

Class starts after the music

*Jacques Offenbach, Giovanni Sollima, Andrea Noferini –
Duos for 2 Cellos, Op. 54 No.1: III(2023)
requested by Ian Zhang (TA-of-CM6)*

I love listening to classical music and performing with others on the piano and cello. I enjoy competing in various algorithmic programming competitions.



Logistic Bulletin Board

- Mid-semester survey due 2/29 midnight

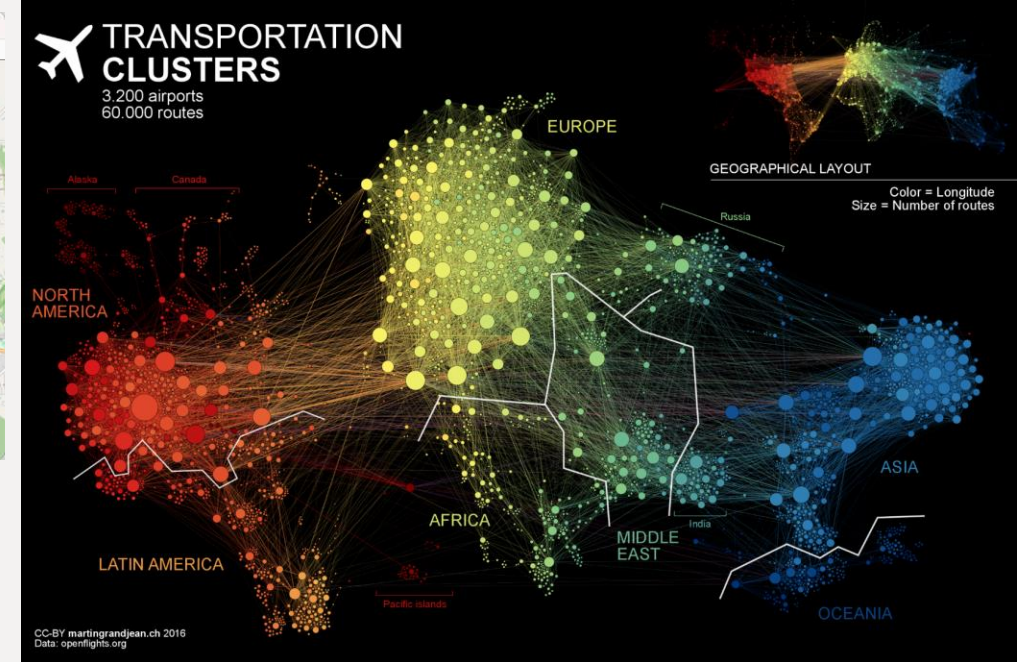
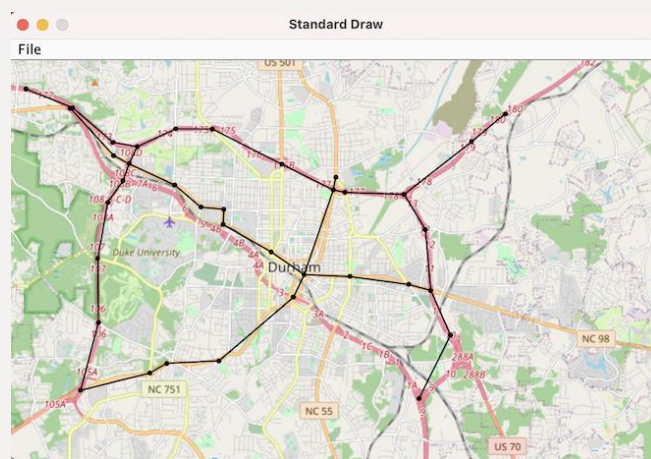
CS230 Spring 2024

Module 06: Graph Fundamentals

(Induction on) Graphs

Why graphs?

- Models just about anything in the world
 - Road network: navigation
 - Social network: (mis-)information spread
 - Electoral districts: redistricting
 - Matching workers to jobs
- Here we starts the “fun” part of CS230



Graphs in CS201/230

- CS201 focuses on **trees/graphs as data structures**
 - detailed implementations in a Java context
 - simple, step-by-step algorithms that operate on the data structures (tree traversal, DFS, BFS...)
 - CS230 focuses on **trees/graphs as abstract ideas**
 - directed, undirected, self-loops... don't care about how to implement
 - reasoning about properties of trees/graphs
-

Focus of CM6

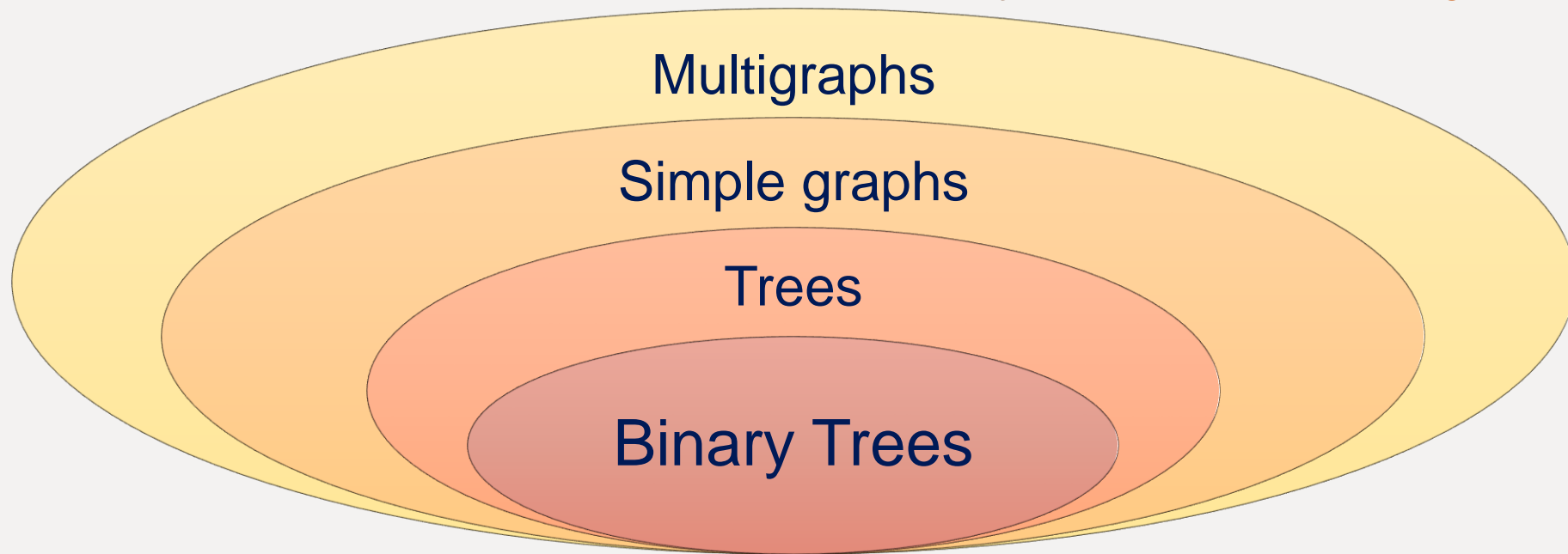
- In CM6, we will devote most of our time and energy on:
 - Graph/tree properties (as mathematical facts, not as algorithms)
 - How to formally reason about graph/tree properties

