



CS215 DISCRETE MATH

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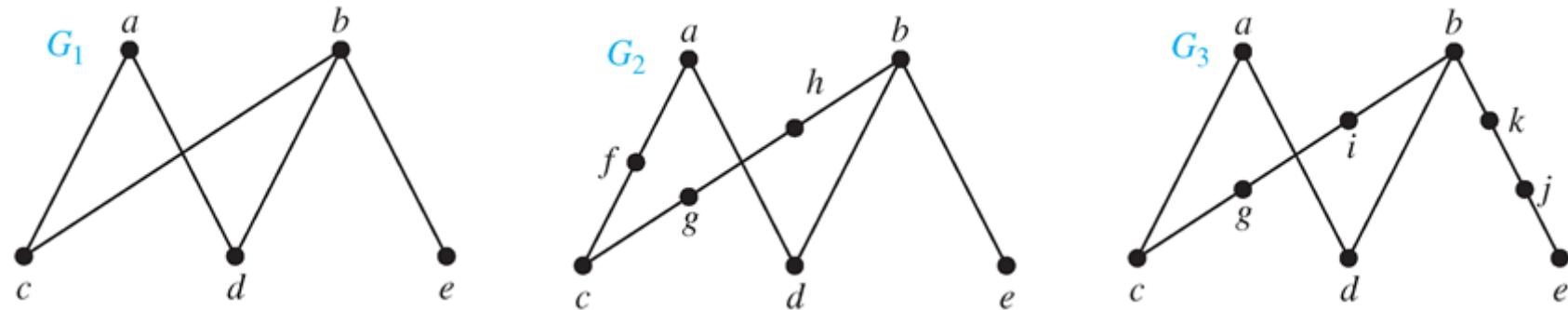
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Kuratowski's Theorem

- **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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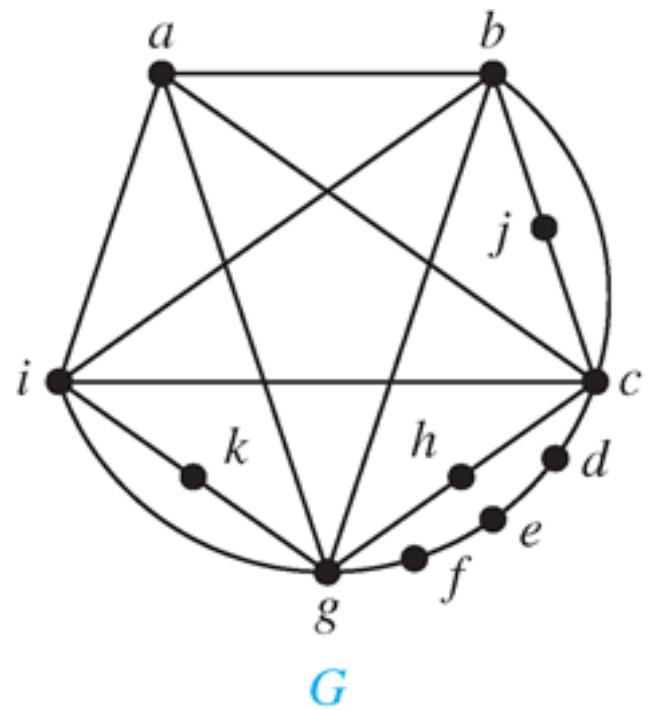


Kuratowski's Theorem

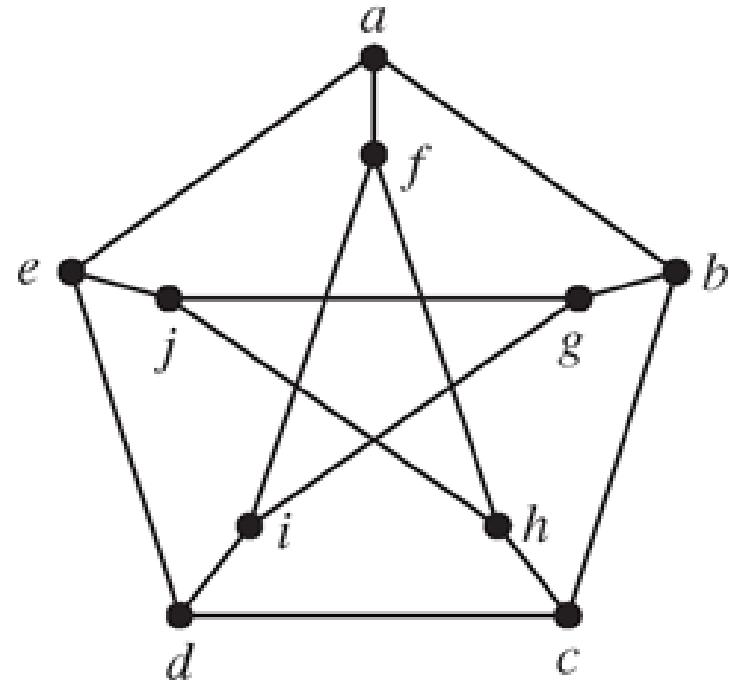
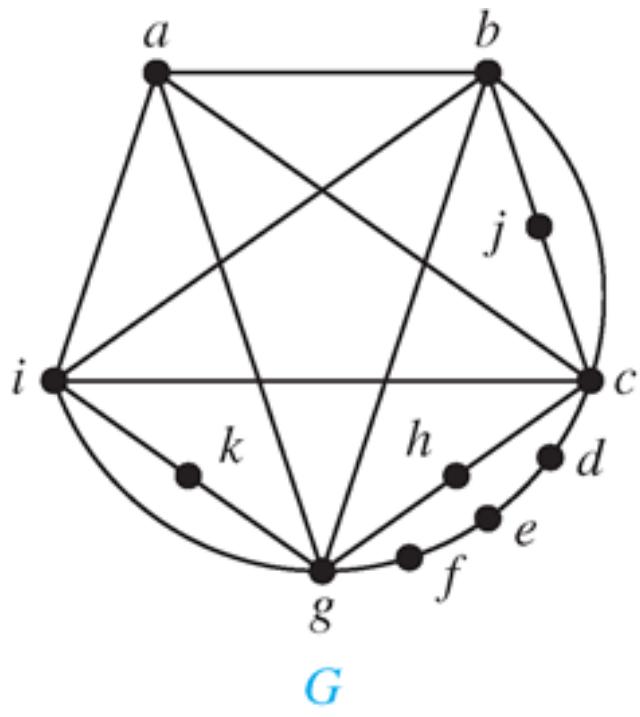
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Theorem A graph is **nonplanar** if and only if it contains a subgraph **homomorphic** to $K_{3,3}$ or K_5 .

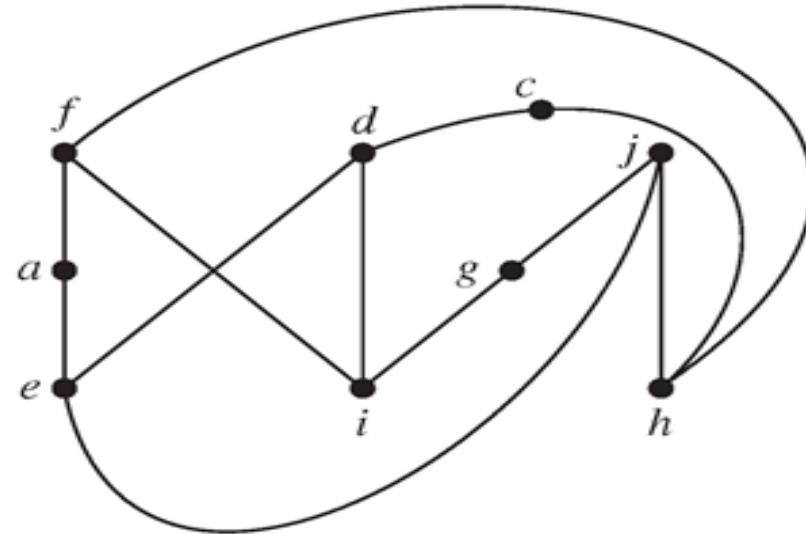
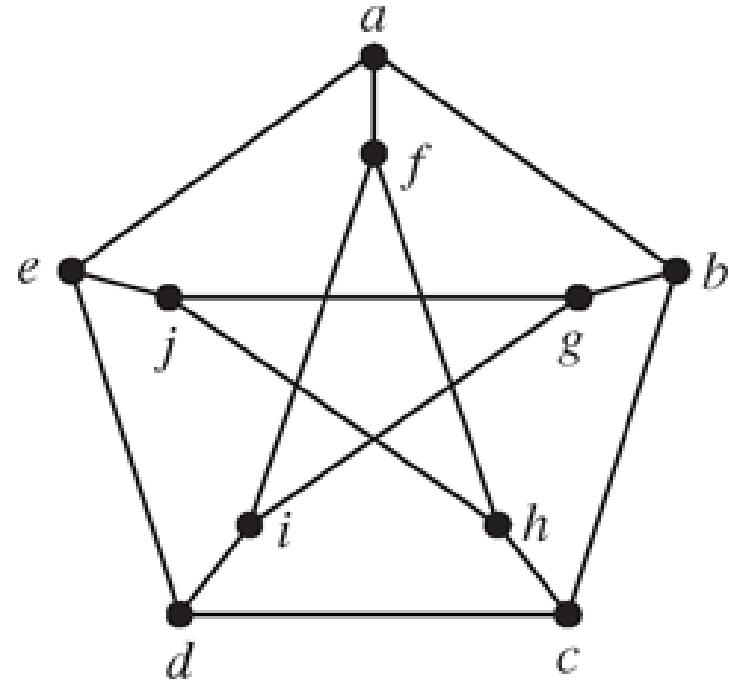
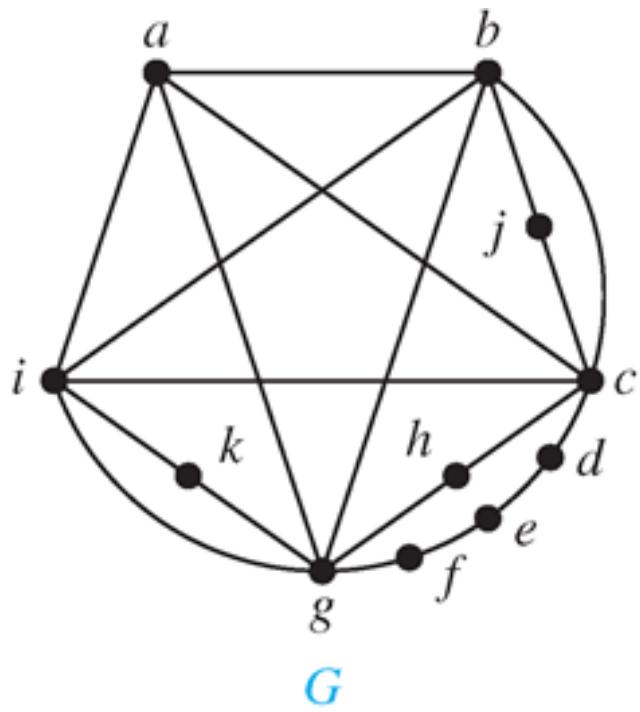
Examples



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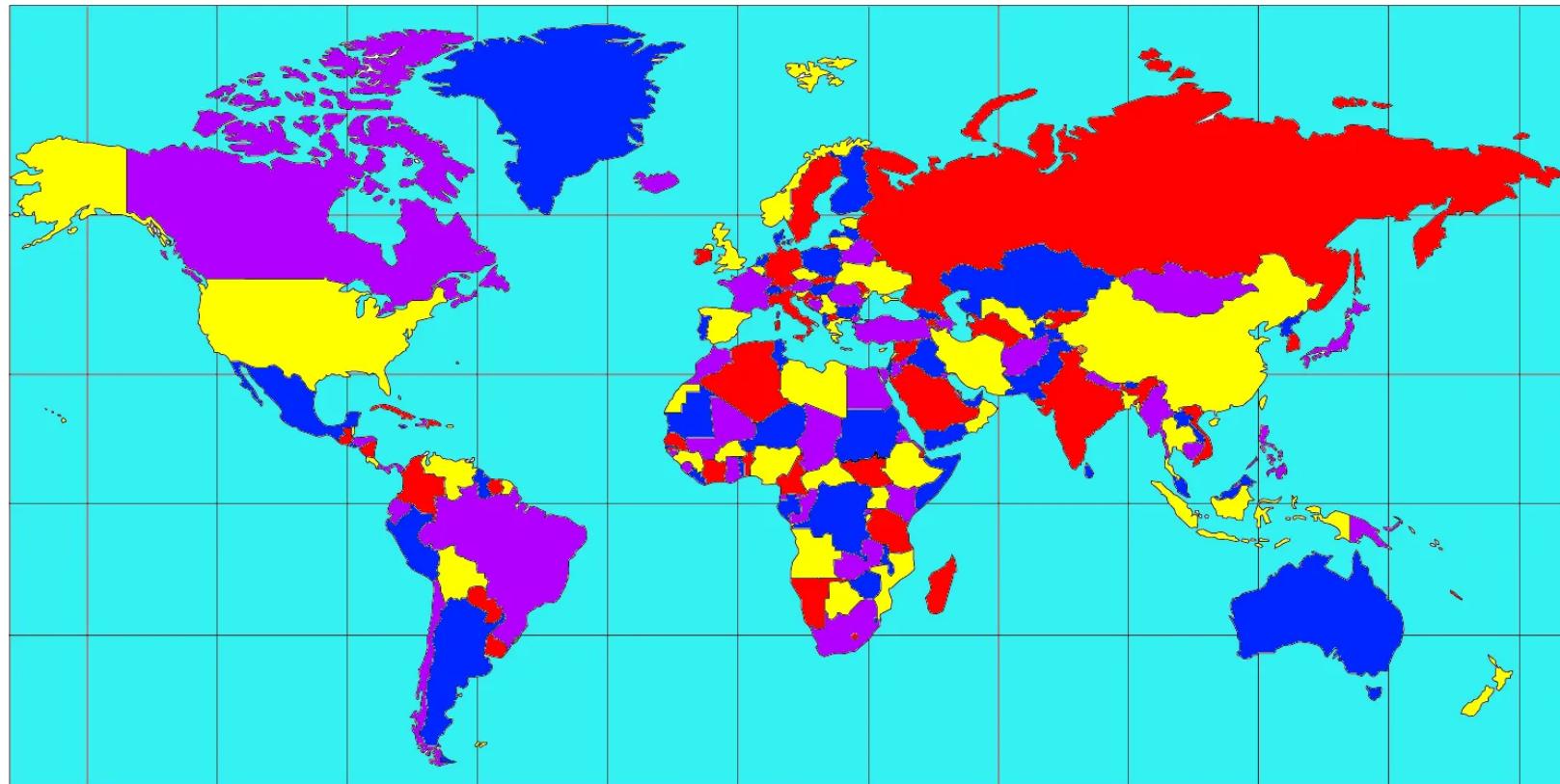


Examples



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.



Graph Coloring

■ 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

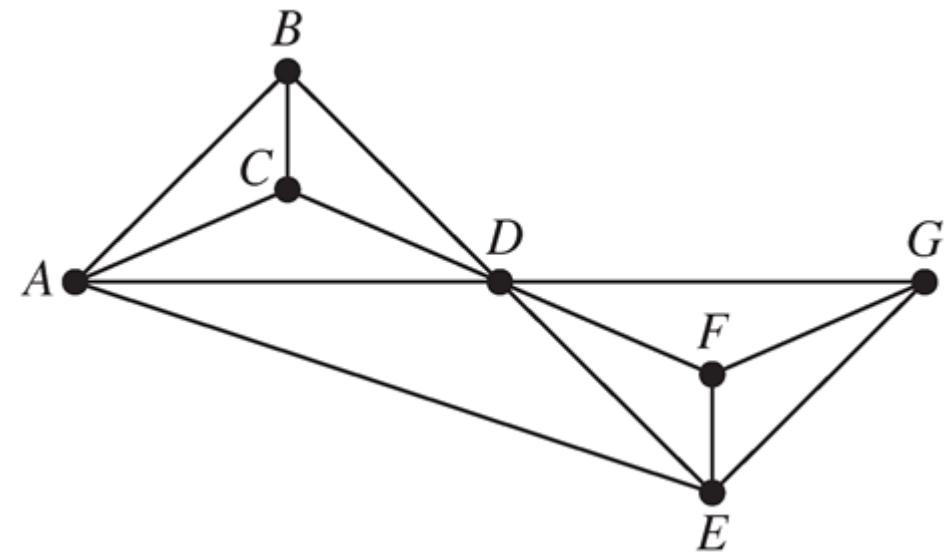
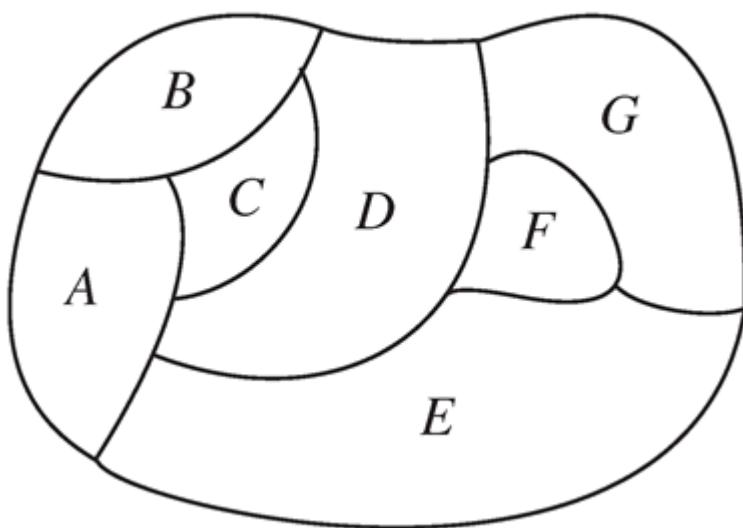
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The *chromatic number* of a graph is the **least number** of colors needed for a coloring of this graph, denoted by $\chi(G)$.

