



# CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

Office: Room413, CoE South Tower

Email: [wangqi@sustech.edu.cn](mailto:wangqi@sustech.edu.cn)

# 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  $r = e - v + 2$ .



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- **Corollary 1** If  $G$  is a connected planar simple graph with  $e$  edges and  $v$  vertices, where  $v \geq 3$ , then  $e \leq 3v - 6$ .
- 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  $v \geq 3$  and no circuits of length three, then  $e \leq 2v - 4$ .



# Graph Coloring

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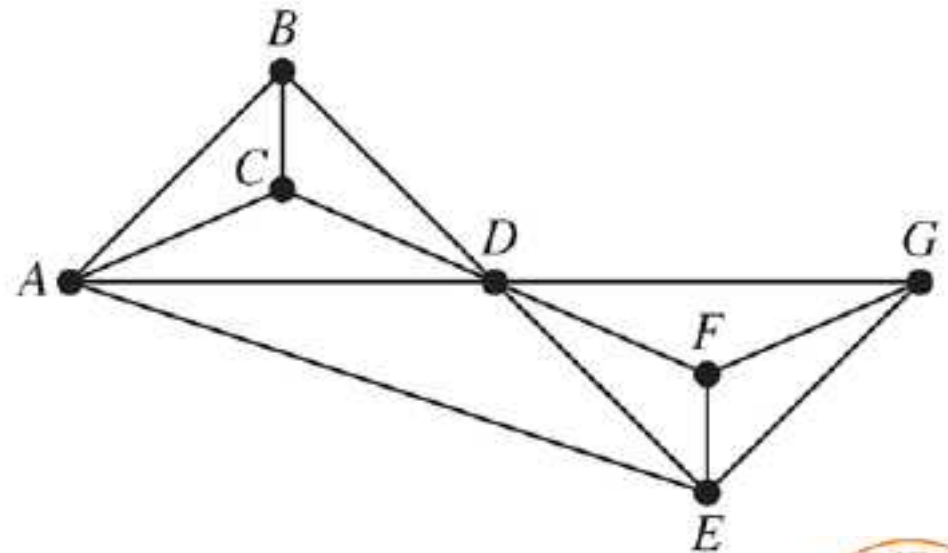
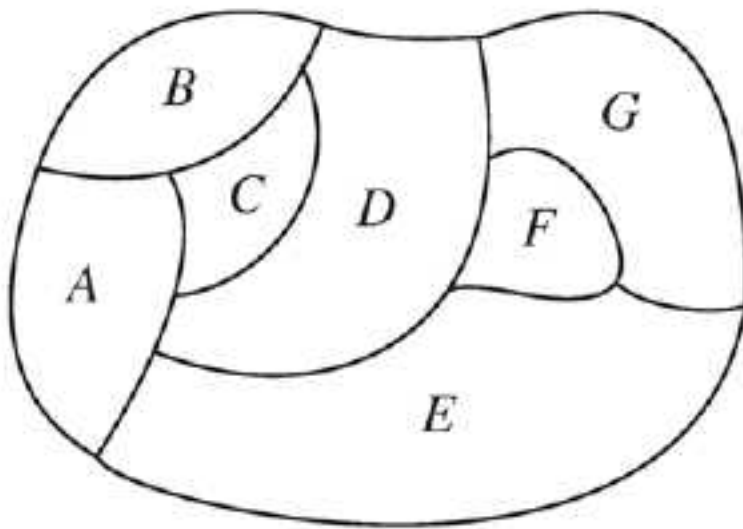
The *chromatic number* of a graph is the *least number* of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by  $\chi(G)$ .



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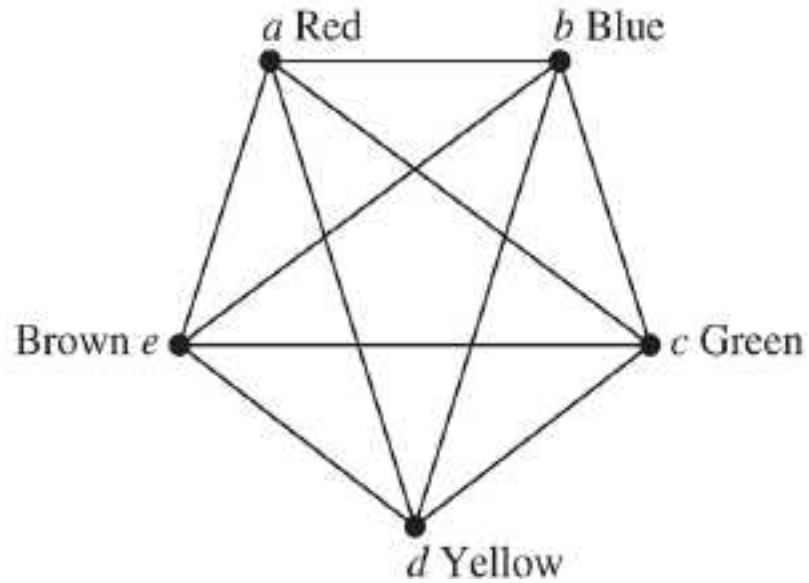
# Examples

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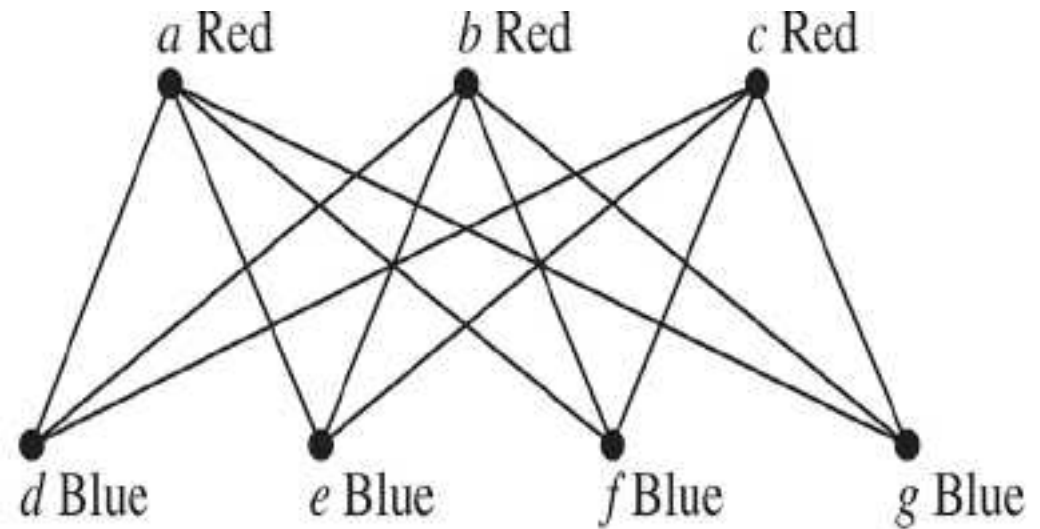
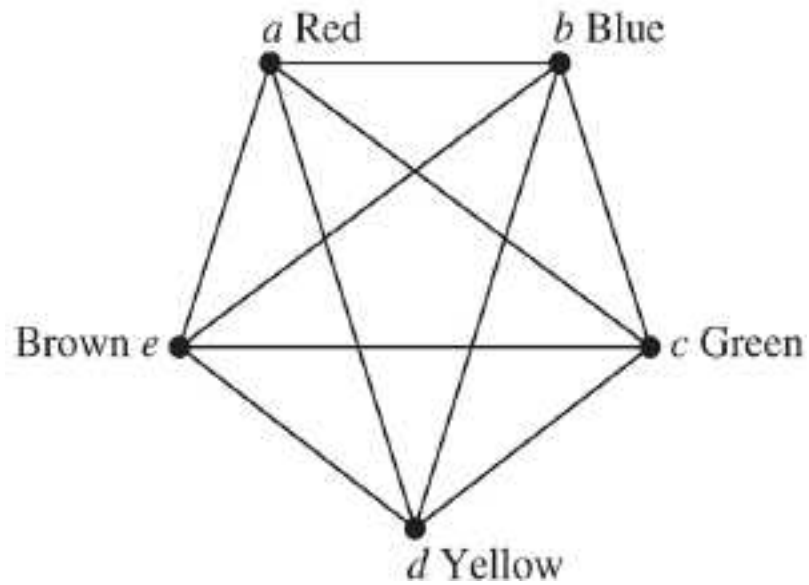
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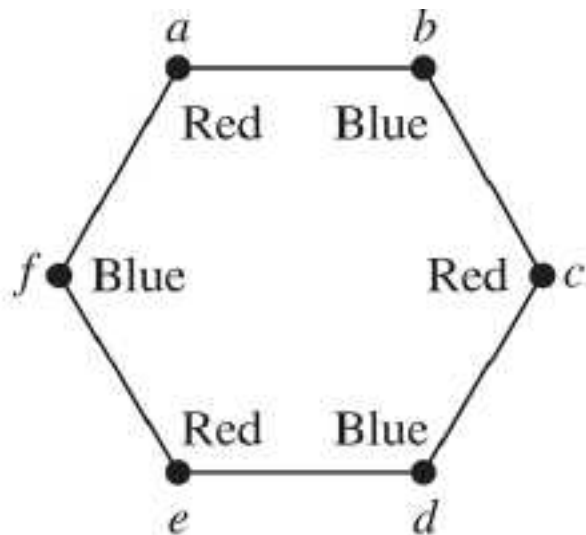
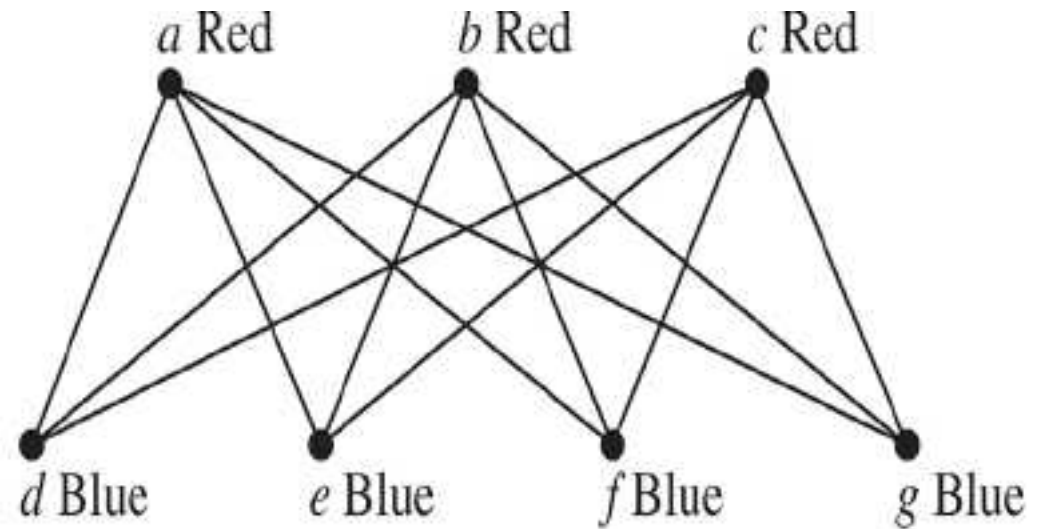
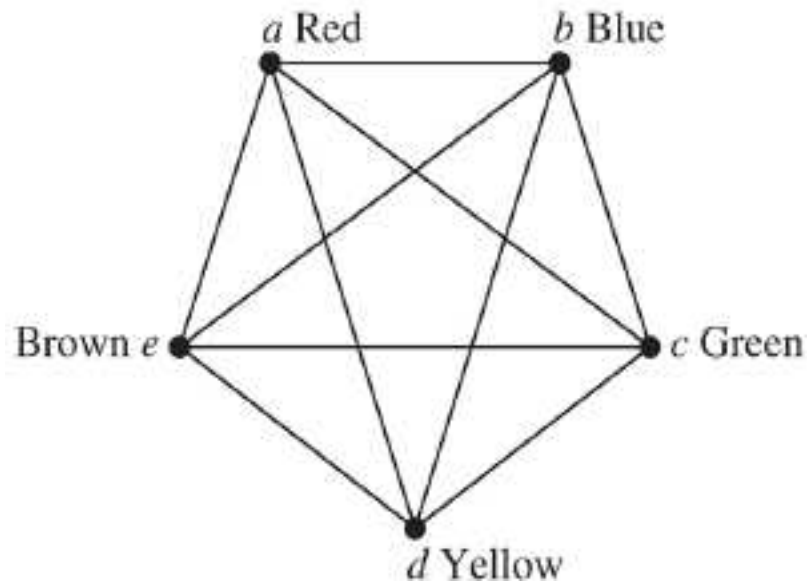
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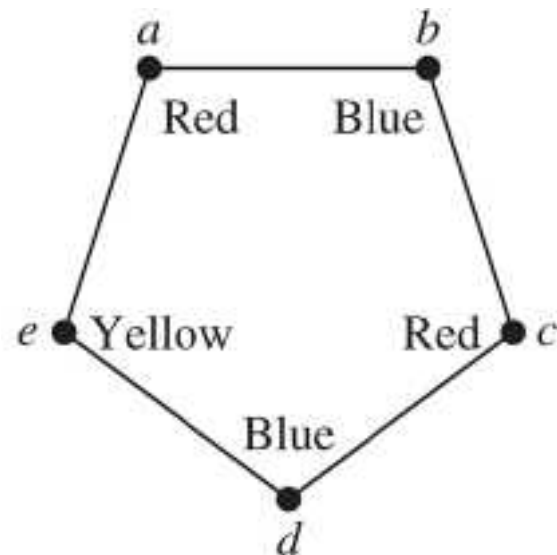
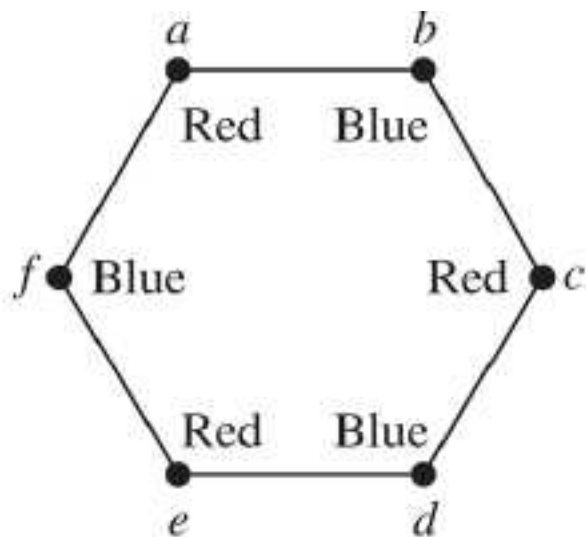
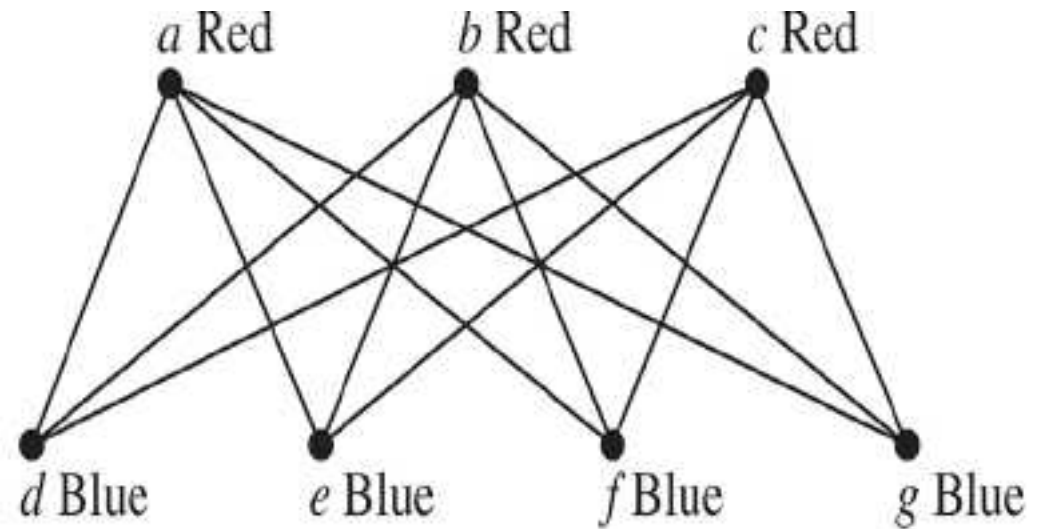
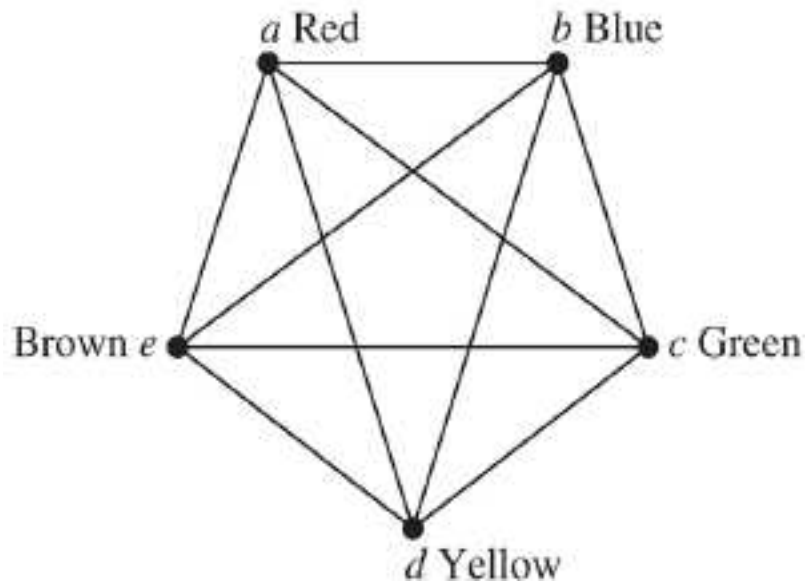
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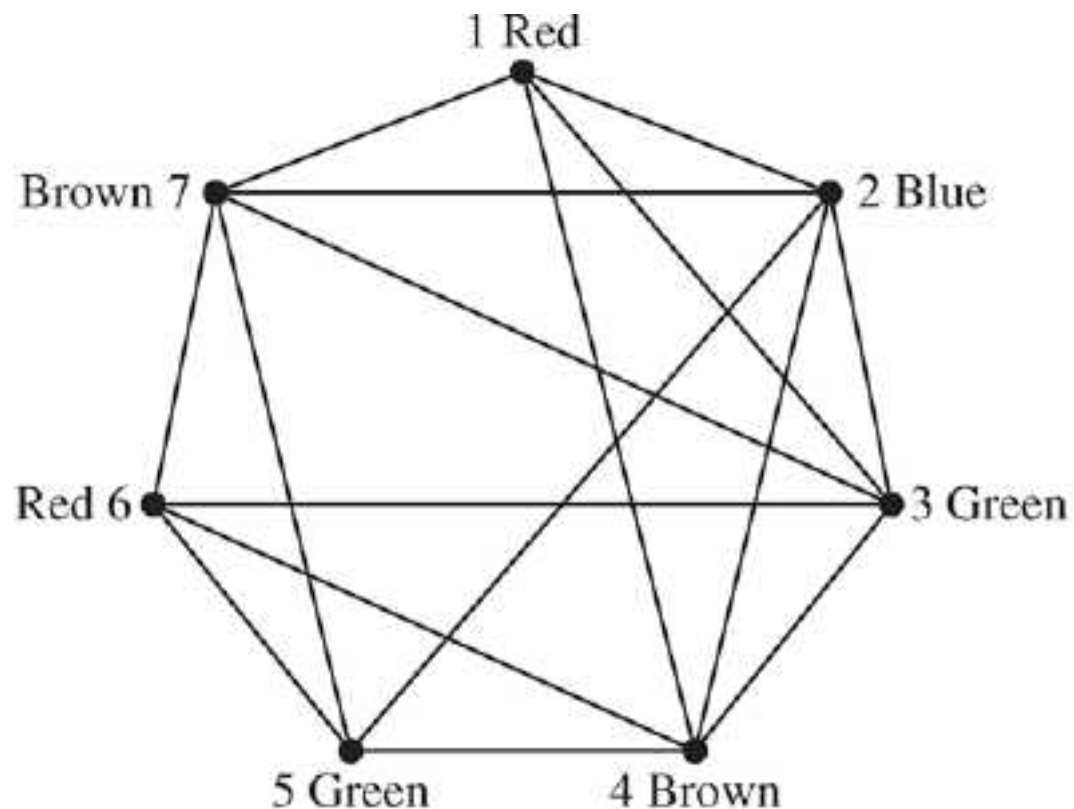
- What is the chromatic number of  $K_n$ ,  $K_{m,n}$ ,  $C_n$ ?