Is Dijkstra's algorithm guaranteed to be correct? (Informal)

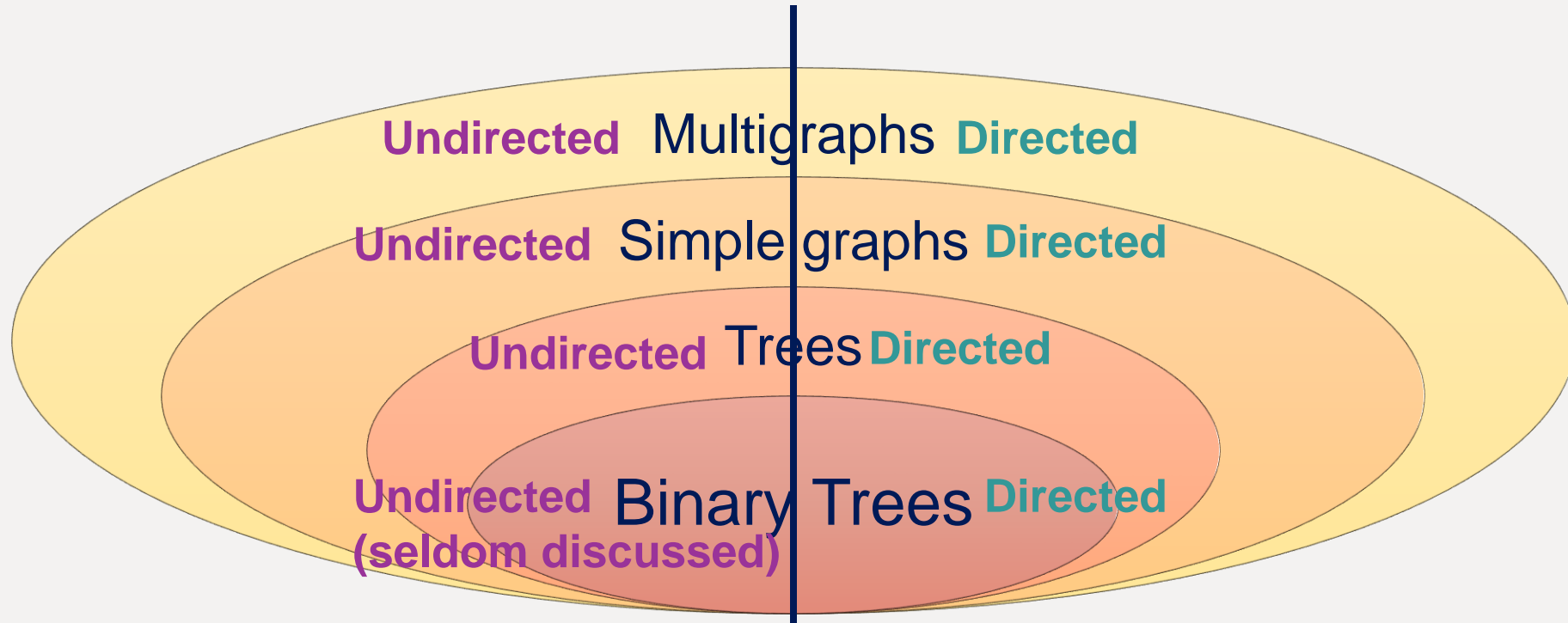
- **Claim.** Distance is correct shortest path distance for all nodes *explored* so far, and shortest path distance *through explored nodes* for all others.
- Formal proof is *by induction*, see Compsci 230.
 - Assume the property is true up to some point in the algorithm, then...
 - Consider the next node we explore:

Terminology Musing

- Think about these terms as **sets**.
- **Graphs with stronger properties** are subsets of **graphs with weaker properties**
- **Trees** are also **multigraphs**
- **Binary Trees** are also **simple graphs**



Undirected vs. directed



1

1 point

Consider a graph G with just one edge k



What kind of graph is G ? (Select all that apply)

- ☐ undirected multigraph
- ☒ directed multigraph
- ☐ simple undirected graph
- ☒ directed graph
- ☐ undirected tree
- ☒ directed tree
- ☐ undirected binary tree
- ☒ directed binary tree

2

1 point

Consider an even simpler graph H with just one vertex



What kind of graph is H ? (Select all that apply)

- ☒ undirected multigraph
- ☒ directed multigraph
- ☒ simple undirected graph
- ☒ directed graph
- ☒ undirected tree
- ☒ directed tree
- ☒ undirected binary tree
- ☒ directed binary tree



Downward closed graph properties

- Many graph properties are “downward closed”:
 - Given that graph G has a property X
 - Then all subgraphs $G' \subseteq G$ retain the property X
 - When we write $G' \subseteq G$ we actually mean $G' = (V', E'), V' \subseteq V, E' \subseteq E$
 - Examples of downward closed graph properties:
 - *Simple, Forest, Planar, Acyclic*
-

$$\{v\} = V, \quad V_2 = \emptyset$$

Downward closed graph properties

Definition 10.43. A simple graph G is called **bipartite** if the vertex set V can be partitioned into two disjoint nonempty sets V_1 and V_2 such that every edge connects a vertex in V_1 to a vertex in V_2 .

Put another way, no vertices in V_1 are connected to each other, and no vertices in V_2 are connected to each other.

- **Bipartiteness** is downward closed... until things become weird
- For this reason, we will **allow graphs of 0 or 1 vertices to be bipartite** (although AIDMA doesn't agree)

“Upward closed” graph properties

- Some other graph properties are instead “upward closed” provided that *we only add edges and not vertices*:
 - Given that graph $G = (V, E)$ has a property X
 - Then **all** $G' = (V, E')$ s.t. $E \subseteq E'$ retain the property X
- Examples of upward closed graph properties:
 - *Connected, Hamiltonian, Cyclic*

Usefulness of closed graph properties

- Knowing certain graph properties are closed is useful for proving theorems *for the whole family of graphs*
 - **Theorem.** Any graph with property X satisfies statement Y .
 - **Proof sketch:**
 - **Base Case(s).** The “smallest” graphs with property X satisfies statement Y .
 - **Induction Step.** Consider now an arbitrary graph G with property X .
 - Remove one vertex (or one edge) from G .
 - The resulting graph is a “smaller” graph G' that satisfies statement X .
 - We assume (implicit hypothesis) that G' satisfies statement Y .
 - We then prove that adding such vertex/edge back retains statement Y .
-

Wait, we can do *that*?

