Notes for Operations Research & More

Lan Peng, PhD Student

Department of Industrial and Systems Engineering University at Buffalo, SUNY lanpeng@buffalo.edu

September 8, 2019

September 8, 2019

Contents

Ι	Graph and Network Theory	5				
1	Basic concepts 1.1 Graph					
2	Paths, Trees, and Cycles 2.1 Walk 2.2 Path and Cycle 2.3 Tree and forest 2.4 Special Graphs 2.5 Complexity	10 11				
3	Shortest-Path Problem					
4	Minimum Spanning Tree Problem					
5	Maximum Flow Problem					
6	Minimum Cost Flow Problem					
7	Assignment and Matching Problem 2					
8	Graph Algorithms					
9	Polygon Triangulation 9.1 Types of Polygons	$\frac{25}{26}$				

4 CONTENTS

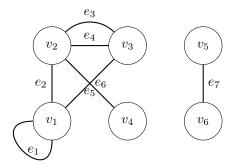
Part I Graph and Network Theory

Basic concepts

1.1 Graph

Definition 1.1.1 (Graph). A graph G consists of a finite set V(G) on vertices, a finite set E(G) on edges and an incident relation than associates with any edge $e \in E(G)$ an unordered pair of vertices not necessarily distinct called ends.

For example, the following graph



can be represented as

$$V = V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6\}$$
(1.1)

$$E = E(G) = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7\}$$
(1.2)

$$e_1 = v_1 v_2, e_2 = v_2 v_4, \dots (1.3)$$

Definition 1.1.2 (loop, parallel, simple graph). An edge with identical ends is called a **loop**, Two edges having the same ends are said to be **parallel**, A graph without loops or parallel edges is called **simple graph**

Definition 1.1.3 (adjacent). Two edges of a graph are adjacent if they have a common end, two vertices are adjacent if they are jointed by an edge.

1.2 Subgraph

Definition 1.2.1 (subgraph). Given two graphs G and H, H is a **subgraph** of G if $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$, $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$ and an edge has the same ends in H as it does in G. Furthermore, if $E(H) \neq E(G)$ then H is a proper subgraph.

Definition 1.2.2 (spanning). A subgraph H on G is spanning if V(H) = V(G)

For a subset $V^{'} \subseteq V(G)$ we define an **vertex-induced** subgraph $G[V^{'}]$ to be the subgraph with vertices $V^{'}$ and those edges of G having both ends in V'

The **edge-induced** subgraph $G[E^{'}]$ has edges $E^{'}$ and those vertices of G that are ends to edges in $E^{'}$ If we combine node-induced or edge-induced subgraphs $G(V^{'})$ and $G(V-V^{'})$, we cannot always get the entire graph.

Let $v \in V(G)$, then the **degree** of $v \in V(G)$ denote by $d_G(v)$ is defines to be the number of edges incident of v. Loops counted twice.

Theorem 1.2.1. For any graph G = (V, E)

$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2|E| \tag{1.4}$$

Proof. \forall edge $e = \mu v$ with $\mu \neq v$, e is and counted once for μ and once for v, a total of two altogether. If $e = \mu \mu$, a loop, then it is counted twice for μ

Corollary 1.2.1.1. Every graph has an even number of odd degree vertices.

Proof.

$$V = V_E \cup V_O \Rightarrow \sum_{v \in V} d(v) = \sum_{v \in V_E} d(v) + \sum_{v \in V_O} d(v) = 2|E|$$
 (1.5)

Paths, Trees, and Cycles

2.1 Walk

Definition 2.1.1 (walk). A walk in a graph G is a finite sequence $w = v_0 e_1 v_1 e_2 ... e_k v_k$, where for each $e_i = v_{i-1} v_i$ the edge and its ends exists in G. We say that walk v_0 to v_k on (v_0, v_k) -walk.

For example,

$$w = v_2 e_4 v_3 e_4 v_2 e_5 v_3 \tag{2.1}$$

is a walk, or (v_2, v_3) -walk

Definition 2.1.2 (origin, terminal, internal, length). For (v_0, v_k) -walk, The vertices v_0 and v_k are called the **origin** and the **terminal** of the walk w, $v_1...v_{k-1}$ are called **internal** vertices. The integer k is the **length** of the walk. Length of w equals to the number of edges.

