- (b) Show that there are graphs for which the inequality  $(\star)$  is strict.
- 6. Suppose G = (V, E) is a bipartite graph with partition U, W. Suppose also that |U| = |W|. Let H be the complete bipartite graph with partition U and W (the edges of H are all pairs ij where  $i \in U$  and  $j \in W$ ). Assign weights to the edges of H as follows: for every edge ij,

$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } ij \text{ is an edge of } G \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Recall that y is feasible if for every edge ij of H,  $y_i + y_j \ge w_{ij}$ .

- a) Show that there exists a feasible 0, 1 vector y (i.e. all entries of y are 0 or 1).
- b) Show that if y is integer at the beginning of an iteration of the matching algorithm then y will be integer at the beginning of the next iteration.
- c) Show that there exists a feasible integer vector y and a matching M of G such that

$$\sum_{i\in V} y_i = |M|.$$

HINT: Look at what you have when the matching algorithm terminates.

d) Show that there exists a feasible 0,1 vector y and a matching M of G such that

$$\sum_{i \in V} y_i \le |M|.$$

HINT: Add (resp. substract) the same value  $\alpha$  to all  $y_i \in U$  (resp.  $y_i \in W$ ).

e) Show that there exists a vertex cover S of G and a matching M of G such that |M| = |S|. In particular  $(\star)$  holds with equality for bipartite graphs.

## 3.2.6 Finding perfect matchings in bipartite graphs\*

Hall's Theorem 3.12 states that, in a bipartite graph G with bipartition U, W where |U| = |W|, there is an efficient algorithm that finds a perfect matching in G if one exists, and otherwise returns a deficient set  $S \subseteq U$ ; i.e., a set S that has fewer than |S| neighbours. In this section, we show how this can be accomplished.

We start by introducing a few more matching related terms and definitions. Consider a (possibly empty) matching  $M \subseteq E$ ; we say that a path P in G is M-alternating if its edges

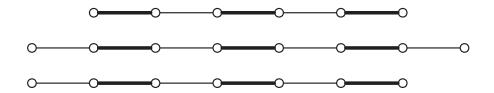


Figure 3.4: *M*-alternating paths (edges in *M* are bold).

alternate between matching and non-matching edges, or equivalently if  $P \setminus M$  is a matching. Examples of alternating paths are given in Figure 3.4. Given a matching M, a vertex v is M-covered if M has an edge that is incident to v, otherwise v is M-exposed. In Figure 3.5(i) vertices  $v_1, v_2, v_4, v_6, v_7, v_8$  are M-covered and vertices  $v_3, v_5$  are M-exposed. In Figure 3.5(ii) all vertices are M-covered, or equivalently M is a perfect matching. An al-

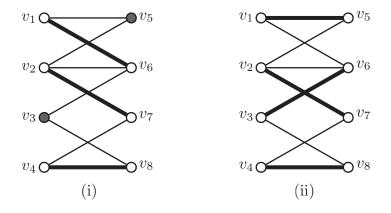


Figure 3.5: *M*-exposed and *M*-covered vertices (edges in *M* are bold).

ternating path P is M-augmenting if its endpoints are both M-exposed. In Figure 3.5(i) the path  $P_1 = v_5v_1, v_1v_6, v_6v_3$  is M-augmenting as both  $v_5, v_3$  are M-exposed, but the path  $P_2 = v_1v_6, v_6v_2, v_2v_7, v_7v_4, v_4v_8, v_8v_3$  is M-alternating but not M-augmenting, as  $v_1$  is M-covered. Observe that the matching M' in Figure 3.5(ii) is obtained from the matching M in Figure 3.5(i), by removing  $v_1, v_6 \in P_1$  from M and adding edges  $v_5v_1, v_6v_3 \in P_1$ . In fact given an M-augmenting path, we can always construct a new matching M' where |M'| = |M| + 1. We formalize this operation next. For two sets A and B, we let  $A\Delta B$  denote the set of those elements in  $A \cup B$  that are not in both A and B; i.e.,  $A\Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)$ . A matching is a maximum matching if there is no matching with more edges.

We leave the following remark as an easy exercise,

**Remark 3.15.** Let M be matching of a graph G and let P be an M-augmenting path. Then  $M' := M\Delta P$  is a matching and |M'| = |M| + 1. In particular, M is not a maximum matching.

For instance in Figure 3.5(i) we had  $M = \{v_1v_6, v_2v_7, v_4v_8\}$ , an augmenting path  $P_1 = v_5v_1, v_1v_6, v_6v_3$  and a matching M' in (ii) where,

$$M' = \{v_1v_6, v_2v_7, v_4v_8\} \Delta \{v_5v_1, v_1v_6, v_6v_3\} = \{v_5v_1, v_2v_7, v_6v_3, v_4v_8\}.$$

In fact the converse of Remark 3.15 holds (but we will not need it), namely, that if a matching is not maximum then there must exist an augmenting path. Thus a plausible strategy for finding a perfect matching is as follows: start with the empty matching  $M = \emptyset$ . As long as there exists an M-augmenting path P, replace M by  $M\Delta P$ . If the final matching is not perfect then no perfect matching exists. Two problems remain however: how do we find an augmenting path, and if no augmenting path exist, how do we find a deficient set? The key to addressing both of these problem is the concept of M-alternating trees, to be defined next.

