

CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

24 SEP 2013

Last Class

1. $2^{(l-2)/2} \leq R(l, l) \leq 2^{2(l-1)} / \sqrt{2(l-1)}$

2. Started with Module - 3 (graph theory)

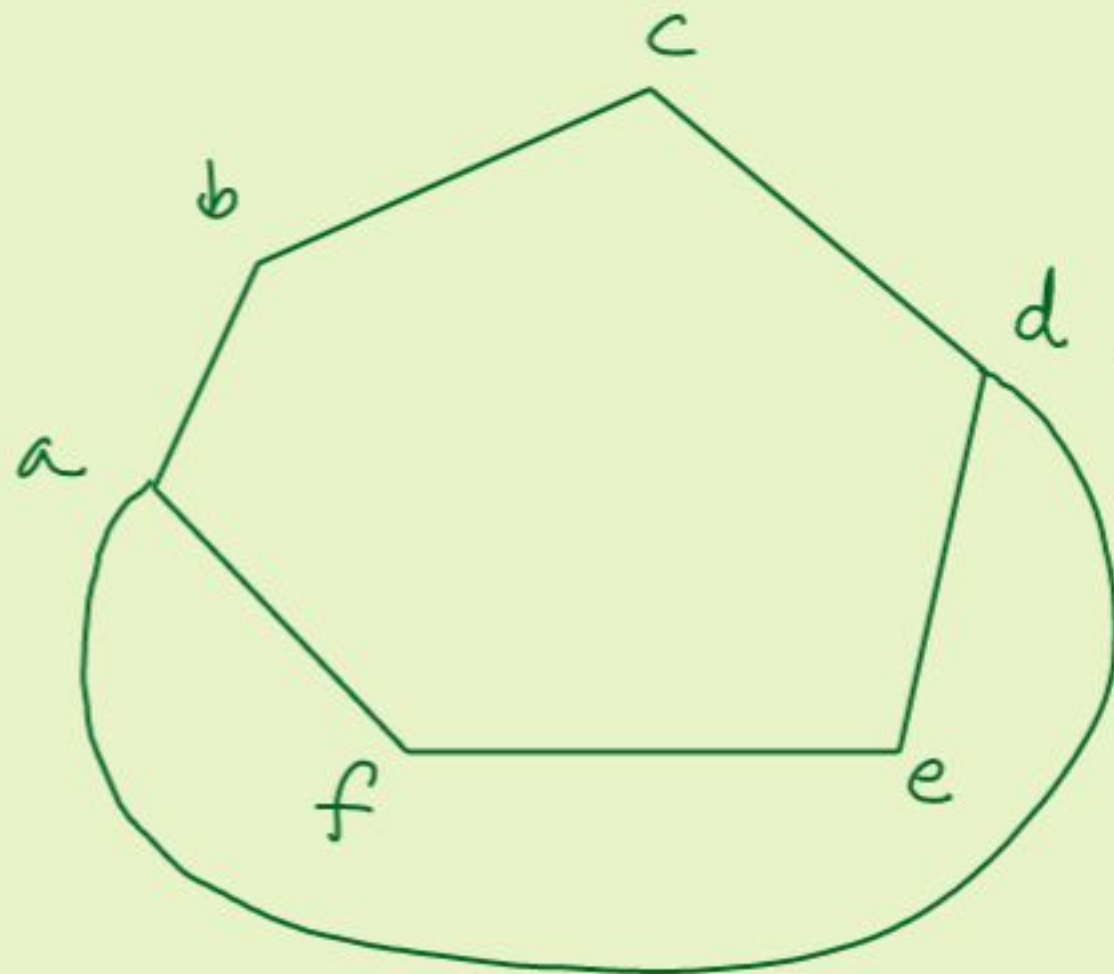
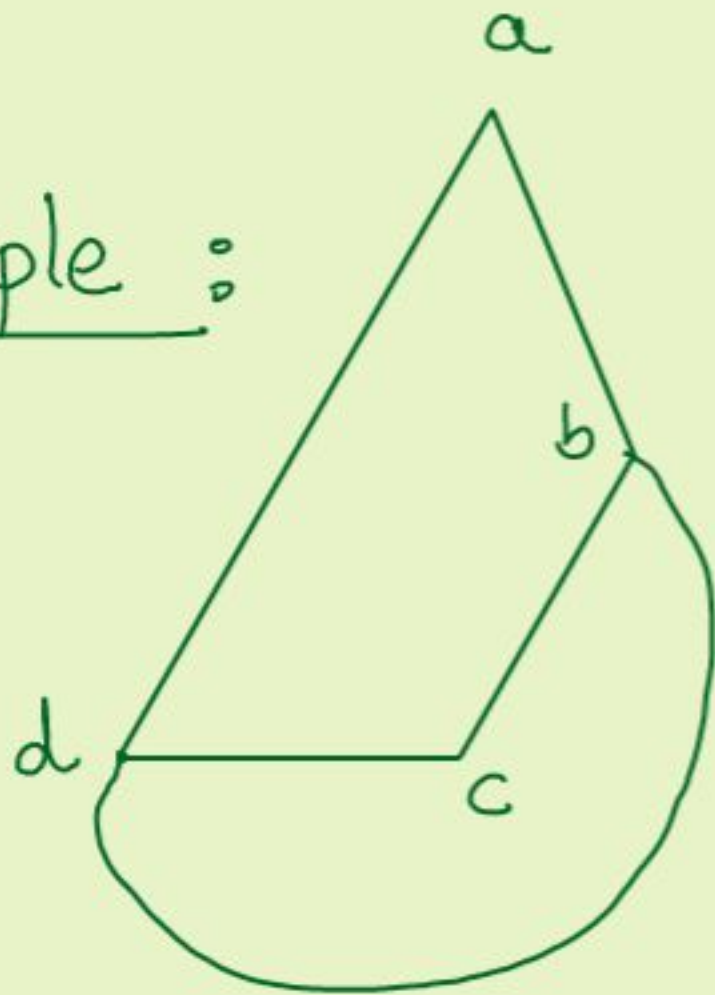
A graph $G = (V, E)$ is called bipartite if the vertices of the graph can be partitioned $V = X \dot{\cup} Y$ s.t.

$\forall e = (u, v) \in E$: either $u \in X$ and $v \in Y$
or $u \in Y$ and $v \in X$.

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Example :



Some definitions: Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph:

Walk: is a sequence of vertices $u_1, u_2, u_3, \dots, u_k$
such that $\forall i \in [k-1], (u_i, u_{i+1}) \in E$.

Path: a walk is a path if no vertex repeats itself.

Closed walk: a walk is called a closed walk if it
starts and ends at the same vertex.

Cycle: a closed walk $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_l, u_1$ is called
a cycle if $u_1 \neq u_2 \neq \dots \neq u_l$.

Some more definitions

- length of a path $\stackrel{\Delta}{=} \#$ edges on the path.
- length of a cycle $\stackrel{\Delta}{=} \#$ edges on the cycle.
- a path (cycle) is called odd (even) if its length is odd (respectively, even).

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if
it does not have an odd cycle.

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Proof : (\Rightarrow) First we will prove that if the graph is bipartite then it does not have an odd cycle.

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Proof : (\Rightarrow) a cycle must begin & end in the same vertex.

As $G = (V, E)$ is bipartite, let $V = X \dot{\cup} Y$ be its bipartition.

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Rightarrow) a cycle must begin & end in the same vertex, say $x \in X$.

$$x = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{2k-1}, x_{2k}, x_{2k+1}$$

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$$x = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{2k-1}, x_{2k}, x_{2k+1}$$

$$x \in X \longrightarrow \forall i \in [k+1], x_{2i} \in X, x_{2i-1} \in Y.$$

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$$x \in X \longrightarrow x_{2k+1} \in Y \longrightarrow x \in Y$$

(a contradiction).

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Leftarrow) If a graph does not have any odd cycle then it is bipartite.

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Leftarrow) If every cycle has even length then the graph is bipartite.

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Leftarrow)

- pick an arb vertex $u \in V$
- $\forall u \in V$, let $\text{label}(u) \leftarrow \text{Dist}(u, u)$

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Leftarrow)

- pick an arb vertex $v \in V$
- $\forall u \in V$, let $\text{label}(u) \leftarrow \text{Dist}(u, v)$

$\text{Dist}(u, v) =$ length of the shortest path between u & v .

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Leftarrow)

- pick an arb vertex $u \in V$
- $\forall u \in V$, let $\text{label}(u) \leftarrow \text{Dist}(u, u)$
- $V_{\text{ODD}} \leftarrow \{u \mid \text{label}(u) = 1 \pmod{2}\}$
- $V_{\text{EVEN}} \leftarrow \{u \mid \text{label}(u) = 0 \pmod{2}\}$

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If we prove that V_{ODD} & V_{EVEN} form a bipartition, then we will be done.

Claim : $\forall (x,y) \in E$ either $x \in V_{\text{ODD}}$ & $y \in V_{\text{EVEN}}$
or $x \in V_{\text{EVEN}}$ & $y \in V_{\text{ODD}}$.

proof : Suppose $\exists (x,y)$ s.t. $x, y \in V_{\text{ODD}}$.

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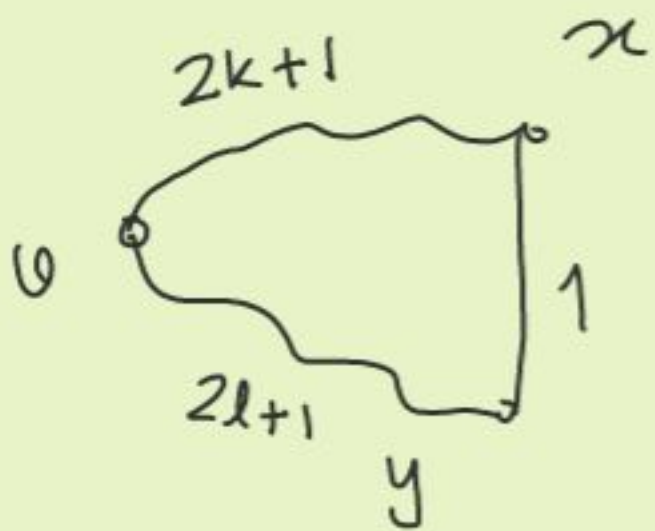
$\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$, \exists path of length $2k+1$ from u to x
& $\exists l \in \mathbb{N}$, \exists path of length $2l+1$ from u to y

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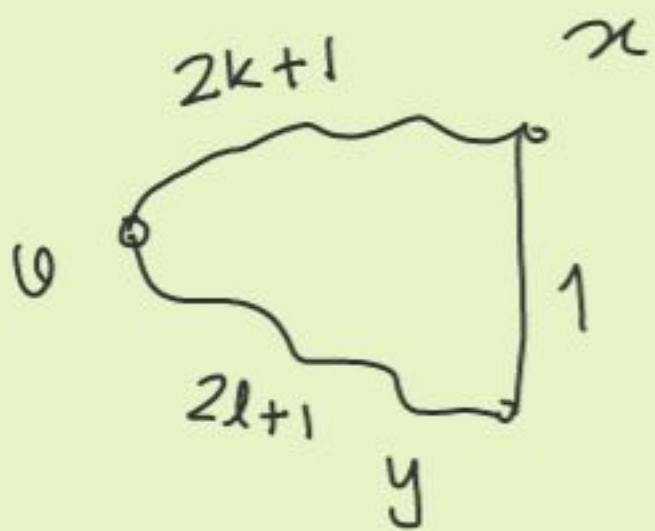


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\therefore a cycle of length
 $2(k+l+1) + 1$

i.e. a contradiction.

Theorem : A graph is bipartite if and only if it does not have an odd cycle.

Proof : (\Leftarrow)

- pick an arb vertex $u \in V$
- $\forall u \in V$, let $\text{label}(u) \leftarrow \text{Dist}(u, u)$
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- V_{ODD} and V_{EVEN} form a bipartition of V

□

Lemma : Every simple graph has a bipartite subgraph with $|E|/2$ edges.

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Is the above statement true?

Lemma : Every simple graph has a bipartite subgraph with $\geq |E|/2$ edges.

Is the above statement true?

Does there exist a graph with exactly $\frac{|E|}{2}$ sized bipartite graph inside it?

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26 SEP 2013

Last Class

1. Bipartite graphs : a graph is bipartite iff it has no odd cycle.
2. Every simple graph has a bipartite subgraph of size $\geq \lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$

Today :

- Finish the proof of the statement presented last time
- Matchings — perfect matchings in bipartite graphs (Hall's condition).

Any simple graph has a bipartite subgraph with at least $\lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$ edges

Simple graph : A graph is said to be simple if

- ≤ 1 edge between any pair of vertices
- no self-loops

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Subgraph : $H = (V', E')$ is called a subgraph of $G = (V, E)$ if $E' \subseteq E$ and $V' = \{v \mid \exists u \in V : (u, v) \in E'\}$

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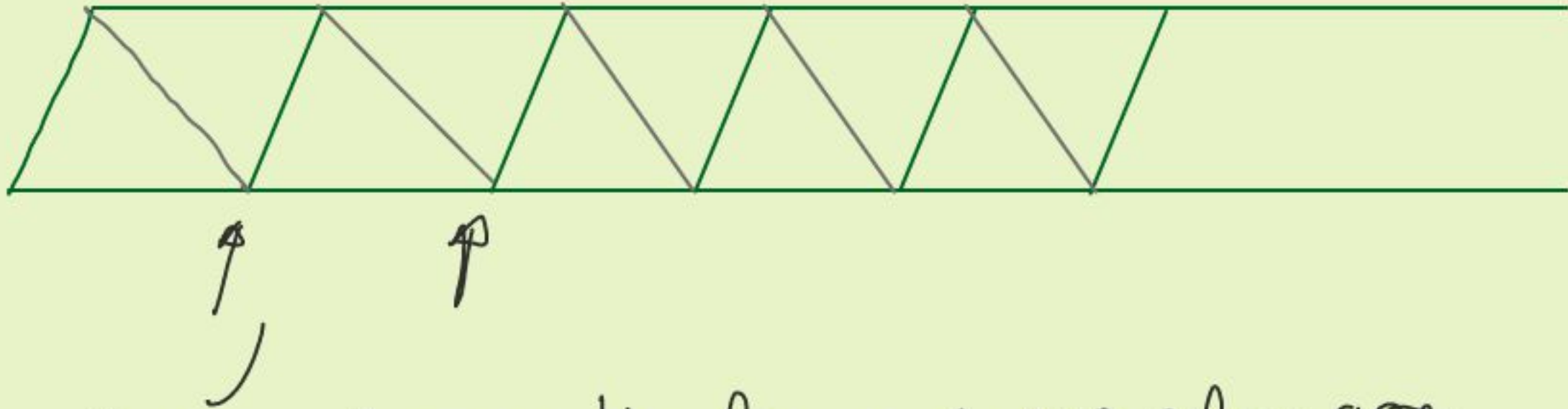
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Bipartite subgraph : A subgraph which is bipartite.

Any simple graph has a bipartite subgraph with at least $\lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$ edges.



Between 2 consecutive layers 4 new edges are added. By removing 1 out of them the graph can be made bipartite.

Any simple graph has a bipartite subgraph with at least $\lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$ edges.

proof: Arbitrarily divide the vertices of the graph $G=(V,E)$ into two sets, say X, Y

$\forall u \in V, \text{ part}(u) := \begin{cases} X & \text{if } u \in X \\ Y & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

$\forall u \in V \quad \text{nbr}(u) = \{v \mid (u,v) \in E\}.$

Any simple graph has a bipartite subgraph with at least $\lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$ edges.

