



CS215 DISCRETE MATH

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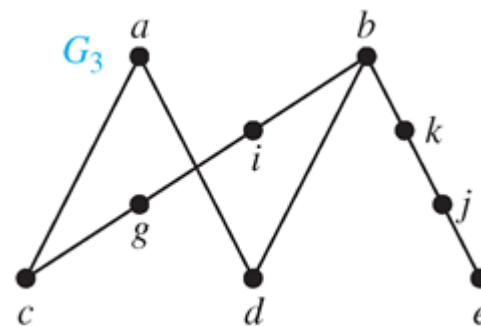
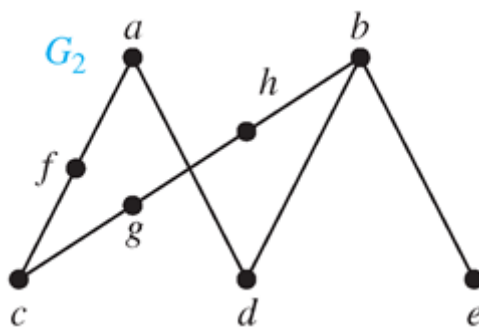
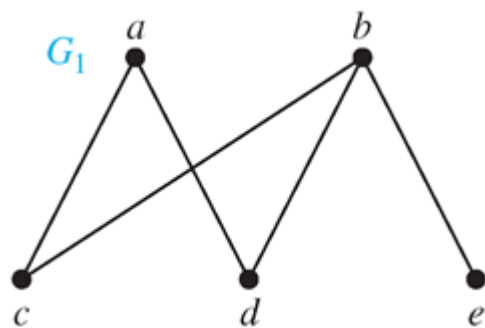
Kuratowski's Theorem

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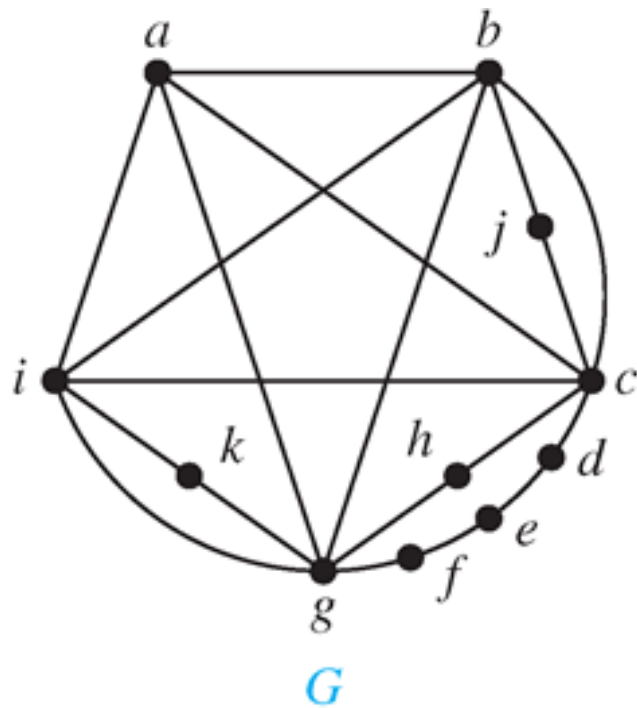
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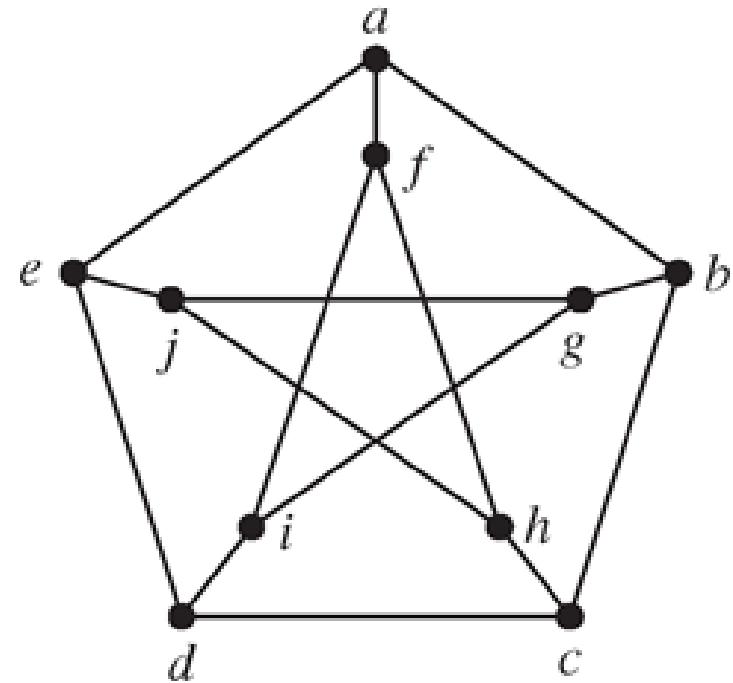
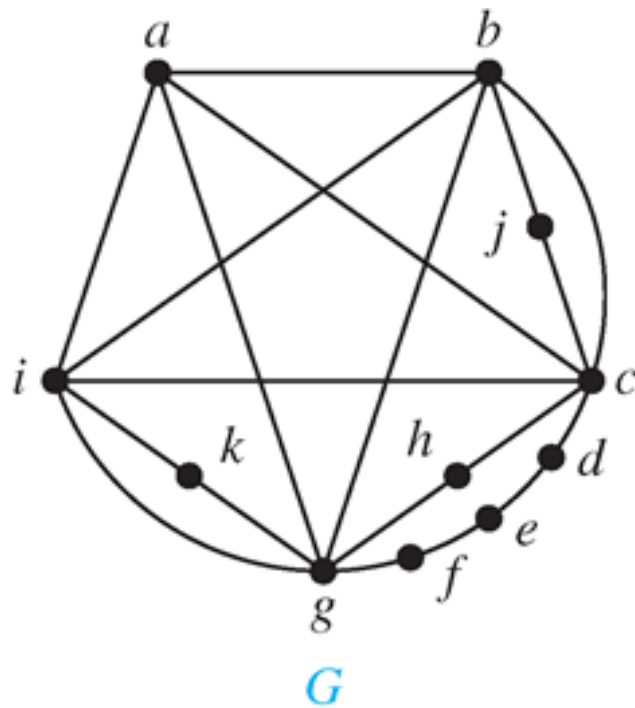
Theorem A graph is **nonplanar** if and only if it contains a subgraph **homomorphic to $K_{3,3}$ or K_5** .



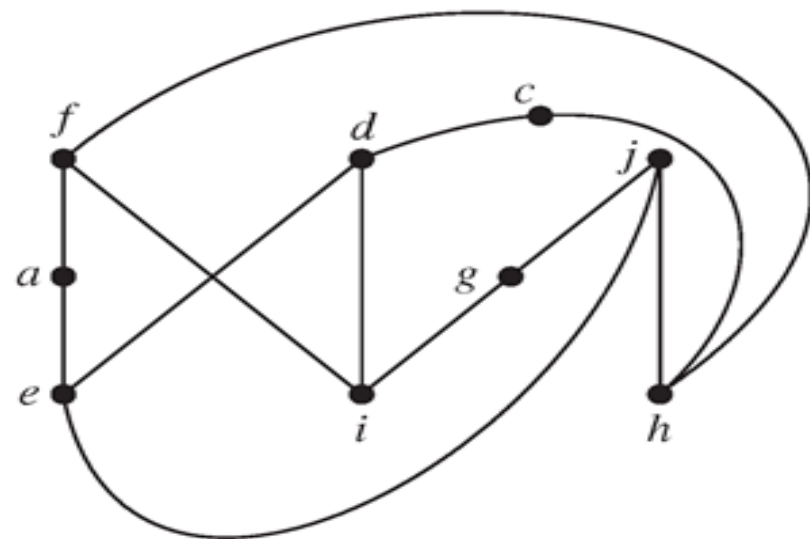
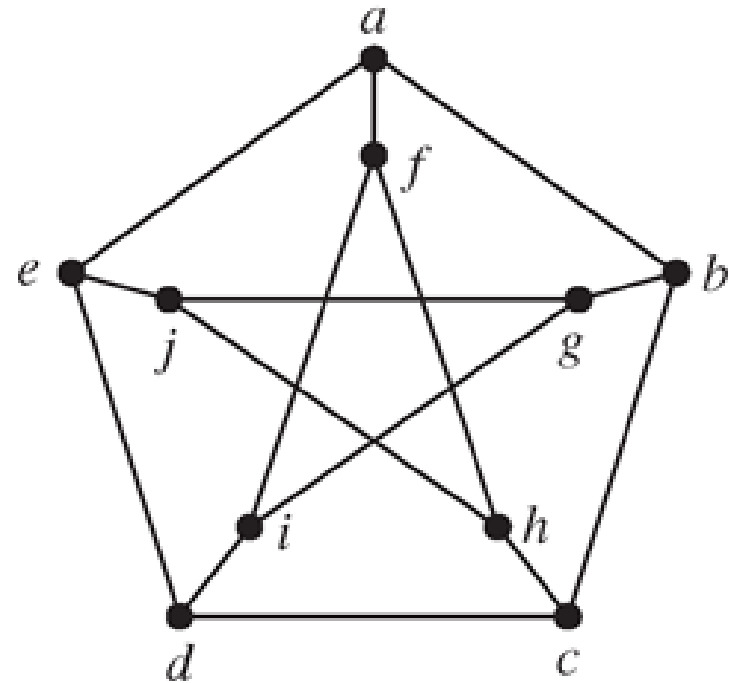
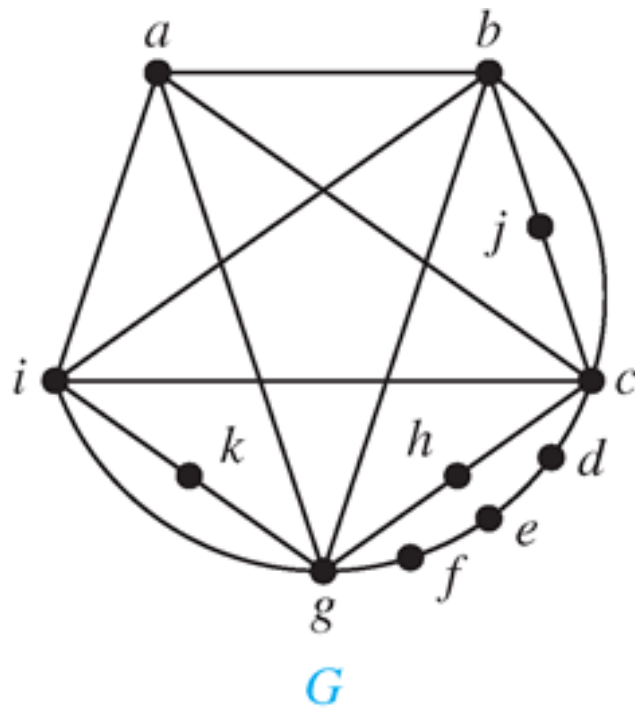
Examples



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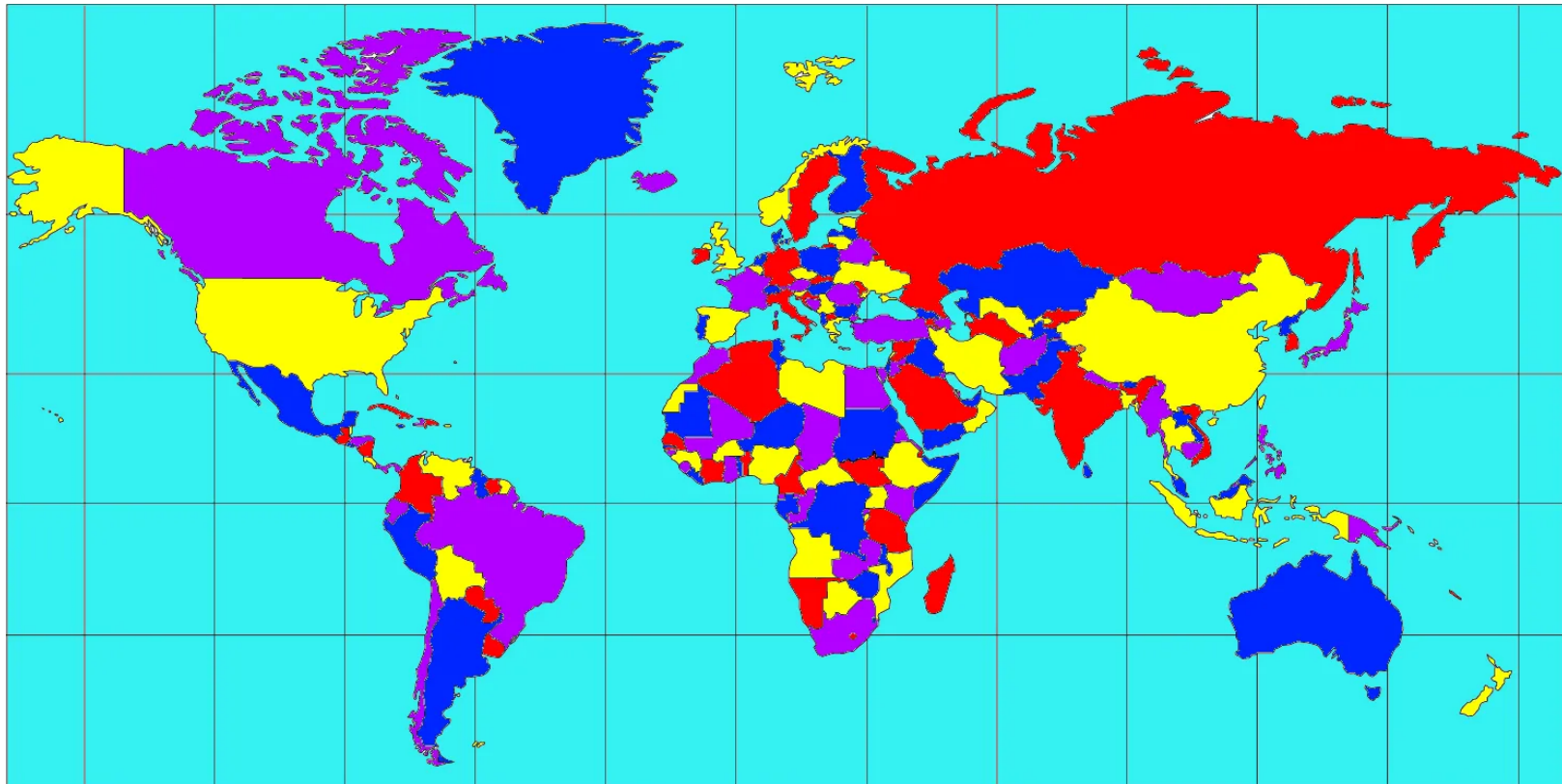


Examples



Graph Coloring

- **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 computer-aided proof*)
- ◇ Kempe's incorrect proof serves as a basis

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.

Graph Coloring

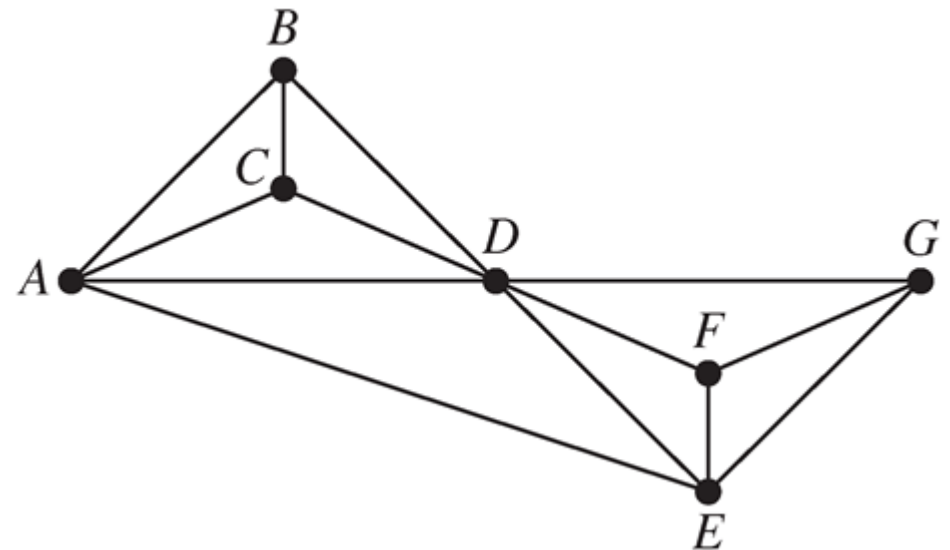
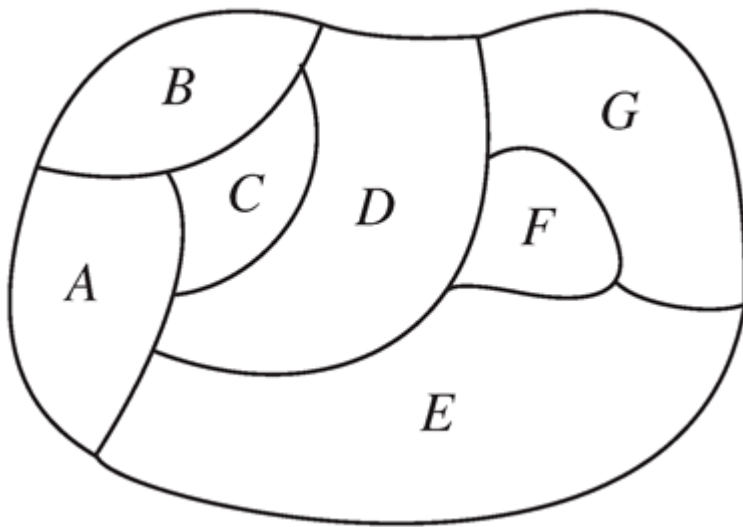
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The *chromatic number* of a graph is the *least number* of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by $\chi(G)$.

