

# Great Theoretical Ideas In Computer Science

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CS 15-251

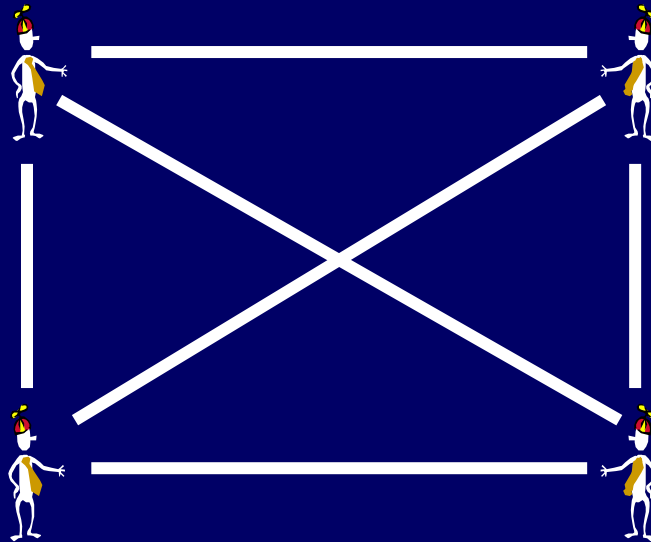
Fall 2005

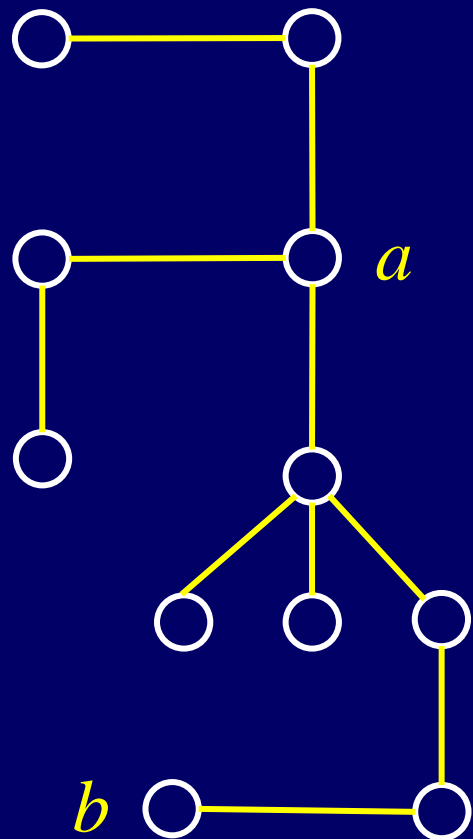
Lecture 14

October 18, 2005

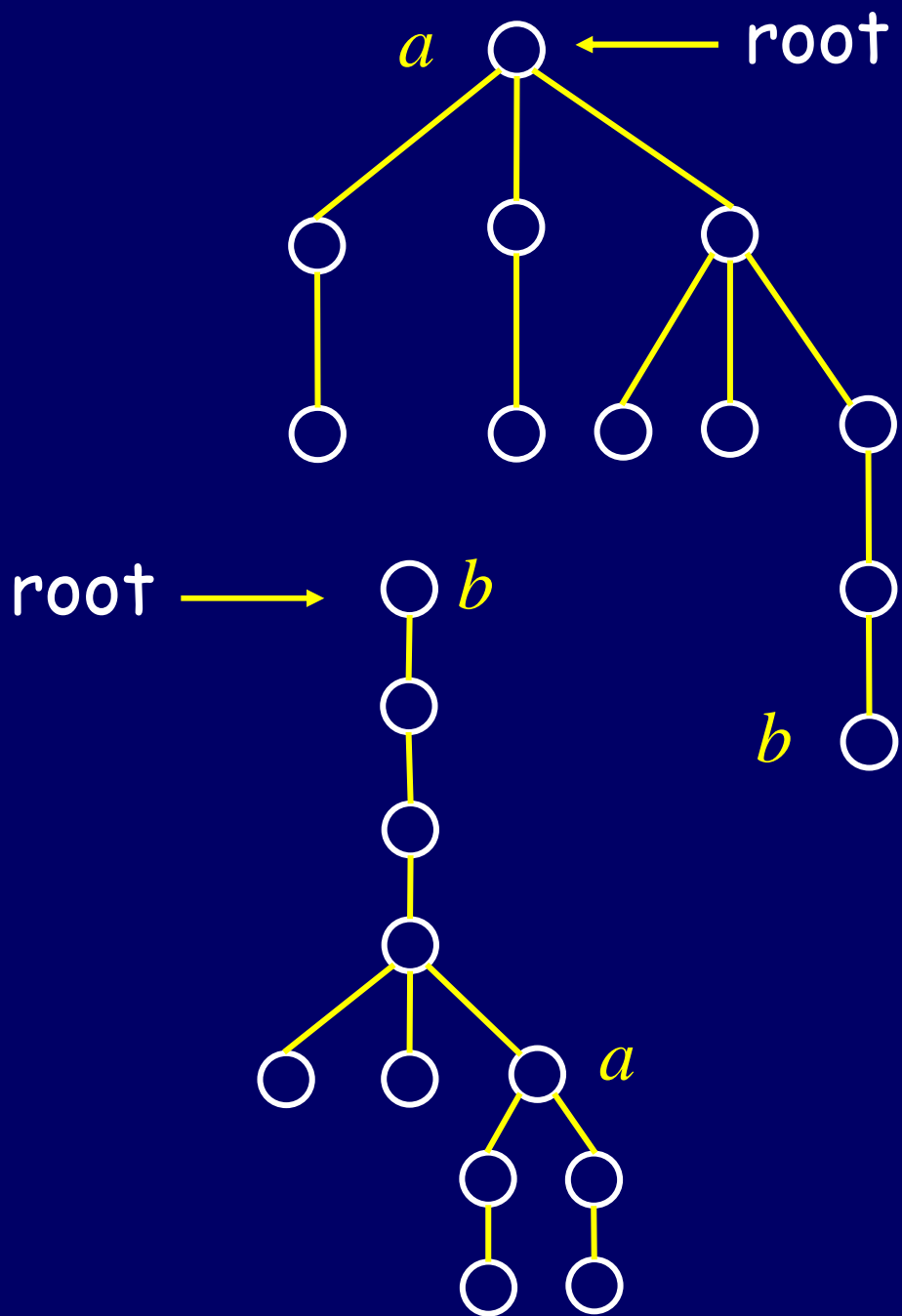
Carnegie Mellon University

# Graphs



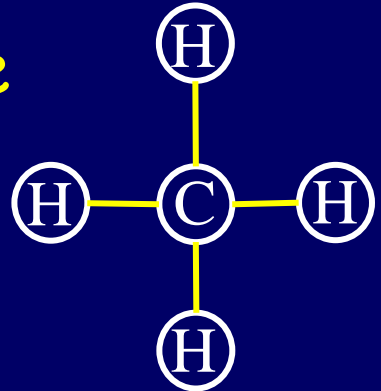


A tree.

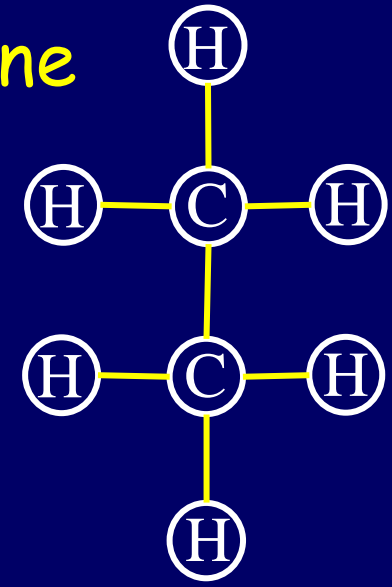