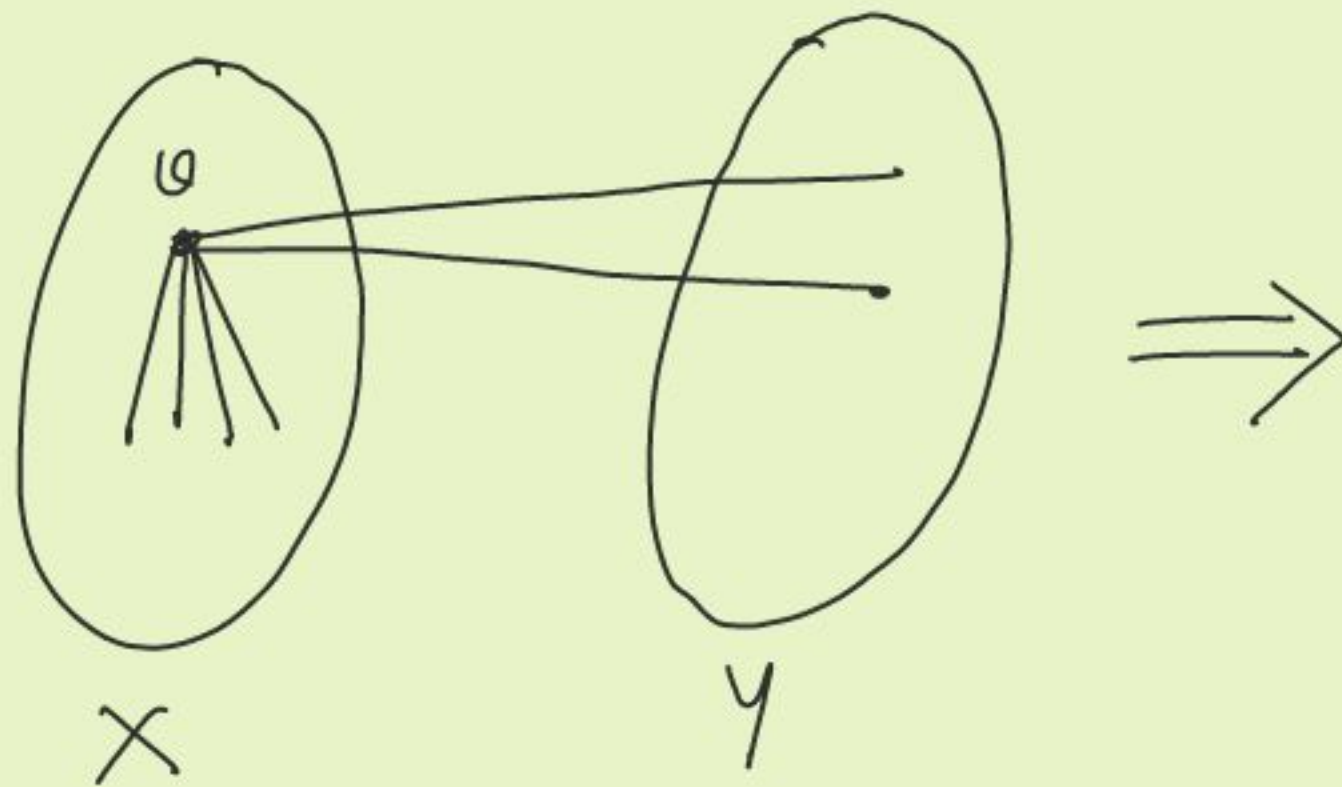
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If $\exists v \in V$ s.t.

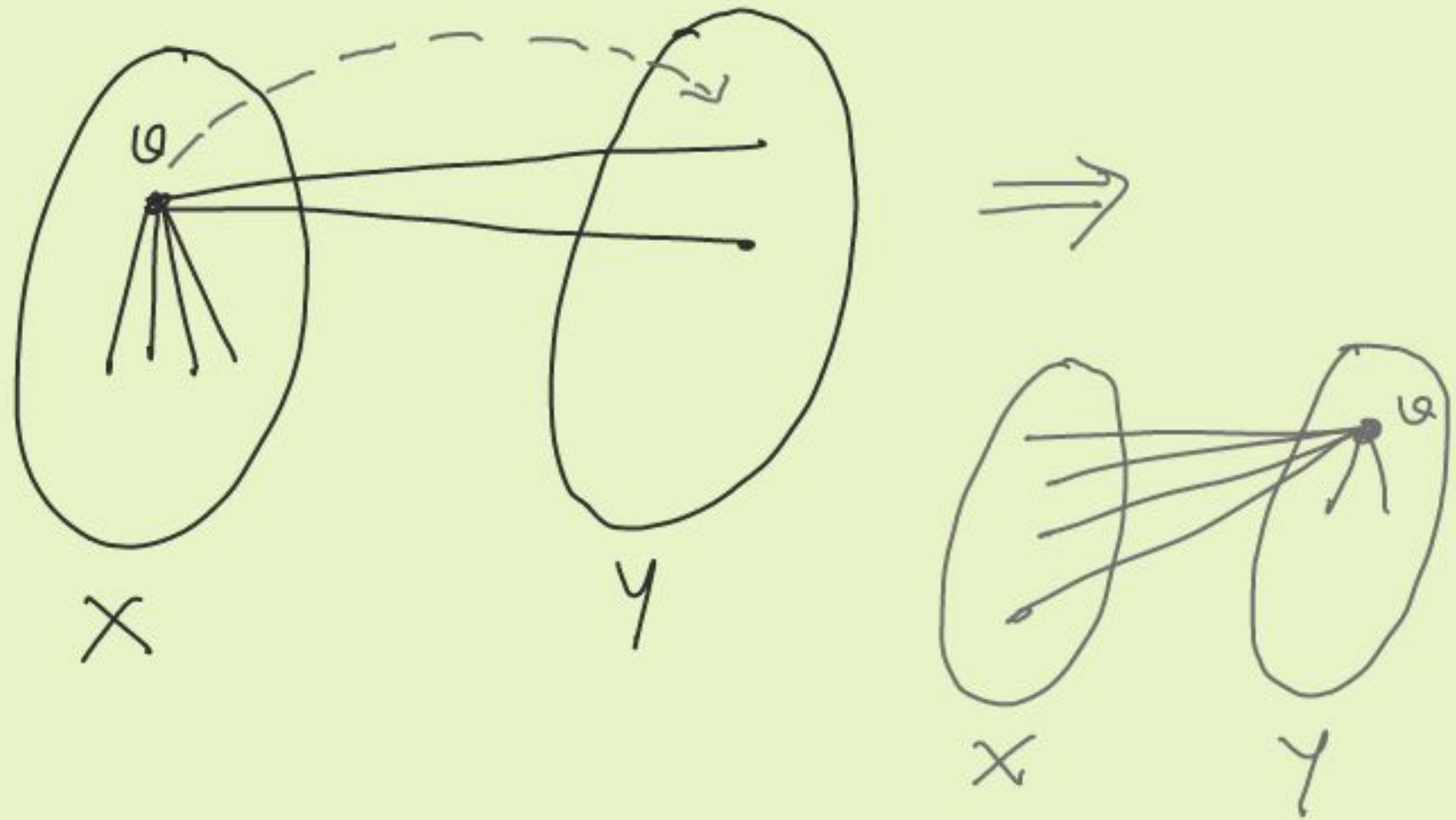
$|nbr(v) \cap part(v)| > |nbr(v) \cap V \setminus part(v)|$ } Keep doing this.

then $part(v) \leftarrow V \setminus part(v)$.

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#edges going across X, Y always increase.

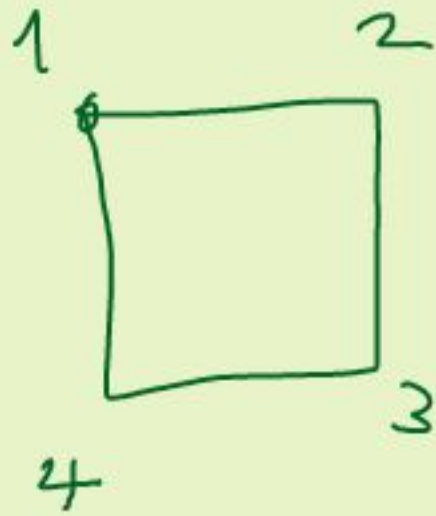
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1. The above procedure terminates:
2. After the procedure terminates, the number of edges that go across X, Y are at least $\lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$.

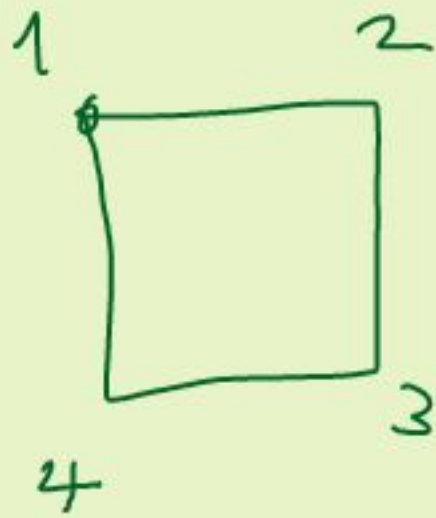
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1. The above procedure terminates:
2. After the procedure terminates, the number of edges that go across X, Y are at least $\lceil \frac{|E|}{2} \rceil$
 - ∴ for each vertex in part X (or Y) at least half of its nbors are in $V \setminus X$ (or $V \setminus Y$ respectively).

A Matching : A subset of edges in a graph is called a matching if no two edges share an endpoint.

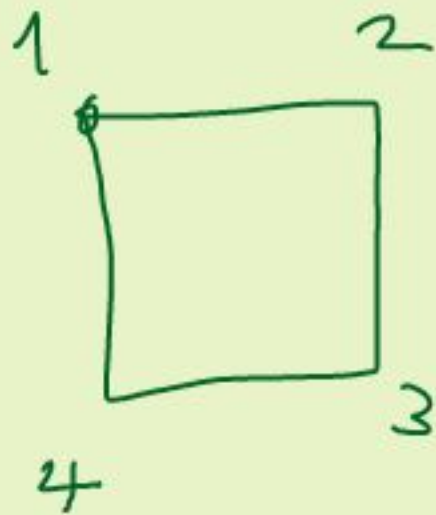


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$\{(1,2), (3,4)\}$

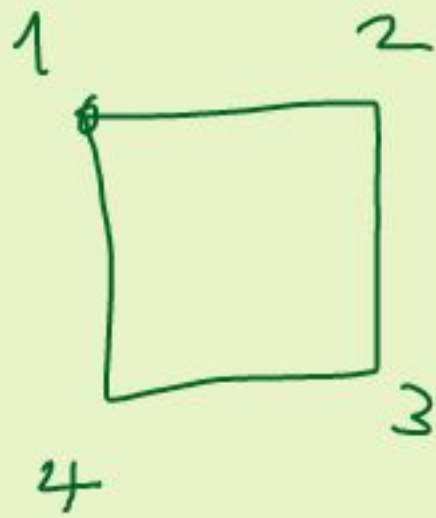
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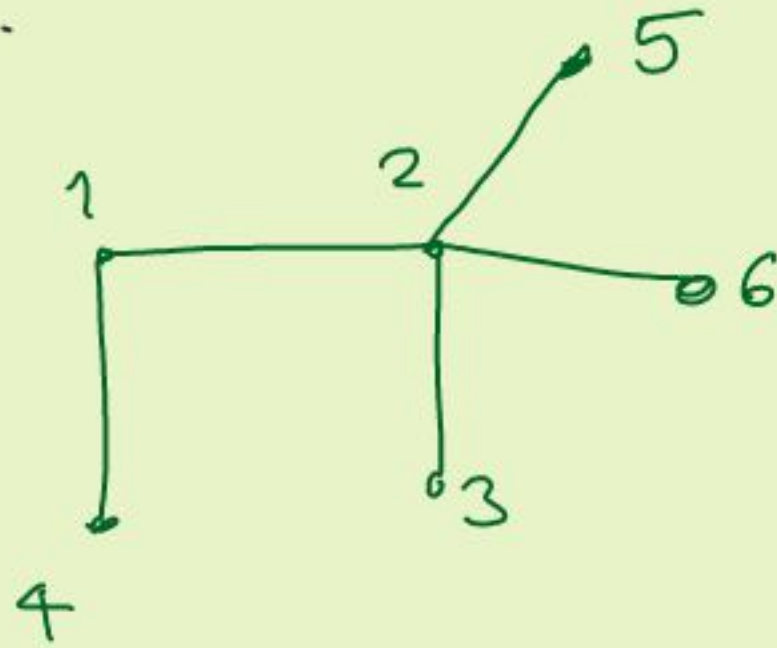
$$\{(1,4), (2,3)\}$$

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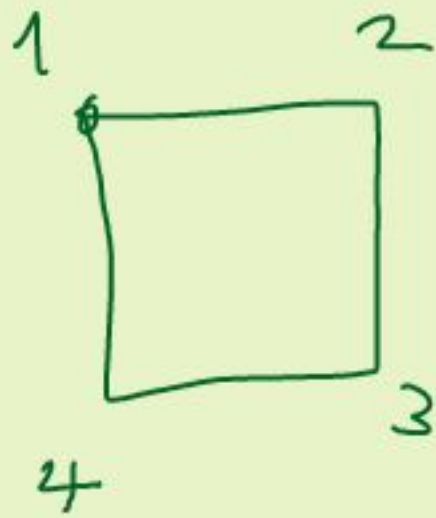


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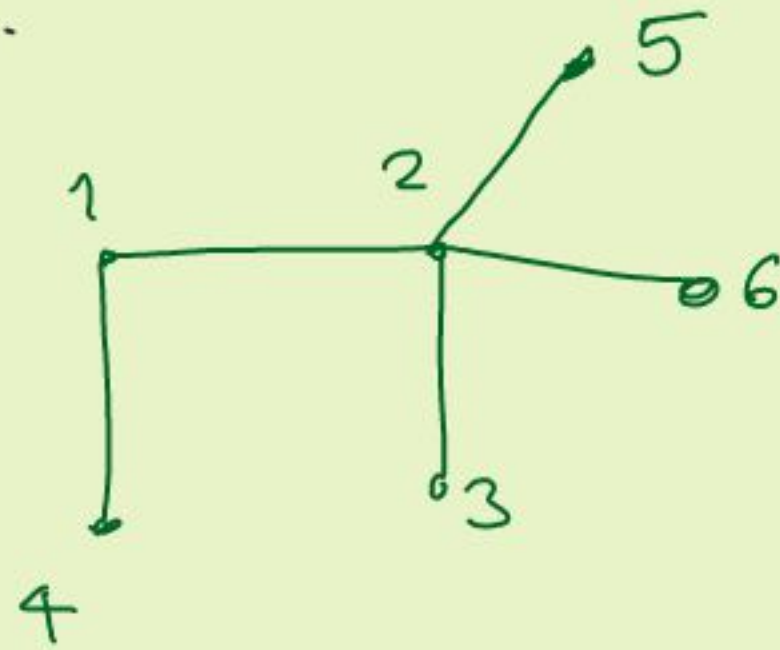


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$$\{(1,2)\}, \{(1,4), (2,3)\},$$

$$\{(2,5)\}, \dots$$

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A maximal matching : A matching is called maximal if no more edges can be added to it.

