# 1 Baby Brooks

Notational note. I use  $\mathcal{G}$  to denote the Greedy algorithm.

We wish to prove that if G = (V, E) is connected and non-regular, then  $\chi(G) \leq \Delta$ .

Let  $x_0 \in V$  be s.t.  $d(x_0) = \delta$ . Since *G* is connected, running BFS from  $x_0$  adds all vertices to the BFS tree. Let  $O^{-1}$  be the ordering of the vertices s.t. *z* is the *i*th vertex if it was the *i*th one to be added by BFS. Trivially,  $x_0$  is the first vertex in  $O^{-1}$ . Let *O* be the reverse order, with  $x_0$  last. We will prove *G* colors *G* with at most  $\Delta$  colors if it uses the ordering *O*.

Observe that, in the BFS run, every  $x \neq x_0$  is inserted by a neighbor that was already in the tree. In other words, in the  $O^{-1}$  order, every vertex has a neighbor that precedes him in the order. Consequently, in O, every  $x \neq x_0$  has a neighbor that succeeds him in the order.

It follows that the worst case scenario for the coloring of  $x \neq x_0$  is that it has d(x) - 1 preceding neighbors.  $\therefore G$  eliminates at most  $d(x) - 1 \le \Delta - 1$  colors. Then *x* can be colored with a color in  $\{1, \ldots, \Delta\}$ .

When  $\mathcal{G}$  reaches  $x_0$  it eliminates at most  $d(x_0) = \delta$  colors. Since G is non-regular  $\delta < \Delta$ .  $\therefore$  There is at least one color for  $x_0$  in  $\{1, 2, ..., \Delta\}$ .

## 2 Max flow, min cut

Let f a flow over a network N. We want to prove two things: (1)  $v(f) \le Cap(S)$  for any cut S and (2) f is maximal iff there is a cut S s.t. v(f) = Cap(S).

(1) We know  $v(f) = f(S, \overline{S}) - f(\overline{S}, S)$ . Since f(A, B) is a sum over f and  $0 \le f(\overrightarrow{ab}) \le c(\overrightarrow{ab})$  for any  $\overrightarrow{ab} \in E$ ,

$$v(f) = f(S,\overline{S}) - f(\overline{S},S) \le f(S,\overline{S})$$

The same logic implies  $f(S, \overline{S}) \le c(S, \overline{S}) = Cap(S)$ . Then  $v(f) \le f(S, \overline{S}) \le Cap(S)$ .

(2:  $\Leftarrow$ ) Assume there is a cut *S* s.t. v(f) = Cap(S). Let *g* an arbitrary flow. Then  $v(g) \le Cap(S) = v(f)$ . Then *f* is maximal. Furthermore, it is trivial by definition of *Cap* that  $Cap(T) \ge v(f)$  for any cut *T*. Then  $Cap(T) \ge Cap(S) \Rightarrow S$  is minimal.

 $(2:\Rightarrow)$  Assume f is maximal. Let

$$S = \{s\} \cup \{x \in V : \exists f$$
-camino aumentante entre  $s \neq x\}$ 

S is a cut because, if  $t \in S$ , there is an augmenting path  $s \dots t$  and the flow can be augmented, which contradicts that f is maximal.

Recall that  $v(f) = f(S, \overline{S}) - f(\overline{S}, S)$ . The first term in the difference is

$$f(S,\overline{S}) = \sum_{x \in S, z \notin S, \overline{xz} \in E} f(\overline{xz})$$

Let  $\overrightarrow{xz} \in E$  a side in the range of the sum above. Then there is an augmenting path  $s \dots x$ and there is no augmenting path  $s \dots z$ . But  $\overrightarrow{xz} \in E$  and  $s \dots x \dots z$  is a path. Since it cannot be an augmenting path, we must have  $f(\overrightarrow{xz}) = c(\overrightarrow{xz})$ . Then  $f(\overrightarrow{xz}) = c(\overrightarrow{xz})$  for all  $x \in S, z \notin S, \overrightarrow{xz} \in E$ . Therefore

$$f(S,\overline{S}) = \sum_{\cdots} f(\overrightarrow{xz}) = \sum_{\cdots} c(\overrightarrow{xz}) = Cap(S)$$

Now consider the second term in the difference:

$$f(\overline{S}, S) = \sum_{\substack{w \notin S, x \in S, \overline{wx} \in E}} f(\overline{wx})$$

Let  $\overrightarrow{wx}$  an arbitrary side in the sum above. Again, there must be an augmenting path  $s \dots x$ , but not one  $s \dots w$ . But  $\overrightarrow{wx}$  is a side, and then  $s \dots \overleftarrow{xw}$  is not augmenting only if  $f(\overrightarrow{xw}) = 0$ . This means  $f(\overrightarrow{wx}) = 0$  for all  $\overrightarrow{wx}$  in the range of the sum above.