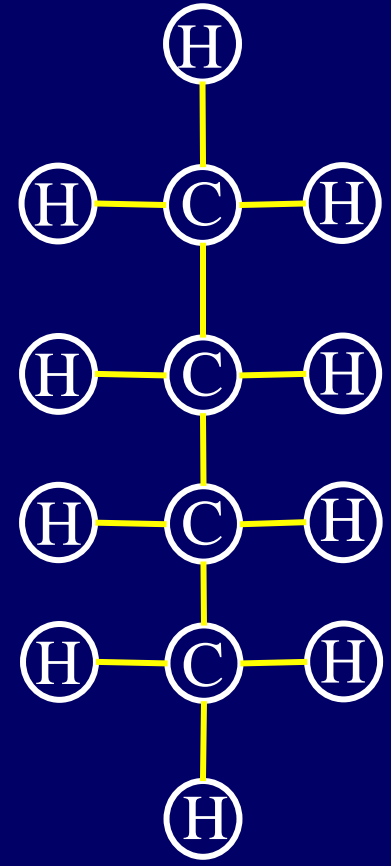
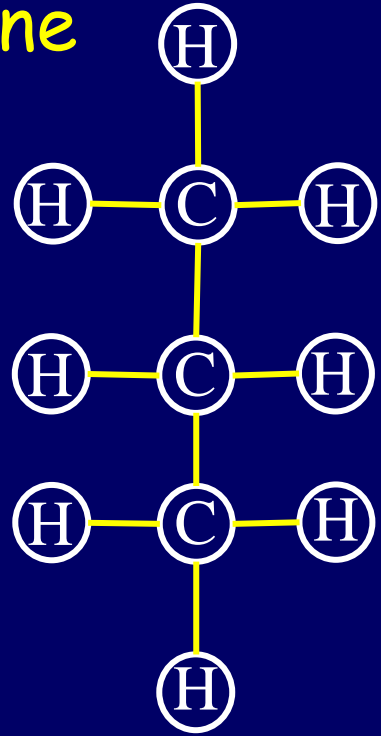
methane



ethane



propane



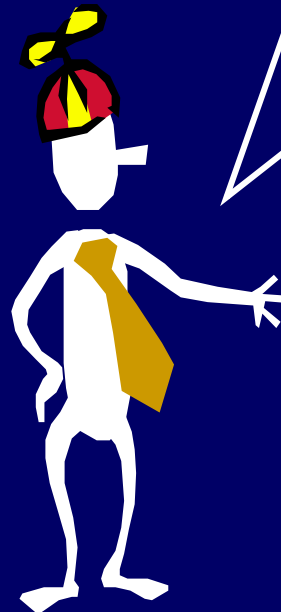
butane

some saturated hydrocarbons



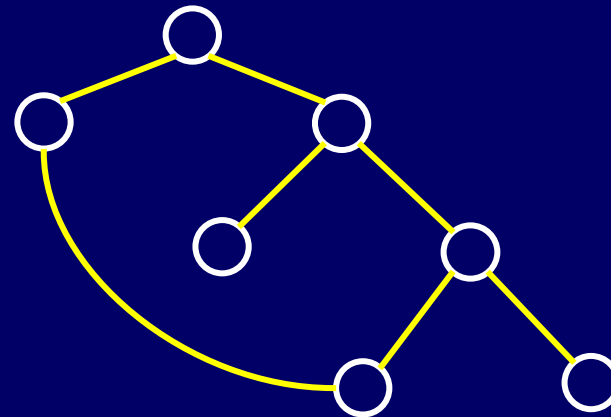
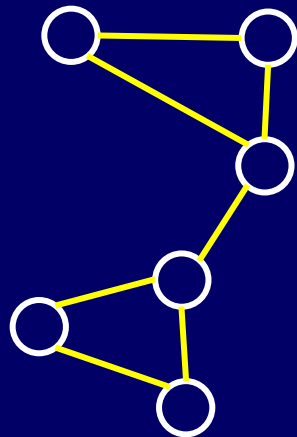
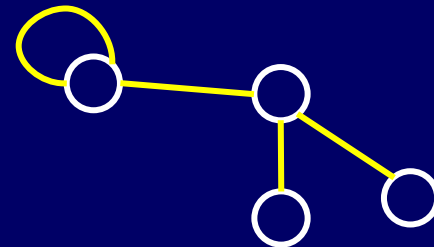
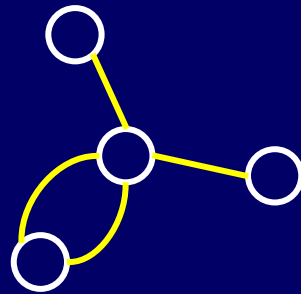
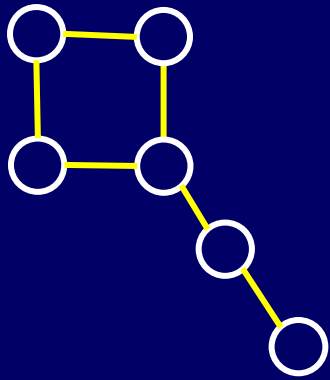
Putting a picture into words...