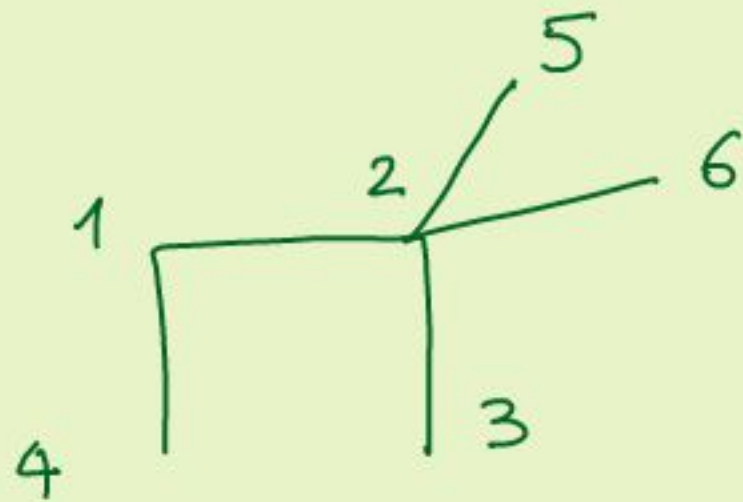
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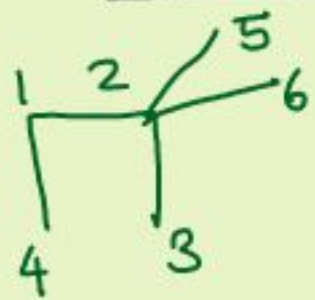
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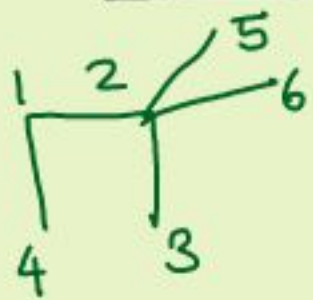


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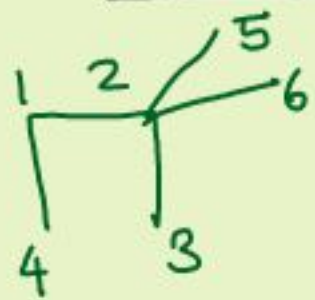


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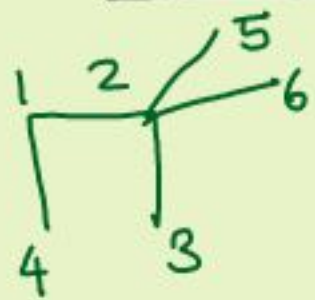
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By PMP, at least two edges belong to the same matching $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$

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 \therefore only even number of edges in any cycle.

Hall's condition : Let $G = (X, Y, E)$ be a bipartite graph.

There exists a matching in which all vertices of X are matched if and only if

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$$Nbr(S) = \{u \mid \exists v \in S : (u, v) \in E\}$$

Set of nbrs of elements of S .

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30 SEP 2013

Last Class

1. Every simple graph has a bipartite subgraph
2. Matchings - maximal, maximum, perfect matchings.

Today :

- Perfect matchings in bipartite graphs. (Hall's condition)
- Definition of stable matchings. ..

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Hall's condition : Let $G = (X, Y, E)$ be a bipartite graph.

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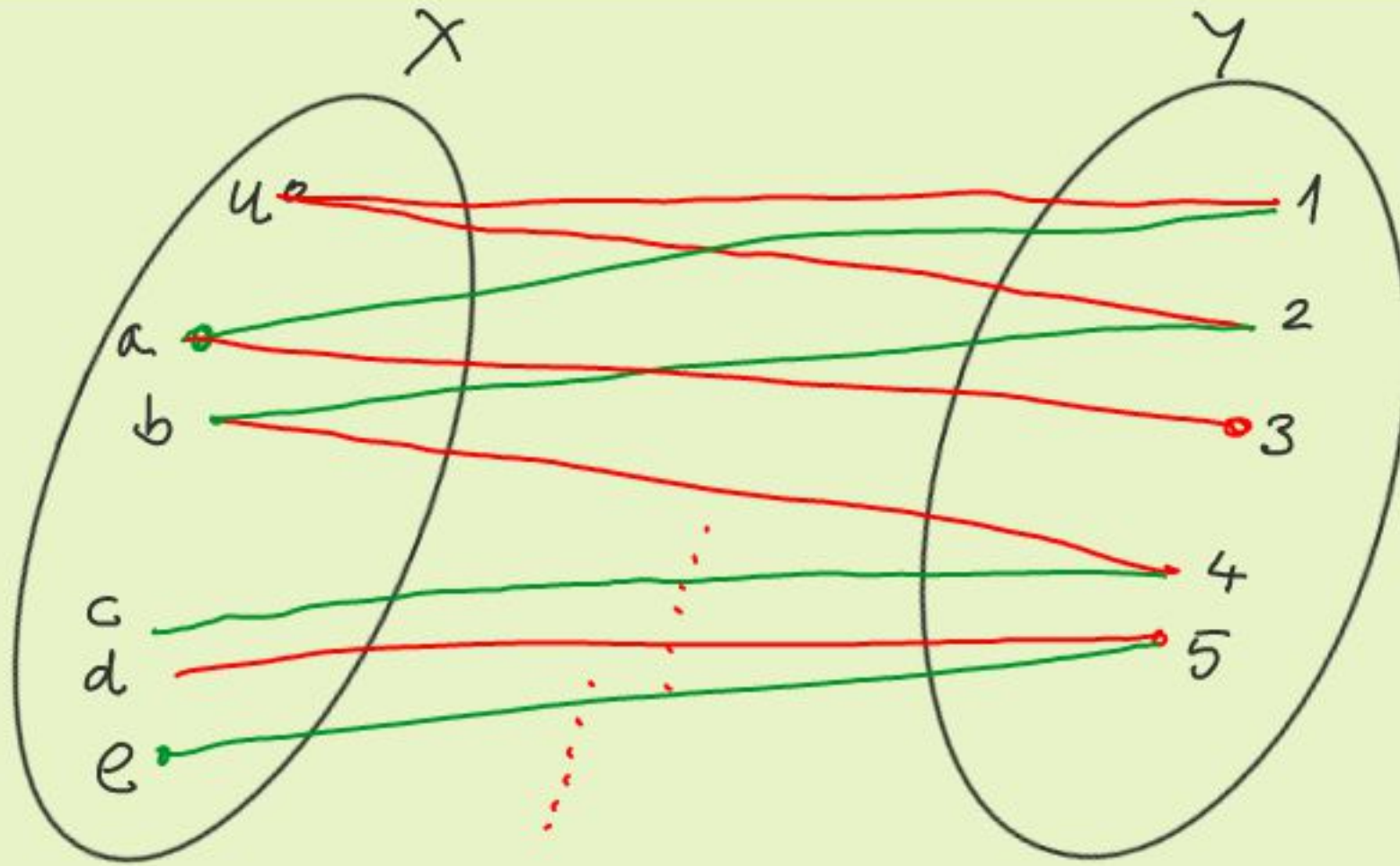
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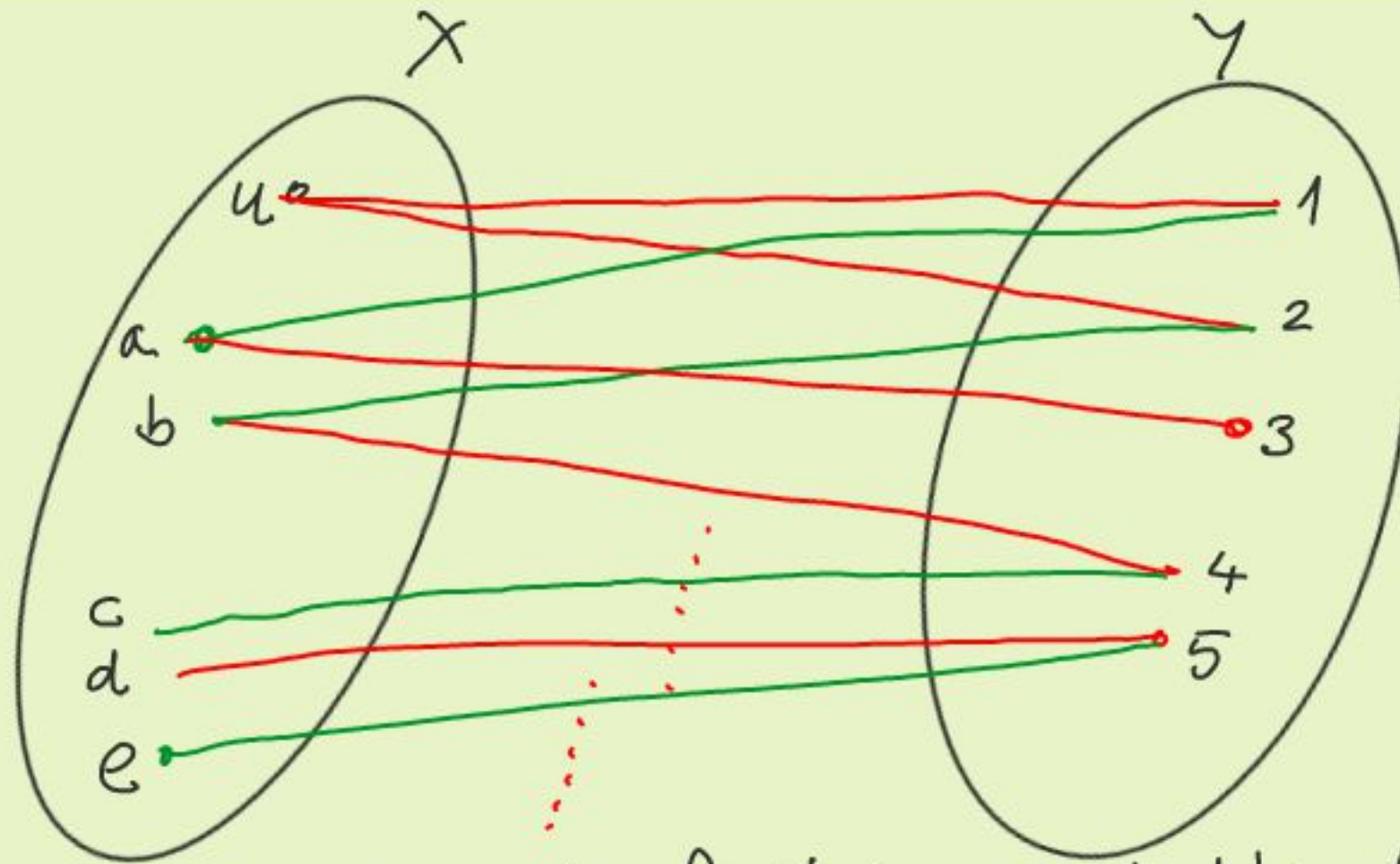
edges in M

edges not
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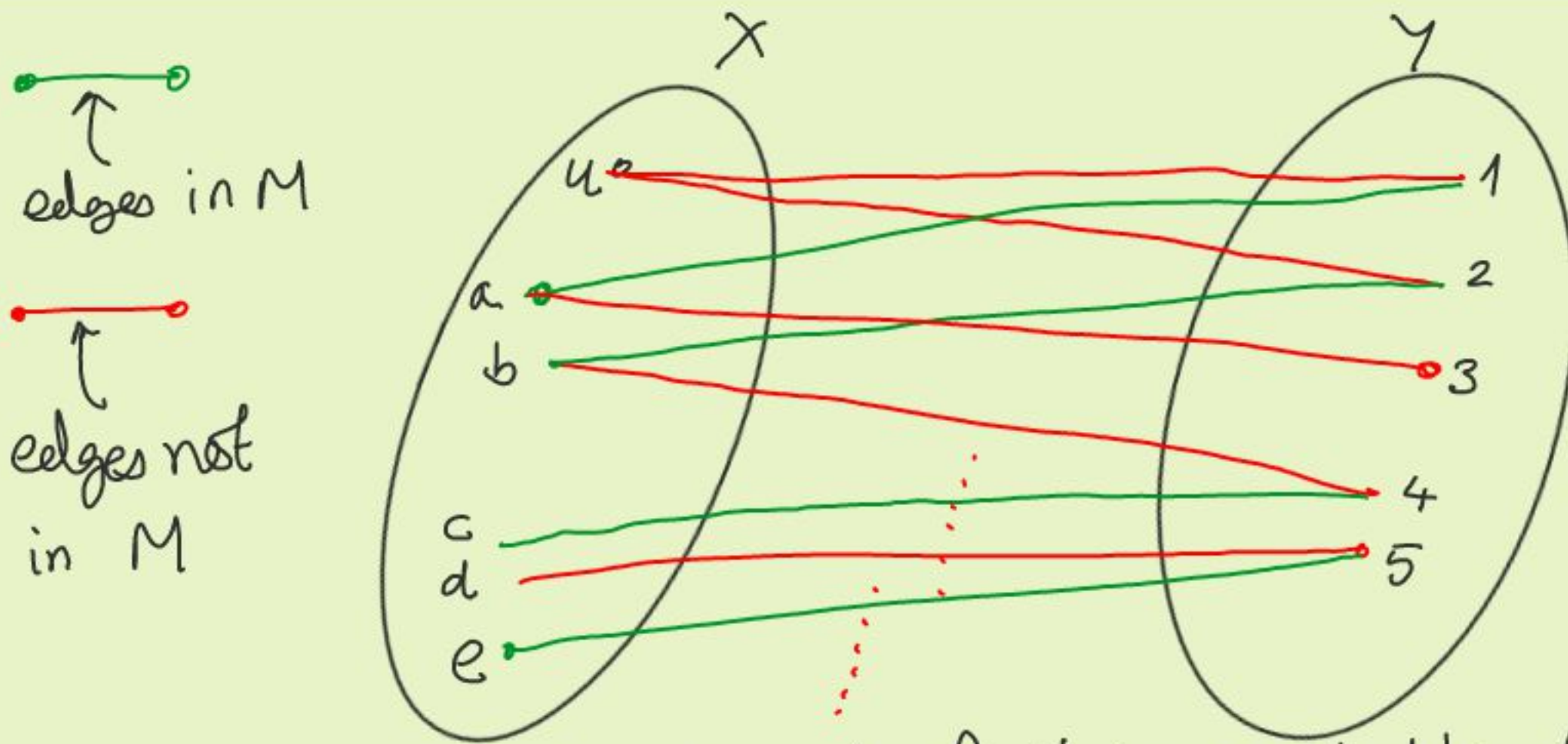