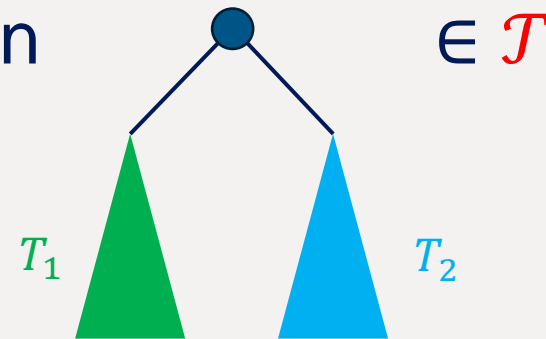
- The “proof sketch” in the previous slide is a template of **structural induction** (in the context of graphs).
- If weak/strong inductions are driven by the set of natural numbers, structural inductions are driven by **recursively defined structures**.

Recursively defined structures

- Same idea, but the set now contains objects, not just numbers
- Example 3. The set of binary trees, \mathcal{T} , can be defined as:

- **Base Case:** $T = (\emptyset, \emptyset) \in \mathcal{T}$ (the “empty tree”)

- **Constructor Case:** If $T_1, T_2 \in \mathcal{T}$, then



Inducting on recursively defined structures

- (Structural induction template) Given a recursively defined set S
 - **Goal.** We want to show $\forall (s \in S)[P(s)]$ for a predicate P
 - **Proof:**
 - **Base Case(s).** Prove $P(s)$ for all base cases in the definition of S .
 - **Inductive Hypothesis (USUALLY IMPLICIT).**
Assume $P(s)$ for all elements of S in the constructor case.
 - **Induction Step.** Prove $P(s)$ for each of subcases of the constructor case.
 - Sometimes called **Basis Step** and **Recursive Step**
-

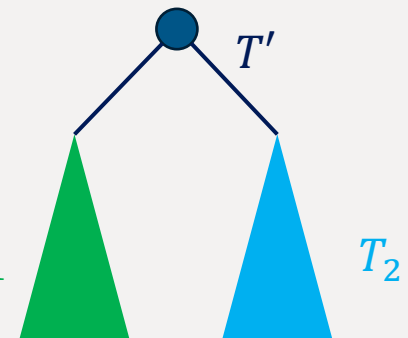
Inducting on recursively defined structures

- Consider again the set of binary trees, \mathcal{T}
- Theorem.** $\forall T \in \mathcal{T} [n(T) \leq 2^{h(T)+1} - 1]$ $n(T)$ = # of vertices in T $h(T)$ = height of T
- Proof** (contains informal language):

- Base Case(s).** For $T = (\emptyset, \emptyset)$ LHS = 0 RHS = 1

- Induction Step.** Consider two binary trees T_1 and T_2 such that $n(T_1) \leq 2^{h(T_1)+1} - 1$ and $n(T_2) \leq 2^{h(T_2)+1} - 1$. Then for the new tree T' :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= n(T_1) + n(T_2) + 1 \leq (2^{h(T_1)+1} - 1) + (2^{h(T_2)+1} - 1) + 1 \\ &\leq 2^{\max(h(T_1)+1, h(T_2)+1)} + 2^{\max(h(T_1)+1, h(T_2)+1)} - 1 \\ &= 2^{\max(h(T_1)+1, h(T_2)+1)+1} - 1 \\ &\leq 2^{h(T')+1} - 1 = \text{RHS} \end{aligned}$$



This inequality holds as long as the two subtrees T_1 and T_2 are not both empty. But if the two subtrees are both empty, then the entire tree is just one vertex - we can manually verify that LHS=RHS=1 for that case.

Inducting on recursively defined structures

- The same proof can instead “induct on $h(T)$ ”
- Theorem.** $\forall T \in \mathcal{T} [n(T) \leq 2^{h(T)+1} - 1]$ $n(T)$ = # of vertices in T $h(T)$ = height of T

- Proof** (contains informal language):

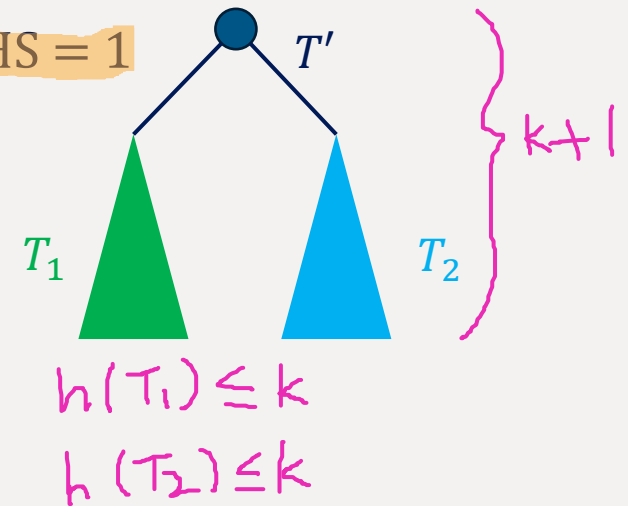
- Base Case(s).** For all trees T with $h(T) = 0$ we have LHS ≤ 1 , RHS $= 1$

- (Strong) Inductive Hypothesis.** Assume the result holds for all trees T with $h(T) \leq k$.

- Induction Step.** Consider an arbitrary tree T' with height $k + 1$. It can be written as the root plus two binary subtrees T_1 and T_2 .

- Then for the new tree T' :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= n(T_1) + n(T_2) + 1 \leq (2^{k+1} - 1) + (2^{k+1} - 1) + 1 \\ &= 2^{k+2} - 1 \leq 2^{h(T')+1} - 1 = \text{RHS} \end{aligned}$$



Inducting on recursively defined structures

- The proof on the previous slide was just a “regular strong induction”:
 - **Theorem.** $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} [P(n)]$
where $P(n) := \forall T \in \mathcal{T} [h(T) \leq n \rightarrow n(T) \leq 2^{h(T)+1} - 1]$
 - Neither approach is “strictly better” than the other
 - The takeaway here is that we can directly induct on the structure (like in the first proof) and not rely on any variable (like in the second proof)
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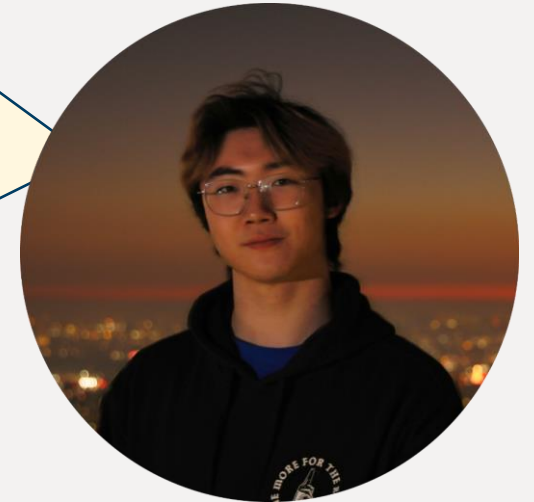
weak induction is structural induction

- Example 6. The set of nonnegative integers, \mathbb{N} , can be “defined” as:
 - **Base Case:** $0 \in \mathbb{N}$
 - **Constructor Case:** If $x \in \mathbb{N}$, then $x + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$.
 - This is somewhat like circular reasoning: addition does not really have a meaning without defining \mathbb{N} first
 - But this shows weak induction is a special case of structural induction on the recursively defined set \mathbb{N} .
 - So anything achievable by weak induction is also achievable by structural induction
 - Is the opposite true? We will revisit this next week
-

Class starts after this song

Song Dongye – Anhe Bridge (2013)
requested by Shawn Ma (TA-of-CM6)

I am a Computer Science and Biology double major with a minor in Asian and Middle Eastern Studies. Outside of coursework, I am currently a student consultant at a startup by Duke alum and am involved in Lambda Phi Epsilon. Feel free to reach out to me about poker and/or anime!



