# COMP 251: Algorithms & Data Structures

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### 1 Overview of Graph Theory

#### 1.1 Definitions

A graph G=(V,E) is a set V of vertices (a.k.a. nodes) and a set E of edges (denoting vertex pairs). We set n=|V|, and m=|E|. A graph is said to be undirected when for any edge  $(u,v) \in E$  there exists an edge  $(v,u) \in E$  for some nodes u, and v. A graph is said to be directed if it is not undirected. In other words, the edge set of a directed graph consists of ordered pairs where the edge set of an undirected graph consists of unordered pairs.

A walk is a set of vertices  $\{v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_\ell\}$  such that  $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ ,  $\forall 0 \le i \le \ell$ . A walk where  $v_0 = v_\ell$  is said to be a *circuit* or a *closed walk*. A circuit where every edge in the graph is used exactly once is known as an *Eulerian circuit*. A *cycle* is a walk  $\{v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_\ell\}$  such that every vertex is distinct except  $v_0 = v_\ell$ . A cycle where every vertex of the graph is used exactly once is known as a *Hamiltonian cycle*. A walk where every vertex is distinct is said to be a *path*.

A graph is said to be *connected* if for each  $u, v \in V$  there exists a walk from u to v. A graph is said to be *disconnected* id it is not connected. Each connected subgraph of a graph is called a *component*. A connected graph therefore has exactly one component.

A connected component with no cycles is called a *tree*. A graph whose components are all trees is said to be a *forrest*. A tree is said to be *spanning* if it contains every vertex in the graph. A vertex in a tree with at most one neighbour is called a *leaf*.

A matching is a set of vertex-disjoint edges i.e. each edge is incident to at most one other edge in a matching. A matching is said to be *perfect* if every vertex is incident to exactly one edge in the matching.

A *clique* is a set of pairwise adjacent vertices. In *independent set* (a.k.a. a *stable set*) is set of pairwise non-adjacent vertices.

A bipartite graph is a graph such that the vertex set V can be partitioned as  $V = X \cup Y$  where each edge has one node in X and the other node in Y. Note that X and Y are necessarily independent sets.

### 1.2 Some Theorems for Undirected Graphs

**Theorem:** (Handshaking Lemma) Let G = (V, E) be an undirected graph, let  $\Gamma(v) := \{u : (u, v) \in E\}$  be the set of neighbours of a node v, and let the degree  $\deg(v)$  of a vertex v equal the cardinality of  $\Gamma(v)$ . Then there are an even number of vertices with odd degree.

**Proof:** First note that since we're double-counting the number of pairs where

(v,e) is an edge incident to v

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

Since the degree of a vertex is either even or odd, we can partition V into a set of odd-degree vertices  $\mathcal{O}$ , and a set of even-degree vertices  $\mathcal{E}$ . This gives us

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = \sum_{v \in \mathcal{O}} \deg(v) + \sum_{v \in \mathcal{E}} \deg(v)$$

which implies

$$\sum_{v \in \mathcal{O}} \deg(v) = 2 \cdot |E| - \sum_{v \in \mathcal{E}} \deg(v)$$

since both the  $2\cdot |E|$  term is even (obvious) and the  $\sum_{v\in\mathcal{E}}\deg(v)$  term is even

(sum of even numbers) then the  $\sum_{v \in \mathcal{O}} \deg(v)$  term must also be even.

**Theorem:** (Euler's Theorem) If G is an undirected graph then G contains an Eulerian circuit if and only if every vertex has even degree.

**Proof:** Easy proof by induction

**Lemma:** A tree T with  $n \geq 2$  vertices has at least one leaf vertex.

**Proof:** Trees are connected so there exists no vertices with degree 0 when  $n \geq 2$ . Suppose each vertex has degree of at least 2. Then consider the longest path  $P \subseteq T$ ,  $P = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{\ell-1}, v_\ell\}$ . Since  $\deg(v_\ell) \geq 2$ ,  $\exists$  a neighbour (of  $v_\ell$ )  $x \in P$  with  $x \neq v_{\ell-1}$ . If  $x = v_{\ell+1}$  then P is not the longest path, a contradiction. Therefore, for P to be the longest path, x must be somewhere else in P, but this creates a cycle, another contradiction. Thus there must exist at least one node v such that  $0 < \deg(v) < 2$  – a leaf.