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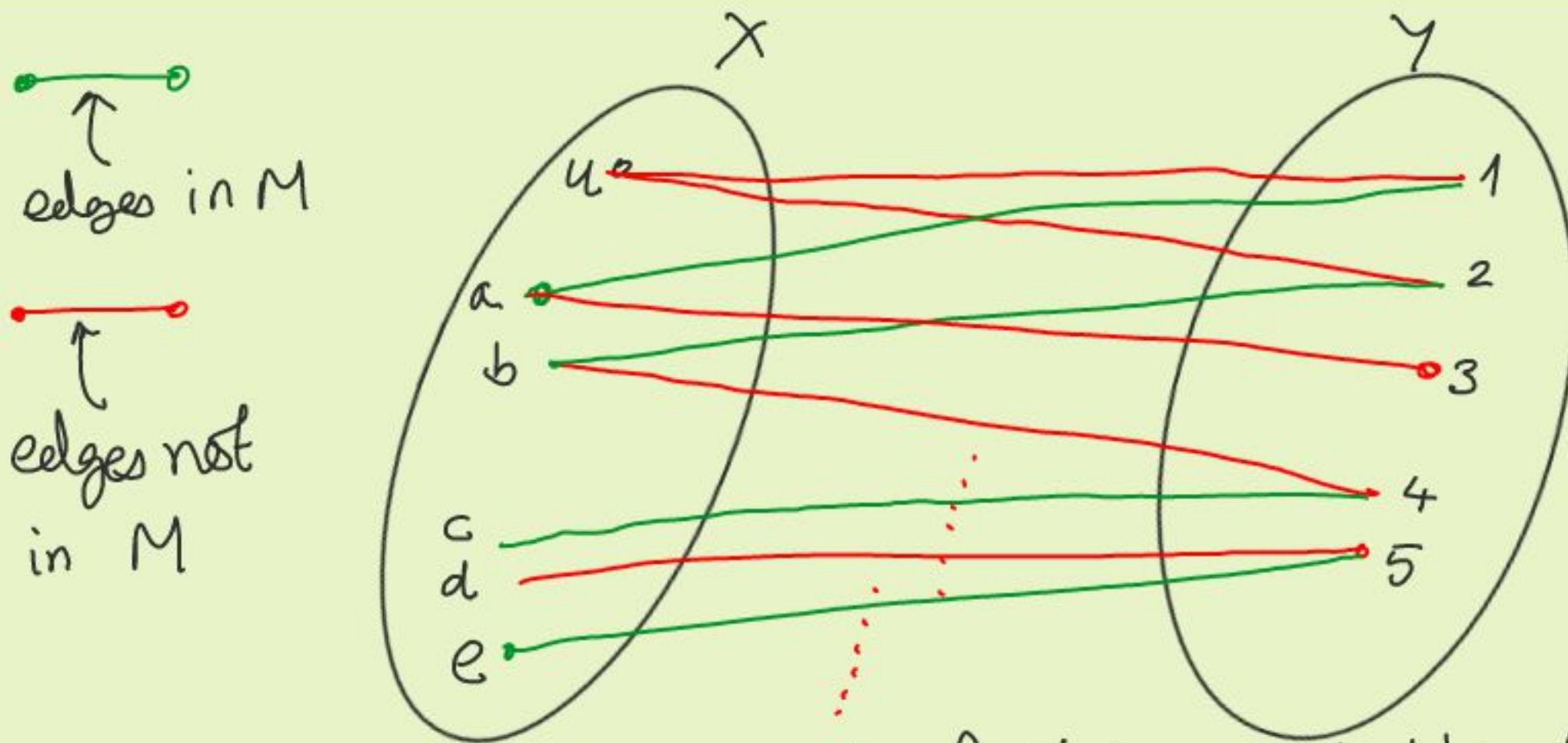
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i.e. \exists a path from u to x using alt M edges.

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Matching 1

T — C

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Matching 2

T — M
F — C

CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

01 OCT 2013

Last Class

1. Let M, M' be two matchings. $M \Delta M'$ is a collection of paths or even cycles
2. Hall's condition

Today :

- Hall's Condition
- Stable matchings

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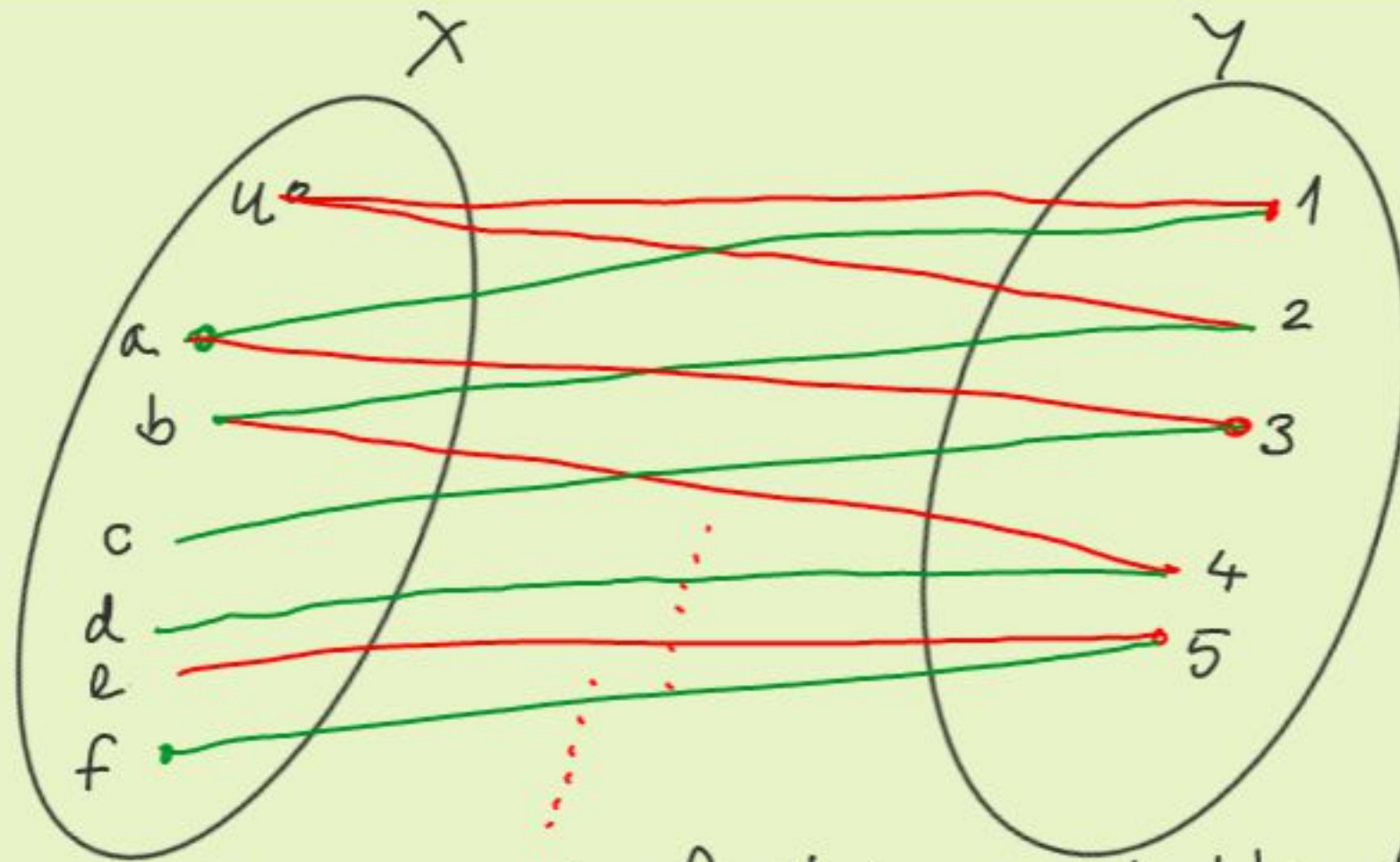
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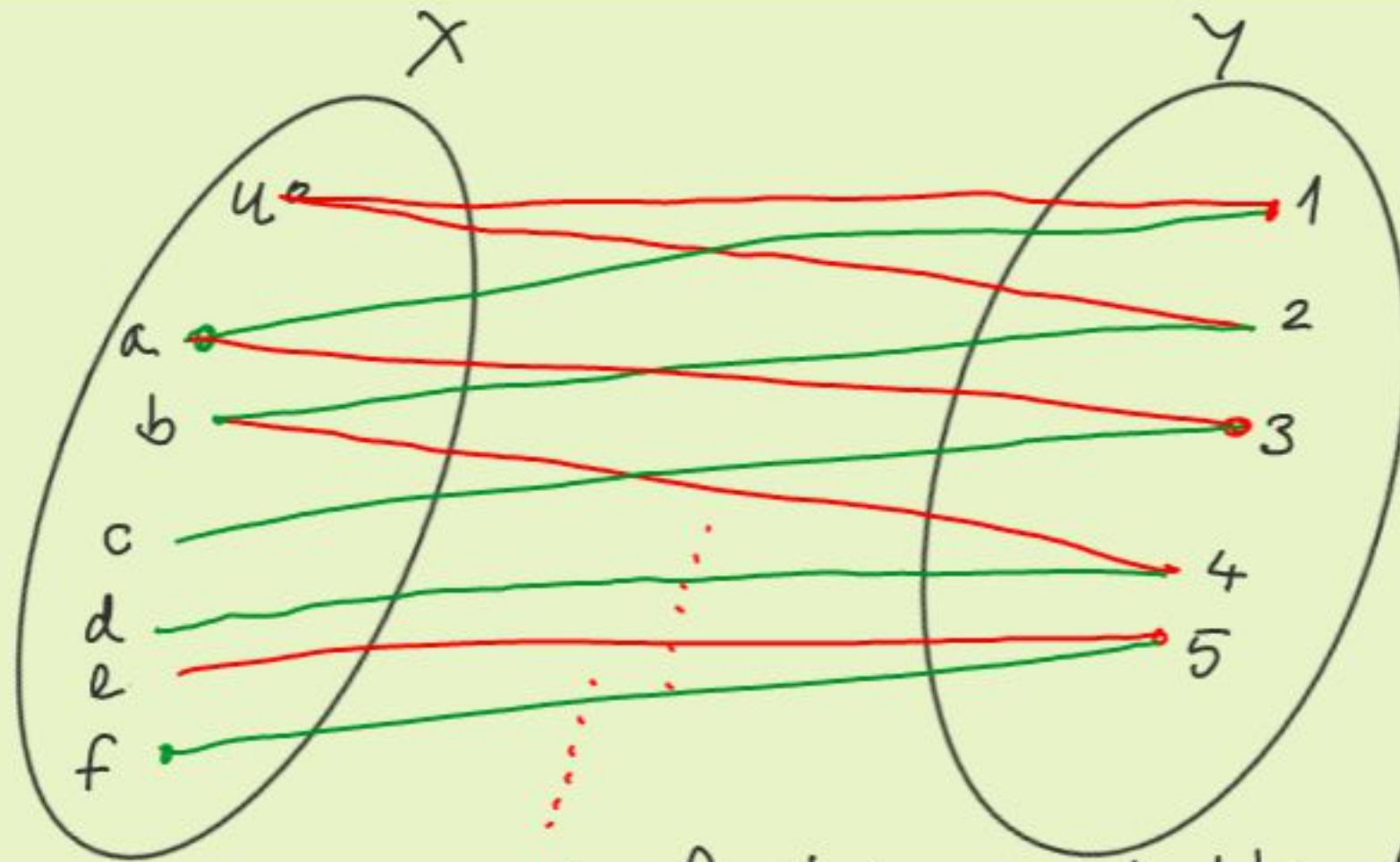
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Here,

$$S = \{a, b, c, d, u\}$$

$$T = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

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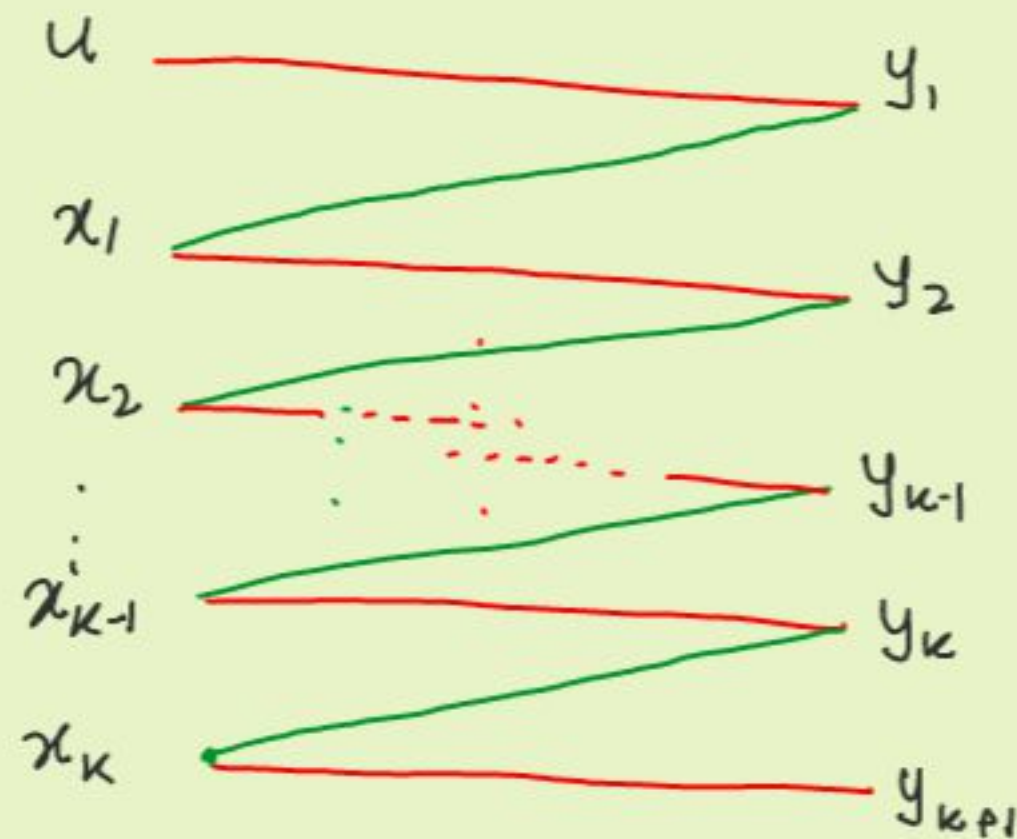
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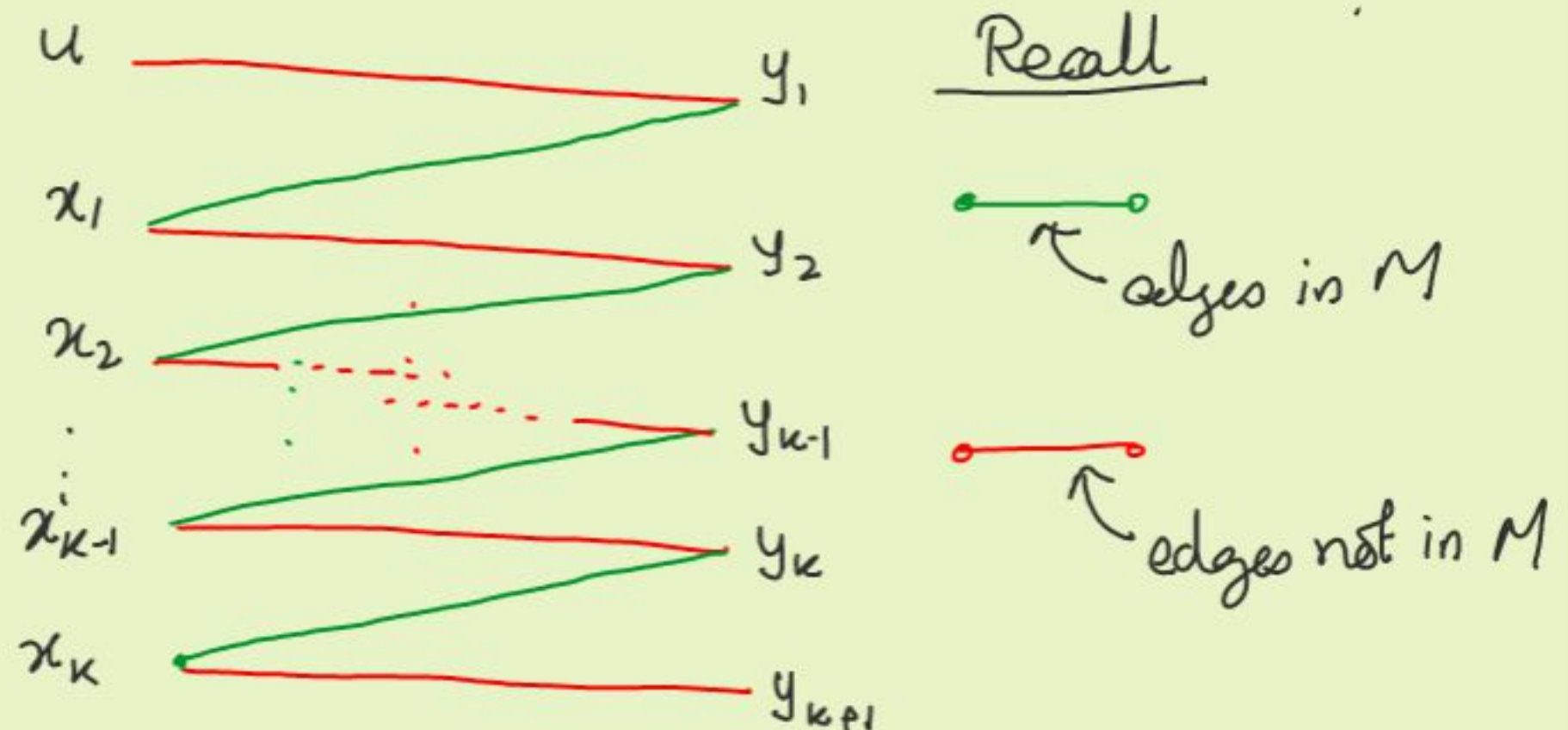
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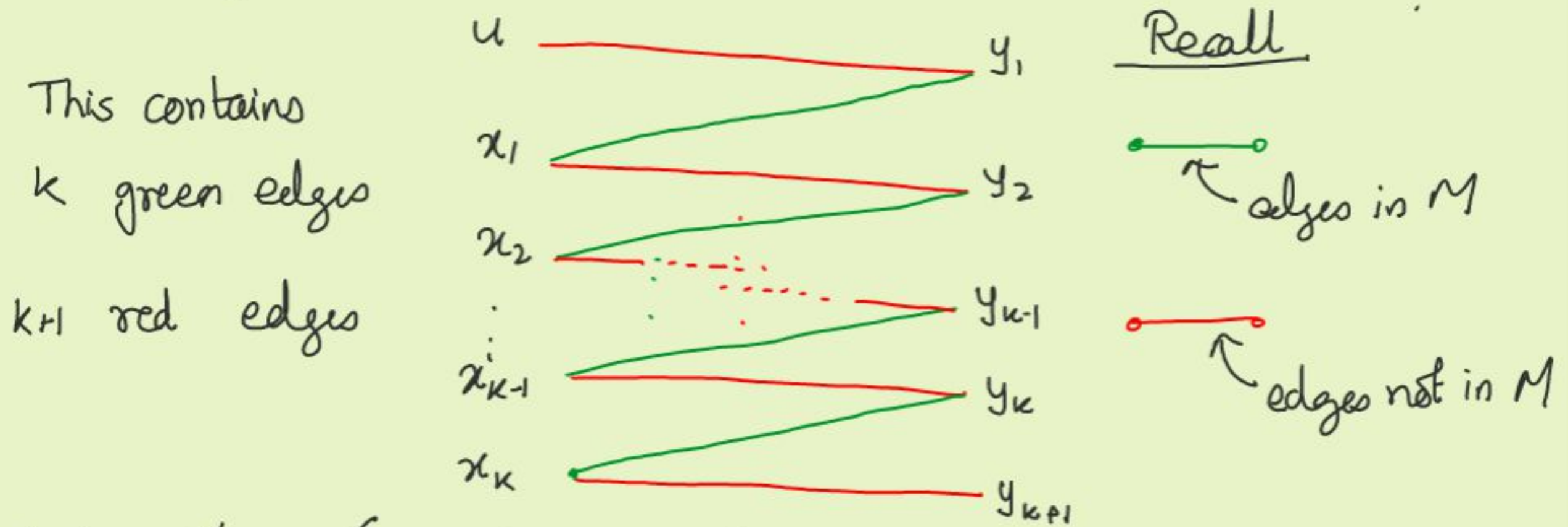
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$$\text{Let } M' = \left(M \setminus \underbrace{\bigcup_i \{(x_i, y_i)\}}_{\text{throw away green edges}} \right) \cup \underbrace{\{(x_i, y_{i+1})\} \cup \{(u, y_1)\}}_{\text{add red edges}}$$

