

CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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Euler's Formula

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.



Euler's Formula

- **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.
- Corollary 1 If G is a connected planar simple graph with e edges and v vertices, where $v \ge 3$, then $e \le 3v 6$.

Corollary 2 If *G* is a connected planar simple graph, then *G* has a vertex of degree not exceeding 5.

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 $e \le 2v - 4$.



Graph Coloring

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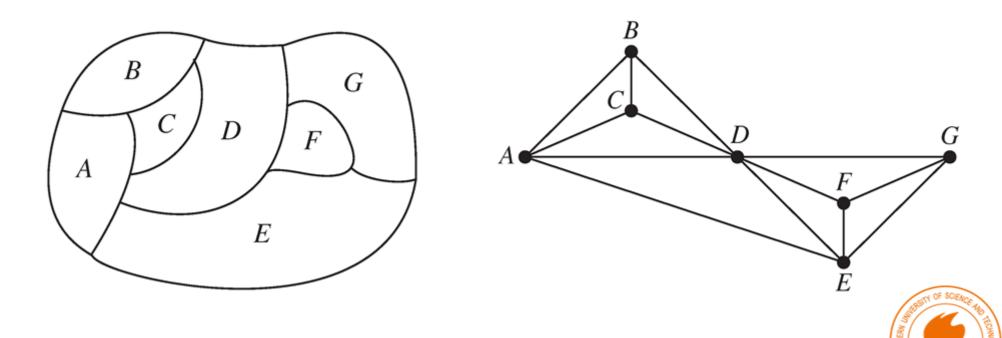
The *chromatic number* of a graph is the least number of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by $\chi(G)$.



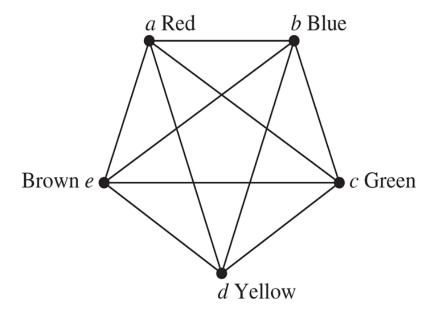
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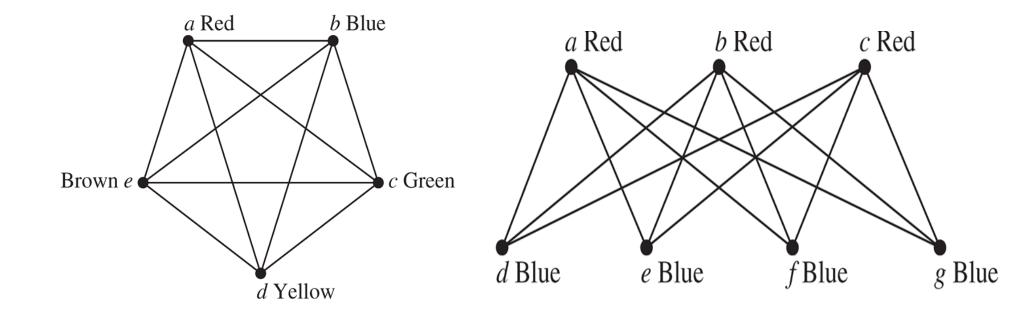
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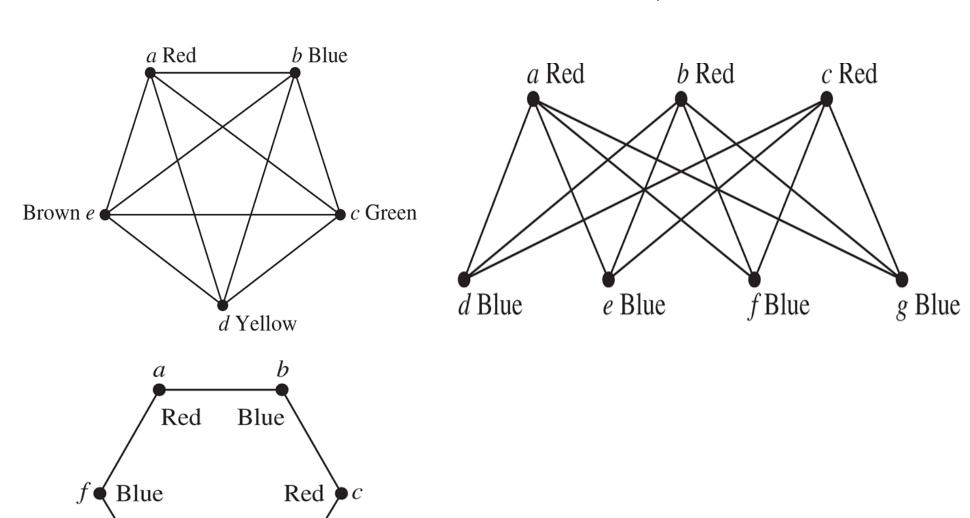




