cs 5800 - hw10

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## 1 Exercise 22.1-5

For the adjacency-matrix representation of a graph G=(V,E), we assume that the vertices are numbered 1,2,...,|V| in some arbitrary manner. Then the adjacency-matrix representation of a graph G consists of a  $|V| \times |V|$  matrix  $A=(a_{ij})$  such that

 $f(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (i,j) \in E \\ 0, & \text{otherwise } n \end{cases}$ 

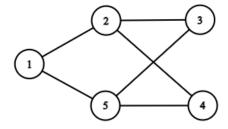
We have algorithm:

```
1: for i = 0 to V do
       for j = 0 to V do
2:
           G^2[i][j] \leftarrow 0
3:
           for k = 0 to V do
4:
              if G[i][k] == 1 and G[k][j] == 1 then
5:
                  G^2[i][j] = 1
6:
               end if
7:
           end for
8:
9:
       end for
10: end for
11: return G^2
```

The  $G^2$  may be computed in  $V^3$  times, so the running time is  $O(V^3)$ .

# 2 Exercise 22.2-6

Let G = (V, E) be the first graph and  $G' = (V, E_{\pi})$  be the second graph, and let 1 be the source vertex.



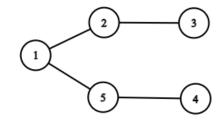


Figure 1: first graph

Figure 2: second graph

The breadth-first search systematically explores the edges of G to "discover" every vertex that is reachable from 1. Suppose that 2 proceeds 5 in the adjacency list of 1.We could see that  $E_{\pi}$  will never be produced by running breadth-first search on G.

- If 5 precedes 2 in the Adj[1]. We will dequeue 5 before 2, so  $3.\pi$  and  $4.\pi$  are both 5, which is not true.
- If 2 preceded 5 in the Adj[1]. We will dequeue 2 before 5, so  $3.\pi$  and  $4.\pi$  are both 2, which again is not true.

Therefore, the set of edges  $E_{\pi}$  cannot be produced by running breadth-first search on G no matter how the vertices are ordered in each adjacency list.

# 3 Exercise 22.2-7

Color the vertices of graph of rivalries by two colors, "babyface" and "heel". We use BFS of each connected component to get the distance value for each vertex.

- 1) Initialize graph G(V, E) source vertex's color is "babyface".
- 2) Assign all wrestlers whose distance is even to be "babyface" color, and all wrestlers whose distance is odd to be "heel" color.
- 3) Verify each vertex's color. If vertex doesn't have any color, then its adjacency vertex will be colored by a different color. Otherwise, vertex has color and its color same with its adjacency vertex color, then it means that it is not possible to find a designation.

We have algorithm to verify each vertex's color:

```
1: for each vertex u \in G.V - \{s\} do
       if u.color == UNCOLORED then
           u.color \leftarrow "heel"
3:
           if adjacency vertex of u color is "heel" then
4:
              adjacency vertex of u color \leftarrow "babyface"
5:
           else
6:
              adjacency vertex of u color \leftarrow "heel"
7:
           end if
8:
           for neighbor of adjacency vertex of u do
9:
10:
              if neighbor.color == UNCOLORED then
                  neighbor.color = adjacency vertex of u color
11:
              else
12:
                  if neighbor.color \neq adjacency vertex of u color then
13:
                      return FALSE
14:
                  end if
15:
              end if
16:
           end for
17:
18:
       end if
19: end for
20: \mathbf{return} \ TRUE
```

Time analysis: this algorithm will take O(n+r) time for the BFS where n is the number of vertex and r is the number of edge in graph G.

# 4 Exercise 22.3-7

#### Algorithm 1 Rewrite DFS using a stack to eliminate recursion

```
1: function DFS(G)
2:
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
          u.color = WHITE
3:
          u.\pi = NIL
4:
       end for
5:
       time \leftarrow 0
6:
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
7:
          if u.color == WHITE then
8:
              DFS-VISIT(G, u)
9:
          end if
10:
       end for
11:
12: end function
13:
14:
```

```
15: function DFS-VISIT(G, u)
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
16:
17:
           u.color = WHITE
           u.\pi = NIL
18:
       end for
19:
       \operatorname{stack.PUSH}(u)
20:
       while stack is not empty do
21:
           x = stack.TOP
22:
           flag = TRUE
23:
           for each v \in G : Adj[x] do
                                                                           \triangleright explore edge (x, v)
24:
25:
              if v.color == WHITE then
                  v.\pi = x
26:
                  flag = FALSE
27:
                  time = time + 1
28:
                  v.d = time
29:
                  v.color = GRAY
30:
                  \operatorname{stack.PUSH}(v)
31:
32:
               end if
           end for
33:
           if flag == TRUE then
                                          ▶ if all neighboring vertex of the element at the top
34:
                                             ▷ of stack are not white (all marked as GRAY or
              y = \text{stack.POP}
35:
              y.color = BLACK
36:
                                                                ▷ BLACK), then the stack pop
               time = time + 1
37:
38:
               y.f = time
           end if
39:
       end while
40:
41: end function
```

