

GB13624 - 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.



Graphs – Lectures 4 and 5

Lecture I: Chapter 9

- Graphs and Relations
- Directed Graphs and Walks
- Scheduling and Partial Orders

Lecture II: Chapter 11

- Using Isomorphism
- Coloring and Connectivity
- Spanning Trees
- Matching

Part 1: Graph Isomorphism

① Graph Isomorphism

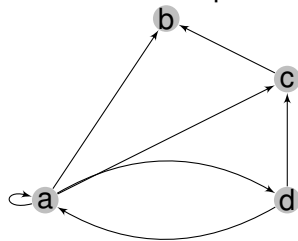
② Coloring

③ Trees

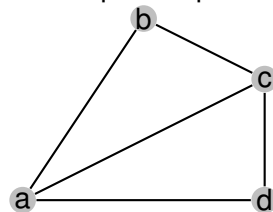
④ Stable Matching

Directed Graphs and Simple Graphs

Directed Graph:



Simple Graph:



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

Simple Graphs

Some 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 :
 - The order of the vertices in an edge does not matter:
 - Two vertices with an edge between them are **adjacent**
 - An edge that connects two vertices is **incident** to them.

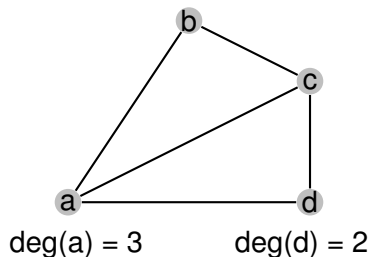
(**not an start and an end**)

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

Ex: e_1 is **incident** to v_1 and v_2

Vertex Degrees

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



Quiz: Can you build a graph with following vertex degrees?

- 3, 2, 2, 1 (four vertices)
- 3, 2, 2, 2 (four vertices)

Verdice Degrees

The Handshaking Lemma

Lemma: The sum of vertice degrees in a graph is 2x the number of edges.

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

Proof.

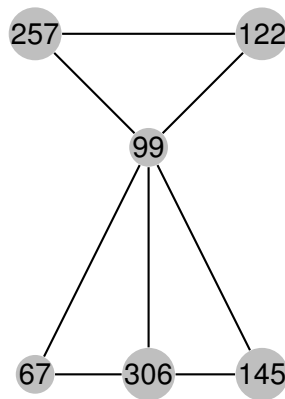
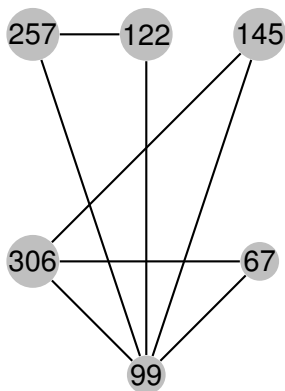
- Every edge in a graph connects two vertices;
- If we begin with a graph with 0 edges, for every edge (v_i, v_j) that we add to the graph, we add 2 vertice degrees (one for v_i , one for v_j).
- So the total of vertices is 2 times the total of edges.



Because of the lemma, it is impossible to make a graph with vertice degrees 3, 2, 2, 2.

Review: Isomorphism in graphs

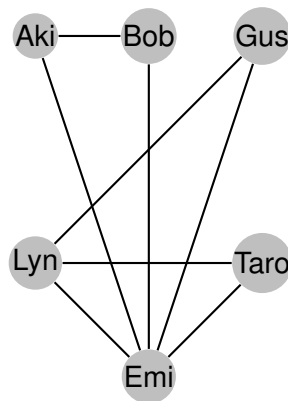
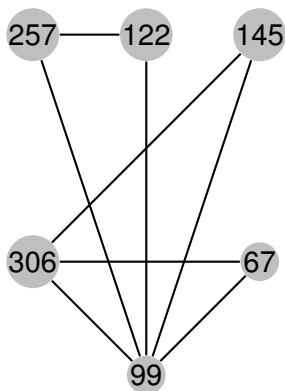
Remember: an isomorphism is an edge preserving bijection



The left and the right are **the same graph**, but with different positions for the vertices.

