

CS215 DISCRETE MATH

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

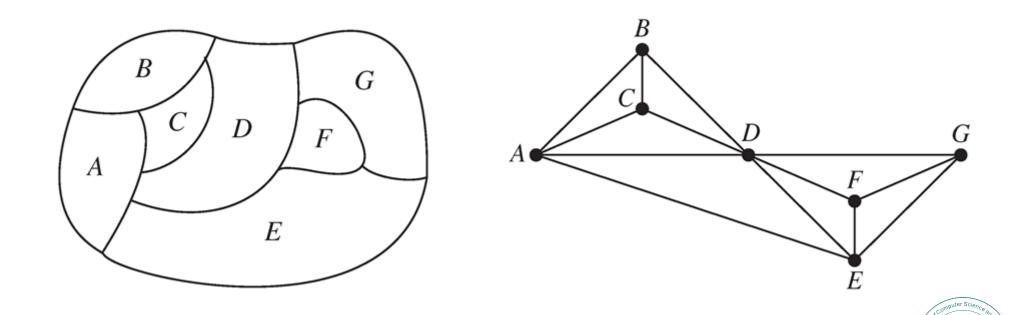
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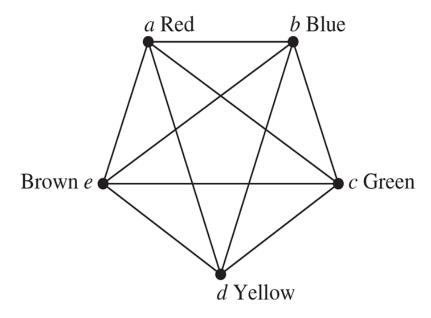
Graph Coloring

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.

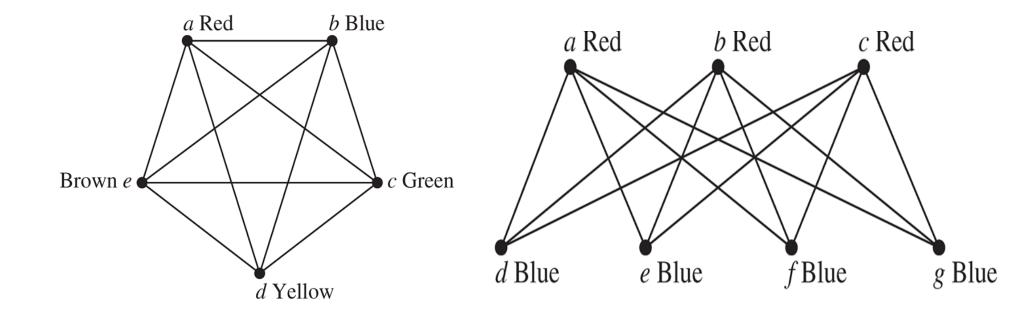
The *chromatic number* of a graph is the least number of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by $\chi(G)$.





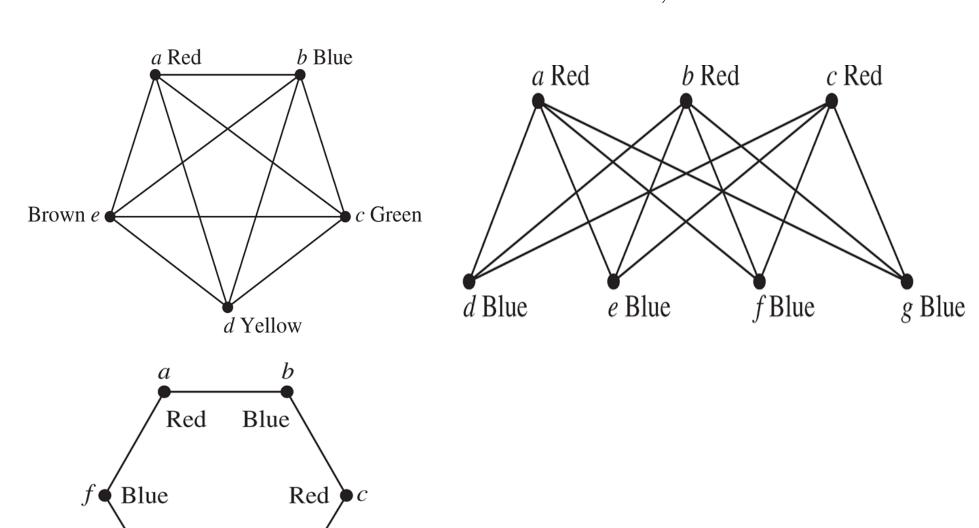








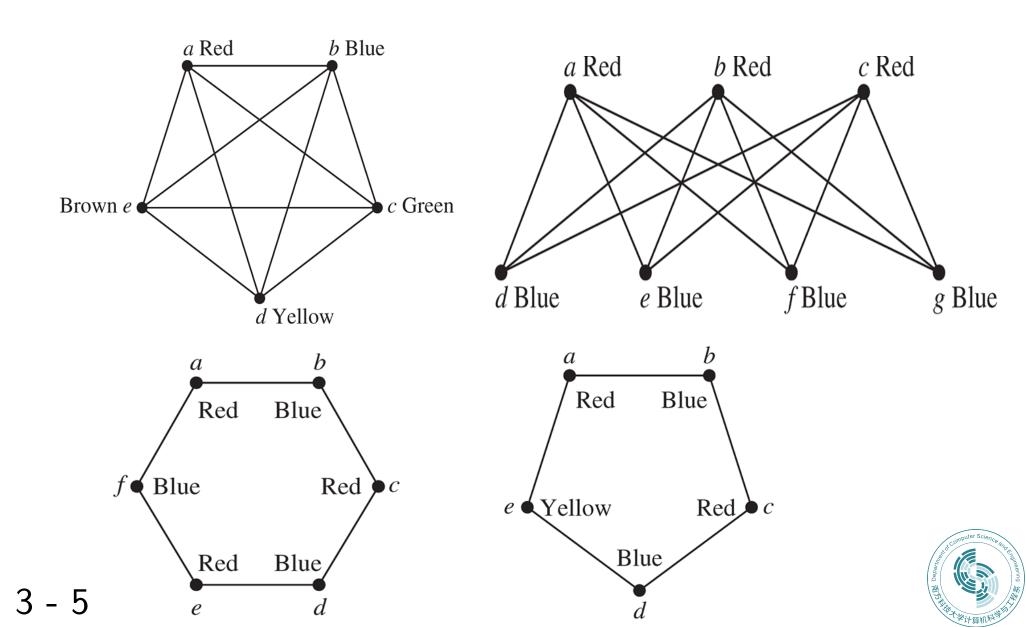
• What is the chromatic number of K_n , $K_{m,n}$, C_n ?