 $\therefore v(f) = Cap(S) - 0 = Cap(S). \blacksquare$ 

## **3** Networks

#### 3.1 Edmond-Karp: Complexity

The complexity of E.K. is determined by the complexity of finding the  $f_i$ -augmenting paths, the number of such paths, and the complexity of updating the flow with such paths.

To find  $f_i$ -augmenting paths, EK uses BFS with a complexity O(m). Updating the flow has complexity O(n). So the question is what is the number  $\varphi$  of  $f_i$  augmenting paths (or runs of BFS) that are used.

The number of such paths is bounded by the number of sides times the number of times a side may become critical. We shall determine how many times a side may become critical.

Let  $f_1, f_2, \ldots$  be the iterations of EK. Let  $\vec{xz}$  be a side that became critical at iteration k. There are two options: it either saturated being forward or emptied being backward.

Saturated being forward. If  $\vec{xz}$  saturated being forward, then  $p_k = s \dots \vec{xz} \dots t$  is the form of the augmenting path used to determine  $f_k$ .

Assume  $\vec{xz}$  becomes critical again at some iteration *j*, so that  $p_j = s \dots \vec{xz} \dots t$  is an augmenting path. For this to occur there must exist some iteration *i*, with k < i < j, such that  $p_i = s \dots \vec{xz} \dots t$  is an augmenting path. In other words, *z* must have returned some of the flow to *x*. Since we are using EK, the augmenting paths are of minimal length, and the distance between two vertices never decreases. This means

$$d_{j}(t) \ge d_{i}(x) + b_{i}(x)$$
  
=  $d_{i}(z) + 1 + b_{i}(x)$   
 $\ge d_{k}(z) + 1 + d_{k}(x)$   
=  $d_{k}(x) + 1 + 1 + b_{k}(x)$   
=  $d_{k}(t) + 2$ 

*Emptied being backward.* Now, assume  $\vec{xz}$  is a side that saturated being backward on the *k*th iteration; this is, that  $p_k = s \dots \vec{xz} \dots t$  was the path found. Assume it empties again at some iteration *j*, so that  $p_j = s \dots \vec{xz} \dots t$  is the  $f_j$  path. Then there is some *i*, with k < i < j, such that  $p_i = s \dots \vec{xz} \dots t$  is a path; i.e. the side was used forward. Now, all these paths are of minimal length, because we are using E.K. And in all succesive paths, the distance from *s* to *t* never decreases. Then,

$$d_{j}(t) \ge d_{i}(t) = d_{i}(z) + b_{i}(z) = d_{i}(x) + 1 + b_{i}(z) \ge d_{k}(x) + 1 + b_{k}(z) = d_{k}(z) + 1 + 1 + b_{k}(z) = d_{k}(t) + 2$$

In both cases, the distance from *s* to *t* had to increase by at least two unites. But the distance from *s* to *t* is bounded by *n*; this is, it is O(n). Then a side may become critical  $O(\frac{n}{2}) = O(n)$  times. Since there are *m* sides, the number of times an arbitrary side will become critical is O(mn).

: The complexity is  $O(mn) [O(n) + O(m)] = O(mn)O(m) = O(m^2n)$ .

#### **3.2 Edmond-Karp: Augmenting paths are non-decreasing**

Let  $A = \{x \in V : d_{k+1}(x) < d_k(x)\}$  and assume  $A \neq \emptyset$ . Let  $x_0 \in A$  be the vertex whose distance  $d_{k+1}(x_0)$  from *s* is minimal; i.e.  $d_{k+1}(x_0) \le d_{k+1}(y) \forall y \in A$ . Since  $x_0 \in A$ ,  $d_{k+1}(x_0) < d_k(x_0) \le \infty$ . Then there exists a  $\mathcal{P}_{k+1} = s \dots x_0$  of minimal length. Let *z* be the predecessor of  $x_0$  in this path.

By definition of  $d_f$ , the length of the path is  $d_{k+1}(x_0)$ . Because the path is of minimal length to  $x_0$ , it is of minimal length to any predecessor of  $x_0$  in it, including z. Then  $d_{k+1}(z) = d_{k+1}(x_0) - 1$ . This implies  $z \notin A$ .

