GB13604 - Maths for Computer Science

Lecture 5 – Graphs Part II

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This course is based on Mathematics for Computer Science, Spring 2015, by Albert Meyer and Adam Chlipala, Massachusetts Institute of Technology OpenCourseWare.

Exercise Discussion, Weeks 3 and 4

Week 4 and 5 summary

Graphs

Lecture I: Chapter 9

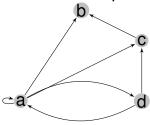
- Walks and Paths
- Scheduling and Partial Orders
- Equivalence Relations

Lecture II: Chapter 11

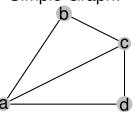
- Isomorphism
- Coloring and Connectivity
- Spanning Trees
- Matching

Simple Graphs and Directed Graphs

Directed Graph:



Simple Graph:



- No double edges allowed;
- No self-loop allowed;

Simple Graphs: Formal definitions

A Simple Graph G consists of:

- A non-empty set V of vertices;
- A set E of edges so that:
 - Each edge has two endpoints in V

(not an **start** and an **end**)

The order of the vertices do not matter.

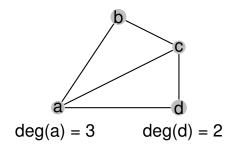
$$e_1 = \{v_1, v_2\} = \{v_2, v_1\}$$

- Two vertices with an edge between them are adjacent
- An edge that connects two vertices is incident to them.

(e_1 is incident to v_1 and v_2)

The Degree of a Vertex

The degree of a vertex is the number of incident edges.



Quiz: Is there a graph with degrees:

- 2, 2, 1?
- 3, 2, 2, 1?

Degree Properties

The Handshaking Lemma:

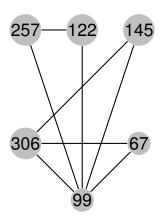
The sum of degrees must be 2x the number of edges

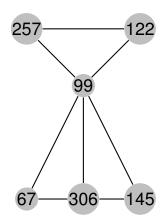
$$2|E| = \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) \tag{1}$$

Proof: Each edge contribute 2 to LHS of (1)

So "2 + 2 + 1 = odd" is impossible!

Isomorphism: The Graph Abstraction

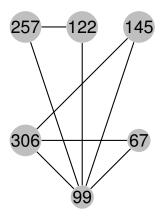


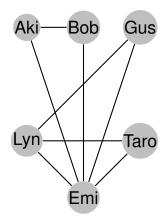


8 / 55

Same Graph, Different Layouts

Isomorphism: The Graph Abstraction





Same Graph, Different Labels

Isomorphic Graphs

9 / 55

Isomorphic Graphs

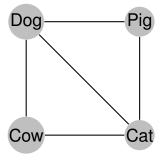
- To determine isomorphism, all that matters is connections;
- Graphs with the same connections are isomorphic

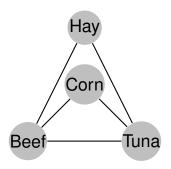
- Two graphs are isomorphic if there is a Edge Preserving Matching of their vertices.
 - ...In other words, a **bijection** between the vertices.

10 / 55

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Are these Graphs Isomorphic?





$$f(cow) = Hay$$

 $f(pig) = Corn$

Is this a Bijection? Are the Edges preserved?

Formal Definition of Graph Isomorphism

 G_1 isomorphic to G_2 means that \exists Edge Preserving Vertex Matching:

$$\exists f: V_1 \to V_2, (u, v) \in E_1 \iff (f(u), f(v)) \in E_2$$
 (2)

Two graphs are nonisomorphic if:

- Not the same number of vertices;
- Not the same number of edges;
- Not the same degree distribution;
- Differenes in Paths, Distances, etc...

12 / 55

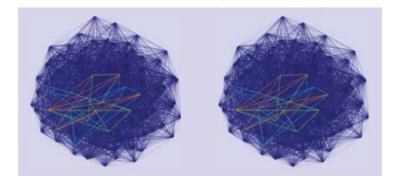
Finding Isomorphism

- Small Graphs: Check properties by hand;
- Large Graphs: Search for a matching f: V₁ → V₂ that Preserve Isomorphic Properties:
 - Check vertices with same Degree. (Degree 4 must match with degree 4)
 - Check degrees of adjacent vertices. (Degree 4 adjacent to degree 3 must be matched with degree 4 adjacent with degree 3)

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Finding Isomorphism

Even then, finding an isomorphism is a very expensive problem. In theory, we cannot guarantee that any algorithm to detect isomorphism is better than checking each bijection.