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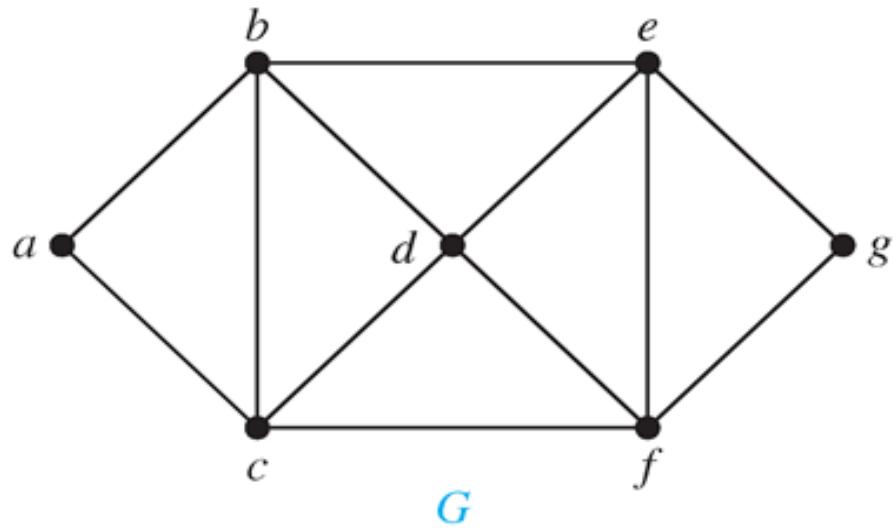


Graph Coloring

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

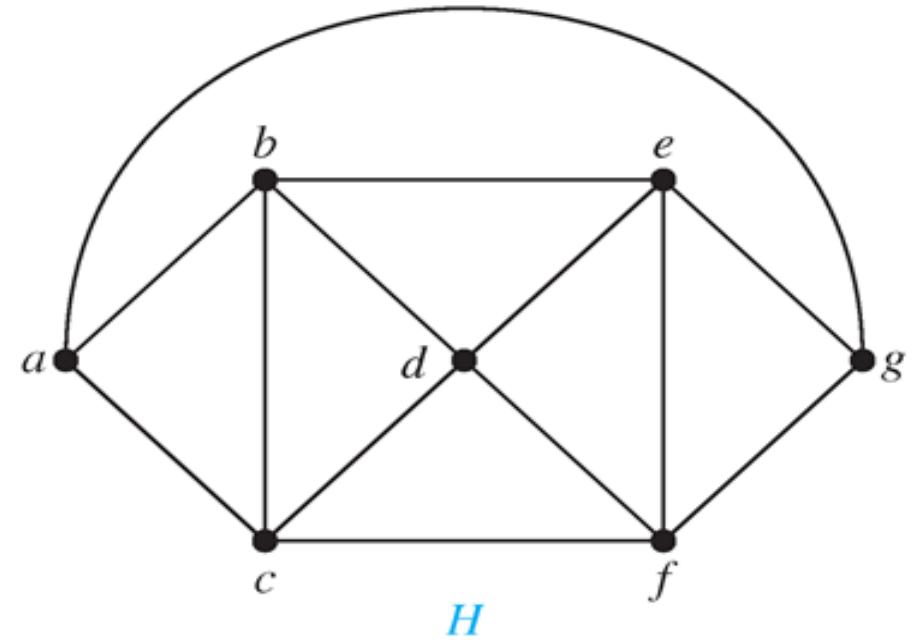
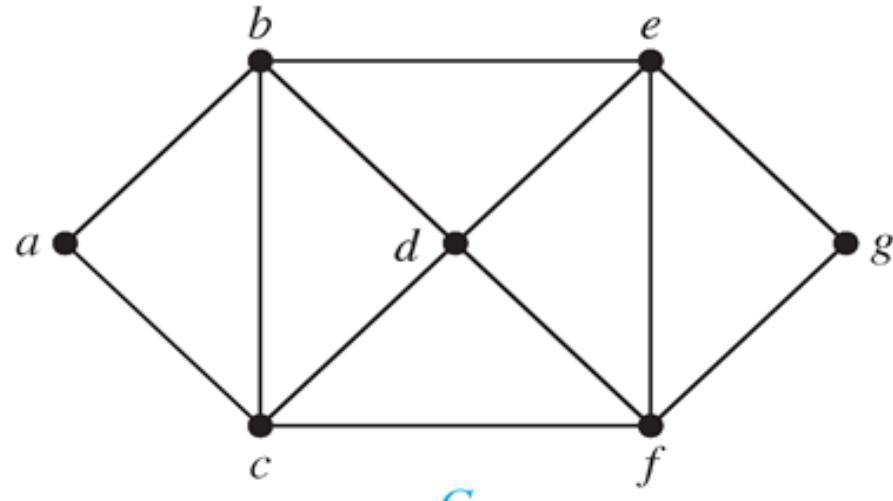
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w.l.o.g., assume that the graph is connected.

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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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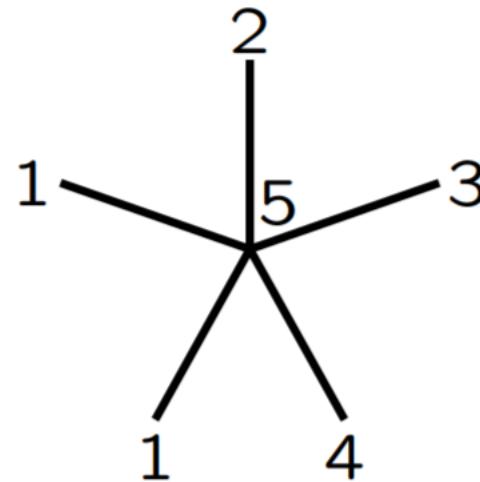
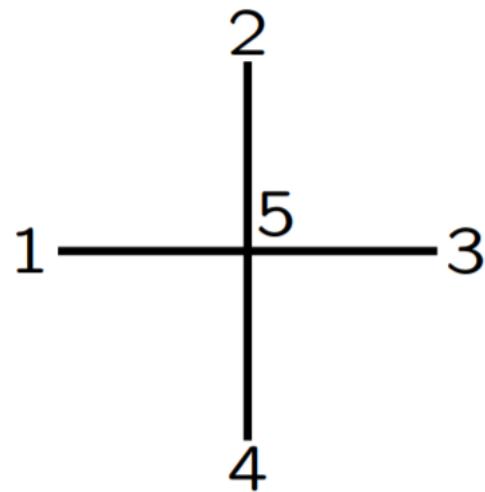
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If the vertex has degree less than 5, or if it has degree 5 and only ≤ 4 colors are used for vertices connected to it, we can pick an available color for it.

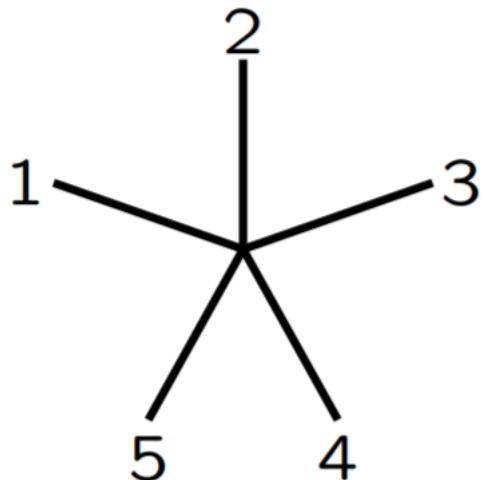


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If the vertex has degree 5, and all 5 colors are connected to it, we label the vertices adjacent to the “special” vertex (degree 5) 1 to 5 (in order).



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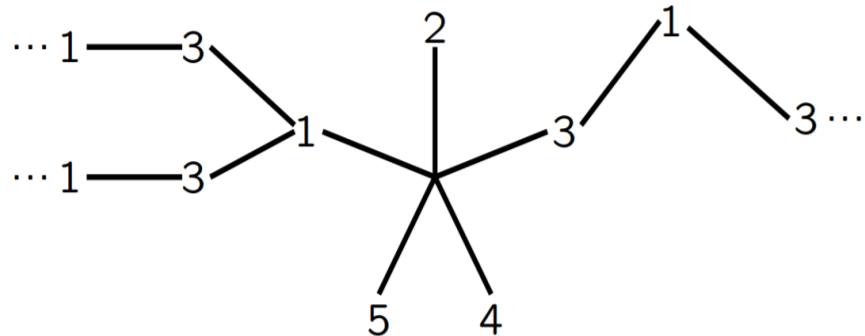
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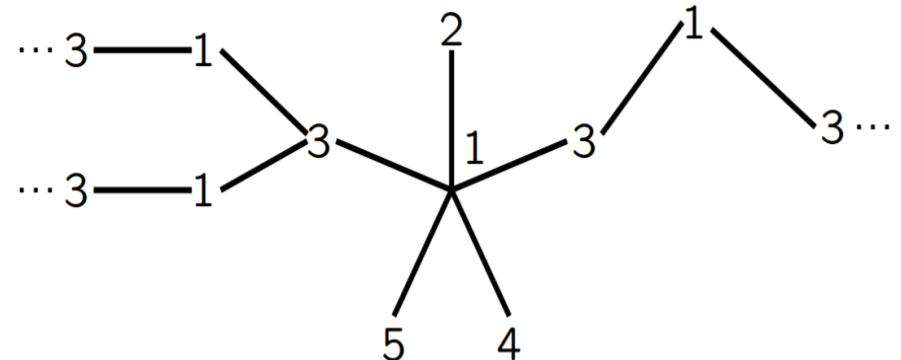
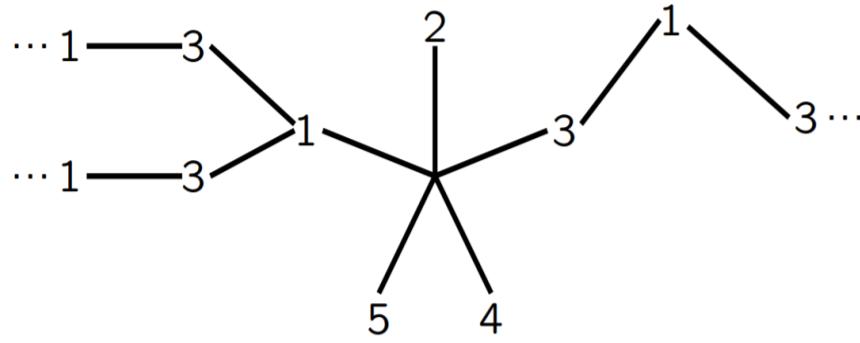


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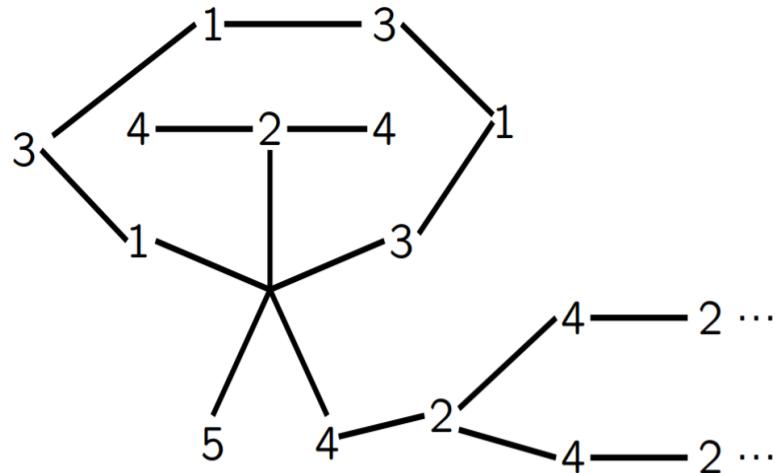
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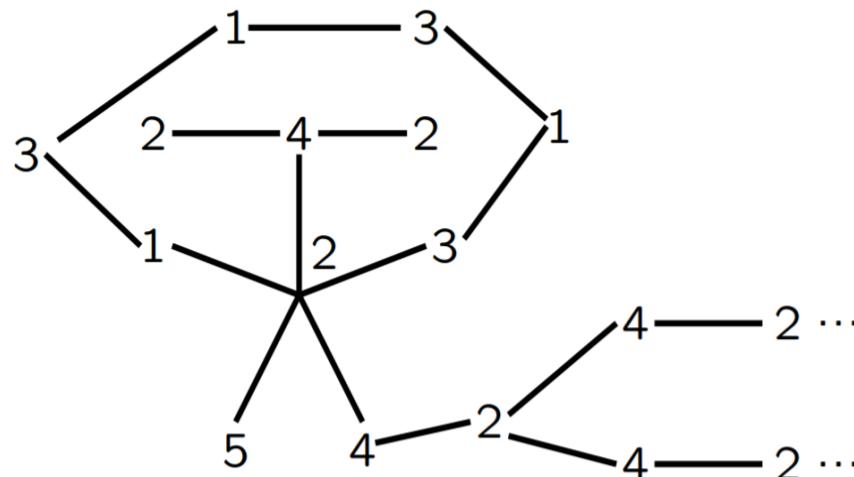
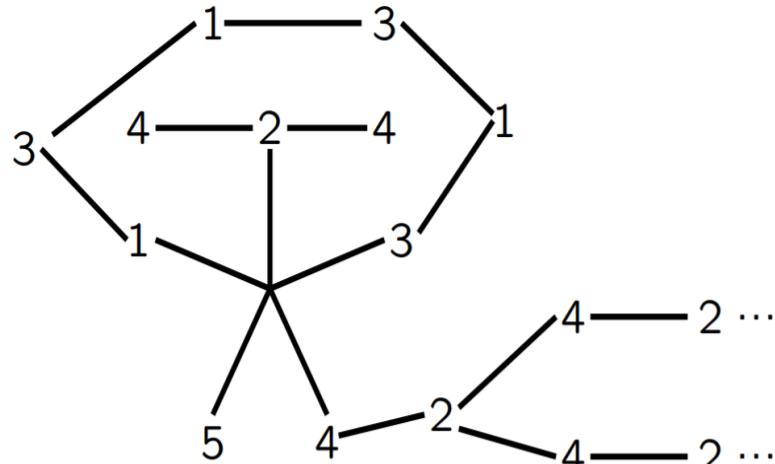


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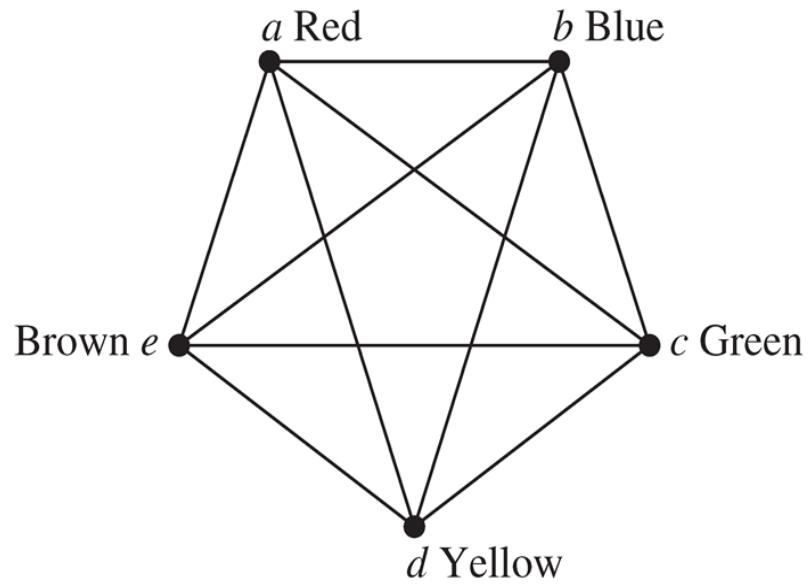