Logistic Bulletin Board

- Mid-semester survey:
 - Some started but “did not finish” according to Qualtrics+Violet
 - Please complete it by end of Sunday if that’s the case
 - Elective modules:
 - Completely async EMs (E and F) released in Canvas
 - So you have 2 full months to play with them
 - Hybrid ones (A and D) next Friday and then in Canvas
 - Sync ones (B and C) in April
-

4	5	6	7	8	9	10
CM6:Graph Fundamentals (Recitation I)	CM6 reading/Canvas quiz Part II due	CM6:Graph Fundamentals (3)		CM6 Assignment Due ON PAPER	Asynchronous EMs Release	
				EMa/d: Graph Applications in AI and Robotics		
11	12	13	14	15	16	17
						CM6 Gradescope Assignment Actually Due
18	19	20	21	22	23	24
	CM7 reading/Canvas quiz due			CM7:Combinatorics (1) ONLINE		

No recitations
 Recitations are converted into consulting hours
 Some will be online
 Graders start grading CM6 on 3/18 evening

CS230 Spring 2024

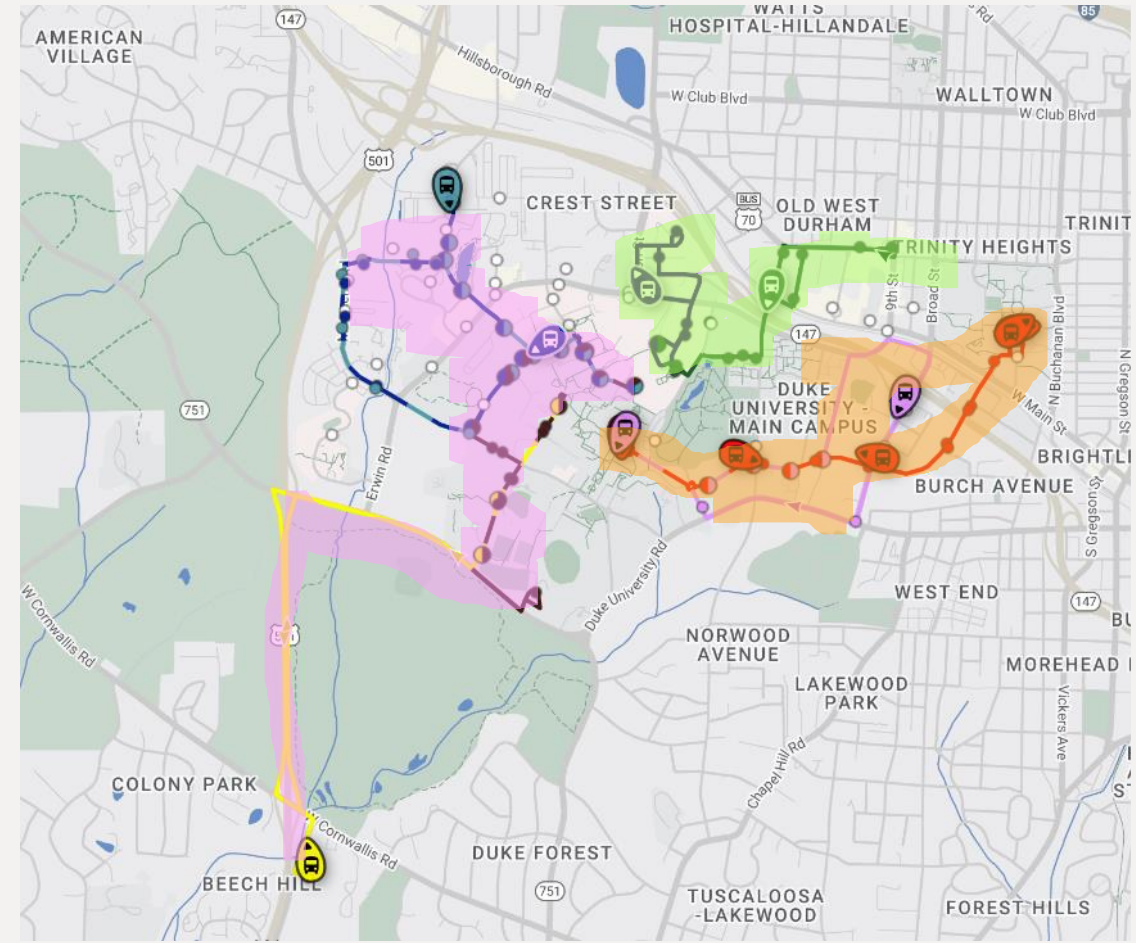
Module 06: Graph Fundamentals

Graph Topics

(connectivity, colorability, matching)