A *tree* is a connected graph with no cycles.



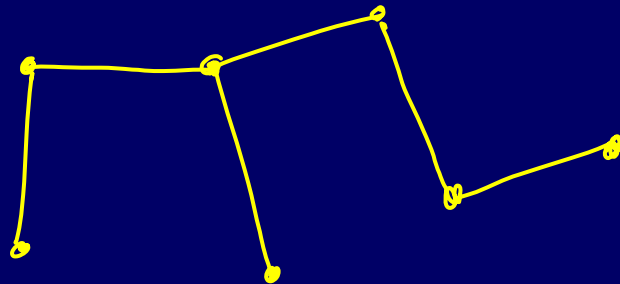


These are not trees...





## Recall: The Shy People Party



no cycles can  
be formed



# How many trees on 1-6 vertices?

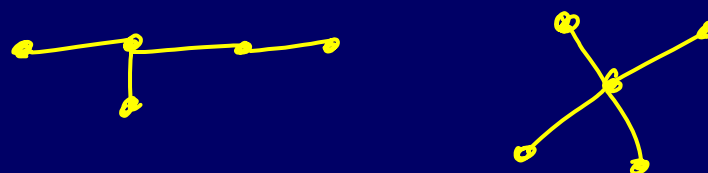
1: 

2: 

3: 

4: 

5: 





We'll pass around a piece of paper. Draw a new 8-node tree, and put your name next to it.





**Theorem:** Let  $G$  be a graph with  $n$  nodes and  $e$  edges.

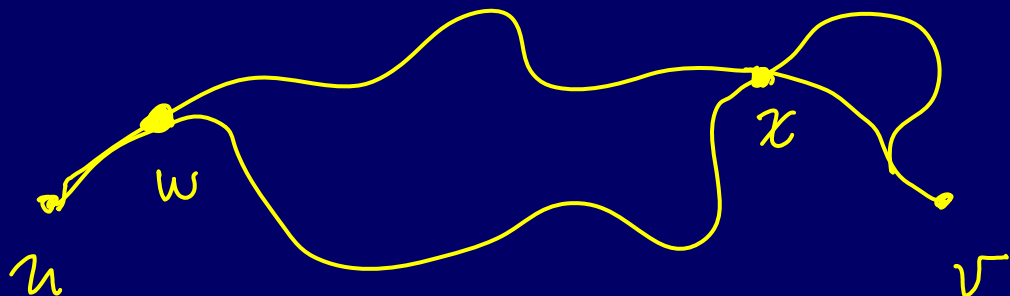
The following are equivalent:

1.  $G$  is a tree (connected, acyclic)
2. Every two nodes of  $G$  are joined by a unique path
3.  $G$  is connected and  $n = e + 1$
4.  $G$  is acyclic and  $n = e + 1$
5.  $G$  is acyclic and if any two nonadjacent points are joined by a line, the resulting graph has exactly one cycle.



To prove this, it suffices to show  
 $1 \Rightarrow 2 \Rightarrow 3 \Rightarrow 4 \Rightarrow 5 \Rightarrow 1$

$1 \Rightarrow 2$



implies there is a cycle

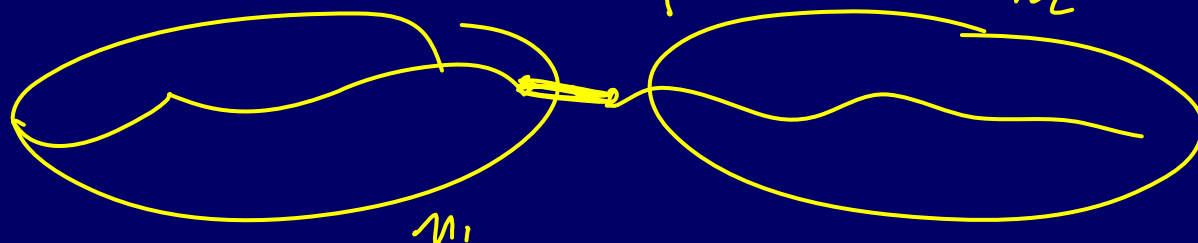
By I.H.