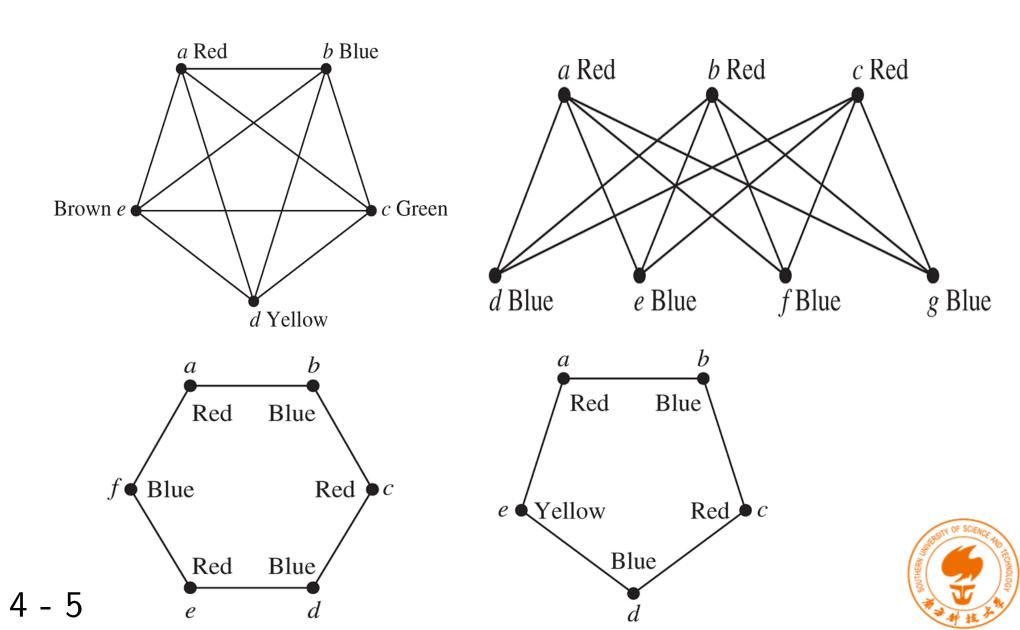


Red

Blue



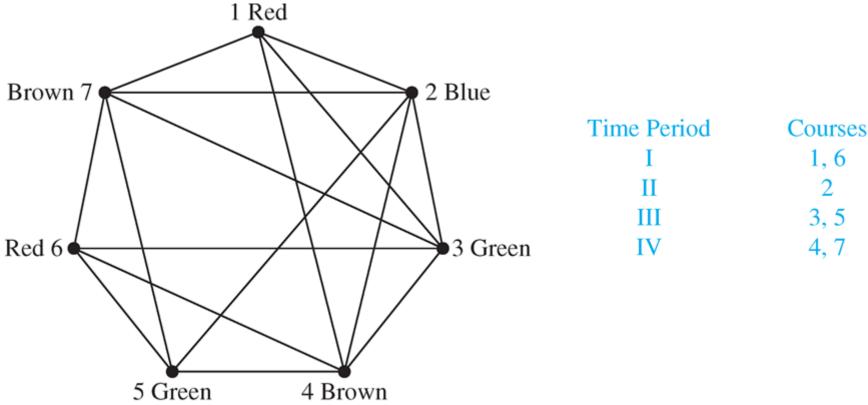




Applications of Graph Coloring

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



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In a Zero Knowledge Proof, Alice will prove to Bob that a statement P is true. Bob will be completely convinced that P is true, but will not learn anything as a result of this process. That is, Bob will gain zero knowledge.



Protocol design. A protocol is an algorithm for interactive parties to achieve a certain goal. However, in crypto, we often want to design protocols that should achieve security even when one of the parties is "cheating". Alice can prove in zero knowledge that she followed the instructions.



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Proofs that Yield Nothing But their Validity and a Methodology of Cryptographic Protocol Design

(Extended Abstract)

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A direct solution is to have a box on the door and give authorized people a secret PIN number. However, a drawback is that the box remains outside all the time and if someone could examine the box, they would perhaps be able to view its memory and extract the secrets keys of all people.



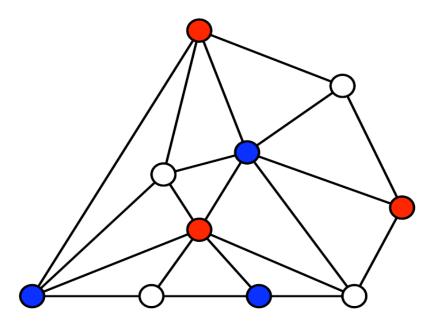
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Ideas using ZKPs:

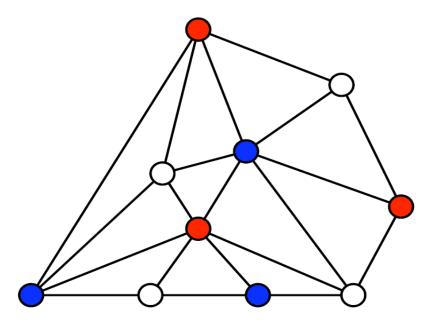
- Let the box contain an *instance* of a hard problem.
- Give the authorized people the solution to the instance.
- The authorized people will *prove* to the box that they know the solution in zero knowledge.





Alice knows how to 3-color a graph: no two adjacent vertices have the same color; this is an NPC problem.





- Alice knows how to 3-color a graph: no two adjacent vertices have the same color; this is an NPC problem.
 - can impress your friends
 - useful for identification



- How can Alice convince Bob that she can 3-color the graph without
 - letting him steal her work?
 - letting him impersonate her?

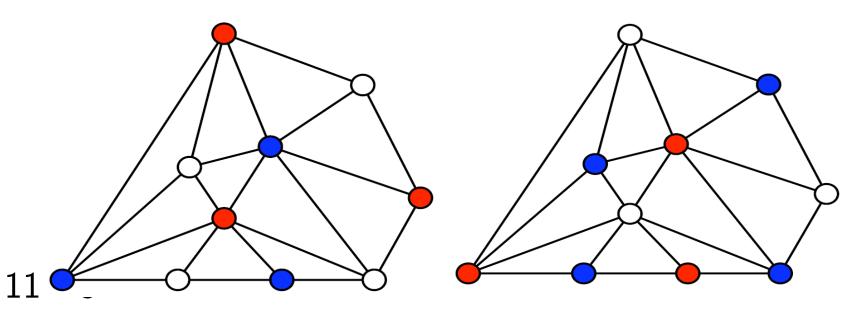


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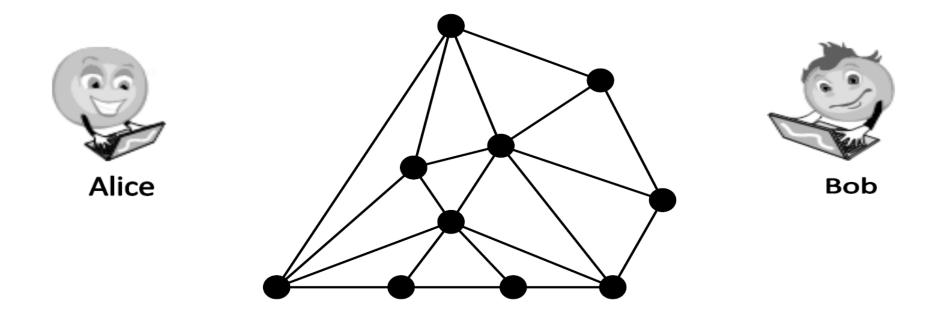
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Alice may permute the vertex colors.