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Graph Coloring

Planes and Gates

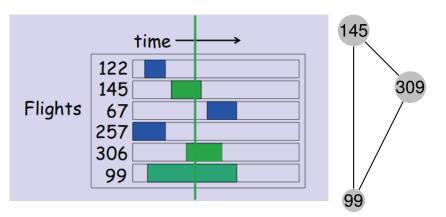
Graph Coloring is closely related to Scheduling Problems

Example:

- Every flight requires a gate for embark/disembark
- Sometimes flight times overlap.
- How many gates do we need?

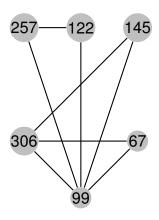


Gate Usage Graph



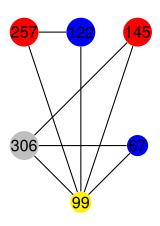
We define a Gate Usage Graph where two flights are neighbors if they are on the ground at the same time.

Full Conflict Graph and the Coloring Problem



- Color vertices so that adjacent vertices don't have the same color.
- If Edges = conflict, then min # colors = min # of gates.

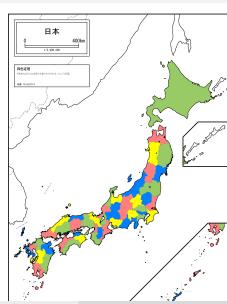
Full Conflict Graph and the Coloring Problem



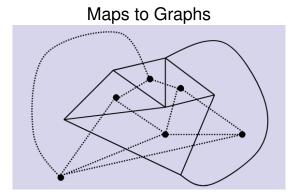
- We select colors for each vertex so that no adjacent vertex has the same color.
- Each color = One new Gate
- Final gate assignment:
 - Blue Gate: Flight 122 and 67
 - Red Gate: Flight 145 and 257
 - Yellow Gate: Flight 99
 - Gray Gate: Flight 306
- Can you find a better coloring using only 3 gates?

Conflict Allocation Problems

- Allocate classrooms for courses, when courses can be at the same time.
- Allocate cages for animals, when some animals can not be at the same cage.
- Different Frequencies for radio stations, when the radio stations interfere with each other
- Map Coloring!



Vertex Coloring and Face Coloring



Theorem: Maps can always be colored with 4 colors

- 1970: "Proof" with computers (checks 1000's of maps)
- 1990: Better Mathematical Proof. (still need program)

Chromatic Number

The Chromatic Number $\chi(G)$ is the minimum number of colors neecessary to color G.

Examples:

• Cycle Graphs: $\chi(C_{\text{even}}) = 2$, $\chi(C_{\text{odd}}) = 3$





• Complete Graph with n vertices: $\chi(K_n) = n$





• Wheel Graph: $\chi(W_{\text{odd}}) = 4, \chi(W_{\text{even}} = 3)$

Bounding Chromatic Numbers

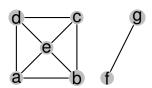
- All degrees $\leq k \implies \chi(G) \leq k+1$ (Proof by Greedy coloring algorithm).
- Is the graph 2-colorable?(easy to check: e.g.: BFS)
- Is the graph 3-colorable?

(hard to check)

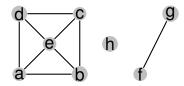
• Is $\chi(G) = k$? (in theory, not harder than 3 color, harder in practice).

Connectivity Definition

- Two vertices are connected iff there is a path between the two.
- Every vertice is connected to itself.
- A whole graph is connected if every vertice is connected to each other.



Connected Components

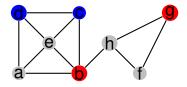


- Every Graph is composed of connected subgraphs called connected components
- connected component of v ::= {w | w connected to v}.
- connected component of $v = E^*(v)$ (walk relation of v)
- A graph is connected iff it has exactly 1 connected component.

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Edge connectivity

 vertices v, w are k-edge connected if they remain connected whenever fewer than k edges are deleted.



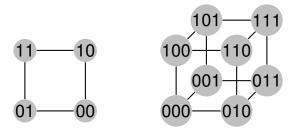
- blue vertices are 3-edge connected, red vertices are 1-edge connected;
- A Graph is k-edge connected if all pairs of vertices are at least k-edge connected.