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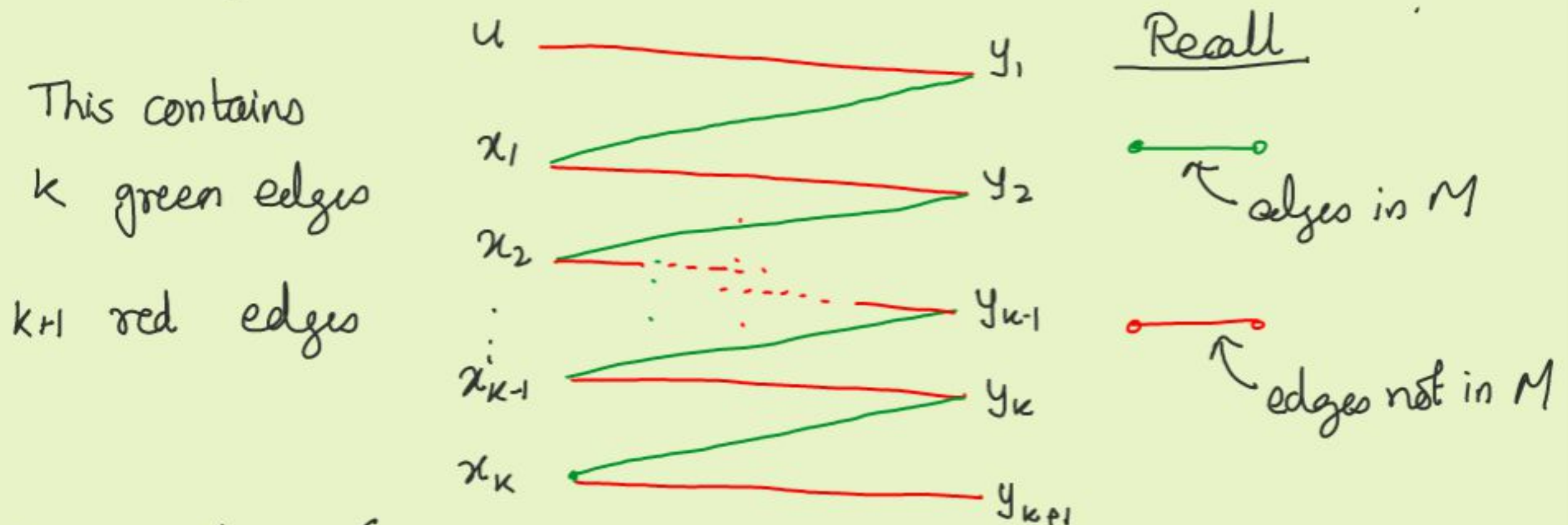
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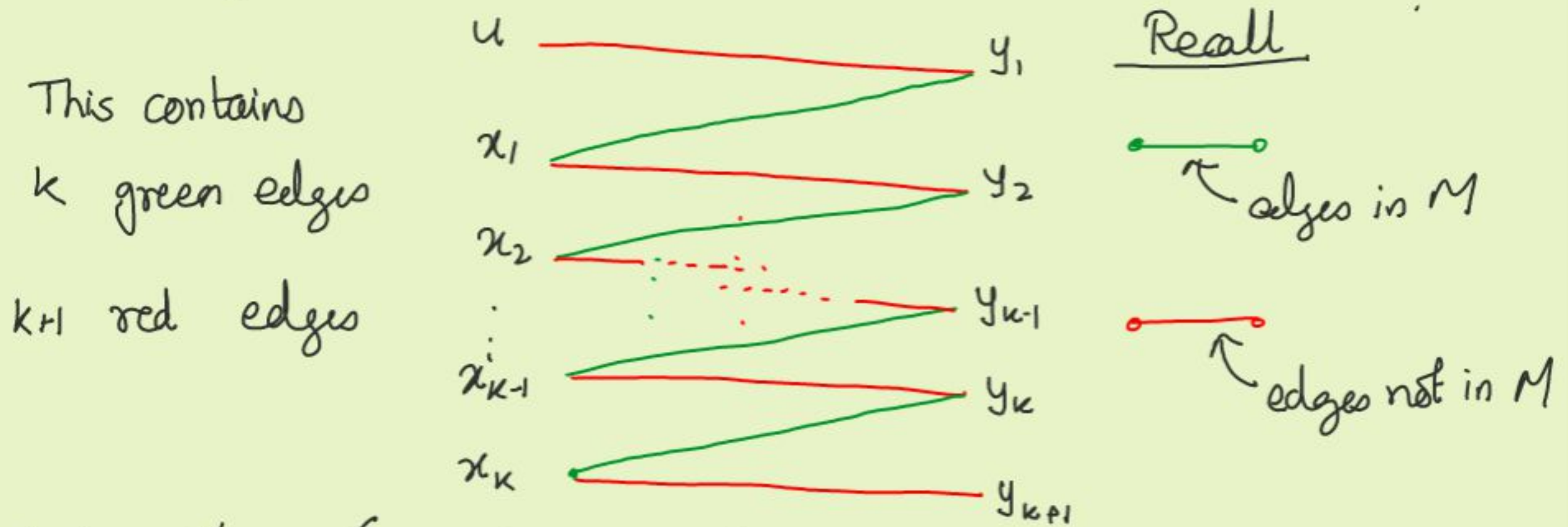
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priority ordering of each man & woman

Output : Output a matching which has no unstable pair.

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CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

03 OCT 2013

Last Class

1. Bipartite graphs have perfect matchings iff Hall's condition is satisfied
2. Stable marriage problem — Gale-Shapley algorithm.

Today :

- Analysis of GS algo.
 - Running time
 - Always outputs a perfect matching
 - Always outputs a stable matching
 - Male dominant.

GS algorithms for Stable Marriages

Notation : • A woman/man is said to be free if she/he is not paired.

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• A woman/man is said to be engaged if she/he is paired with someone during the run of the algorithm.

• A man and woman pair (m, w) is said to be married if they are paired when the algorithm terminates.

GS algorithms for Stable Marriages

While (\exists a free man m)

{

1. m proposes to the woman w
who is on top of his current list

2. if w is free

2.1 (m, w) get engaged

else /* (m', w) are already engaged */

2.2 if $L_w(m) > L_w(m')$ then
 (m, w) get engaged

3. m deletes w from his list

}

Running time of GS

Running time of GS Algo

- GS algo terminates
- GS algo runs for at most $O(n^2)$ steps

Running time of GS

GS also terminates :

No man can get rejected by all women

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Running time of GS

GS also terminates :

No man can get rejected by all women

- a woman can reject only if she is engaged.
- if a man gets rejected by the last woman on his list then all women must already be engaged.
- But $\# \text{women} = \# \text{men}$ & no man is engaged to two women.

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(Due to Step 3)

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each man proposes to any woman ≤ 1
(Due to Step 3)

there are n men & n women

\therefore algorithm halts in $O(n^2)$ steps

GS algorithm outputs a perfect matching

- Each man is engaged $\rightarrow \leq 1$ woman.

GS algorithm outputs a perfect matching

- Each man is engaged to ≤ 1 woman.
- also halts when no man is free \therefore each man is engaged to ≥ 1 woman.

GS also outputs a stable matching

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Suppose output of GS matches

(m, w) and (m', w')

However, $L_m(w') > L_m(w)$ and $L_{w'}(m) > L_{w'}(m')$

i.e. (m, w') is an unstable pair.

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Case 1: m never proposed w'

Case 2: m was rejected by w' when he proposed.

CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

07 OCT 2013

Last Class

1. Analysis of GS algo
 - it terminates (in $O(n^2)$ steps)
 - always outputs a stable matching
2. Male-optimal matching.

Today :

- GS outputs male-optimal matching
- How to compute a maximum matching in a bipartite graph?

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GS algo always outputs the male-optimal matching.

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Recap of module 3 :

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Does each also hint towards an algo?

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Does each also hint towards an algo?

- How can we find a maximum matching in a bipartite graph?

Finding a maximum matching

CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

08 & 10 OCT 2013

Two classes ago

1. Male-optimality of GS algo.

Today :

- An algorithm for computing a maximum matching in a bipartite graph
- Analysis of the algorithm.

All along we will only talk about bipartite graphs

M will be used to denote a matching.

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A path will be called M -alternating if it uses alternate edges from M .

An M -alternating path is called M -augmenting if its two end vertices are free.

All along we will only talk about bipartite graphs

M will be used to denote a matching.

A vertex will be called free wrt M if it is not matched in M .

A path will be called M -alternating if it uses alternate edges from M .

A ^{maximal} M -alternating path is called M -augmenting if its two end vertices are free.

A matching M is maximum if and only if there are no M -augmenting paths

Main procedure : Input : $G = (X, Y, E)$

Output : $M^* \leftarrow$ maximum matching

1. Let $M \leftarrow \phi$

2. Let $\rho \leftarrow \text{AugPath}(G, M)$

3. If $\rho = \phi$ then $M^* \leftarrow M$; output M^* & halt.

4. else /* $\rho = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_{2k+1})$ */

4.1 Let $M \leftarrow (M \setminus (\bigcup_{i=1}^k e_{2i})) \cup (\bigcup_{j=1}^k e_{2j+1})$

4.2 Goto Step 2

AugPath(G, M) (Here G is a bipartite graph & M is a matching)

1. Let $\bar{U} = \{u \in X \mid \exists v \in Y \text{ s.t. } (u, v) \in M\}$
2. Let $U \leftarrow X \setminus \bar{U}$.
3. If $U = \emptyset$ then return $\mathcal{P} \leftarrow \emptyset$.
4. Else
 4.1 mark all vertices in U by color "grey".
 4.2 While (\exists a grey colored vertex in U)
 {
 }
 }
 }

AugPath(G, M) (Here G is a bipartite graph & M is a matching)

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4. Else mark all vertices in U by color "grey".

4.1

While (\exists a grey colored vertex in U)

4.2

{ /* let x be a grey vertex */

Let $T_x \leftarrow$ all vertices reachable from x
by M -alternating paths.

$S_x \leftarrow$ all vertices reachable from x
by M -alternating paths.

}

AugPath(G, M) (Here G is a bipartite graph & M is a matching)

1. Let $\bar{U} = \{u \in X \mid \exists v \in Y \text{ s.t. } (u, v) \in M\}$

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4. Else mark all vertices in U by color "grey".

4.1

4.2 While (\exists a grey colored vertex in U)

{ /* let x be a grey vertex */

4.2.1 If (\exists a $y \in T_x$ s.t. y has no
M-edge incident on it)

4.2.2 then return $\mathcal{P} \leftarrow M$ -alt path between x & y .

}

AugPath(G, M) (Here G is a bipartite graph & M is a matching)

1. Let $\bar{U} = \{u \in X \mid \exists v \in Y \text{ s.t. } (u, v) \in M\}$

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4.1

4.2 While (\exists a grey colored vertex in U)

{ /* let x be a grey vertex */

4.2.1 If (\exists a $y \in T_x$ s.t. y has no
M-edge incident on it)

4.2.2 then return $\mathcal{P} \leftarrow$ M-alt path between x & y .