Examples

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

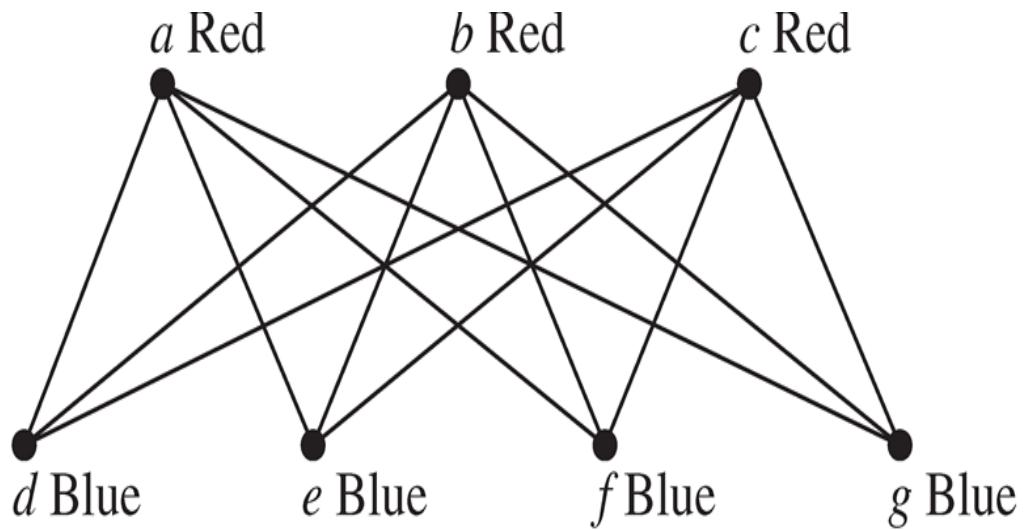
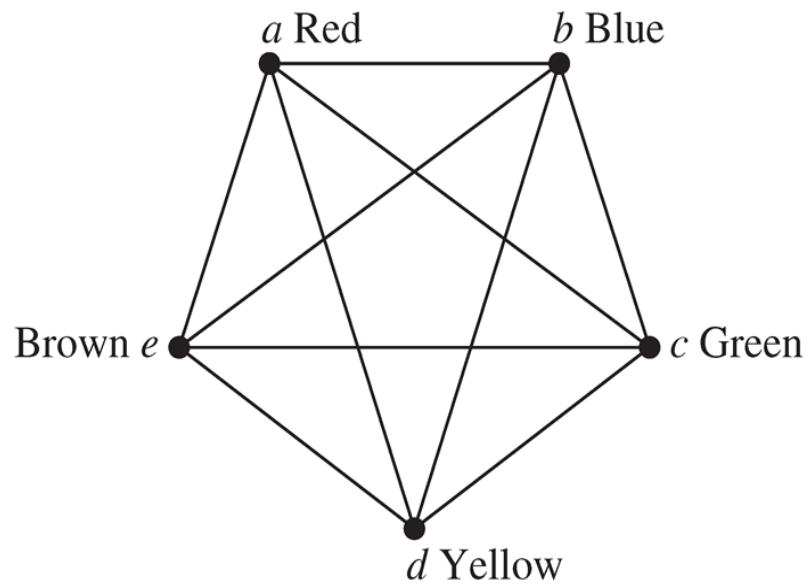
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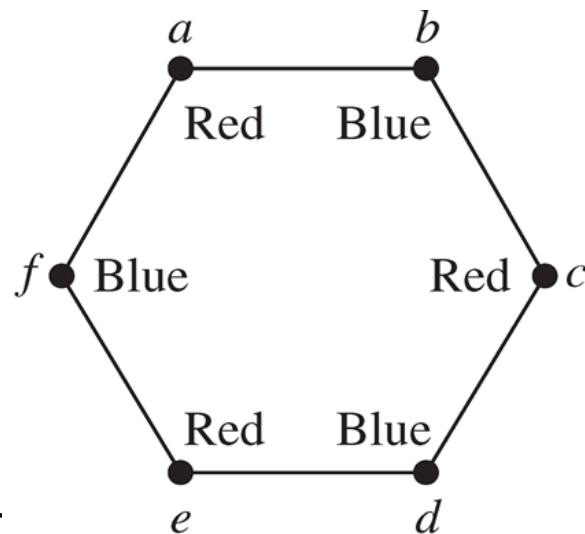
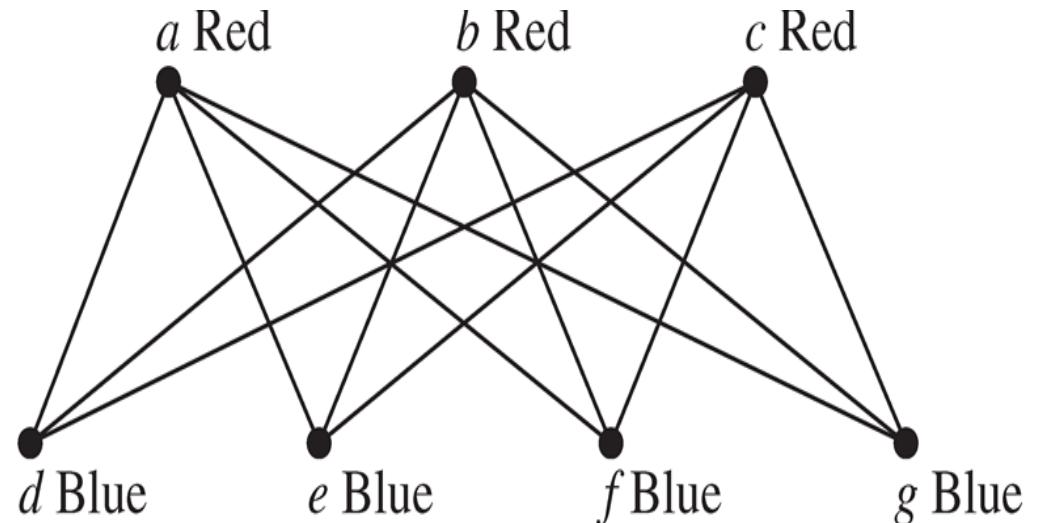
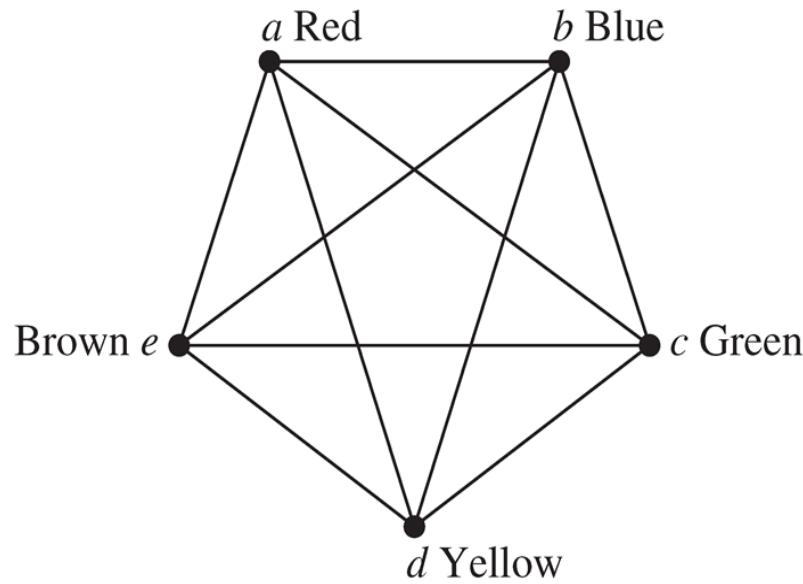
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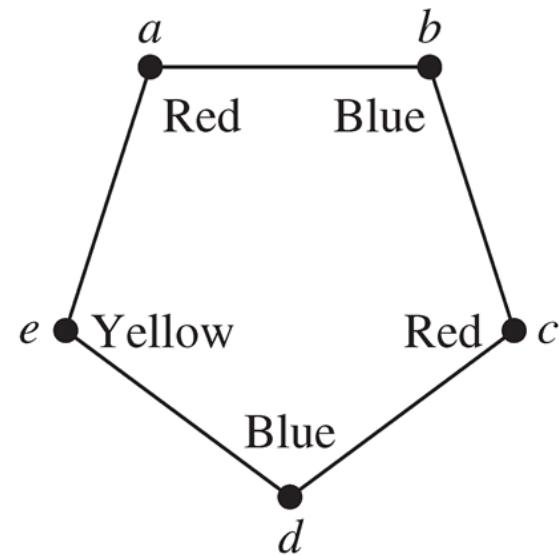
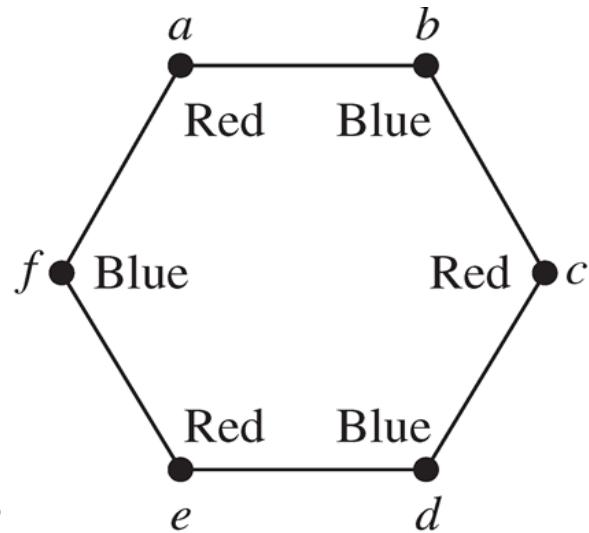
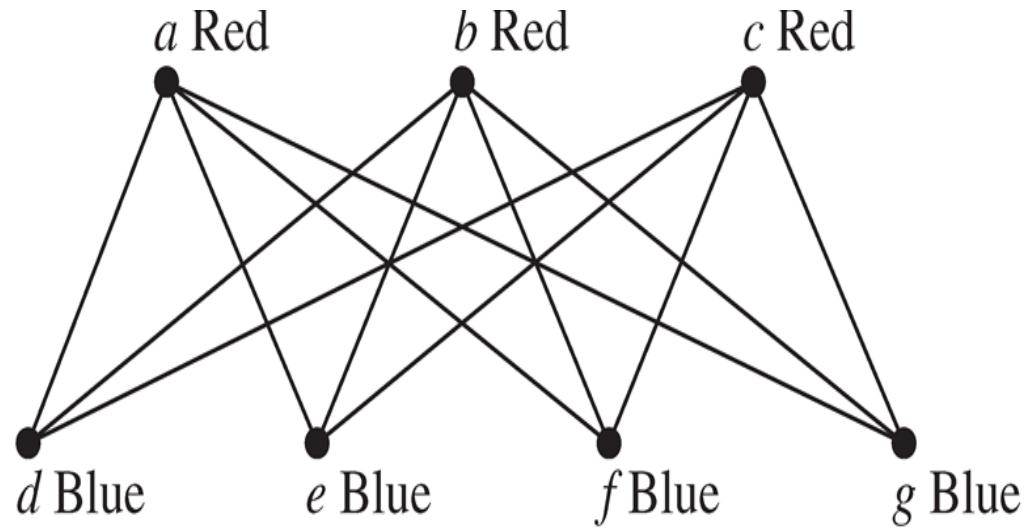
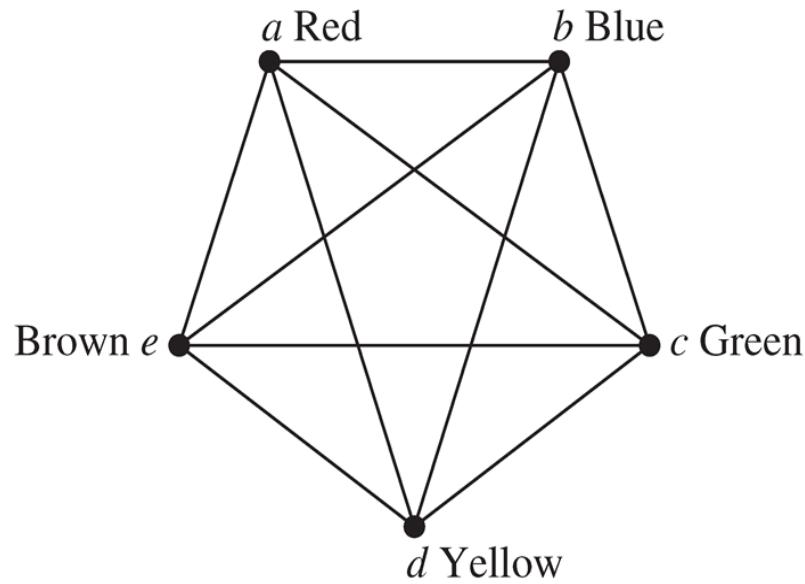
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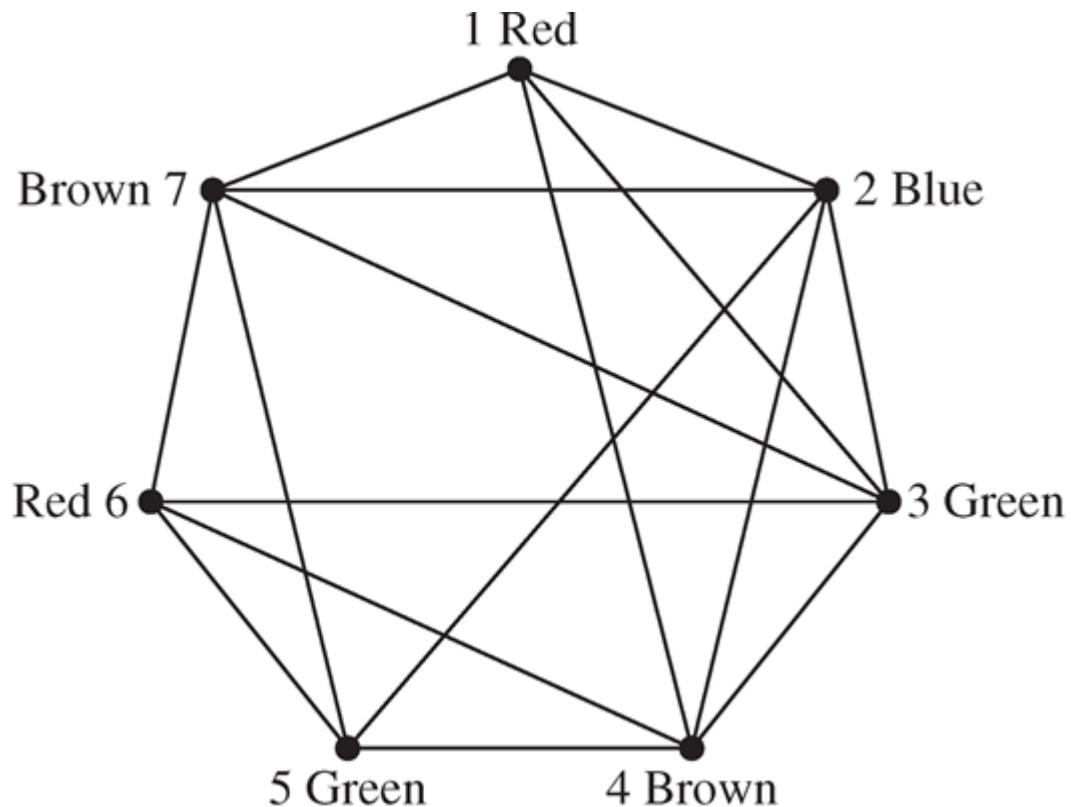
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Applications of Graph Coloring

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	Courses
I	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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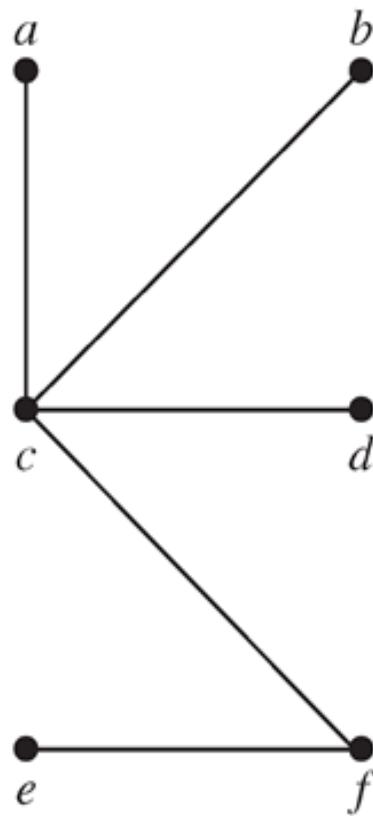
Graph Coloring ∈ NPC

Trees

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

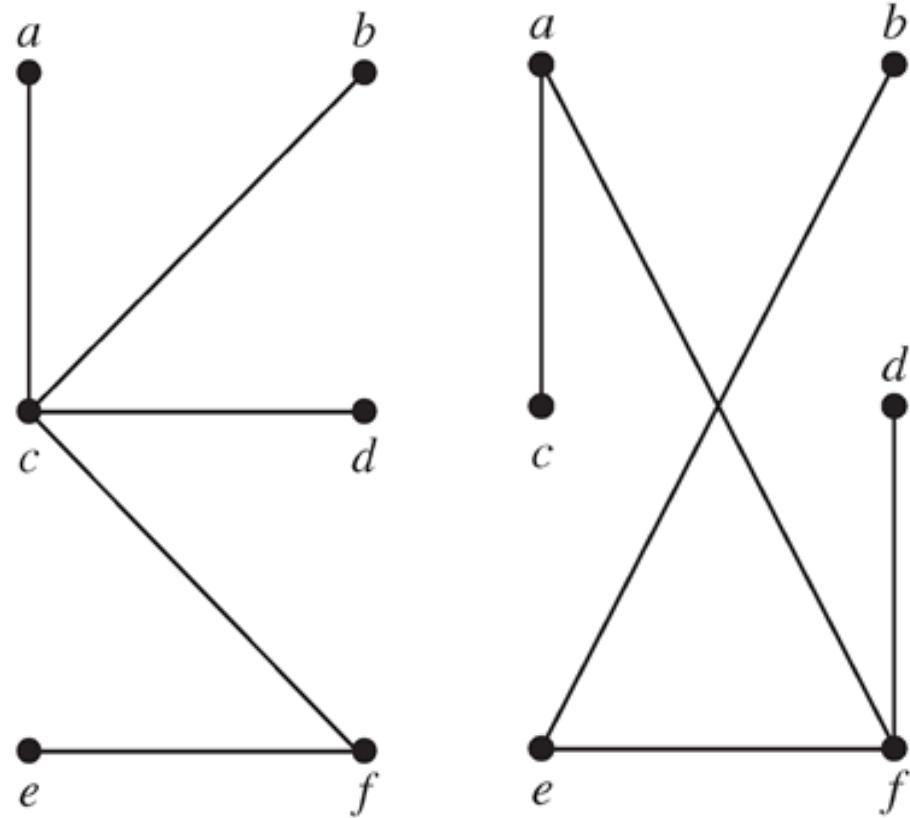
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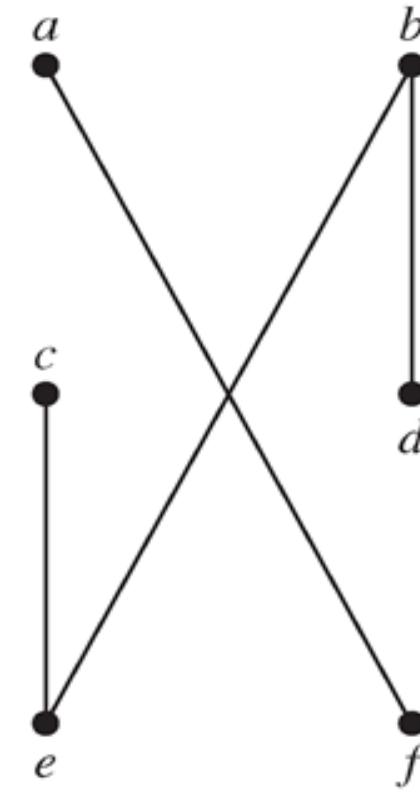
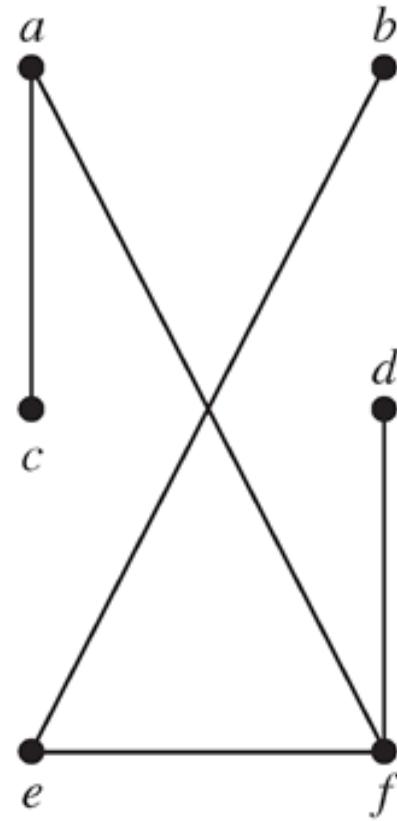
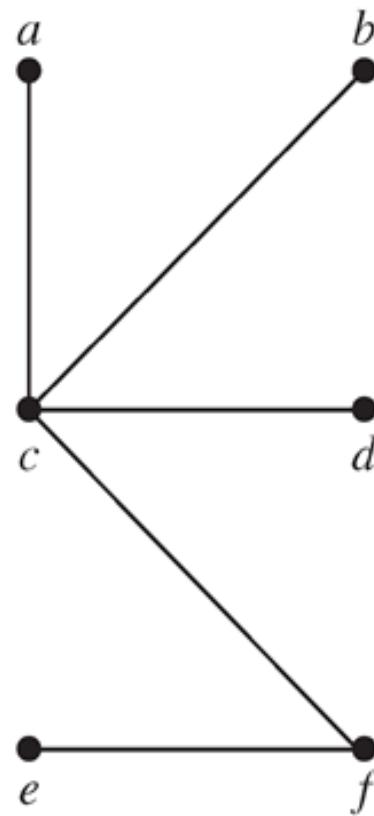
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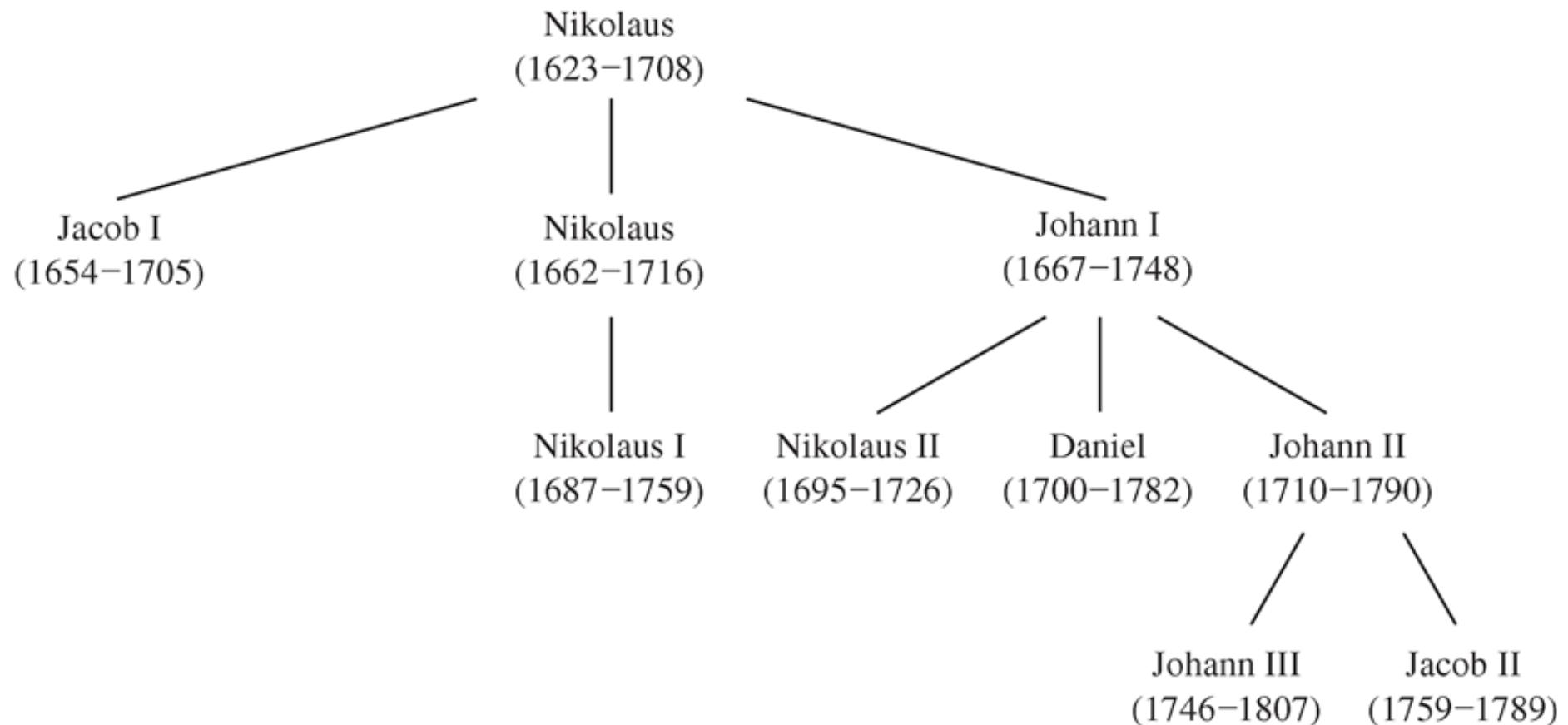
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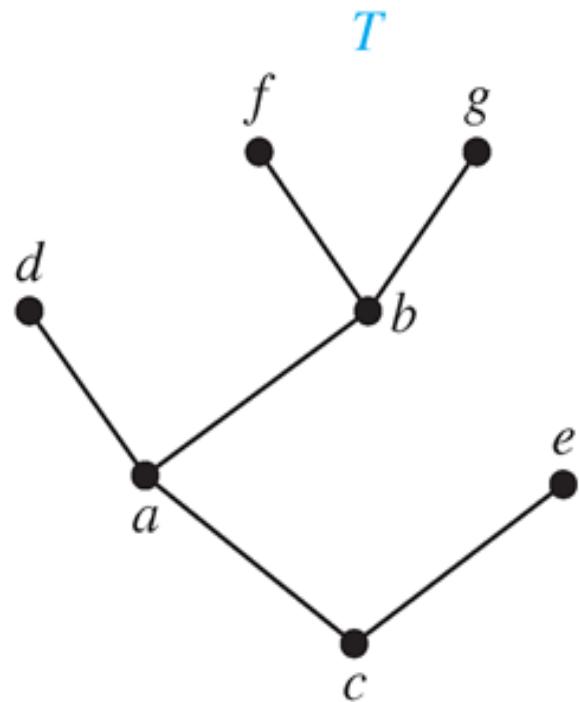
Two properties of tree: connected, no circuit