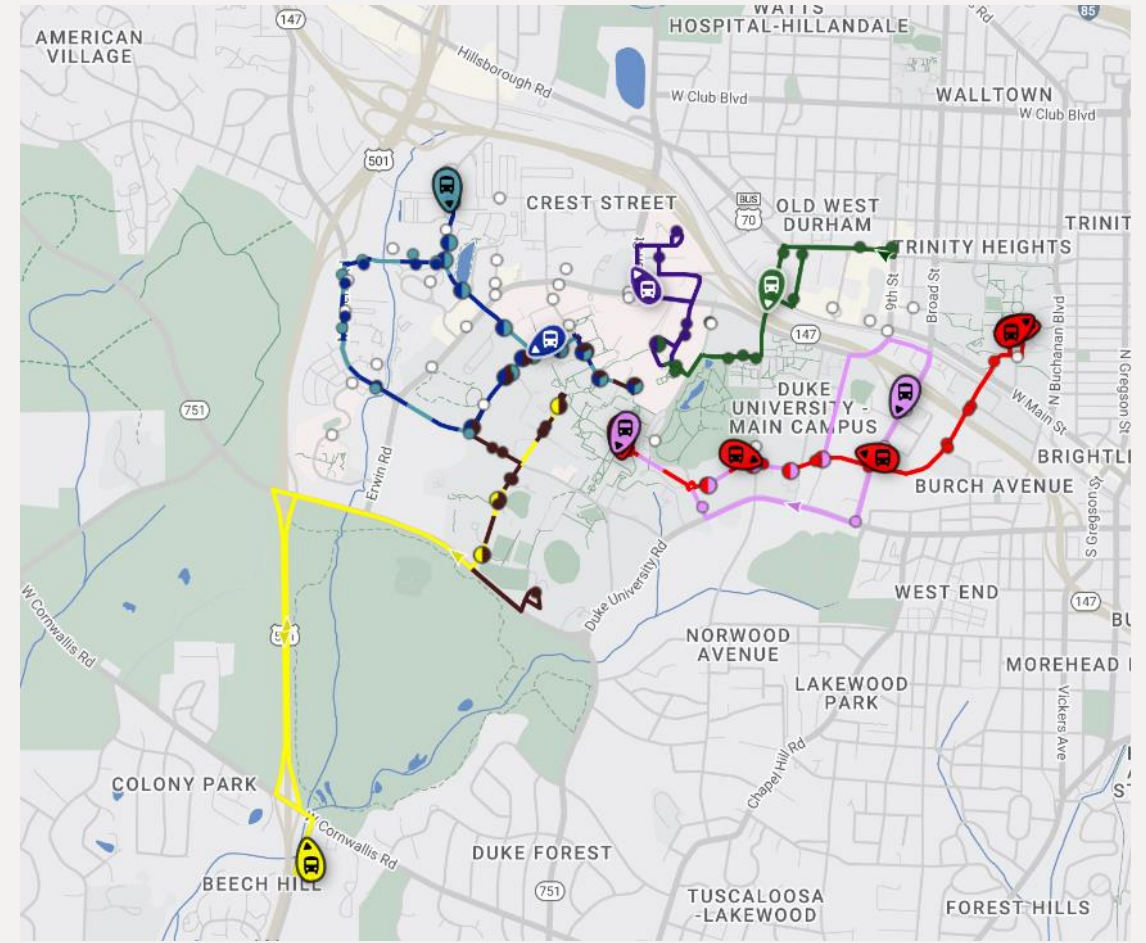
Connectivity

- “Graph of Duke bus network” during non-peak time of a regular weekday
- one vertex for each bus stop
- (undirected) edges between two consecutive stops on a route

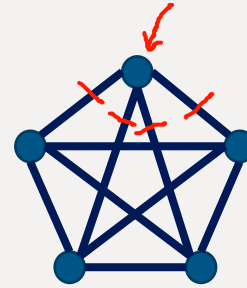


Modeling the world

- What does the graph and its connectivity really capture?
- Should we model the graph differently?
 - Depend on what we care about



k –connectivity



The complete graph K_n
with n vertices is
 $(n - 1)$ –edge connected
and also
 $(n - 1)$ –vertex connected

- A graph G is said to be k –edge connected if G remains connected after the removal of (any) $k - 1$ edges.
 - It takes at least k removals to disconnect the graph
- A graph G is said to be k –vertex connected if G remains connected after the removal of (any) $k - 1$ vertices.
 - Remember edges can only exist between pairs of vertices, so removing a vertex also removes all edges incident to the vertex.

PI: k -connectivity



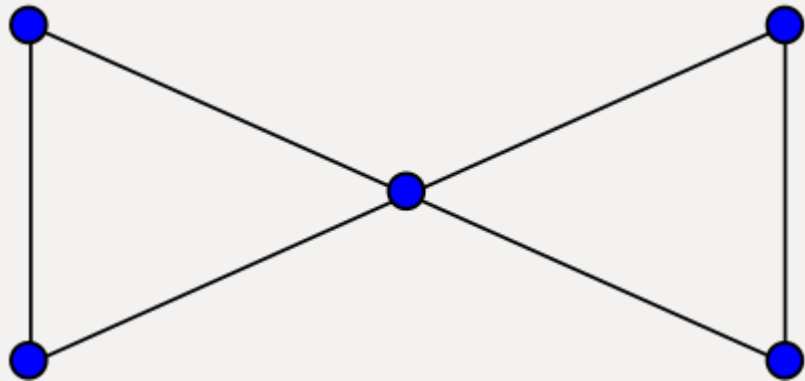
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1 point

Which of the following implications are true for all $k \geq 2$?

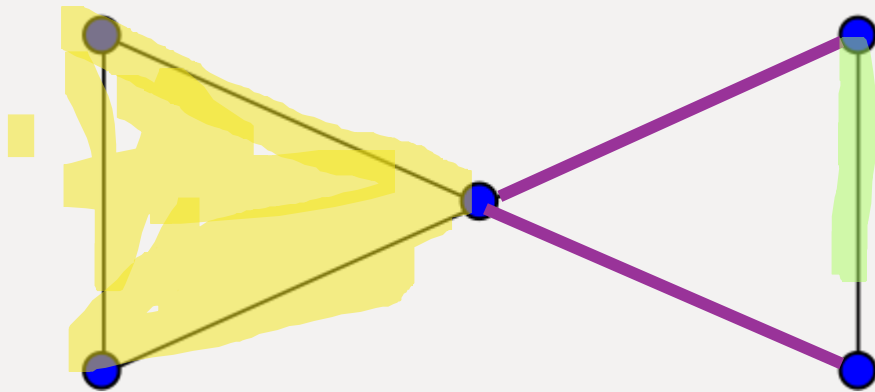
- ☐ If a graph is k -edge connected, then it is also k -vertex connected
- ☒ If a graph is k -edge connected, then it is also $(k - 1)$ -edge connected
- ☒ If a graph is k -vertex connected, then it is also $(k - 1)$ -vertex connected

The butterfly graph



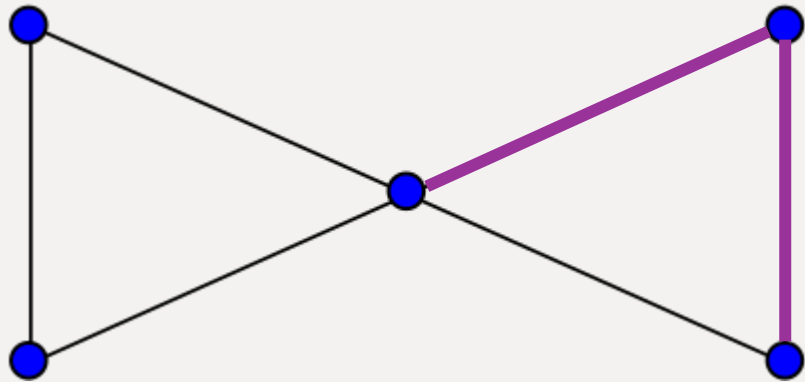
- 2 –edge connected
- 1 –vertex connected
- Not 2 –vertex connected
- Continued in recitation