Review: Isomorphism in graphs

Remember: Isomorphism is an edge preserving vertex bijection



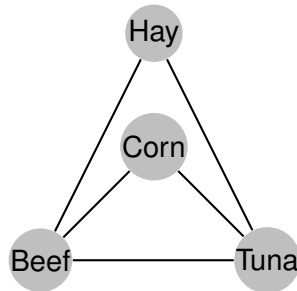
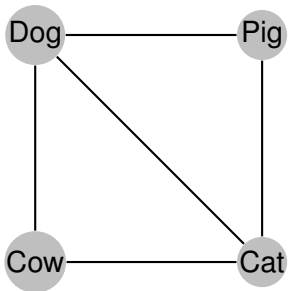
The left and the right are **the same graph**, but with different **labels** for the vertices.

Isomorphism

- Graph Isomorphism is determined solely by the edges between vertices;
- Two graphs with the same edge connections are **isomorphic**;
- Formally, two graphs are isomorphic if there is an **Edge Preserving Matching Relation** between their vertices;

Isomorphism

Are these graphs Isomorphic?



Edge Preserving Bijection:

$f(\text{dog}) = \text{Beef};$

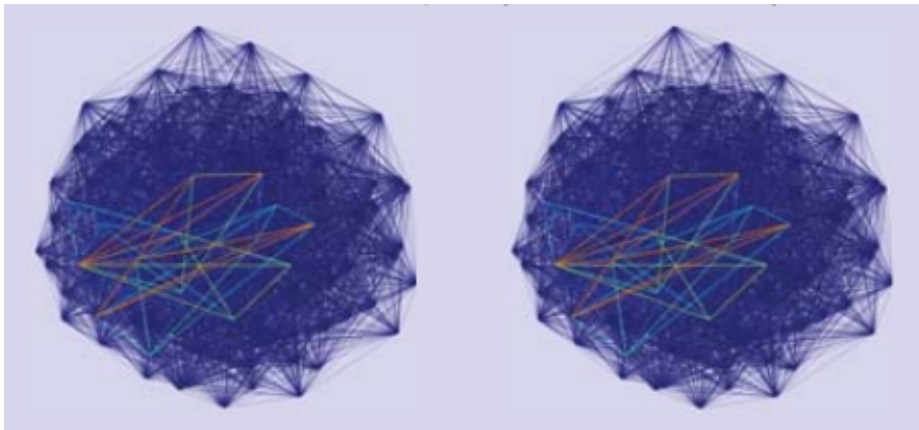
$f(\text{cat}) = \text{Tuna};$

$f(\text{cow}) = \text{Hay}$

$f(\text{pig}) = \text{Corn}$

Isomorphism

Are THESE graphics Isomorphic? (2)



Graph Isomorphism

Edge Preserving Bijection

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

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

It is easy to quickly identify **non-isomorphic** graphs:

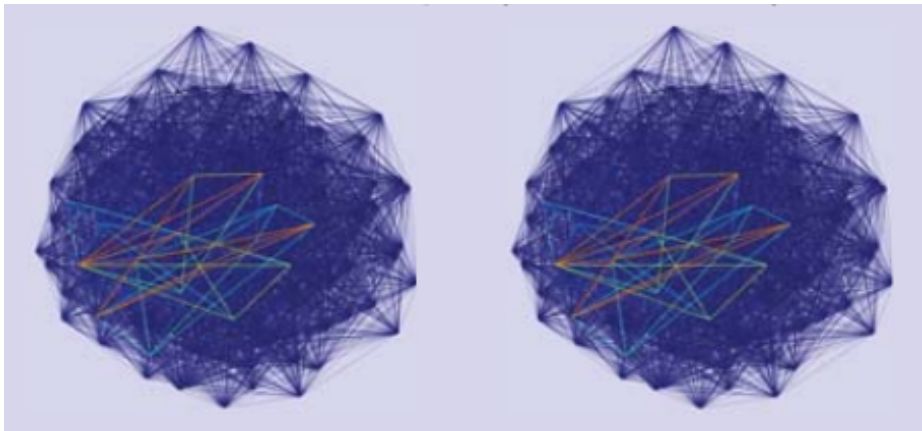
- Not the same number of vertices;
- Not the same number of edges;
- Not the same degree distribution;
- Differences in Paths, Distances, etc...