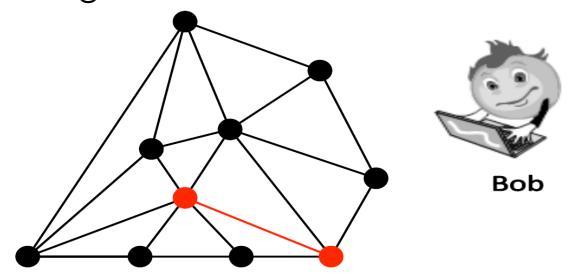


Alice then encrypts all vertex colors (one key per vertex), and sends the graph to Bob.



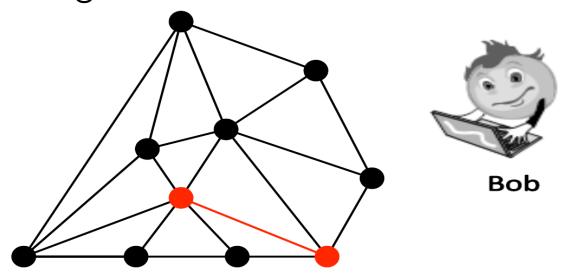


Bob picks an edge at random.

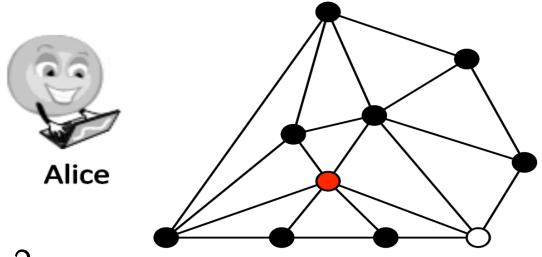




Bob picks an edge at random.



Alice reveals colors of those two keys.





- Repeat as much as needed:
 - Alice permutes graph coloring
 - Alice encrypts all vertices with distinct keys
 - Alice sends permuted encrypted colors to Bob
 - Bob picks an edge
 - Alice sends keys for two vertices
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After k repetitions, the probability she fools Bob is $(1 - \frac{1}{|E|})^k$.



- What does Bob see?
 - randomly-generated keys
 - randomly-generated colors

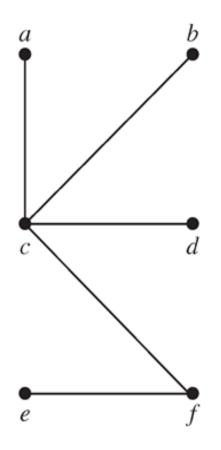


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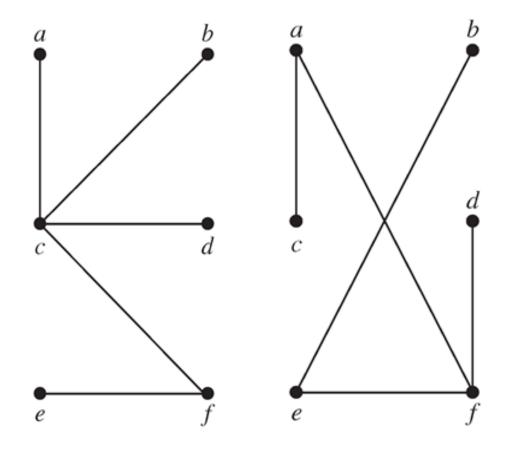
Because Bob could have generated those keys and colors by himself, he learns nothing from the graph coloring.