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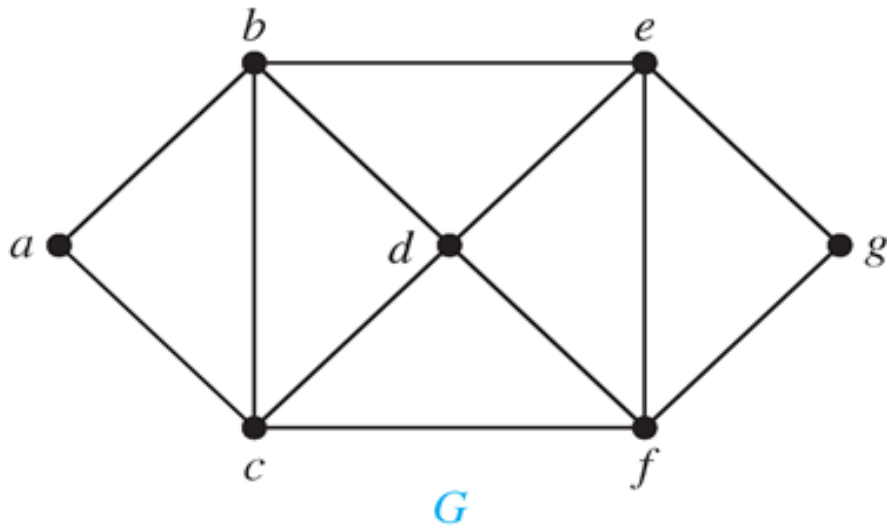


Graph Coloring

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

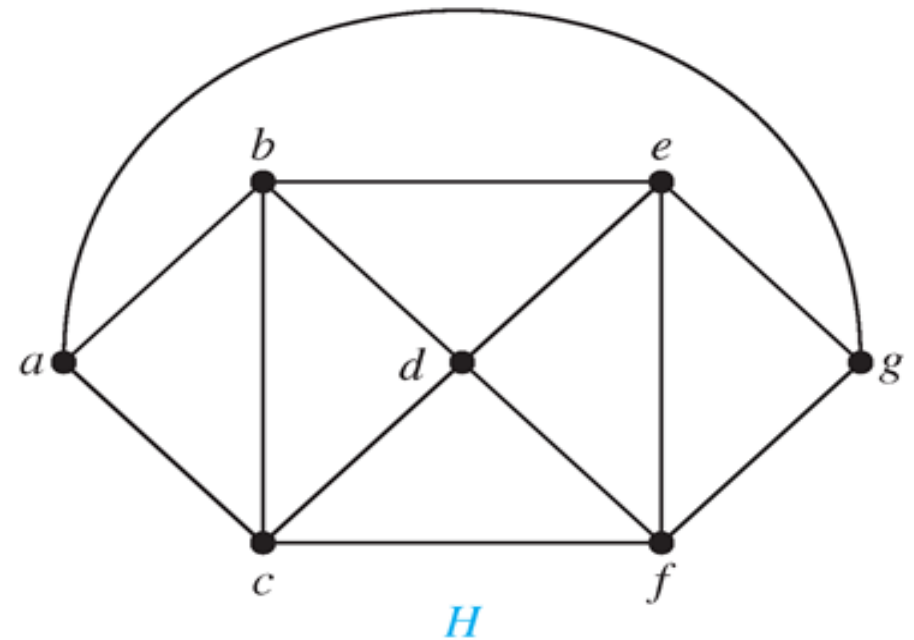
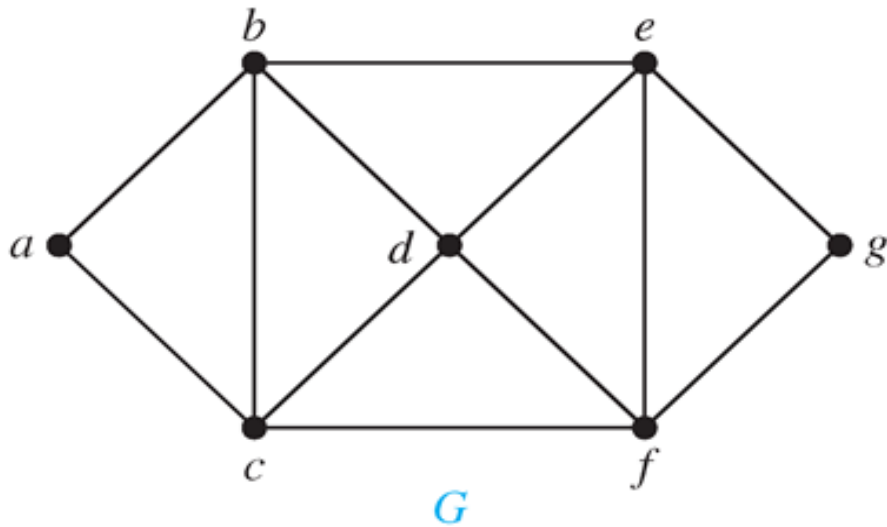
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- **Theorem** (Six Color Theorem) The chromatic number of a planar graph is no greater than six.



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

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Basic step: For one single vertex, pick an arbitrary color.



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Inductive step: Consider a planar graph with $k + 1$ vertices. Recall Corollary 2 (the graph has a vertex of degree 5 or fewer). Remove this vertex, by i.h., we can color the remaining graph with 6 colors. Put the vertex back in. Since there are at most 5 colors adjacent, so we have at least one color left.



Graph Coloring

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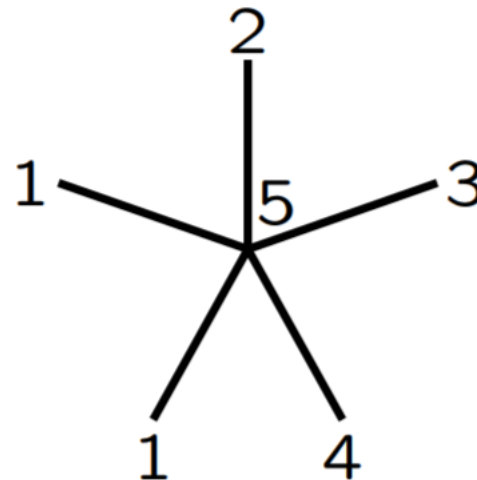
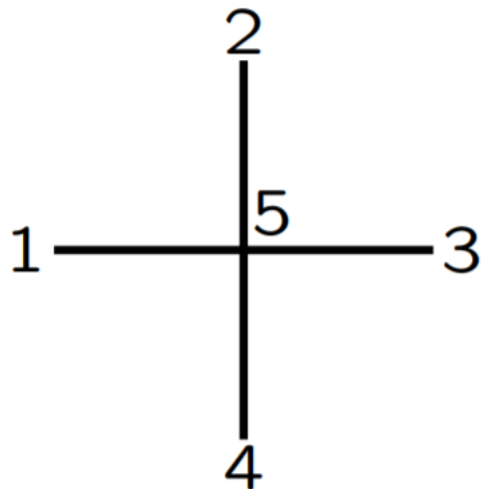
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Proof (by induction on the number of vertices)
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If the vertex has degree less than 5, or if it has degree 5 and only ≤ 4 colors are used for vertices connected to it, we can pick an available color for it.

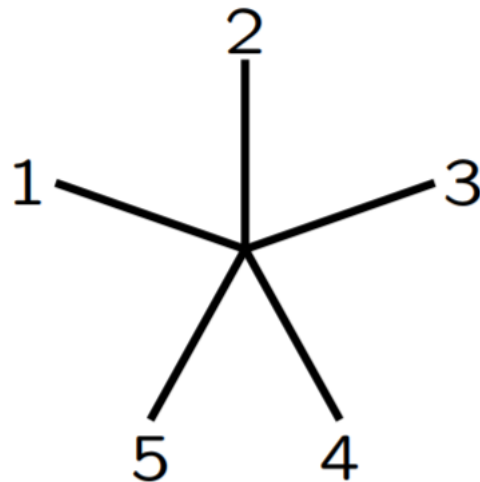


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If the vertex has degree 5, and all 5 colors are connected to it, we label the vertices adjacent to the “special” vertex (degree 5) 1 to 5 (in order).



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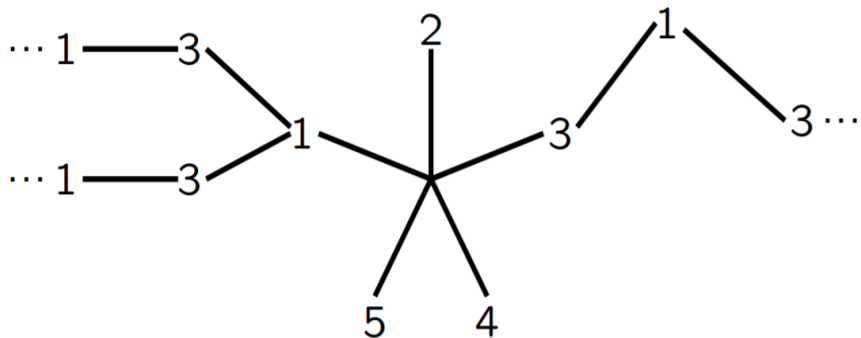
We make a subgraph out of all the vertices colored 1 or 3. If the adjacent vertex colored 1 and the adjacent vertex colored 3 are not connected by a path in the subgraph.

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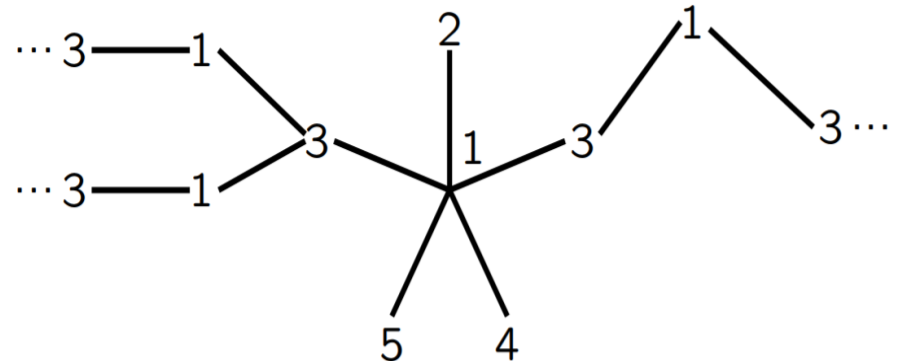
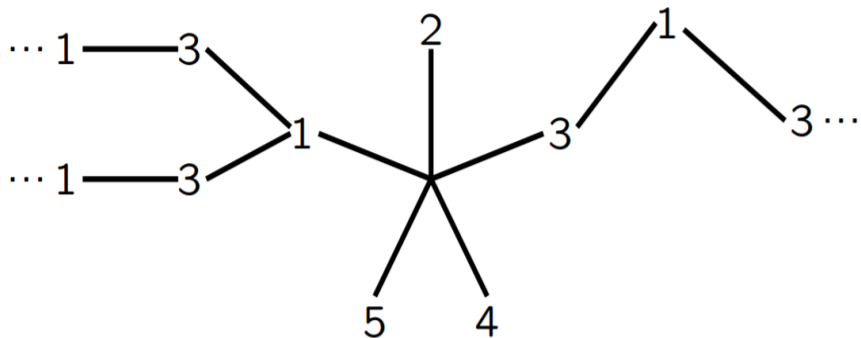


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On the other hand, if the vertices colored 1 and 3 are connected via a path in the subgraph, we do the **the same** for the vertices colored 2 and 4. Note that this will be a disconnected pair of subgraphs, separated by a path connecting the vertices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

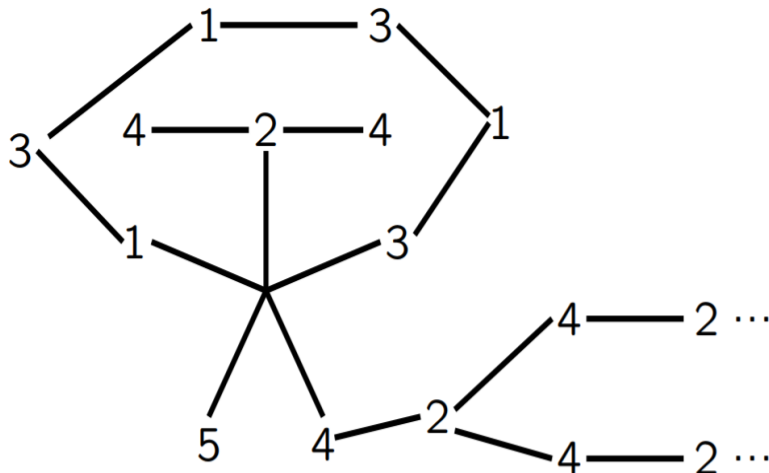


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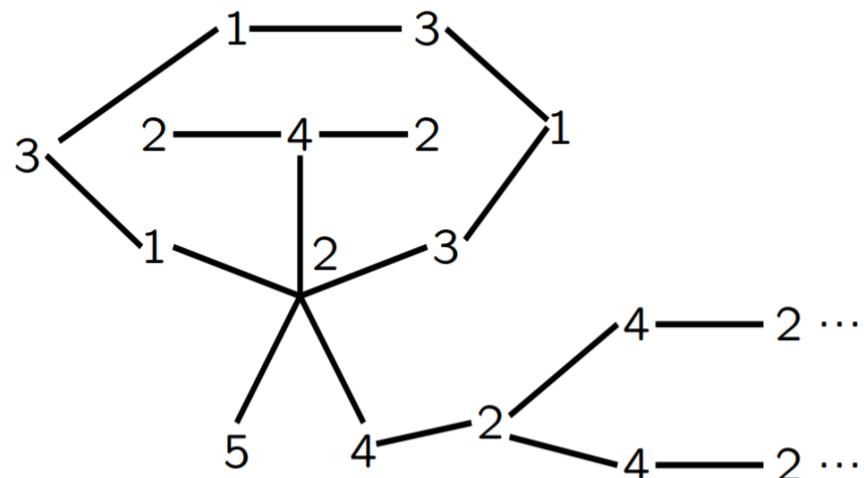
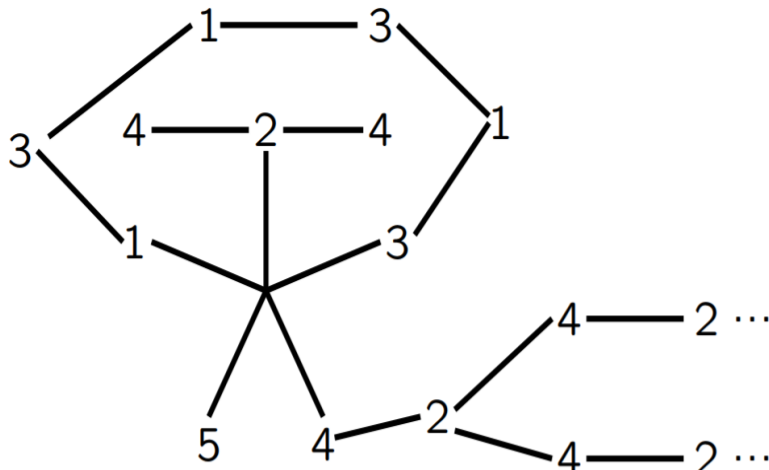


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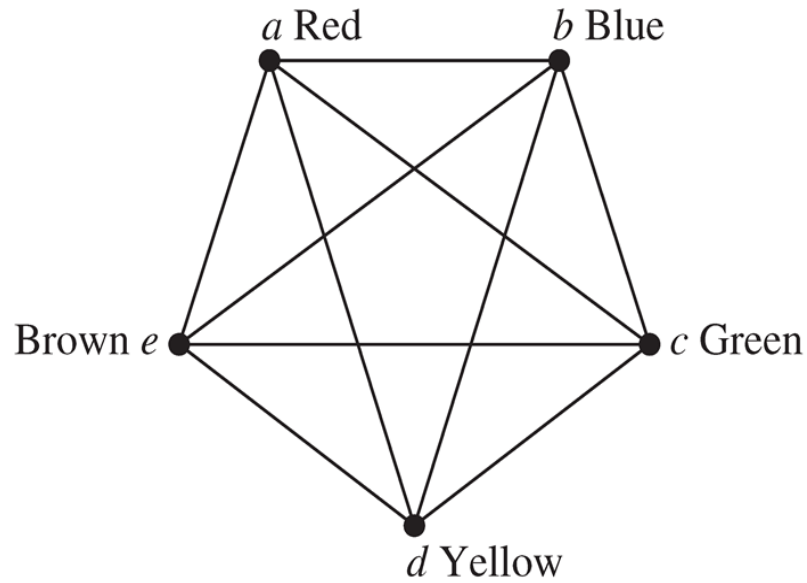
Examples