How to find Graph Isomorphism?

- Finding the bijection is very hard:
 - Total Number of possible bijections: permutation on $|V|$
- If the graph is "small", can check the permutations by hand;
- If the graph is "large", create random matchings $f : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$, and check:
 - Quickly prune matchings that are **not** isomorphic:
 - Vertices in the bijection must have the same degree. (ex: a vertice with edge 4 must match to another vertice with edge 4)
 - *Adjacent vertices* must match degree as well. (ex: A vertice with degree 3, and neighbors with degree 4, 2, 1)

How to find Graph Isomorphism?

Finding an isomorphism for two graphs is a very expensive, and important, problem. In theory, there is no algorithm that is better than just checking every possible bijection.



Part 2: Graph Isomorphism

① Graph Isomorphism

② Coloring

③ Trees

④ Stable Matching

Graph Coloring: Airplanes and boarding gates

Graph coloring is a problem with several applications, such as [scheduling problems](#). Let's look at Gate scheduling:

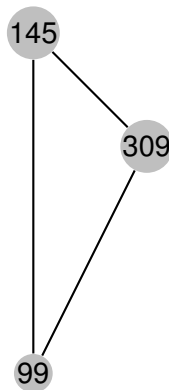
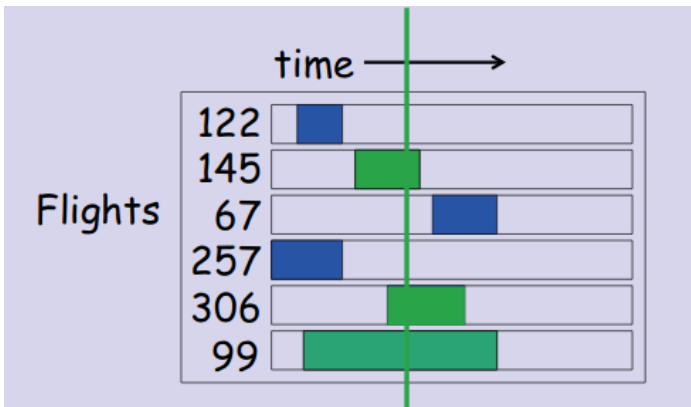
Example:

- Every flight requires a [gate](#) for embark/disembark;
- Sometimes flight times overlap, so multiple gates are necessary;
- How many gates do we need to satisfy a flight schedule?

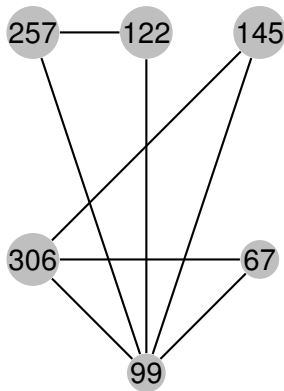


Boarding Gate Scheduling Graph

Let's define a **Gate Scheduling Graph**, where each flight is a vertex, and an edge indicates that **two flights are on the ground at the same time**.

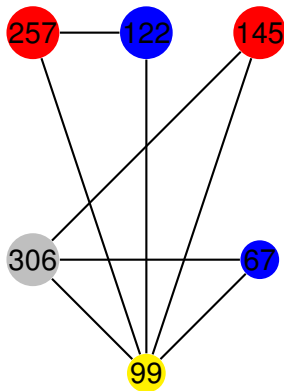


Gate Scheduling Graph and Coloring



- If each flight is a vertex, and each edge is a conflict, we can use **graph coloring** to solve the problem.
- Each color is a new gate.
- If two vertices have an edge between them, the flights are **in conflict**, and their colors must be different.
- The minimum number of colors to color all vertices is the same as the minimum number of boarding gates.

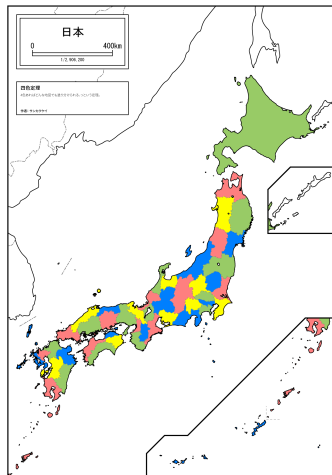
Gate Scheduling Graph and Coloring



- 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**?