# 5 Exercise 22.3-10

We can define four edge types in the depth-first forest  $G_{\pi}$  produced by a depth-first search on G: Tree edge, Back edge, Forward edge, and Cross edge. The DFS algorithm has enough information to classify some edges as it encounters them. The key idea is that when we first explore an edge (u,v), the color of vertex v tells us something about the edge:

- WHITE indicates a tree edge,
- GRAY indicates a back edge, and
- Black indicates a forward or cross edge

The first case is immediate form the specification of the algorithm. For the second case, observe that the GRAY vertices always from a linear chain of descendants corresponding to the stack of active. DFS-VISIT invocations. Exploration

always proceeds from the deepest GRAY vertex, so an edge that reaches another GRAY vertex has reached an ancestor. The third case handles the remaining possibility: edge (u, v) is a forward edge if u.d < v.d and a cross edge if u.d > v.d.

Algorithm 2 Prints out every edge in the directed graph G with its type

```
1: function DFS(G)
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
2:
3:
          u.color = WHITE
          u.\pi = NIL
4:
       end for
5:
       time \leftarrow 0
6:
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
7:
8:
          if u.color == WHITE then
              DFS-VISIT-PRINT(G, u)
9:
10:
          end if
       end for
11:
12: end function
13:
14: function DFS-VISIT-PRINT(G, u)
15:
       time = time + 1
                                                  ▶ white vertex u has just been discovered
16:
       u.d = time
       u.color = GRAY
17:
       for each v \in G.Adi[u] do
                                                                       ⊳ explore edge (u, v)
18:
          if v.color == WHITE then
19:
             print "(u, v) is a tree edge"
20:
              v.\pi = x
21:
              DFS-VISIT-PRINT(G, v)
22:
23:
          else
24:
             if v.color == GRAY then
                 print "(u, v) is a back edge"
25:
             else
26:
27:
                 if v.d > u.d then
                     print "(u, v) is a forward edge"
28:
                 else
29:
                    print "(u, v) is a cross edge"
30:
31:
                 end if
              end if
32:
          end if
33:
       end for
34:
35: end function
```

An undirected graph may entail some ambiguity in how we classify edges, since (u, v) and (v, u) are really the same edge. In such a case, we classify the edge as the first type in the classification list that applies. Equivalently, we classify the edge according to whichever of (u, v) or (v, u) the search encounters first. For

DFS-VISIT-PRINT algorithm, if G is undirected we don't need to make any modifications.

### 6 Exercise 22.3-12

On the basic of DFS, we could add a numerical identifier cc of connected components to count how many connected components. The input graph G may be undirected or directed. The variable time is a global that used for time stamping and DFS-VISIT procedures to assign values to the cc attributes of vertices.

#### **Algorithm 3** Identify the connected components of G

```
1: function DFS(G)
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
 2:
          u.color = WHITE
 3:
          u.\pi = NIL
 4:
       end for
 5:
       time \leftarrow 0
 6:
       k \leftarrow 1
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
 8:
          if u.color == WHITE then
 9:
              u.cc = k
10:
              k = k + 1
11:
              DFS-VISIT(G, u)
12:
          end if
13:
       end for
14:
15: end function
16:
17: function DFS-VISIT(G, u)
18:
       time = time + 1
                                                  ▶ white vertex u has just been discovered
       u.d = time
19:
       u.color = GRAY
20:
       for each v \in G.Adj[u] do
                                                                       ⊳ explore edge (u, v)
21:
22:
          v.cc = u.cc
          if v.color == WHITE then
23:
              v.\pi = x
24:
              DFS-VISIT(G, v)
25:
          end if
26:
       end for
27:
       u.color = BLACK
                                                                   ⊳ blacken u; it is finished
28:
       time = time + 1
29:
       u.f = time
30:
31: end function
```

#### 7 Exercise 22.4-5

### Algorithm 4 Topological sorting to find a vertex of in-degree 0

```
1: function Topological-Sort(G)
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
                                                                        ▷ initialize in-degree
 2:
 3:
          u.in - degree = 0
       end for
 4:
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
 5:
                                                                        for each vertex v \in G.Adi[u] do
 6:
              v.in - degree = v.in - degree + 1
 7:
          end for
 8:
 9:
       end for
       Q \leftarrow \varnothing
                                                                            ▷ initialize queue
10:
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
11:
          if u.in - degree == 0 then
12:
              \text{ENQUEUE}(Q, u)
13:
          end if
14:
       end for
15:
       while Q is not \emptyset do
16:
          u = \text{DEQUEUE}(Q)
17:
18:
          Output u
          for each vertex v \in G.Adj[u] do
19:
              v.in - degree = v.in - degree - 1
20:
              if v.in - degree == 0 then
21:
                 \text{ENQUEUE}(Q, v)
22:
23:
              end if
          end for
24:
       end while
25:
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
                                                                           26:
          if u.in - degree \neq 0 then
27:
              report there is a cycle
28:
29:
          end if
30:
       end for
31: end function
```

To find and output vertices of in-degree 0, we compute all vertices in-degree by making pass through all the edges and incrementing the in-degree of each vertex an edge enters. If there are no cycles, all vertices are output. Otherwise, not all vertices will be output because some in-degree never become 0.

