

Week 5

Kernel, tournaments and king*

Continuation from Lecture 8

5.1 Kernel in a directed graph

Is a set of vertices $S \subseteq V(D)$ such that S indicates no edges and every vertex outside of S has a successor in S . Concept of kernel is only defined for directed graph.

Example 1: Let us suppose we take a graph with 4 vertices and 4 edges which are in cycle. Kernel of this directed graph $S_1 = \{1, 3\}$ which are not connected to each other. Similarly $S_2 = \{2, 4\}$ is also a kernel, so there is no unique kernel in this case.

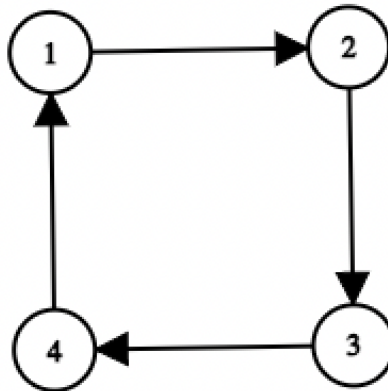


Figure 5.1: Directed Graph to show kernels.

Example 2: Let us suppose we take a graph with 4 vertices and 3 edges which are in cycle. Kernel of this directed graph $S = \{2, 4\}$ which are not connected to each other.

*Lecturer: Anand Mishra. Scribe: Utkarsh Thusoo.

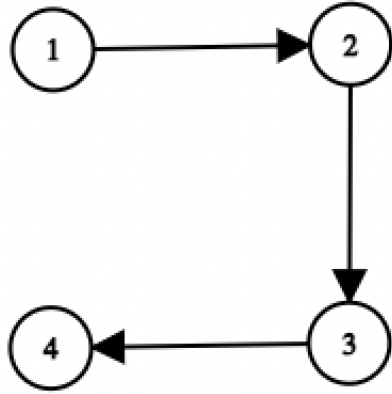


Figure 5.2: Directed Graph to show kernels.

Example 3: Let us suppose we take a graph with 6 vertices and 6 edges which are in cycle. Kernel of this directed graph $S_1 = \{2, 4, 5\}$, $S_2 = \{1, 3, 6\}$ which are not connected to each other.

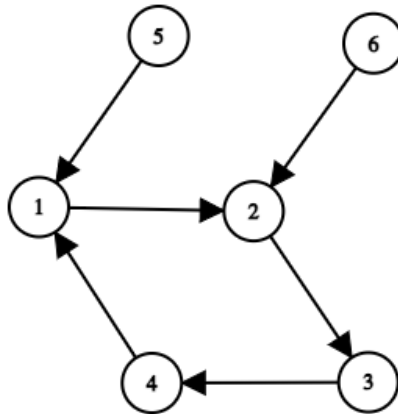


Figure 5.3: Directed Graph to show kernels.

Example 4: For a complete graph kernel will be null.

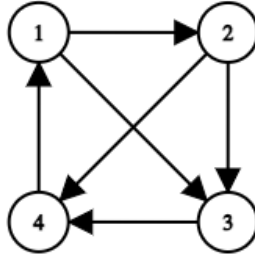


Figure 5.4: Fully connected directed graph.

Example 5: A graph with odd cycles will not have kernel. C_n where n is odd will not have kernel because we need to choose something in S to make a kernel and whatever you choose should be chosen a way such that they should be independent and successor of S . In this case every node has only one successor hence if you don't choose any node then we have to choose its successor and simply put we can never have a scenario where kernel can be created.

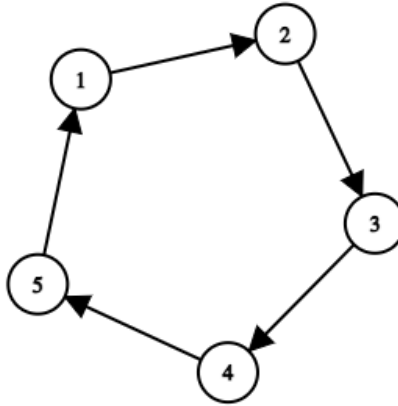


Figure 5.5: Directed graph

Let K be the kernel of C_n , then any $u, v \in K$ should have the following properties

- they should be independent;
- $w \in K$ then w must have successor in K

5.1.1 Outdegree and indegree

Every node in directed graph will have a indegree and outdegree. Number of edges comming into and going out of the graph.