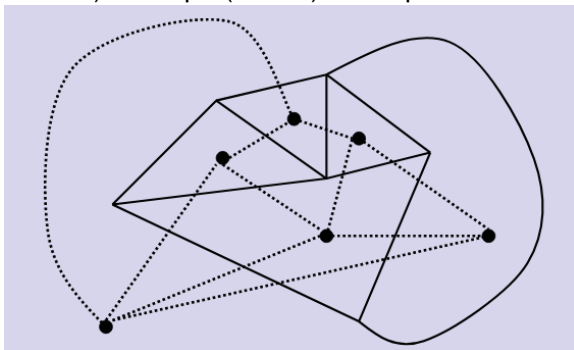
More Graph Coloring Problems

- Allocate classrooms for courses.
Some courses can be at the same time.
- Allocate cages for animals. Some animals can't live in the same cage.
- Different Frequencies for radio stations.
Some frequencies interfere with each other
- Color a map so that it look pretty!



Vertex Coloring and Face Coloring

Graphs (Vertices) to Maps (Faces) are equivalent when coloring!



Theorem: Maps can always be colored with 4 colors

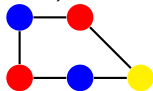
- 1970: “Proof” with computers (automatically checks 1000’s of maps)
- 1990: Better mathematical proof. (still needs programmed testing)

Chromatic Number

The Chromatic Number $\chi(G)$ is the **minimum** number of colors needed for a graph G .

Examples: There are several rules for certain kinds of graphs:

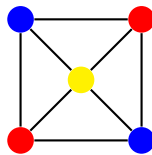
- Cycle Graphs: $\chi(C_{\text{even}}) = 2$, $\chi(C_{\text{odd}}) = 3$



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



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



Bounding Chromatic Numbers

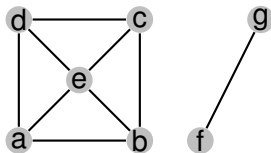
What is the maximum Chromatic Number?

- If all vertex degrees are $\leq k \implies \chi(G) \leq k + 1$
(Proof by Greedy coloring algorithm).
- Is a graph 2-colorable?
(**easy** to check: do a Breath First Search and mark as you go)
- Is a graph 3-colorable?
(**very hard** to check: NP complete!)
- Is $\chi(G) = k$?
(in theory not harder than 3 color, harder in practice).

Connectivity

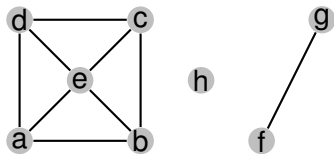
Definition

- Two vertices are **connected** **iff** there is a **path** between the two.
- Every vertice is connected to itself. (even if it does not have a self-edge)
- A whole **graph** is **connected** if every vertex is connected to each other.



Connected Components

Vertex Connectivity

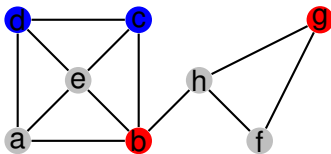


- Every Graph is composed of connected subgraphs called **connected components**
- **connected component** of $v ::= \{w \mid w \text{ connected to } v\}$.
- **connected component** of $v = E^*(v)$ (walk relation of v)
- A graph is **connected** **iff** it has exactly 1 connected component.

Connected Components

Edge connectivity

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



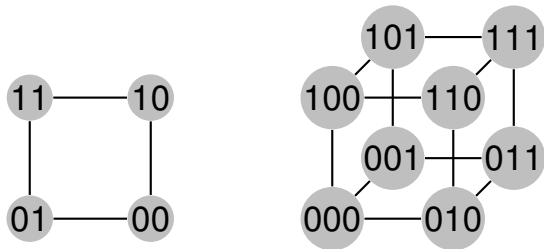
- In this graph, the blue vertices are 3-edge connected, and the red vertices are 1-edge connected;
- A **Graph** is k -edge connected if all pairs of vertices are at least k -edge connected.

