Basic Proof Techniques

Graph Basics

This is in no way a substitute for exam preparation, mearly a compilation of all the key talking points.

Chandra Neppalli

May 4, 2021

•000000

Counter Example

Best proof to use to disprove universally true propositions.

Counter Example

Best proof to use to disprove universally true propositions.

Ex: Every day is a Wednesday, where a counter example would be Monday is not Wednesday.

Contradiction

Best proof to use if you want to assert something is true.



Figure: Sourced from Google

Contradiction

Best proof to use if you want to assert something is true.

Assume what you want to prove is false, then show this leads to a contradiction



Figure: Sourced from Google

Contradiction

Best proof to use if you want to assert something is true.

Assume what you want to prove is false, then show this leads to a contradiction.

Therefore, the original assumption has to be true.



Figure: Sourced from Google

Contraposition

Best proof for proving causality. Define two propositions E and F.

Best proof for proving causality. Define two propositions E and F.

If you want to prove that E \to F, it might be more doable to prove $\neg F \to \neg E,$ as they are both logically equivalent.

Best proof for proving causality. Define two propositions E and F.

If you want to prove that E \to F, it might be more doable to prove $\neg F \to \neg E,$ as they are both logically equivalent.

This is especially useful if the **scope** of F is smaller than the scope of E.

000000

If the proof is simple, consider directly proving it.

Direct Proof

0000000

If the proof is simple, consider directly proving it.

Remember though, that you must maintain W.L.O.G, that your proof can never be too specific and must be arbitrary. Proof by Induction is a really nice proof technique when you reduce your proof to a known correct base case.

Proof by Induction

Proof by Induction is a really nice proof technique when you reduce your proof to a known correct base case.

If proof needs to be correct for all numbers $\in \mathbb{N}$, and each step is dependant on the previous step, then every step can be reduced to a definitive base case that is easy to directly prove.

Greedy Algorithms

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

Let P(i) denote an integer such that:

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

Let P(i) denote an integer such that:

•
$$P(0) = I$$

Basic Proof Techniques

0000000

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

Let P(i) denote an integer such that:

- P(0) = I
- ullet P(i) is an accumulator. This means that P(i+1) > P(i)

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

Let P(i) denote an integer such that:

- P(0) = I
- P(i) is an accumulator. This means that P(i+1) > P(i)
- $\forall i, P(i) \leq k$

Extra: Progress Measure

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

Let P(i) denote an integer such that:

- P(0) = I
- P(i) is an accumulator. This means that P(i+1) > P(i)
- $\forall i, P(i) \leq k$

From these 3 properties, the number of iterations is bounded by k - l + 1

Extra: Progress Measure

This is useful for proving an algorithm with a loop terminates.

Let P(i) denote an integer such that:

- P(0) = I
- ullet P(i) is an accumulator. This means that P(i+1) > P(i)
- $\forall i, P(i) \leq k$

From these 3 properties, the number of iterations is bounded by k-l+1

Note: This isn't a runtime analysis, rather a proof that the algorithm terminates.

Greedy Stays Ahead

This technique is used to prove that a greedy algorithm returns an optimal solution.



Figure: Sourced from New Grounds

Greedy Stays Ahead

This technique is used to prove that a greedy algorithm returns an optimal solution.

At every step of a greedy algorithm, it will stay at least as far as the optimal solution at that step.



Figure: Sourced from New Grounds

Greedy Stays Ahead

This technique is used to prove that a greedy algorithm returns an optimal solution.

At every step of a greedy algorithm, it will stay at least as far as the optimal solution at that step.

HW4 "Attack on Alarms" and Interval Scheduling are examples of problems with greedy solutions.



Figure: Sourced from New Grounds

Let's say there are two groups: Group A and Group B.

Introduction

Let's say there are two groups: Group A and Group B.

How do we generate a **stable** matching between each member of the two groups efficiently?

Introduction

Let's say there are two groups: Group A and Group B.

How do we generate a **stable** matching between each member of the two groups efficiently?

Moreover, what is a **stable** matching?

Perfect Matchings

A perfect matching is a bijective matching between A and B.

A perfect matching is a bijective matching between A and B.

Every member in group A is matched with exactly one member in group B.

A perfect matching is a bijective matching between A and B.

Every member in group A is matched with exactly one member in group B.

Conversely, every member in group B is matched with **exactly** one member in group A.

Perfect Matchings

A perfect matching is a bijective matching between A and B.

Every member in group A is matched with exactly one member in group B.

Conversely, every member in group B is matched with **exactly** one member in group A.