$2 \Rightarrow 3$  Pf. by induction. Assume true for fewer than  $n$  points

$$n_1 = e_1 + 1$$

$$n_2 = e_2 + 1$$

$$n = e_1 + e_2 + 2$$

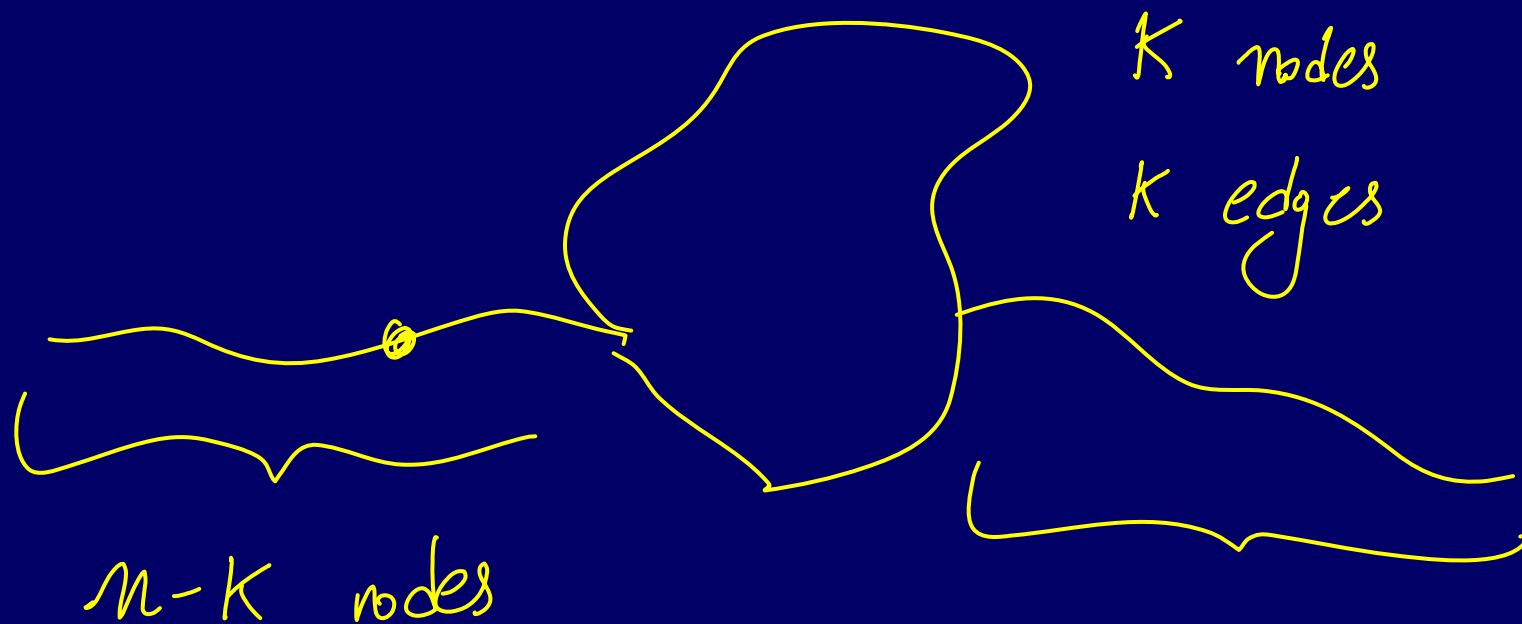


$$= e - 1 + 2$$

$$= e + 1$$

3  $\Rightarrow$  4

Suppose there is a cycle



So we have  $\geq n-K$  edges outside cycle  
 $\Rightarrow$  at least  $n$  edges.

$A \Rightarrow S.$

if there are  $K$  connected components,  
each is a tree.

$$n_i = e_i + 1$$

$$n = e + K \Rightarrow K = \underline{1}$$

So, any two disconnected points, have  
a unique path between them, forming an edge  
between them creates a cycle.



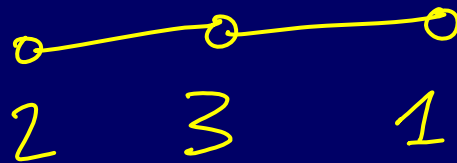
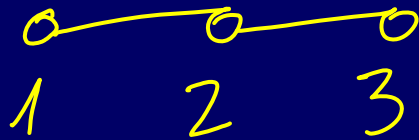
Corollary: Every nontrivial tree has at least two endpoints (points of degree 1)

$$2e = 2p - 2$$



# Question:

How many *labeled* trees are there with three nodes?





## Question:

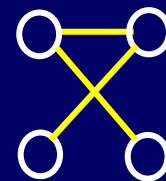
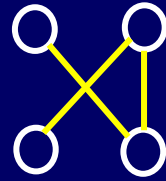
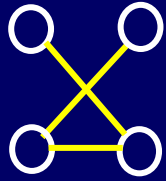
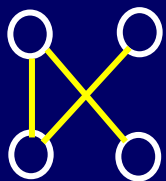
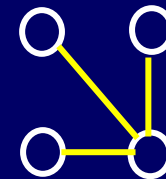
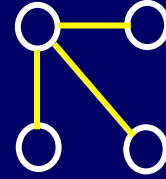
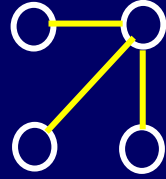
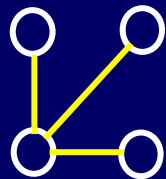
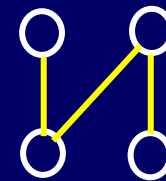
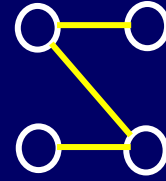
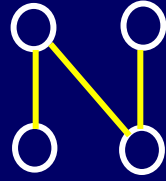
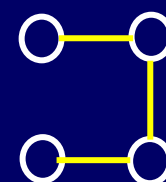
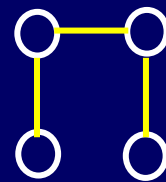
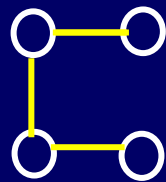
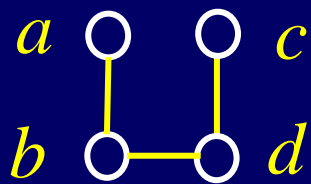
How many *labeled* trees are there with four nodes?



2 trees



16 labeled trees

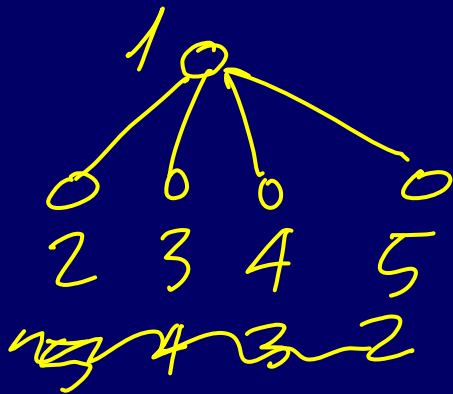




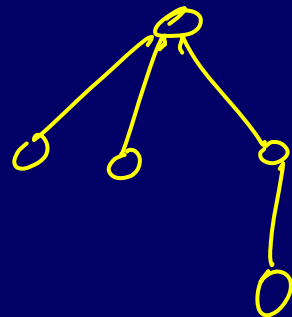


# Question:

How many labeled trees are there with five nodes?