# 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.



Time Period

I

II

III

IV

Courses

1, 6

2

3, 5

4, 7



# 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  $\in$  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**.



# Applications of ZKPs

- *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)

*Oded Goldreich*  
Dept. of Computer Sc.  
Technion  
Haifa, Israel

*Silvio Micali*  
Lab. for Computer Sc.  
MIT  
Cambridge, MA 02139

*Avi Wigderson*  
Inst. of Math. and CS  
Hebrew University  
Jerusalem, Israel



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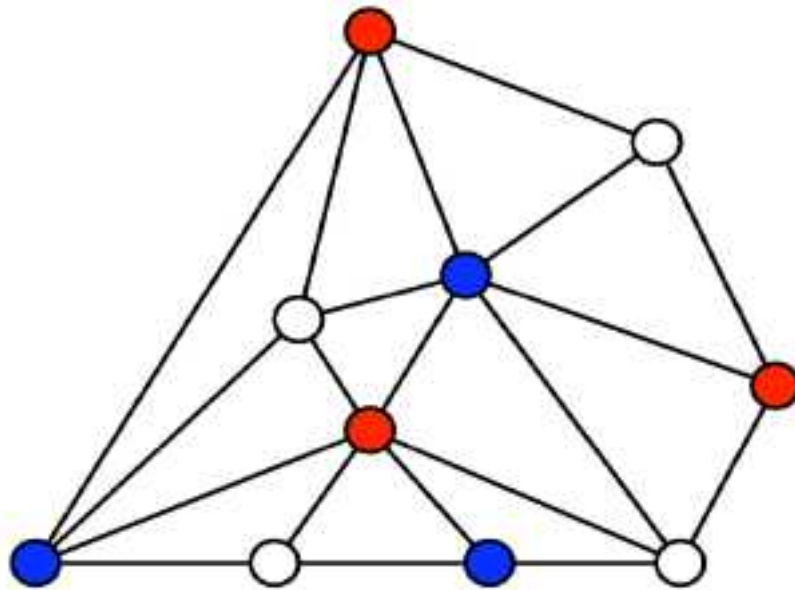
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## Ideas using ZKPs:

- 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.



# An Example

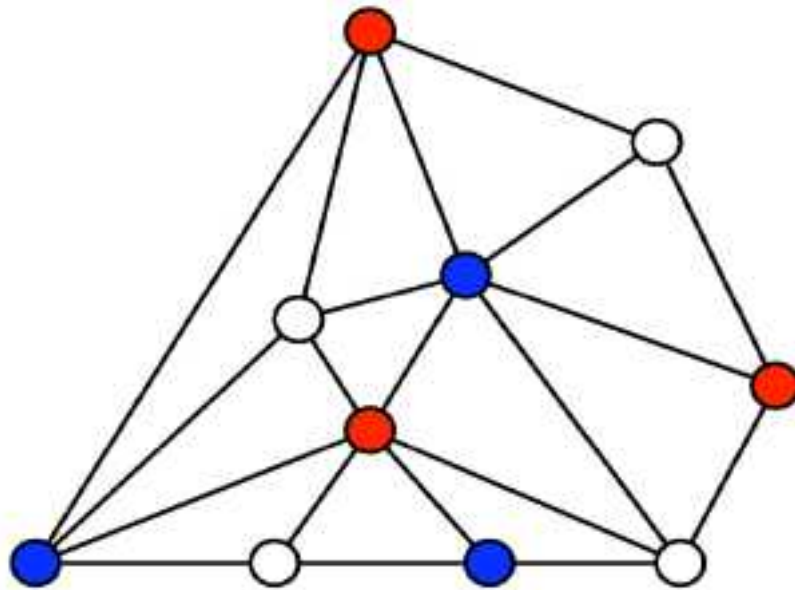


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- Alice knows how to 3-color a graph: **no** two adjacent vertices have the same color; this is an NPC problem.
  - can **impress** your friends
  - useful for **identification**



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- How can Alice convince Bob that she can 3-color the graph without
  - letting him steal her work?
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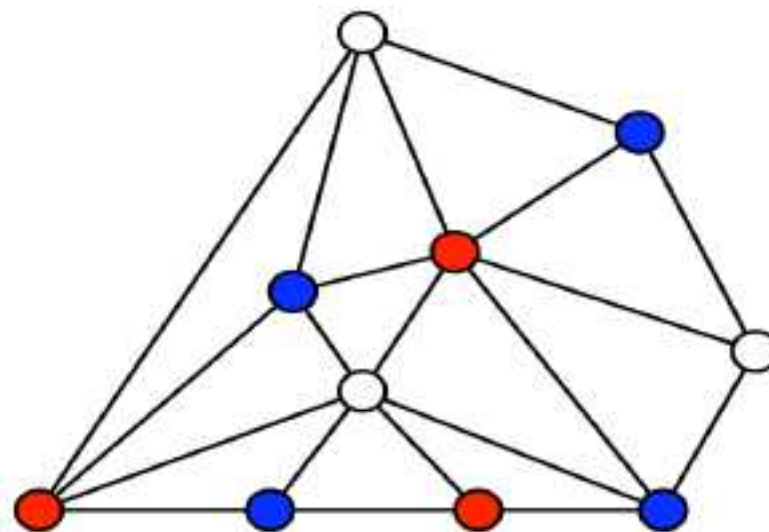
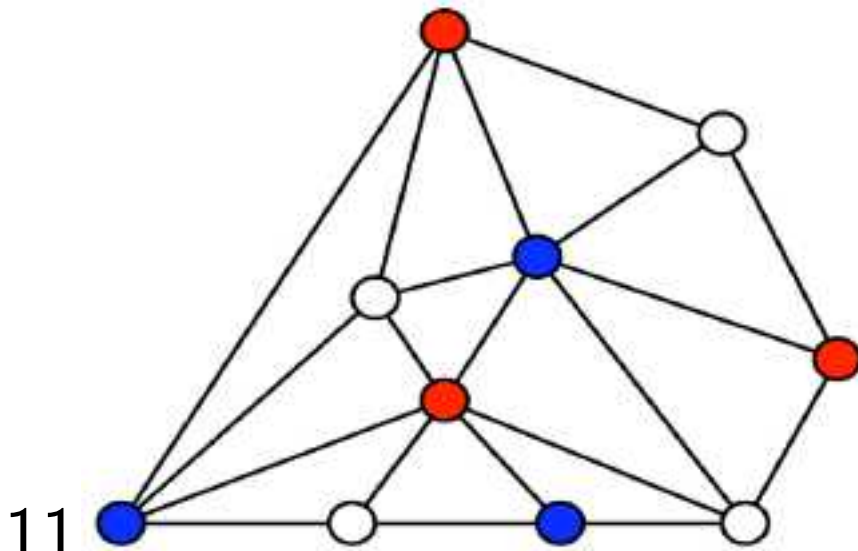
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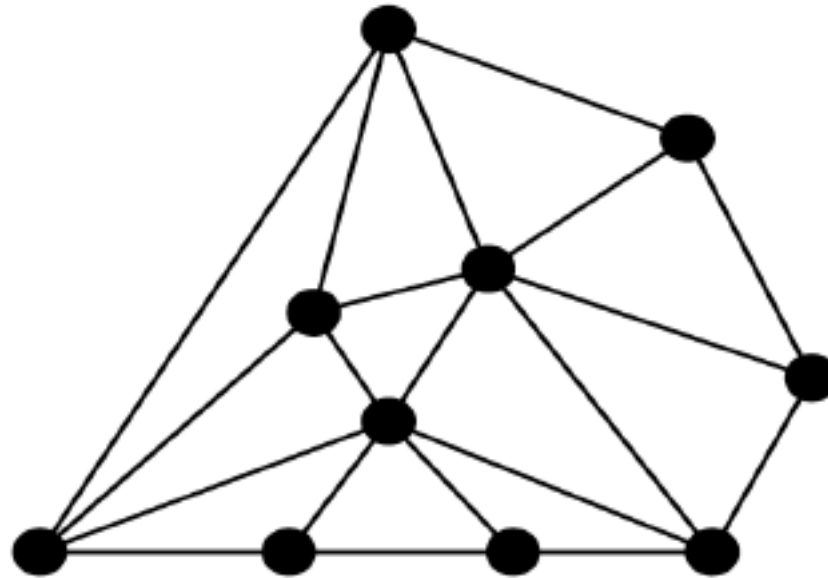
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Alice may **permute** the vertex colors.