4.2.3 else mark x with color black

}
4.3 return $\mathcal{P} \leftarrow \emptyset$

Analysis of AugPath (G, M) algo

- Let $x \in U$ be an unmarked vertex s.t. $\exists y \in T_x$ s.t. y has no M -edges incident on it. Then M -alt path between x & y is M -augmenting.

Analysis of AugPath (G, M) algo

- Let $x \in U$ be an unmarked vertex s.t. $\exists y \in T_x$ s.t. y has no M -edges incident on it. Then M -alt path between x & y is M -augmenting.
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Analysis of AugPath (G, M) algo

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(It is possible that $U = \emptyset$ but M is still maximum.)

Analysis of AugPath (G, M) algo

- Let $x \in U$ be an unmarked vertex s.t. $\exists y \in T_x$ s.t. y has no M -edges incident on it. Then M -alt path between x & y is M -augmenting.
- M is not maximum iff $\exists x \in U, \exists y \in T_x$ s.t. y has no M -edges incident on it.
- If $U = \emptyset$ then M is a maximum matching
- For each vertex in U , every edge of the graph is visited exactly once. \therefore AugPath (G, M) runs in time $O(n \cdot m)$, where $m \leftarrow \# \text{edges in } G$.

CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

14 OCT 2013

Last Class :

- Augmenting path algorithm for computing maximum matching
- Analysis of the algorithm.

Today :

- Directed graphs and tournaments
- Existence of a king
- Existence of a global winner.

Directed graphs

A tournament graph: A directed graph $G = (V, E)$ is called a tournament graph if $\forall x, y \in V$

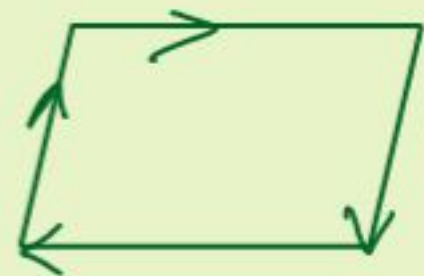
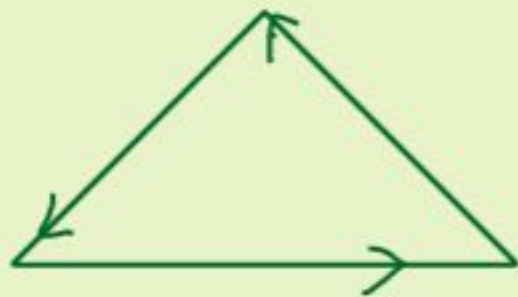
- either (x, y) edge is in E
- or (y, x) edge is in E
- but not both.

Directed graphs

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Examples:

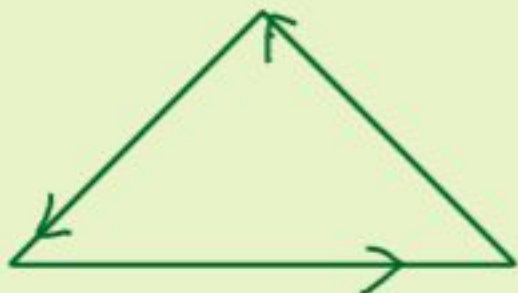


Directed graphs

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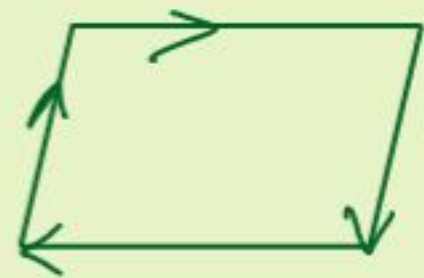
Examples:



✓



✓



✗

A vertex x is said to defeat vertex y if
the edge between x & y is directed from x to y .

A vertex x is said to defeat vertex y if the edge between x & y is directed from x to y .

Let $U \subseteq V$. A vertex $x \in V$ is said to be a winner with respect to U if $\forall u \in U$ x defeats u .

A vertex x is said to defeat vertex y if the edge between x & y is directed from x to y .

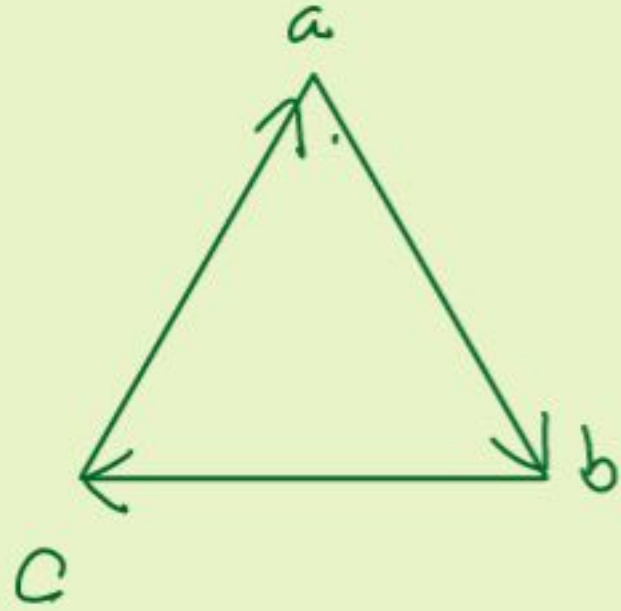
Let $U \subseteq V$. A vertex $x \in V$ is said to be a winner with respect to U if $\forall u \in U$ x defeats u .

A vertex $x \in V$ is said to be a king if $\forall y \in V$

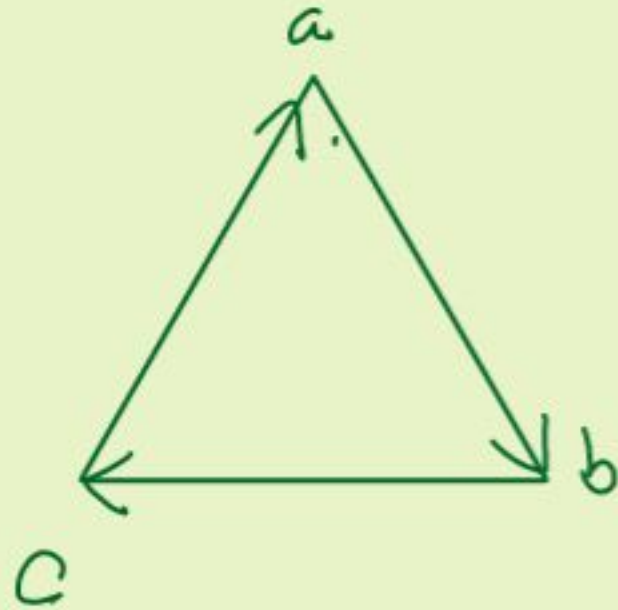
- either x defeats y

- or x defeats a vertex, say w , which defeats y .

Examples :

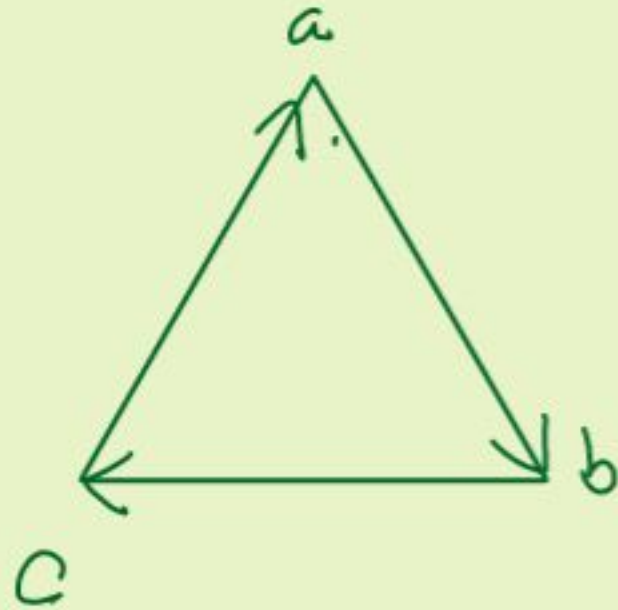


Examples:



Which vertices are kings?

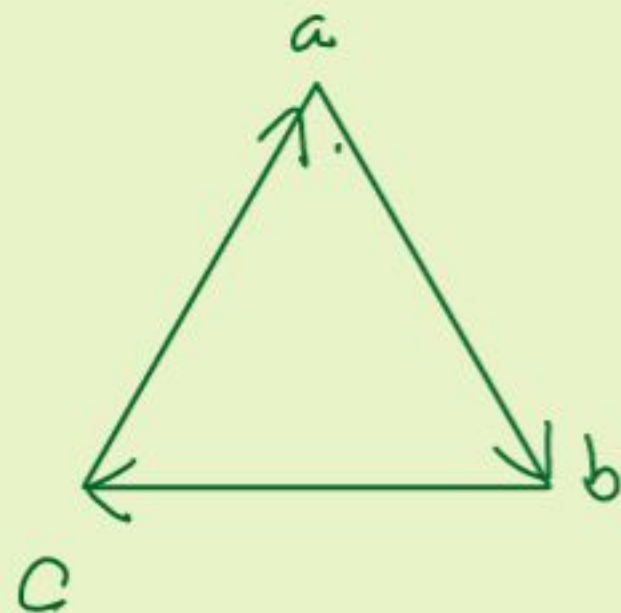
Examples:



Which vertices are kings?

— all vertices

Examples:

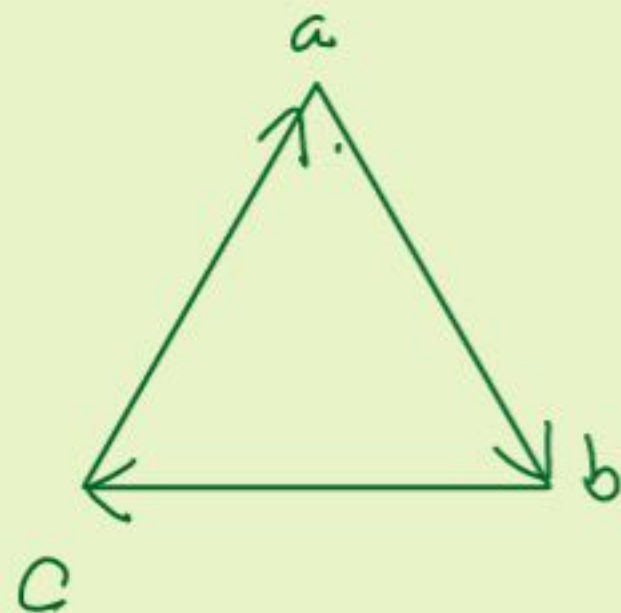


Which vertices are kings?

— all vertices

Is there a winner w.r.t $\{a, b\}$?

Examples:



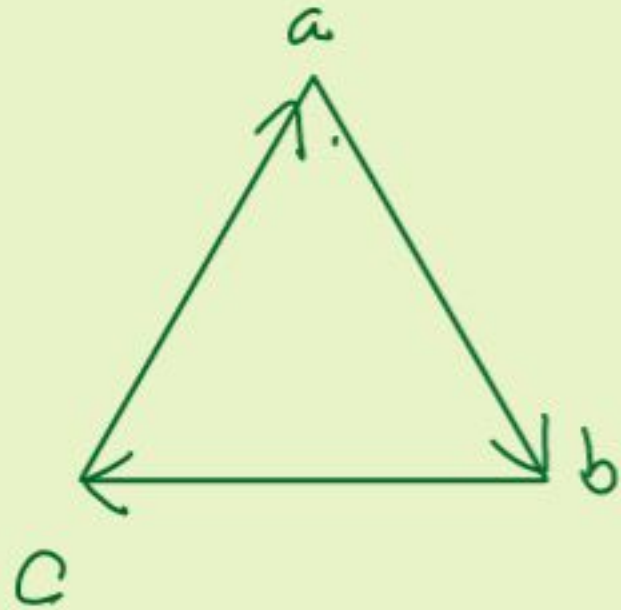
Which vertices are kings?

— all vertices

Is there a winner w.r.t $\{a, b\}$?

— no.

Examples:



Which vertices are kings?

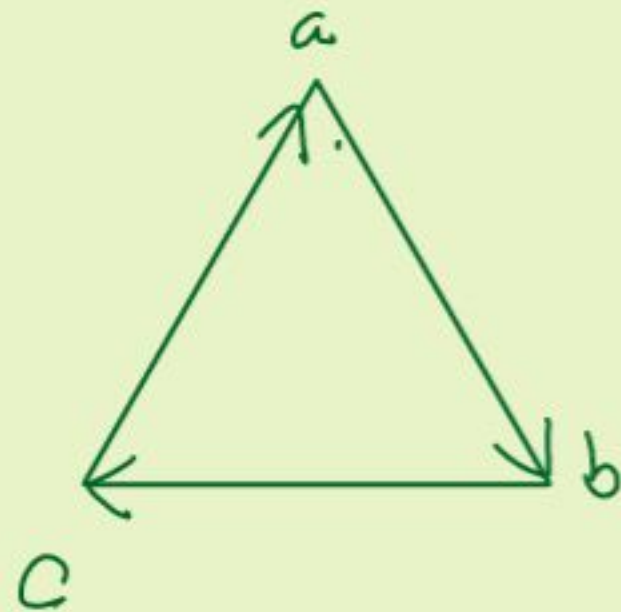
— all vertices

Is there a winner wrt $\{a, b\}$?

— no.

Is there a winner wrt $\{a\}$?

Examples:



Which vertices are kings?

- all vertices

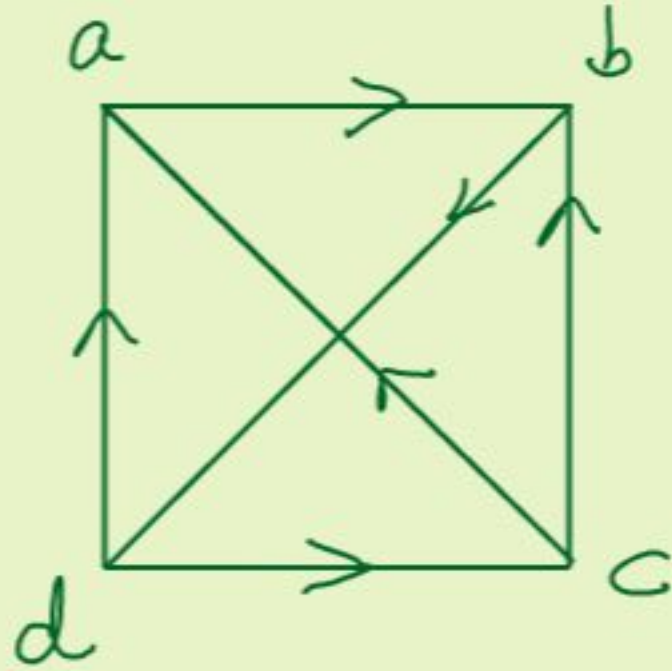
Is there a winner wrt $\{a, b\}$?

- no.

Is there a winner wrt $\{a\}$?