Connected Components

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-vertex connectivity**
 - k-vertex connected graph \implies k-edge connected;
 - **BUT!** k-edge connected $\not\implies$ k-vertex 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)

Part 3: Trees

- 1 Graph Isomorphism
- 2 Coloring
- 3 Trees**
- 4 Stable Matching

Trees and Connectivity

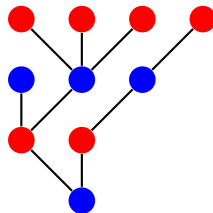
- **Trees** are connected Graphs with **no cycles**.
- Every tree 1-edge connectivity, 1-vertex connectivity.
- Chromatic Number = 2 (trees can always be bi-colored)
- Trees come up all the time:
 - Family Trees;
 - Search Trees;
 - Game Trees;
 - Parse Trees;
 - Spanning Trees;
 - Rooted Trees;
 - Ordered Trees;
 - Binary Trees;
 - etc...

Trees and Connectivity

- **Cut Edge:** An edge is a cut edge if removing it makes two vertices 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.

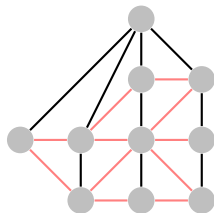
Tree Coloring

- 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



Spanning Trees

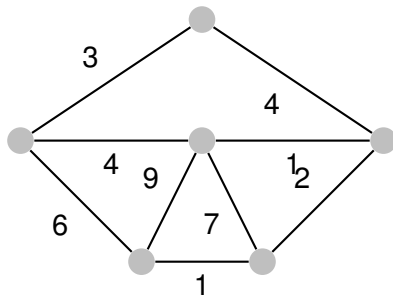
- A **Spanning Subgraph** of G is a subgraph of G that has all vertices of G (and some of the edges).
- A **Spanning Tree** of G is a spanning graph of G that is also a tree.



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

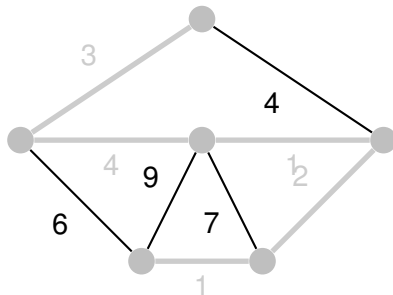
Weighted Spanning Trees

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



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

Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithm

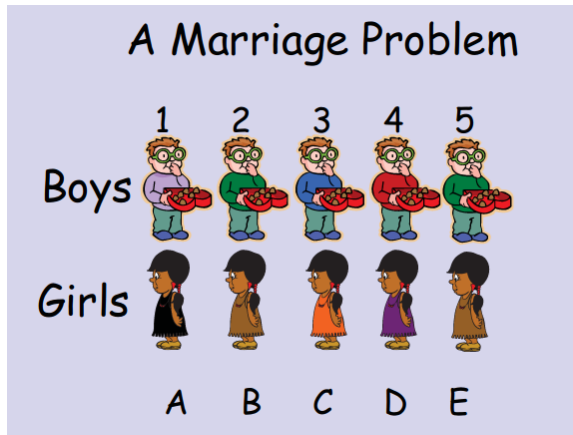


- 1 Start with one arbitrary vertex and add it to the MST.
- 2 From all edges connected with the MST, select one with minimum weight;
- 3 Add the edge, and vertex, to the MST;
- 4 Return to (2)

Part 4: Stable Matching

- 1 Graph Isomorphism
- 2 Coloring
- 3 Trees
- 4 Stable Matching**

The Stable Marriage Problem

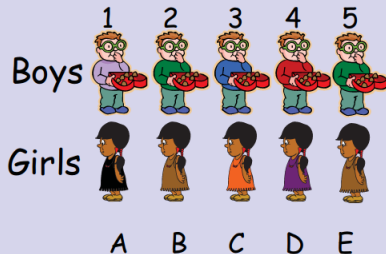


Which boy should marry with which girl?

The Stable Marriage Problem

Each boy and girl has a preference list

A Marriage Problem



Preferences

Boys

1 : CBEAD
 2 : ABECD
 3 : DCBAE
 4 : ACDBE
 5 : ABDEC

Girls

A : 35214
 B : 52143
 C : 43512
 D : 12345
 E : 23415

Which algorithm do you use to match them?