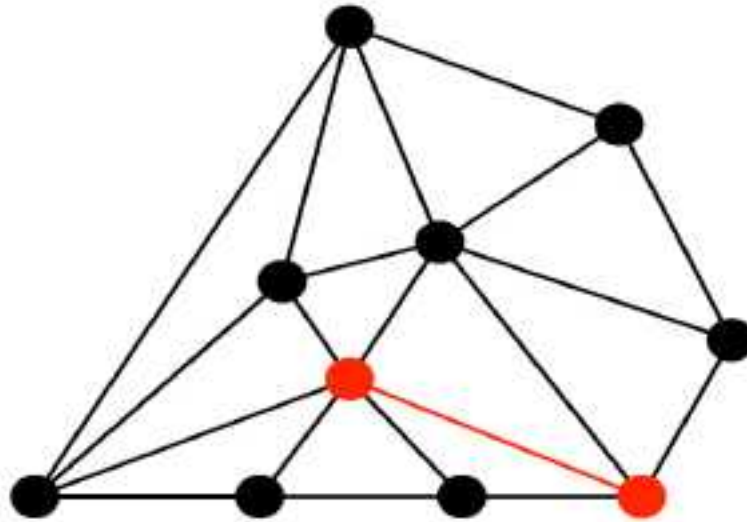
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- Alice then **encrypts** all vertex colors (one key per vertex), and sends the graph to Bob.



# An Example

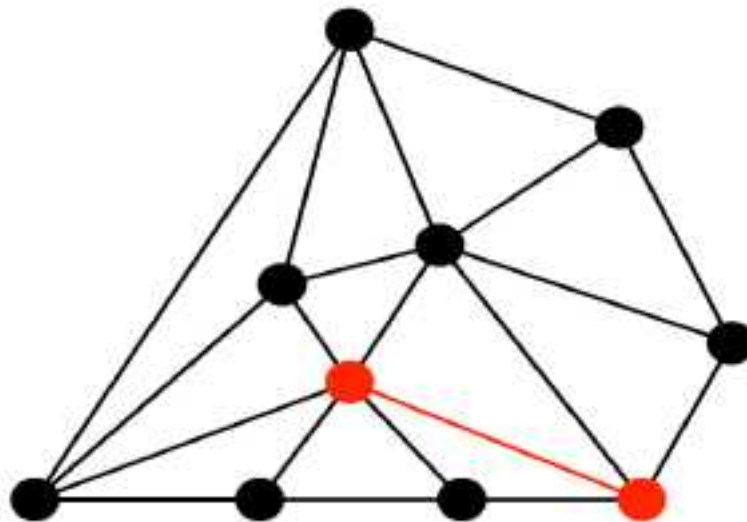
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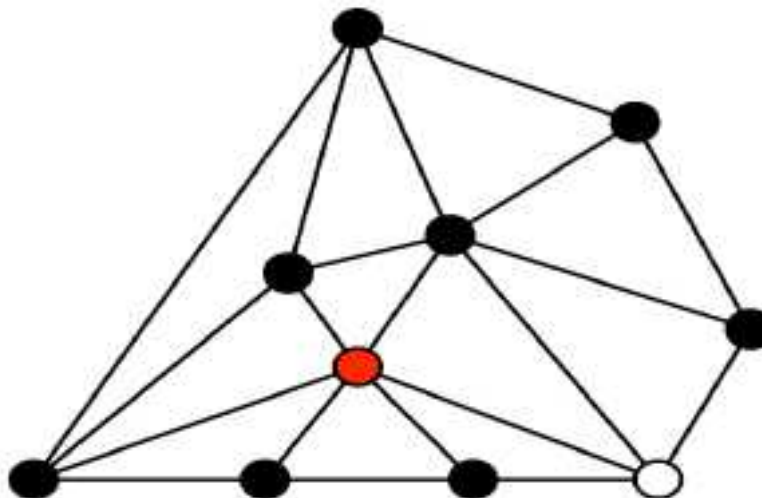
Bob

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Alice **reveals** colors of those two keys.



# An Example

- Repeat as much as needed:
  - Alice **permutes** graph coloring
  - Alice **encrypts** all vertices with distinct keys
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After  $k$  repetitions, the probability she fools Bob is  $(1 - \frac{1}{|E|})^k$ .



# An Example

- 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.



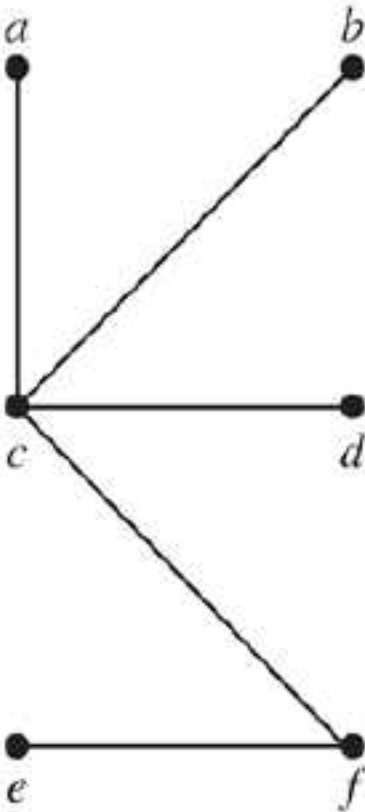
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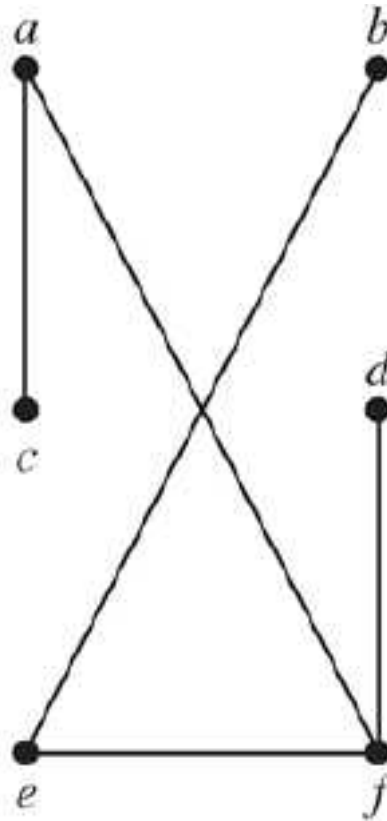
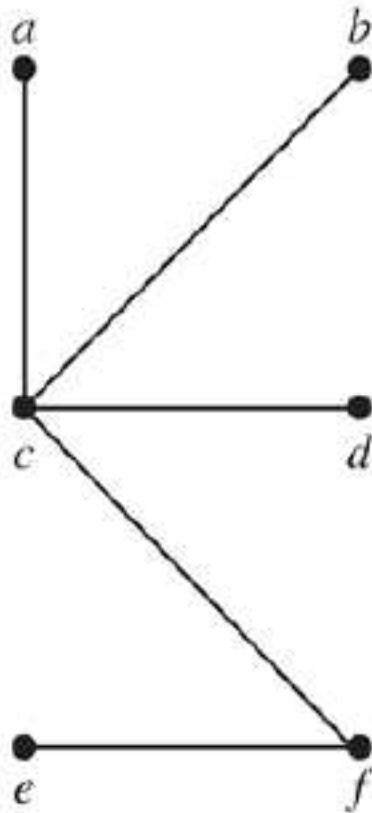
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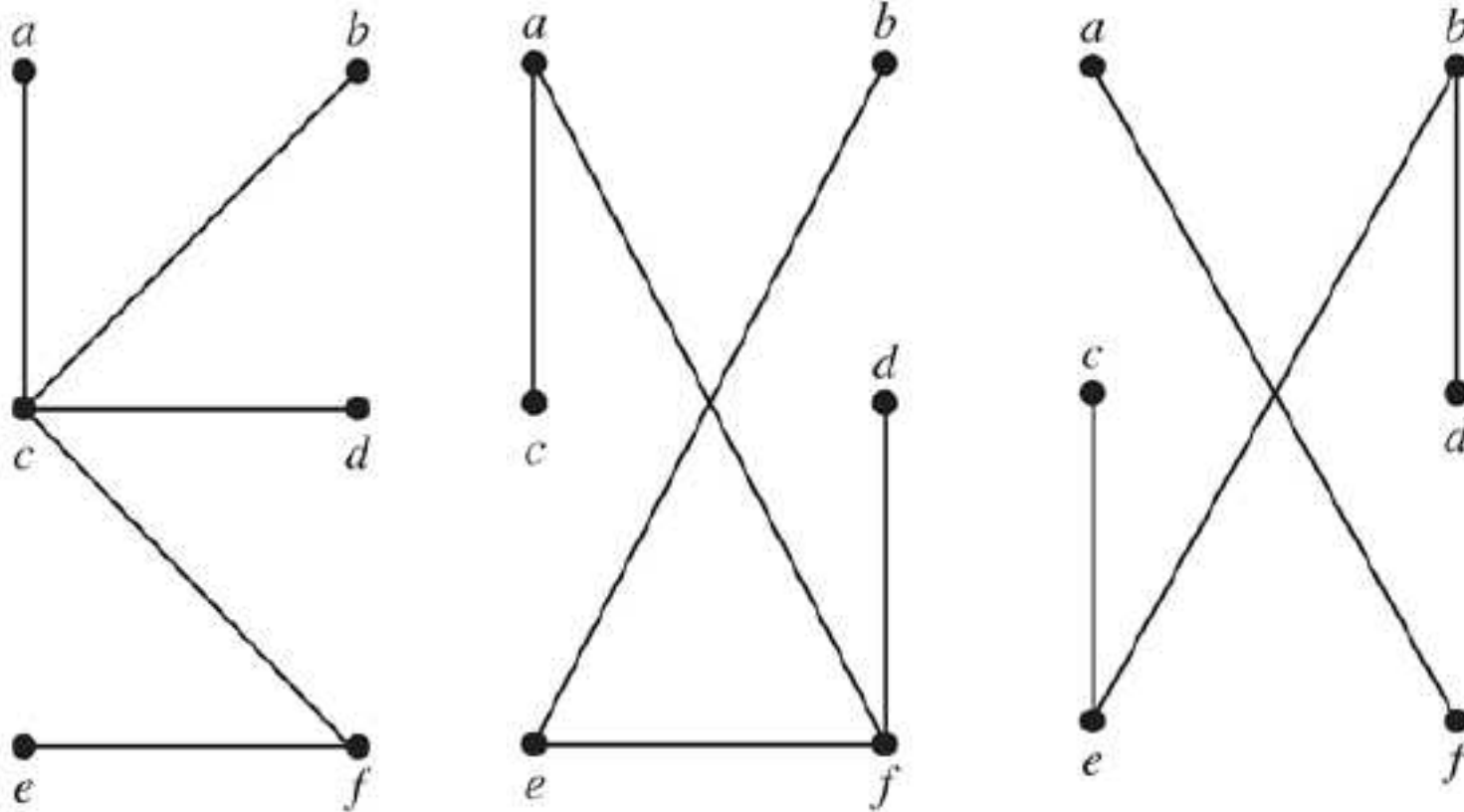
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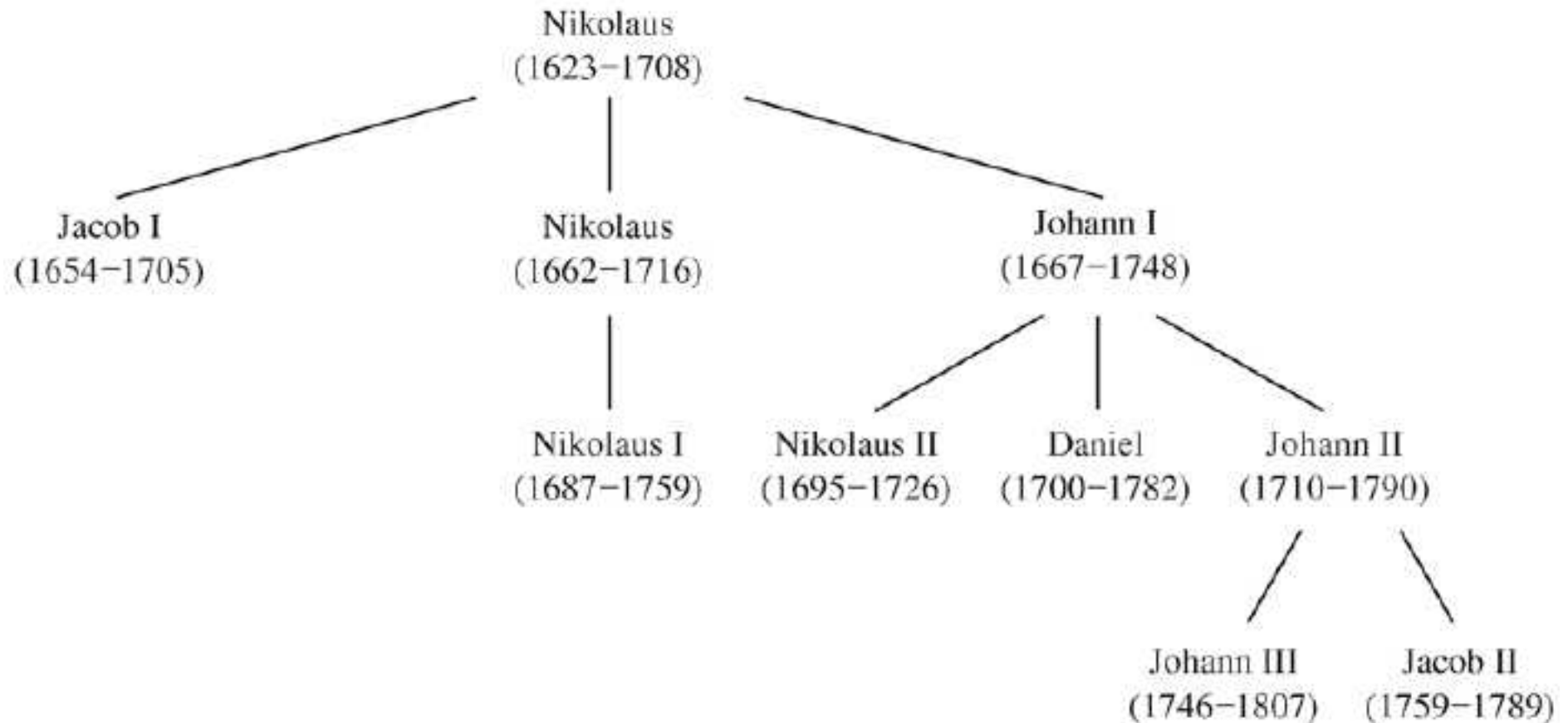
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Two properties of tree: **connected**, **no circuit**