Red

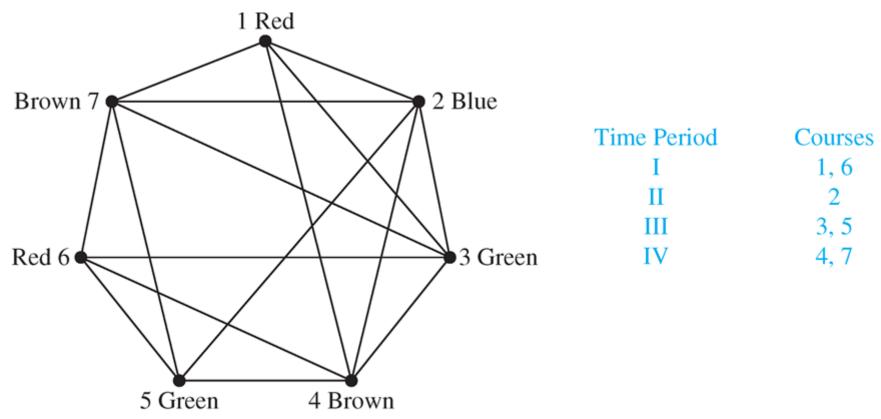
Blue



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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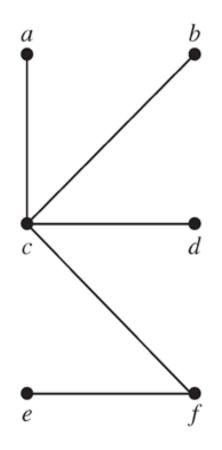
Graph Coloring ∈ NPC



■ **Definition** A *tree* is a connected undirected graph with no simple circuits.

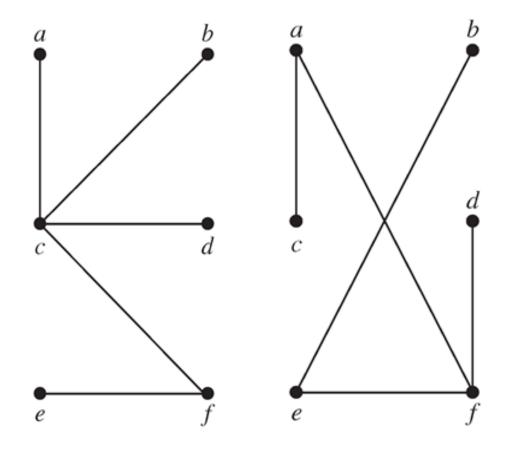


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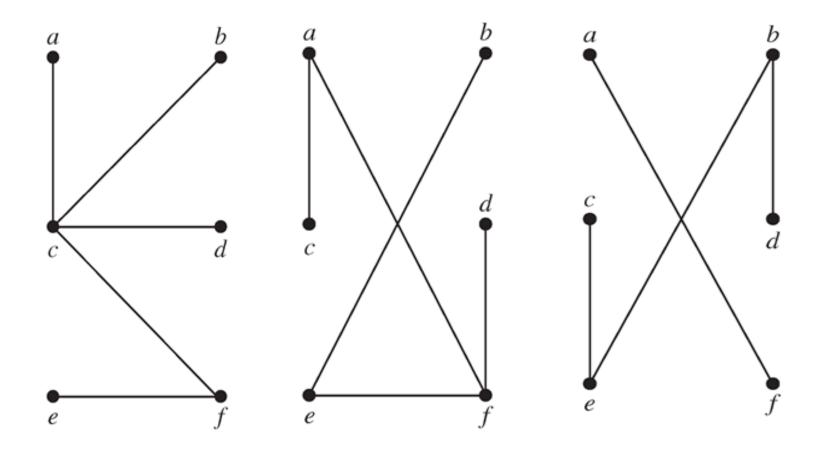


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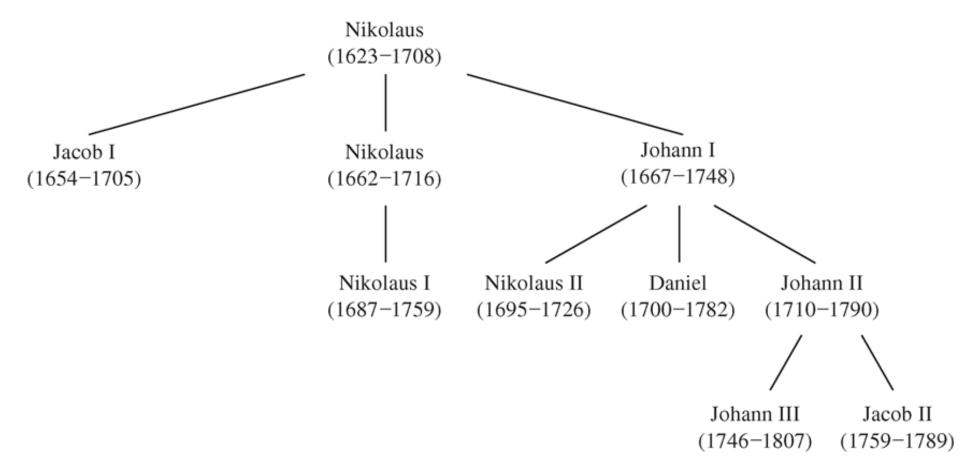


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Proof



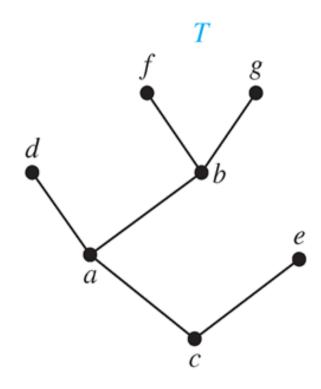
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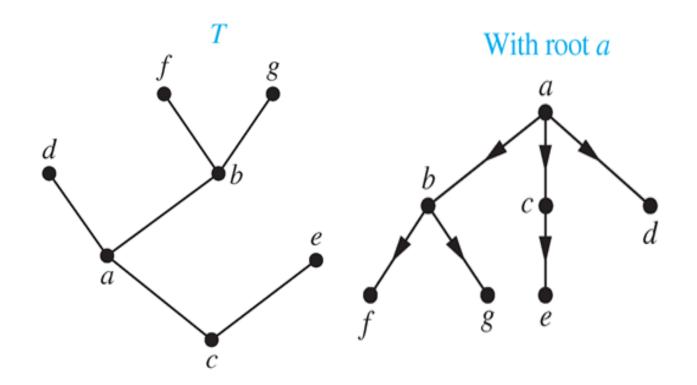
Two properties of tree: connected, no circuit