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



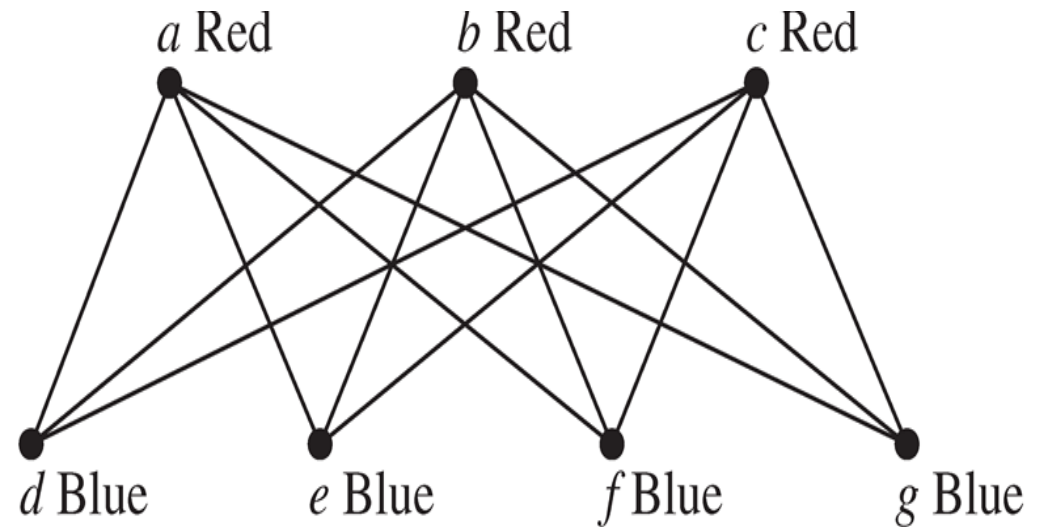
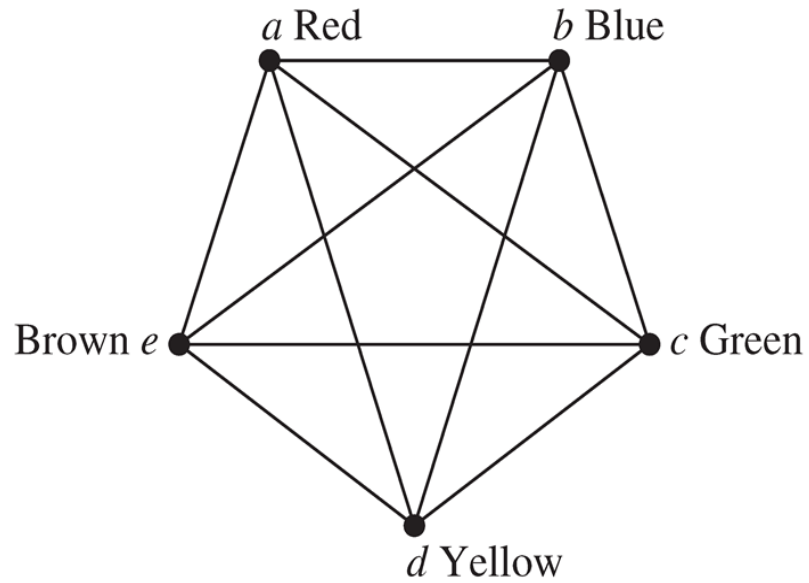
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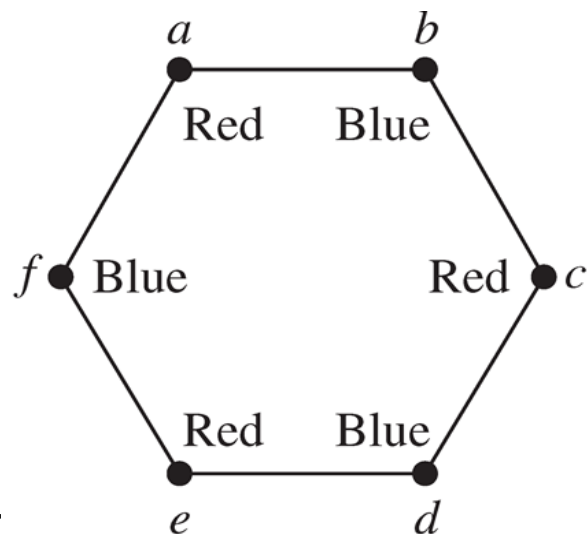
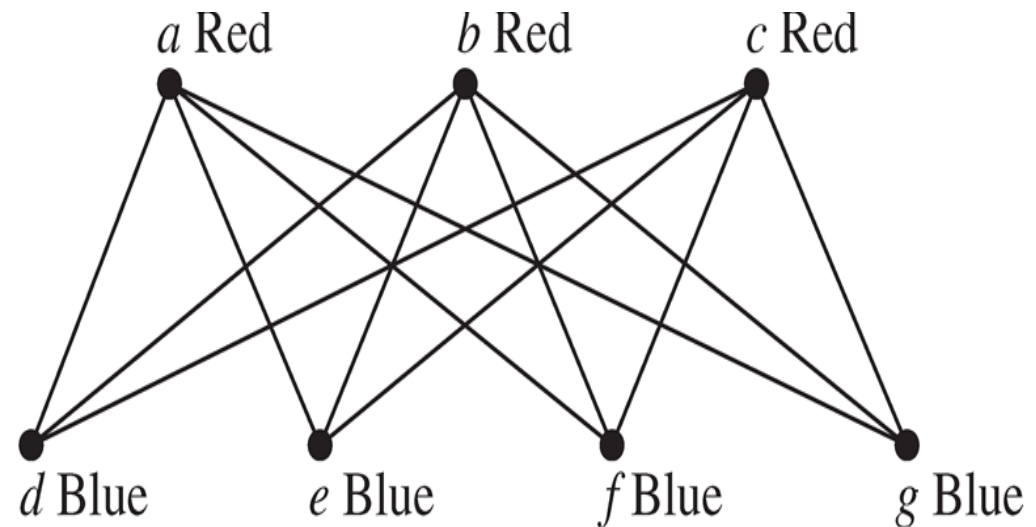
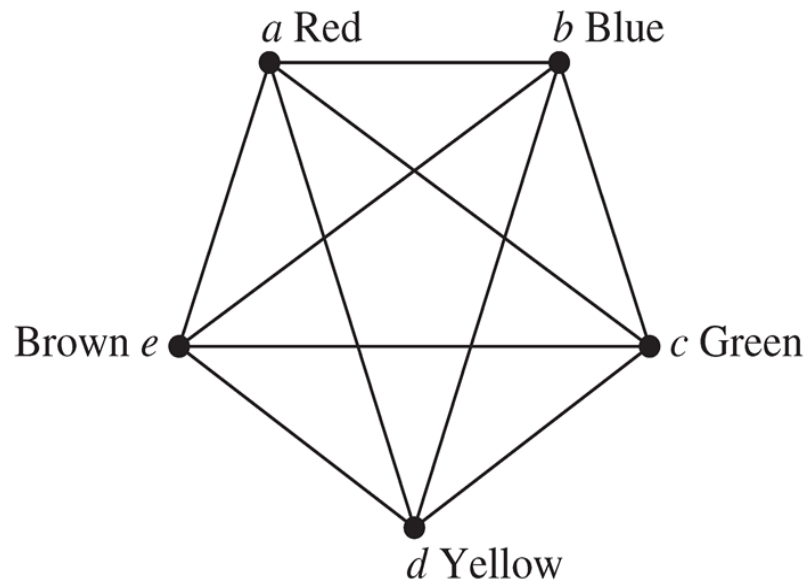
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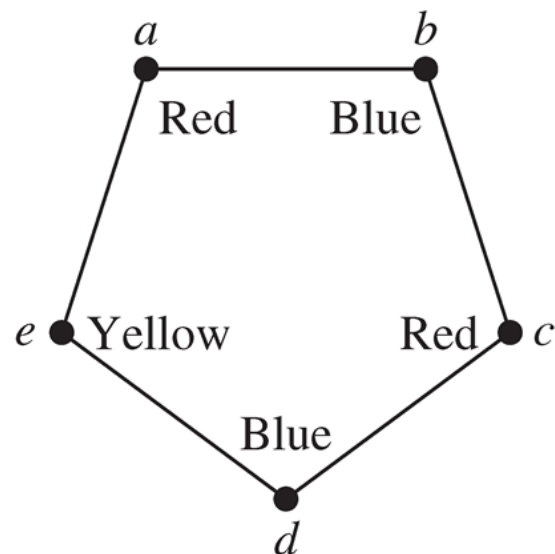
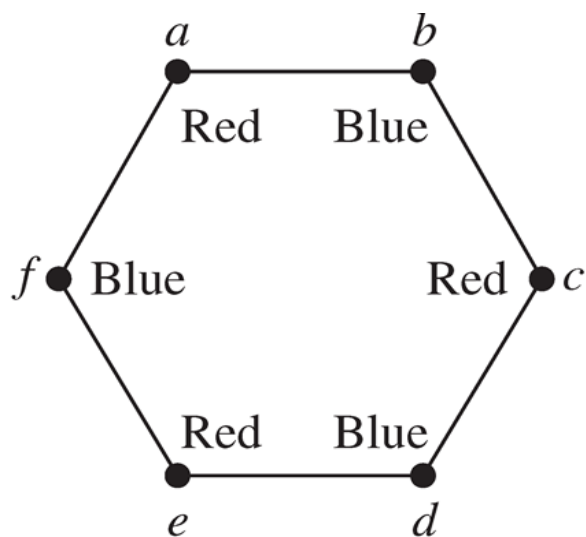
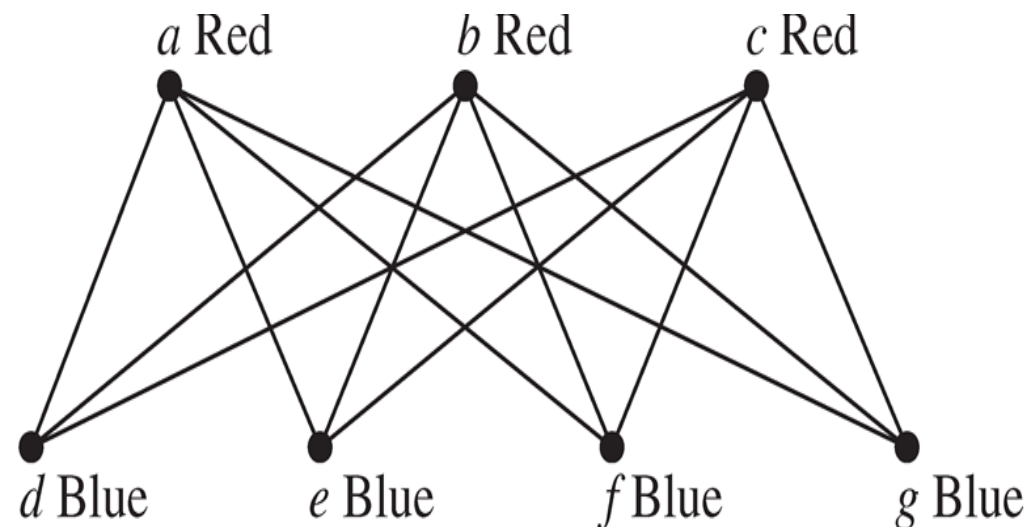
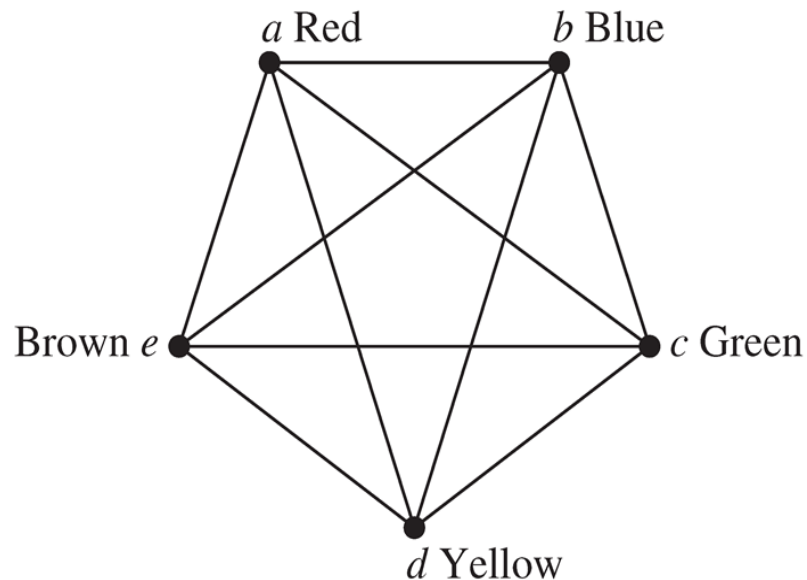
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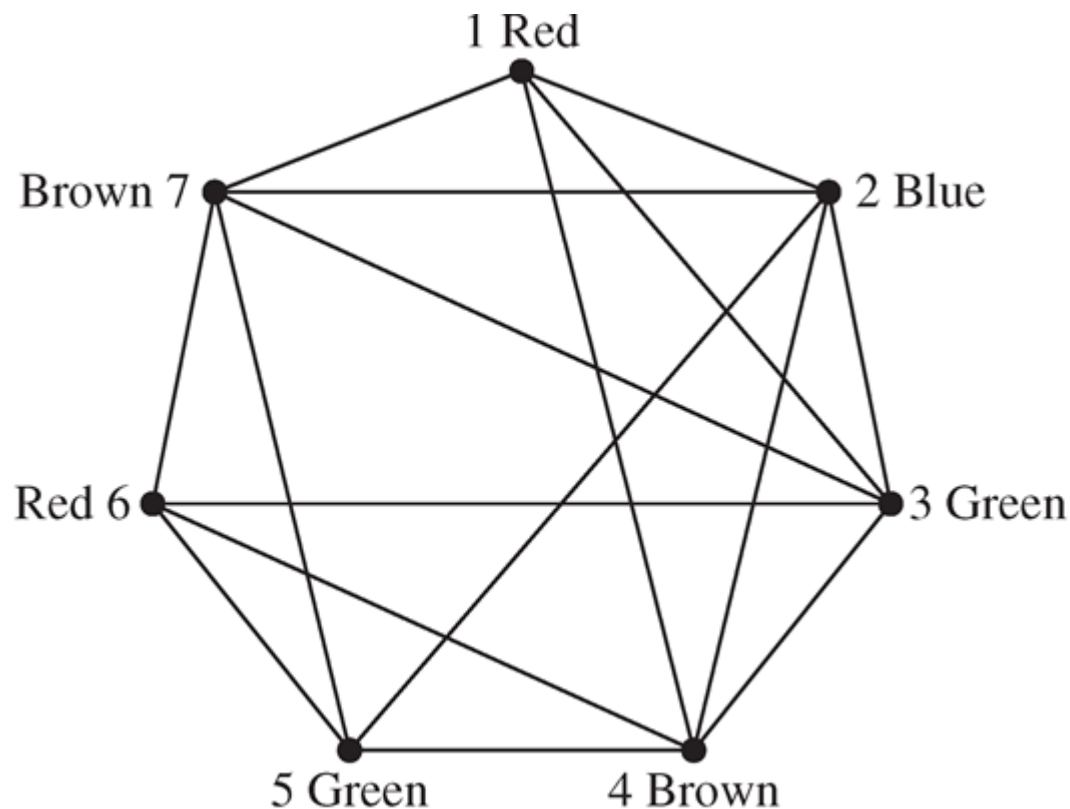
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Applications of Graph Coloring

■ 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

Courses

1, 6

II

2

III

3, 5

IV

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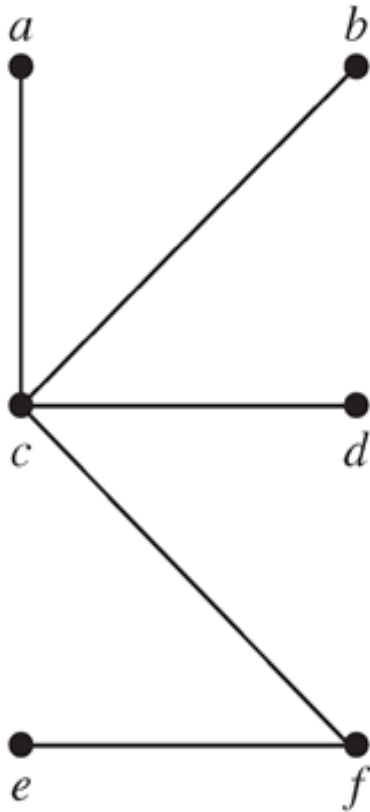
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- **Definition** A *tree* is a connected undirected graph with no simple circuits.