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.

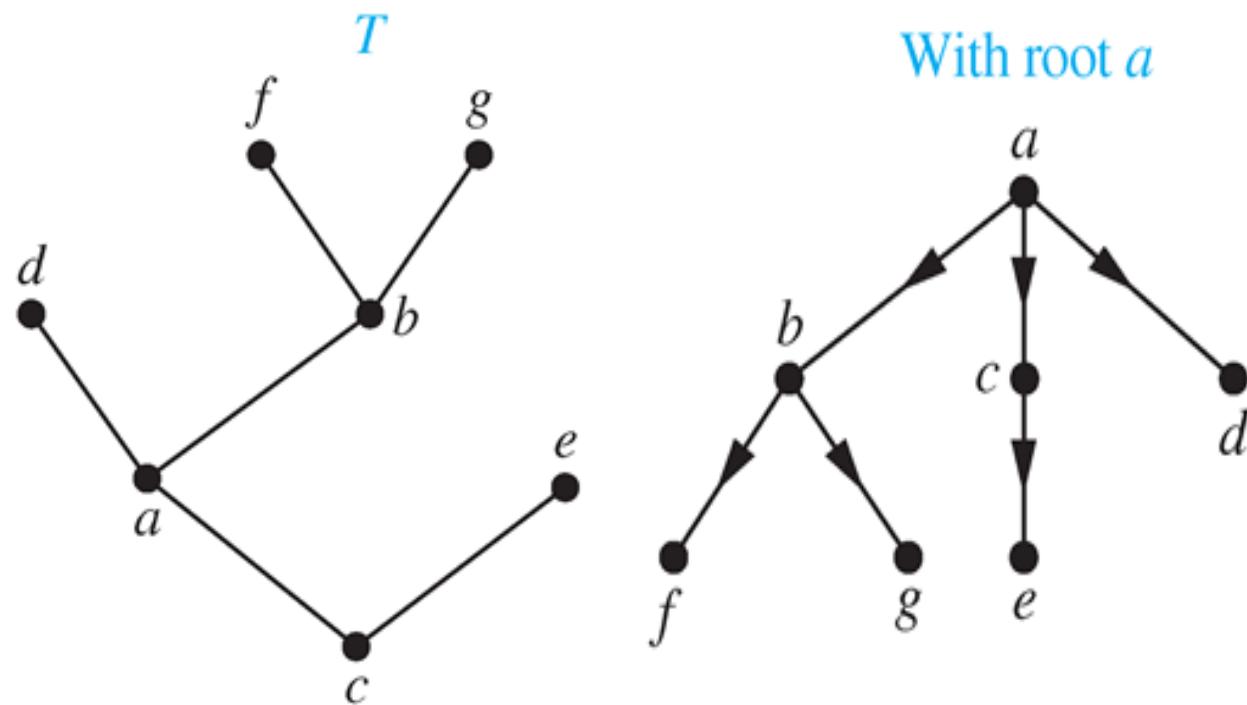
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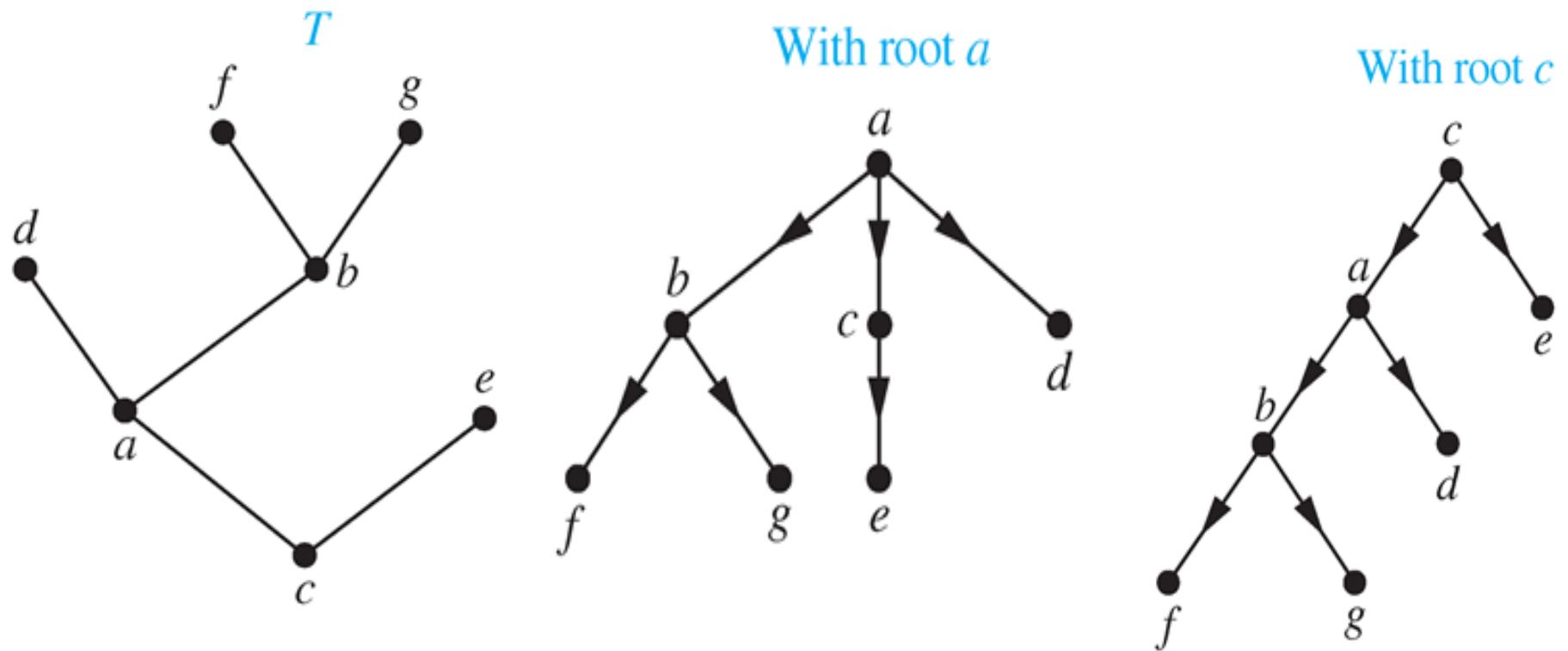
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ancestor, descendant*

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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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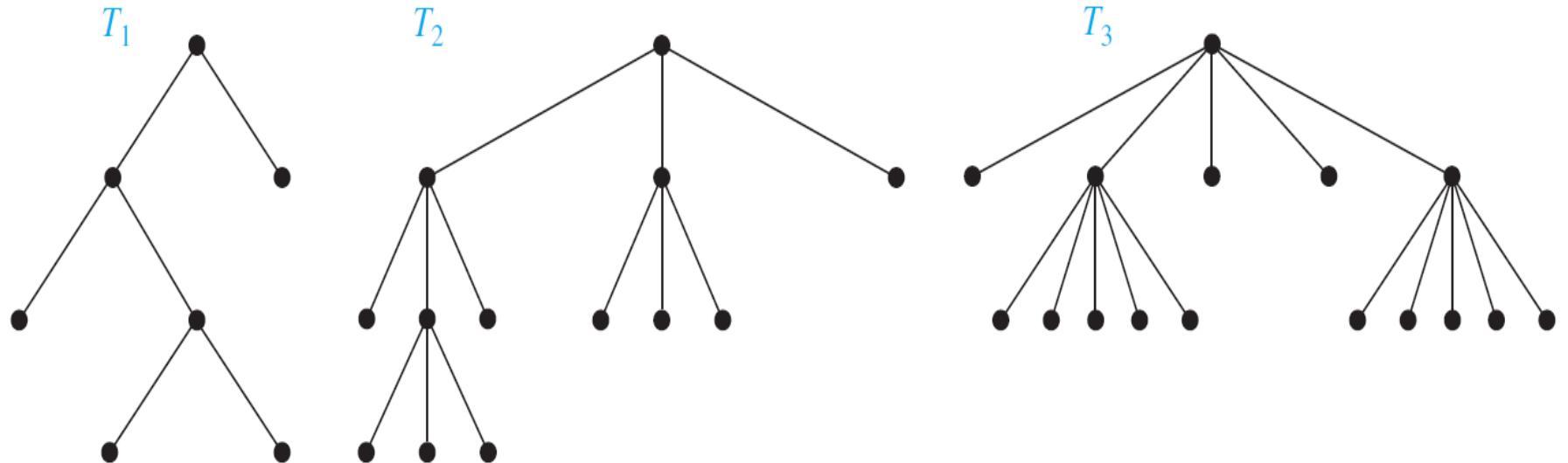
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left subtree, right subtree

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Counting Vertices in a Full m -Ary Trees

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(i) n vertices, $i = (n - 1)/m$, $\ell = [(m - 1)n + 1]/m$

(ii) i internal vertices, $n = mi + 1$, $\ell = (m - 1)i + 1$

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

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(ii) i internal vertices

(iii) ℓ leaves

(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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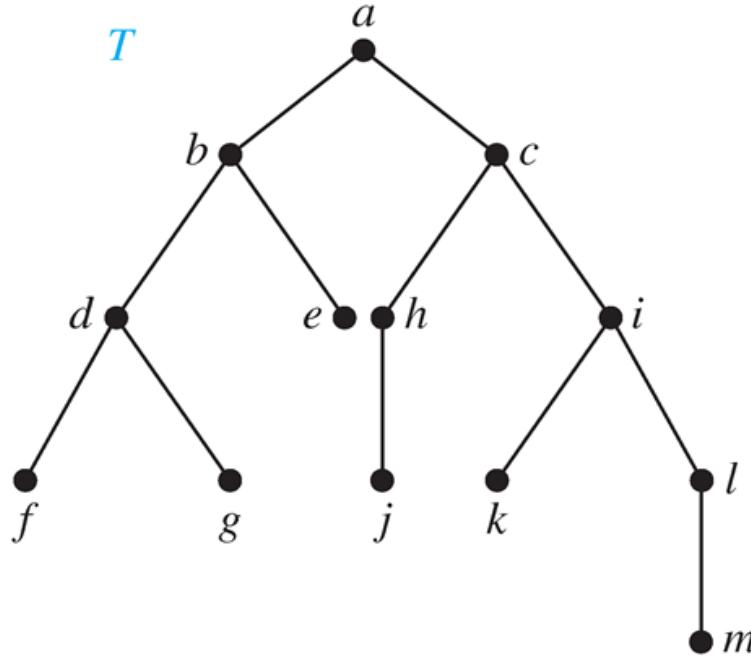
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Binary Trees

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

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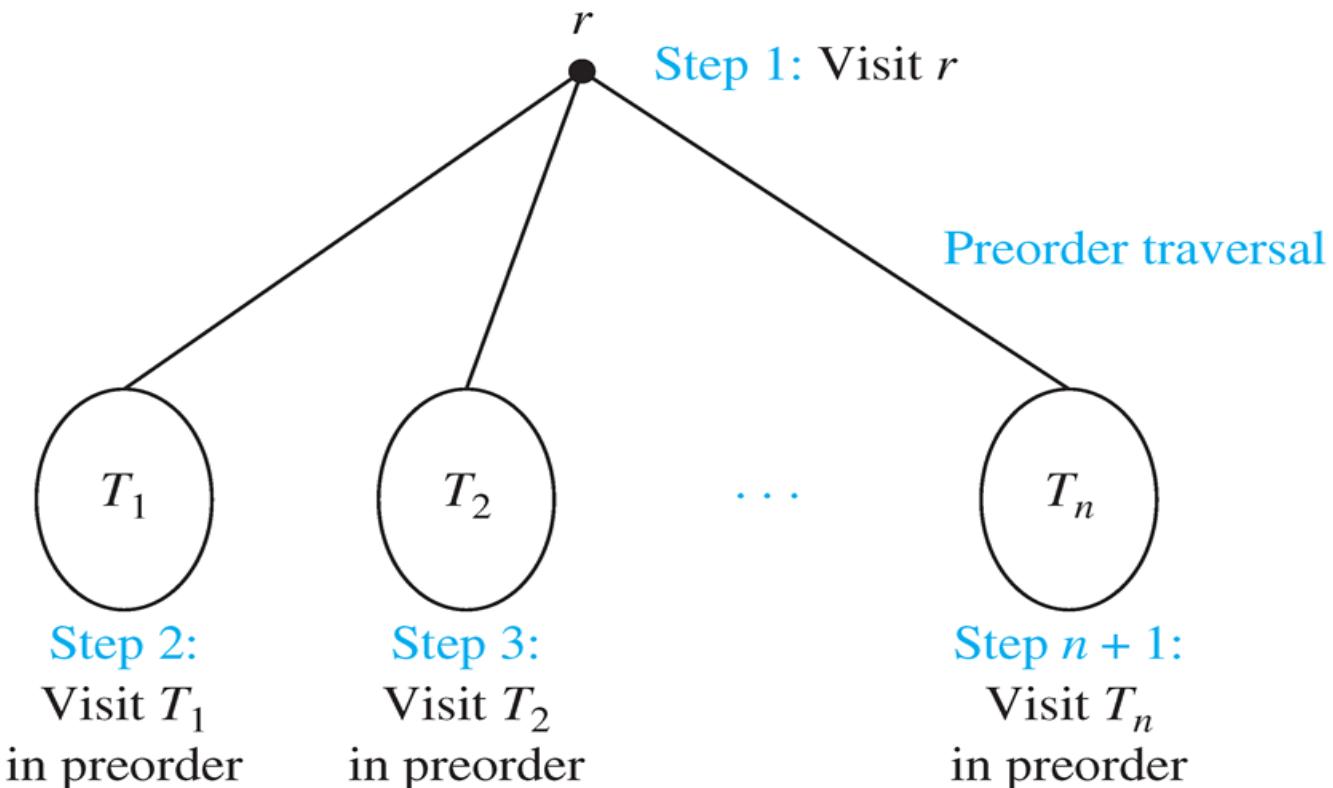
The three most commonly used traversals are *preorder traversal*, *inorder traversal*, *postorder traversal*.