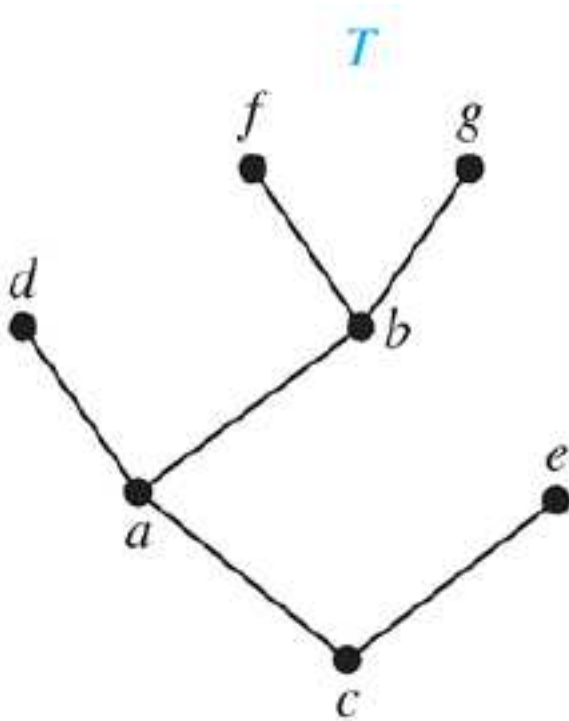
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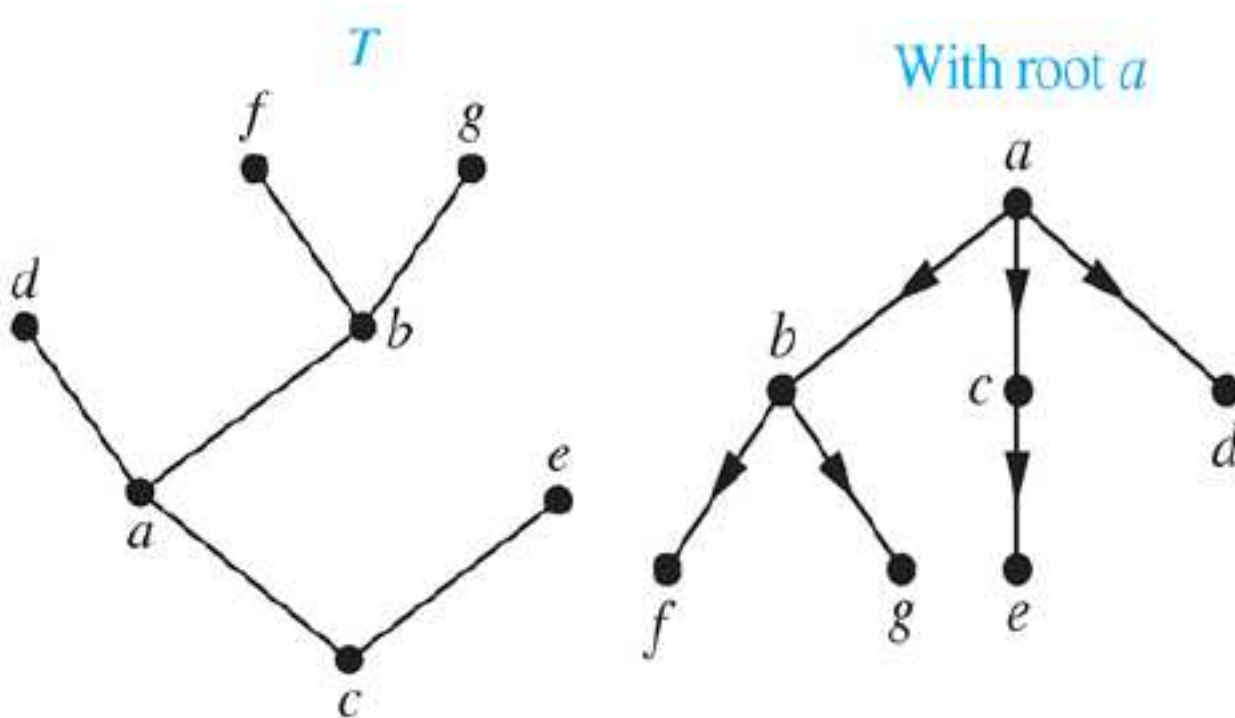
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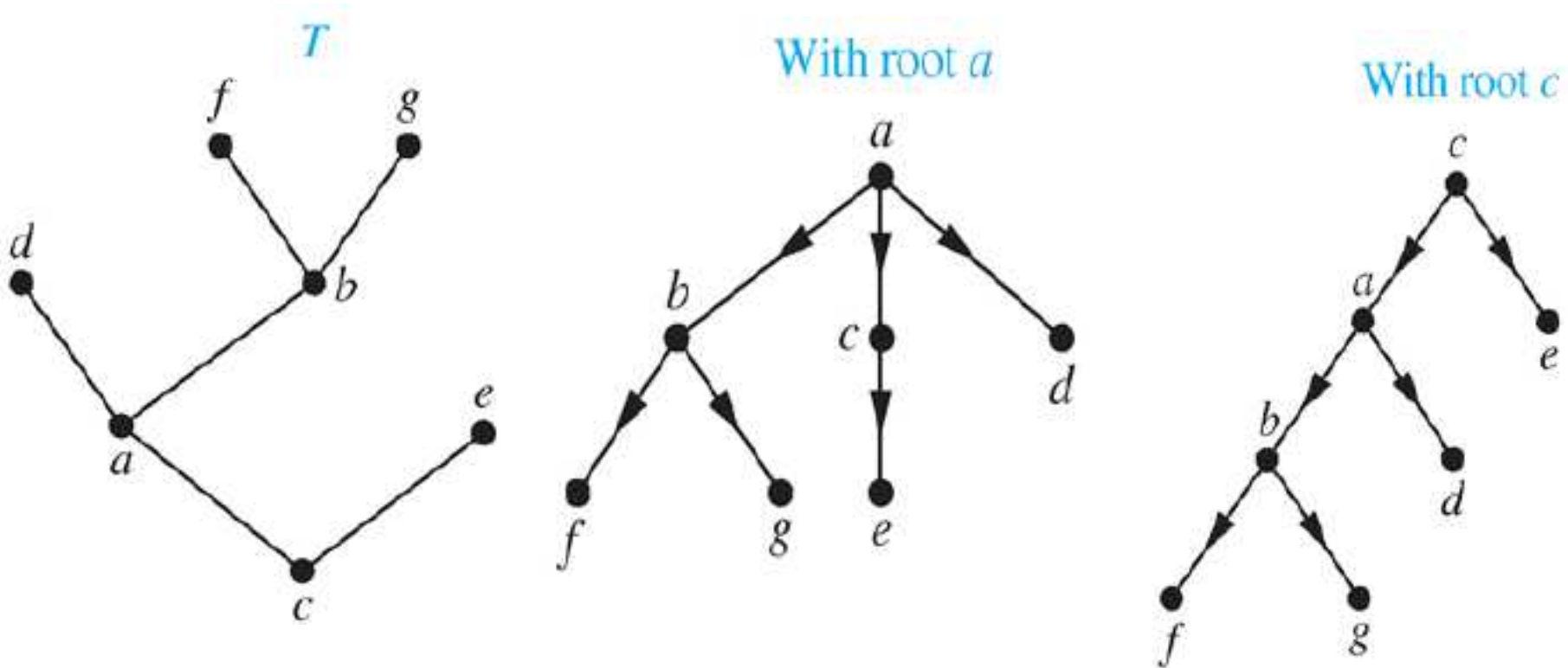
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*subtree with  $a$  as its root*: consists of  $a$  and its descendants and all edges incident to these descendants



# $m$ -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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using  $n = mi + 1$  and  $n = i + \ell$



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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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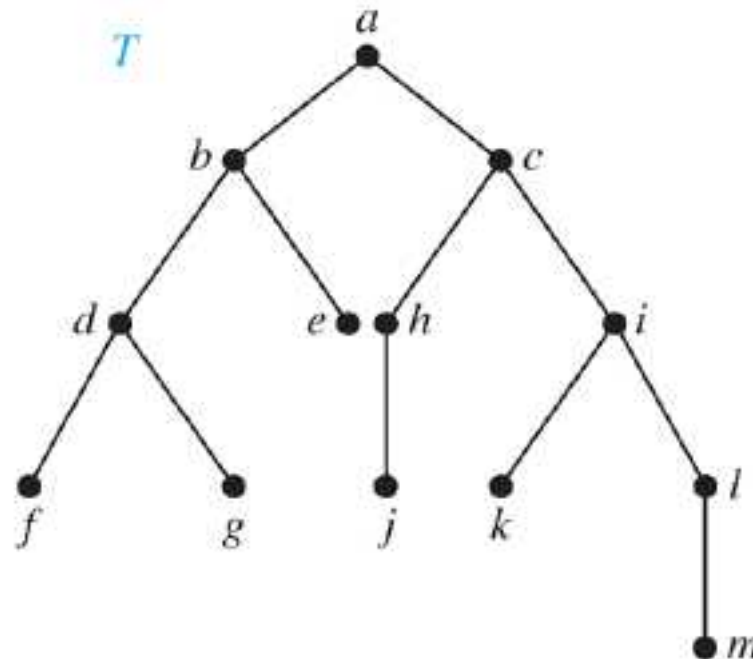
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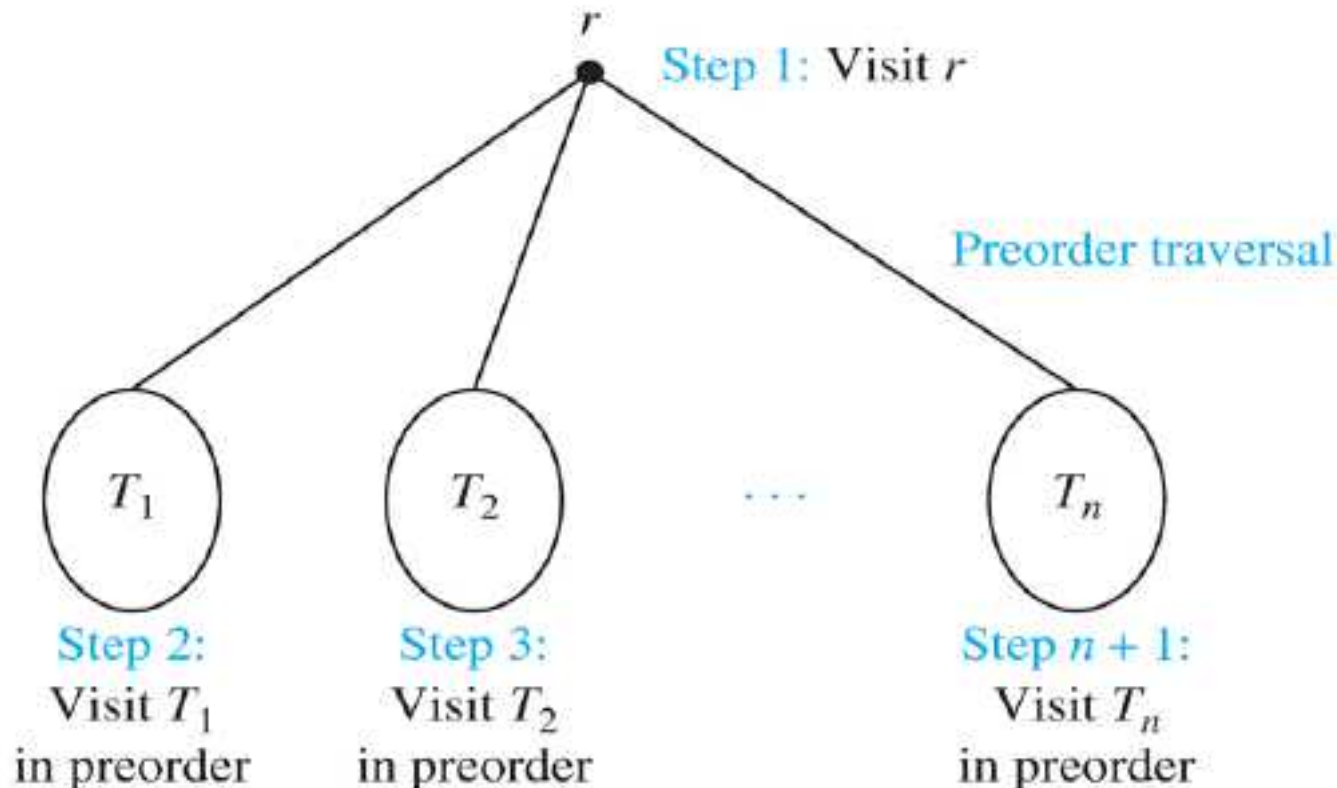


# Preorder Traversal

- **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  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n$  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

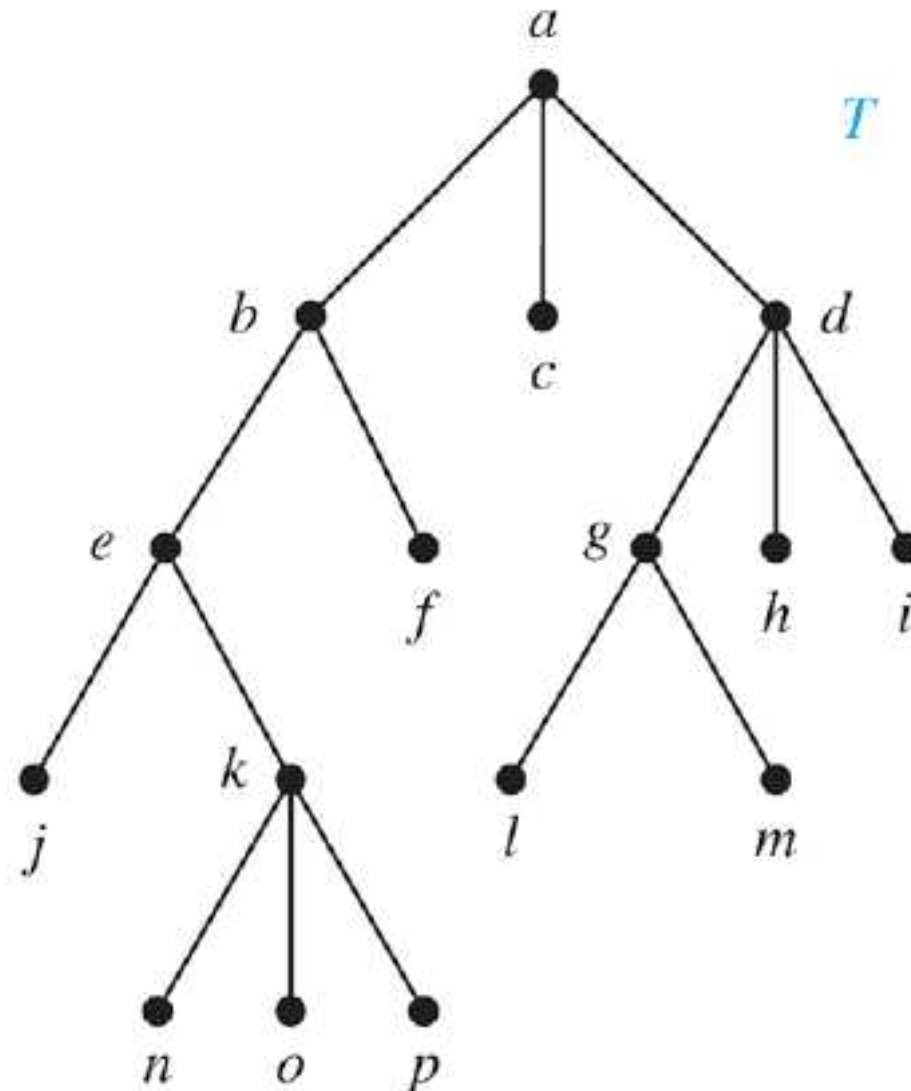
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# Preorder Traversal