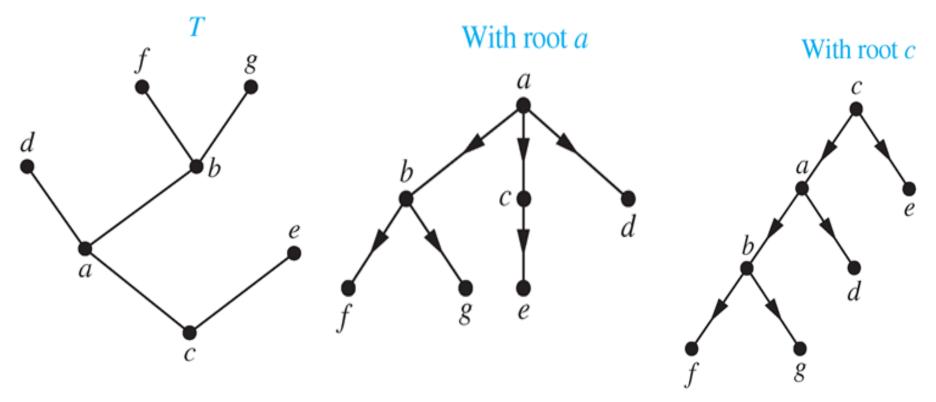














parent, child, sibling



parent, child, sibling ancestor, descendant



parent, child, sibling ancestor, descendant leaf, internal vertex



parent, child, sibling ancestor, descendant leaf, internal vertex

subtree with a as its root: consists of a and its descendants and all edges incident to these descendants



m-Ary Trees

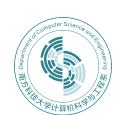
■ **Definition** A rooted tree is called an m-ary tree if every internal vertex has no more than m children. The tree is called a *full m*-ary tree if every internal vertex has exactly m children. In particular, an m-ary tree with m=2 is called a binary tree.



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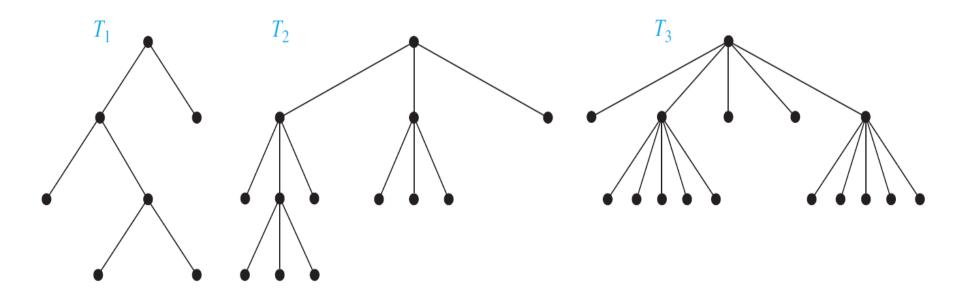
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left subtree, right subtree



Full *m*-Ary Trees

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- (i) n vertices, i = (n-1)/m, $\ell = [(m-1)n+1)]/m$ (ii) i internal vertices, n = mi + 1, $\ell = (m-1)i + 1$ (iii) ℓ leaves, $n = (m\ell - 1)/(m-1)$, $i = (\ell - 1)/(m-1)$