In any directed graph sum of indegrees = sum of all degrees = number of edges in G i.e.

$$\sum_{v \in V(G)} d^+(v) = \sum_{v \in V(G)} d^-(v) = |e(G)| \quad (5.1)$$

Example 1: For the given digram indegree and outdegree of each node would be

- *Outdegree:* For node A , $d^+(A) = 1$, For node B , $d^+(B) = 1$
- *Indegree:* For node A , $d^-(A) = 0$, For node B , $d^-(B) = 2$

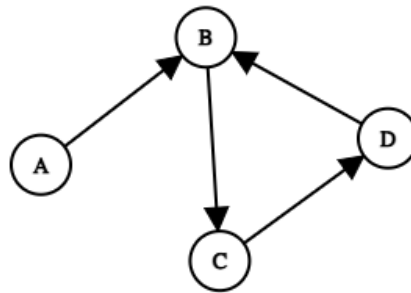


Figure 5.6: Directed graph

5.1.2 Orientation

An orientation of graph G is a directed graph D obtained from G by choosing an orientation $x \rightarrow y$ or $y \rightarrow x$ for each edge $xy \in E(G)$.

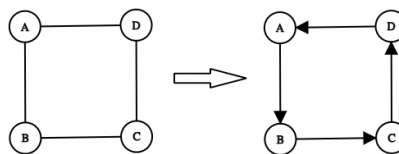


Figure 5.7: Undirected to Directed graph

5.2 Tournament in graph

Tournament is an orientation of a complete graph.

5.2.1 King of the tournament

King of the tournament is a vertex from where all the other vertices are reachable by a path of length of 2 at most.

Example 1: Let us suppose we have a cricket tournament between different countries and graph should have directions. It can be assumed that $x \rightarrow y$ plays a match and x wins against y . In the given example India is the king because all nodes can be reached from India.

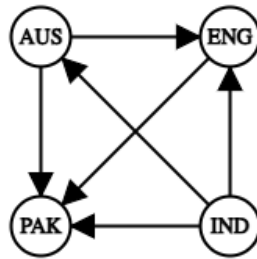


Figure 5.8: King of the tournament

Example 2: A complete graph with 5 vertices and vertices to each other. All vertices are kings because they satisfy the definition of the king. For node B

- $B \rightarrow C$
- $B \rightarrow D \rightarrow A$
- $B \rightarrow D$
- $B \rightarrow D \rightarrow E$

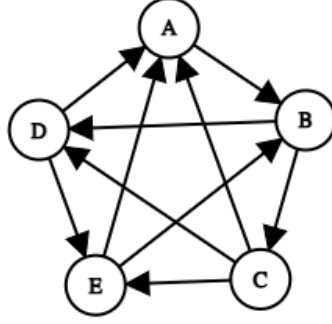


Figure 5.9: King of the tournament

Every tournament has a king. This can be proved with a contradiction. Suppose u is a node with the highest outgoing degree.

$$N_o(u) + N_I(u) + 1 = |V(G)| \quad (5.2)$$

where u is not a king.

Suppose u is not the king. All the nodes in N_I will be connected to all the nodes in N_o and only thing we are not aware of is the direction.

Case 1: If the direction is from $N_I \leftarrow N_o$, then we can say that u is king because we can reach from all the nodes of N_I via just two edges $u \rightarrow N_o \rightarrow N_I$. Hence every tournament must have a king.

Case 2: If the direction is from $N_I \rightarrow N_o$. Let's suppose there is a node v in $N_I(u)$ and v has outgoing edges to all the nodes in N_o i.e. $v \rightarrow N_o$ and $v \rightarrow u$. Number of outgoing edges of node $v = 1 + |N_o(u)| > \text{number of outgoing edges of } u$. This is a contradiction because we have assumed that u is the node which has the highest outdegree. Hence this case is not applicable.