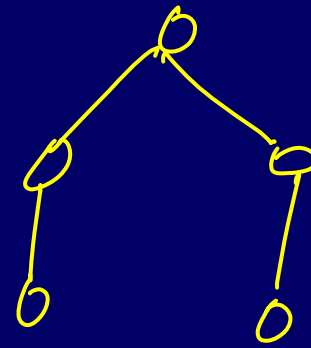


5 labelings



$$5 \times \binom{4}{3} \times 3$$

60



$$5 \times \binom{4}{2} \times 2$$

60

175 labeled trees -



## Question:

How many labeled trees on  $n$  nodes are there?

3: 3 trees

4: 16 trees

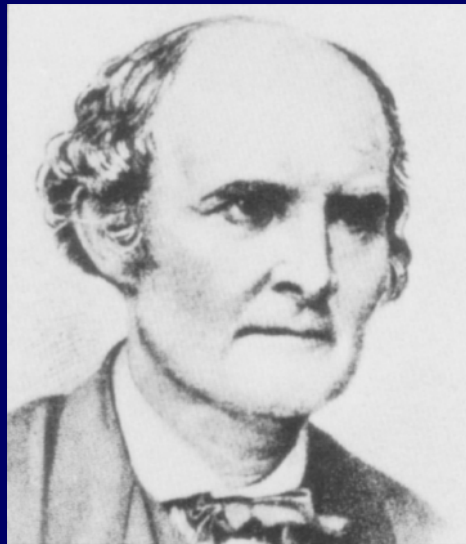
5: 125 trees

$n^{n-2}$   
 $n$



# Cayley's formula

The number of labeled trees  
on  $n$  nodes is



$$n^{n-2}$$



The proof will use the correspondence principle.

Each labeled tree on  $n$  nodes

corresponds to

A sequence in  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}^{n-2}$  that is,  $(n-2)$  numbers, each in the range  $[1..n]$



How to make a sequence from a tree.

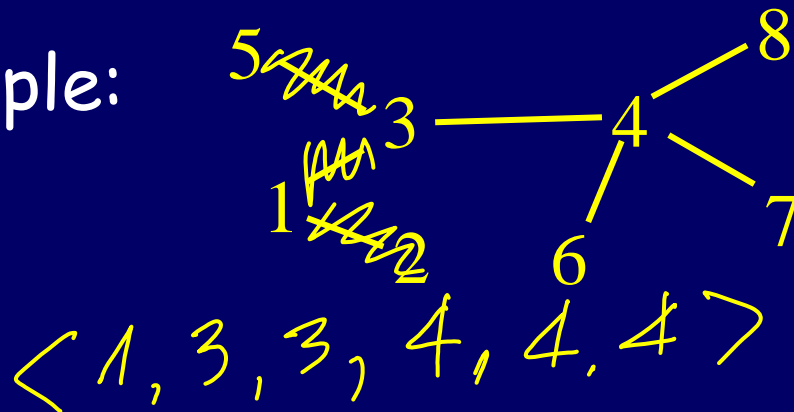
Loop through  $i$  from 1 to  $n-2$

Let  $l$  be the degree-1 node with the lowest label.

Define the  $i^{\text{th}}$  element of the sequence as the label of the node adjacent to  $l$ .

Delete the node  $l$  from the tree.

Example:



$\langle 1, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4 \rangle$



# How to reconstruct the unique tree from a sequence $S$ .

Let  $I = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$

Loop until  $S = \varepsilon$  ← empty sequence

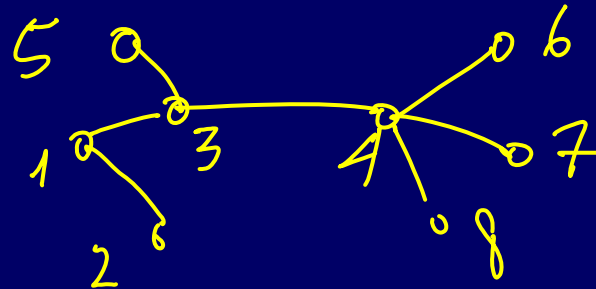
Let  $l =$  smallest # in  $I$  but not in  $S$

Let  $s =$  first label in sequence  $S$

- Add edge  $\{l, s\}$  to the tree.
- Delete  $l$  from  $I$ .
- Delete  $s$  from  $S$ .

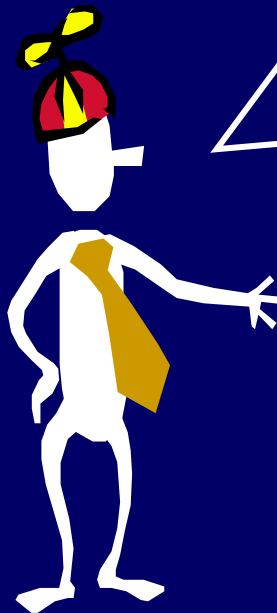
Add edge  $\{l, s\}$  to the tree,  
where  $I = \{l, s\}$

$\langle 1, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4 \rangle$   
 $I = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$





A graph is *planar* if it can be drawn in the plane without crossing edges. A *plane graph* is any such drawing, which breaks up the plane into a number  $f$  of *faces* or *regions*