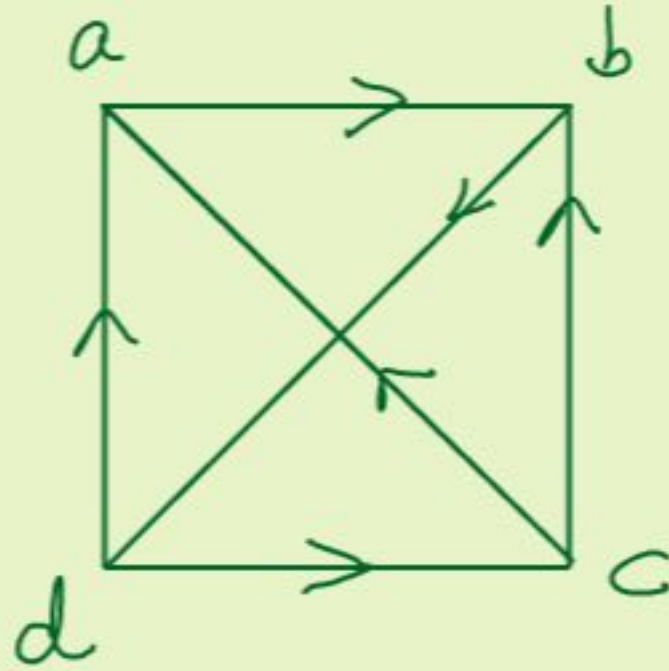
- yes.

Examples :



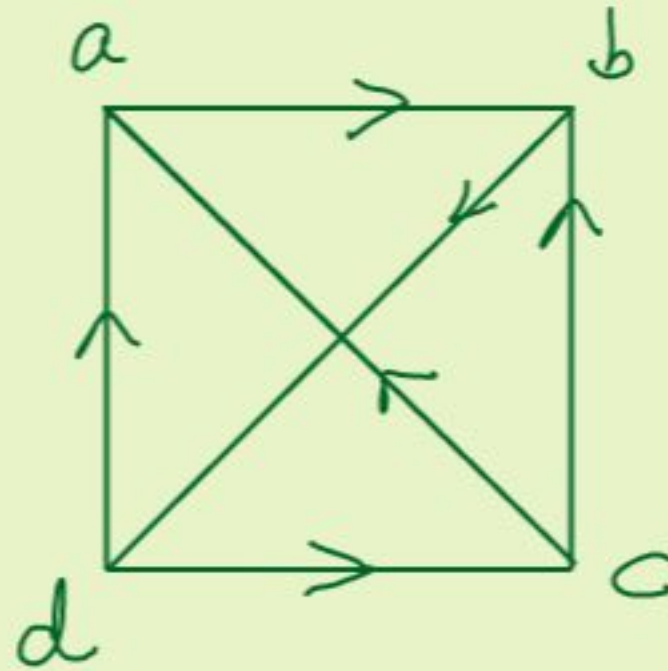
Examples:

Which vertices are
leaves?



Examples:

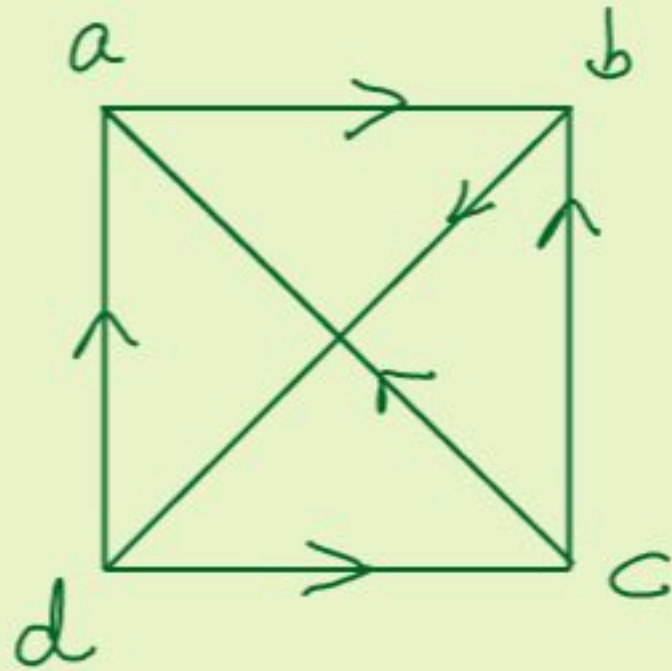
Which vertices are
kings?



Is there a winner w.r.t
 $\{a, b\}$?

Examples:

Which vertices are
kings?

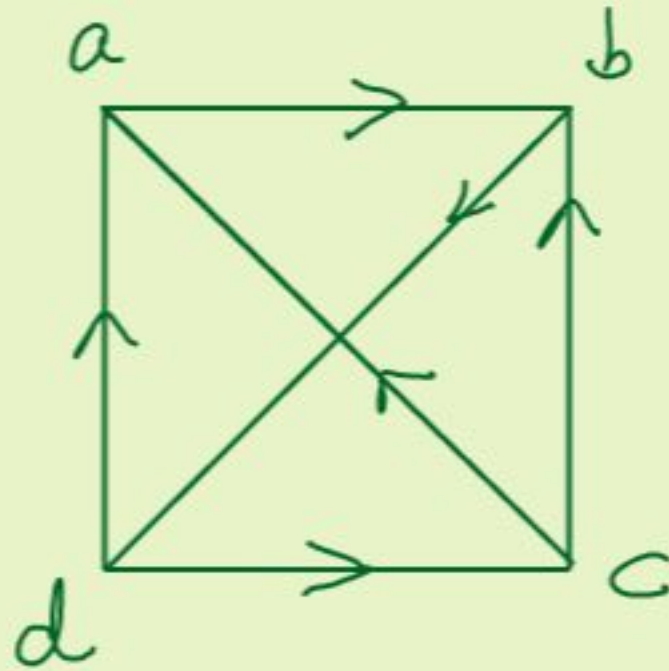


Is there a winner w.r.t
 $\{a, b\}$?

→ yes.

Examples:

Which vertices are
kings?



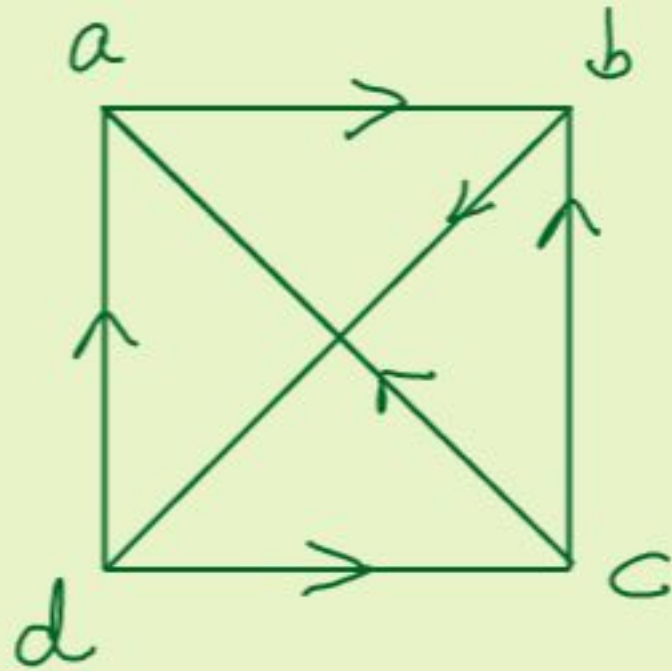
Is there a winner w.r.t
 $\{a, b\}$?

→ yes.

Is there a winner w.r.t $\{b, c\}$

Examples:

Which vertices are
kings?



Is there a winner w.r.t
 $\{a, b\}$?

— yes.

Is there a winner w.r.t $\{b, c\}$?

— no.

Every tournament has a king.

Every tournament has a king.

proof: Let $x \in V$ be any arbitrary vertex in the tournament.

Let $D_x = \{y \mid x \text{ defeats } y\}$

$N(D_x) = \{z \mid \exists y \in D_x \text{ and } y \text{ defeats } z\}$

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If x itself is a king then we are done

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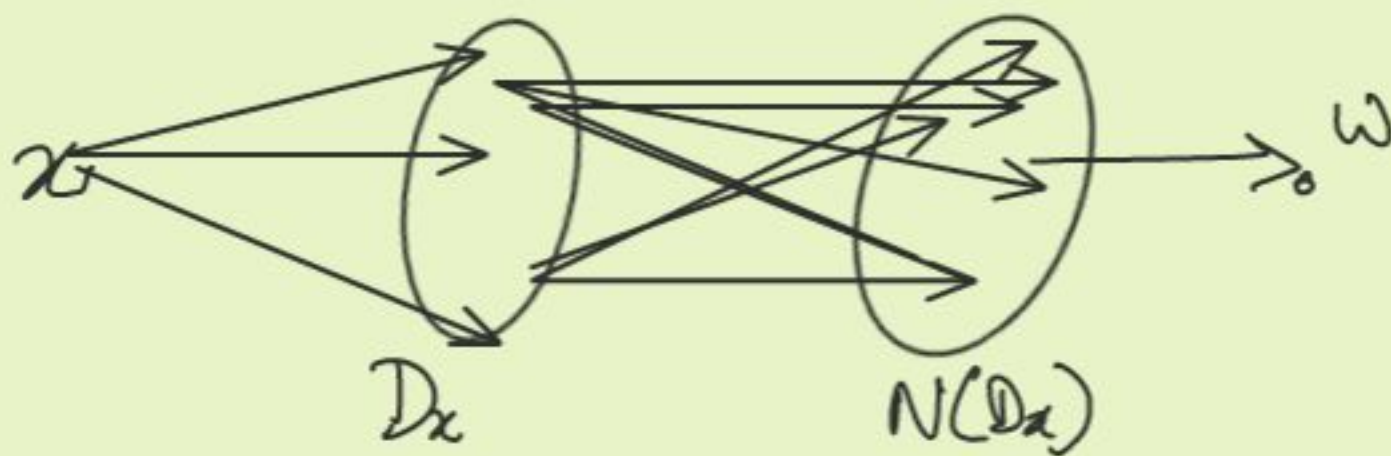
let $w \in V$ s.t. $w \notin D_x$, $w \notin N(D_x)$

Every tournament has a king.

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$w \notin D_x$.

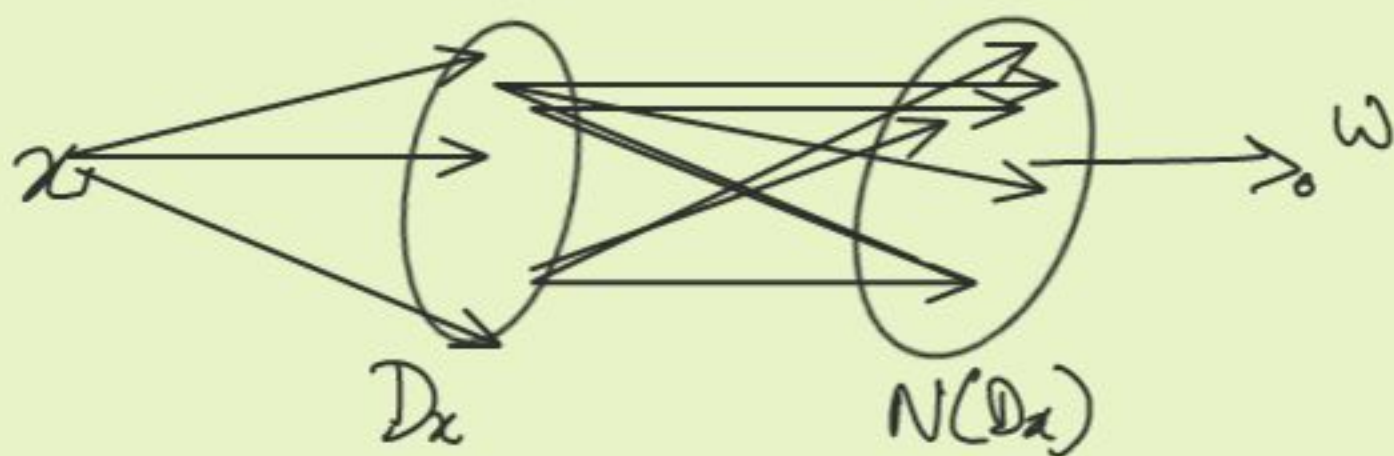
$w \notin N(D_x)$

Every tournament has a king.

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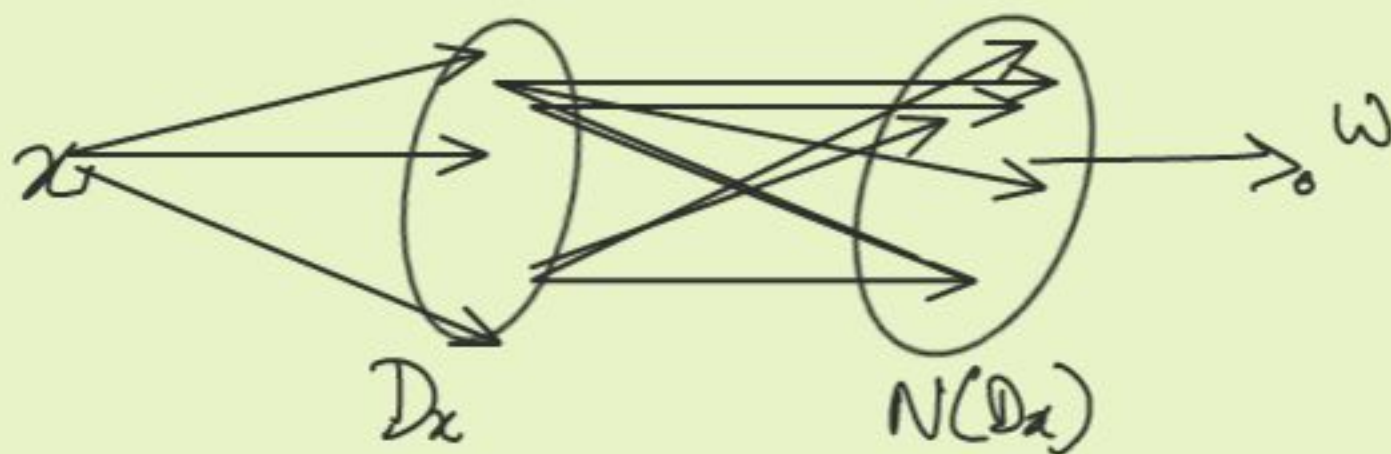
∴ $w \notin D_x$, w must defeat x .

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$N(D_x) = \{z \mid \exists y \in D_x \text{ and } y \text{ defeats } z\}$



◦◦ $w \notin D_x$, w must defeat x .

◦◦ $w \notin N(D_x)$, w must defeat all vertices in D_x

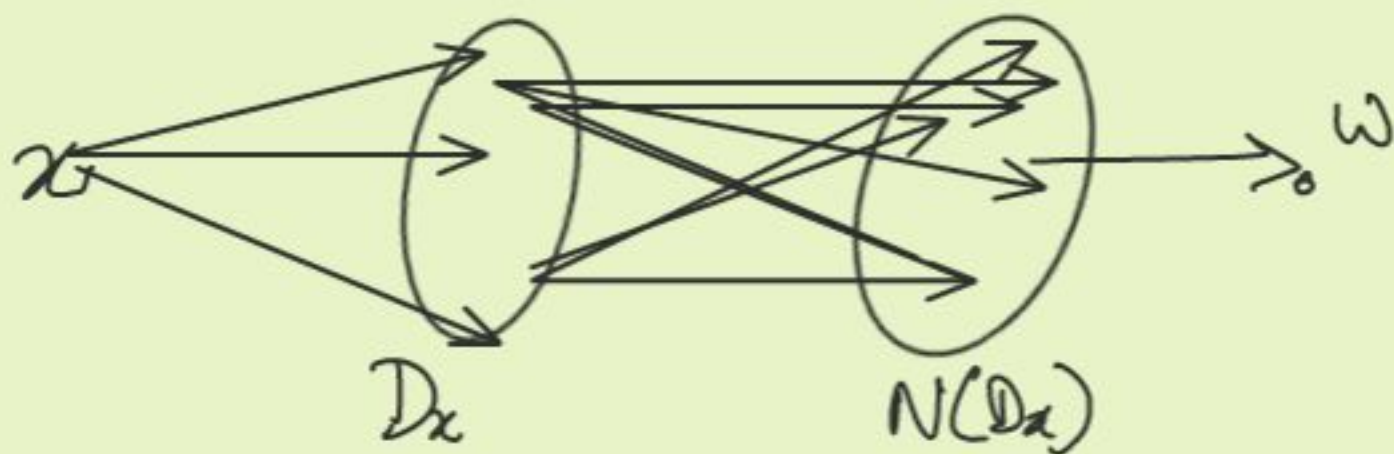
$\implies D_x \cup \{x\} \subseteq D_w$

Every tournament has a king.