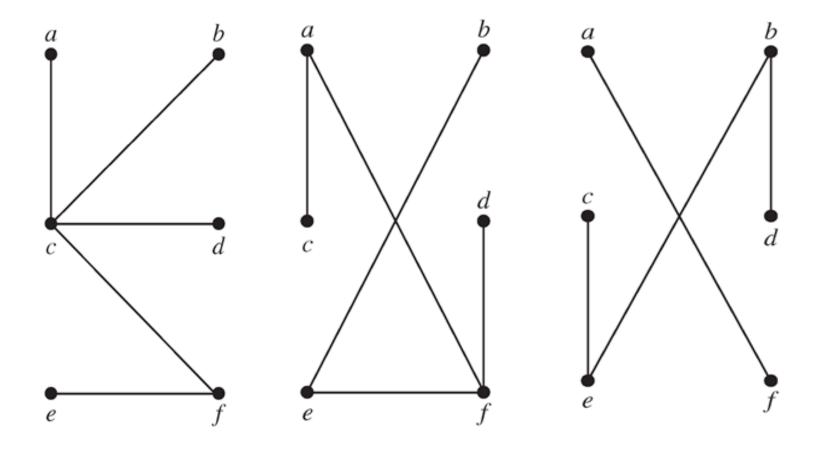




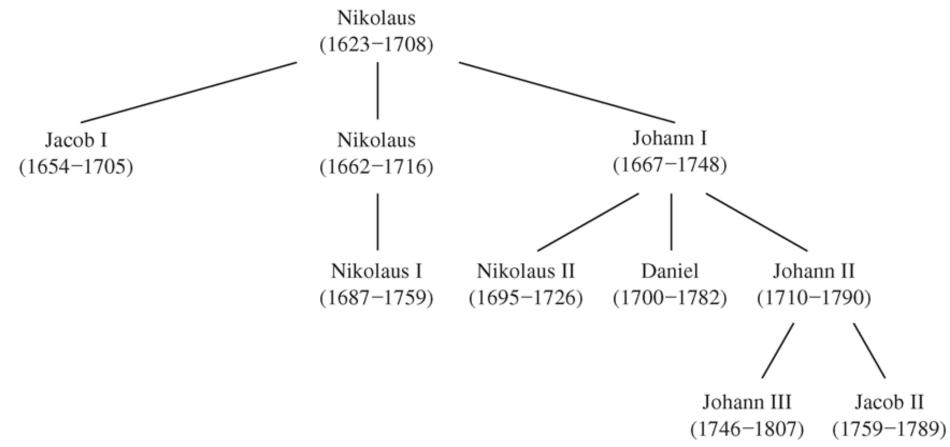














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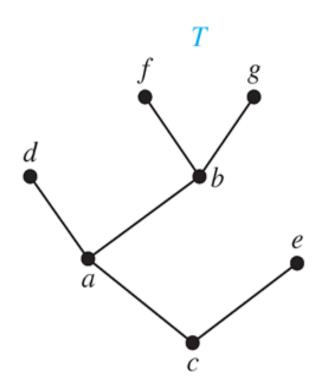
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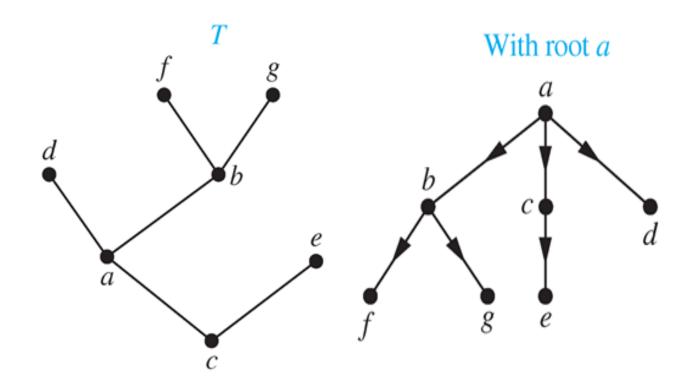
Two properties of tree: connected, no circuit



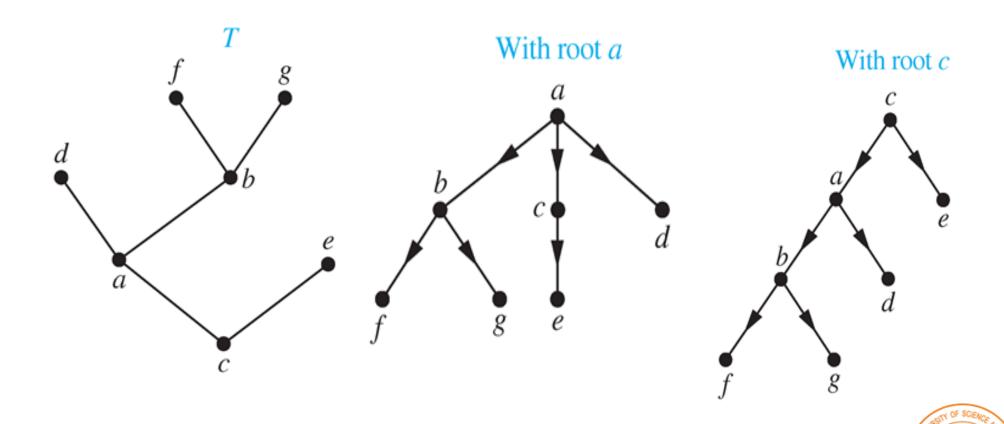












parent, child, sibling



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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- (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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The *height* of a rooted tree is the maximum of the levels of the vertices.

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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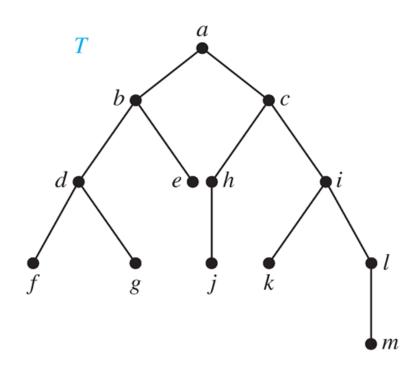
Binary Trees

• 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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Tree Traversal

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

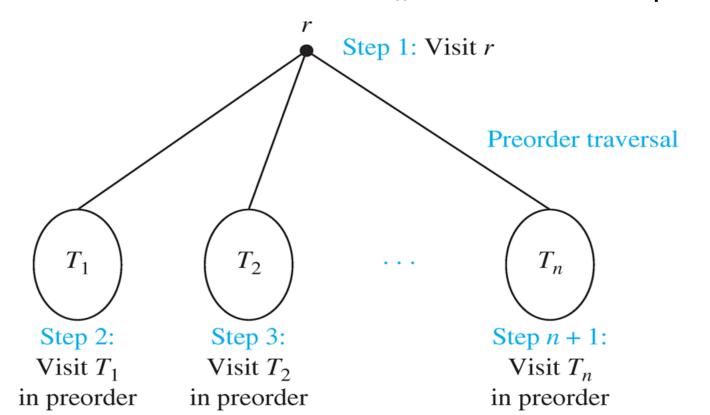


Preorder Traversal

■ **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.

Preorder Traversal

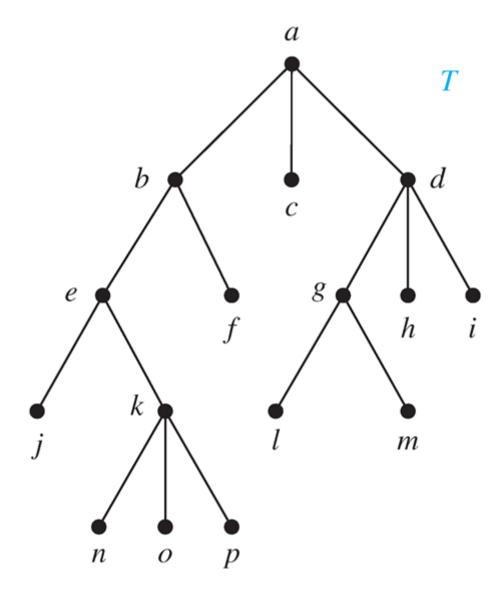
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Preorder Traversal

Example





Preorder Traversal

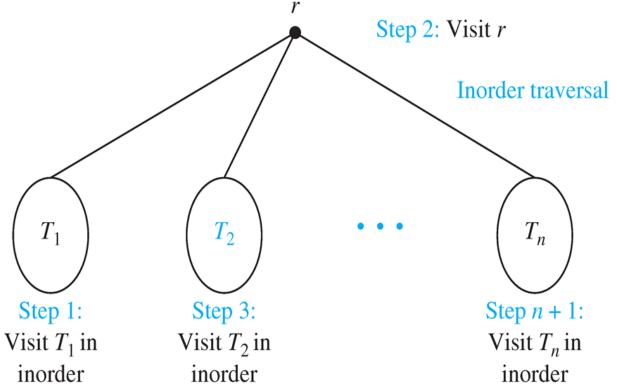
```
procedure preorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := root of T
list r
for each child c of r from left to right
    T(c) := subtree with c as root
    preorder(T(c))
```



■ **Definition** Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r. If T consists only of r, then r is the *inorder 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 *inorder traversal* begins by traversing T_1 in inorder, then visiting r, and continues by traversing T_2 in inorder, and so on, until T_n is traversed in inorder.