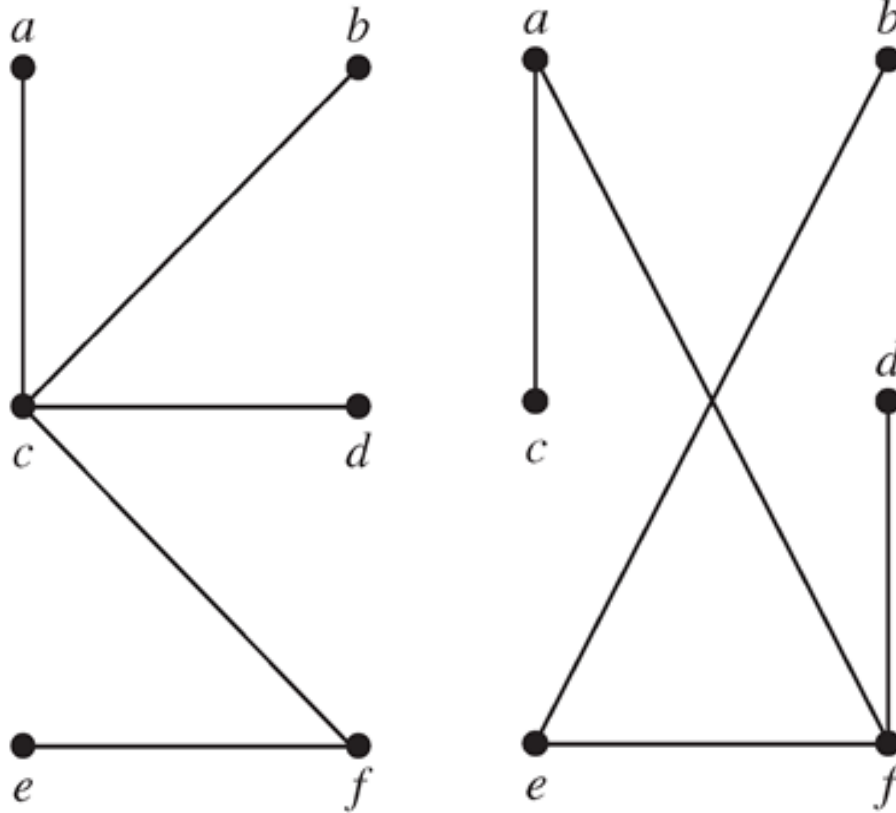
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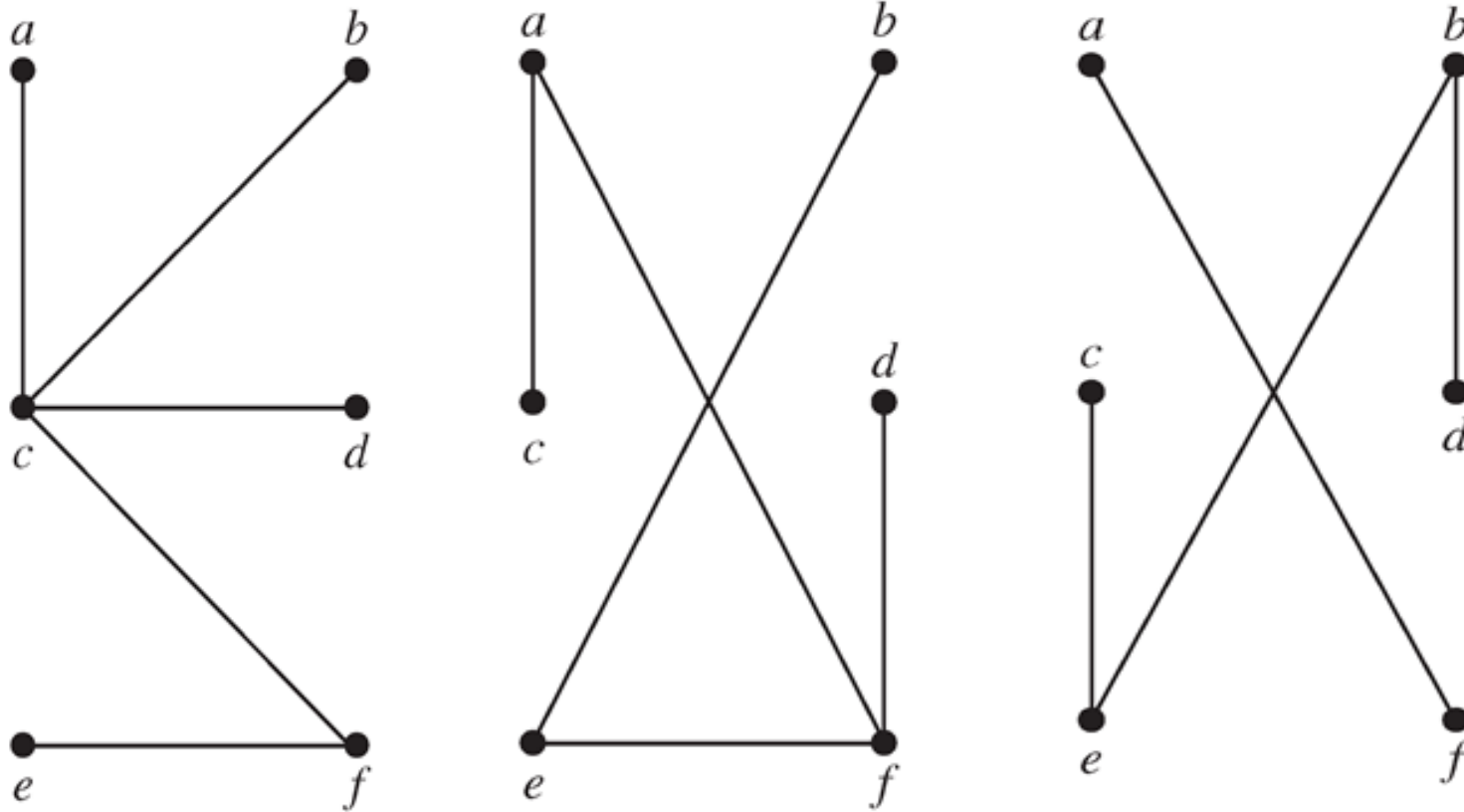
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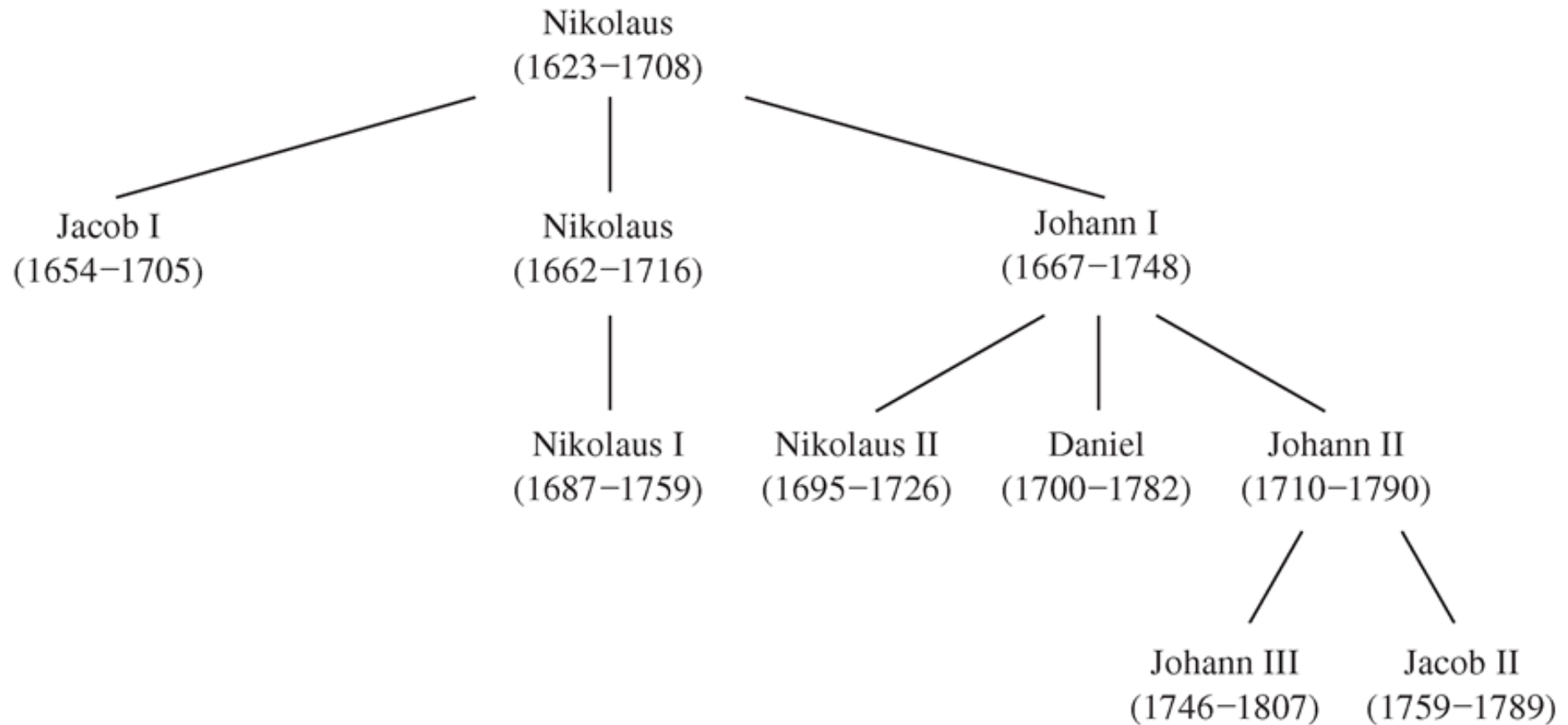
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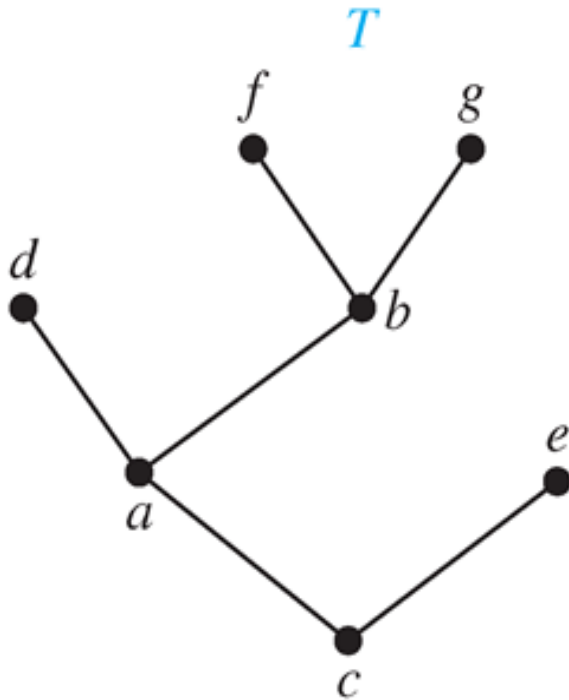
Two properties of tree: **connected**, **no circuit**

Rooted Trees

- **Definition** A *rooted tree* is a tree in which one vertex has been designated as the **root** and every edge is directed away from the root.

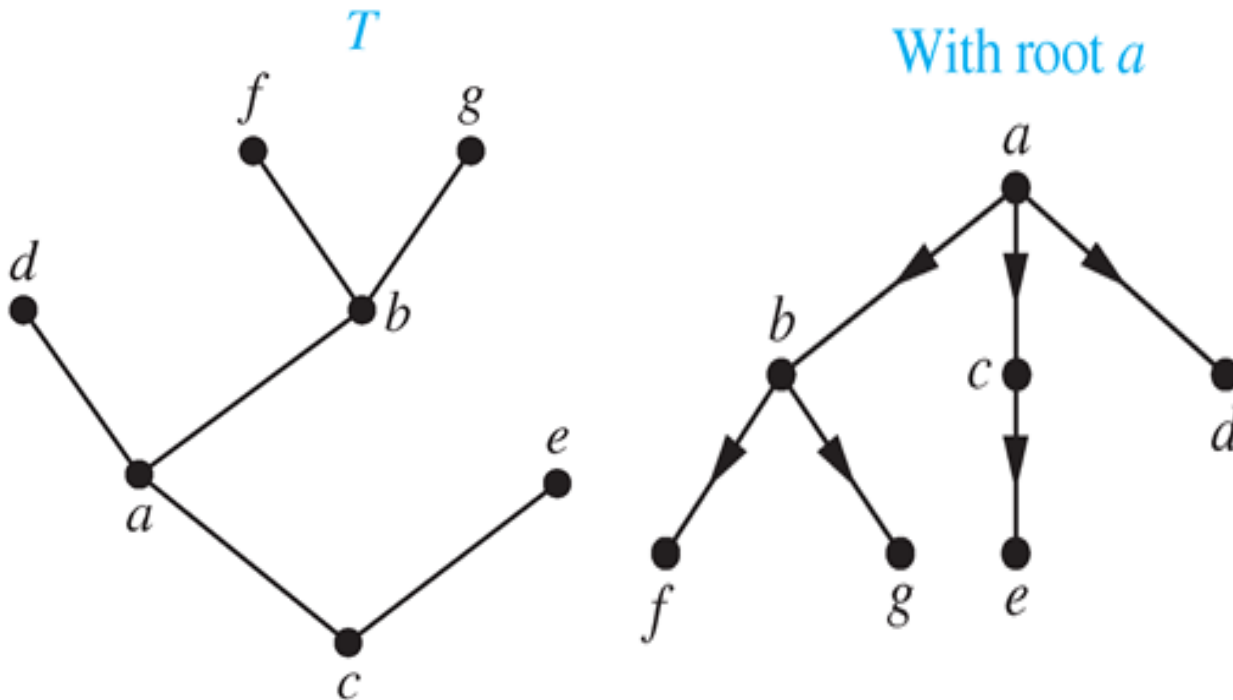
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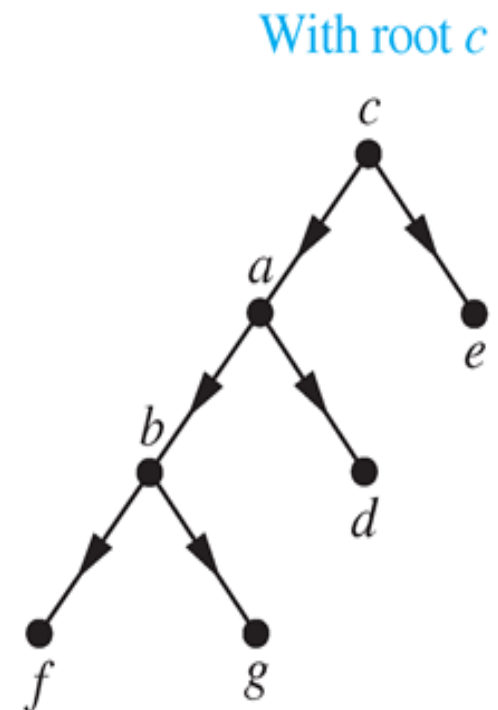
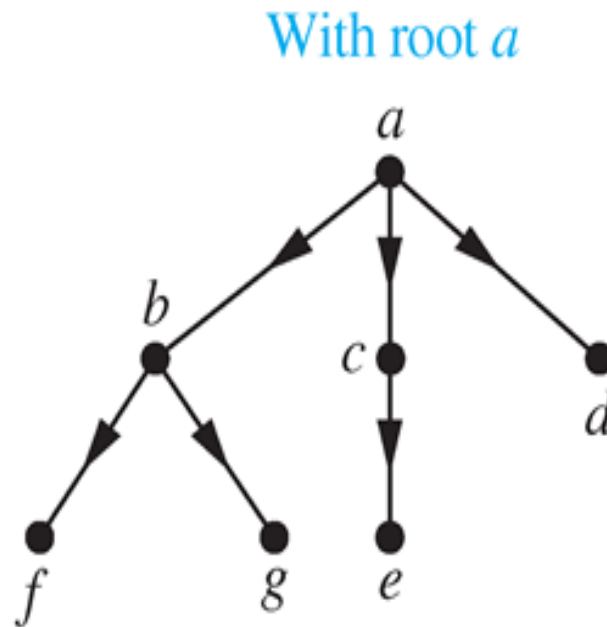
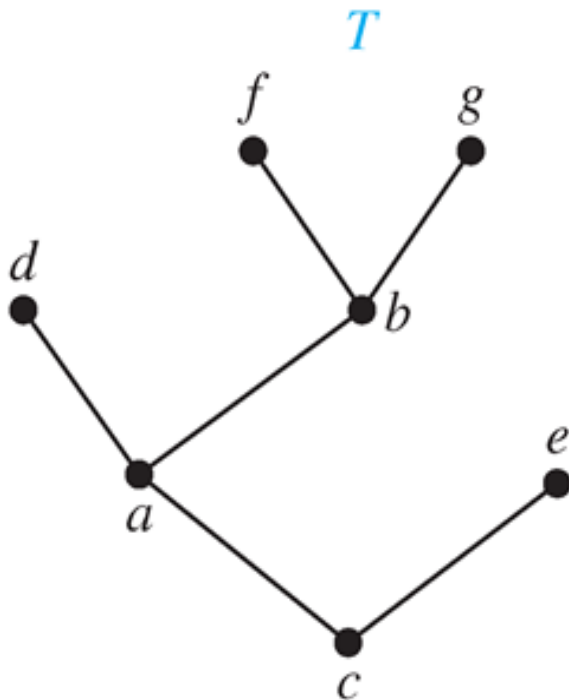
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- *parent, child, sibling*



Rooted Trees

- *parent, child, sibling*
ancestor, descendant



Rooted Trees

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



Rooted Trees

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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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Definition A binary tree is an *ordered rooted tree* where the children of each internal vertex are ordered. In a binary tree, the first child is called the *left child*, and the second child is called the *right child*.



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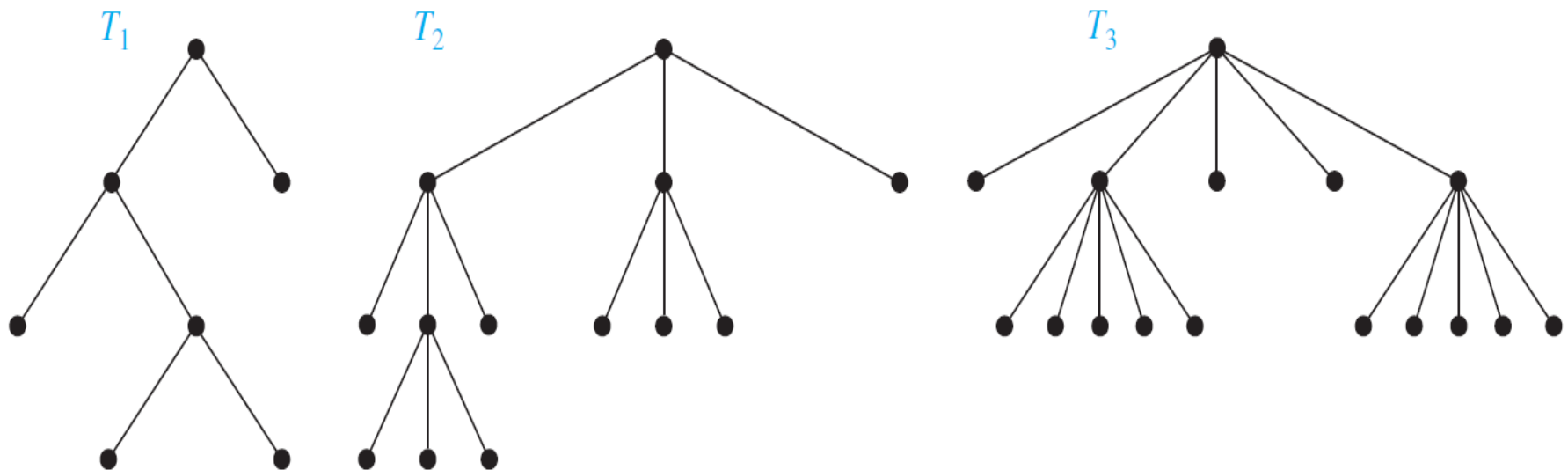
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left subtree, right subtree



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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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- (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, $n = (m\ell - 1)/(m - 1)$, $i = (\ell - 1)/(m - 1)$

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)



The Number of Leaves

- **Theorem** There are **at most** m^h leaves in an m -ary tree of height h .



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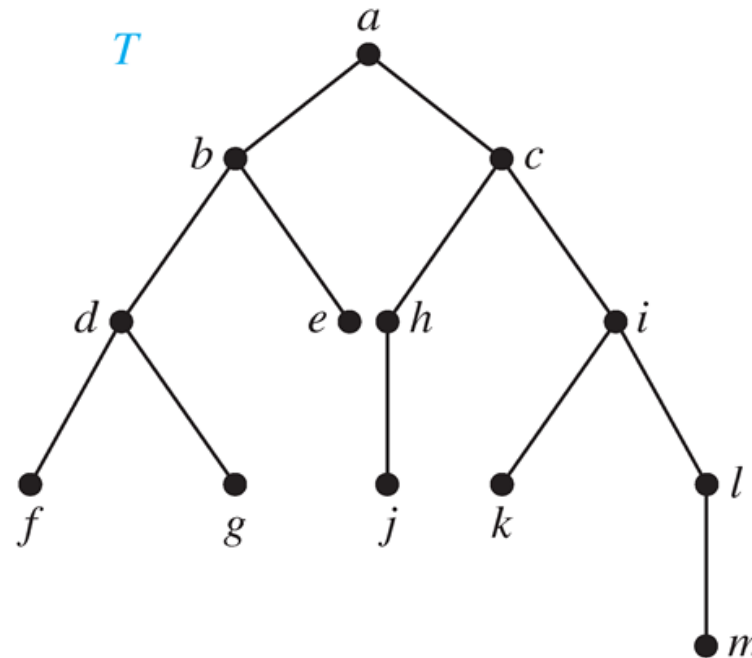
Binary Trees

- **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 procedures for *systematically* visiting every vertex of an ordered tree are called *traversals*.