With n members in each group, there are n! perfect matchings.

Instability

For a particular matching, define a member m from group A and n from group B such that (m, n) is not in the matching.

Instability

For a particular matching, define a member m from group A and n from group B such that (m, n) is not in the matching.

If m prefers n over their current matching and n prefers m over their current matching, then (m, n) is an instability to the perfect matching.

Stable Matching

A stable matching is a perfect matching with no instabilities.

Stable Matching

A stable matching is a perfect matching with no instabilities.

It therefore follows that the number of stable matchings is at most the number of perfect matchings, or n!

Stable Matching

A stable matching is a perfect matching with no instabilities.

It therefore follows that the number of stable matchings is at most the number of perfect matchings, or n!

The Gale Shapely Algorithm is an $O(n^3)$ time algorithm that can output a stable matching.

A stable matching is a perfect matching with no instabilities

It therefore follows that the number of stable matchings is at most the number of perfect matchings, or n!

The Gale Shapely Algorithm is an $O(n^3)$ time algorithm that can output a stable matching.

With the right data structures, the runtime can be reduced to $O(n^2)$.

Stable Matching

A stable matching is a perfect matching with no instabilities.

It therefore follows that the number of stable matchings is at most the number of perfect matchings, or n!

The Gale Shapely Algorithm is an $O(n^3)$ time algorithm that can output a stable matching.

With the right data structures, the runtime can be reduced to $O(n^2)$.

Even though the runtime isn't linear, because the input size is $2n^2 \to \Theta(n^2)^1$, the runtime with respect to the input size is O(N), or linear time.

¹This comes from *n* Group A members and *n* Group B members with their 2*n* preference lists

Graph Basics

Stable Matching

Code:

```
Initially all m \in M and w \in W are free
While there is a man m who is free and hasn't proposed to every
woman
      Choose such a man m
      Let W be the highest-ranked woman in m's
            preference list to whom m has not yet proposed
      If W is free then
            (m, w) become engaged
      Else W is currently engaged to m'
            If w prefers m' to m then
                  m remains free
            Else w prefers m to m'
                  (m, w) become engaged
                  m' becomes free
            Endif
```

Endif

Endwhile

Return the set S of engaged pairs.



What are graphs?

Graphs are a way to represent relations between data points.



Figure: Sourced from Youtube

What are graphs?

Graphs are a way to represent relations between data points.

Graphs have a set of vertices which represent data points and a set of edges to model the **relation** between vertices

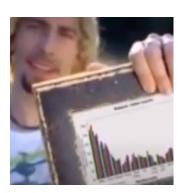


Figure: Sourced from Youtube

What are graphs?

Graphs are a way to represent relations between data points.

Graphs have a set of vertices which represent data points and a set of edges to model the **relation** between vertices

An edge exists between two or more vertices *iff* there is a connection between them

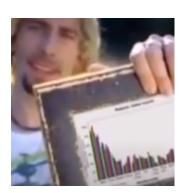


Figure: Sourced from Youtube

Graph Representation

Adjacency List: Keep a n length array. Vertices are indices of the array where each element of the array contains a pointer to a list of adjacent vertices to the index/vertex. This takes up $\Theta(n+m)$ space for m edges.

Adjacency Matrix: Keep a $n \times n$ matrix. Rows and columns are vertices. An edge (u, v) exists if the matrix at row u and column v is not null This takes up $\Theta(n^2)$ space.

A graph is undirected if edges go both ways. If for any vertices u, v, vertex u connects to v, v connects to u.

A graph is undirected if edges go both ways. If for any vertices u, v, vertex u connects to v, v connects to u.

A graph is directed if there is an edge (u, v) such that u is connected to v, but v is not connected to u.

A graph is undirected if edges go both ways. If for any vertices u, v, vertex u connects to v, v connects to u.

A graph is directed if there is an edge (u, v) such that u is connected to v, but v is not connected to u.

A graph is a tree if it is connected and there are **no** cycles present.

A graph is undirected if edges go both ways. If for any vertices u, v, vertex u connects to v, v connects to u.

A graph is directed if there is an edge (u, v) such that u is connected to v, but v is not connected to u.

A graph is a tree if it is connected and there are **no** cycles present.

Bus transportation routes could be classified as an undirected graph, while airports and flights could be modeled as a directed graph.

Paths and Cycles

A path is a sequence of vertices and edges.

Paths and Cycles

A path is a sequence of vertices and edges.

A cycle is a sequence of vertices and edges where the first and last vertex are **the same**.