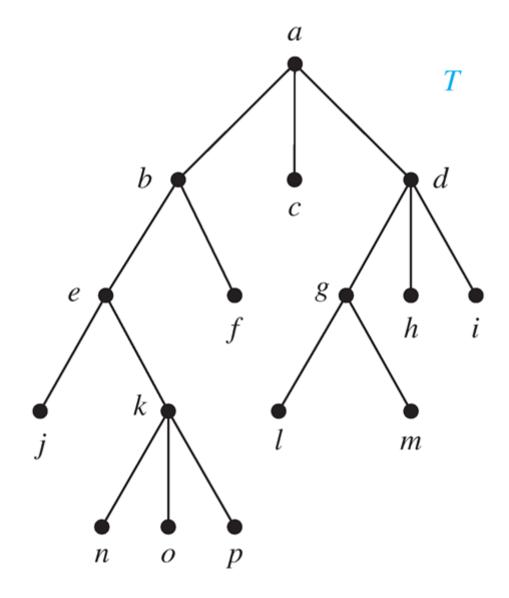


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Example





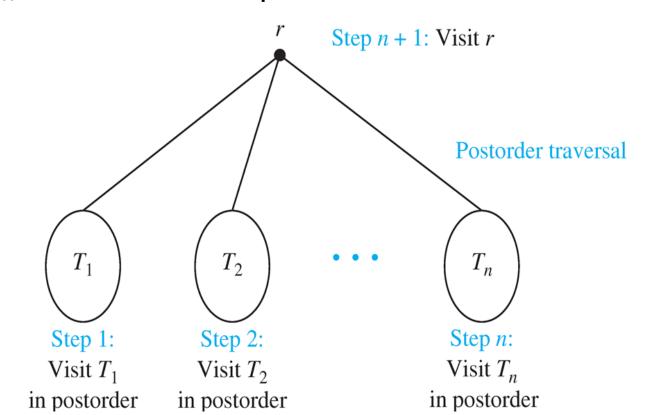
```
procedure inorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := \text{root of } T
if r is a leaf then list r
else
   l := first child of r from left to right
  T(l) := subtree with l as its root
  inorder(T(l))
  list(r)
  for each child c of r from left to right
      T(c) := subtree with c as root
      inorder(T(c))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

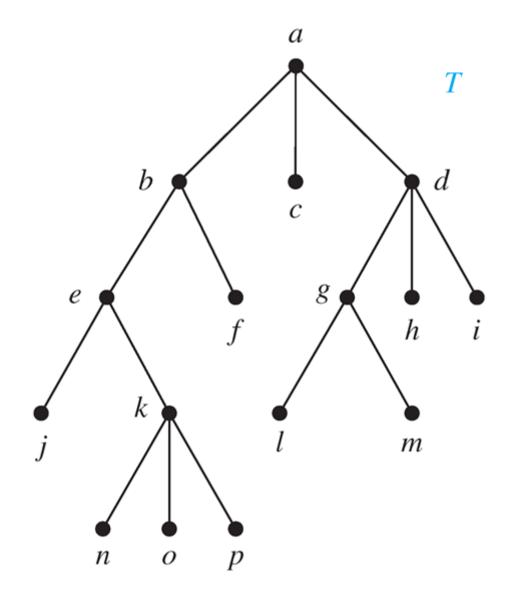


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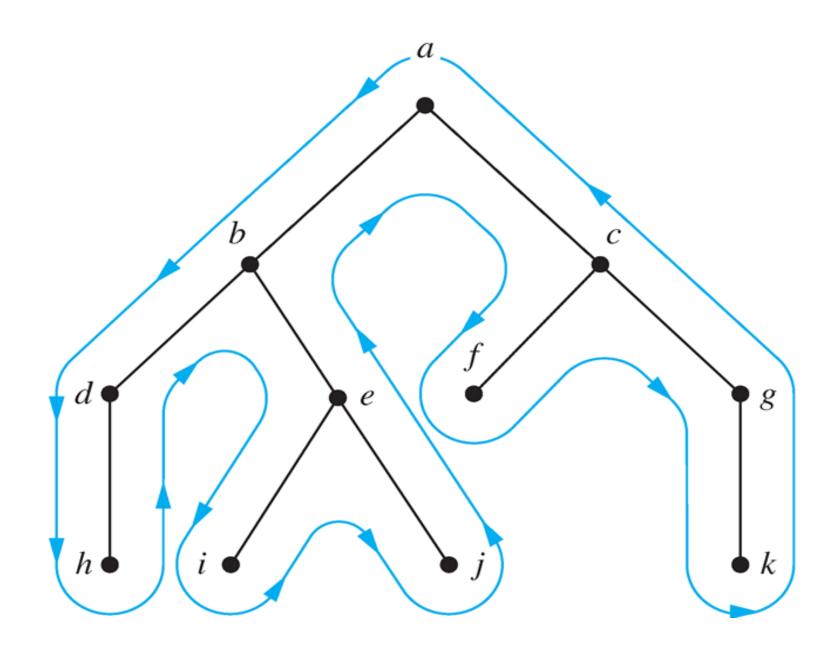




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procedure postordered (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := root of T
for each child c of r from left to right
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    postorder(T(c))
list r
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Preorder, Inorder, Postorder Traversal





Expression Trees

 Complex expressions can be represented using ordered rooted trees



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Example

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

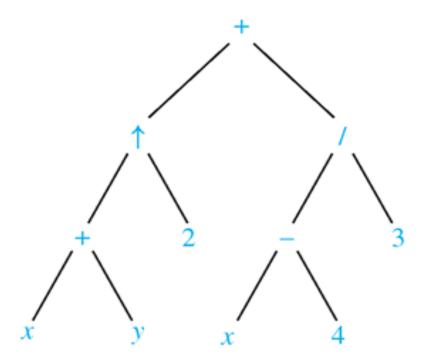


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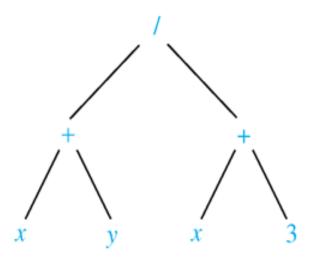
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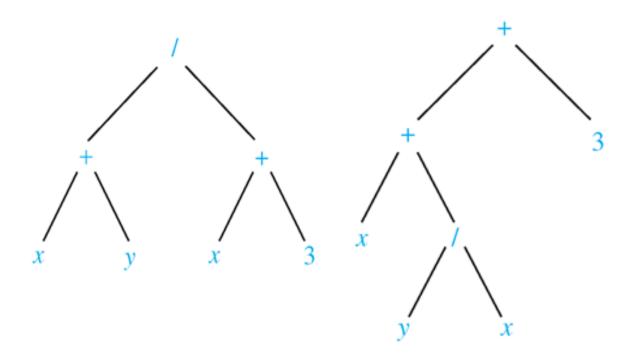


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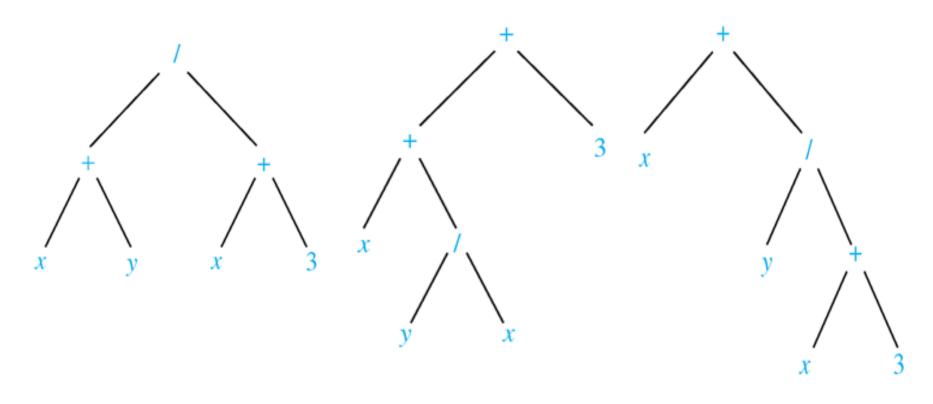


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Operators precede their operands in the prefix notation. Parentheses are not needed as the representation is unambiguous.

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



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■ 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

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



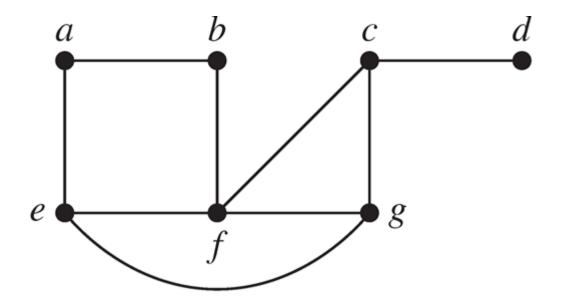
Example



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.

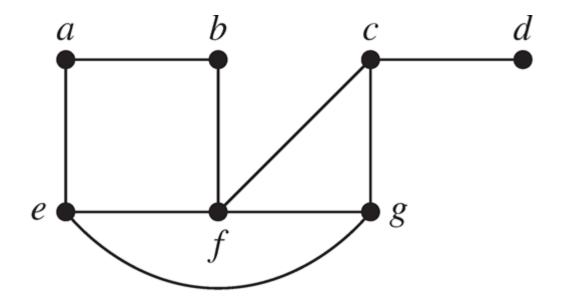


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remove edges to avoid circuits



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The spanning tree can be obtained by removing edges from simple circuits.