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



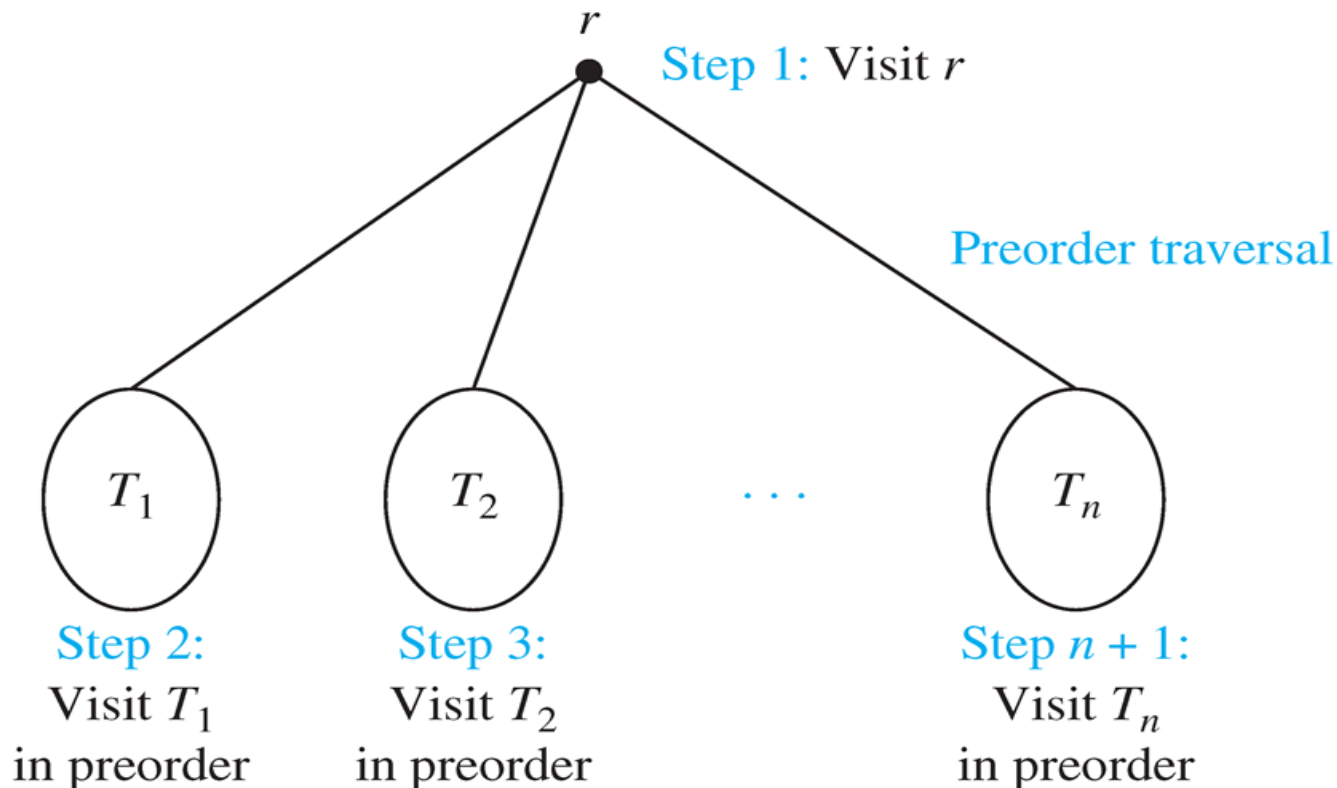
Preorder Traversal

- **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, \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.



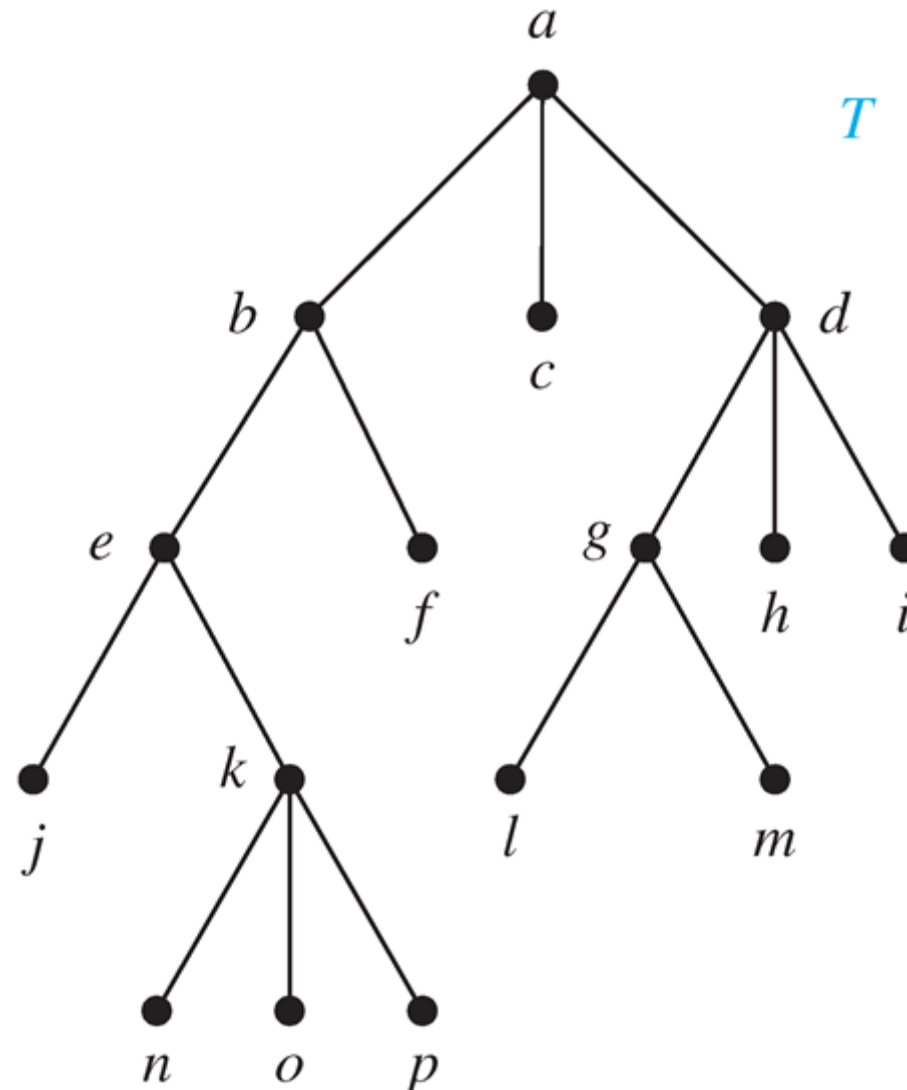
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Preorder Traversal

■ Example



Preorder Traversal

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

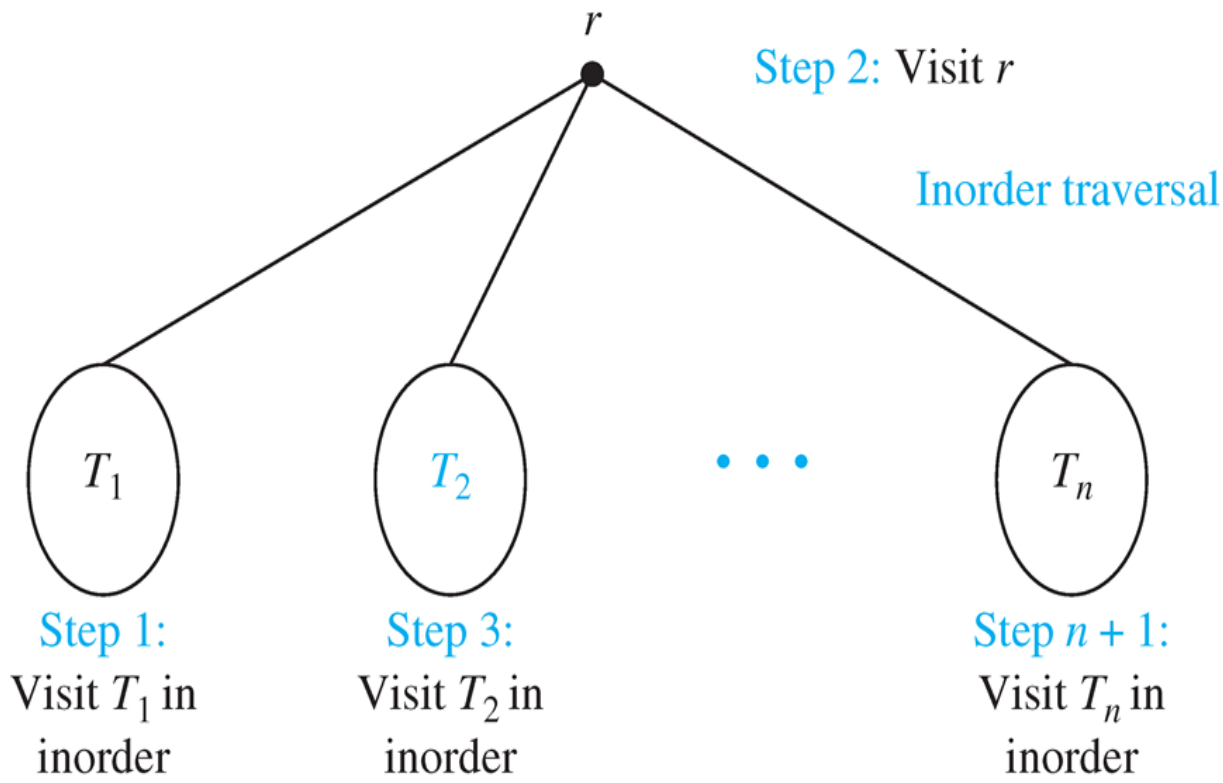
Inorder Traversal

- **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.



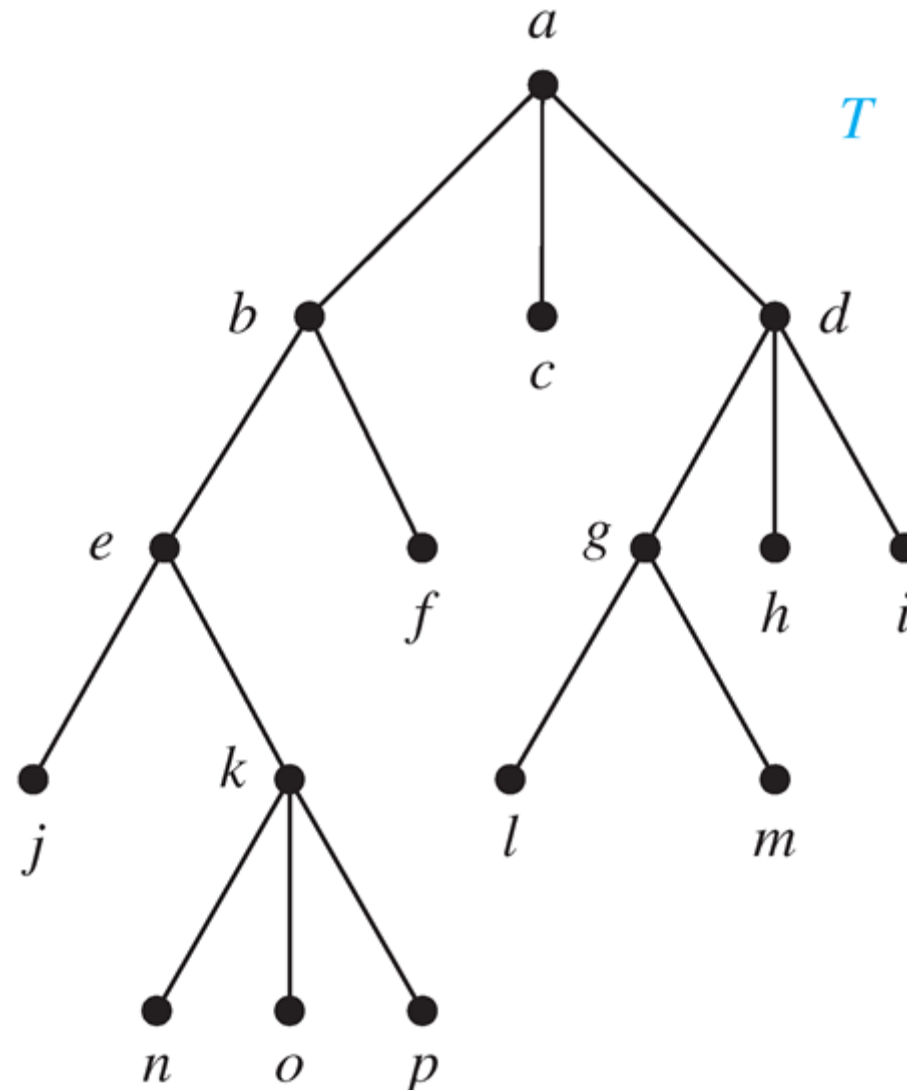
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Inorder Traversal