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.

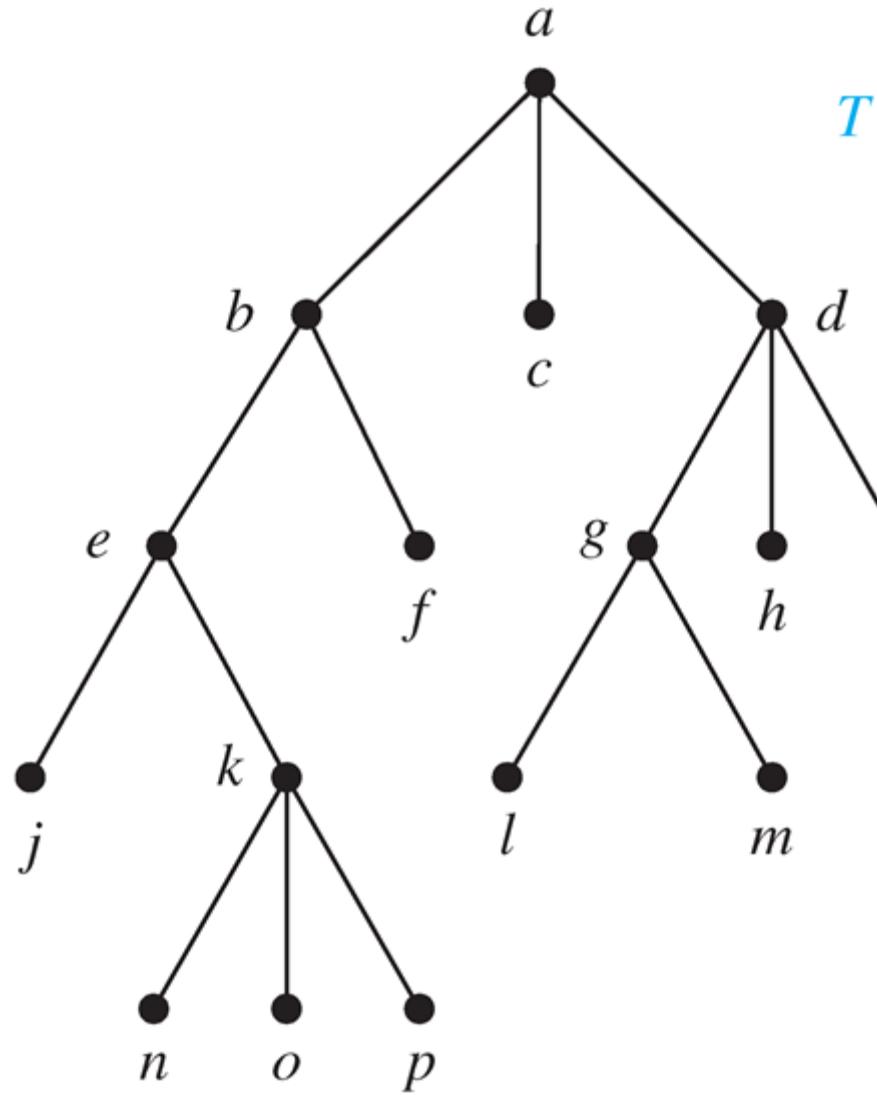
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Preorder Traversal

■ Example



Preorder Traversal

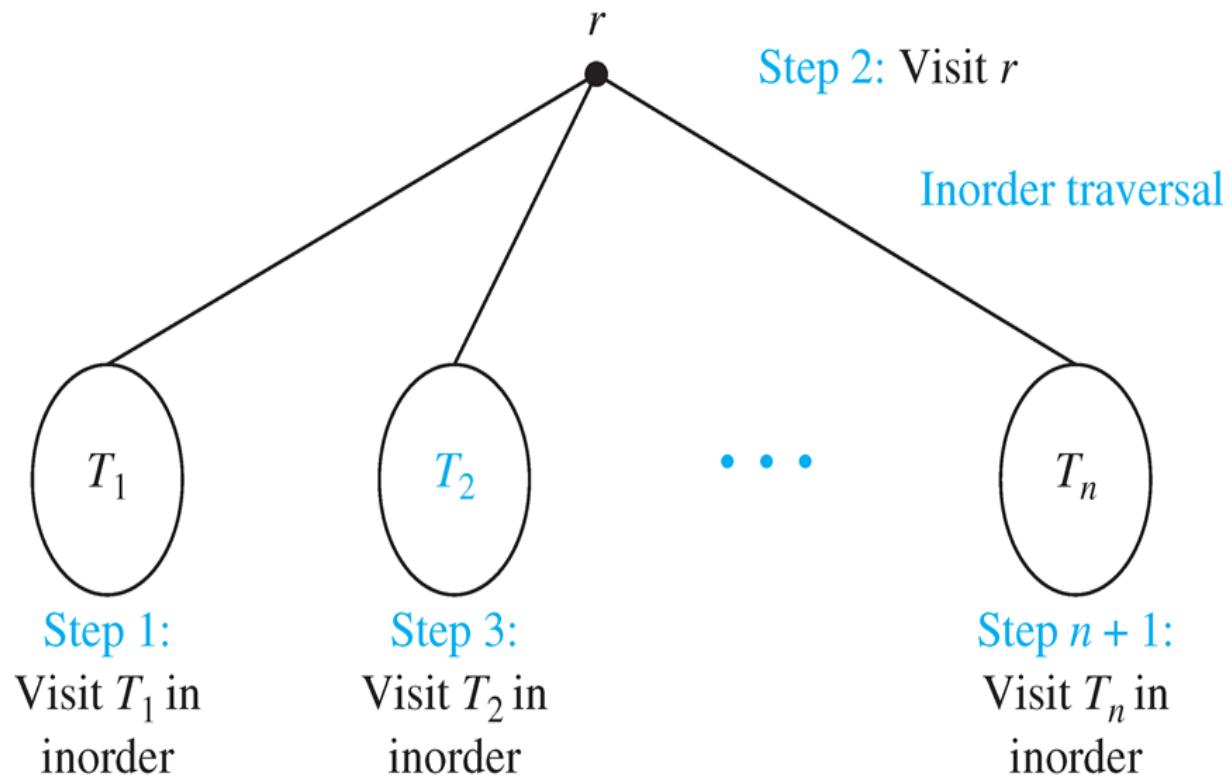
```
procedure preorder ( $T$ : ordered rooted tree)
 $r :=$  root of  $T$ 
list  $r$ 
for each child  $c$  of  $r$  from left to right
     $T(c) :=$  subtree with  $c$  as root
    preorder( $T(c)$ )
```

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.

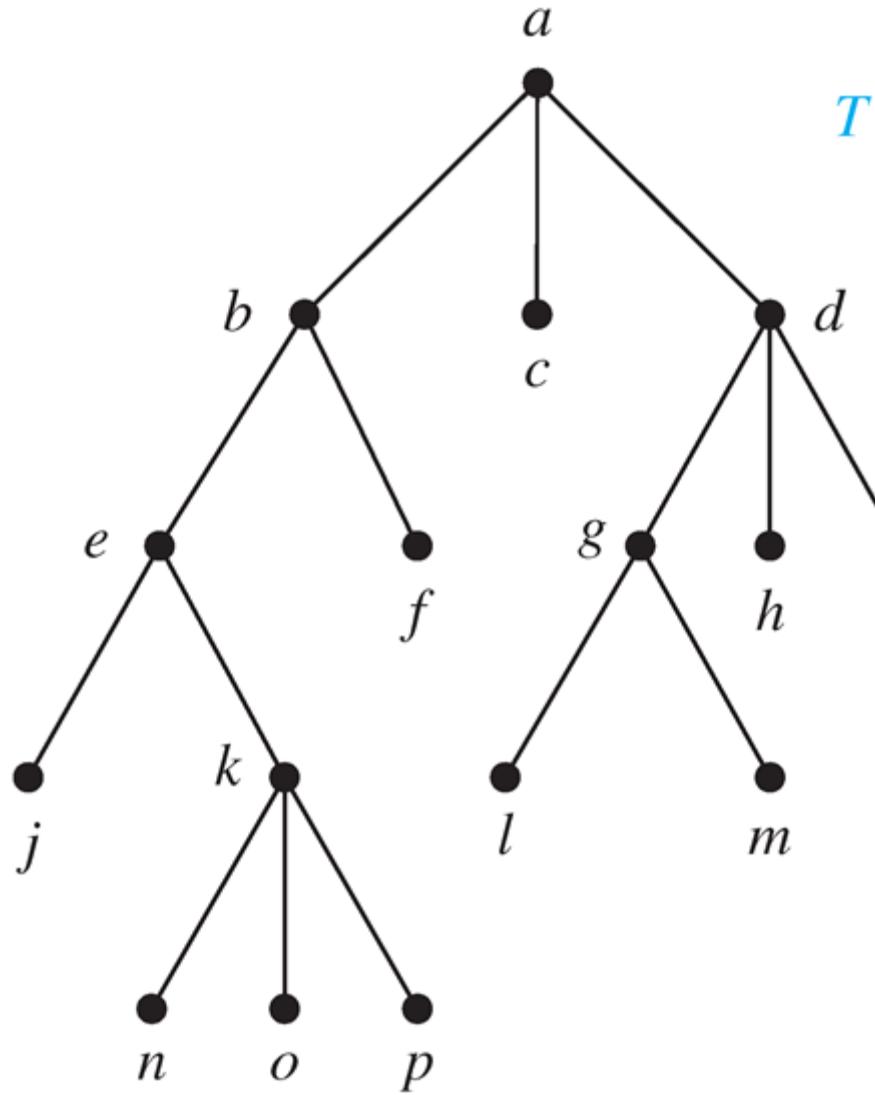
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Inorder Traversal

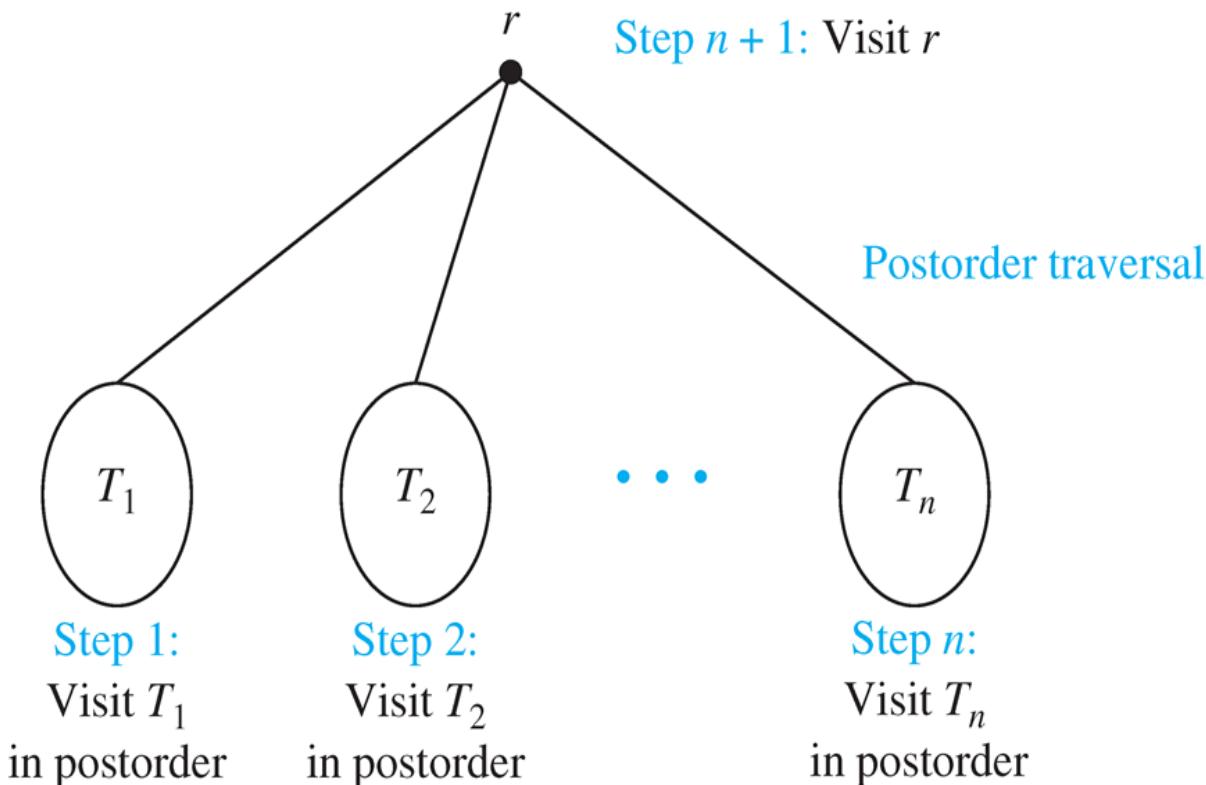
```
procedure inorder ( $T$ : ordered rooted tree)
 $r :=$  root of  $T$ 
if  $r$  is a leaf then list  $r$ 
else
     $l :=$  first child of  $r$  from left to right
     $T(l) :=$  subtree with  $l$  as its root
    inorder( $T(l)$ )
    list( $r$ )
    for each child  $c$  of  $r$  from left to right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

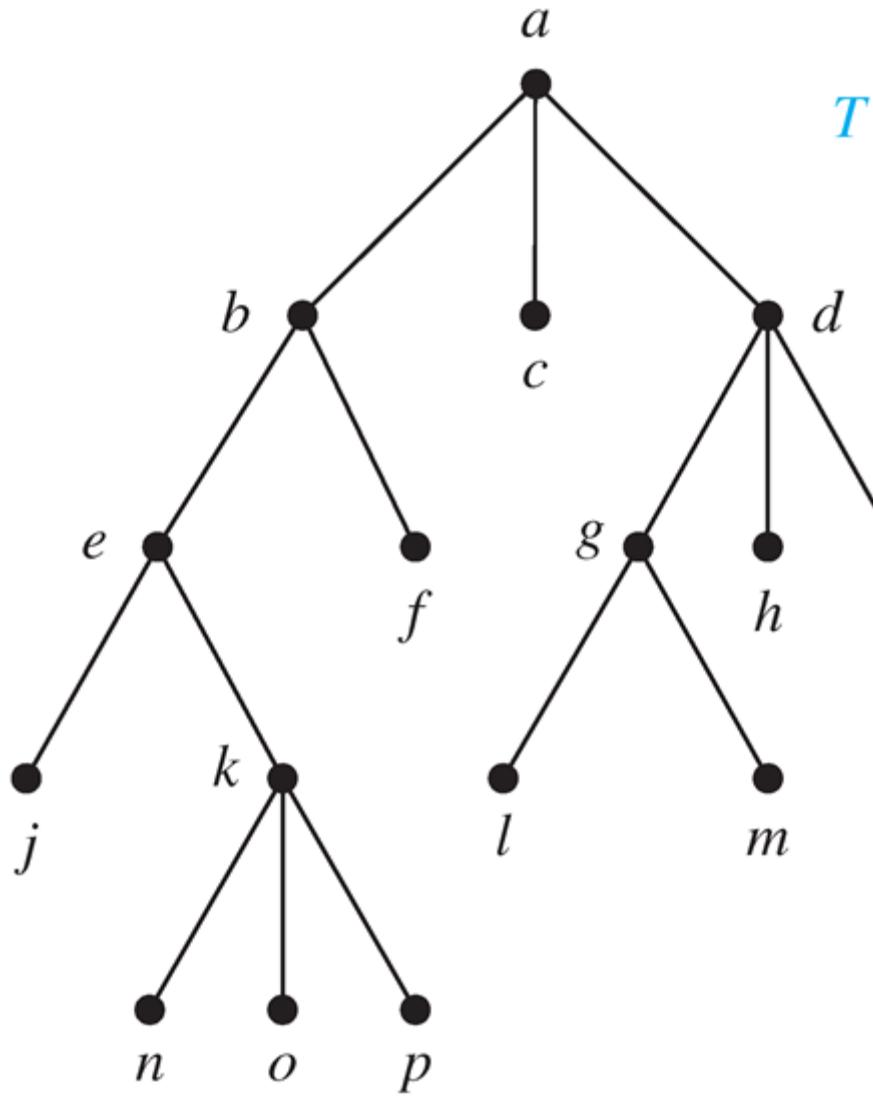
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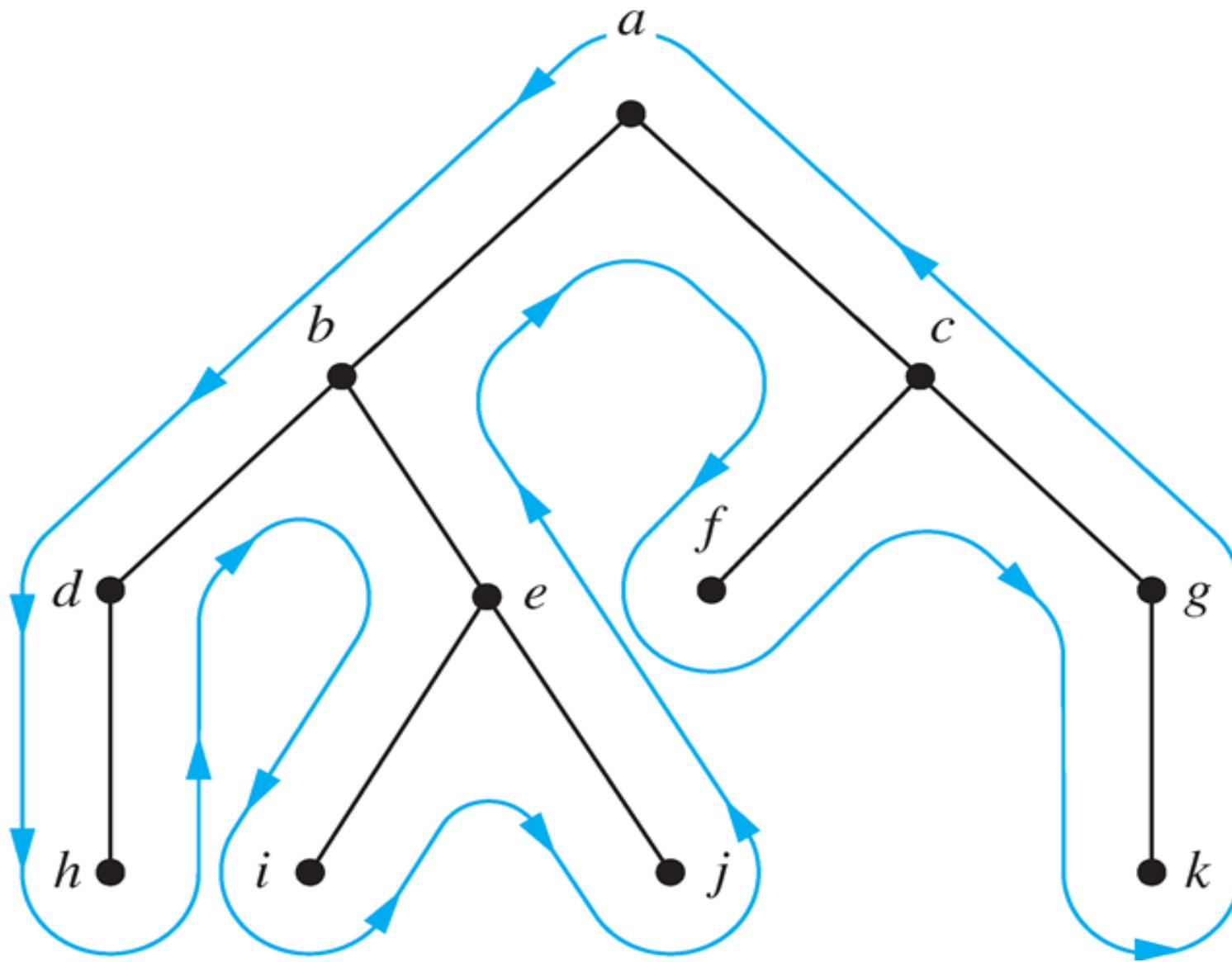
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```
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    postorder( $T(c)$ )
list  $r$ 
```