```
"if" part easy
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We can find spanning trees by removing edges from simple circuits.



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But, this is inefficient, since simple circuits should be identified first.



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Instead, we build up spanning trees by successively adding edges.

♦ First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.



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

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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.



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But, this is inefficient, since simple circuits should be identified first.

- ⋄ 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.



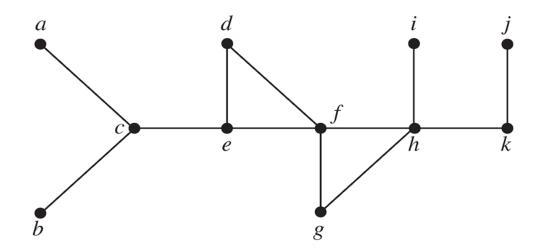
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But, this is inefficient, since simple circuits should be identified first.

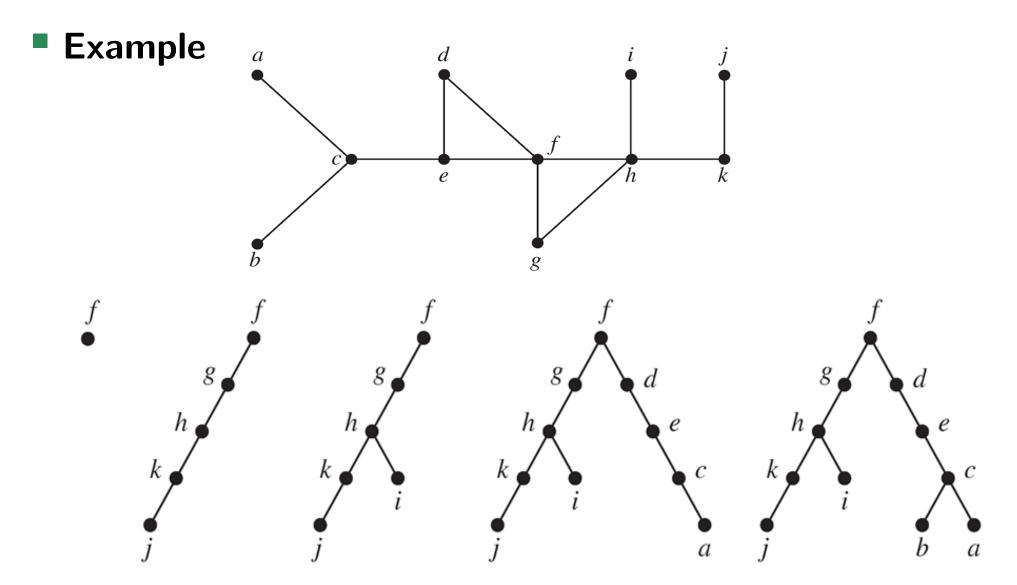
- ⋄ First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
- Form a path by successively adding vertices and edges.
 Continue adding to this path as long as possible.
- If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, the tree is a spanning tree.
- Otherwise, move back to some vertex to repeat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