We can create a reverse walk w^{-1} by reversing w.

$$w^{-1} = v_k e_k v_{k-1} e_{k-1} \dots e_2 v_1 \tag{2.2}$$

(The reverse walk is guaranteed to exist because it is an undirected graph)

Given two walks w and w' we can create a third walk denoted by ww' by concating w and w'. The new walk's origin is the same as terminal.

2.2 Path and Cycle

Definition 2.2.1 (trail). A trail is a walk with no repeating edges. e.g., $v_3e_4v_2e_5v_3$

Definition 2.2.2 (path). A path is a trail with no repeating vertices. e.g., $v_3e_4v_2$

Paths \subseteq Trails \subseteq Walks

Definition 2.2.3 (closed, cycle). A path is **closed** if it has positive length and its origin and terminal are the same. e.g., $v_1e_2v_2e_4v_3e_3v_1$. A closed trail where origin and internal vertices are distinct is called a **cycle** (The only time a vertex is repeated is the origin and terminal)

Definition 2.2.4 (even/odd cycle). A cycle is even if it has a even number of edges otherwise it is odd.

Definition 2.2.5 (connected vertices). Two vertices u and v in a graph are said to be **connected** if there is a path between u and v.

Definition 2.2.6 (component). Clearly connectivity between vertices is an equivalence relation on V(G), if $V_1,...V_k$ are the corresponding equivalent classes then $G[V_1]...G[V_k]$ are components of G.

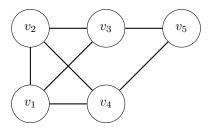
e.g., In the example, $G[V_1]$ and $G[V_2]$ are two component of V where $V_1 = v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4$ and $V_2 = v_5, v_6$ if graph has only one component, then we say the graph is connected. A graph is connected iff every pair of vertices in G are connected, i.e., there exists a path between every pair of vertices.

2.3 Tree and forest

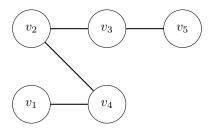
Definition 2.3.1 (acyclic graph). A graph is called acyclic if it has no cycles

Definition 2.3.2 (forest, tree, spanning tree). A acyclic graph is called a **forest**. A connected forest is called a **tree**. A subgraph T of G is a **spanning tree** if it is spanning (V(T) = V(G)) and it is a tree.

For example in the following graph



This is a spanning tree



Every connected graph has a spanning tree. We are going to use the following algorithm as proof.

Algorithm 1 Find a spanning tree for connected graph

Require: a connected graph G and an enumeration $e_1, ... e_m$ of the edges of G
Ensure: a spanning tree T of G

1: Let T be the spanning subgraph of G with V(T) = V(G) and $E(T) = \emptyset$ 2: $i \leftarrow 1$ 3: while $i \leq |E|$ do
4: if $T + e_i$ is acyclic then
5: $T \leftarrow T + e_i$ 6: $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 7: end if
8: end while

Notice: This algorithm can be optimized, one idea is to make summation of edges in spanning subgraph less or equation to |V|-1

To prove algorithm we need to show the output is a spanning tree, which means three properties must hold:

- spanning (Step I)
- acyclic (We never add an edge that create a cycle)
- connected (Proof by contradiction)

So it is sufficient to show that the output will be connected.

2.4. SPECIAL GRAPHS 11

Proof. (Proof by Contradiction) Suppose the output graph T of the algorithm is NOT connected. Let T_1 be a component of T, let $x \in T_1$ and $y \notin T_1$. But G is a connected graph (given from the beginning), so there must be a path in G that connects x and y. Let such a path in G be $p = xe_1v_1e_2, ...v_{k-1}e_ky$. Clearly, $p \notin T_1$. So there must be a first vertex in P that not in T_1 . So $e_i \notin E(T)$, the only way this can happen when applying the algorithm is if $T + e_i$ creates a cycle C, i.e., $e_i \in C$, so $C - e_i$ is a path connecting v_{i-1} and v_i . So $c - e_i \in T$, so v_{i-1} is connected to $v_i \in T$. Contradiction.

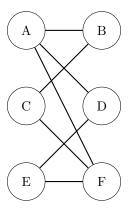
2.4 Special Graphs

Definition 2.4.1. A complete graph $K_n (n \ge 1)$ is a simple graph with n vertices and with exactly one edge between each pair of distinct vertices.