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$N(D_x) = \{z \mid \exists y \in D_x \text{ and } y \text{ defeats } z\}$

let $\omega \in V$ s.t. $\omega \notin D_x$, $\omega \notin N(D_x)$

\Downarrow

$D_x \cup \{x\} \subseteq D_\omega$

i.e. $|D_x| < |D_\omega|$.

Every tournament has a king.

proof:

$\therefore \forall x \in V$ s.t. x is not a king

$\exists w \in V$ s.t. $w \notin D_x$ and $w \notin N(D_x)$

$\& |D_x| < |D_w|$

But as the graph is finite, the process
can't continue forever.

A tournament is said to have a k -Winner property if

$\forall U \subseteq V$ s.t. $|U| = k \quad \exists x \in V$ s.t.

x defeats all vertices in U .

If $k < \frac{\log n}{100}$ then \exists a tournament on n vertices
with the k -winner property.

If $k < \frac{\log n}{100}$ then \exists a tournament on n vertices
with the k -winner property.

proof: pick a random tournament T

Fix a subset $U \subseteq V$, $|U| = k$.

$\text{Prob}_T [U \text{ is not defeated by all vertices in } V \setminus U] = (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k}$

$\text{Prob} [\exists U: U \text{ is not defeated by all vertices in } V \setminus U] \leq \binom{n}{k} (1 - 2^{-k})^{n-k}$

CS 207

Discrete Structures

Nutan Limaye

15 OCT 2013

Last Class :

- Directed graphs and tournaments
- Existence of a king
- Existence of a global winner.

Today:

- Brief recap of the last calculation
- Dominating sets in a graph.
- Existence of small dominating sets.

A tournament is said to have a k -Winner property if

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Let $G = (V, E)$ be an arbitrary undirected graph.

A subset $U \subseteq V$ is called a dominating set if

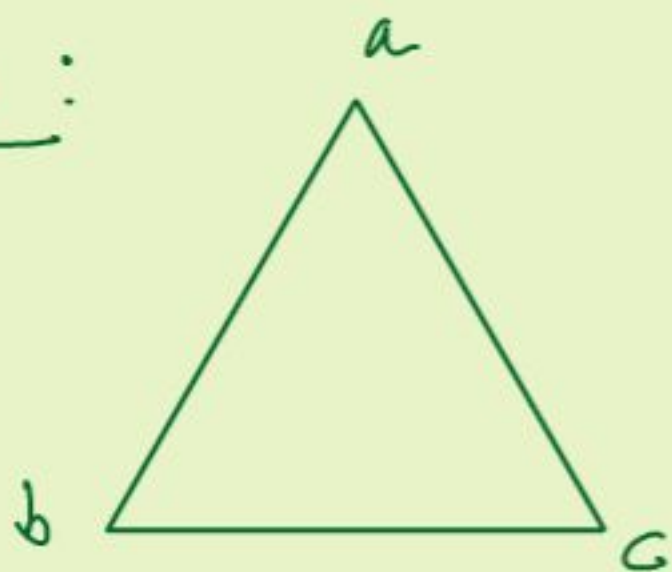
$\forall x \in V \setminus U \quad \exists y \text{ s.t. } (x, y) \in E \text{ and } y \in U.$

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Examples:



$\{a\}$

$\{b\}$

$\{a, b\}$

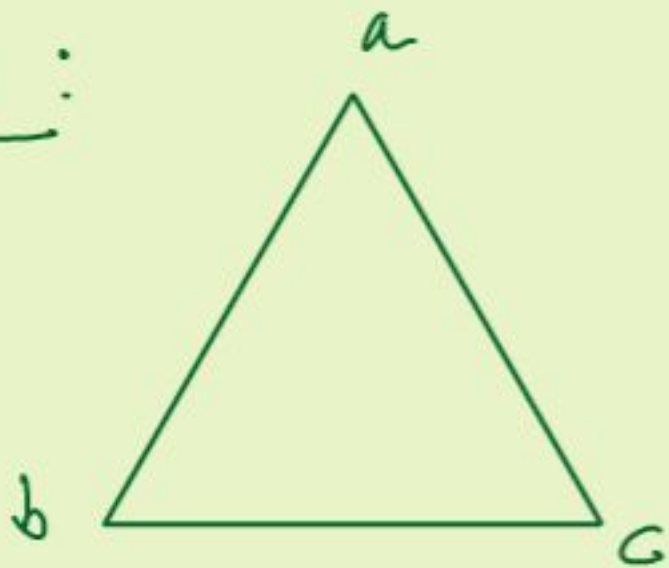
$\{a, b, c\}$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an arbitrary undirected graph.

A subset $U \subseteq V$ is called a dominating set if

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Examples:



$\{a\}$ ✓

$\{b\}$ ✓

$\{a, b\}$ ✓

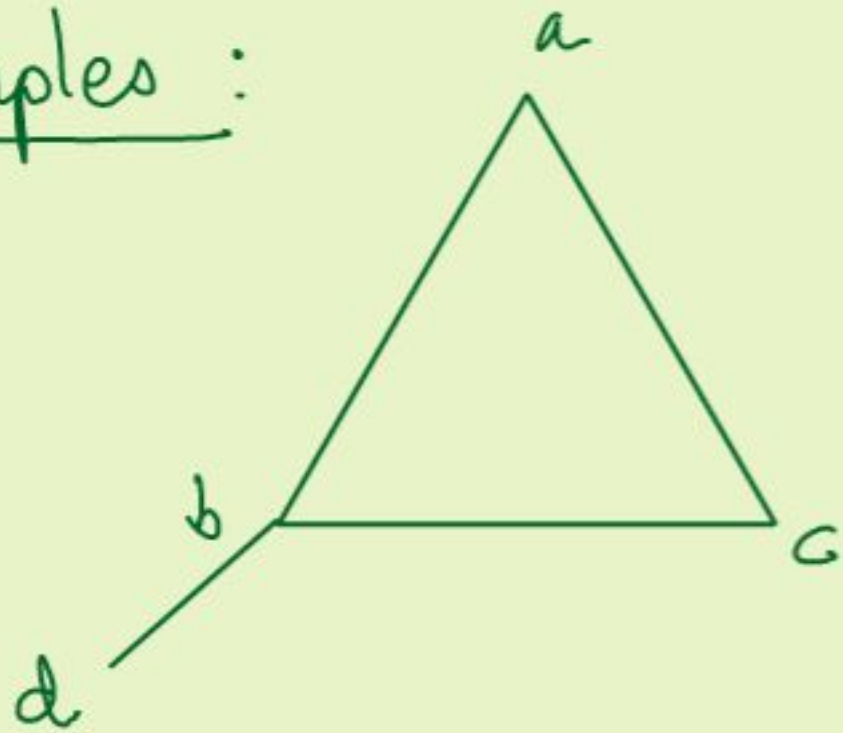
$\{a, b, c\}$ ✓

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an arbitrary undirected graph.

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Examples:



$\{a\}$

$\{b\}$

$\{a, c\}$

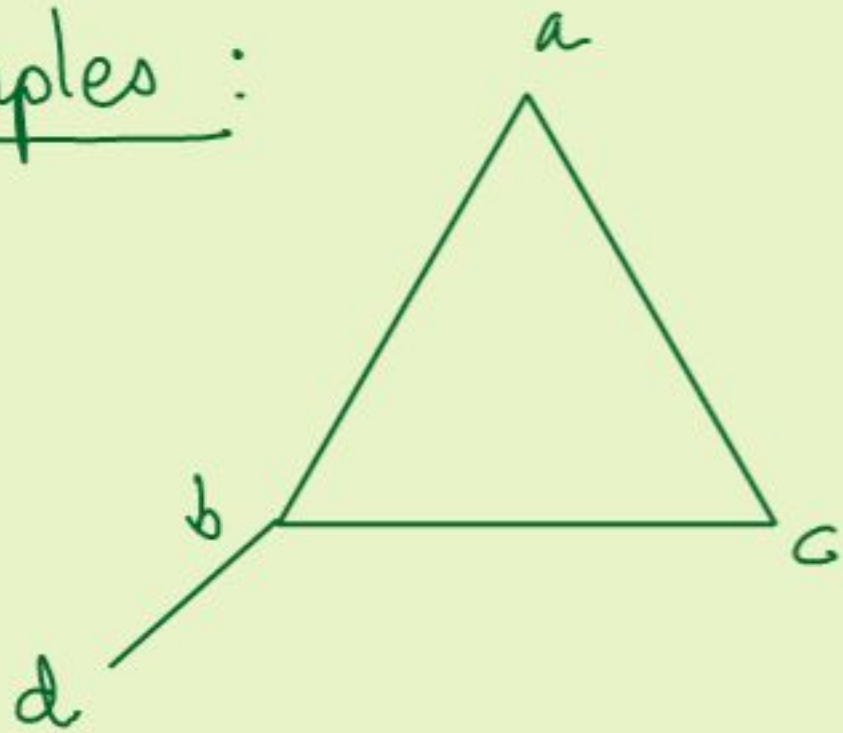
$\{d, c\}$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an arbitrary undirected graph.

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Examples:



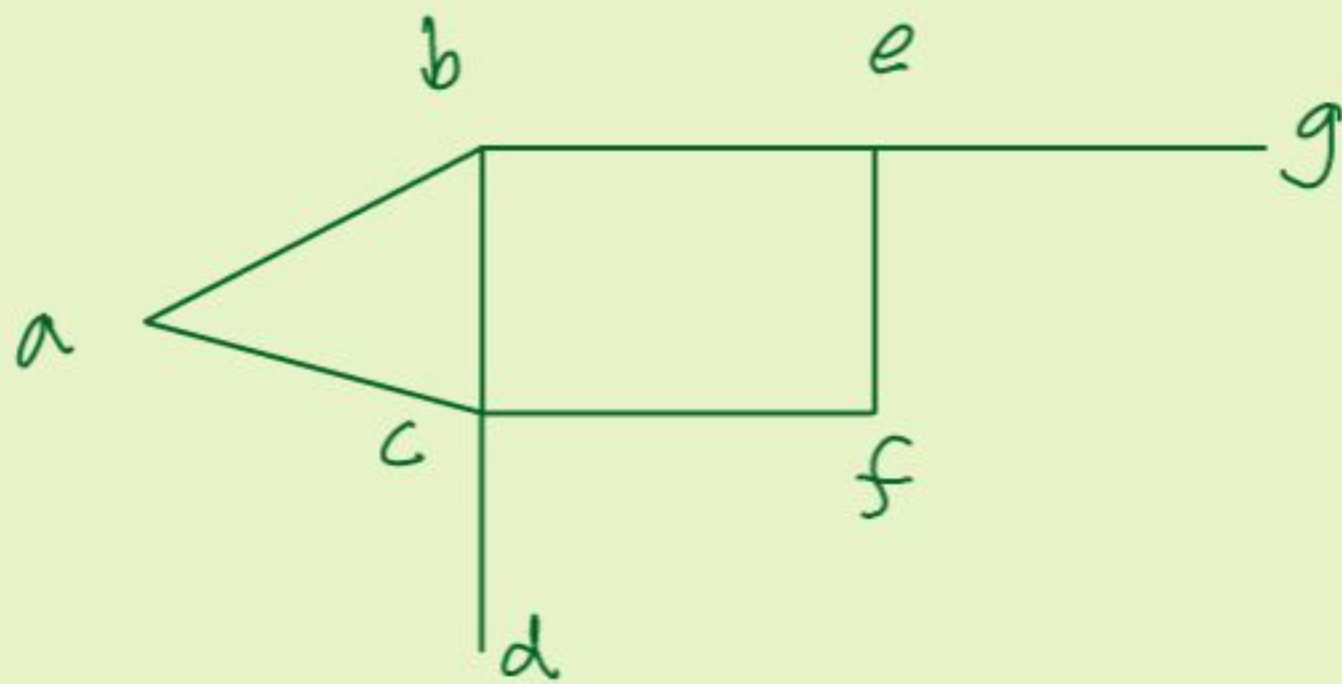
$\{a\}$	x
$\{b\}$	✓
$\{a, c\}$	x
$\{d, c\}$	✓

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an arbitrary undirected graph.

A subset $U \subseteq V$ is called a dominating set if

$\forall x \in V \setminus U \quad \exists y \text{ s.t. } (x, y) \in E \text{ and } y \in U.$

Examples:



What is the size of the smallest dominating set?

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta \geq 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

$$\frac{n(1 + \log(\delta + 1))}{(\delta + 1)}$$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta > 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

$$\frac{n(1 + \log(\delta + 1))}{(\delta + 1)}$$

proof: pick every vertex $x \in V$ w.p. $\frac{1}{\delta + 1}$ to obtain X .

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta > 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

$$\frac{n(1 + \log(\delta + 1))}{(\delta + 1)}$$

proof: pick every vertex $x \in V$ w.p. p to obtain X .

$$E[|X|] = np.$$

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proof: pick every vertex $x \in V$ w.p. p to obtain X .

$$E[|X|] = np.$$

Let $Y \subseteq V \setminus X$ s.t. no nbr of Y is in X .

for any vertex $u \in V$ $\text{Prob}[u \in Y] = ?$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta > 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

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$$\text{Prob}[u \in Y] = \text{Prob}[u \& \text{ no nbr of } u \text{ is in } X]$$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta > 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

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for any vertex $u \in V$ $\text{Prob}[u \in Y] = ?$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}[u \in Y] &= \text{Prob}[u \& \text{ no nbr of } u \text{ is in } X] \\ &\leq (1-p)^{\delta+1} \end{aligned}$$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta > 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

$$\frac{n(1 + \log(\delta + 1))}{(\delta + 1)}$$

proof: pick every vertex $x \in V$ w.p. p to obtain X .

$$\mathbb{E}[|X|] = np.$$

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$$\text{Prob}[u \in Y] = \text{Prob}[u \& \text{ no nbr of } u \text{ is in } X]$$

$$\leq (1-p)^{\delta+1} \Rightarrow \mathbb{E}[|Y|] \leq n(1-p)^{\delta+1}$$

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with minimum degree $\delta > 1$ & $|V| = n$. Then G has a dominating set of size at most

$$\frac{n(1 + \log(\delta + 1))}{(\delta + 1)}$$

proof: pick every vertex $x \in V$ w.p. p to obtain X .

$$\mathbb{E}[|X|] = np, \quad \mathbb{E}[|Y|] \leq n(1-p)^{\delta+1}$$

But note that $X \cup Y$ is a dominating set

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[|X \cup Y|] &\leq \mathbb{E}[|X|] + \mathbb{E}[|Y|] \\ &\leq np + n(1-p)^{\delta+1}. \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \exists$ a dominating set of size $\leq np + n(1-p)^{\delta+1}$.