■ 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
      inorder(T(c))
```

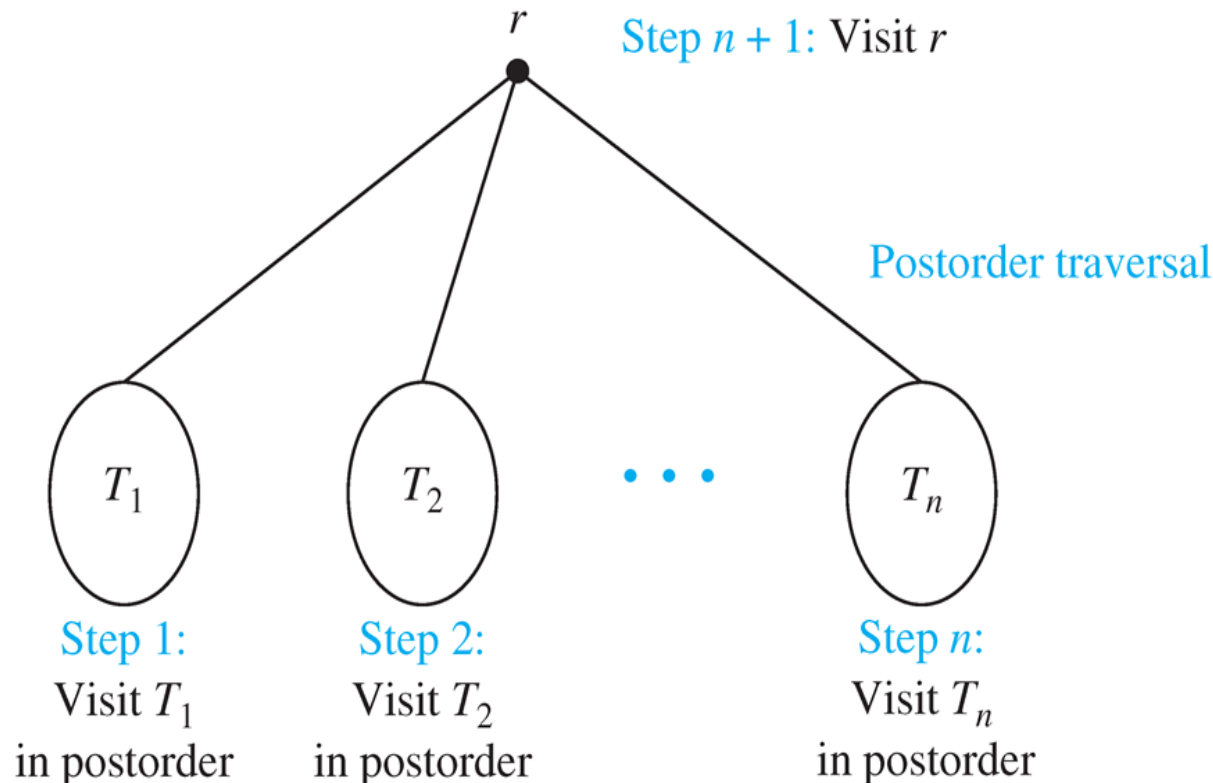
Postorder Traversal

- **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.



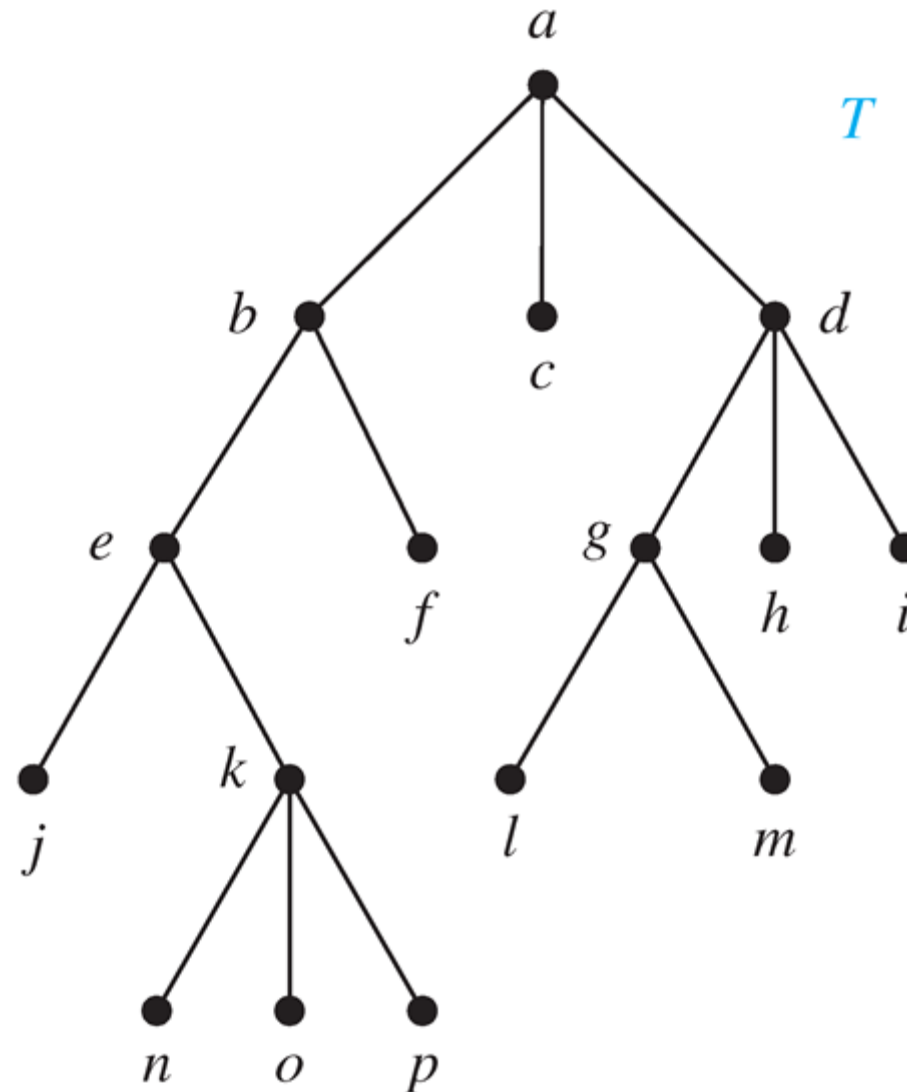
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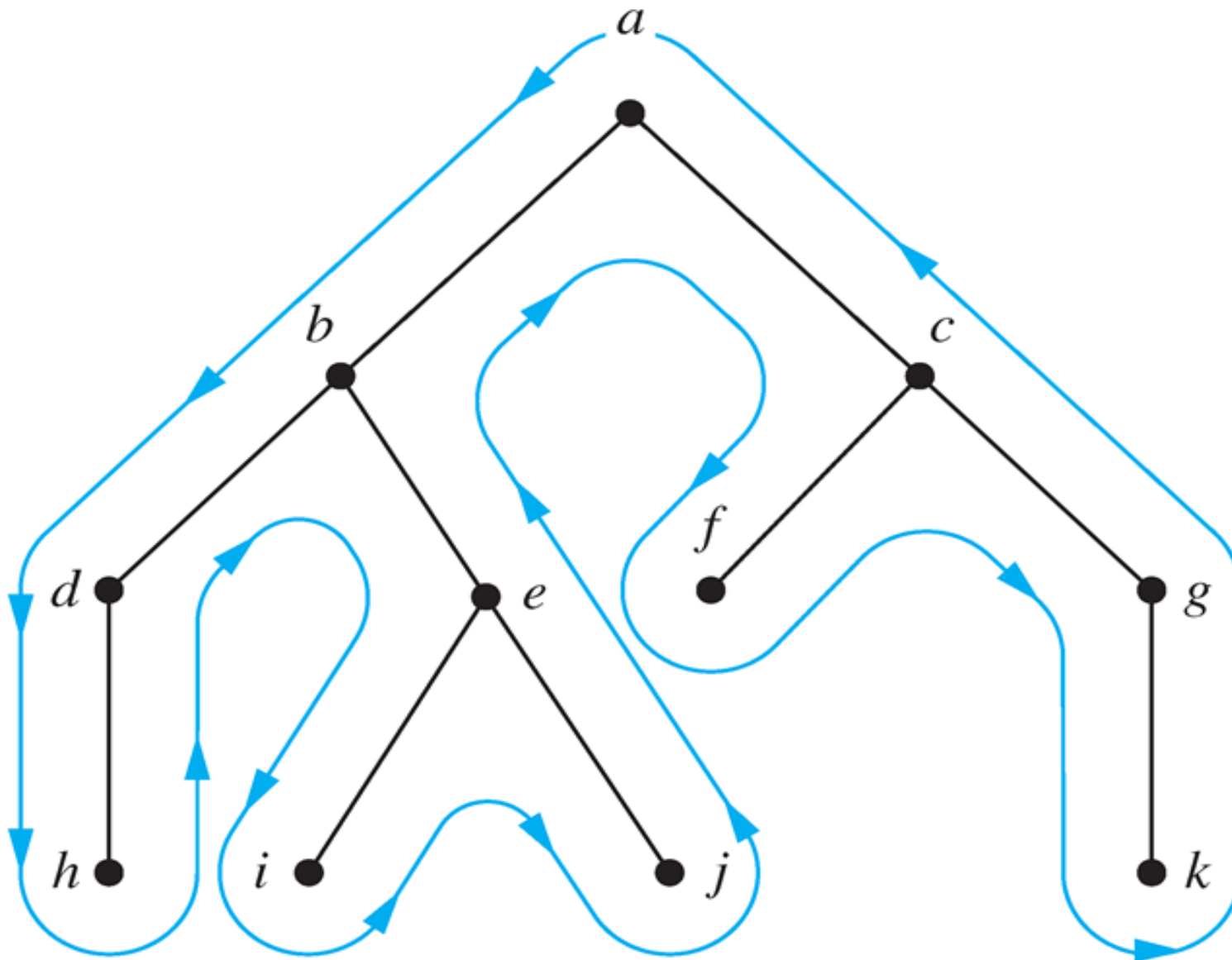
■ Example



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

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

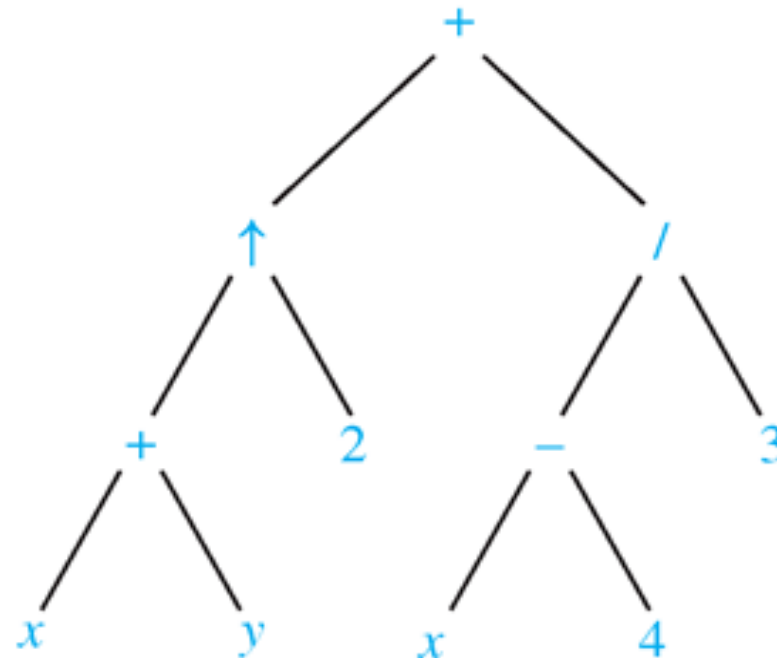


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Infix Notation

- An **inorder traversal** of the tree representing an expression produces the **original expression** when **parentheses are included** except for unary operation.



Infix Notation

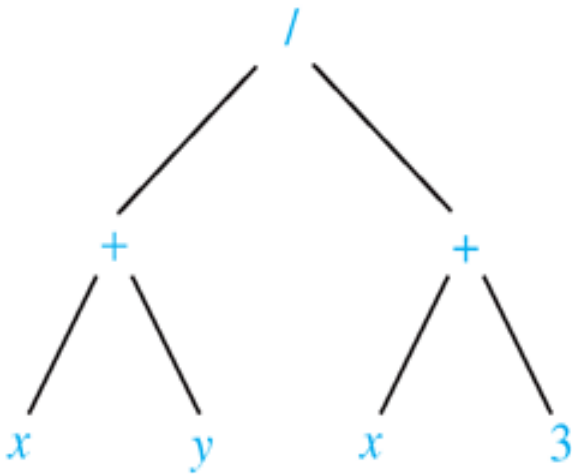
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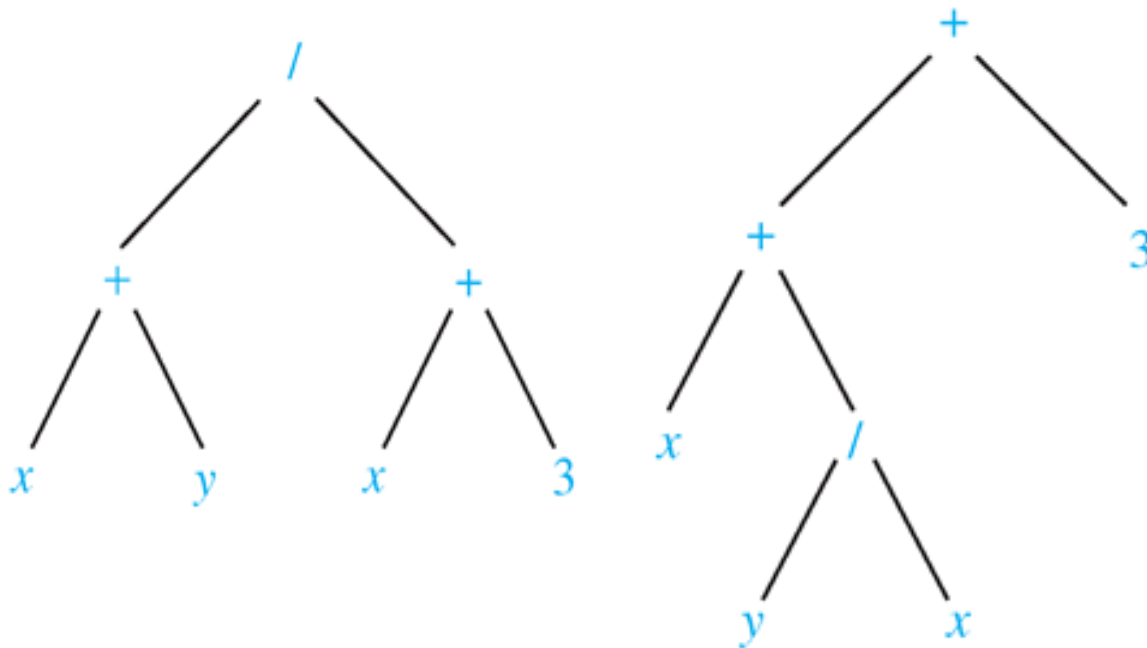
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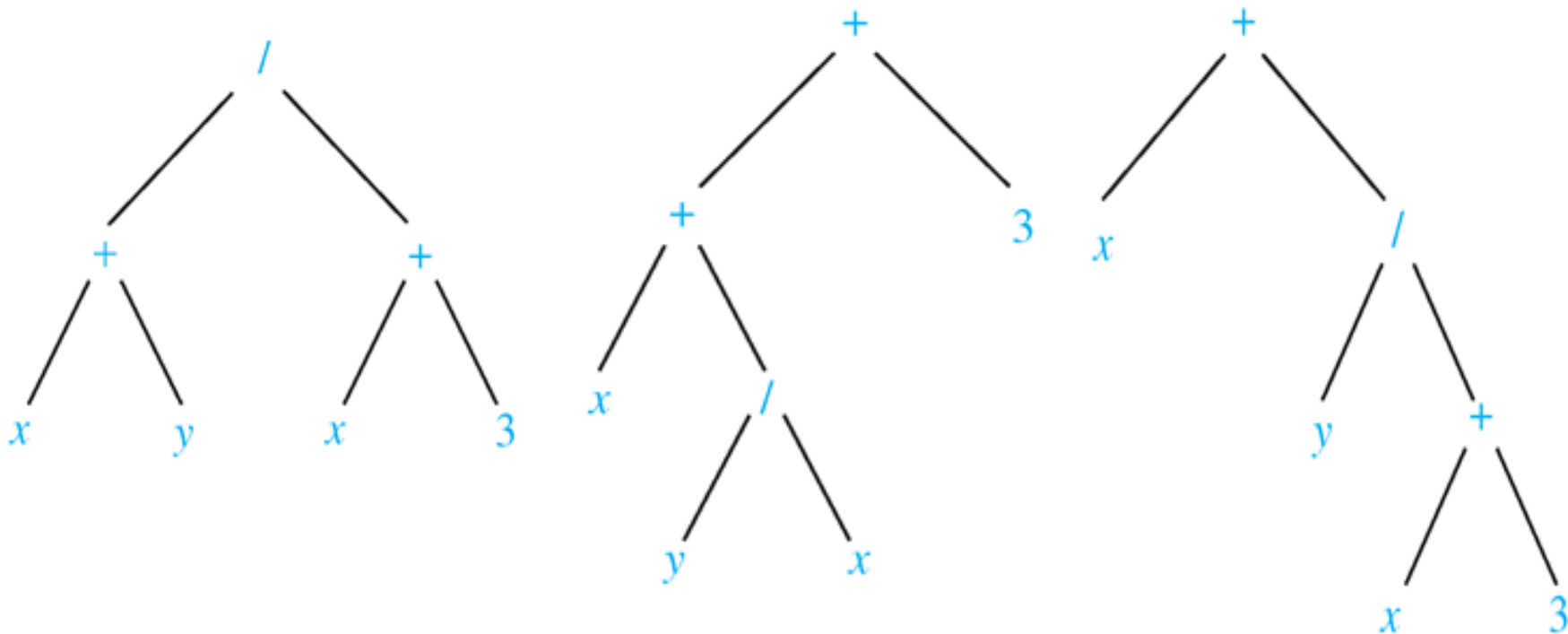
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Prefix expressions are evaluated by working *from right to left*. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with *the two operands to the right*.



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+ - * 2 3 5 / ↑ 2 3 4

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

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

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

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

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

37 - 2



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■ Example

7 2 3 * - 4 ↑ 9 3 / +

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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 +

$$1 + 3 = 4$$

39 - 2



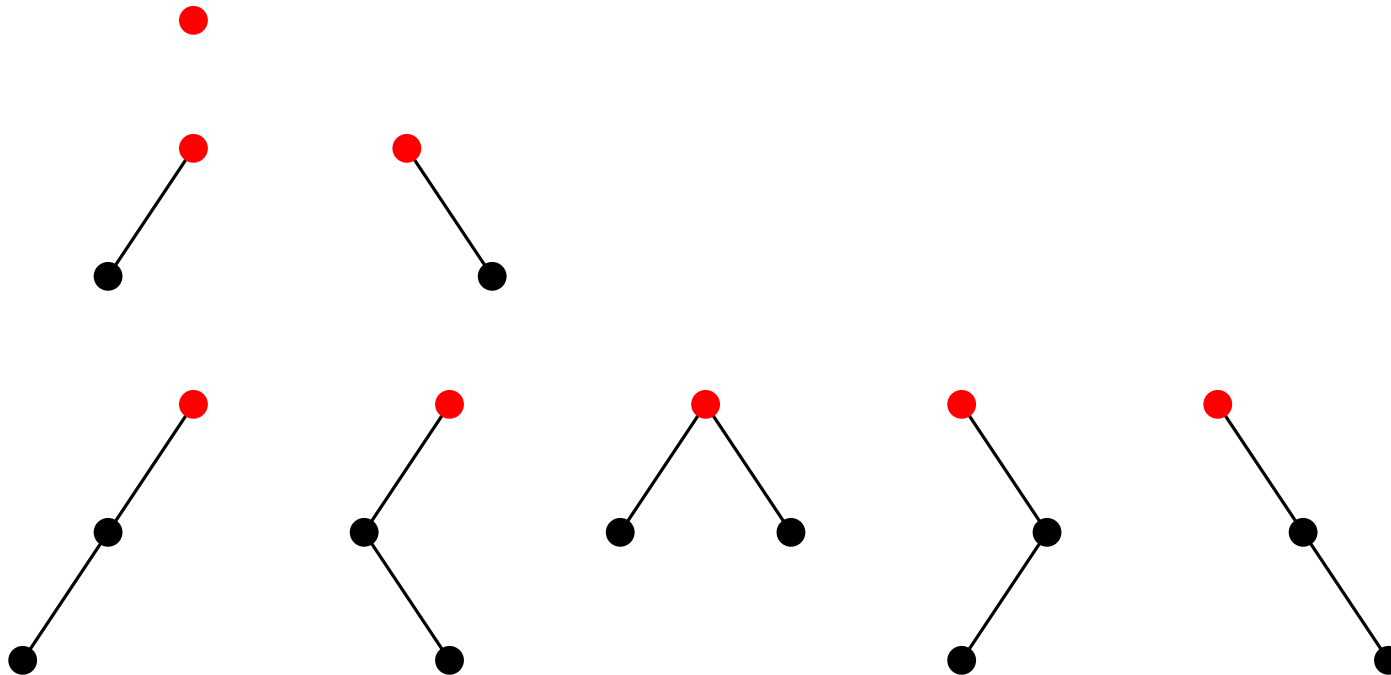
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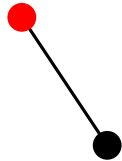
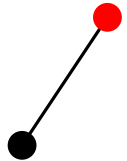
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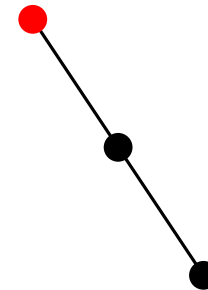
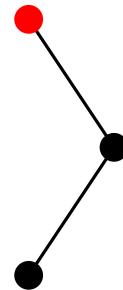
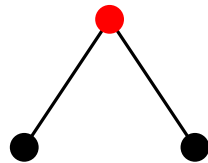
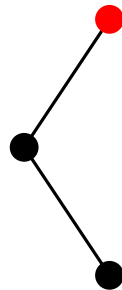
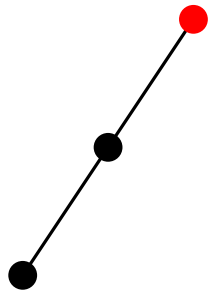
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$$C_0 = C_1 = 1$$



$$C_2 = 2$$

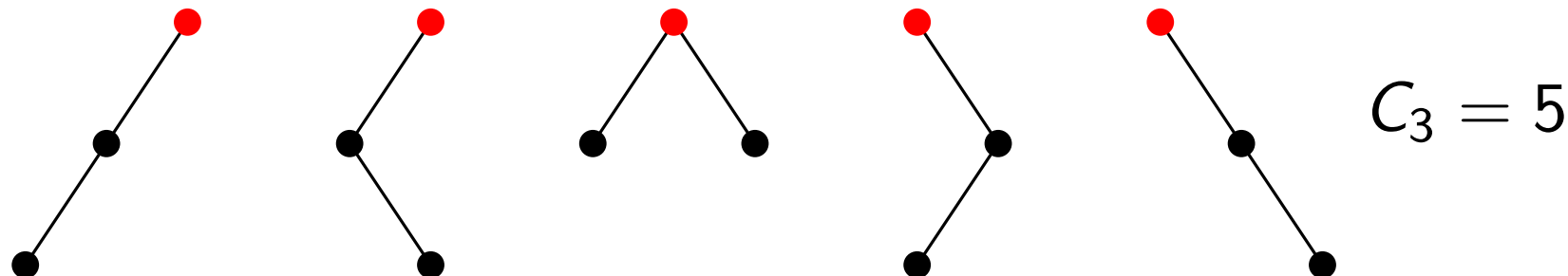
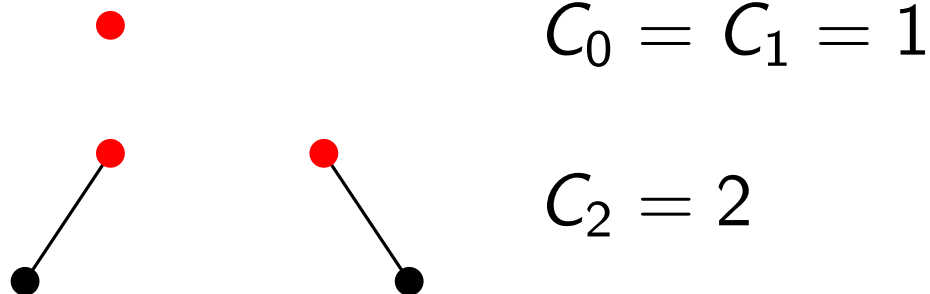


$$C_3 = 5$$

Catalan Numbers

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How to find a formula for C_n ?