Edge cut and vertex cut



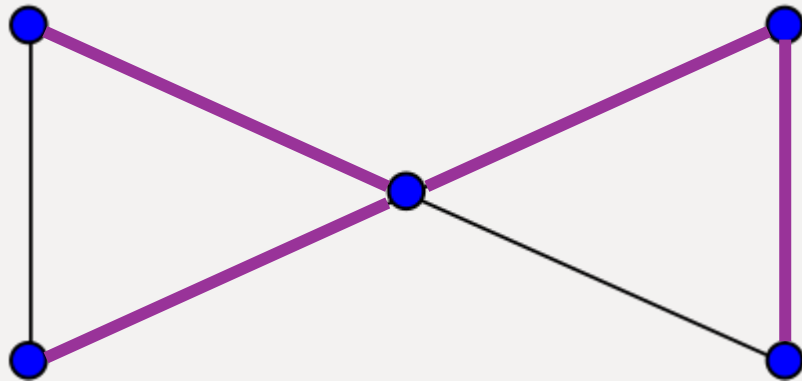
- In a graph $G = (V, E)$, a subset of edges $E' \subseteq E$ is an **edge cut** if $G' = (V, E \setminus E')$ is disconnected.
- Can define vertex cuts similarly

Edge cut and vertex cut



- In a graph $G = (V, E)$, a subset of edges $E' \subseteq E$ is an **edge cut** if $G' = (V, E \setminus E')$ is disconnected.
- There are multiple **minimum edge cuts** (in terms of $|E'|$)

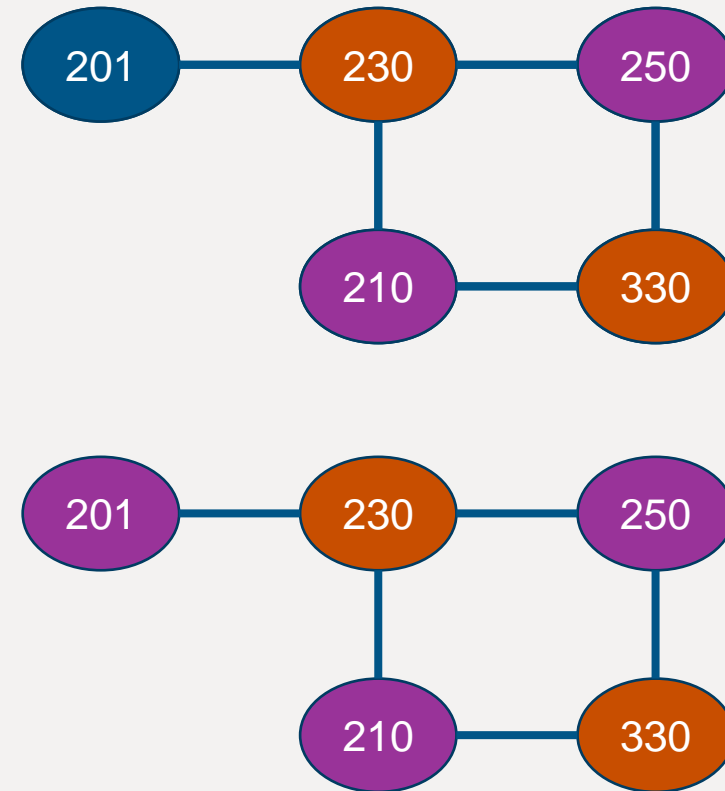
Edge cut and vertex cut



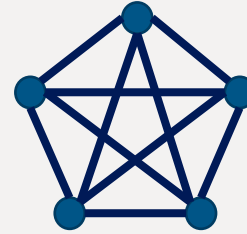
- In a graph $G = (V, E)$, a subset of edges $E' \subseteq E$ is an **edge cut** if $G' = (V, E \setminus E')$ is disconnected.
- **Non-minimum edge cut**

Coloring

- “Final exam scheduling problem”
- one vertex for each class
- an edge between two vertices if there are students taking both classes
- each “color” is a final exam slot



k –colorability



The complete graph K_n with n vertices is n –colorable but not $(n - 1)$ –colorable, so $\chi(K_n) = n$

- A graph $G = (V, E)$ is said to be k –(vertex) colorable if there is a function $f: V \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ such that for every edge $(u, v) \in E$ we have $f(u) \neq f(v)$.
- In words: we can color the vertices using k colors, such that the two endpoints of each edge have different colors.
- The minimum such k is called the chromatic number $\chi(G)$
- Can define k –edge colorable similarly (swap vertices and edges)

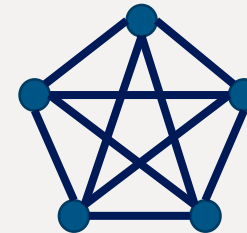
PI: k -colorability

1

1 point

Which of the following implications are true for all k ?

- ☒ If a graph is k -colorable, then it is also $(k + 1)$ -colorable
- ☐ If a graph is k -colorable, then it is also $(k - 1)$ -colorable
- ☐ If a graph is k -vertex connected, then it is also k -colorable
- ☐ If a graph is k -colorable, then it is also k -vertex connected



The complete graph K_n with $n > 2$ vertices is
2 -vertex connected
 but not
2 -colorable



Inducting on graphs

- Consider again the set of undirected (simple) graphs, \mathcal{G}
- **Theorem.** Define the maximum degree of a graph $G \in \mathcal{G}$ as $\Delta(G) := \max_{v \in V} \deg(v)$. Then every G is $(\Delta(G) + 1)$ -colorable.
- **Proof:**
 - **Base Case(s).** For $G = (\emptyset, \emptyset)$, $\Delta(G) = 0$ and G is indeed 1-colorable
 - **Induction Step.** What should we do here?

Never attempt a structural induction without thinking about the recursive definition first

Recursively defined structures

- Example 4. The set of (undirected) graphs, \mathcal{G} , can be defined as:
 - **Base Case:** $G = (\emptyset, \emptyset) \in \mathcal{G}$ (the “empty graph”)
 - **Constructor Case:** If $G = (V, E) \in \mathcal{G}$, then:
 - $G' = (V \cup \{v\}, E) \in \mathcal{G}$ (“add a vertex”)
 - $G' = (V, E \cup \{e\}) \in \mathcal{G}$ where $e = (u, v), u, v \in V$ (“add an edge”)
-