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```
using n = mi + 1 and n = i + \ell
```



Level and Height

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Definition A rooted m-ary tree of height h is balanced if all leaves are at levels h or h-1. (differ no greater than 1)



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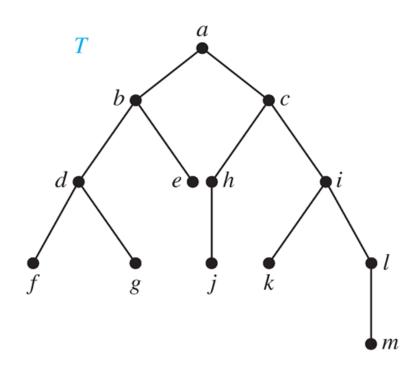
Binary Trees

• Definition A binary tree is an ordered rooted tree where each internal tree has two children, the first is called the left child and the second is the right child. The tree rooted at the left child of a vertex is called the left subtree of this vertex, and the tree rooted at the right child of a vertex is called the right subtree of this vertex.



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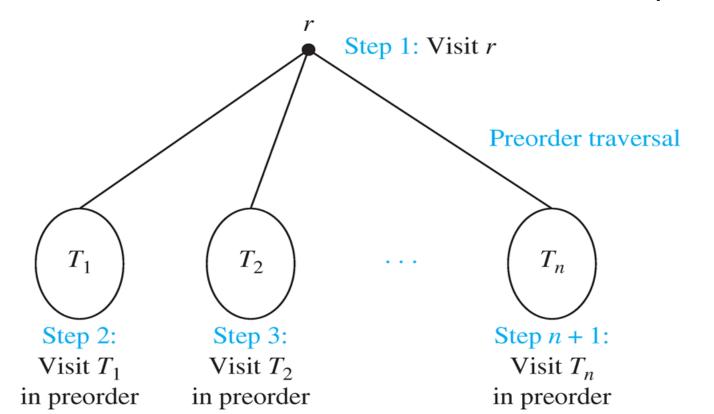
The three most commonly used traversals are *preorder* traversal, inorder traversal, postorder traversal.



■ **Definition** Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r. If T consists only of r, then r is the *preorder traversal* of T. Otherwise, suppose that T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n are the subtrees of r from left to right in T. The *preorder traversal* begins by visiting r, and continues by traversing T_1 in preorder, then T_2 in preorder, and so on, until T_n is traversed in preorder.

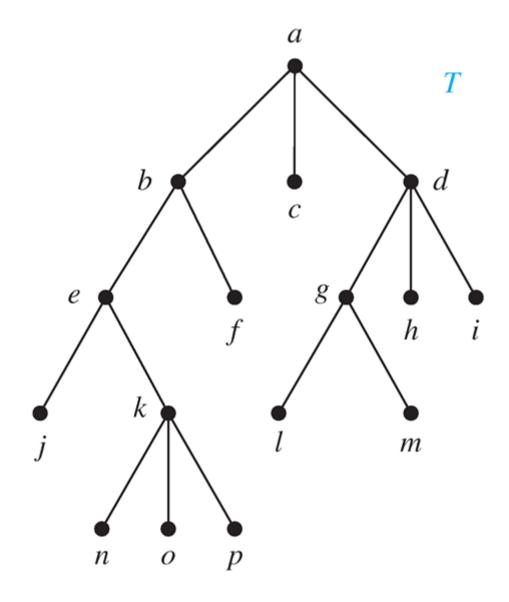


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Example





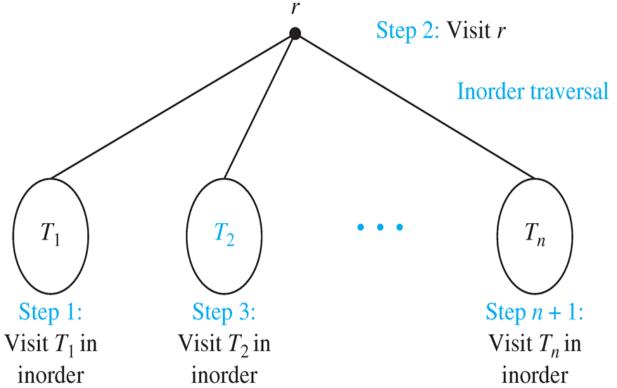
```
procedure preorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := root of T
list r
for each child c of r from left to right
    T(c) := subtree with c as root
    preorder(T(c))
```

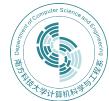


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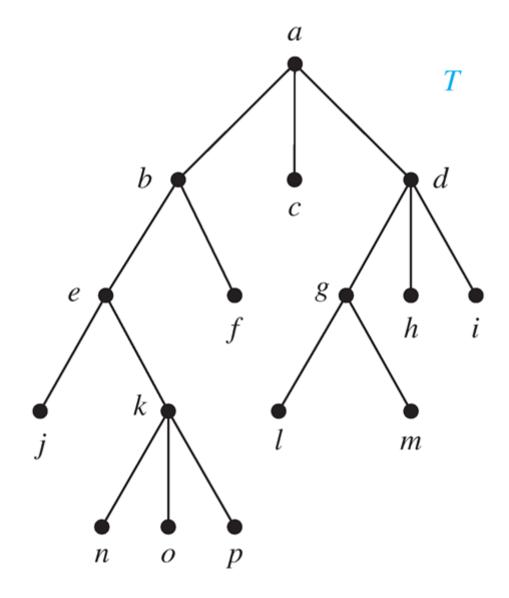


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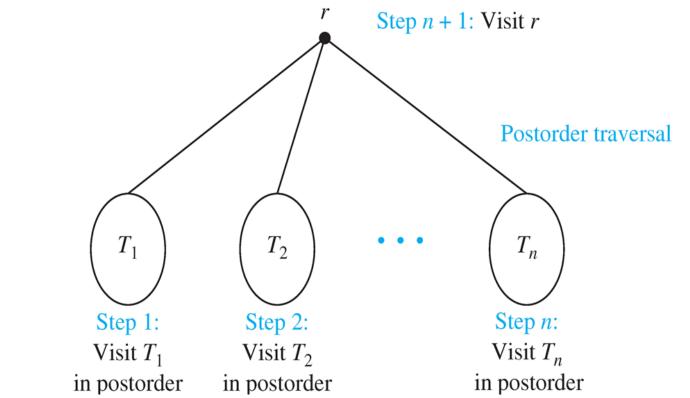
```
procedure inorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := \text{root of } T
if r is a leaf then list r
else
   l := first child of r from left to right
  T(l) := subtree with l as its root
  inorder(T(l))
  list(r)
  for each child c of r from left to right
      T(c) := subtree with c as root
      inorder(T(c))
```



■ **Definition** Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r. If T consists only of r, then r is the *postorder traversal* of T. Otherwise, suppose that T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n are the subtrees of r from left to right in T. The *postorder traversal* begins by traversing T_1 in postorder, then T_2 in postorder, and so on, after T_n is traversed in postorder, r is visited.

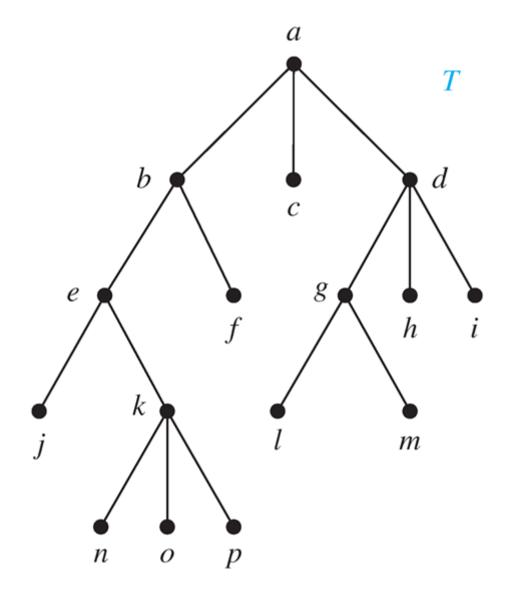


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Example

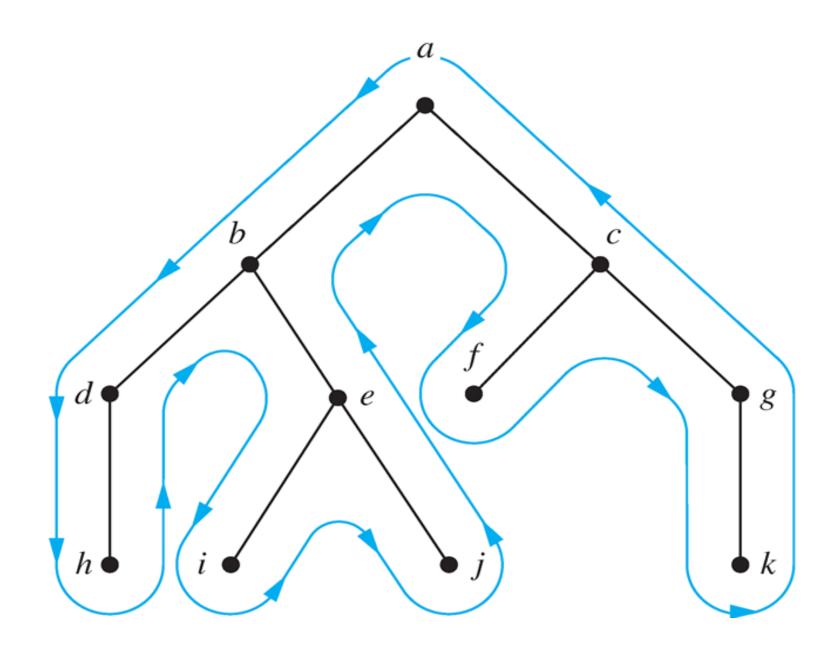