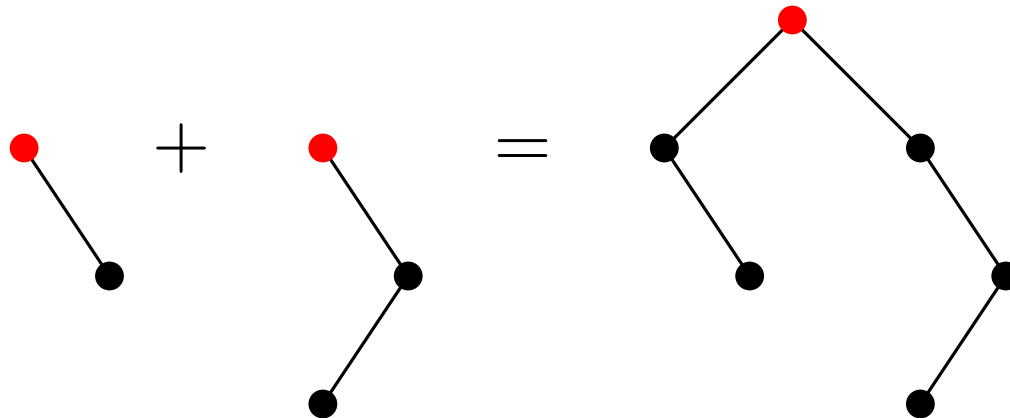
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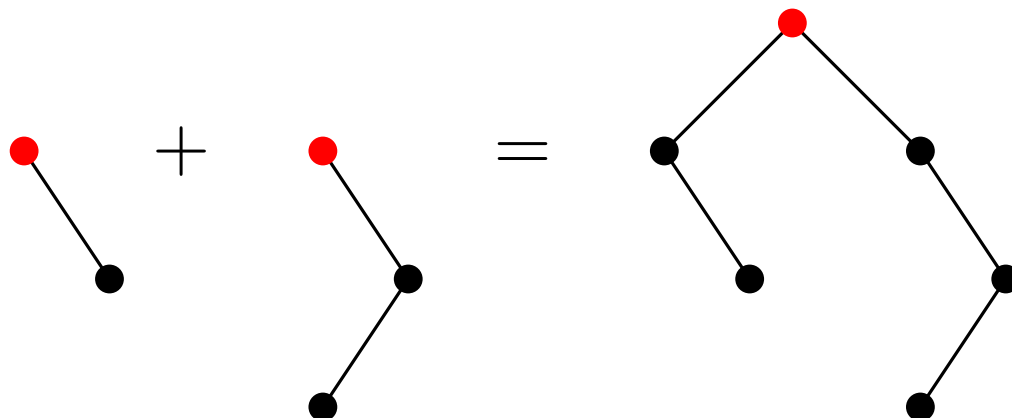
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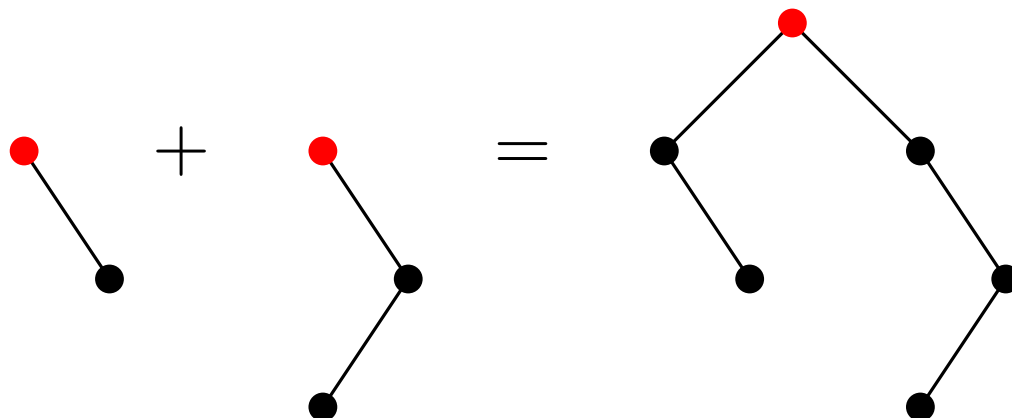
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For example, $C_3 = C_0 C_2 + C_1 C_1 + C_2 C_0 = 1 * 2 + 1 * 1 + 2 * 1 = 5$.

Catalan Numbers: Using Generating Functions

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C_n – the coefficient of x^n in the expansion of f .



Catalan Numbers

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

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

Catalan Numbers: Related Problems

- **Theorem** The number of sequences a_1, \dots, 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.,
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R. Stanley, *Catalan Numbers*, Cambridge University Press, 2015.
Includes 214 combinatorial interpretations of C_n , and 68 additional problems!



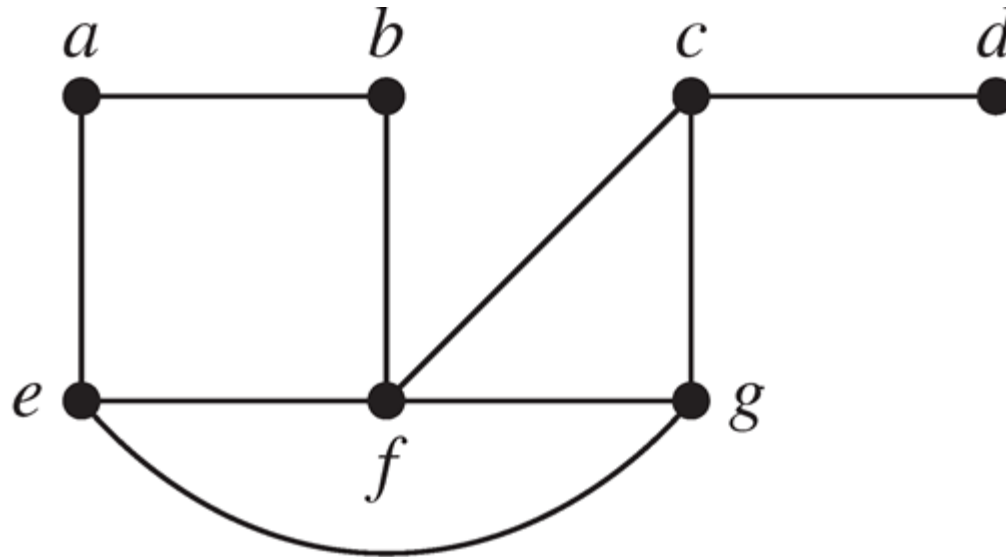
Spanning Trees

- **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 .



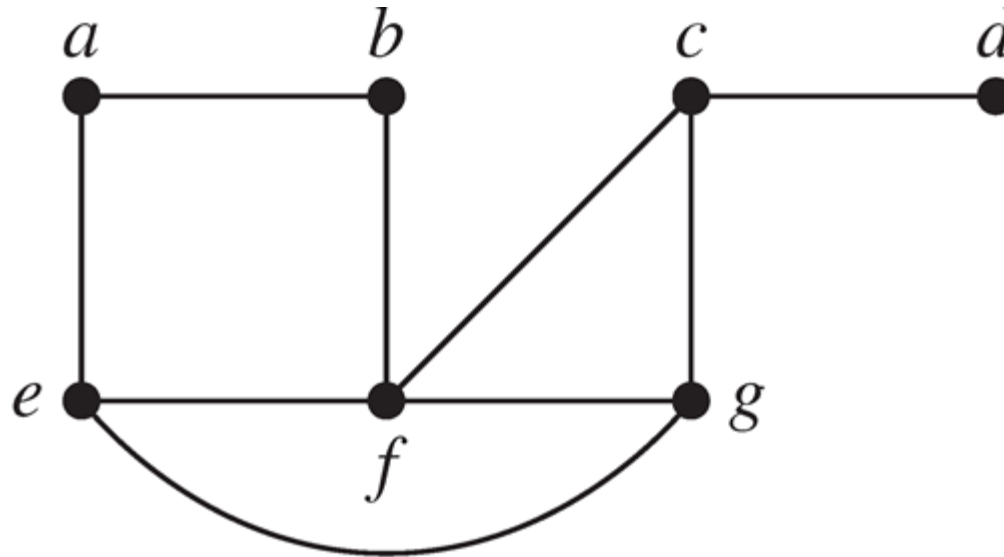
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remove edges to avoid circuits

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



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Depth-First Search

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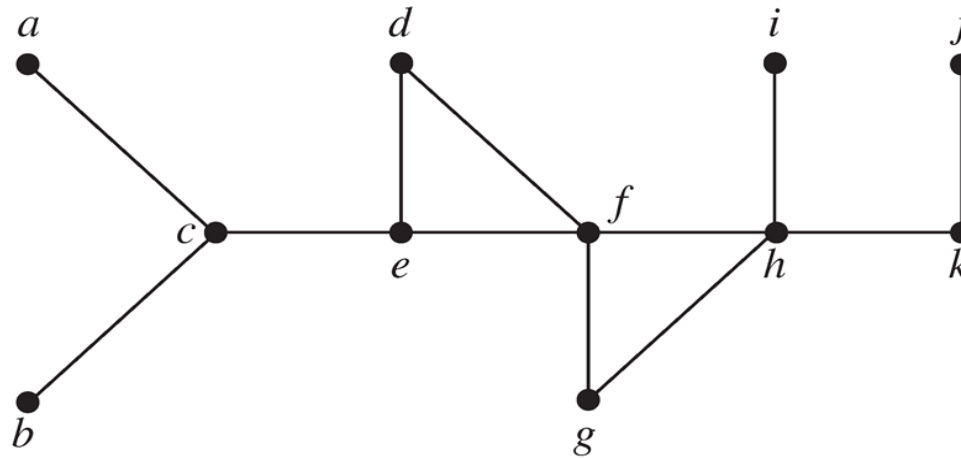
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- ◇ Form a path by **successively adding vertices and edges**. Continue adding to this path **as long as possible**.
- ◇ If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, **the tree is a spanning tree**.
- ◇ Otherwise, **move back to some vertex**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



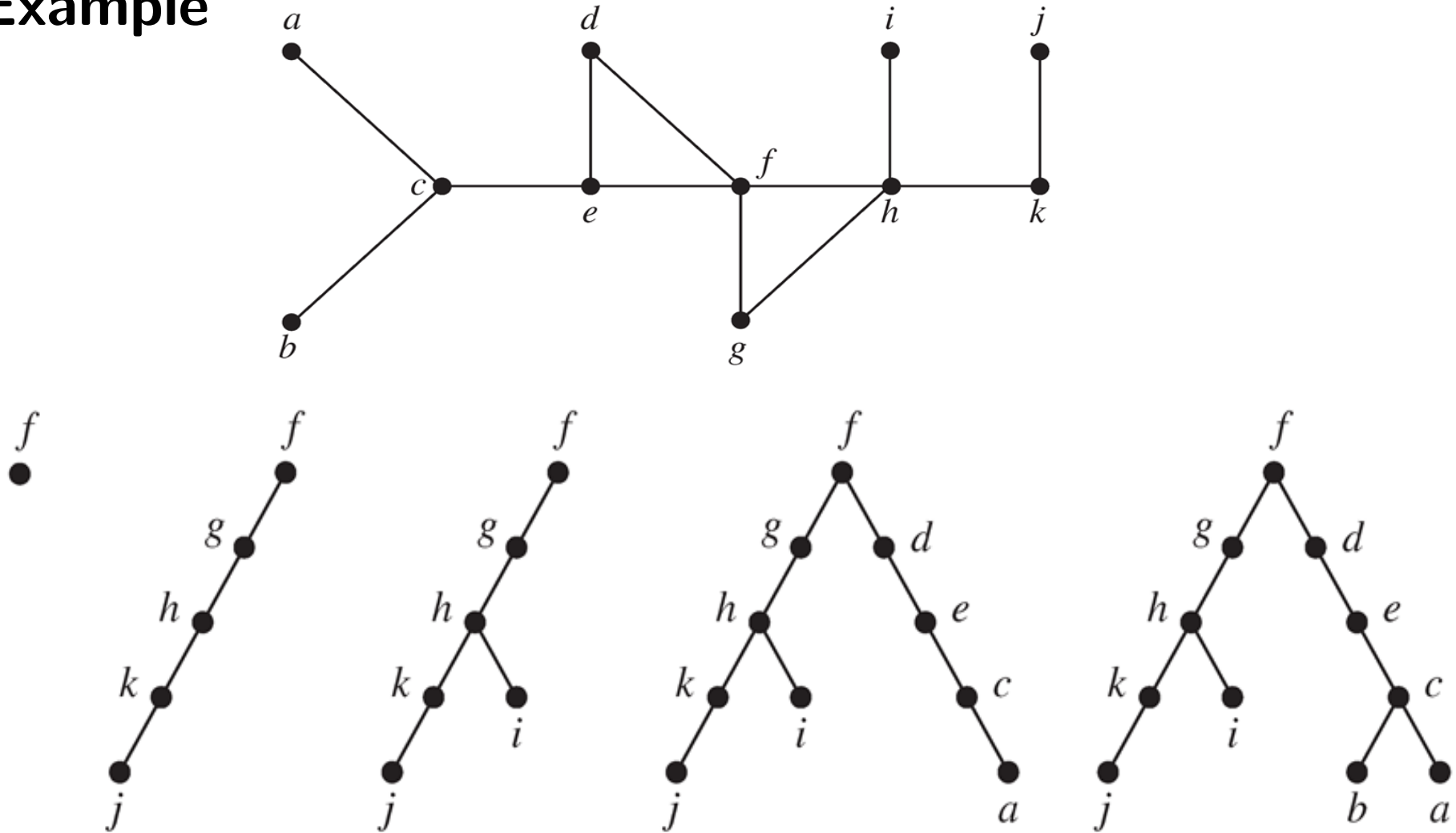
Depth-First Search

■ Example



Depth-First Search

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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( $v_1$ )
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procedure visit( $v$ : vertex of  $G$ )  
for each vertex  $w$  adjacent to  $v$  and not yet in  $T$   
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Breadth-First Search

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



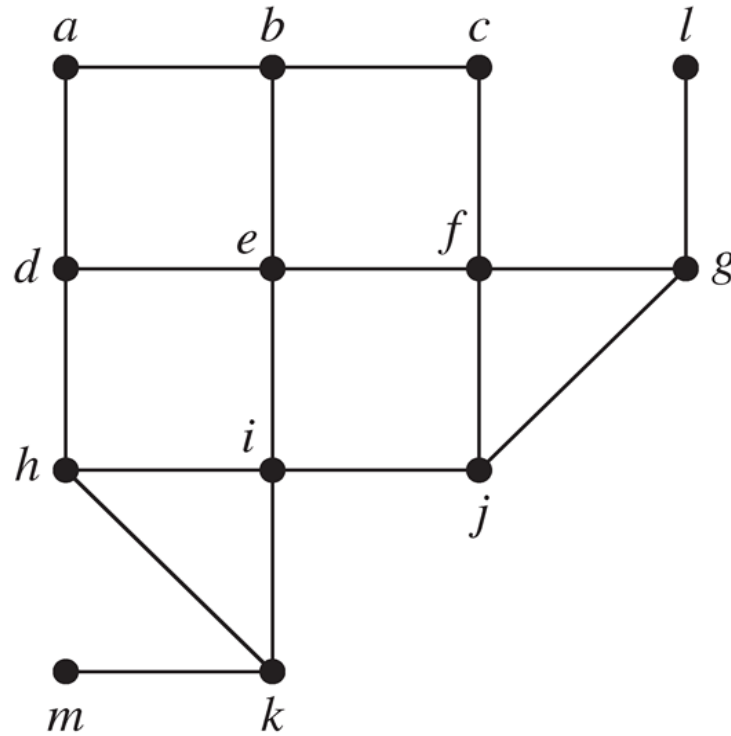
Breadth-First Search

- 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**.