An alternative recursive definition

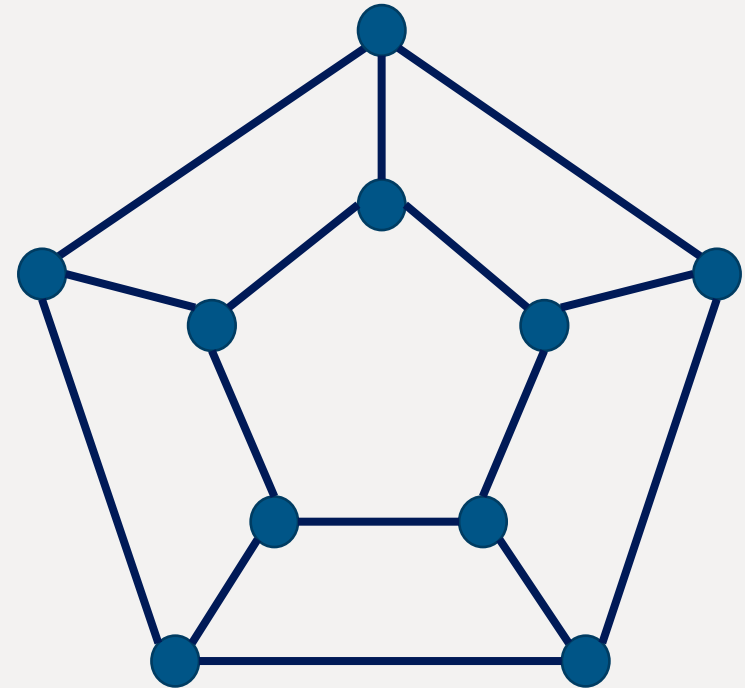
- The set of (undirected) simple graphs, \mathcal{G} , can be alternatively defined as:
 - **Base Case:** $G = (\emptyset, \emptyset) \in \mathcal{G}$ (the “empty graph”)
 - **Constructor Case:** If $G = (V, E) \in \mathcal{G}$, then:
 - $G' = (V \cup \{v\}, E \cup E_v) \in \mathcal{G}$ (“add a vertex and all its incident edges”)
 - Every edge in E_v must be between v and some existing vertex

Inducting on graphs

- **Theorem.** Define the maximum degree of a graph $G \in \mathcal{G}$ as $\Delta(G) := \max_{v \in V} \deg(v)$. Then every G is $(\Delta(G) + 1)$ -colorable.
 - **Induction Step.** (contains informal language):
 - Assume G is $(\Delta(G) + 1)$ -colorable. Consider $G' = (V \cup \{v\}, E \cup E_v)$ where $|E_v| \leq \Delta(G')$.
 - Consider any proper $(\Delta(G) + 1)$ -coloring of G (let's call it $\mathcal{C}(G)$). By definition we have $\Delta(G) \leq \Delta(G')$, which means $\mathcal{C}(G)$ uses at most $\Delta(G') + 1$ colors.
 - Every neighbor of v has a color in $\mathcal{C}(G)$. Since there are $|E_v| \leq \Delta(G')$ neighbors of v , they use up at most $|E_v| \leq \Delta(G')$ colors. Since we have $\Delta(G') + 1$ colors, there is at least one spare color for v .
 - This in combination with $\mathcal{C}(G)$ gives a proper $(\Delta(G') + 1)$ -coloring of G' .
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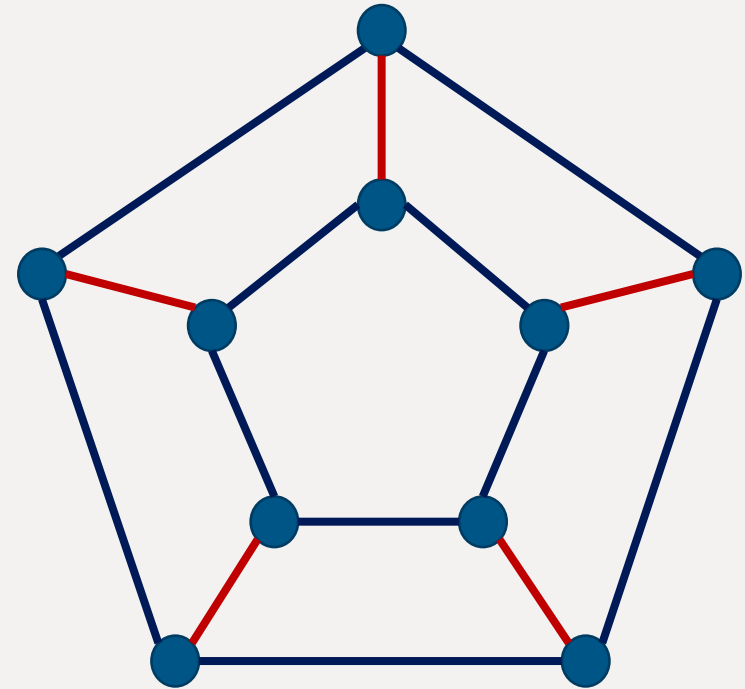
Matching

- A **matching** of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is an edge subset $M \subseteq E$ such that in the subgraph $G' = (V, M)$ we have $\deg(v) \leq 1$ for all $v \in V$.
- In words, each vertex is either matched to another vertex or unmatched.
- **Perfect** matching if $\deg(v) = 1 \forall v \in V$