```
procedure postordered (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := root of T
for each child c of r from left to right
    T(c) := subtree with c as root
    postorder(T(c))
list r
```



Preorder, Inorder, Postorder Traversal





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 Complex expressions can be represented using ordered rooted trees



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consider the expression $((x + y) \uparrow 2) + ((x - 4)/3)$

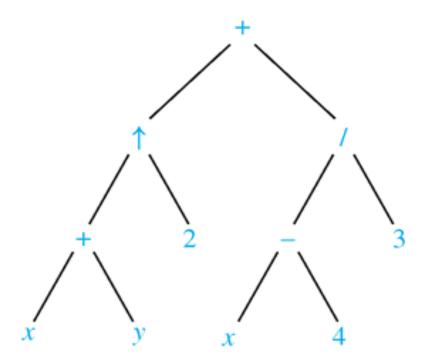


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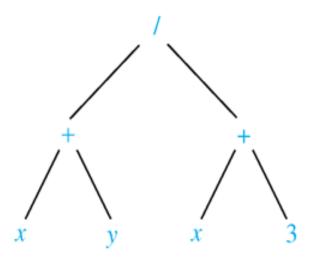
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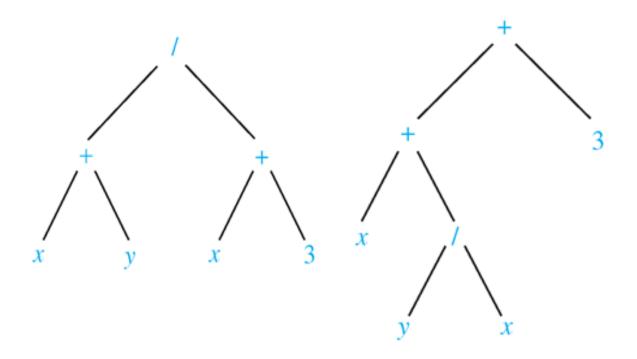


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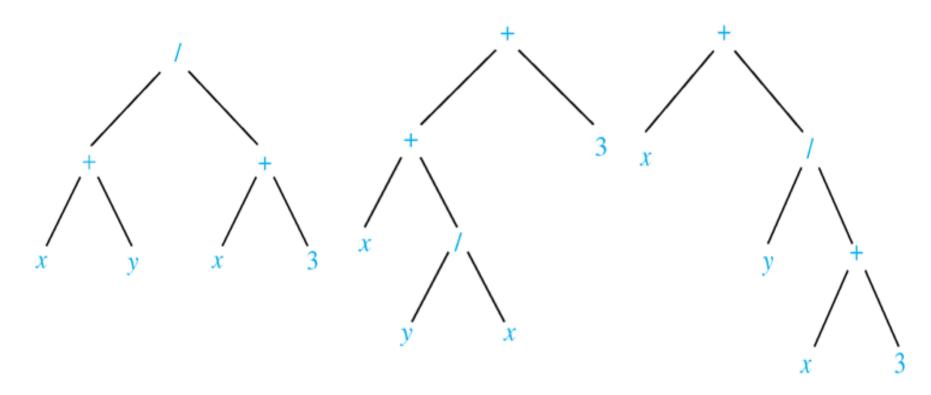


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Prefix expressions are evaluated by working from right to left. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with the two operands to the right.



Example

$$+ \ - \ * \ 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ / \ \uparrow \ 2 \ 3 \ 4$$



Example



Postfix Notation

The postorder traversal of expression trees leads to the postfix form of the expression (reverse Polish notation).



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Postfix expressions are evaluated by working from left to right. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with the two operands to the left.



Example

$$7\ 2\ 3\ *\ -\ 4\ \uparrow\ 9\ 3\ /\ +$$



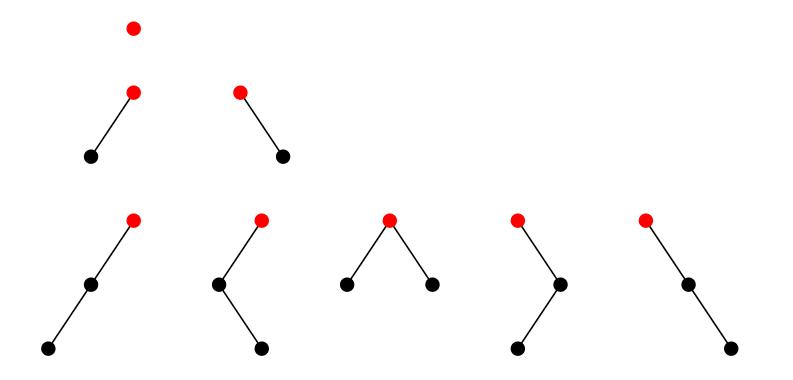
Example



• How many different binary tress are there with n vertices? We denote this number as C_n .

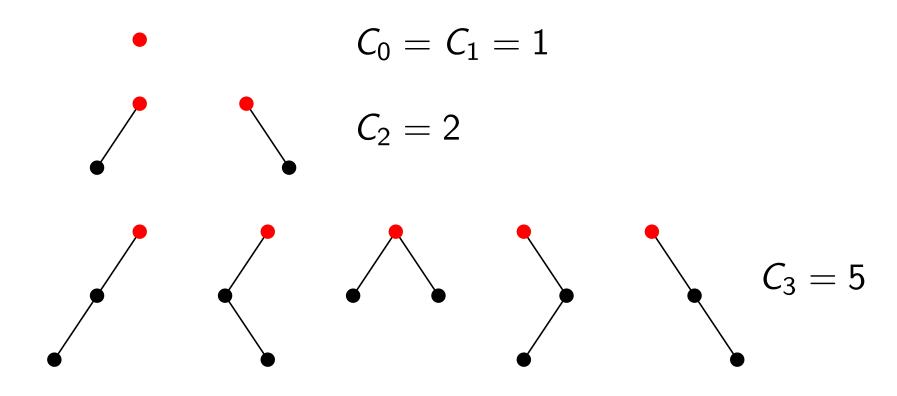


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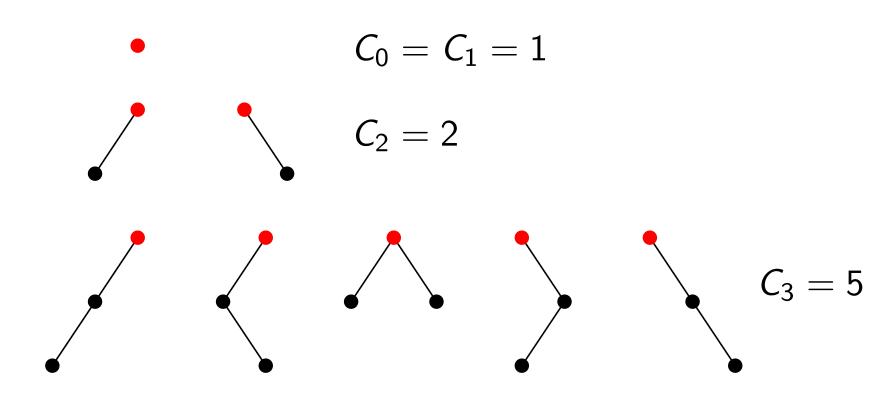


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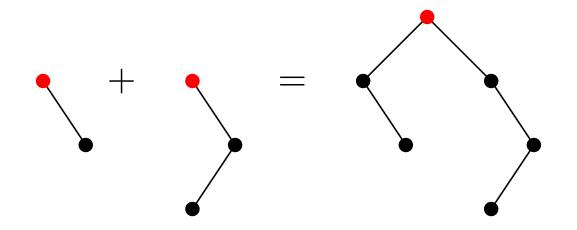
How to find a formula for C_n ?



■ We first give an important *observation* on the recursive relation.

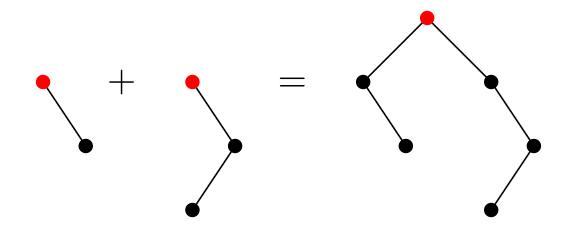


- We first give an important observation on the recursive relation. Any nonempty rooted binary tree
 - = two smaller binary trees (possibly empty) + one extra root





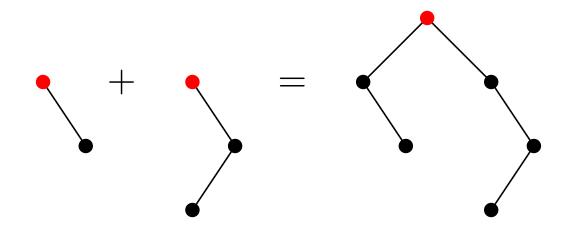
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For example, $C_3 = C_0C_2 + C_1C_1 + C_2C_0 = 1*2+1*1+2*1 = 5$.



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The coefficient of x^n in f^2 is: $[x^n]_{f^2} = \sum_{i=0}^n C_i C_{n-i}$, since the following is the sum of all possible terms of x^n

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Then we have $xf^2 + 1 = f$, which gives $f = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x}$ for $x \neq 0$.



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When
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, $\frac{1+\sqrt{1-4x}}{2x} \to \infty$ and $\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4x}}{2x} \to 1$.

Since
$$f(0) = 1 = C_0$$
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 C_n – the coefficient of x^n in the expansion of f.