Preorder, Inorder, Postorder Traversal



Expression Trees

- Complex expressions can be represented using ordered rooted trees

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Example

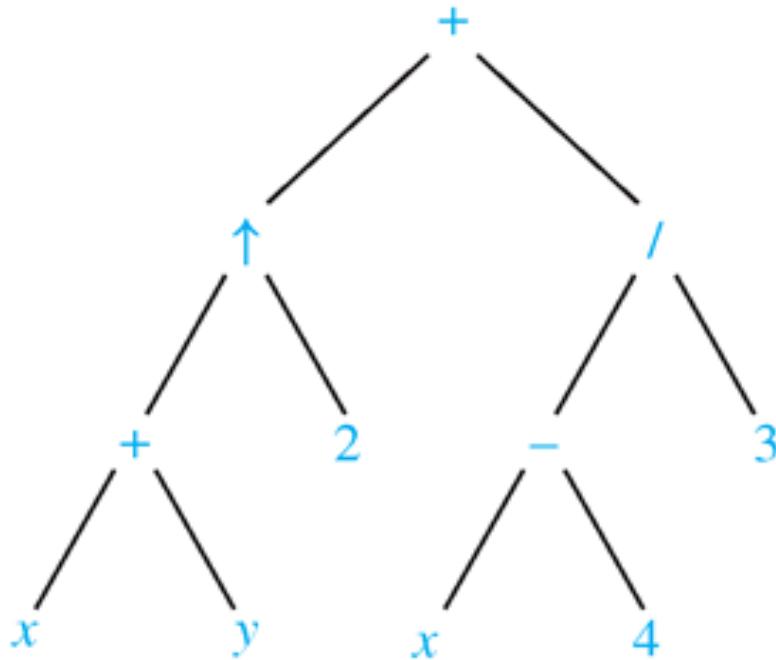
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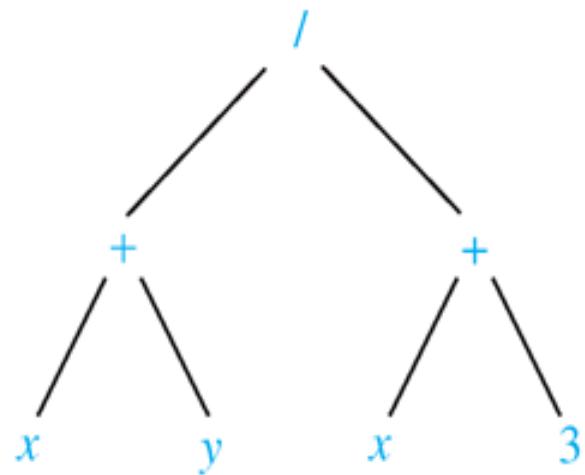
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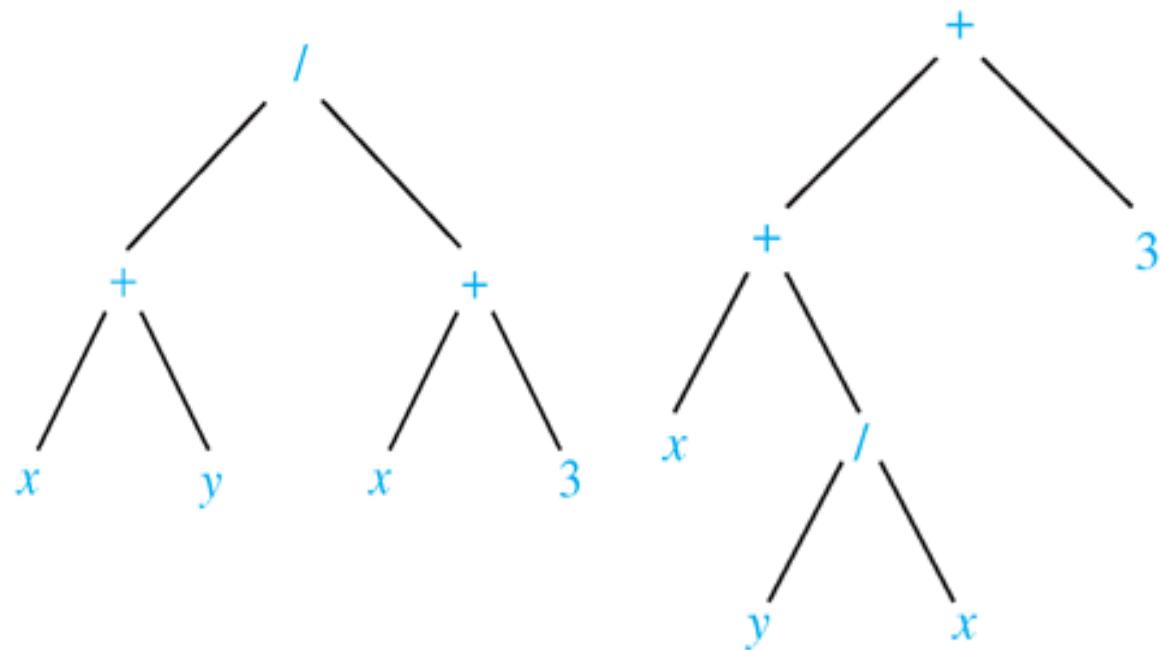
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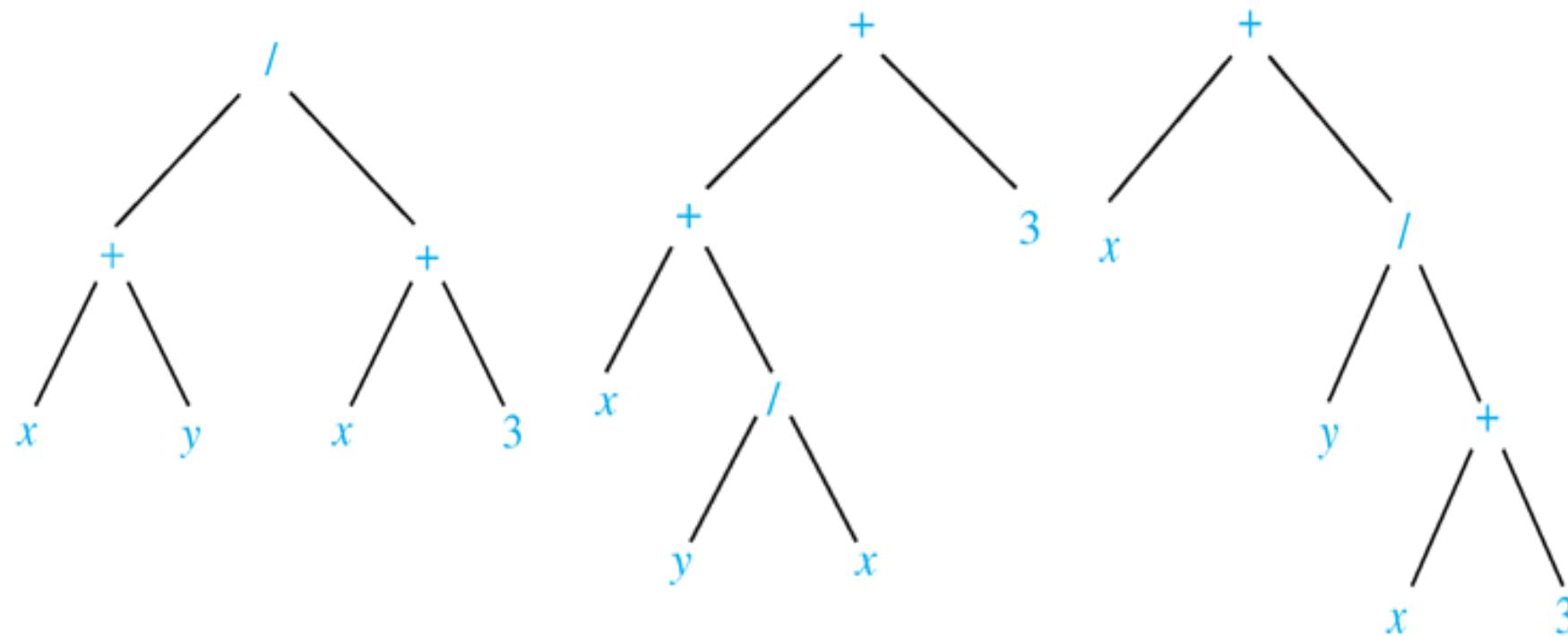
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Prefix expressions are evaluated by working **from right to left**. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with **the two operands to the right**.

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■ Example

+ - * 2 3 5 / ↑ 2 3 4

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$$+ - * 2 3 5 / \underline{\quad \quad \quad} \uparrow 2 3 4$$

$2 \uparrow 3 = 8$

$$\begin{array}{r} + - * 2 3 5 / 8 4 \\ \hline 8 / 4 = 2 \end{array}$$

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

$$\begin{array}{r} + \quad - \quad 6 \quad 5 \quad 2 \\ \hline 6 - 5 = 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 1 2 \\ \hline 1 + 2 = 3 \end{array}$$

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7 2 3 * - 4 ↑ 9 3 / +

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$$7 - 6 = 1$$

1 4 ↑ 9 3 / +

$$1^4 = 1$$

1 9 3 / +

$$9 / 3 = 3$$

1 3 +

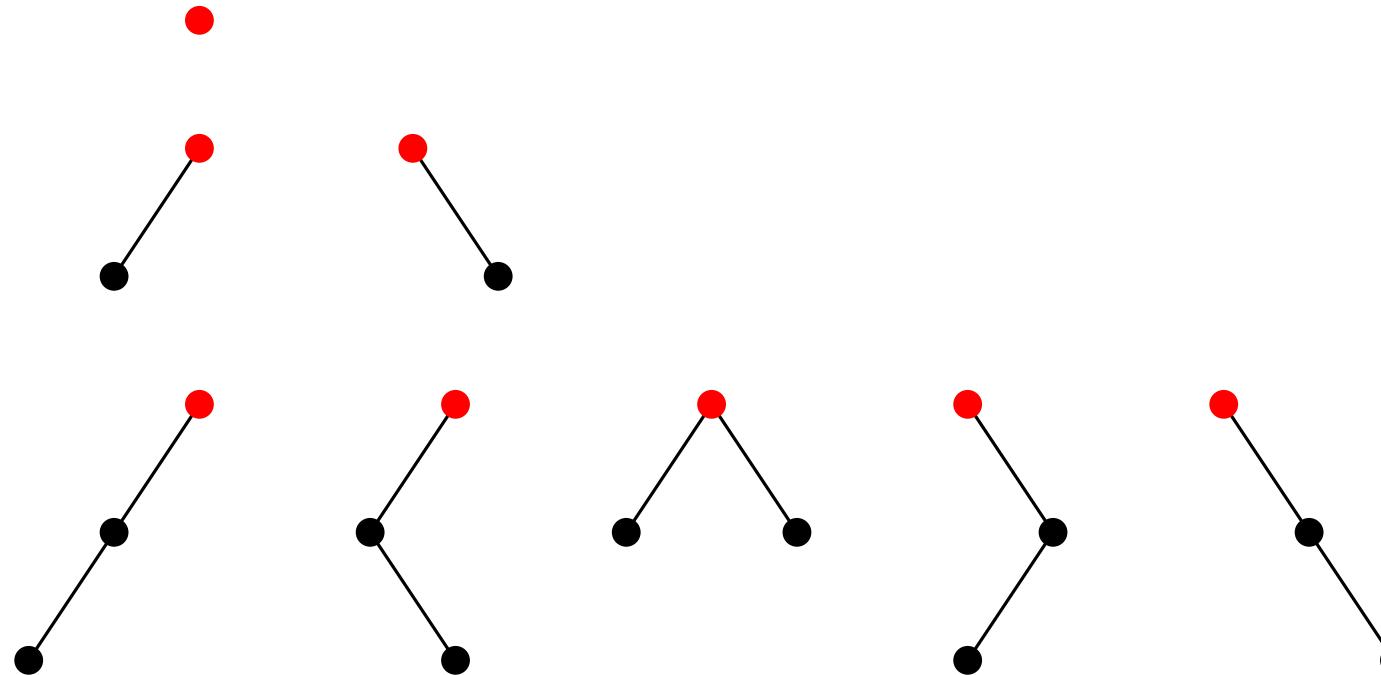
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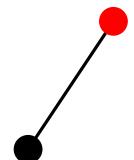


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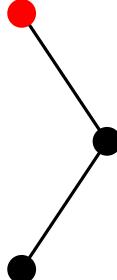
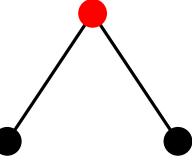
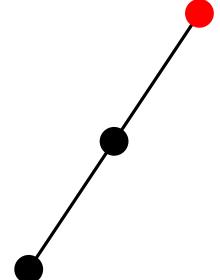
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$$C_0 = C_1 = 1$$



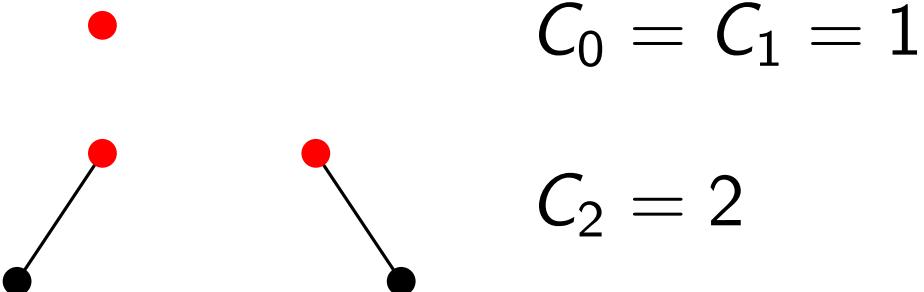
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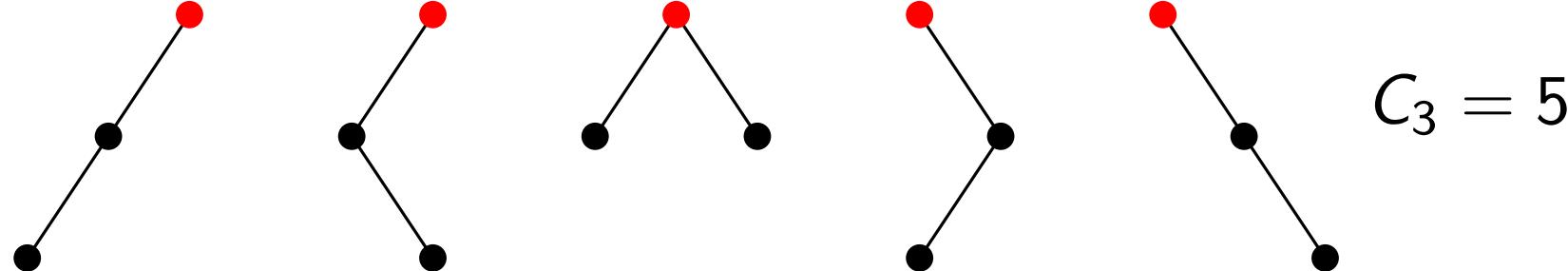
$$C_3 = 5$$

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How to find a formula for C_n ?