Edge Connectivity

- Edge Connectivity represents the degree of fault tolerance in a graph.
- **Example:** In a communication network, how many channels can fail before communication is disrupted?
- Related Concept: k-vertice connectivity
 - k-vertice connected graph ⇒ k-edge connected;
 - BUT! k-edge connected

 k-vertice connected.
- The complete graph K_n is n-1 connected.

Connectivity and Hypercubes



- Consider the *n*-dimensional hypercube H_n
- $V(H_n) ::= \{0, 1\}^n$
- $E(H_n) := \{(u, v) \text{ iff } u \text{ and } v \text{ differ in 1 bit } \}$
- H_n is n vertex connected. (H_n has n^2 vertices)

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Trees

Tree Definitions

- Trees are connected Graphs with no cycles.
- Has 1-edge connectivity, 1-vertex connectivity.
- Chromatic Number = 2
- Trees come up all the time:
- Family Trees;
- Search Trees:
- Game Trees:
- Parse Trees:

- Spanning Trees;
- Rooted Trees:
- Ordered Trees:
- Binary Trees;
- etc...

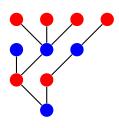
30 / 55

A few more definitions

- Cut Edge: An edge is a cut edge if removing it makes two edges disconnected.
- Lemma: An edge is not a cut edge if it is on a cycle.
- A tree is a connected graph where every edge is a cut edge
- This implies that a tree is a connected graph which is Edge Minimal
 - A tree has the minimum number of edges necessary to connect a set of vertices.

Tree Coloring

- A tree is a graph with a unique path between every pair of vertices.
- As a consequence, $\chi(\text{tree}) = 2$
- Constructive Demonstration
- Pick any node in the tree to be the root, color it "blue".
- Color nodes "odd" length from the root as "red"
- · Color nodes "even" length from the root as "blue"
- This is the algorithm for 2-coloring on general graphs

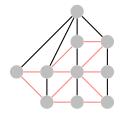


2018-11-07

32 / 55

Spanning Trees

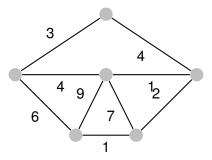
- A Spanning Subgraph of G is a subgraph of G that has all vertices of G (and some of the edges).
- A Spanning Tree of G is a spanning graph of G that is also a tree.



- One graph can have multiple spanning trees.
- Every connected graph has a spanning tree.

Weighted Spanning Trees

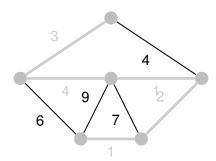
The Spanning Tree problem becomes more interesting when we consider weighted edges.



What is the minimal cost structure that allows me to connect everything?

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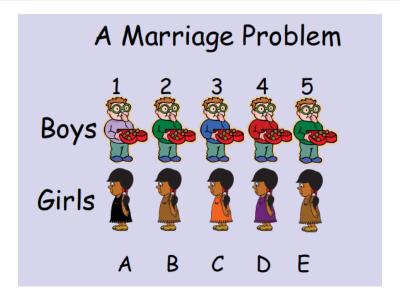
Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithm



- 1 Start with one arbitrary vertex and add it to the MST.
- 2 From all edges connected with the MST, select one with minimum weight;
- 3 Add the edge, and vertex, to the MST;
- 4 Return to (2)

Stable Matching Problem

The Stable Marriage Problem

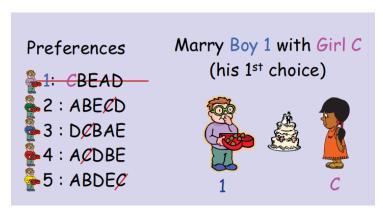


Each boy and girl has a preference list

Preferences	
Boys 1: CBEAD 2: ABECD 3: DCBAE 4: ACDBE 5: ABDEC	Girls A: 35214 B: 52143 C: 43512 D: 12345 E: 23415

"Boy-greedy" Algorithm

Let's marry each boy to their favorite girl:



2018-11-07

39 / 55

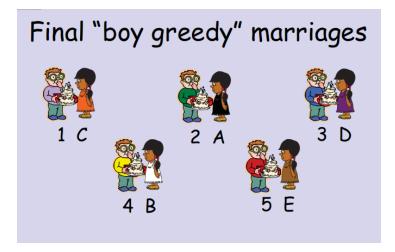
"Boy-greedy" Algorithm

Let's marry each boy to their favorite girl:

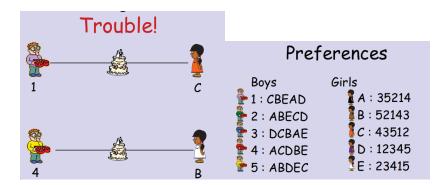
Next: Marry Boy 2 with Girl A Preferences (his remaining 1st choice) 2 : ABED 3 : DB*A*É 4 : ADBE 5 : ABDE

"Boy-greedy" Algorithm

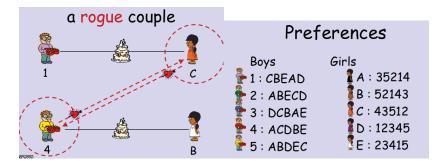
Final pairing:



Trouble with the boy Greedy algorithm!

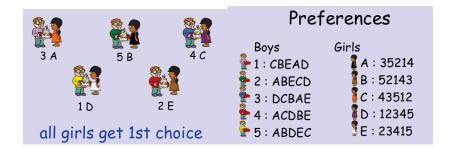


Trouble with the boy Greedy algorithm!



QUIZ: Find a better pairing!

One stable matching (Girl Greedy)



Why is the Stable Marriage Problem Important?

- School Admissions in the US
- Matching between Hospitals and Doctors
- Akamai Server/Request Matching
- Etc...

45 / 55

The "Mating Ritual" Algorithm

Let us describe an algorithm to **always** find a stable matching:

Start State: No boy is proposing to any girl;

- 1 If all girls have \leq 1 proposers (and it is not the first iteration), they marry and the algorithm stops.
- 2 Any girl that has > 1 proposers, they reject all except the favorite boy.
- If any boy is not proposing to anyone, they propose to their favorite girl.
- 4 Return to (1).

Example Execution

Preferences Boys Girls 1: CBEAD A: 35214 2: ABECD B: 52143 3: DCBAE C: 43512 4: ACDBE D: 12345 5: ABDEC E: 23415

- iter 1: No rejections. Proposals:
 - A: 2, 4, 5
 - B:
 - C: 1
 - D: 3
 - E:
- iter 2: A rejects 2 and 4. Proposals:
 - A: 5
 - B: 2
 - C: 1, 4
 - D: 3
 - E:

Example Execution

Preferences Boys Girls 1: CBEAD A: 35214 2: ABECD B: 52143 3: DCBAE C: 43512 4: ACDBE D: 12345 5: ABDEC E: 23415

- iter 3: C rejects 1. Proposals:
 - A: 5
 - B: 1, 2
 - C: 4
 - D: 3
 - E:
- iter 4: B rejects 1. Proposals:
 - A: 5
 - B: 2
 - C: 4
 - D: 3
 - E: 1

Proof of Correctness

- The algorithm stops;
- The algorithm is correct when it stops;

Proof of Correctness: The algorithm stops

Every day, the total number of girls in the boy's lists is reduced.

- The number of girls in the boy's list is reduced when someone is rejected.
- If no one is rejected then the algorithm stops.
- Therefore, every iteration the list of girls reduces by at least one.

Because the total number of girls is strictly decreasing, the algorithm must stop.

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Proof of Correctness: No rogue couples

- Lemma 1: The rank of a girl's favorite is weakly increasing
 Every iteration, the girl rejects a favorite iff she finds a better one.
- Lemma 2: The rank of a boy's favorite is weakly decreating
 Every iteration, the boy stays with current favorite, or
 - Every iteration, the boy stays with current favorite, or is rejected and goes to the next lower one.

Proof of Correctness: No rogue couples

Invariant: If G_i is not on B_j list, she has a better curent favorite.

- At the moment that G_i rejected B_i, she had a better favorite (definition of rejection rule)
- A girl's favorite never get worse (lemma 1)

52 / 55

Proof of Correctness: No rogue couples

Lemma: When a Boy B_i marries, he cannot form a rogue couple.

Proof by Cases:

- **Case 1:** B_i tries to form a rogue couple with someone not on his list. However, by Invariant, any girl not on his list has a better favorite, and no rogue couple is possible.
- Case 2: B_i tries to form a rogue couple with someone on his list. However, by Lemma 2, B_i always propose to the best girl in his list, and no rogue couple is possible.

Therefore, no rogue couple is possible.

Main Points for Today's Class

- Coloring Problems, and Chromatic Number;
- Trees, and Minimum Spanning Tree;
- · Matching, and the Stable Marriage Problem;

Extra Topics

Check the class materials for "Hall's Graphs", for more information on matching.