 $f = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x}$, by the extended Binomial Theorem,

$$\sqrt{1-4x} = (1+(-4x))^{1/2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} {1/2 \choose n} (-4x)^n.$$



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$$\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4x}}{2x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{2} \binom{1/2}{n} (-4)^n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{2} \binom{1/2}{n+1} (-4)^{n+1} x^n.$$

where
$$\binom{1/2}{n} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{3}{2})\cdots(-\frac{2n-3}{2})}{n!}$$
.



 $f = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4x}}{2x}$, by the extended Binomial Theorem,

$$\sqrt{1-4x} = (1+(-4x))^{1/2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} {1/2 \choose n} (-4x)^n.$$

$$\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4x}}{2x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{2} \binom{1/2}{n} (-4)^n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} -\frac{1}{2} \binom{1/2}{n+1} (-4)^{n+1} x^n.$$

where
$$\binom{1/2}{n} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{3}{2})\cdots(-\frac{2n-3}{2})}{n!}$$
.

Then we have $C_n = \frac{1}{n+1} {2n \choose n}$.

This is called the *n*-th *Catalan number*.



Catalan Numbers: Related Problems

Theorem The number of sequences a_1, \ldots, a_{2n} of 2n terms that can be formed using exactly n+1's and exactly n-1's whose partial sums are always nonnegative, i.e., $a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_k \geq 0$ for any $1 \leq k \leq 2n$, equals the n-th Catalan number C_n .



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Catalan Numbers: Related Problems

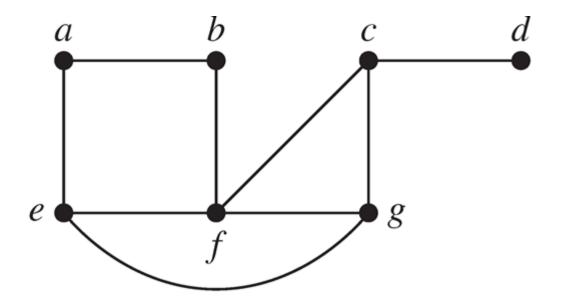
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 - R. Stanley, Catalan Numbers, Cambridge University Press, 2015. Includes 214 combinatorial interpretations of C_n , and 68 additional problems!



■ **Definition** Let *G* be a simple graph. A *spanning tree* of *G* is a subgraph of *G* that is a tree containing every vertex of *G*.

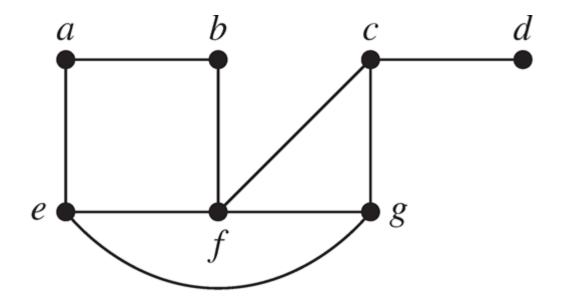


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remove edges to avoid circuits



■ **Theorem** A simple graph is connected if and only if it has a spanning tree.



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Depth-First Search

We can find spanning trees by removing edges from simple circuits.



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- Form a path by successively adding vertices and edges.
 Continue adding to this path as long as possible.



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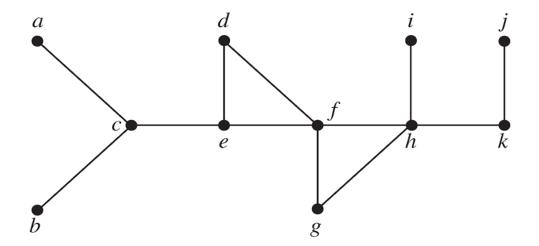
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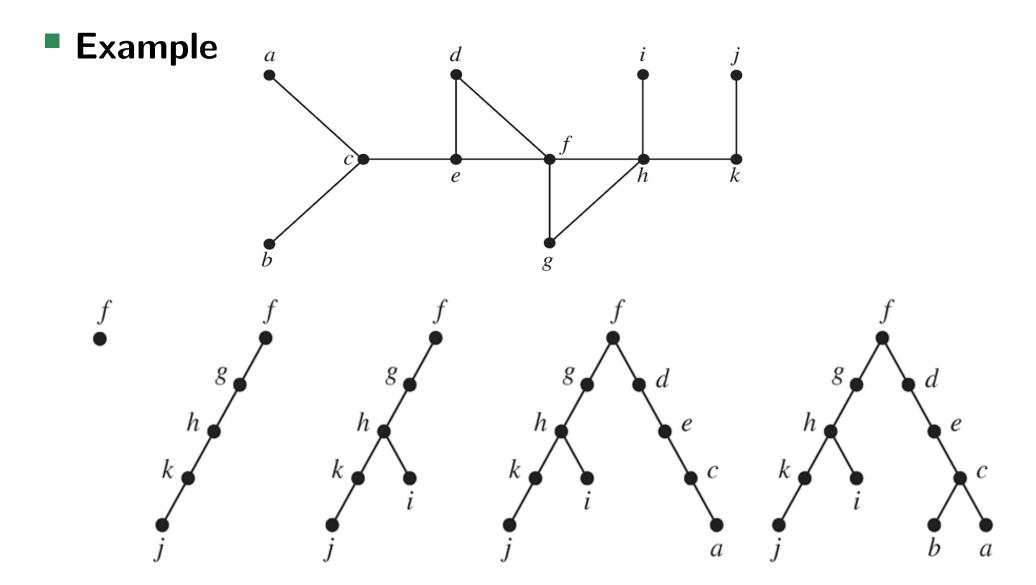
- ⋄ First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
- Form a path by successively adding vertices and edges.
 Continue adding to this path as long as possible.
- ♦ If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, the tree is a spanning tree.
- Otherwise, move back to some vertex to repeat this procedure (backtracking)



Example









Depth-First Search Algorithm