## ■ 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))
```



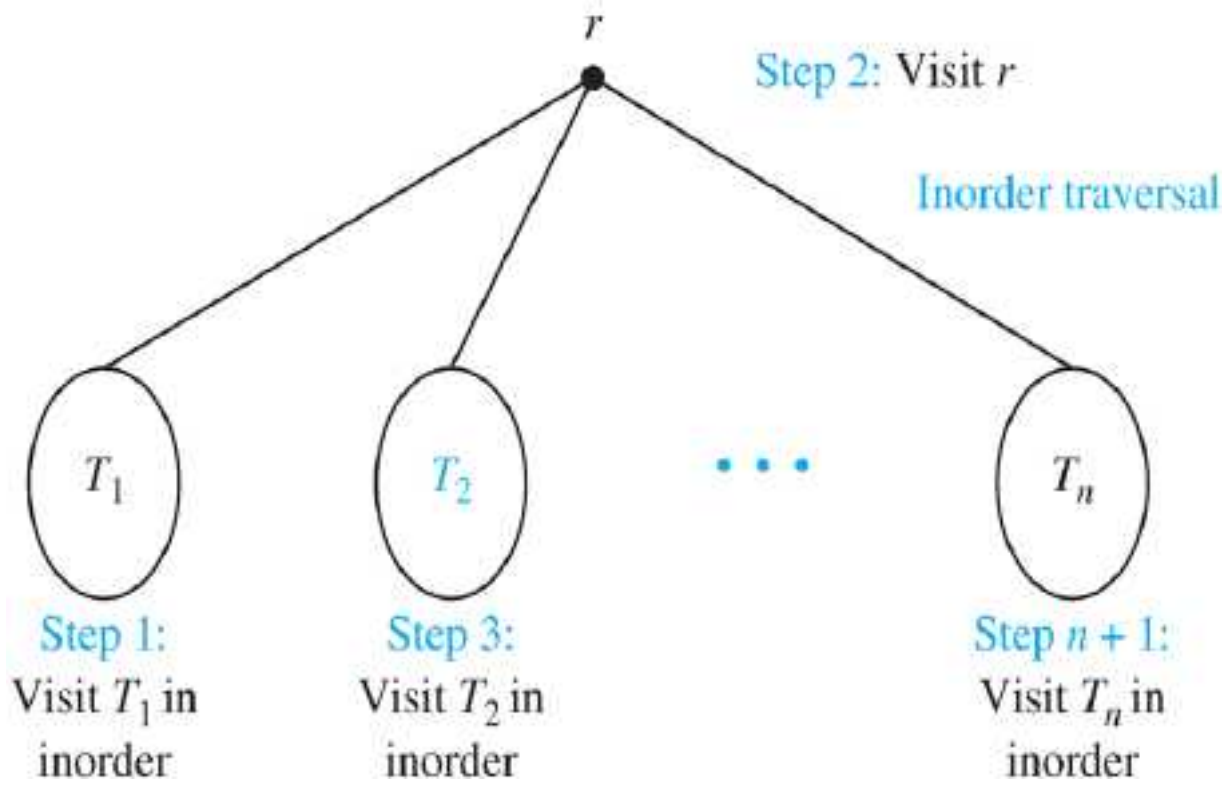
# Inorder Traversal

- **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  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n$  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.



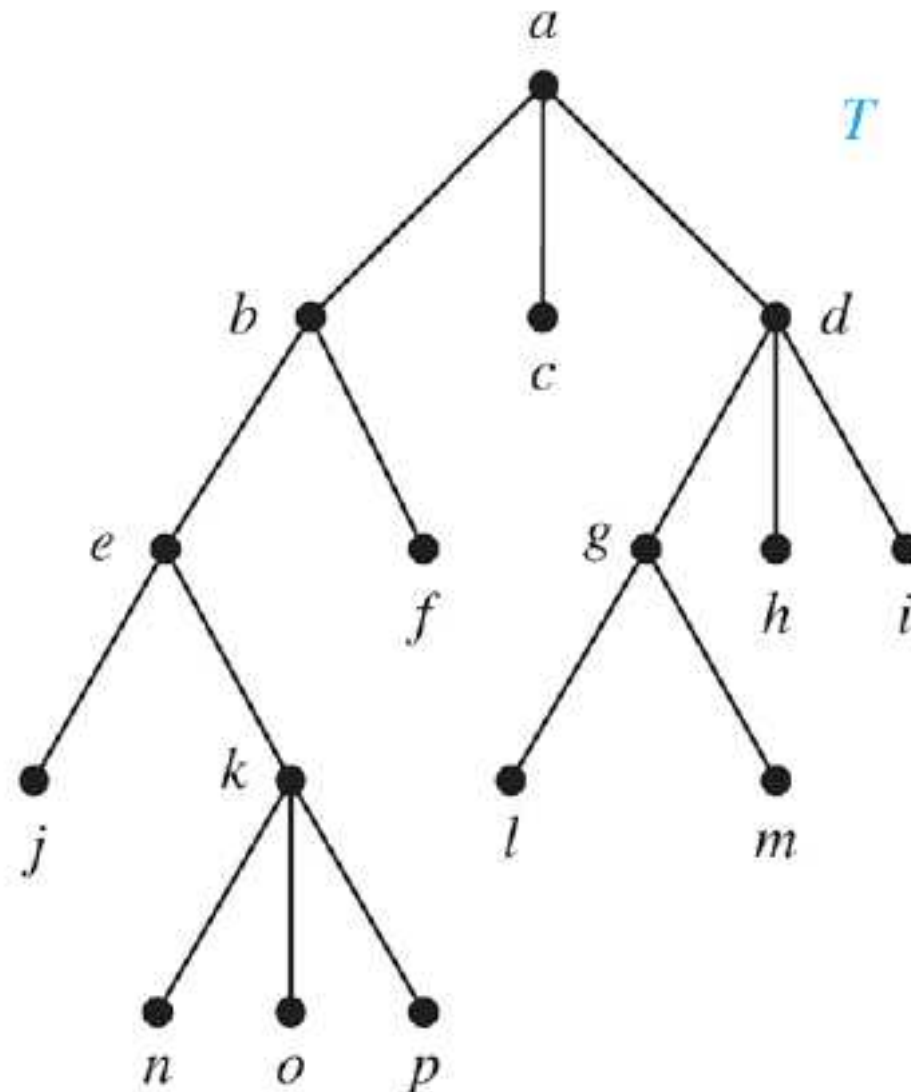
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# Inorder Traversal

## ■ Example



# Inorder Traversal

```
procedure inorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
  r := 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
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```



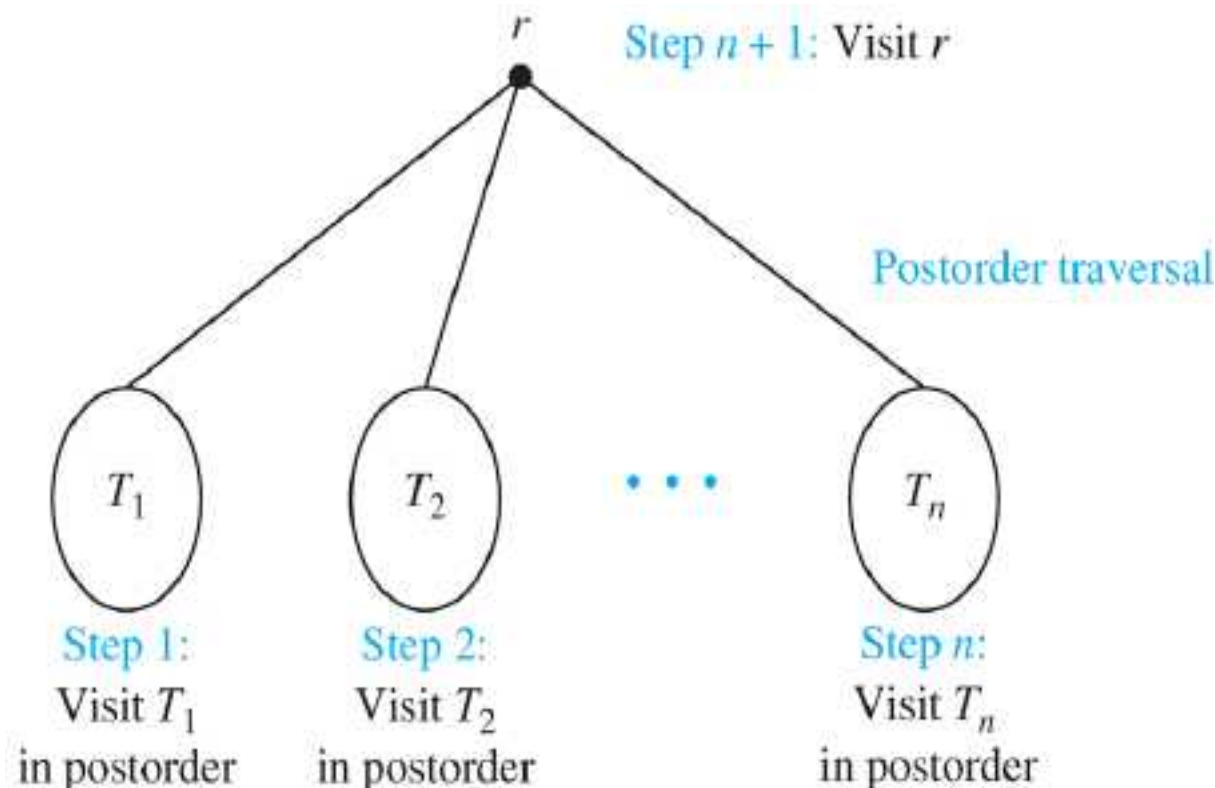
# Postorder Traversal

- **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  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n$  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.



# Postorder Traversal

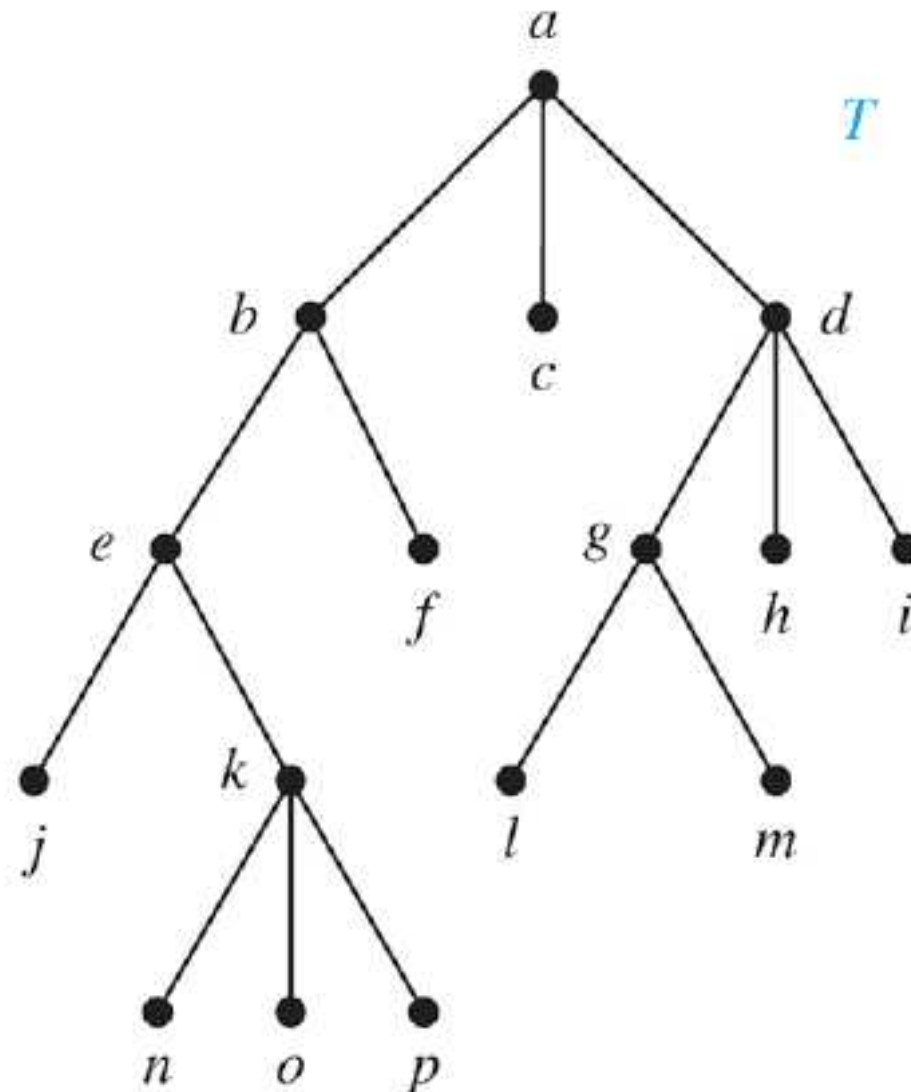
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# Postorder Traversal