**Theorem:** A tree with n vertices has exactly n-1 edges.

**Proof:** Simple proof by induction.

Base case: A tree with one vertex trivially has 0 edges.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume any tree with n-1 vertices has n-2 edges. Inductive Step: Take a tree with  $n \geq 2$  vertices. By the previous lemma this tree contains a leaf vertex v. This implies that  $T \setminus \{v\}$  is a tree with n-1 vertices and by the induction hypothesis  $T \setminus \{v\}$  is a tree with n-2 edges, which implies that T is a tree with n-1 edges.

**Theorem:** (Hall's Theorem) Let  $G = (X \cup Y, E)$  with |X| = |Y| be a bipartite graph. G contains a perfect matching if and only if  $\forall B \subseteq X$ ,  $|\Gamma(B)| \ge |B|$  (Hall's condition).

**Proof:** Firstly, the  $(\Rightarrow)$  direction is fairly obvious. If  $B \subseteq X$  with  $\Gamma(B) < |B|$  then the graph can't have a perfect matching. The  $(\Leftarrow)$  direction is a bit trickier. Suppose Hall's condition is satisfied. Then, take the maximum cardinality

matching M is the graph. If M is perfect then we are done. Otherwise there must exist an unmached vertex  $b_0$ .

- Since Hall's condition holds, we have  $|\Gamma(\{b_0\})| \ge |\{b_0\}| = 1$  so  $b_0$  must have at least one neighbour  $s_0$ .
- Suppose  $s_0$  is matched in M to  $b_1$ .
- Since Hall's condition holds, we have  $|\Gamma(\{b_0, b_1\})| \ge |\{b_0, b_1\}| = 2$  so  $\{b_0, b_1\}$  must have at least one neighbour  $s_1 \ne s_0$ .
- Suppose  $s_1$  is matched in M to  $b_2$ .
- Since Hall's condition holds, we have  $|\Gamma(\{b_0, b_1, b_2\})| \ge |\{b_0, b_1, b_2\}| = 3$  so  $\{b_0, b_1, b_2\}$  must have at least one neighbour  $s_2 \notin \{s_0, s_1\}$ .

• ...

we repeat this argument as long as we can. Since the graph contains a finite number of vertices this process must terminate, but it can only terminate when we reach an unmatched node  $s_k$ . Using the edges we've formed in M we can create a path P from  $b_0$  to  $s_k$  that alternates between using non-matching edges and using matching edges. Swapping the matching edges with the non-matching edges gives us one more matching edge (as we have an odd number of edges.) This is still a valid matching as the internal nodes of P are still incident to exactly one matching edge. Also, the end nodes,  $b_0$  and  $s_k$  were previously unmatched but are now incident to exactly one edge in the new matching. Thus M isn't the maximum capacity matching – a contradiction.

### 1.3 """Data Structures""" for Representing Graphs

#### 1.3.1 Adjacency Matrices

For a graph, an adjacency matrix M is a matrix suxh that

- 1. There is a row for each vertex
- 2. There is a column for each vertex

3. The 
$$ij-th$$
 entry is defined as  $M_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, (i,j) \in E \\ 0, (i,j) \notin E \end{cases}$ 

Note that in an undirected graph the matric is symmetric around the diagonal because  $(i, j) \sim (j, i)$ . Of course this is not necessarily true of directed graphs.

#### 1.3.2 Adjacency Lists

An adjacency list of an undirected graph is such that for each vertex v of V we store a list of its neighbours. For a directed graph we have two lists: one in which we store the in-neighbours of v and one in which we store the out-neighbours of v.

### 1.3.3 Adjacency Matrices vs. Adjacency Lists

The main difference between the two is the amount of storage required to implement them.

- An adjacency matrix requires we store  $\Theta(n^2)$  numbers
- An adjacency list requires we store  $\Theta(m)$  numbers

In any graph  $m = O(n^2)$ . This means that for a sparse graph adjacency lists are highly favourable in terms of space complexity.

Verifying whether an edge exists, however, is much faster in an adjacency matrix – when using the array representation of a matrix it takes O(1) time, where verifying the existance of an edge takes  $O(\log n)$  time for an ordered adjacency list (using binary search), and O(n) time if the adjacency list is not ordered (using sequential search).

## 2 Divide & Conquor

3 Greedy Algorithms

4 Dynamic Programming

## 5 Network Flows

## 6 Data Structures