```
procedure DFS(G: connected graph with vertices v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, ..., v<sub>n</sub>)
T := tree consisting only of the vertex v<sub>1</sub>
visit(v<sub>1</sub>)

procedure visit(v: vertex of G)
for each vertex w adjacent to v and not yet in T
   add vertex w and edge {v,w} to T
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time complexity: O(e)



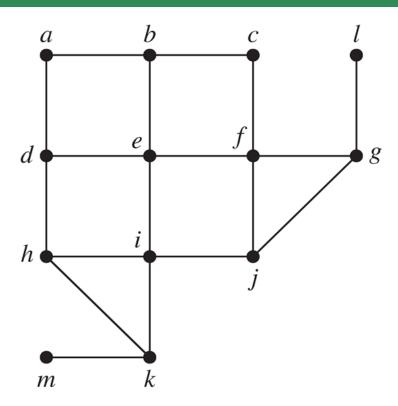
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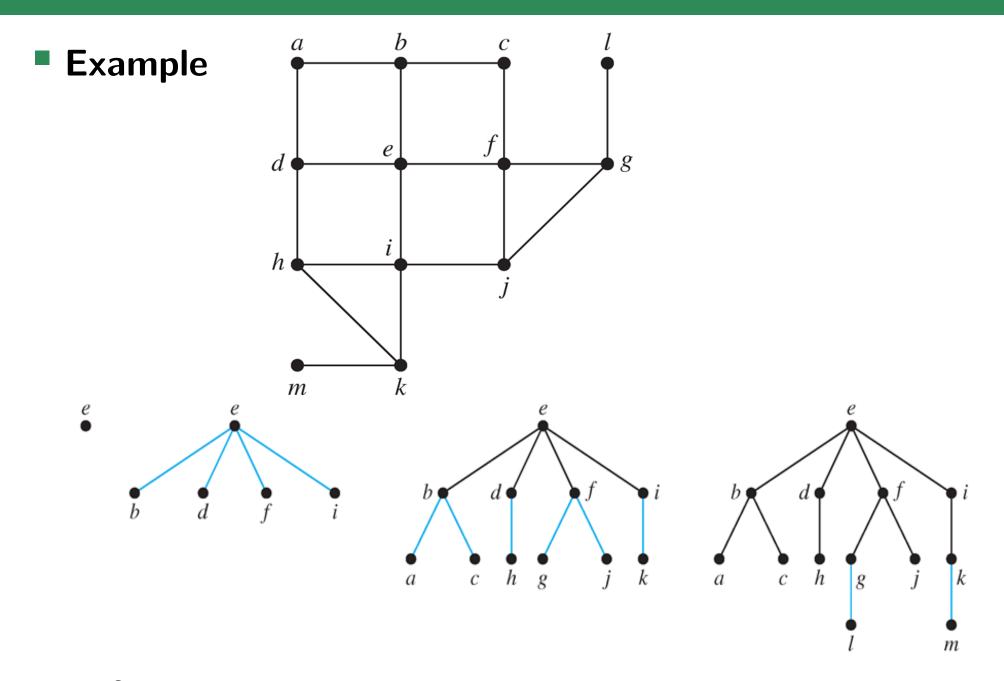


- This is the second algorithm that we build up spanning trees by successively adding edges.
 - First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
 - ♦ Form a path by adding all edges incident to this vertex and the other endpoint of each of these edges
 - ⋄ For each vertex added at the previous level, add edge incident to this vertex, as long as it does not produce a simple circuit.
 - Continue in this manner until all vertices have been added.



Example





```
procedure BFS(G: connected graph with vertices v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, ..., v<sub>n</sub>)
T := tree consisting only of the vertex v<sub>1</sub>
L := empty list visit(v<sub>1</sub>)
put v<sub>1</sub> in the list L of unprocessed vertices
while L is not empty
remove the first vertex, v, from L
for each neighbor w of v
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find paths, circuits, connected components, cut vertices, ...



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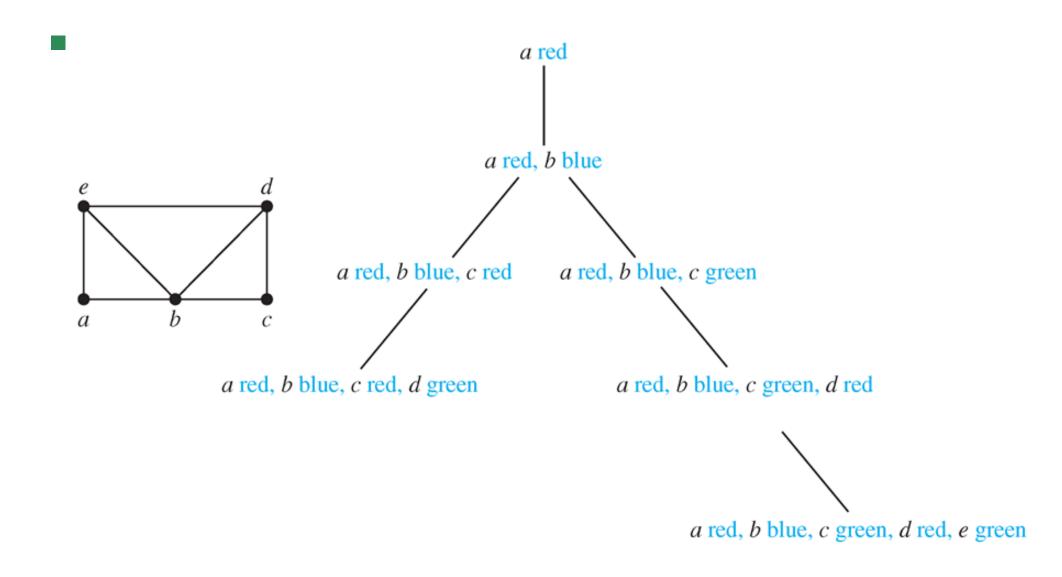
find shortest paths, determine whether bipartite, ...



• find paths, circuits, connected components, cut vertices, ...
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graph coloring, sums of subsets, ...







find Sum = 0find {27} {31} grap Sum = 31Sum = 27 ${31, 5}$ $\{27, 7\}$ ${31, 7}$ {27, 11} Sum = 38Sum = 36Sum = 34Sum = 38 $\{27, 7, 5\}$ Sum = 39

find a subset of $\{31, 27, 15, 11, 7, 5\}$ with the sum 39



Minimum Spanning Trees

■ **Definition** A *minimum spanning tree* in a connected weighted graph is a spanning tree that has the smallest possible sum of weights of its edges.



Minimum Spanning Trees

Definition A minimum spanning tree in a connected weighted graph is a spanning tree that has the smallest possible sum of weights of its edges.

two greedy algorithms:

Prim's Algorithm, Kruscal's Algorithm



ALGORITHM 1 Prim's Algorithm.