# Euler's Formula

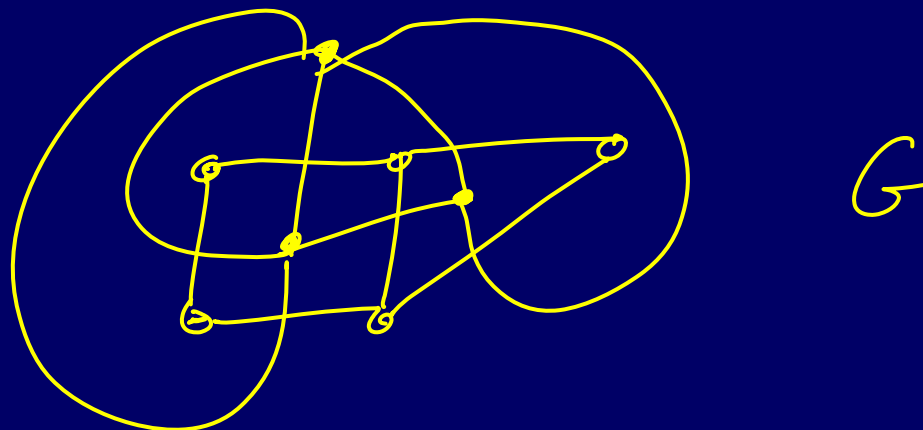
If  $G$  is a connected plane graph with  $n$  vertices,  $e$  edges and  $f$  faces, then  $n - e + f = 2$

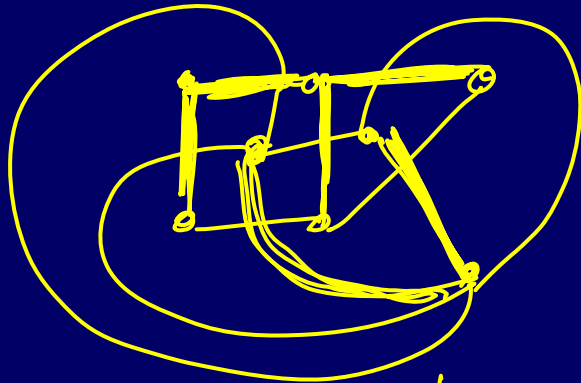






Rather than using induction, we'll use the important notion of the *dual graph*





let  $T$  be a spanning tree of  $G$

let  $T^*$  be the graph where there is an edge in dual graph for each edge in  $G - T$

$T^*$  is a spanning tree of  $G^*$

$$n = e_T + 1$$

$$f = e_{T^*} + 1$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$n + f = e_T + e_{T^*} + 2$$

$$= e + 2$$



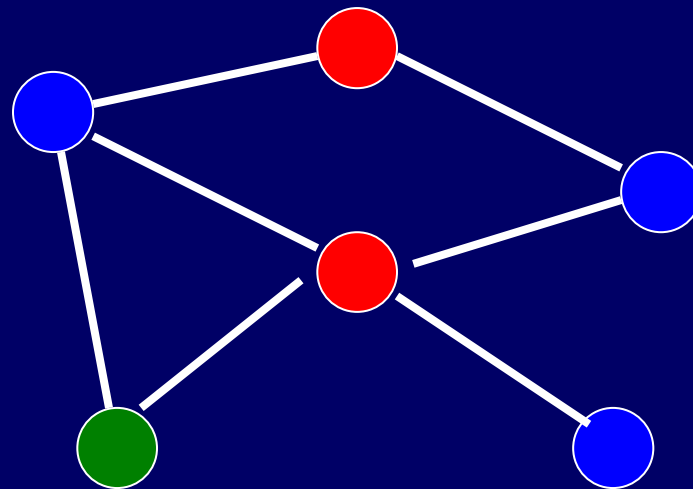
Corollary: Let  $G$  be a plane graph with  $n > 2$  vertices. Then

- a)  $G$  has a vertex of degree at most 5.
- b)  $G$  has at most  $3n - 6$  edges



# Graph Coloring

A coloring of a graph is an assignment of a color to each vertex such that no neighboring vertices have the same color.





# Graph Coloring

Arises surprisingly often in CS.

Register allocation: assign temporary variables to registers for scheduling instructions. Variables that interfere, or are simultaneously active, cannot be assigned to the same register.



## Instructions

$b = a + 2$

$c = b * b$

$b = c + 1$

return  $a * b$

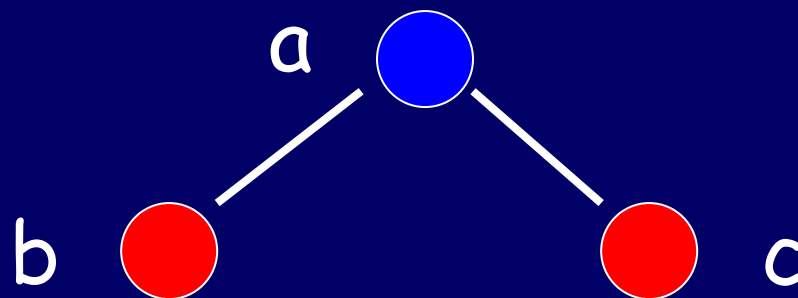
## Live variables

a

a, b

a, c

a, b



# Every plane graph can be 6-colored

By induction. Assume true for  $< n$  nodes.

If have a plane graph on  $n$ .

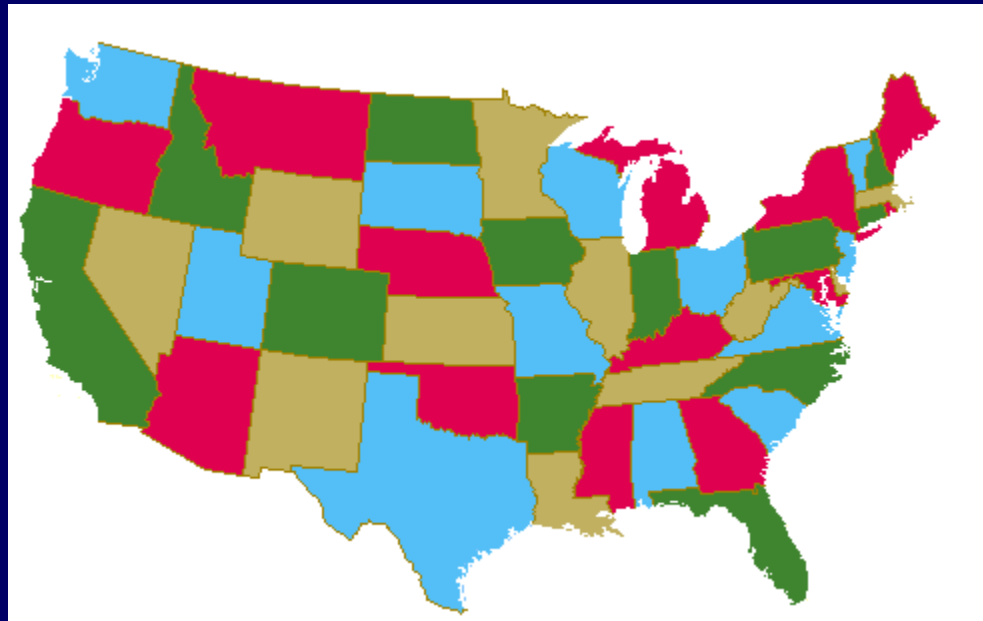
There is some node  $v$  with  $\text{deg.} \leq 5$ .