## ■ Example

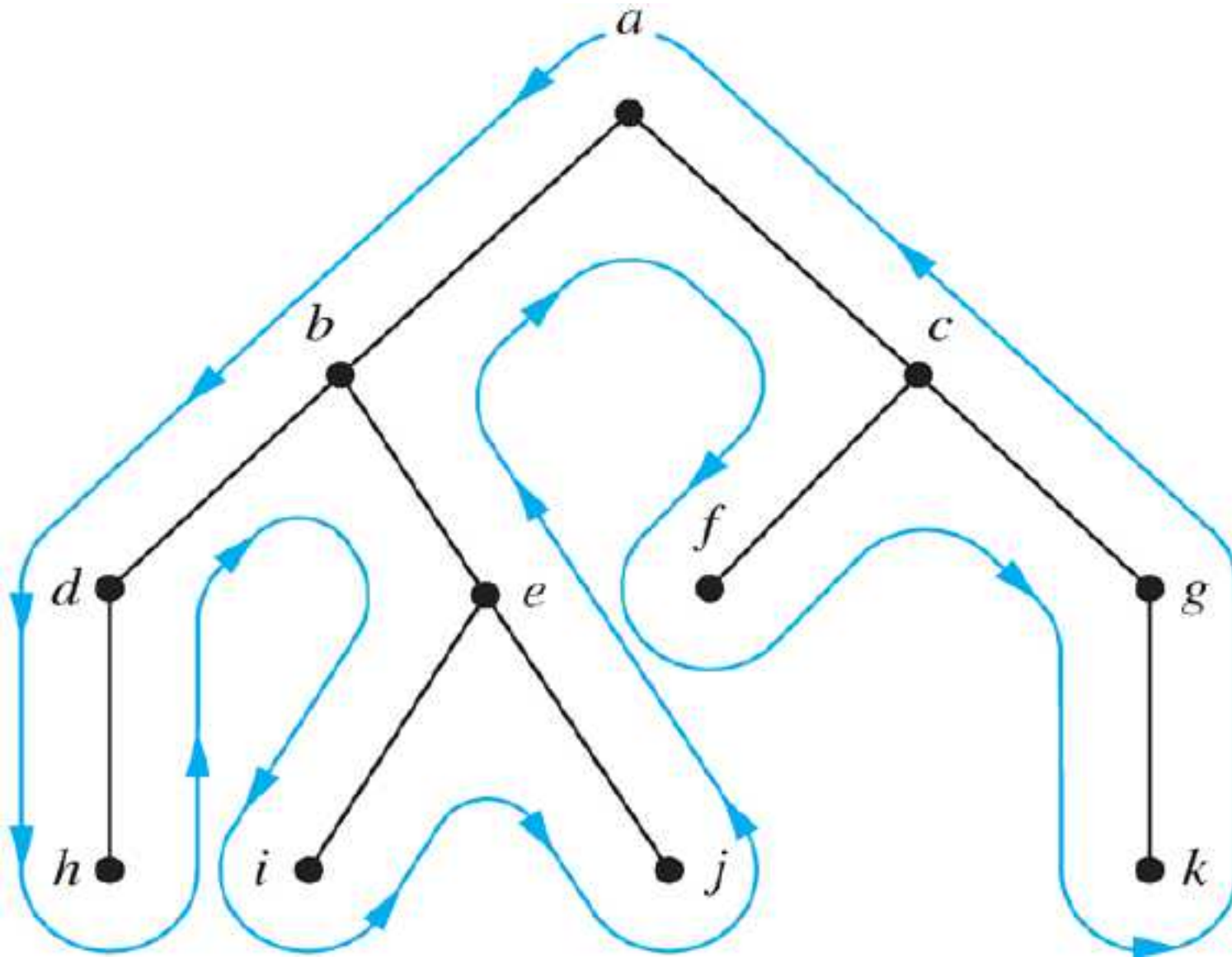


# Postorder Traversal

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



# Preorder, Inorder, Postorder Traversal



# Expression Trees

- Complex expressions can be represented using **ordered rooted trees**



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## Example

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

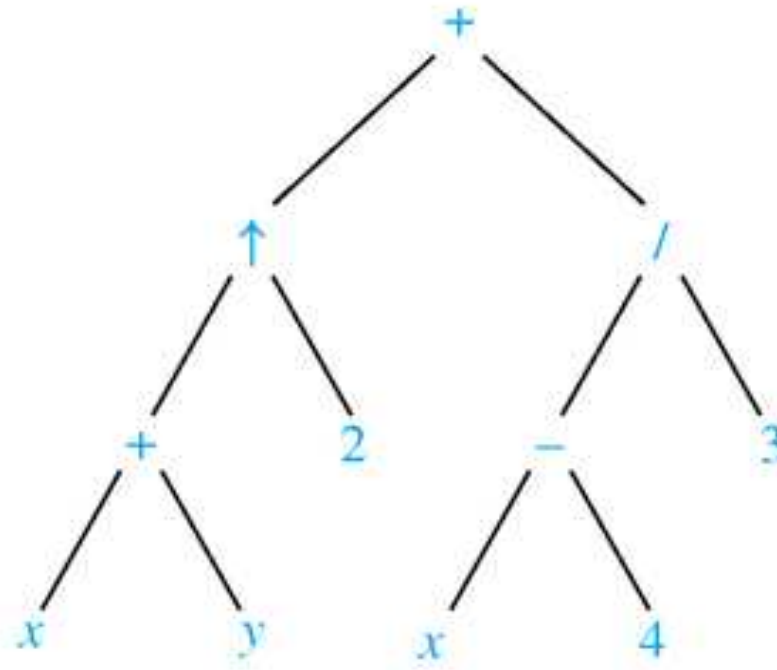


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# Infix Notation

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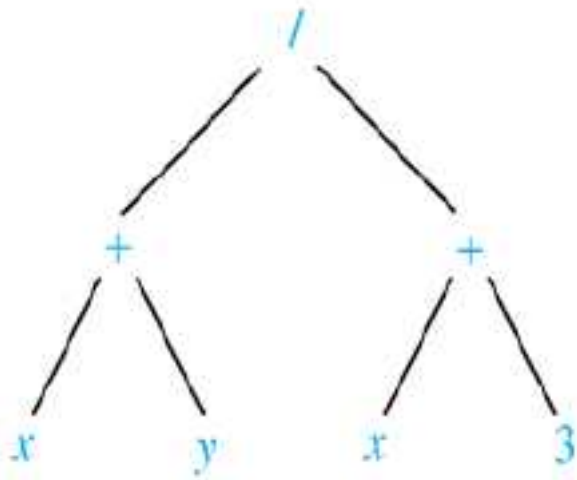




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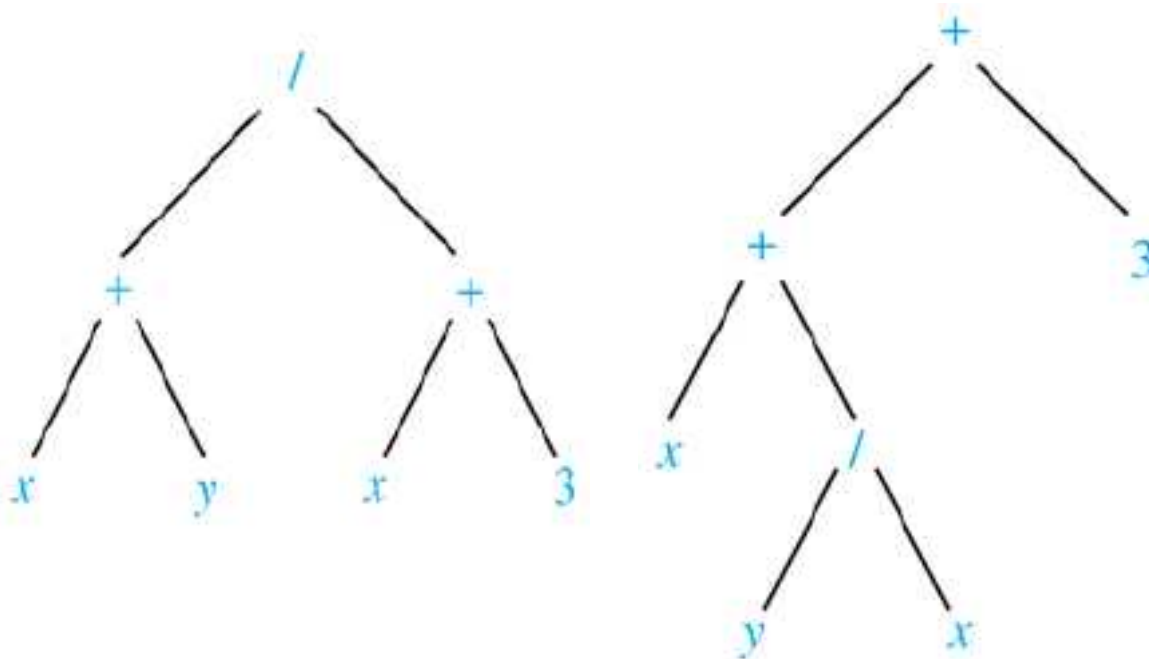
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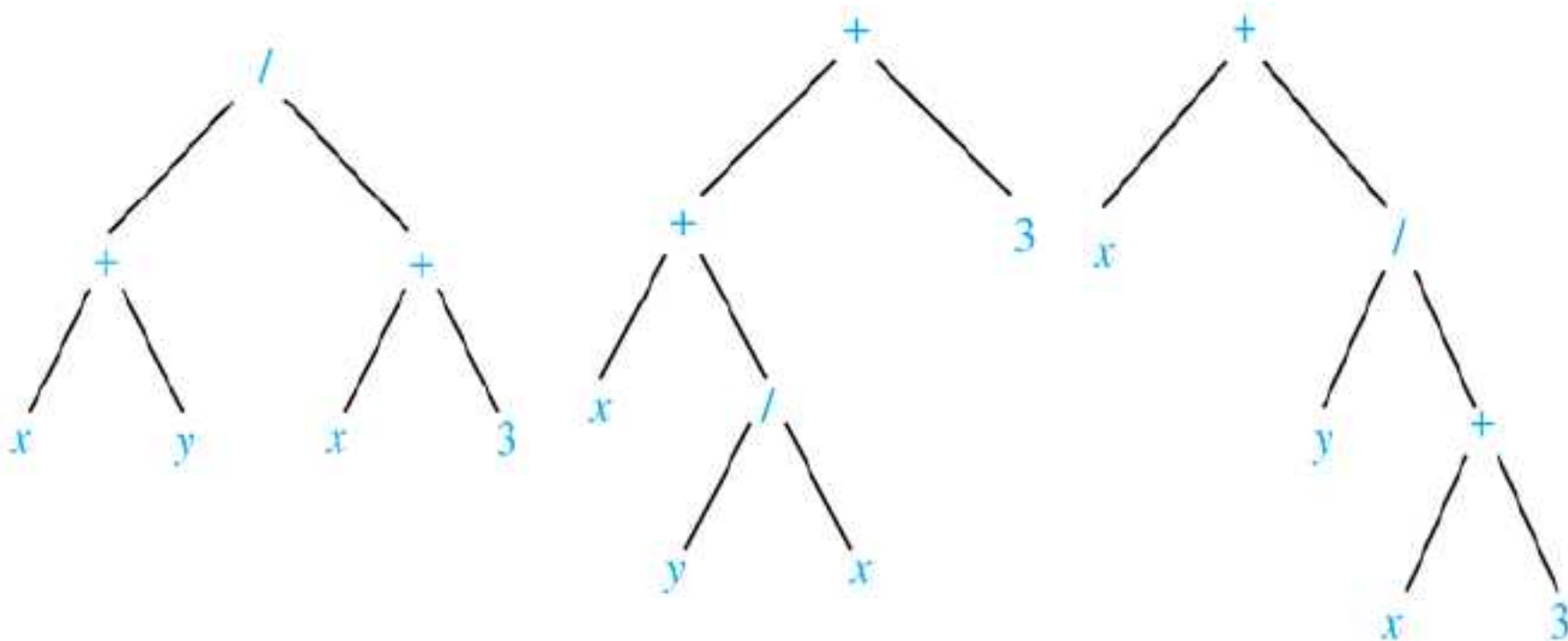
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*Prefix expressions* are evaluated by working *from right to left*. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with *the two operands to the right*.



# Prefix Notation

## ■ Example

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



# Prefix Notation

## ■ Example

+ - \* 2 3 5 / ↑ 2 3 4

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} + & - & * & 2 & 3 & 5 & / & \uparrow & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ & & & & & & & \underbrace{\phantom{\uparrow 2 3}} & & & \\ & & & & & & & 2 \uparrow 3 = 8 & & & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} + & - & * & 2 & 3 & 5 & / & 8 & 4 \\ & & & & & & \underbrace{\phantom{8 4}} & & & & \\ & & & & & & 8 / 4 = 2 & & & & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} + & - & * & 2 & 3 & 5 & 2 \\ & & \underbrace{\phantom{* 2 3}} & & & & & & & & \\ & & 2 * 3 = 6 & & & & & & & & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} + & - & 6 & 5 & 2 \\ & \underbrace{\phantom{- 6 5}} & & & & & & & & & \\ & 6 - 5 = 1 & & & & & & & & & \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} + & 1 & 2 \\ \underbrace{\phantom{+ 1 2}} & & & & & & \\ 1 + 2 = 3 & & & & & & \end{array}$$





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# Postfix Notation

## ■ Example

7 2 3 \* - 4 ↑ 9 3 / +



# Postfix Notation

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$$2 * 3 = 6$$

7 6 - 4 ↑ 9 3 / +

$$7 - 6 = 1$$

1 4 ↑ 9 3 / +

$$1^4 = 1$$

1 9 3 / +

$$9 / 3 = 3$$

1 3 +

$$1 + 3 = 4$$



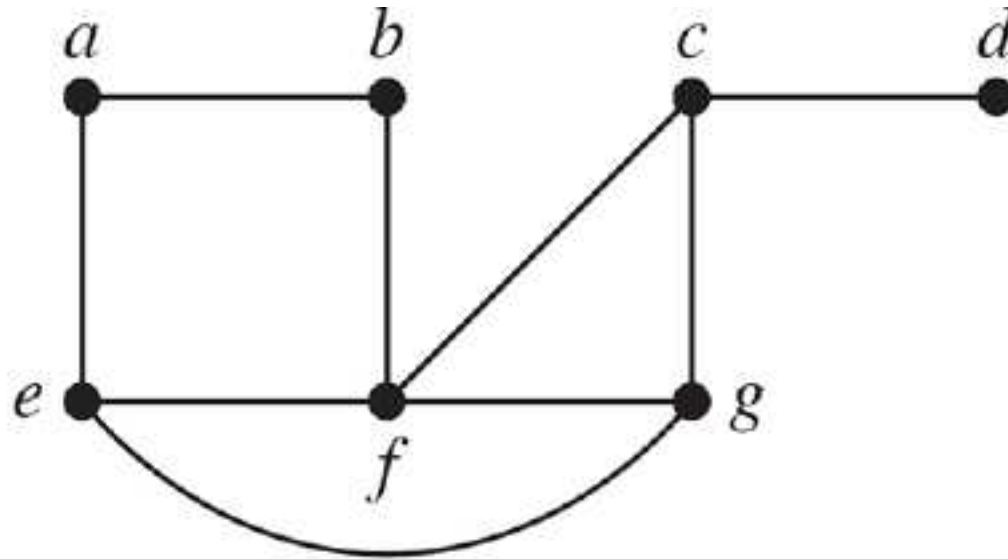
# Spanning Trees

- **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  $G$ .