Example









Depth-First Search Algorithm

```
procedure DFS(G: connected graph with vertices <math>v_1, v_2, ..., v_n) T := tree consisting only of the vertex <math>v_1 visit(v_1)

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 visit(w)
```



Depth-First Search Algorithm

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procedure DFS(G: connected graph with vertices v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, ..., v<sub>n</sub>)
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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)



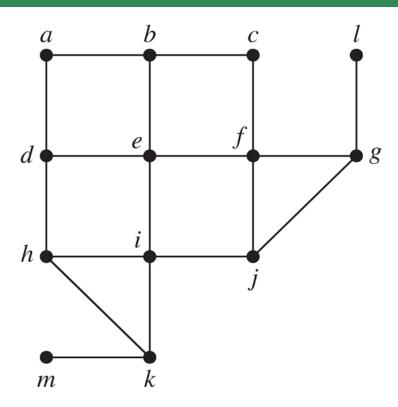
This is the second algorithm that we build up spanning trees by successively adding edges.

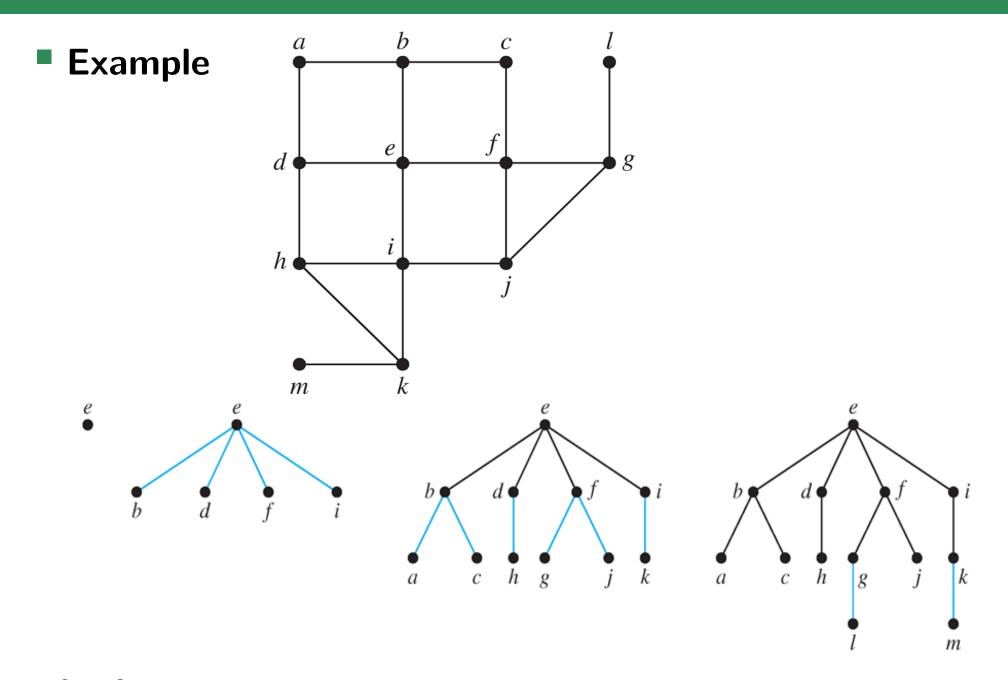


- This is the second algorithm that we build up spanning trees by successively adding edges.
 - ⋄ First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
 - ♦ Form a path by adding all edges incident to this vertex and the other endpoint of each of these edges
 - ⋄ For each vertex added at the previous 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
    if w is not in L and not in T then
    add w to the end of the list L
    add w and edge {v,w} to T
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find paths, circuits, connected components, cut vertices, ...



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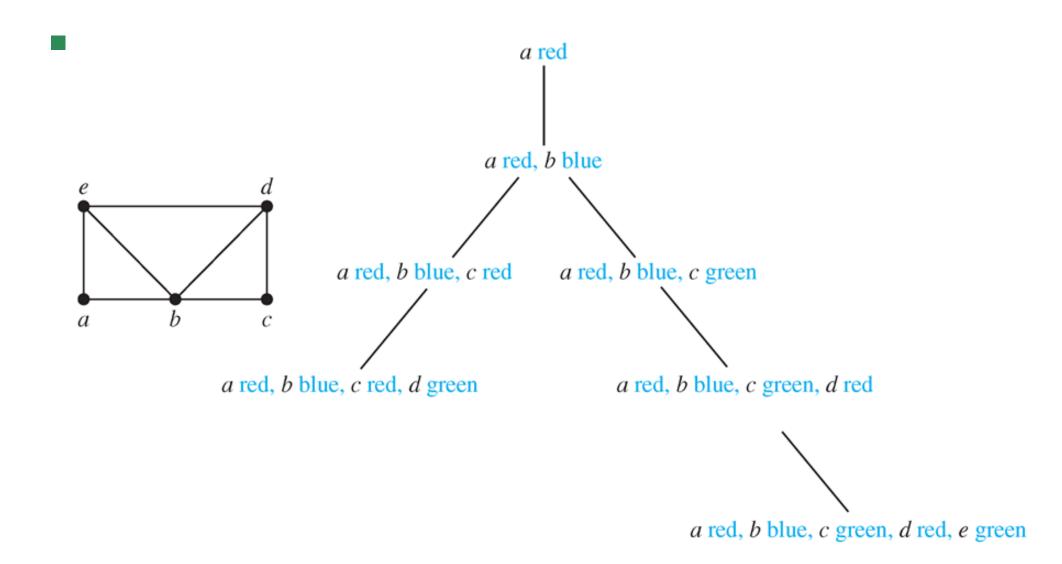


• find paths, circuits, connected components, cut vertices, ...