Remove  $v$  and color by I.H.



Not too difficult to give an inductive proof of 5-colorability, using same fact that some vertex has degree  $\leq 5$ .

4-color theorem remains challenging



<http://www.math.gatech.edu/~thomas/FC/fourcolor.html>





# Graph Spectra

We now move to a different *representation* of graphs that is extremely powerful, and useful in many areas of computer science: AI, information retrieval, computer vision, machine learning, CS theory,...



# Adjacency matrix

Suppose we have a graph  $G$  with  $n$  vertices and edge set  $E$ . The *adjacency matrix* is the  $n \times n$  matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$  with

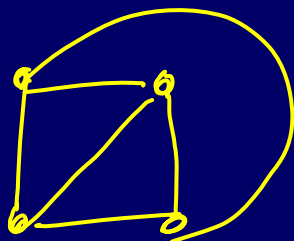
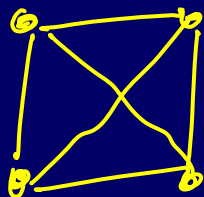
$$a_{ij} = 1 \text{ if } (i,j) \text{ is an edge}$$

$$a_{ij} = 0 \text{ if } (i,j) \text{ is not an edge}$$



# Example

$K_4$



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Counting Paths

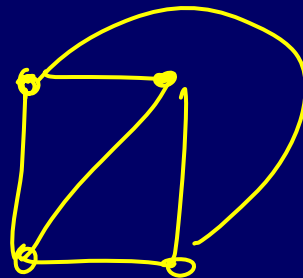
The number of paths of length  $k$  from node  $i$  to node  $j$  is the entry in position  $(i,j)$  in the matrix  $A^k$



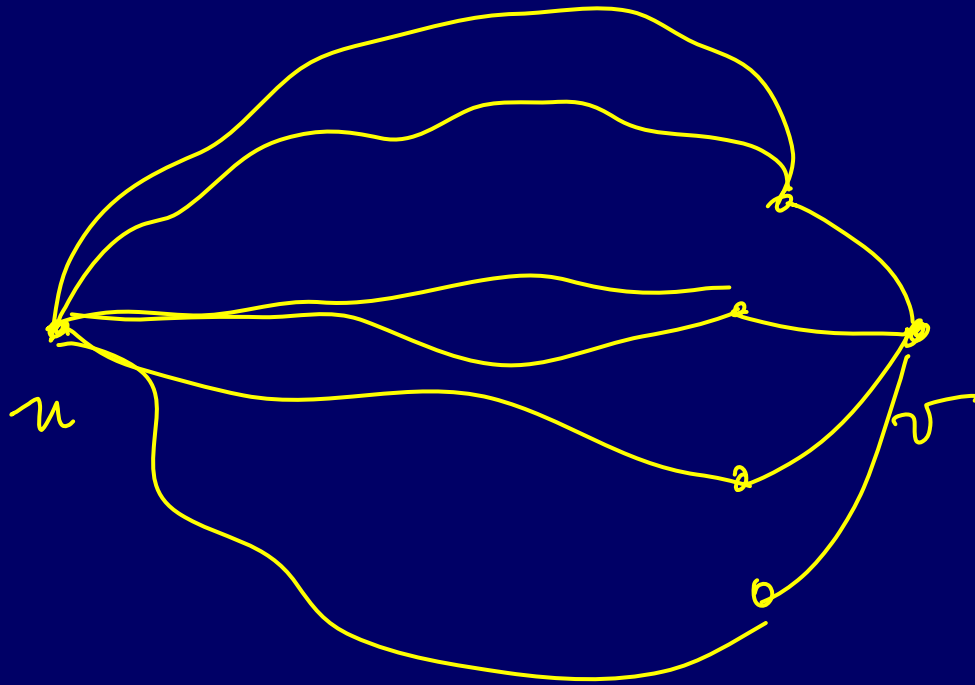
# Counting Paths

The number of paths of length  $k$  from node  $i$  to node  $j$  is the entry in position  $(i,j)$  in the matrix  $A^k$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$



By induction on  $k$



$$(A^k)_{uv} = \sum_j (A^{k-1})_{uj} A_{jv} = \sum_{j \in N(v)} (A^{k-1})_{uj}$$

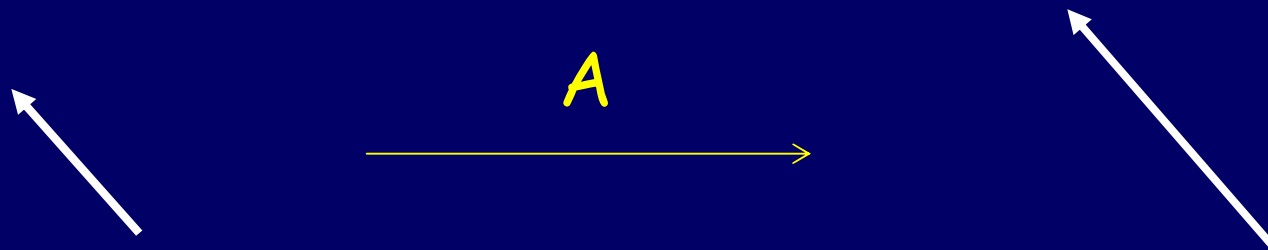


# Eigenvalues

An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is a linear transformation from  $n$ -vectors to  $n$ -vectors



An *eigenvector* is a vector *fixed* (up to length) by the transformation. The associated *eigenvalue* is the scaling of the vector.