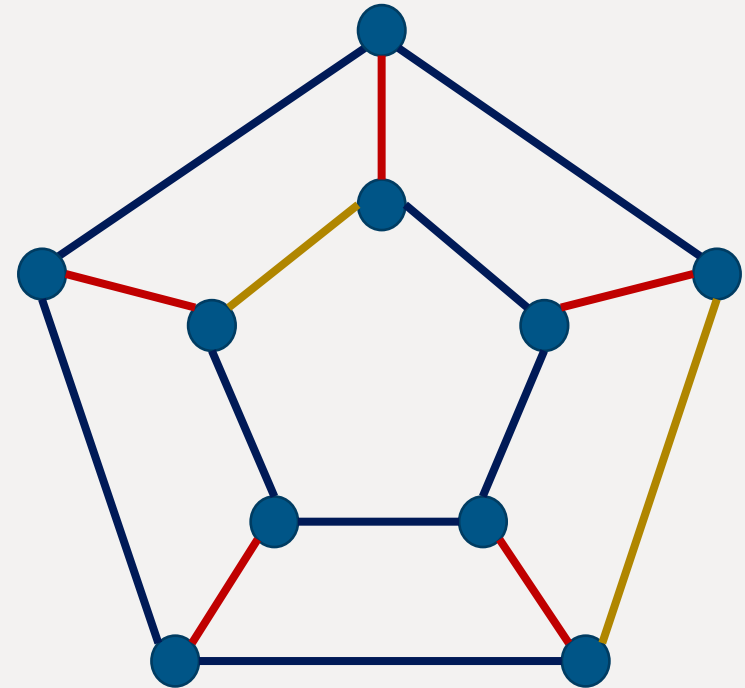
Matching

- {Red edges} is a perfect matching



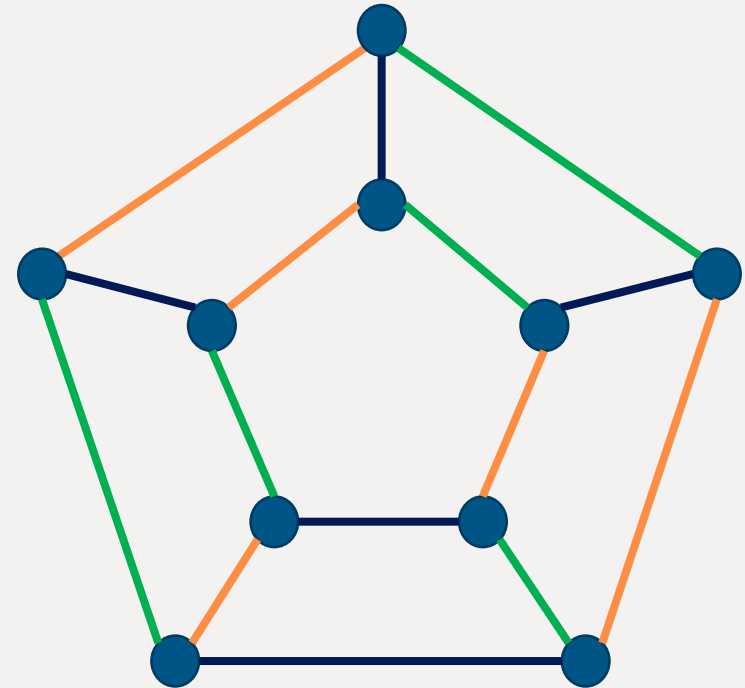
Matching

- {Red edges} is a perfect matching
- {Gold edges} is a matching but not perfect
- {Purple edges} is a matching as well
 - what, not seeing the edges? There's no edge in this matching at all



Matching

- Perfect matching
- Yet another perfect matching that is **disjoint** with the orange one
- The uncolored edges form a third disjoint perfect matching



Bipartite Matching

- **Matching**, but with the underlying graph already bipartite:
 $G = (L \cup R, E)$
 - **Matching** TAs/residents/interns with positions
 - **Matching** jobs with machine cycles/slots
 - ... but **NOT**: ~~matching men with women~~
 - These applications often involves preferences and some additional ideas of what an *optimal* matching looks like (stable, fair, ...)
 - We will just discuss **whether a perfect matching exists**
-

Hall's theorem (for the special case $|L| = |R|$)

- Theorem.

A bipartite graph $G = (L \cup R, E)$ has a perfect matching
if and only if

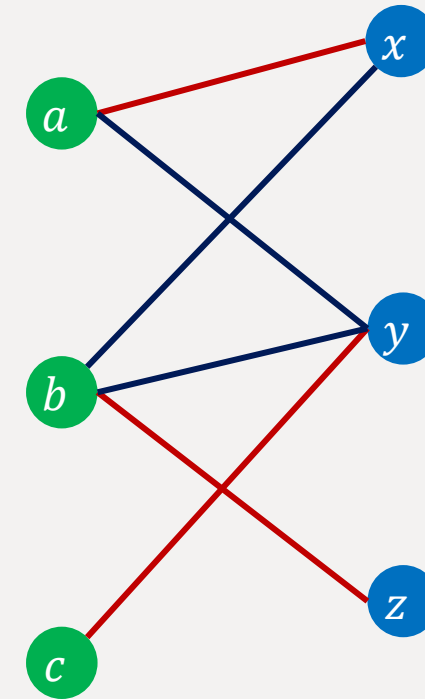
Hall's condition

for any subset $S \subseteq L$, the size of the image of S w.r.t. E , $N(S)$,
is at least as large as $|S|$.

- $N(S)$ is just the set of all vertices in R that are connected to some vertices in L by edges in E

Terminology Practice

S	$ S $	$N(S)$	$ N(S) $	Hall's condition satisfied?
$\{a\}$	1	$\{x, y\}$	2	Yes
$\{b\}$	1	$\{x, y, z\}$	3	Yes
$\{c\}$	1	$\{y\}$	1	Yes
$\{a, b\}$	2	$\{x, y, z\}$	3	Yes
$\{a, c\}$	2	$\{x, y\}$	2	Yes
$\{b, c\}$	2	$\{x, y, z\}$	3	Yes
$\{a, b, c\}$	3	$\{x, y, z\}$	3	Yes



Proof of Hall's theorem (1)

- Part 1. perfect matching exists \Rightarrow Hall's condition
 - Simple prove by contradiction: assume Hall's condition doesn't hold
 - Then there exists a subset $S \subseteq L$ such that $|N(S)| < |S|$
 - But if a perfect matching exists, every vertex in S needs to match with a distinct vertex in $N(S)$, which means $|N(S)| \geq |S|$, a contradiction
-

Proof of Hall's theorem (2)

- Part 2. Hall's condition \Rightarrow perfect matching exists
 - The set of **balanced** bipartite graphs, \mathcal{B} , can be alternatively defined as:
 - **Base Case:** $G = (\emptyset \cup \emptyset, \emptyset) \in \mathcal{B}$ (the “empty graph”)
 - **Constructor Case:** If $G = (L \cup R, E) \in \mathcal{B}$, then:
 - $G = ((L \cup \{l\}) \cup (R \cup \{r\}), E \cup E') \in \mathcal{B}$
 (“adding one vertex to each side, then add some edges”)
 - ... this is hard to work with! We will instead resort to a (weak) induction
-

Proof of Hall's theorem (2)

- Part 2. Hall's condition \Rightarrow perfect matching exists for all $|L| = |R| = n$
 - **Proof:**
 - **Base Case.** $n = 0$. For $G = (\emptyset \cup \emptyset, \emptyset)$, \emptyset is a perfect matching (yes it is)
 - **Inductive Hypothesis.** Assume the theorem holds for $n = k$ for $k \geq 0$.
 - **Induction Step.** Consider a graph $G = (L \cup R, E)$ with $|L| = |R| = k + 1$.
 - Case 1. Hall's condition is loosely satisfied (equation never holds).
 - Case 2. Hall's condition is tightly satisfied (equation holds for some S).
-

Proof of Hall's theorem (2-1)

- Part 2-1. Hall's condition loosely satisfied \Rightarrow perfect matching exists
 - **Induction Step.** Consider a graph $G = (L \cup R, E)$ with $|L| = |R| = k + 1$ such that for all $S \subseteq L$ we have $|N(S)| > |S|$.
 - Pick an arbitrary left vertex $l \in L$ and match l with an arbitrary right vertex $r \in N(\{l\})$
 - Consider the remainder graph $G' = (L - \{l\} \cup R - \{r\}, E')$ with k vertices each side.
 - Now for all $S' \subseteq L - \{l\}$, we have $|N'(S')| \geq |N(S')| - 1 \geq |S'|$.
 - In other words, Hall's condition is still satisfied (not necessarily loosely) for G' .
 - Any perfect matching of G' plus (l, r) is a perfect matching for G !
-

Proof of Hall's theorem (2-2 - *skeleton*)

- Part 2-2. Hall's condition **strictly** satisfied \Rightarrow perfect matching exists
- **Induction Step.** Consider a graph $G = (L \cup R, E)$ with $|L| = |R| = k + 1$ such that for all $S \subseteq L$ we have $|N(S)| \geq |S|$ and the equality holds for at least one S .
 - Find a perfect matching between $|S|$ and $|N(S)|$
 - Consider the rest of the graph without $|S|$ and $|N(S)|$
 - We can show Hall's condition still holds for this remainder graph
 - Therefore there is a perfect matching for this remainder graph; combine the two parts gives a perfect matching for the entire graph