Let us start with a few definitions. A cycle is a sequence of edges,

$$C = v_1 v_2, v_2 v_3, \dots, v_{k-1} v_k,$$

where  $k \ge 2$  and where  $v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}$  are distinct vertices and  $v_k = v_1$ . In other words a cycle is what we obtain if we identify the endpoints of a path. For instance in Figure 3.6(i) the bold edges form a cycle of the graph. We say that a graph is *connected* if there exists a

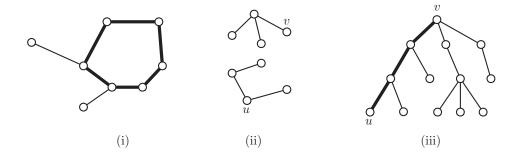


Figure 3.6: Cycles and trees

path between every pair of distinct vertices. For instance in Figure 3.6(ii) the graph is not connected as there is no path with endpoints u and v. A graph is a *tree* if it is connected but has no cycle. In Figure 3.6, the graph in (iii) is a tree, but (i) is not a tree, as it has a cycle, and (ii) is not a tree as it is not connected.

If G is a tree then for any pair of distinct vertices u and v there exists at least one path between u and v (as G is connected). Moreover, it is easy to check that if there existed two distinct paths between u and v we would have a cycle, thus

**Remark 3.16.** In a tree there exists a unique path between every pair of distinct vertices.

Given a tree T with distinct vertices u, v, we denote by  $T_{uv}$  the unique path in Remark 3.16. For instance in Figure 3.6(iii), the path  $T_{uv}$  is denoted in bold. Given a graph G we say that T is a tree of G if T is a tree and T is obtained from G by removing edges and removing vertices. For instance in Figure 3.7, the graph in (ii) is a tree of (i). Given a tree T = (V, E), we call

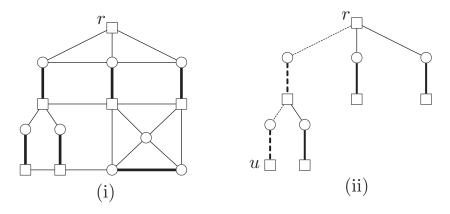


Figure 3.7: *M*-alternating tree (edges in *M* are bold).

a vertex  $u \in V$  a *leaf* if it is incident to exactly one edge. For instance u is a leaf of the tree in Figure 3.7(ii). We are now ready for our key definition. Let G = (V, E) be a graph with a matching M and let  $r \in V$ . We say that a tree T of G is an M-alternating tree rooted at r if,

- r is a vertex of T that is M-exposed in G,
- all vertices of T distinct from r are M-covered,
- for every vertex  $u \neq r$  of T, the unique ru-path  $T_{ru}$  is M-alternating.

The graph in Figure 3.7(ii) is an M-alternating tree rooted at r. For instance for vertex u, the path  $T_{ru}$ , indicated by dashed lines, is an M-alternating path. Given an M-alternating tree T rooted at r we partition the vertices of T into sets A(T) and B(T) where  $r \in B(T)$  and for every vertex  $u \neq r$  of T,  $u \in B(T)$  if and only if the path  $T_{ru}$  has an even number of edges. In Figure 3.7(ii), vertices B(T) correspond to squares and vertices A(T) to circles.

We can now state the algorithm that proves Theorem 3.12. We denote by V(T) the set of vertices of T and by E(T) the set of edges of T. Note, in this algorithm we will view paths as sets of edges. At any time during its execution, the algorithm will maintain a matching M, and an M-alternating tree T. Initially, the matching M is set to the empty set.

## **Algorithm 3.4** Perfect matching.

```
Input: Bipartite graph H = (V, E) with bipartition U, W where |U| = |W| > 1.
Output: A perfect matching M, or a deficient set B \subseteq U.
 1: M := \emptyset
 2: T := (\{r\}, \emptyset) where r \in U is any M-exposed vertex.
 3: loop
       if \exists edge uv where u \in B(T) and v \notin V(T) then
 4:
          if v is M-exposed then
 5:
             P := T_{ru} \cup \{uv\}
 6:
             M := M\Delta P
 7:
 8:
             if M is a perfect matching then stop end if
             T := (\{r\}, \emptyset) where r \in U is any M-exposed vertex.
 9:
          else
10:
             Let w \in V where vw \in M
11:
             T := (V(T) \cup \{v, w\}, E(T) \cup \{uv, vw\})
12:
          end if
13:
14:
       else
          stop B(T) \subseteq U is a deficient set.
15:
       end if
16:
17: end loop
```

We illustrate the algorithm in Figure 3.8. Suppose that  $U = \{b, d, g\}$  and that  $W = \{a, c, f\}$ . Suppose that after a number of iteration we just increased the size of the matching in Step 7 to obtain the matching  $M = \{ab, fd\}$  see figure (i). As M is not a perfect matching, and since |U| = |W|, there must exist a vertex in U that is M-exposed. In our case  $g \in U$  is M-exposed and we define our tree T to consists of vertex g (with no edges), i.e.  $T = (\{g\}, \emptyset)$ . It is trivially an M-alternating tree rooted at g. At the next iteration, we look in Step 4 for an edge incident to a vertex of  $B(T) = \{g\}$  where its other endpoint is not in T. For instance gf is such an edge. We then observe that f is M-covered because of edge