Catalan Numbers

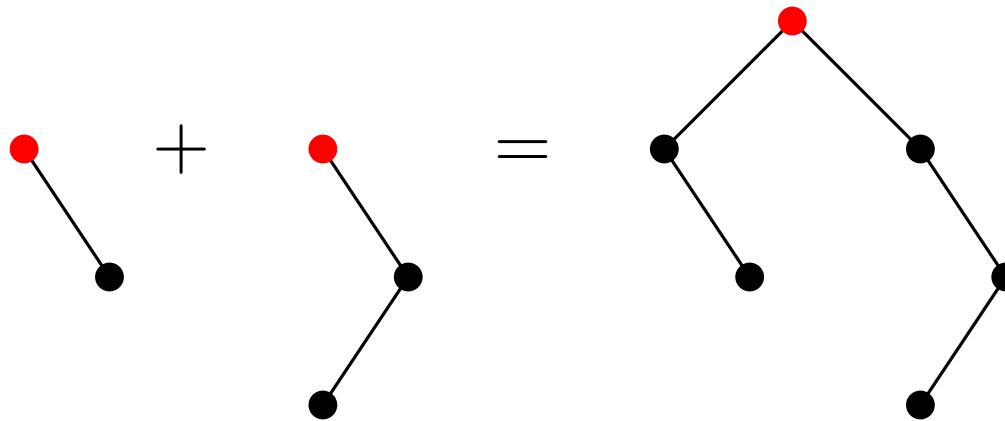
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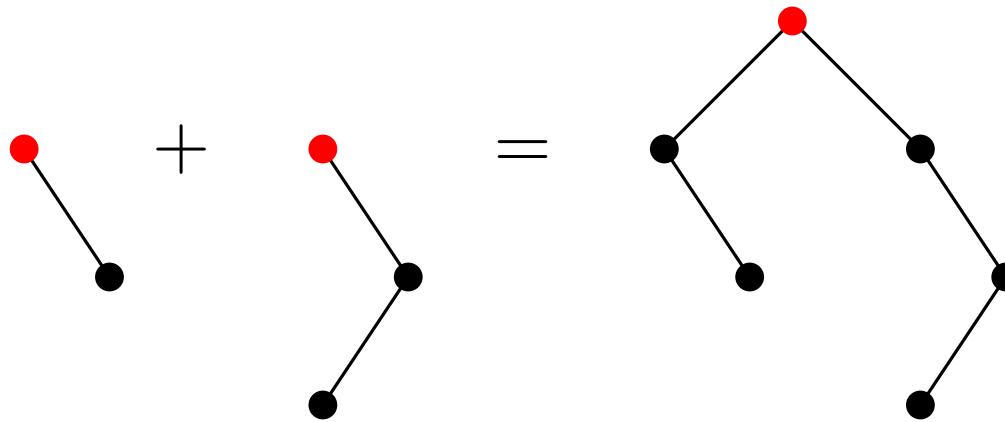
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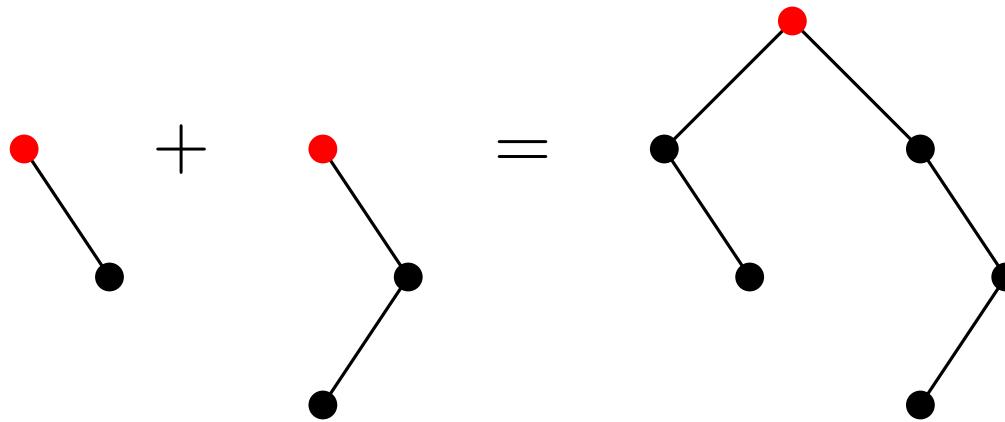
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$$\text{We have } C_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} C_i C_{n-i-1}$$

$$\text{For example, } C_3 = C_0 C_2 + C_1 C_1 + C_2 C_0 = 1 * 2 + 1 * 1 + 2 * 1 = 5.$$

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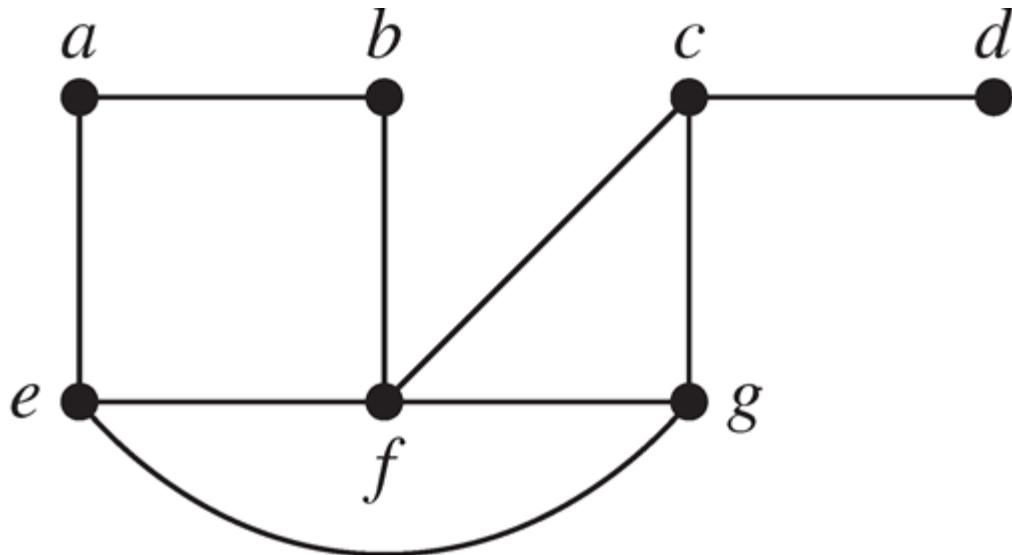
R. Stanley, *Catalan Numbers*, Cambridge University Press, 2015.
Includes 214 combinatorial interpretations of C_n , and 68 additional problems!

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 .

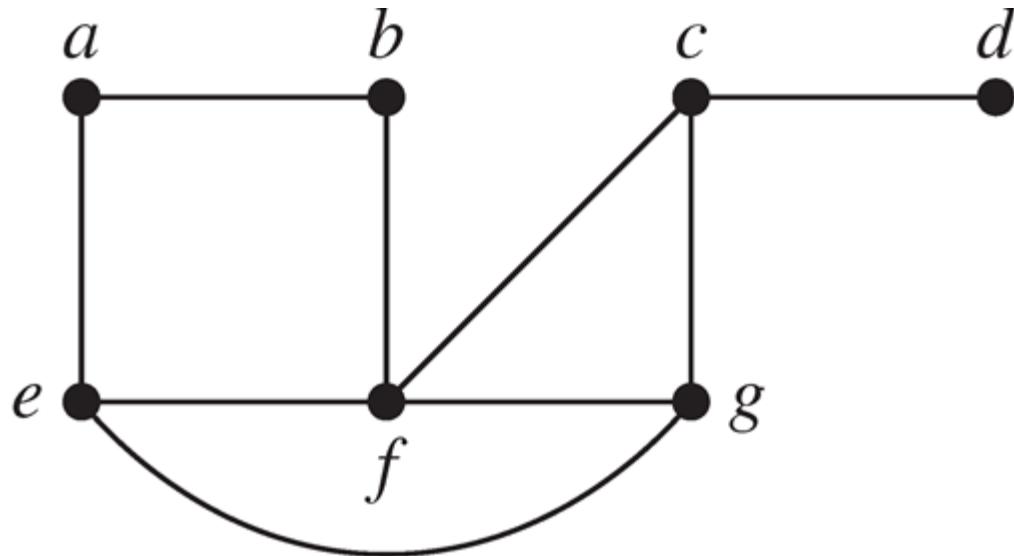
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remove edges to avoid circuits

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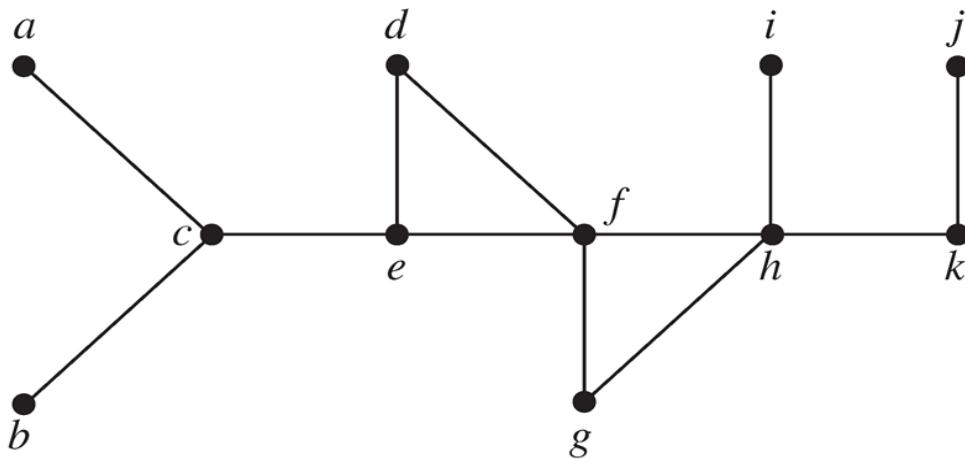
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- ◊ Form a path by **successively adding vertices and edges**. Continue adding to this path **as long as possible**.
- ◊ If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, the tree is a **spanning tree**.
- ◊ Otherwise, move back to some **vertex**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

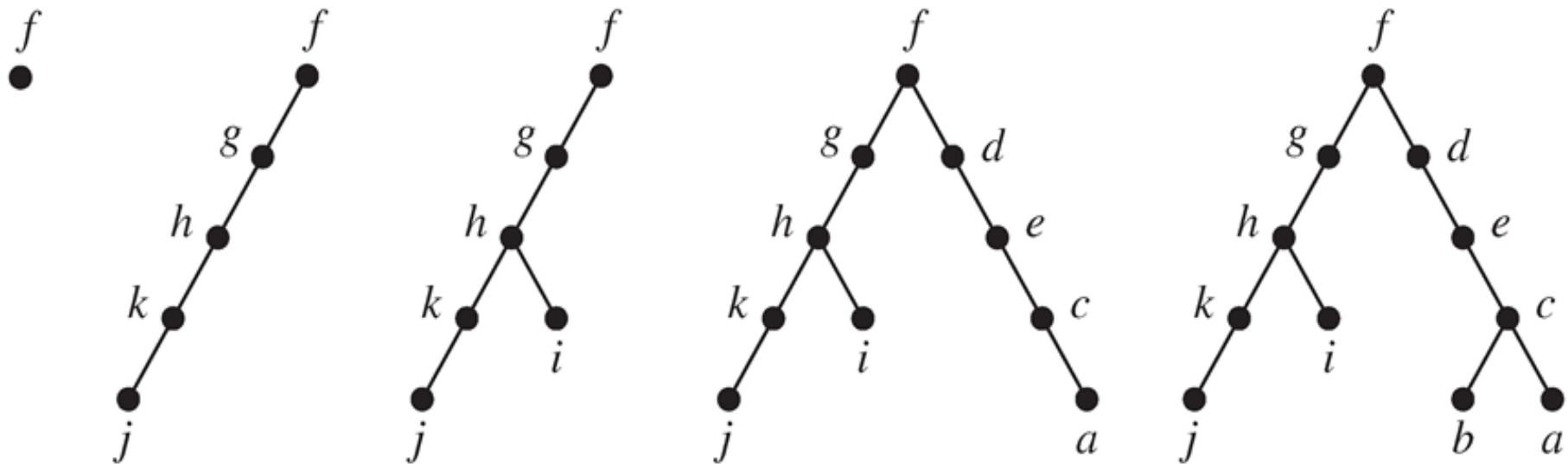
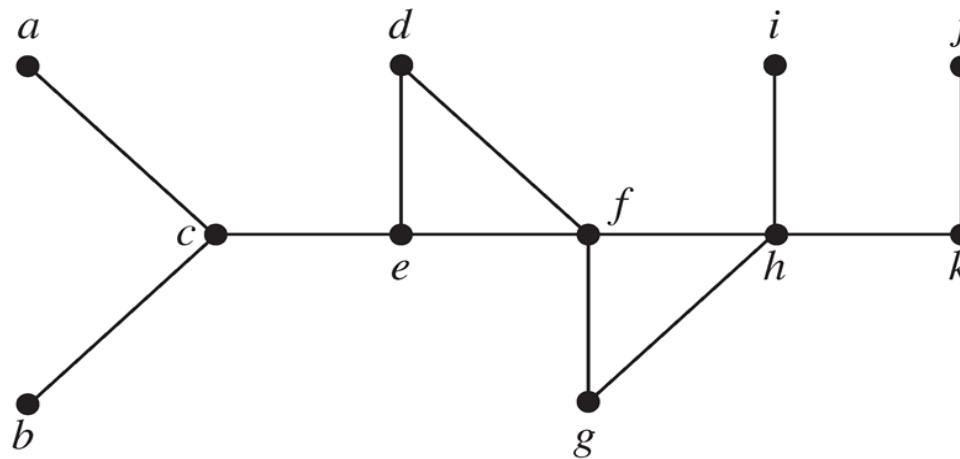
Depth-First Search