There are two possible cases: either  $\overrightarrow{xz} \in E$  or  $\overrightarrow{zx} \in E$ .

(*Case 1*): If  $\overrightarrow{zx_0} \in E$ , then  $d_{k+1}(z) < d_{k+1}(x_0)$ . Since  $z \notin A$ ,

$$d_k(z) \le d_{k+1}(z) < d_{k+1}(x_0) < \infty$$

Since  $d_k(z) < \infty$ , there is an  $f_k$ -augmenting path from s to z. Then, in principle,  $s \dots zx$  could be an augmenting path. But if this were the case,

$$d_k(x_0) \le d_k(z) + 1 \le d_{k+1}(z) + 1 = d_{k+1}(x)$$

which implies  $x_0 \notin A(\perp)$ .  $s \dots zx$  is not  $f_k$ -a.p. This can only happen if  $f_k(\overline{zx_0}) = c(\overline{zx_0})$  (the side is saturated). Since the side is used in a  $f_{k+1}$ -a.p. it must be the case that  $f_{k+1}(\overline{zx_0}) < c(\overline{zx_0})$ . This means  $\overline{zx}$  was used backwards in the *k*th iteration, or rather that  $f_k = s \dots \overline{x_0z} \dots t$ .

Since this is Edmond-Karp, augmenting paths are of minimal length. Then

$$d_{k}(z) = d_{k}(x_{0}) + 1$$
  
>  $d_{k+1}(x_{0}) + 1$   
=  $d_{k+1}(z) + 2$   
 $\geq d_{k}(z) + 2$ 

which is absurd.

1.3.2 If  $\overrightarrow{xz}$  is a side then again

$$d_k(z) \le d_{k+1}(z) < d_{k+1}(x_0) < \infty$$

Then there is an  $f_k$ -a.p.  $s \dots z$  and, at least in principle,  $s \dots \overline{zx}$  could also be augmenting. But if this were the case, we would have

$$d_k(x_0) = d_k(z) + 1 \le d_{k+1}(z) + 1 = d_{k+1}(x_0)$$

which would imply  $x_0 \notin A(\perp)$ . Then  $s \dots \overline{zx_0}$  is not augmenting, which means the side  $\overrightarrow{x_0z}$  cannot be used backwards. This can only be true if  $f_k(\overrightarrow{x_0z} = 0$ . But since the side is

used backwards in the  $f_{k+1}$ -augmenting path, it must be used forward in this iteration. Which means  $s \dots \overrightarrow{x_0 z} \dots t$  is augmenting. But then

$$d_k(z) = d_k(x_0) + 1$$
  
>  $d_{k+1}(x_0) + 1$   
=  $d_{k+1}(z) + 2$   
\ge d\_k(z) + 2

which is absurd.

*Conclusion.* In both cases a contradiction arises. The contradiction comes from assuming  $A \neq \emptyset$ . Then  $A = \emptyset$ .

# **4** Dinitz: Complexity

We will prove the complexity of Dinitz is  $O(n^2m)$ .

Recall that Dinitz builds succesive auxiliary networks with BFS, uses DFS to find blocking paths in them, and uses these paths to update the flow. Since the level of t augments in each succesive network, there are at most O(n) auxiliary networks. So the complexity of Dinitz is

O(n) [Comp. of building A.N. + Comp. of finding blocking flow in A.N.]

The complexity of building the A.N. is the complexity of BFS, which is O(m). The process of finding the blocking path varies is the Western and the original algorithms.

*Original version.* The original Dinitz algorithm enforced the following invariant: In any given auxiliary network, all vertices have edges connecting to the next level. This invariant implies that the DFS run always reaches t without need to backtrack. In consequence, the complexity of the DFS run is O(n). The complexity of updating the flow is O(n), and each time this happens at least one side is saturated and removed. Then there are O(m) paths.  $\therefore$  The complexity of finding the paths and updating the flow is  $O(n \times m)$ .

However, there is some extra cost associated to preserving this invariant. Each time a path is found, saturated sides are removed with a prunning operation. The prunning operation goes from the highest to the lowest levels in the network, checks for vertices whose exiting edge is saturated, and deletes them. This means that, for each vertex, a process of O(1) complexity checks if it is saturated. This happens each time a path is found, so  $O(n \times m)$  times. Once these sides have been detected, they and their neighbors are removed, which has complexity O(d(x)). Since this happens at worst for all vertices, the deleting operation is  $O(\sum_{x \in V} d(x)) = O(m)$ . The total cost of enforcing the invariant is then  $O(n \times m) + O(m)$ , which means the complexity of finding the blocking paths and updating the flow is  $O(n \times m) + O(n \times m) + O(m) = O(n \times m)$ . Then the complexity of Dinitz is  $O(n^2m)$ .