Paths and Cycles

A path is a sequence of vertices and edges.

A cycle is a sequence of vertices and edges where the first and last vertex are **the same**.

A simple path is a path that contains no cycles. A simple cycle is a cycle in which the only repeating vertices are the first and last.

Graph Basics

Paths and Cycles

A path is a sequence of vertices and edges.

A cycle is a sequence of vertices and edges where the first and last vertex are the same

A simple path is a path that contains no cycles. A simple cycle is a cycle in which the only repeating vertices are the first and last.

A cycle needs at least 4 elements. The maximum length of a simple path for a graph with n vertices is n-1.



Connectivity

A graph is connected if there is a path between any two vertices.

A graph is connected if there is a path between any two vertices

A directed graph is strongly connected iff for any to vertices u and v, if there is a path from u to v, there must also be a path from v to u.

A graph is connected if there is a path between any two vertices

A directed graph is strongly connected iff for any to vertices u and v, if there is a path from u to v, there must also be a path from v to u.

A directed acyclic graph \Leftrightarrow topological ordering, meaning the vertices can be ordered in a way that all edges point in the **same** direction.

Connectivity

Breadth First Search (BFS) traverses a graph by layers and builds a BFS tree.

Breadth First Search (BFS) traverses a graph by layers and builds a BFS tree.

It runs in $\Theta(n+m)$ time and is linear with respect to its input size.

Breadth First Search (BFS) traverses a graph by layers and builds a BFS tree

It runs in $\Theta(n+m)$ time and is linear with respect to its input size.

Depth First Search (DFS) traverses a graph by picking a point and following it until a dead end.

Graph Basics

Breadth First Search (BFS) traverses a graph by layers and builds a BFS tree.

It runs in $\Theta(n+m)$ time and is linear with respect to its input size.

Depth First Search (DFS) traverses a graph by picking a point and following it until a dead end.

It runs in $\Theta(n+m)$ time and is linear with respect to its input size.

Introduction

A greedy algorithm is an algorithm that at each step, produces a locally optimal solution. The goal is to achieve polynomial time for a given algorithmic problem.



Figure: Sourced from Google

Introduction

A greedy algorithm is an algorithm that at each step, produces a locally optimal solution. The goal is to achieve polynomial time for a given algorithmic problem.

It follows that at the end of the algorithm, the locally optimal solution returned can approximate a globally optimal solution. A greedy algorithm never backtracks.



Figure: Sourced from Google

Introduction

A greedy algorithm is an algorithm that at each step, produces a locally optimal solution. The goal is to achieve polynomial time for a given algorithmic problem.

It follows that at the end of the algorithm, the locally optimal solution returned can approximate a globally optimal solution. A greedy algorithm never backtracks.

See the greedy stays ahead proof for details on proving these types of algorithms.



Figure: Sourced from Google



Interval Scheduling Problem

Given a set of tasks to do over a period in time, how do you pick the **maximum** number of tasks that aren't in conflict?

Greedy Algorithms

Interval Scheduling Problem

Given a set of tasks to do over a period in time, how do you pick the **maximum** number of tasks that aren't in conflict?

One greedy solution is to sort the set of tasks by their earliest \rightarrow latest finishing time.

Given a weighted, graph, how do you construct a tree such that the accumulation of all the weights in the tree is minimized?

Given a **weighted**, graph, how do you construct a tree such that the accumulation of all the weights in the tree is minimized?

There are numerous greedy algorithms to generate an MST:

Given a **weighted**, graph, how do you construct a tree such that the accumulation of all the weights in the tree is minimized?

There are numerous greedy algorithms to generate an MST:

• Prim's Algorithm

Given a **weighted**, graph, how do you construct a tree such that the accumulation of all the weights in the tree is minimized?

There are numerous greedy algorithms to generate an MST:

- Prim's Algorithm
- Boruvka's Algorithm

Given a **weighted**, graph, how do you construct a tree such that the accumulation of all the weights in the tree is minimized?

There are numerous greedy algorithms to generate an MST:

- Prim's Algorithm
- Boruvka's Algorithm
- Kruskal's Algorithm

Greedy Algorithms

Given a **weighted**, graph, how do you construct a tree such that the accumulation of all the weights in the tree is minimized?

There are numerous greedy algorithms to generate an MST:

- Prim's Algorithm
- Boruvka's Algorithm
- Kruskal's Algorithm

Refer to the sources for proof of correctness and runtime analysis.

Shortest Path Problem

Given a weighted graph with **no** negative weights, how do you find the shortest path?