# Eigenvalues

Vector  $x$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$  if

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

A symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix has at most  $n$  distinct real eigenvalues





# Characteristic Polynomial

The *determinant* of  $A$  is the product of its eigenvalues:

$$\det A = \lambda_1 \lambda_2 \dots \lambda_n$$

The *characteristic polynomial* of  $A$  is the polynomial

$$p_A(\lambda) = \det(\lambda I - A) = (\lambda - \lambda_1)(\lambda - \lambda_2) \dots (\lambda - \lambda_n)$$



Example:  $K_4$

## Example: $K_4$

$$A \begin{pmatrix} | \\ | \\ | \\ | \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda = 3$$

$$A \begin{pmatrix} | \\ | \\ -| \\ -| \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -| \\ -| \\ | \\ | \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda = -1$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_A(\lambda) &= (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 1)^3 \\ &= \lambda^4 - 6\lambda^2 - 8\lambda - 3 \end{aligned}$$



If graph  $G$  has adjacency matrix  $A$  with characteristic polynomial

$$p_A(\lambda) = \lambda^n + c_1 \lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \lambda^{n-2} + \dots + c_n$$

then

$$c_1 = 0$$

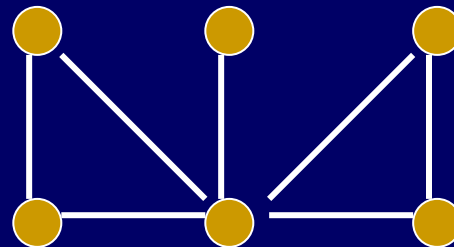
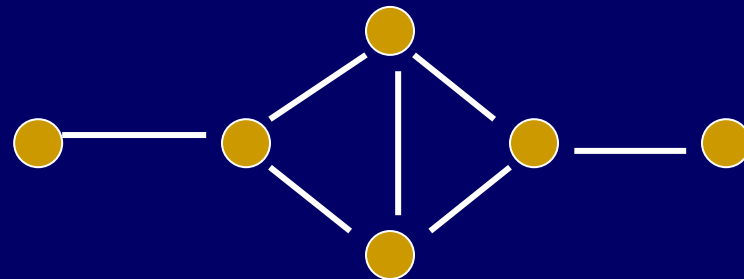
$$-c_2 = \# \text{ of edges in } G$$

$$-c_3 = \text{twice } \# \text{ of triangles in } G$$



Two different graphs with the same spectrum

$$p_A(\lambda) = \lambda^6 - 7\lambda^4 - 4\lambda^3 + 7\lambda^2 + 4\lambda - 1$$





Let your spectrum do the counting...

A *closed walk* or *loop* in a graph is a path whose initial and final vertices are the same. We easily get

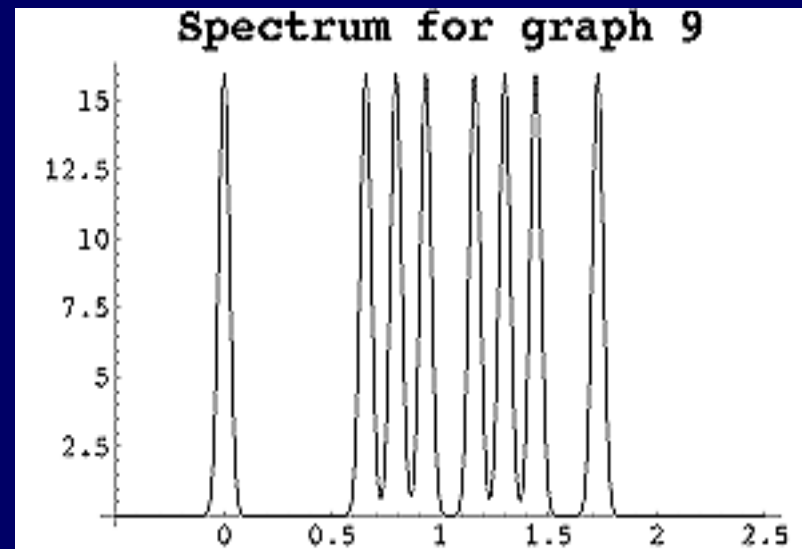
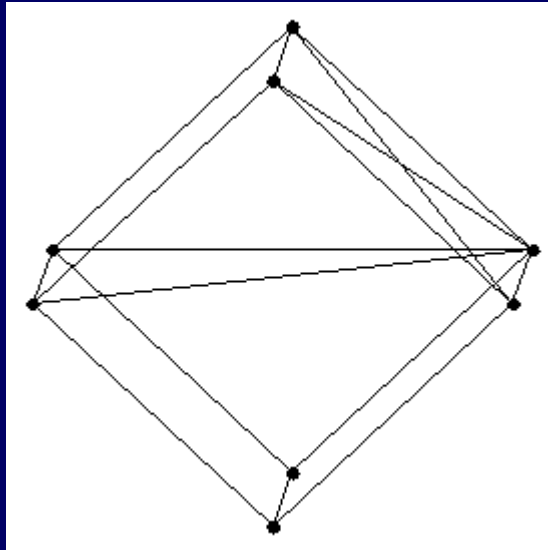
$$\text{trace}(A) = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \dots + \lambda_n = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{trace}(A^2) &= \lambda_1^2 + \lambda_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n^2 \\ &= \text{twice \# of edges} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{trace}(A^3) &= \lambda_1^3 + \lambda_2^3 + \dots + \lambda_n^3 \\ &= \text{six times \# of triangles} \end{aligned}$$



# Graph Muzak



<http://math.ucsd.edu/~fan/hear/>