*Western version.* The Western version finds blocking paths and updates the flow inside a while loop with three clauses. The first clause is running BFS to advance; i.e. setting x = s and iteratively making x be the first neighbor of x until t is reached. This clause executes as long as there is a neighbor and we call it A.

The second clause considers the case where x, the vertex we are traversing, has no neighbors in the next level. Then the algorithm backtracks to its predecessor, removes the side leading from it to x, and attempts A once more. We call this part R.

The last clause considers the case where *t* is reached. Here, the flow is augmented using the path found and all saturated sides are removed.

Thus, finding the blocking flow and updating the path can be modeled as a word  $A \dots IA \dots RA \dots RA \dots I$ ; i.e. as a succession of words of the form  $A \dots X$  with  $X \in \{R, I\}$ .

The process *R* has complexity O(1) because it simply involves going backwards and deleting a side. The process *A* has complexity O(1) because it simply involves moving

forward, but at most O(n) successions of A may occur. This means O(A ... A) = O(n). The process I has complexity O(n) because the flow is updated across at most all vertices. Then O(A ... I) = O(n) + O(n) = O(n) and O(A ... R) = O(n) + O(1) = O(n). The question is how many words of the form A ... X exist. At worst, all paths are traversed in the process of finding t, so there are O(m) words of this form. Then the complexity of the run is

$$O(m) \left[ O(n) + O(n) \right] = O(nm)$$

Then the complexity of Dinitz is  $O(n^2m)$ .

#### 4.1 Wave: Complexity

We know the distance between s and t in auxiliary networks is increasing. The distance is bounded by n.  $\therefore$  There are O(n) auxiliary networks. Now, each auxiliary network is first constructed and then used to find a blocking flow. Then the complexity of Wave is

$$O(n)[F+B]$$

where *F* is the complexity of finding a blocking flow in an auxiliary network and *B* the complexity of building an auxiliary network. To build the auxiliary network we use BFS.  $\therefore B = O(m)$ . Let us examine *F*.

To find blocking flows we attempt to balance in forward and backward waves. When going forward, let V be the steps where a side is saturated,  $\overline{V}$  those where a side is not saturated. When going backward, let S be the steps where a side is emptied,  $\overline{S}$  those there a side is not emptied.

*Complexity of V.* Assume  $\vec{xz}$  is a side and is saturated in a forward wave. To saturate again it must empty at least a little bit before. If it empties, then z was blocked and returned the flow to x; and since z is blocked,  $\vec{xz}$  will never again be used. Then each side can saturate at most once.  $\therefore$  the complexity of V is O(m).

*Complexity of S.* Assume  $\overrightarrow{zx}$  is a side and it empties in a backward wave. Since x returned flow, it is blocked and z will not send flow to x a gain. Then  $\overrightarrow{zx}$  cannot be emptied ever again.  $\therefore$  The complexity of S is O(m).

*Complexity of*  $\overline{V}$ . When a vertex sends flow to its neighbors, it saturates all sides except perhaps one. Then, for any given vertex, each forward wave will send partial flow through at most one side.  $\therefore$  The complexity of  $\overline{V}$  is  $O(n) \times \varphi$ , with  $\varphi$  the number of forward waves.

*Complexity of*  $\overline{S}$ . When a vertex returns flow to its predecessors, it empties all sides except perhaps one. Then, for any given vertex in a backward wave, at most one side is partially emptied.  $\therefore$  The complexity of  $\overline{S}$  is  $O(n) = \psi$  where  $\psi$  is the number of backward waves.

Now, it is trivially to see  $\varphi = \psi$  and there are at most *n* forward waves.  $\therefore O(\varphi) = n$ .

 $\therefore$  The complexity of  $\overline{S}$ ,  $\overline{V}$  are both  $O(n) \times O(n) = O(n^2)$ .

:  $F = O(n^2) + O(n^2) + O(m) + O(m) = O(n^2) + O(m).$ 

But  $O(n^2) + O(m) = O(n^2)$ , because  $m \le {n \choose 2} = O(n^2)$ .

 $\therefore F = O(n^2).$ 

: The complexity of Dinitz is  $O(n) [O(m) + O(n^2)] = O(n)O(n^2) = O(n^3)$ 

# 5 Codes

### 5.1 Hamming bound

Let  $C \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$ . We want to prove

$$|C| = \frac{2^n}{\sum_{i=0}^t \binom{n}{i}}$$

Let  $A = \bigcup_{v \in C} D_t(v)$ . Recall that  $D_t(v)$  is the set of words in  $\{0, 1\}^n$  that are at a Hamming distance of *t* or less from *v*.

