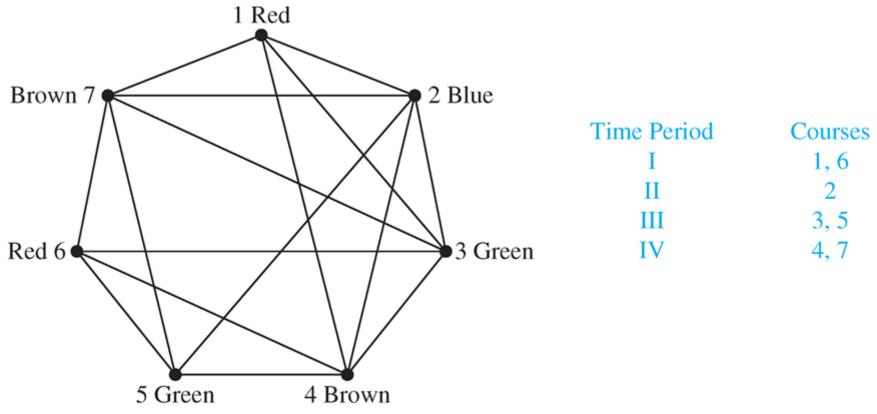
Blue



Applications of Graph Coloring

Scheduling Final Exams

Vertices represent courses, and there is an edge between two vertices if there is a common student in the courses.





Applications of Graph Coloring

Channel Assignments

Television channels 2 through 13 are assigned to stations in North America so that no two stations within 150 miles can operate on the same channel. How can the assignment of channels be modeled by graph coloring?



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Graph Coloring ∈ NPC



Next Lecture

■ tree ...