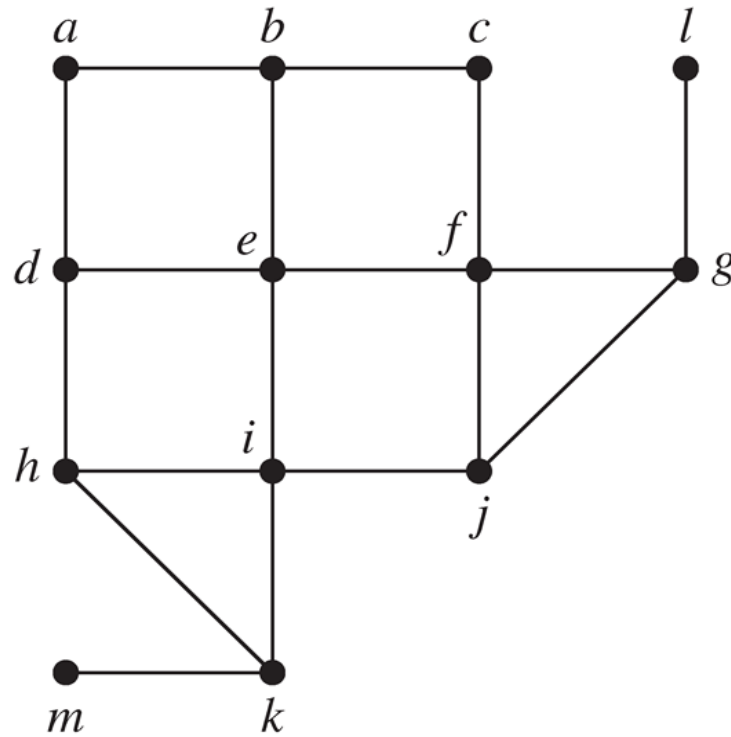
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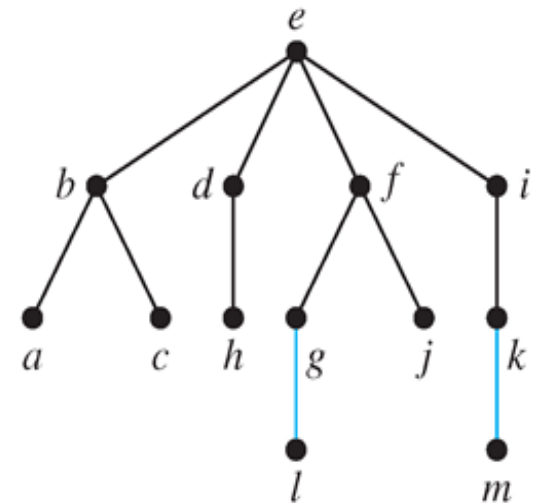
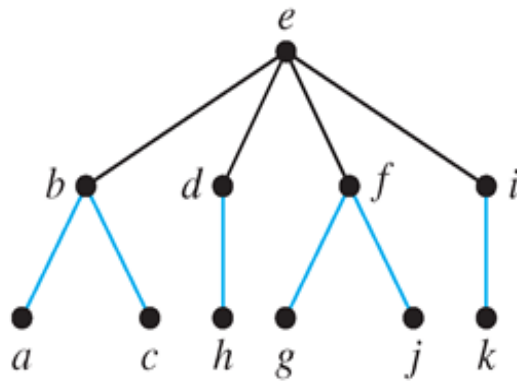
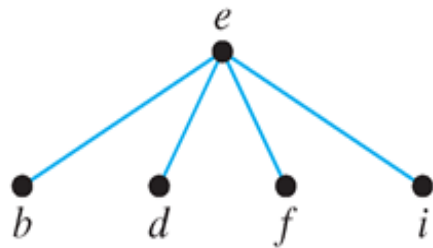


Breadth-First Search

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e



Breadth-First Search

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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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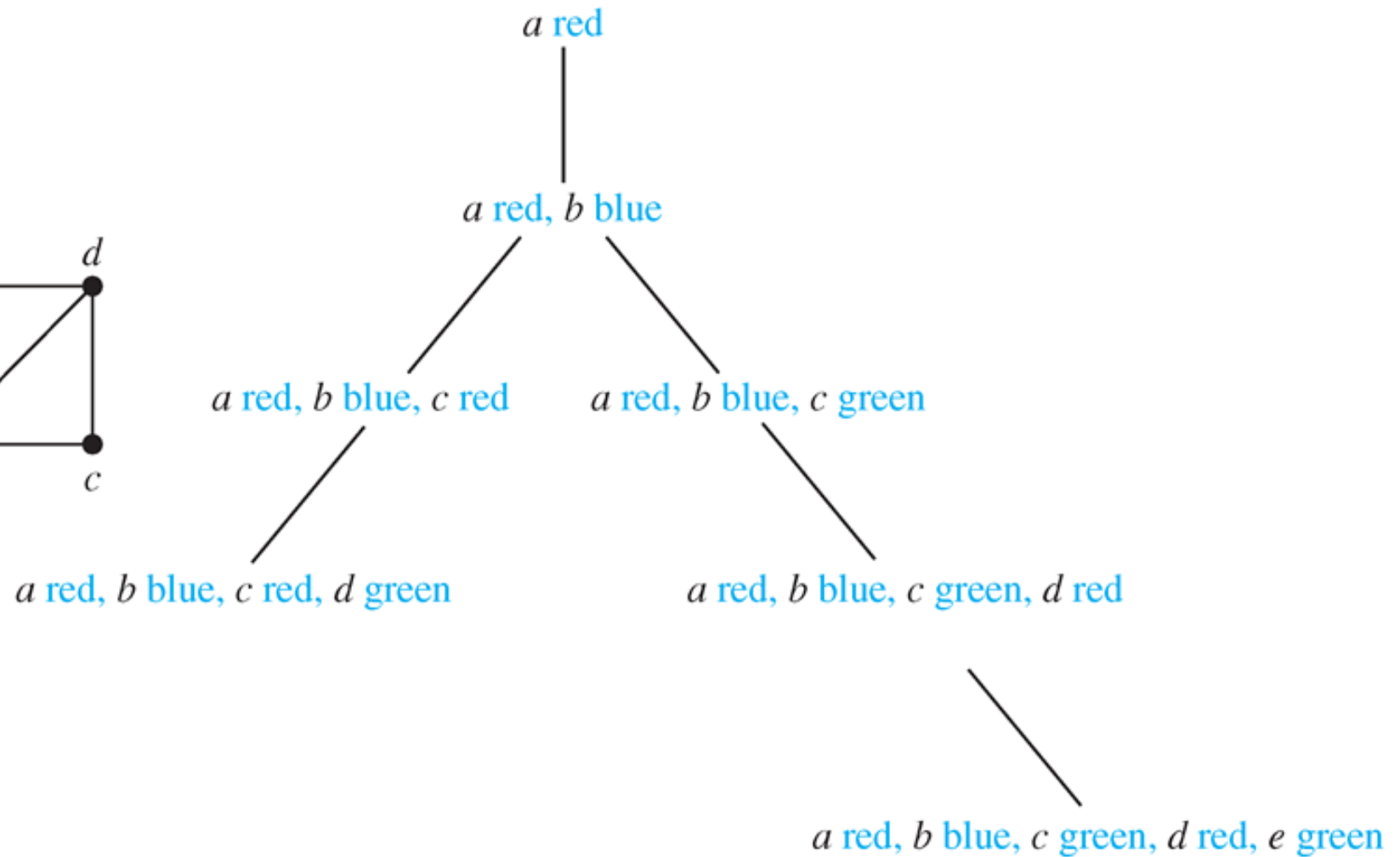
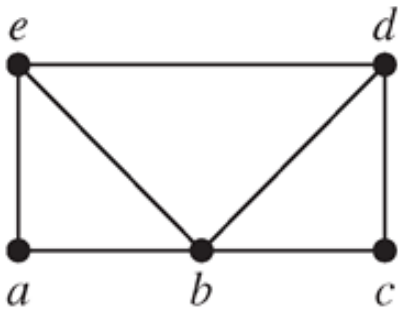


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- graph coloring, sums of subsets, ...



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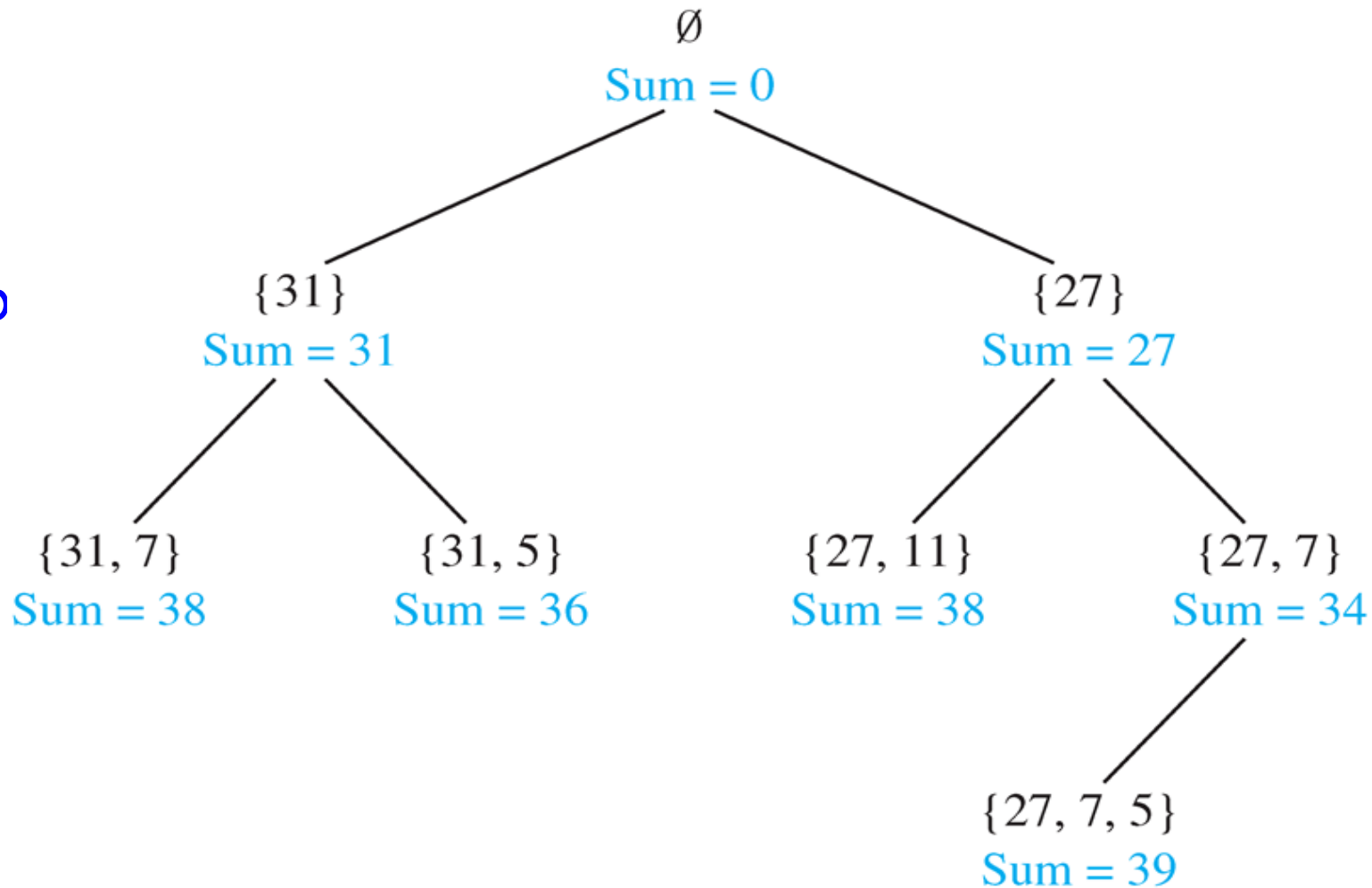


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find

graph



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

Minimum Spanning Trees

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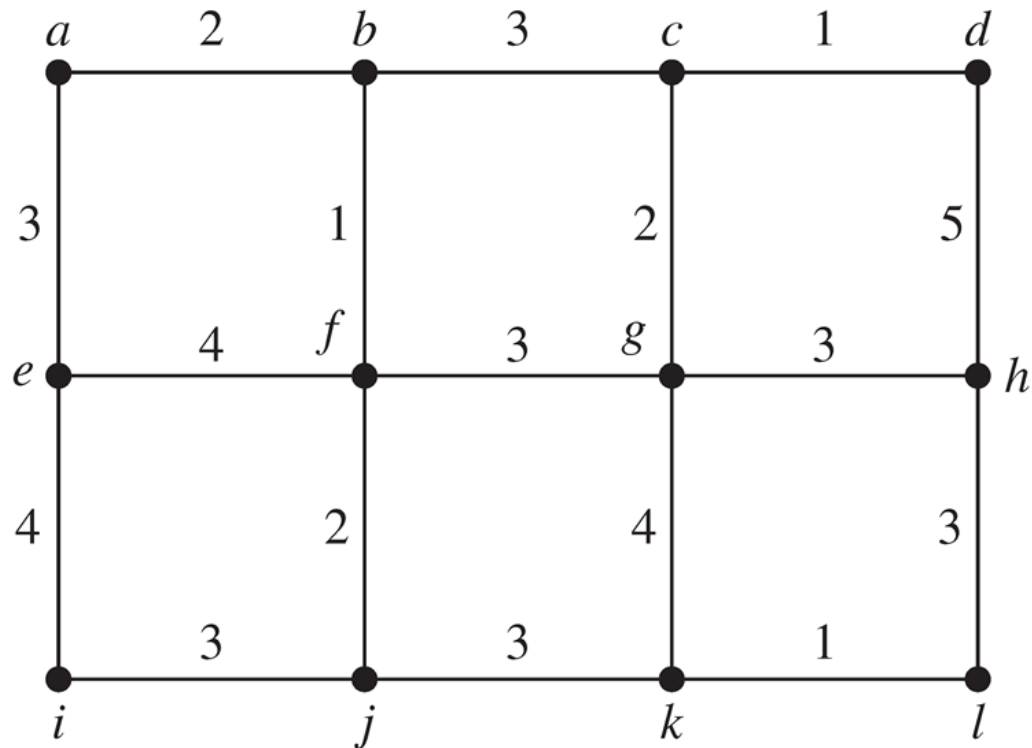
We can maintain a *heap* of all the edges with at least one endpoint in T , and in each iteration, we do *Extract-Mins* until we see an edge that has one endpoint in T and one endpoint not in T .

time complexity: $e \log v$



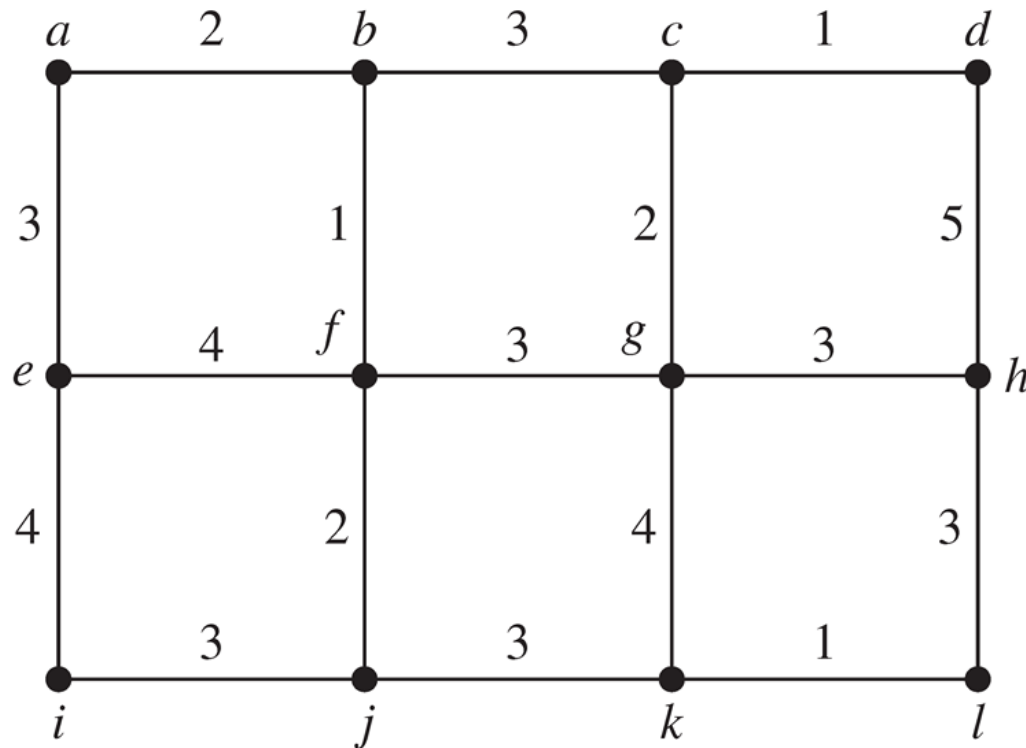
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Choice	Edge	Weight
1	{b, f}	1
2	{a, b}	2
3	{f, j}	2
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5	{i, j}	3
6	{f, g}	3
7	{c, g}	2
8	{c, d}	1
9	{g, h}	3
10	{h, l}	3
11	{k, l}	1
Total:		24

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- **Proof** by *induction*.



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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 $T \cup \{e\} \subset M'$.



Kruskal's Algorithm

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  $n - 1$ 
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Union-Find

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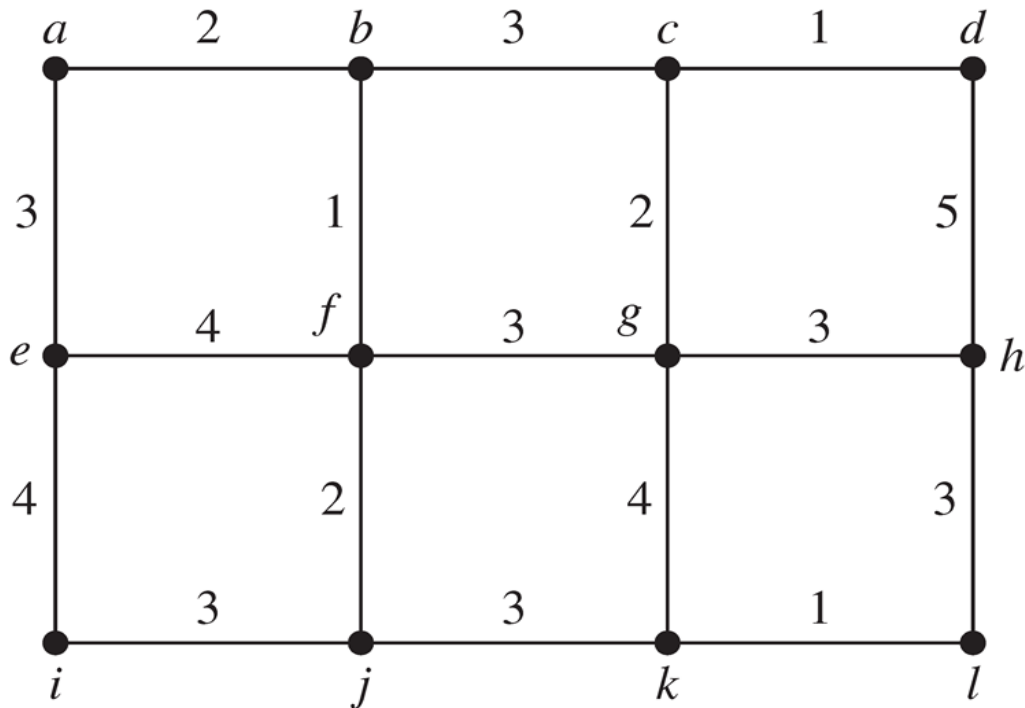
time complexity: $e \log e$ *Union-Find*

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



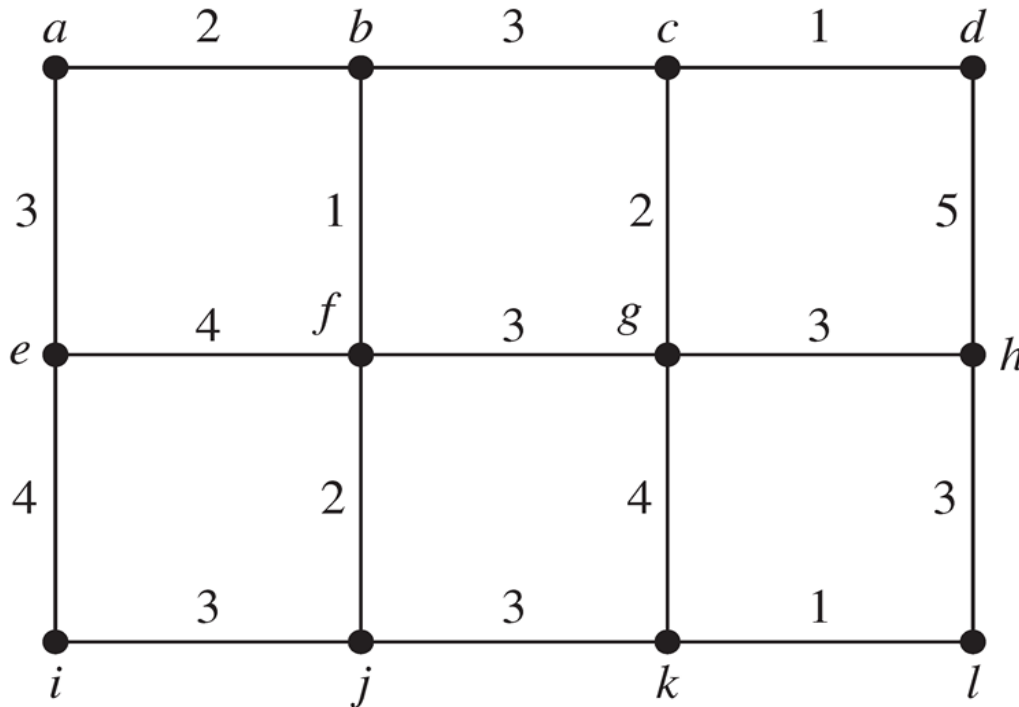
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Theorem Let (S, \bar{S}) be an **arbitrary cut**, and let e be an edge across the cut (one endpoint in S , the other in \bar{S}) that has the smallest weight of all edges cross the cut. Then there must be an MST T containing e .

Theorem Let (S, \bar{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 ...