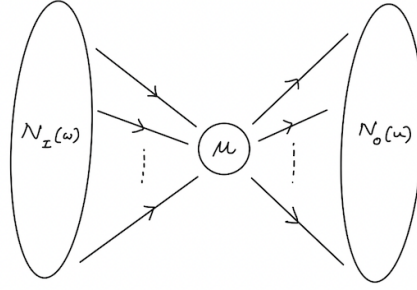


Figure 5.10: King of the tournament

Theorem 5.1. *Prove or disprove if D is a orientation of simple graph with 5 vertices then the vertices of D cannot have distinct out degree.*

Proof. We can create a graph where $x > y$ then $y \rightarrow x$ as below. In this way outegree of each of node

- $Node(1) = 4$
- $Node(2) = 3$
- $Node(3) = 2$
- $Node(4) = 1$

Hence the statement given in false because D can have distinct outdegree.

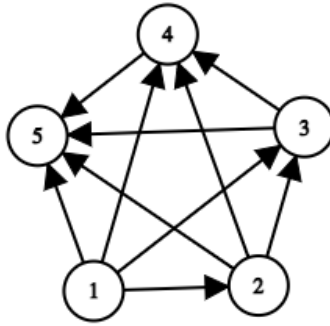


Figure 5.11: Example of simple graph

□

Question Give example of one real world relation whose digraphs has no cycles.

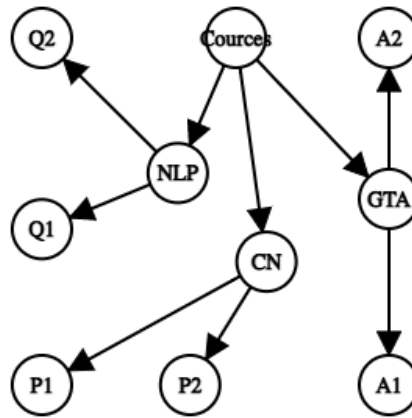


Figure 5.12: Real world example

5.2.2 Tree

In context of directed graph we can define a tree such that if we take any two vertices we will have a unique path between those two vertices. Simply put trees are connected acyclic graphs.

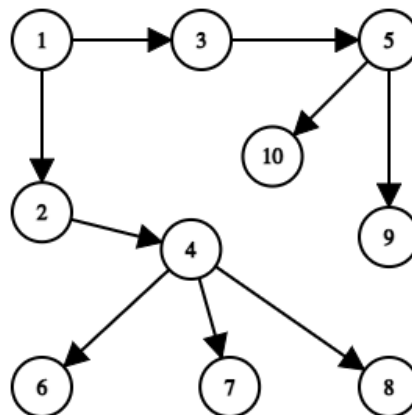


Figure 5.13: Example of tree

Properties of trees

- Deleting a leaf from an n -vertex tree produces an $n - 1$ vertex tree.

- Tree is connected and it has no cycle.
- An n vertex contains $n - 1$ edges because if it contains one more it will have a cycle and if it has one less it will not be connected.
- For any pair of vertex (u, v) there exists one and only one path.
- Every edge of a tree is cut-edge.
- Tree is a bipartite graph.

5.2.3 Distance in a graph

If graph G has a $u - v$ path, then the distance between u to v is written as $d(u - v)$ is the least length of $u - v$ path. This distance is the shortest distance. For the given graph

$$d(u, v) = 1 \quad (5.3)$$

Similarly,

$$d(u, w) = \infty \quad (5.4)$$

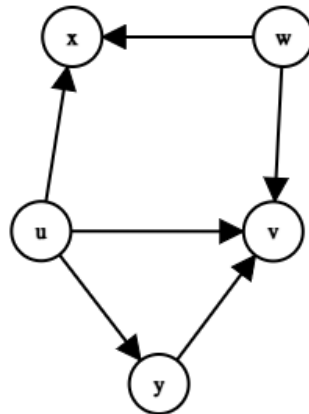


Figure 5.14: Example of tree

5.2.4 Diameter of a graph

is the maximum of distanes between any two pair's of vertices. Diameter of graph Figure 5.14. is ∞

5.2.5 Eccentricity

of a vertex u is the maximum distance it has with any node in the graph.