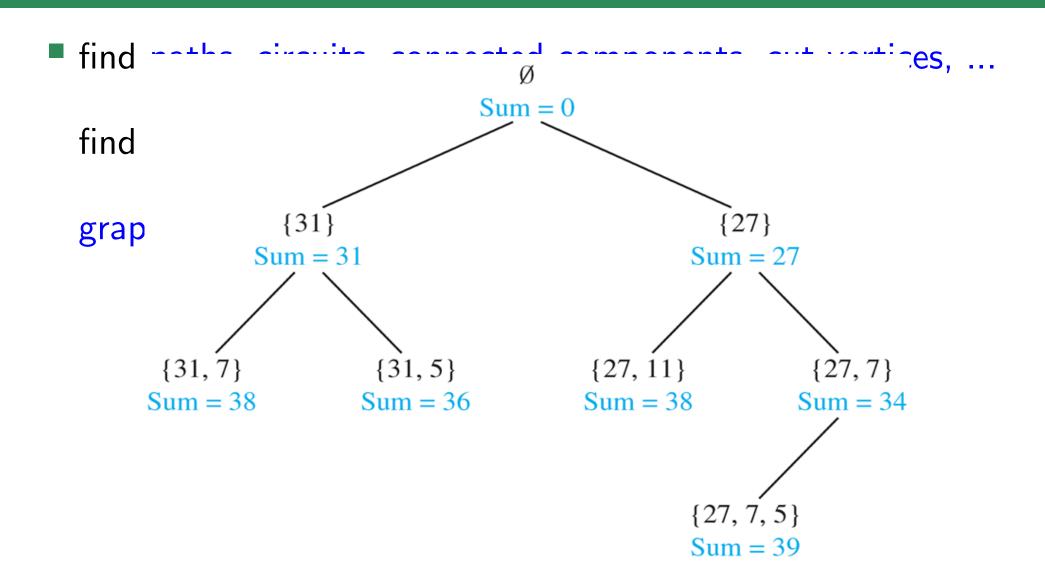
find shortest paths, determine whether bipartite, ...

graph coloring, sums of subsets, ...









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



Prim'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}
```



Prim's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 1 Prim's Algorithm.

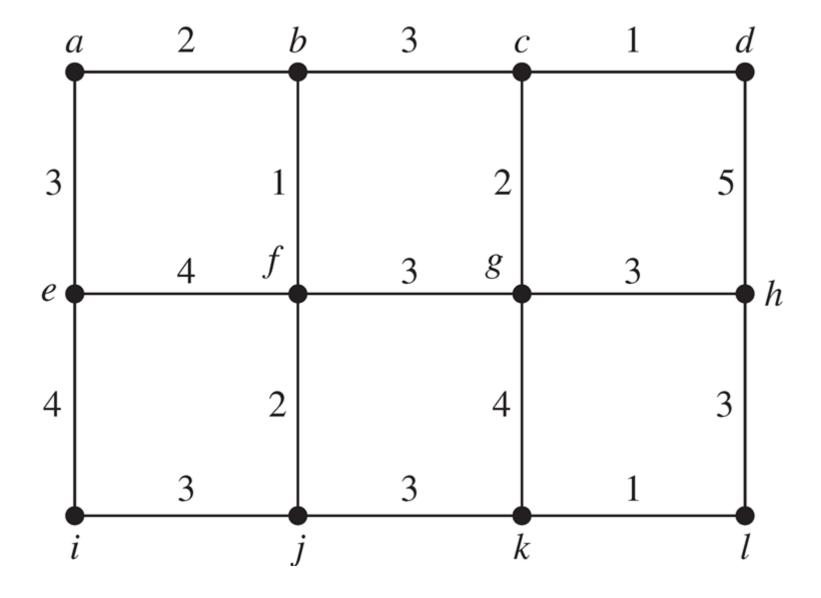
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```

time complexity: e log v



Prim's Algorithm

Example





ALGORITHM 2 Kruskal's Algorithm.

```
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
T := T with e added
return T {T is a minimum spanning tree of G}
```



ALGORITHM 2 Kruskal's Algorithm.

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time complexity: e log e



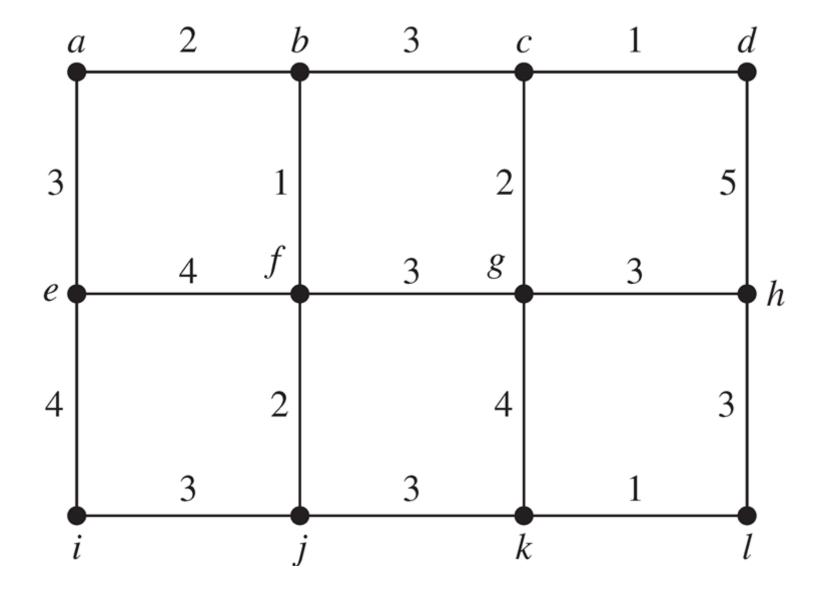
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```
time complexity: e \log e see CLRS / Algorithm Design, J. Kleinberg, E. Tardos
```



Example





Next Lecture

course review ...