The "Boy-greedy" algorithm

Boy-greedy algorithm: Each boy, in order, marries to favorite girl:

Preferences

1: ~~C~~BEAD
 2: AB~~E~~CD
 3: D~~C~~BAE
 4: A~~C~~DBE
 5: ABDE~~C~~

Marry Boy 1 with Girl C
 (his 1st choice)



1







C

The "Boy-greedy" Algorithm

Boy-greedy algorithm: Each boy, in order, marries to favorite girl:

Preferences

 ~~2~~ : ~~A~~BED
 3 : DBA ~~E~~
 4 : A ~~D~~BE
 5 : A ~~B~~DE

Next:

Marry Boy 2 with Girl A
(his remaining 1st choice)



2



A

The "Boy-greedy" Algorithm

Final Pairings

Final "boy greedy" marriages



1 C



2 A



3 D



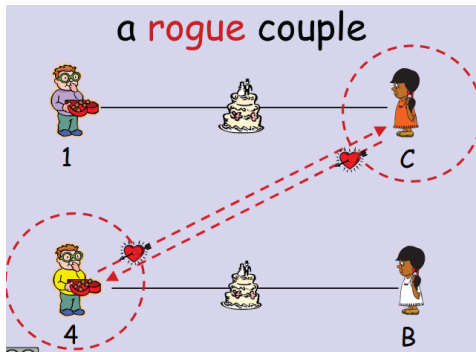
4 B



5 E

The "Boy-greedy" Algorithm

Rogue Couples



Preferences

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

Girl C likes Boy 4 better than Boy 1. Boy 4 likes Girl C better than Girl B.
Can we find a pairing without rogue couples?

A stable matching

Using a Girl Greedy algorithm



Preferences

Boys

- 1 : CBEAD
- 2 : ABECD
- 3 : DCBAE
- 4 : ACDBE
- 5 : ABDEC

Girls

- A : 35214
- B : 52143
- C : 43512
- D : 12345
- E : 23415

Why is the Stable Marriage Problem Important?

- School Admissions in the US
 - Matching school preference and student preference
- Server/Client Request Matching
 - In large webpages, multiple HTTP servers serve the same page for multiple clients;
 - Servers are matched to clients by geolocation, etc;
- Etc...

The "Mating Ritual" Algorithm

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

- States:
 - Each boy is proposing to some girl.
 - Each girl has a list of proposers.
- **Start State:** Every boy is proposing to their favorite girl.











Algorithm:

- 1 If all girls have ≤ 1 proposers in their list, they are paired and the algorithm ends;
- 2 Any girl with > 1 proposers in their list reject all except their favorite proposer;
- 3 If a boy is rejected, they propose to the next girl in their list;
- 4 Return to (1).

The Mating Ritual Algorithm

Example

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:

The Mating Ritual Algorithm

Example

Preferences

Boys



1 : CBEAD

2 : ABECD

3 : DCBAE

4 : ACDBE

5 : ABDEC

Girls



A : 35214

B : 52143

C : 43512

D : 12345

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

The "Mating Ritual" Algorithm

Proof of Correctness

To prove the correctness of an algorithm, requires that you demonstrate two facts:

- The algorithm stops at some point after the start state;
- 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.

- Every day, **At least one boy** is rejected by **at least one girl**
 - If no boy is rejected, it means that all girls have ≤ 1 boys in their list
 - If all girls have ≤ 1 boys in their list, the algorithm stops;
- At some point, every boy's list will have **no girls**:
 - A boy with no girls in their list will propose to no one.
 - If no boys propose, then all girl's lists are empty.
 - Then the algorithm stops.

The total size of "Boy's Lists" is **strictly decreasing**, so the algorithm is guaranteed to stop.

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 decreasing**
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 current favorite.

- At the beginning of the algorithm, G_i is on B_j list;
- G_i will reject a boy proposing to her only if a better favorite is also proposing to her;
- This implies that a girl's favorite never get worse (lemma 1)

Proof of Correctness: No rogue couples

Lemma: When boy B_i is paired, 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.

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