5.2.6 Radius

denoted as $rad(G)$ is the minimum of eccentricity of all the nodes.

Example 1: For the given graph in 5.15

- $d(B, K) = 4$
- Diameter of the graph $Dia(G) = 4$
- Eccentricity $e(A, B, D, E) = 4$, $e(F) = 2$, $e(C, G, H, I) = 3$, $e(I, J, K, L) = 4$.
- Radius $rad(G) = 2$

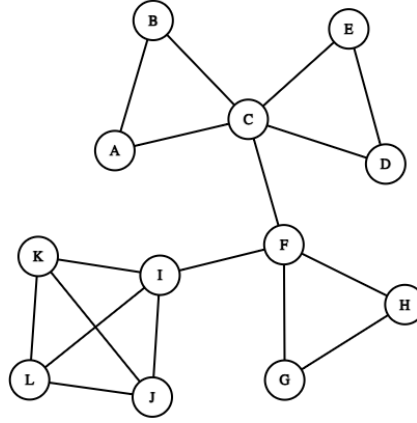


Figure 5.15: King of the tournament

Example 2: For the given graph in 5.16

- $d(A, B) = 1$, $d(A, C) = 2$, $d(A, D) = 3$, $d(A, E) = 2$, $d(A, F) = 3$.
- Diameter of the graph $Dia(G) = 3$.
- Eccentricity $e(A, B, C, D, E, F) = 3$.
- Radius $rad(G) = 3$

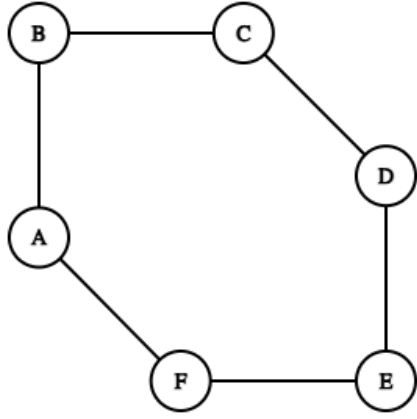


Figure 5.16: King of the tournament

Theorem 5.2. *If G is a simple graph then $\text{diam}(G) \geq 3$ implies $\text{diam}(G^c) \leq 3$*

Proof. $\text{diam}(G) \geq 3$ refers to the fact that there are some nodes that do not share neighbours.

$$\exists u, v \in V(G) \quad (5.5)$$

s.t. they do not have common neighbour in G . This is because if they have a common neighbour then they can be reached by just two nodes i.e. their diameter will never be greater than 3. Hence structure 5.17 does not exist in G .

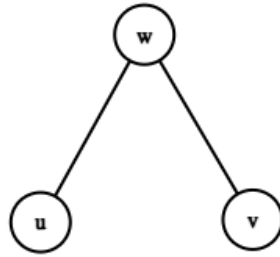


Figure 5.17

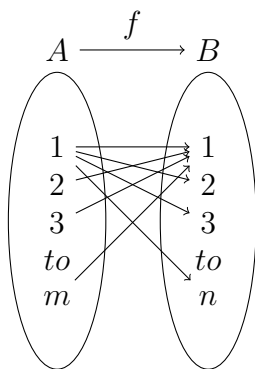
Also,

$$\exists u, v \in V(G^c) \quad (5.6)$$

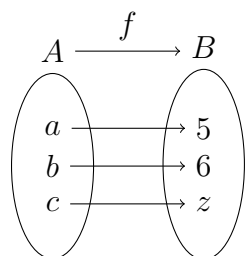
s.t. they have a common neighbour in G and u, v are non adjacent. \square

Problem: Computer diameter and radius of $K_{m,n}$

- Eccentricity of each node $E(A) = 2$ and $E(B) = 2$
- $\text{diam}(K_{m,n}) = 2$
- $\text{rad}(K_{m,n}) = 2$



5.3 Math stuff



Please make an effort to typeset things nicely. There are quite a few macros in the `lpsdp.sty` file. Below are illustrated how to do some basic things; please study the `LATEX` carefully.