Definition 2.4.2. A cycle graph $C_n (n \ge 3)$ consists of n vertices $v_1, ... v_n$ and n edges $\{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, ... \{v_{n-1}, v_n\}$

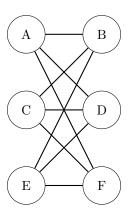
Definition 2.4.3. A wheel graph $W_n (n \ge 3)$ is a simple graph obtains by adding one vertex to the cycle graph C_n , and connecting this new vertex to all vertices of C_n

Definition 2.4.4. A simple graph is said to be **bipantite** if the vertiex set can be expressed as the union of two disjoint non-exmpty subsets V_1 and V_2 such that every edges has one end in V_1 and another end in V_2



The **complete bipartite** graph K_{mn} is the bipartite graph V_1 containing m vertices and V_2 containing n vertices such that each vertiex in V_1 is adjacent to every vertex in V_2

For example K_{33}



2.5 Complexity

This part is going to be moved to Algorithm notes, (or I will just delete this part because of duplication)

FIXME

We want to know guaranteed performances - "worse case" scenarios - for any algorithm working on any problem instance.

Algorithm 2 Add two $m \times n$ matrices A, B to get matrix C

```
for i = 1, 2, ..., m do
for j = 1, 2, ..., n do
C_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}
end for
end for
```

Example:

The "running time" of an algorithm is measured by the number of basic operational steps. For so called "basic" steps, it includes

- \bullet +, -, \times , \div
- \bullet assignments and storage of a variable
- comparisons

For the example above

- c_1mn for addition $C_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}$
- c_2mn for saving C_{ij}
- ullet c_3mn for comparison and assignment for i and j

 c_1, c_2, c_3 does not matter, the number of steps are $m \times n$, we say the algorithm runs O(mn) (big O notation, the worse case)

Shortest-Path Problem

Minimum Spanning Tree Problem

Maximum Flow Problem

Minimum Cost Flow Problem

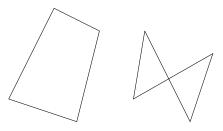
Assignment and Matching Problem

Graph Algorithms

Polygon Triangulation

9.1 Types of Polygons

Definition 9.1.1. A simple polygon is a closed polygonal curve without self-intersection.

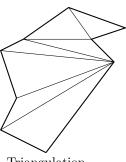


Simple Polygon Non-simple Polygon

Polygons are basic building blocks in most geometric applications. It can model arbitrarily complex shapes, and apply simple algorithms and algebraic representation/manipulation.

9.2 Triangulation

Definition 9.2.1. Triangulation is to partition polygon P into non-overlapping triangles using diagonals only. It reduces complex shapes to collection of simpler shapes. Every simple n-gon admits a triangulation which has n-2 triangles.



Triangulation

Theorem 9.2.1. Every polygon has a triangulation

Lemma 9.2.2. Every polygon with more than three vertices has a diagonal.

Proof. (by Meisters, 1975) Let P be a polygon with more than three vertices. Every vertex of a P is either *convex* or *concave*. W.L.O.G.(any polygon must has convex corner) Assume p is a convex vertex. Denote the neighbors of

p as q and r. If $\bar{q}r$ is a diagonal, done, and we call $\triangle pqr$ is an ear. If $\triangle pqr$ is not an ear, it means at least one vertex is inside $\triangle pqr$, assume among those vertexes inside $\triangle pqr$, s is a vertex closest to p, then $\bar{p}s$ is a diagonal.

9.3 Art Gallery Theorem

Problem 9.3.1. The floor plan of an art gallery modeled as a simple polygon with n vertices, there are guards which is stationed at fixed positions with 360 degree vision but cannot see through the walls. How many guards does the art gallery need for the security? (Fun fact: This problem was posted to Vasek Chvatal by Victor Klee in 1973).

Theorem 9.3.1. Every n-gon can be guarded with $\lfloor \frac{n}{3} \rfloor$ vertex guards

Lemma 9.3.2. Triangulation graph can be 3-colored.

Proof. - P plus triangulation is a planar graph

- 3-coloring means there exist a 3-partition for vertices that no edge or diagonal has both endpoints within the same set of vertices.
- Proof by Induction:
 - Remove an ear (there will always exist ear)
 - Inductively 3-color the rest
 - Put ear back, coloring new vertex with the label not used by the boundary diagonal.

9.4 Triangulation Algorithms

9.5 Shortest Path