■ Example



Depth-First Search

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( $v_1$ )
```

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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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Breadth-First Search

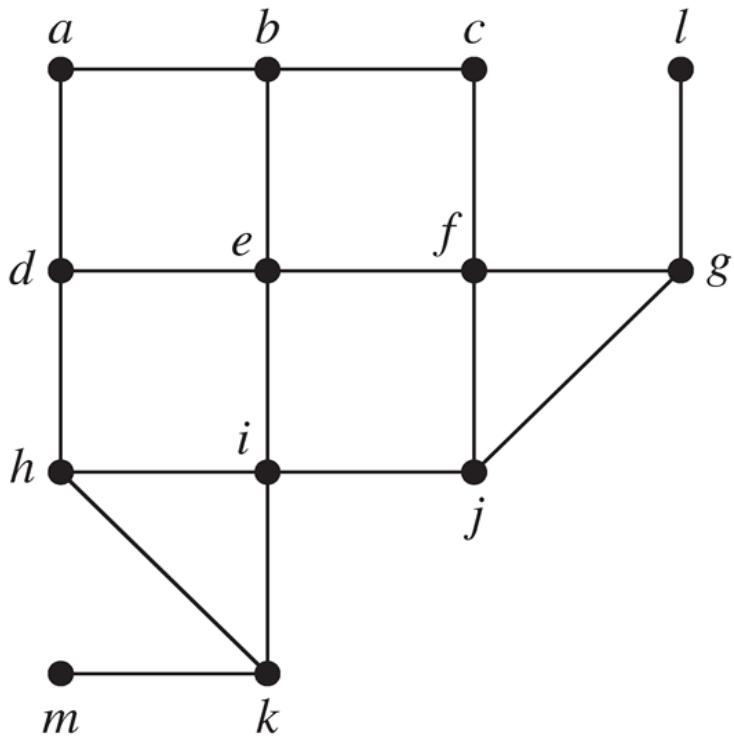
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Breadth-First Search

- 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**.

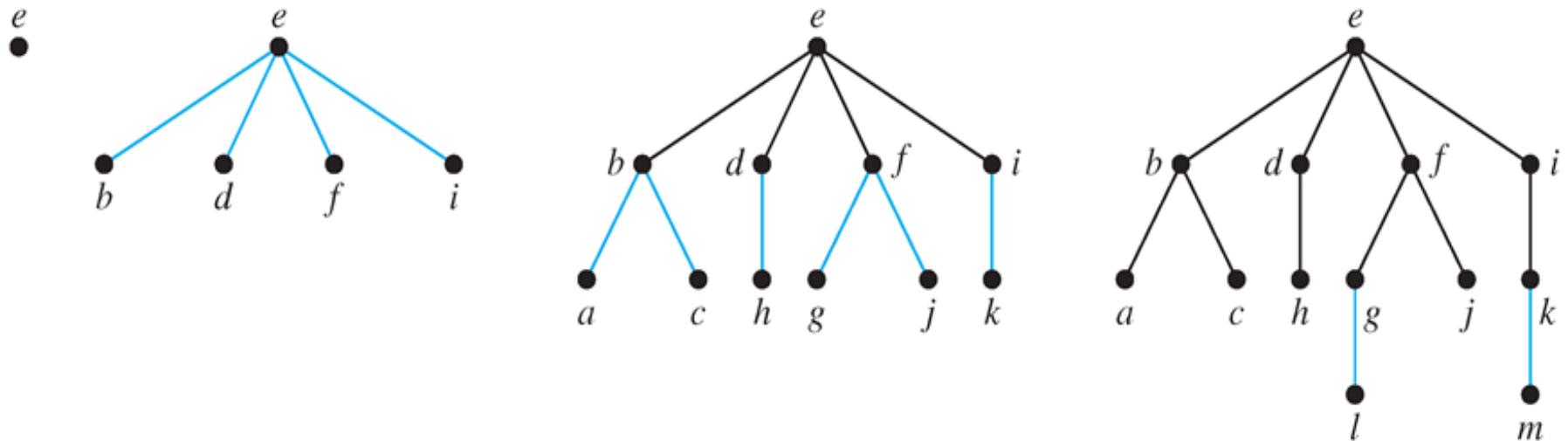
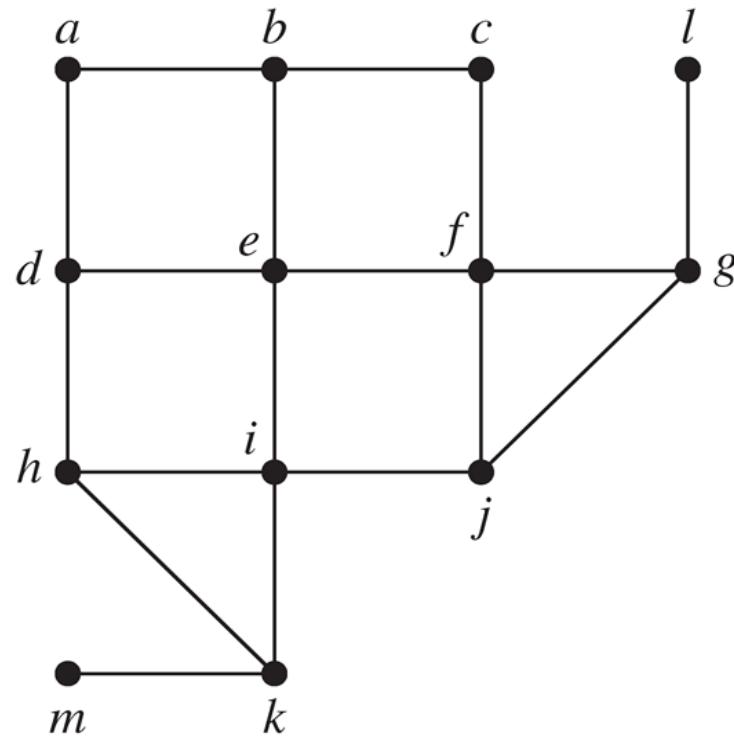
Breadth-First Search

- **Example**



Breadth-First Search

Example



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  $L$   
                add  $w$  and edge  $\{v,w\}$  to  $T$ 
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Applications of DFS, BFS

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

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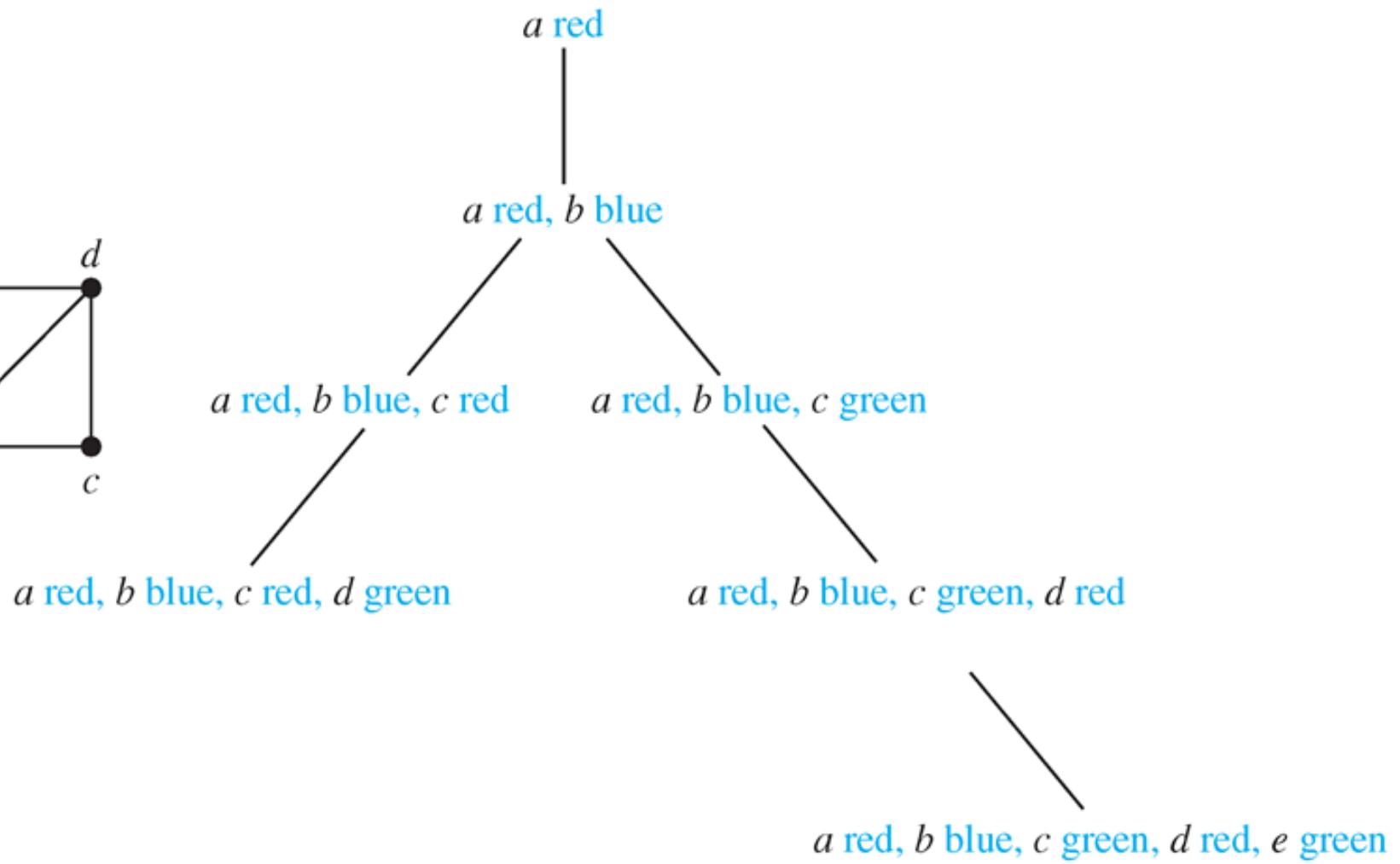
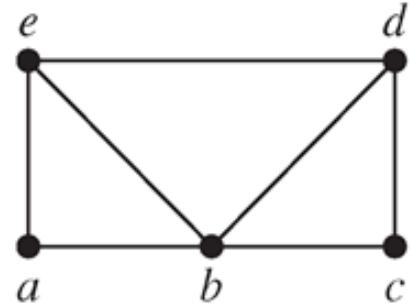
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graph coloring, sums of subsets, ...

Applications of DFS, BFS

■

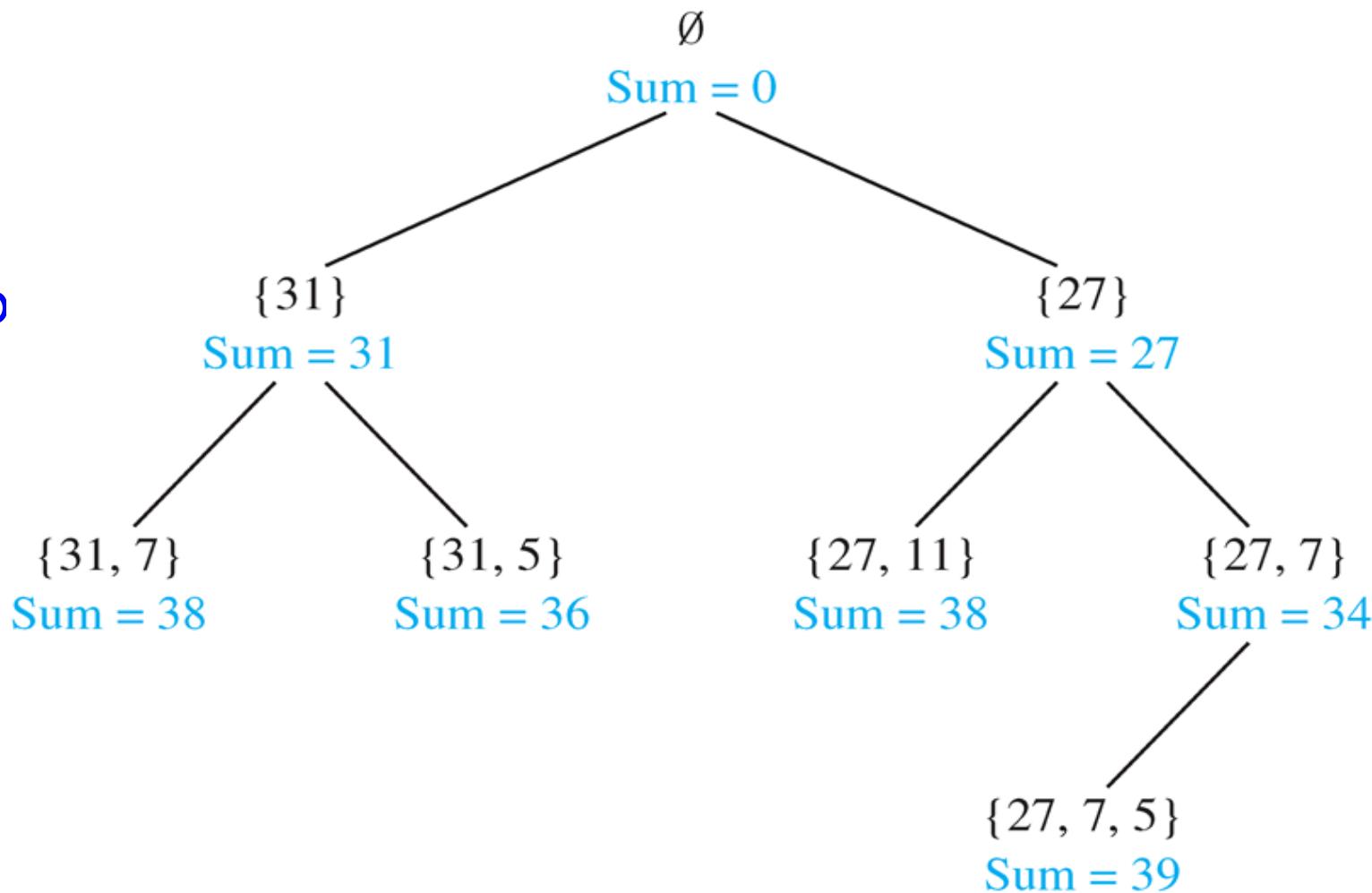


Applications of DFS, BFS

- find ~~other~~ ~~disjoint~~ connected components ~~and vertices~~, ...

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  
    return  $T$  { $T$  is a minimum spanning tree of  $G$ }
```

Prim's Algorithm

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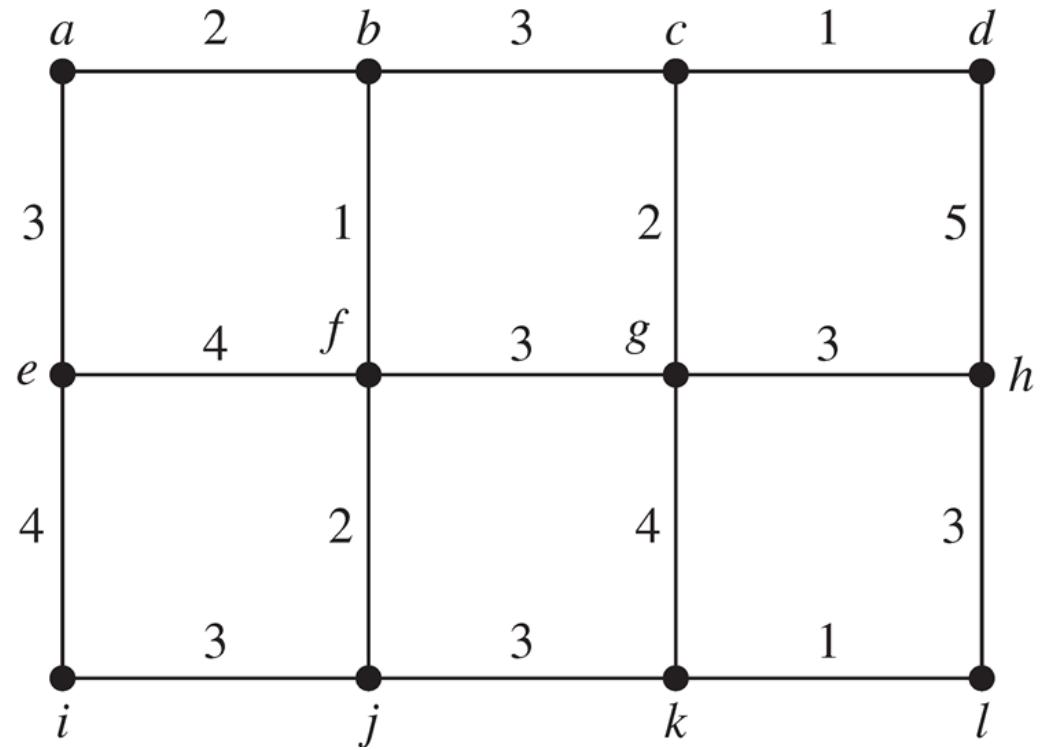
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We can maintain a *heap* of all the edges with at least one endpoint in T , and in each iteration, we do *Extract-Mins* until we see an edge that has one endpoint in T and one endpoint not in T .

time complexity: $e \log v$

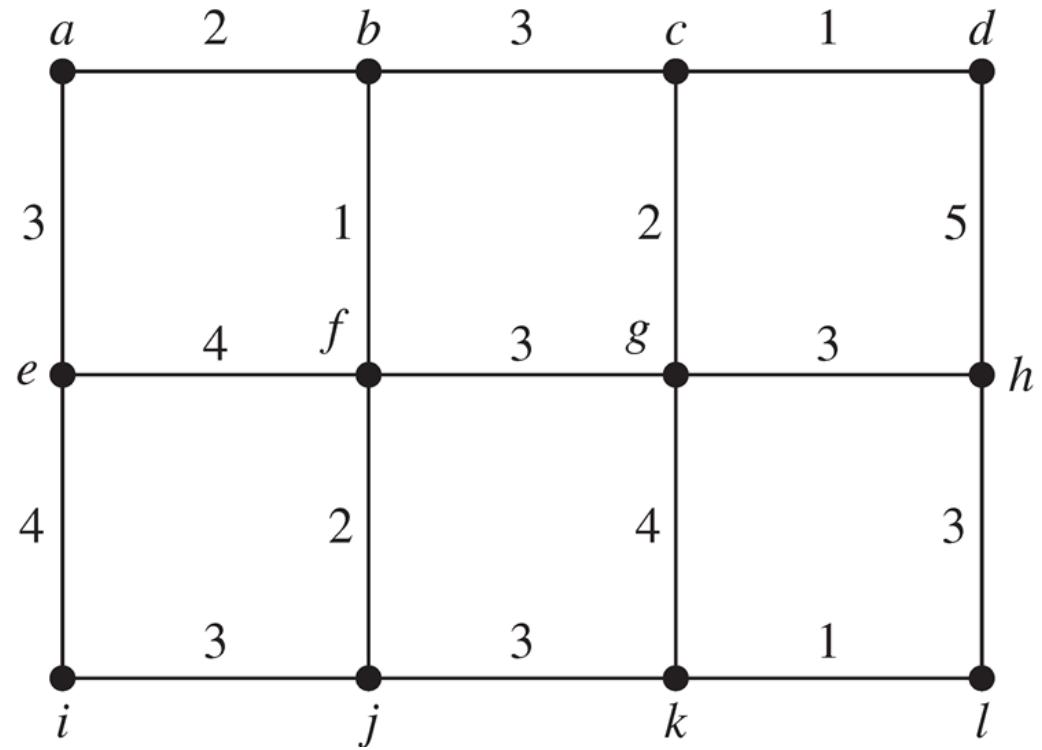
Prim's Algorithm

■ Example



Prim's Algorithm

Example



Choice	Edge	Weight
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3	{f, j }	2
4	{a, e}	3
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 }	<u>1</u>
Total:		<u>24</u>

Prim's Algorithm: Correctness

- Proof by *induction*.

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

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

Kruscal's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 2 Kruskal's Algorithm.

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procedure Kruskal( $G$ : weighted connected undirected graph with  $n$  vertices)
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Union-Find

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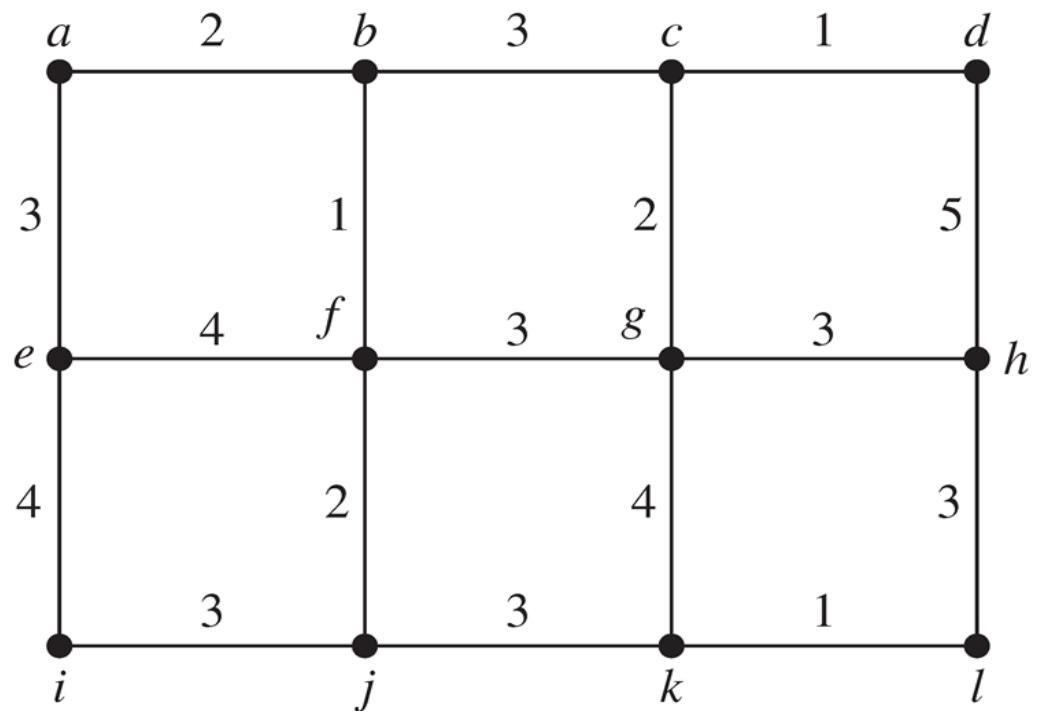
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Union-Find

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

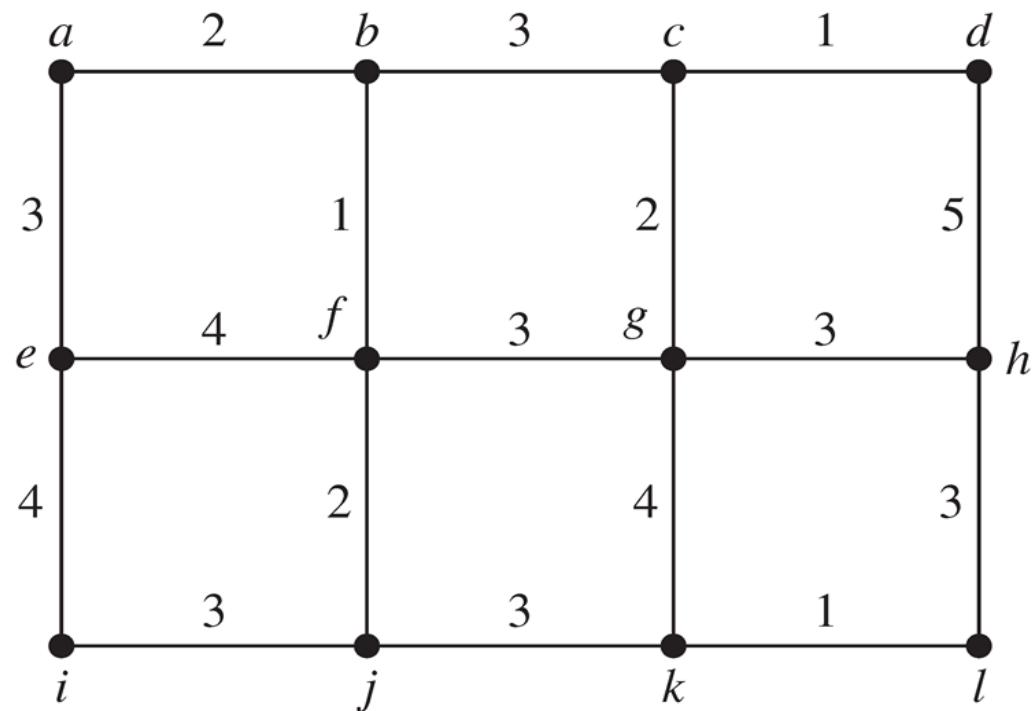
Kruscal's Algorithm

■ Example



Kruscal's Algorithm

■ Example



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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 ...