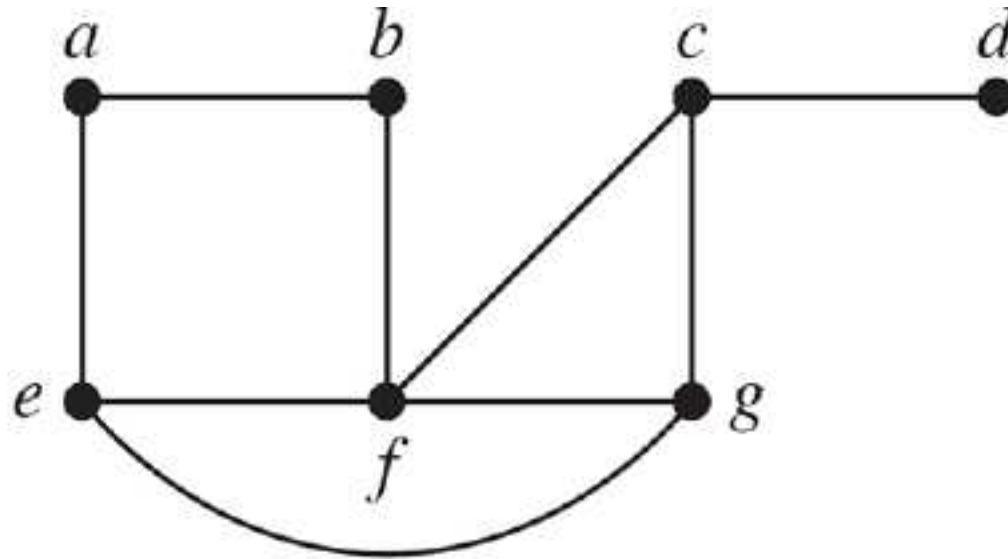
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remove edges to avoid circuits





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easy



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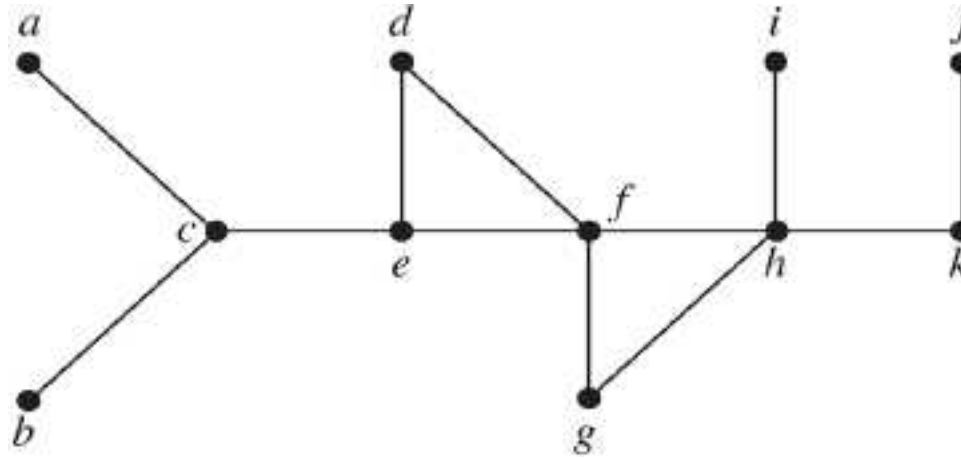
- ◇ If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, **the tree is a spanning tree**.

- ◇ Otherwise, **move back to some vertex** to repeat this procedure (*backtracking*)



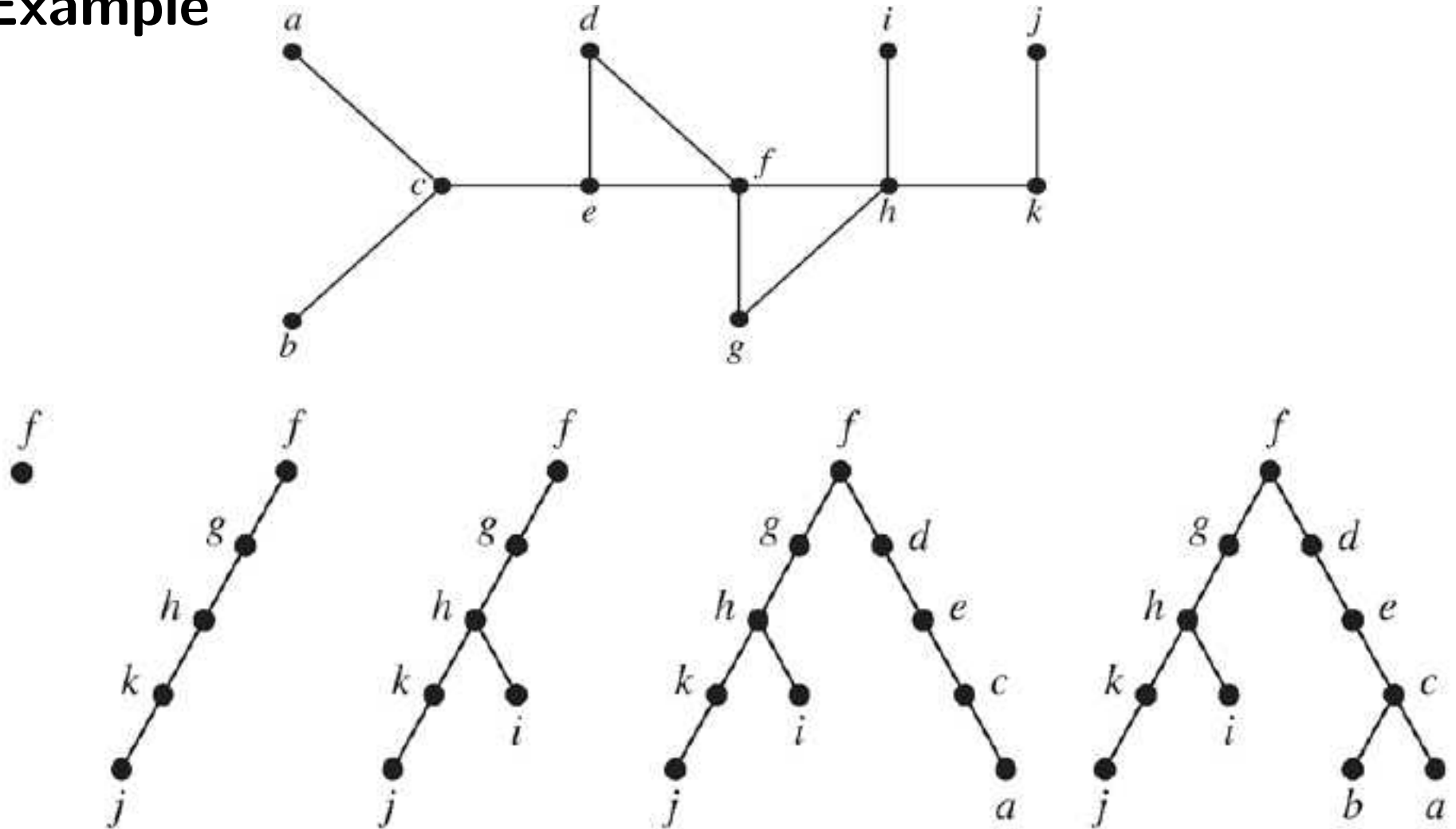
# Depth-First Search

## ■ Example



# Depth-First Search

## ■ Example



# Depth-First Search Algorithm

```
procedure DFS(G: connected graph with vertices  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ )  
T := tree consisting only of the vertex  $v_1$   
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)
```





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```

time complexity:  $O(e)$



# Breadth-First Search

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



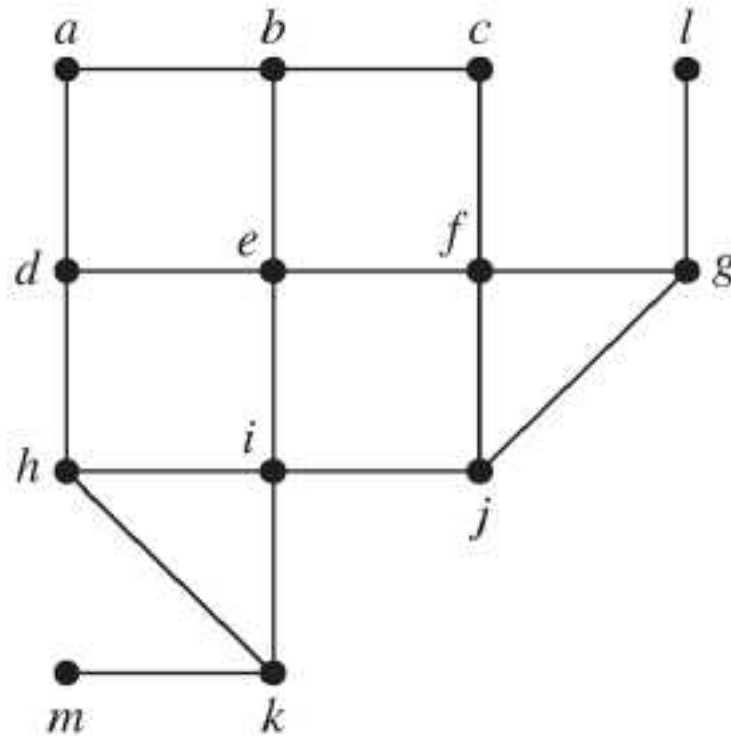
# Breadth-First Search

- 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**.



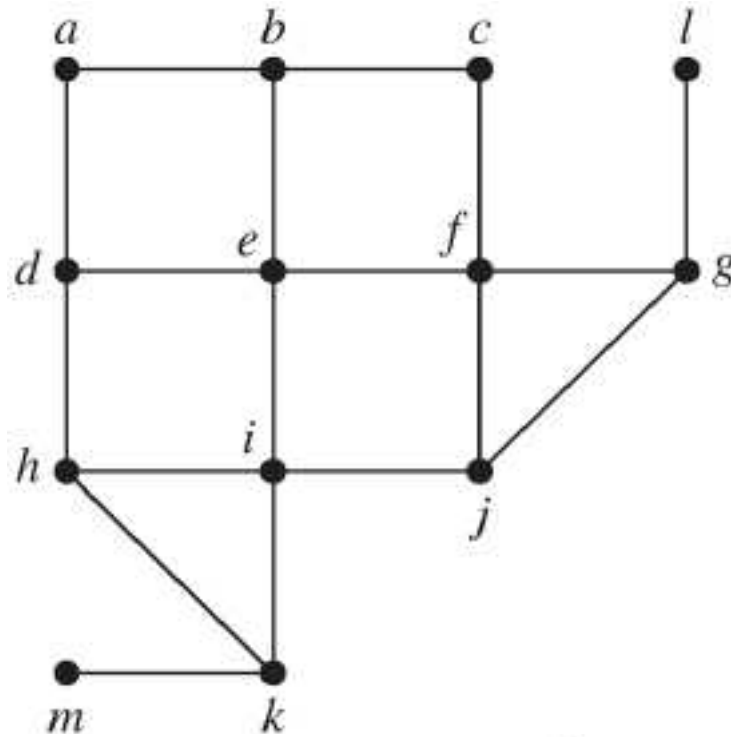
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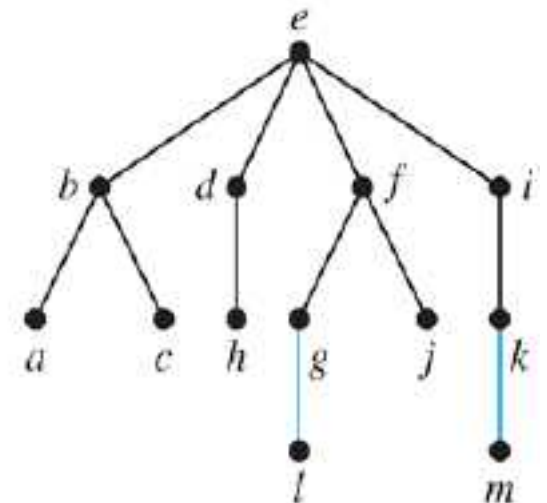
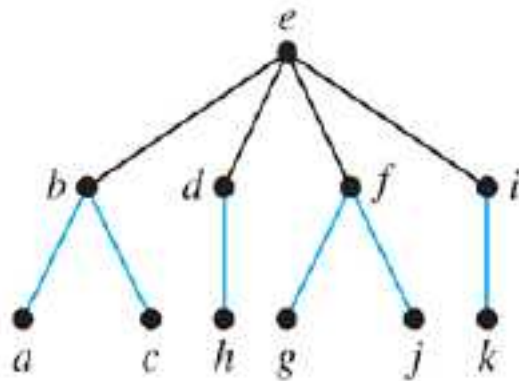
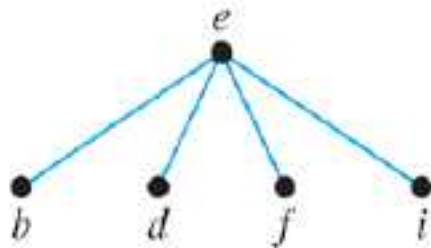