Here's a typical LP in standard/equational form, with an equation number on one of the constraints.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \min \quad & c^\top x \\
 \text{s.t.} \quad & Ax = b \\
 & x \geq 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{5.7}$$

Here's a reference to the (5.7) nonnegativity constraint. Some more LPs:

$$\begin{aligned}
&\min && 3x_1 - 5x_2 \\
&\text{s.t.} && x_1 + 2x_2 \leq 6 \\
&&& 2x_1 + x_2 \leq 6 \\
&&& 2x_1 + 2x_2 \geq 7 \\
&&& x_1, x_2 \geq 0
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{minimize} && 3x_1 - 5x_2 + 2x_3 - x_4 \\
&\text{subject to} && x_1 + 2x_2 - 4x_3 + x_4 \leq 6 \\
&&& -x_1 + 3x_2 - x_3 - x_4 \geq 7 \\
&&& x_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i = 1 \dots 4
\end{aligned}$$

Let's do some matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \rho & \rho \\ \rho & 1 & \rho \\ \rho & \rho & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{or alternately,} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

More generically:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \begin{array}{c} | \\ A_1 \\ | \end{array} & \begin{array}{c} | \\ A_2 \\ | \end{array} & \cdots & \begin{array}{c} | \\ A_n \\ | \end{array} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} - & a_1 & - \\ - & a_1 & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & a_n & - \end{bmatrix}$$

Here's some more random typesetting:

- “P vs. NP, where the former means time $\text{poly}(n)$ ”;
- $\tilde{O}(f(x))$ is $f(x) \cdot \text{polylog}(f(x))$;
- $g(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(2\theta) & \text{if } \theta \leq \pi, \\ \max\{\cos^2 \theta, \frac{1}{3}\} & \text{if } \theta > \pi. \end{cases}$

Please don't write $\max(A)$ when you mean $\max(A)$, or $\log(n)$ when you mean $\log(n)$, or "quotes" when you mean "quotes".

A theorem and a proof:

Theorem 5.3. $(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$.

Proof. Let for the reader. □

Here's what to do if your proof ends on an equation:

Proof. It's easy:

$$(a + b)^2 = (a + b)(a + b) = (a + b)a + (a + b)b = a^2 + ba + ab + b^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2 \quad \square$$

Please insert figures liberally. It's probably best if “vector graphics” are in pdf or png format, and “bitmap graphics” are in jpg format, but lots formats are supported. There's a macro defined to make things easy. Inkscape is a pretty reasonable, free program in which to draw figures.¹

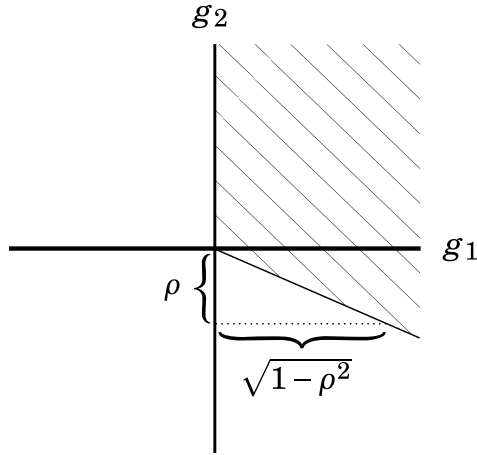


Figure 5.18: The region $g_1 > 0, g_2 > -\frac{\rho}{\sqrt{1-\rho^2}}g_1$.

Once you've inserted it, you can refer to it as Figure 5.18.

Finally, if you have citations, see the commented-out stuff in the L^AT_EX here.

¹Ryan: I admit, I sometimes draw figures in Powerpoint.