# 8 All paths from s to t must have a common vertex

Thinking of any breadth-first spanning tree T of graph G with s as the root. In T, each node v has a level, which is the number of edges in a shortest path from s to v. Since every path from s to t has at least  $l=1+\frac{|V|}{2}$ , node t occurs at a level  $\geq l$ . Thinking of level 1 through  $\frac{|v|}{2}$ , the total number of nodes in level 1 through  $\frac{|v|}{2}$  is at most |v|-2 (Since node s and t doesn't in these level). If each of these level has 2 or more nodes, then total number of nodes in G will exceed |V|. Therefore, there must be a level in the range 1 through  $\frac{|v|}{2}$  containing just one node v which is a common vertex of s to t. We have algorithm:

- Construct a BFS of G, run it starting from node s. For each level i, construct the list L[i] of the node
- Find a level j where  $1 \le j \le \frac{|V|}{2}$  such that L[j] has only one node v
- $\bullet$  Output node v

For the running time, the step 1 takes O(V+E) time since we construct a BFS of G. Step 2 takes O(V) time and step 3 takes O(1) time. Therefore, the algorithm runs in O(V+E) time.

## 9 Exercise 23.1-3

#### **Algorithm 5** Growing a minimum spanning tree

```
1: function CENTRIC-MST(G, w)

2: A \leftarrow \varnothing

3: while A does not from a spanning tree do

4: find an edge(u, v) that is safe for A

5: A = A \cup \{(u, v)\}

6: end while

7: return A

8: end function
```

In this CENTRIC-MST, prior to each iteration, A is a subset of some minimum spanning tree. At each step, we determine an edge (u, v) that we can add to A without violating this invariant, and we can add it safely to A while maintaining the invariant. Assume we've already get a set of edges A, let's get rid of an edge (u, v), then draw a cut. In this case, our strategy is to choose a light edge because the cut respects A and (u, v) is a light edge for this cut.

#### 10 Exercise 23.2-2

#### **Algorithm 6** Prim's algorithm runs in $O(v^2)$ time

```
1: function MST-PRIM(G, w, r)
       for each vertex u \in G.V do
2:
          u.key = \infty
3:
          u.\pi = NIL
4:
       end for
5:
       r.key = 0
6:
       Q = G.V
7:
       while Q is not \emptyset do
8:
          u = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)
9:
          for each vertex v \in G.Adj[u] do
10:
              if MATRIX[u][v] == 1 and v \in Q and w(u, v) < v.key then
11:
12:
                  v.\pi = u
                  v.key = w(u, v)
13:
              end if
14:
          end for
15:
       end while
16:
17: end function
```

### 11 Exercise 23.2-4

The running time of Kruskal's algorithm for a graph G=(u,v) depends on how we implement the disjoint-set data structure. We assume that we use the disjoint-set-forest implementation of Book Section 21.3 with the union-by-rank and path-compression heuristic, since it is the asymptotically fastest implementation known. The total running time is  $O((V+E)\alpha(V))$  where  $\alpha$  is very slowly growing function defined in Book Section 21.4. Assume graph G is connected, we have  $|E| \leq |V| - 1$ , and so the disjoint-set operations take  $O(E\alpha(V))$  time. Moreover, since  $\alpha(|V|) = O(lgV) = O(lgE)$ , the total running time of Kruskal's algorithm is O(ElgE).

If alledge weights are integers in the range from 1 to |V|, then we could sort the edges in O(V+E) time using counting sort. Since we assume the graph G is connected, V=O(E) and so the sorting time is reduced to O(E). The total running time would be  $O(V+E+E\alpha(V))=O(W\alpha(V))$  since V=O(E) and  $E=O(E\alpha(V))$ .

If the edge weights are integers in the range from 1 to w for some constant w, then we still apply counting sort to sort edges. The sorting time would take O(E+w) = O(E) time since w is a constant. The total running time is  $O(E\alpha(V))$ .

# 12 Exercise 23.2-5

The running time of Prim's algorithm depends on how we implement the minpriority queue Q. We can improve the asymptotic running time of Prim's algorithm by using Fibonacci heaps. Book Chapter 19 shows that if a Fibonacci heap holds |V| elements, an EXTRACT-MIN operation takes O(lgV) amortized time and a DECREASE-KEY operation takes O(1) amortized time. Therefore, if we use a Fibonacci heap to implement the min-priority queue Q, the running time of Prim's algorithm improves to O(E + V lgV).

If the edge weights are integers in the range from 1 to w for some constant w, we can implement the queue as an array Q[0...w+1]. EXTRACT-MIN scan the array and find the first non-empty slot in O(1) time, and DECREASE-MIN also takes O(1) time. The total running time is O(E).