# Breadth-First Search

## ■ Example



*e*



# Breadth-First Search

```
procedure BFS(G: connected graph with vertices  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ )  
   $T :=$  tree consisting only of the vertex  $v_1$   
   $L :=$  empty list visit( $v_1$ )  
  put  $v_1$  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  $L$   
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# Applications of DFS, BFS

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





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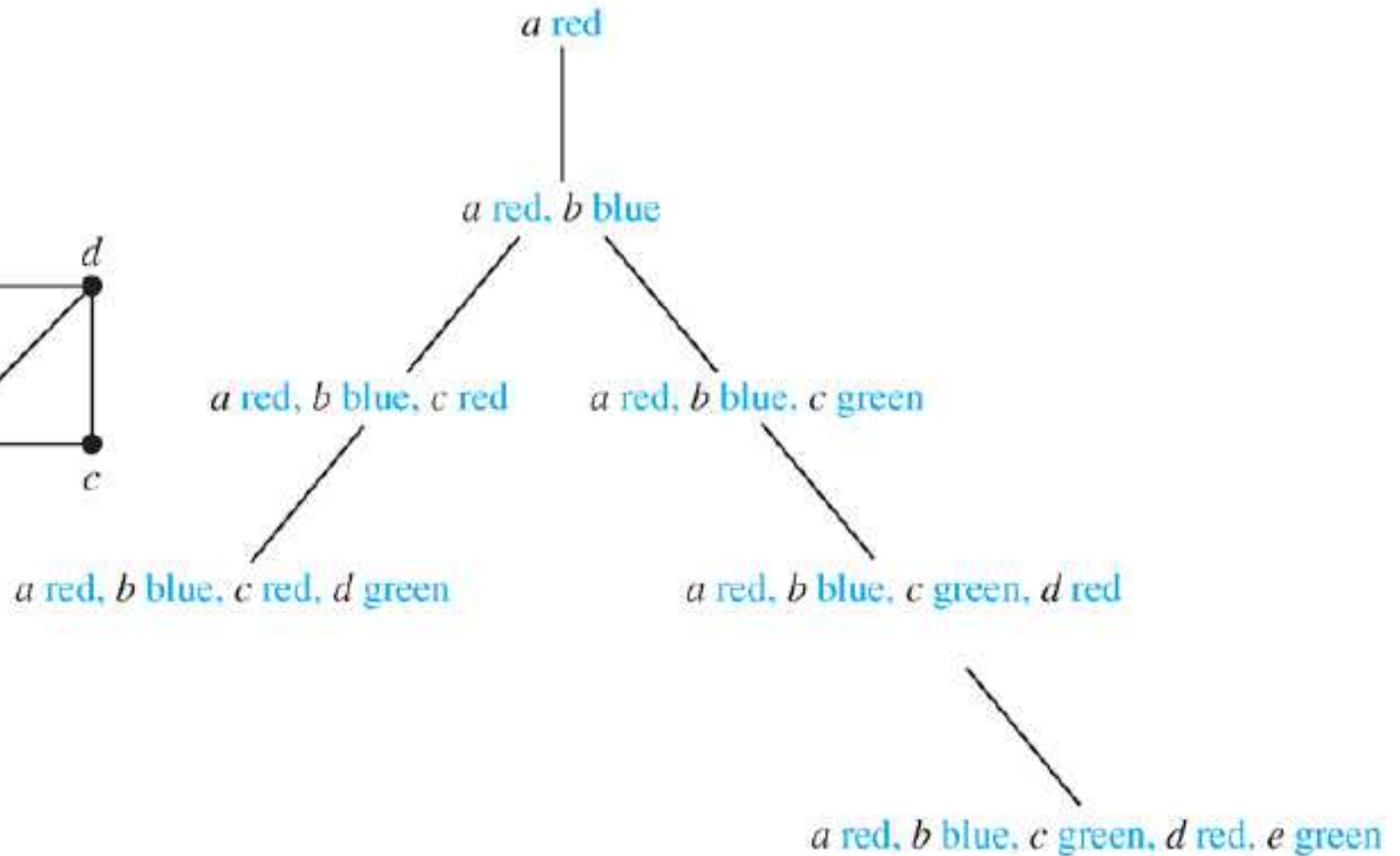
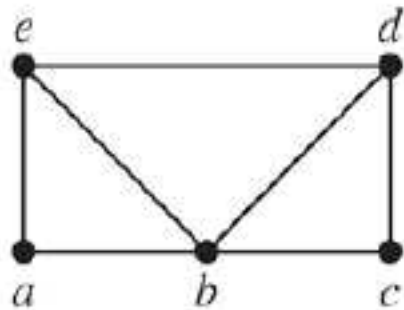


# Applications of DFS, BFS

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



# Applications of DFS, BFS

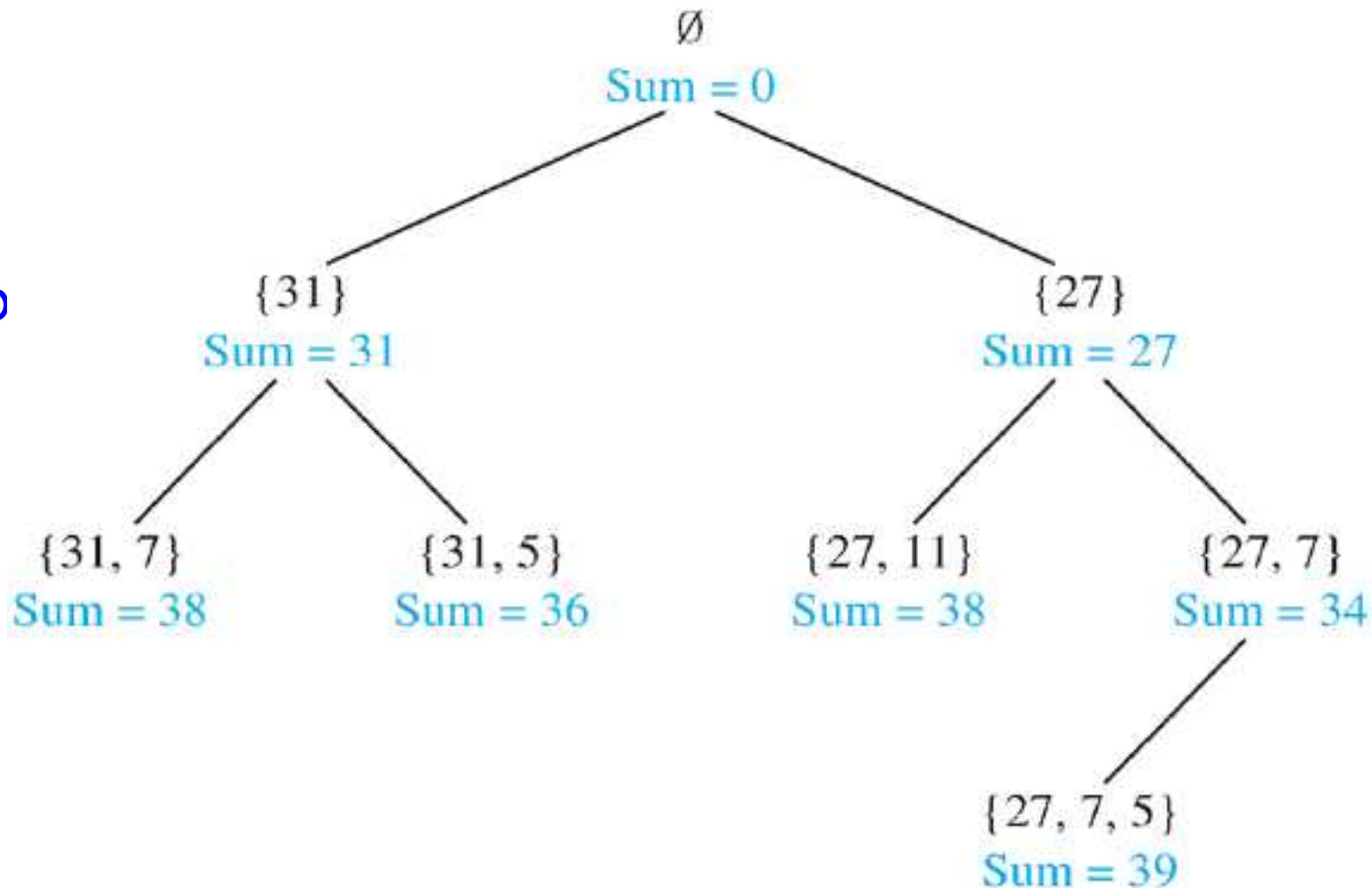


# Applications of DFS, BFS

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

find

graph



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  $G$ }
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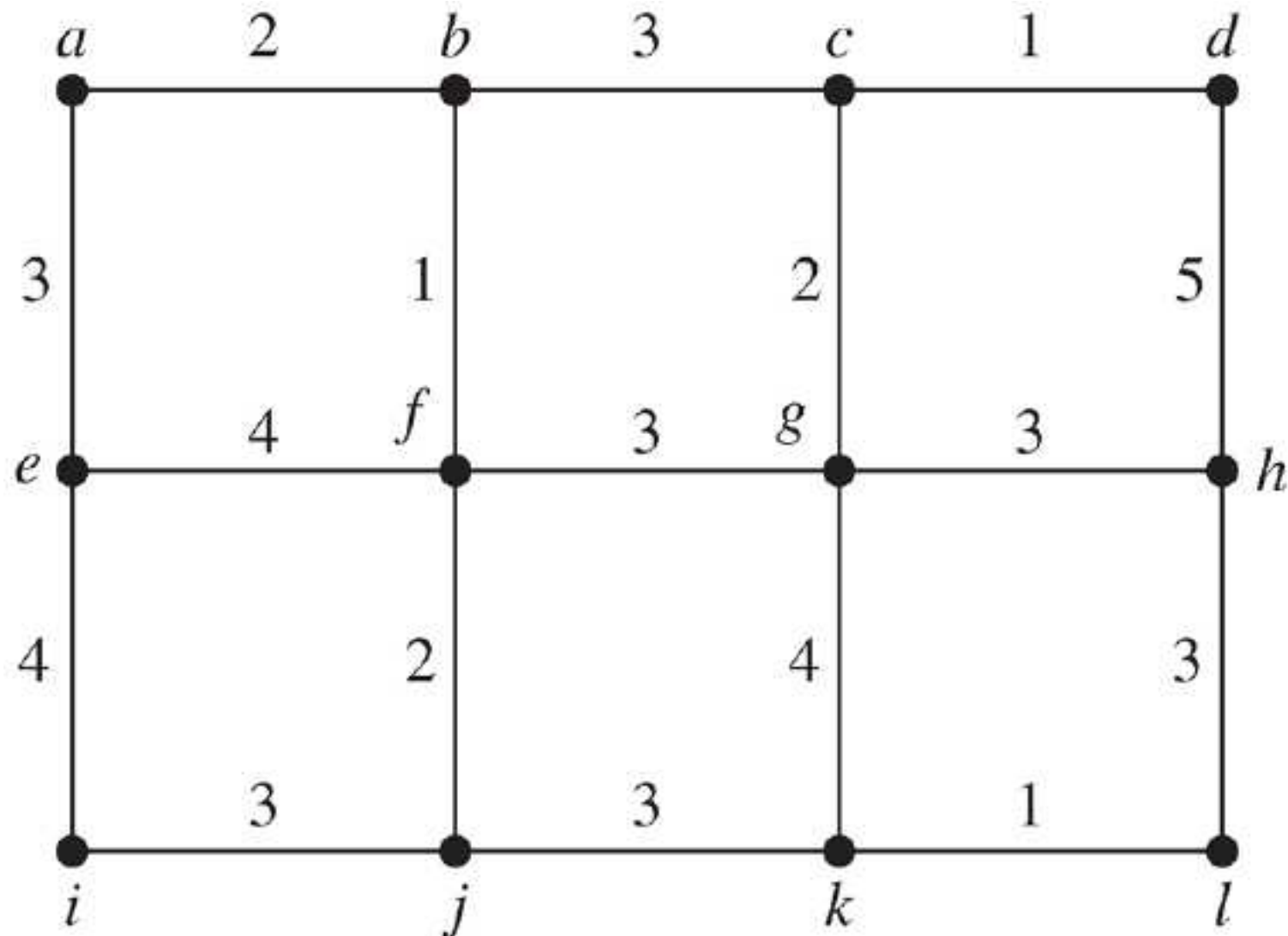
time complexity:  $e \log v$





# Prim's Algorithm

## ■ Example



# Kruskal's Algorithm

## 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  $T$   
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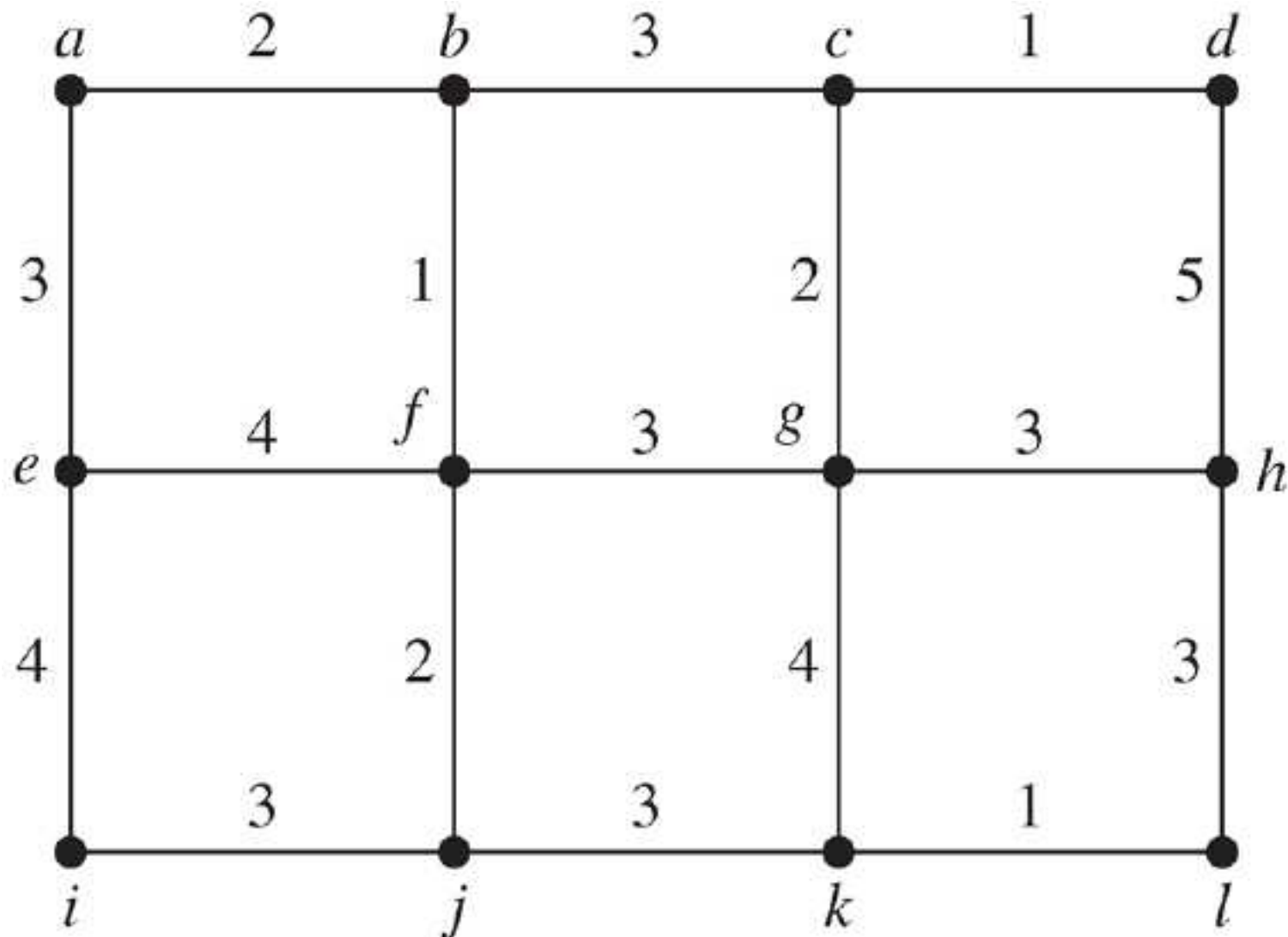
time complexity:  $e \log e$

see *CLRS / Algorithm Design*, J. Kleinberg, E. Tardos



# Kruskal's Algorithm

## ■ Example



# Next Lecture

- course review ...