```
procedure Prim(G: weighted connected undirected graph with n vertices)
T := a minimum-weight edge
for i := 1 to n - 2
e := an edge of minimum weight incident to a vertex in T and not forming a simple circuit in T if added to T
T := T with e added
return T {T is a minimum spanning tree of G}
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ALGORITHM 1 Prim's Algorithm.

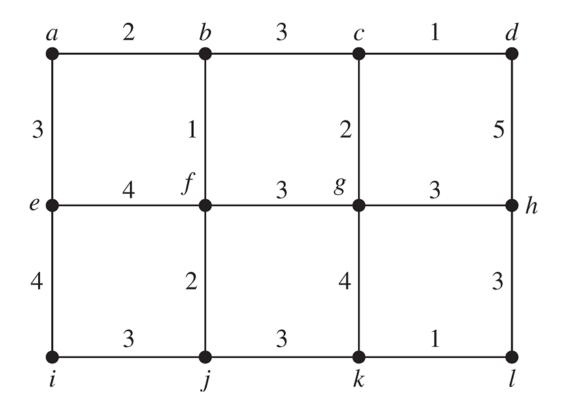
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We can maintain a *heap* of all the edges with at least one endpoint in T, and in each iteration, we do Extract-Mins until we see an edge that has one endpoint in T and one endpoint not in T.

time complexity: e log v

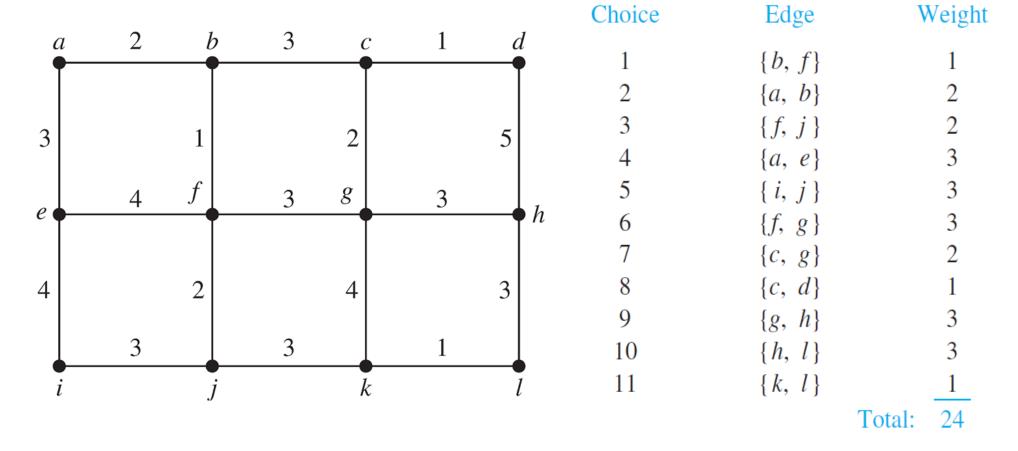


Example





Example





Proof by *induction*.



Proof by induction.

i.h.: After each iteration, the tree T is a subgraph of some MST M. This is trivially true for the basic step, since intially T has only one vertex and no edges.



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Since Prim's algorithm has chosen to add e, we have $w(e) \leq w(e')$. So if we add e to M and remove e' from M, we will have a new tree M' whose total weight \leq that of M, and $T \cup \{e\} \subset M'$.



ALGORITHM 2 Kruskal's Algorithm.

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procedure Kruskal(G: weighted connected undirected graph with n vertices)
T := empty graph
for i := 1 to n - 1
e := any edge in G with smallest weight that does not form a simple circuit when added to T
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time complexity: $e \log e$ Union-Find



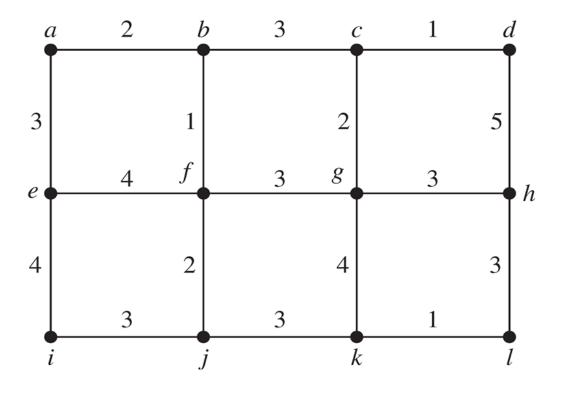
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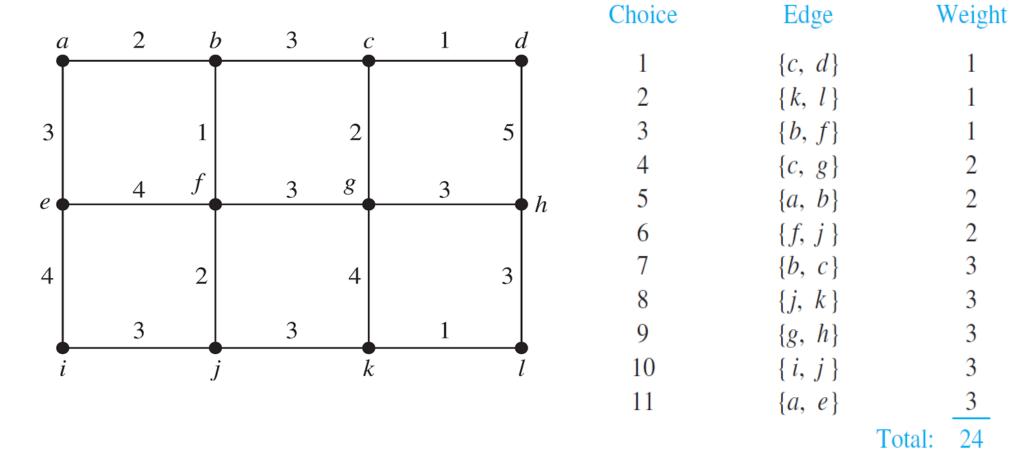


Example





Example





Kruscal's Algorithm: Correctness

• **Proof** by *induction*. Similar to Prim's algorithm.



Kruscal's Algorithm: Correctness

- Proof by induction. Similar to Prim's algorithm.
- A unifying structure: Given a graph G = (V, E), every subset $S \subseteq V$ defines a $cut(S, \bar{S})$. We consider the edge set between S and \bar{S} .



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- A unifying structure: Given a graph G = (V, E), every subset $S \subseteq V$ defines a $cut(S, \overline{S})$. We consider the edge set between S and \overline{S} .

Theorem Let (S, \overline{S}) be an arbitrary cut, and let e be an edge across the cut (one endpoint in S, the other in \overline{S}) that has the smallest weight of all edges cross the cut. Then there must be an MST T containing e.

Theorem Let (S, \overline{S}) be an arbitrary cut, and let E' be the set of edges across the cut of minimum weight (w(e) = w(e')) for any two edges $e, e' \in E'$ and w(e) < w(e') for any $e \in E'$ and $e' \notin E'$. Let T be an arbitrary MST. Then T must contain some edge in E'.



Next Lecture

reduction, review ...