Let  $S_v(r) = \{w \in \{0, 1\}^n : d_H(v, w) = r\}$ . Then it follows by definition that  $D_t(v) = \bigcup_{r=0}^t S_v(r)$ . Of course, this union is disjoint. It follows that

$$A = \bigcup_{v \in C} \bigcup_{r=0}^{t} S_v(r)$$

and

$$|A| = |C| \times \sum_{r=0}^{t} |S_{v}(r)|$$

So now we must only determine  $|S_v(r)|$ . But this is easy to do if we consider that any  $w \in S_v(r)$  differs from v by exactly r bits, and is fully determined by this difference. In other words, there is a bijection between any  $w \in S_v(r)$  and the set of the r bits out of all n possible bits that make up the difference between w and v. This readily entails that  $|S_v(r)| = {n \choose r}$ . This readily gives

$$|A| = |C| \times \sum_{r=0}^{t} \binom{n}{r}$$
$$\Rightarrow |C| = \frac{|A|}{\sum_{r=0}^{t} \binom{n}{r}}$$

We do not know the cardinality of A, but since  $A \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n$  we know  $|A| \le 2^n$ . Then

$$|C| \le \frac{2^n}{\sum_{r=0}^t \binom{n}{r}}$$

**5.2**  $\delta(C) = \min\{j : \exists S \subseteq H_{*n} : |S| = j \land S \text{ is } LD\}$ 

**Notation.** I use  $H_{*n}$  to denote the set with the *n* columns of *H*. I use  $H^{(i)}$  to denote the *i*th column of *H*.

Let  $s = \min \{j : \exists S \subseteq H_{*n} : |S| = j \land S \text{ is LD}\}$ . This implies there are *s* columns  $H^{(j_1)}, \ldots, H^{(j_s)}$  s.t.  $\sum x_i H^{(j_i)} = 0$  for  $x_1, \ldots, x_s$  not all null.

(1) Let  $w := \sum x_i e_{j_i}$  where  $e_k$  is the vector with all zeroes except at the *k*th coordinate. Since not all  $x_i$  are zeroes,  $w \neq 0$ . Now,

$$Hw^{t} = H \left( x_{1}e_{j_{1}} + \ldots + x_{s}e_{j_{s}} \right)^{t}$$
  
$$= x_{1}He_{j_{1}}^{t} + \ldots + x_{s}He_{j_{s}}^{t}$$
  
$$= \sum x_{i}H^{(j_{i})} \qquad \left\{ \text{Because } He_{j}^{t} = H^{(j)} \right\}$$
  
$$= 0$$

Then  $w \in Nu(H) = C$ . But  $|w| \le s$  and  $w \ne 0$ . We know  $\delta = \min \{|x| : x \in C, c \ne 0\}$ .

 $\therefore \ \delta \le |w| \le s.$ 

(2) Let  $v \in C$  s.t.  $\delta = |v|$ . Then there are  $i_1, \ldots, i_{\delta}$  s.t.  $v = e_{i_1} + \ldots + e_{i_{\delta}}$ . Since  $v \in C$ ,  $Hv^t = 0$ , which using the same logic as before gives  $\sum H^{(i_j)} = Hv^t = 0$ .

This implies  $\{H^{(i_1)}, \ldots, H^{(i_{\delta})}\}$  is LD.

 $\therefore s \leq \delta$ .

(3) Points (1) and (3) imply  $s = \delta$ .

#### 5.3 Three statements around a generating polynomial

Let *C* a code of length *n* and dimension *k* with generating polynomial g(x). We will prove:

1. 
$$C = \{p(x) : gr(p) < n \land g(x) \mid p(x)\} := C_1$$

2. 
$$C = \{v(x) \odot g(x) : v(x) \in F[x]\} := C_2$$

$$3. gr(g) = n - k$$

4.  $g(x) \mid (1 + x^n)$ 

(1 and 2): We shall prove  $C_1 \subseteq C_2 \subseteq C \subseteq C_1$ .

Let  $p(x) \in C_1$ . Then there is some q(x) s.t. p(x) = g(x)q(x) and gr(g(x)q(x)) < n.

 $\therefore g(x)q(x) = g(x) \odot q(x) \in C_2.$ 

$$\therefore C_1 \subseteq C_2$$

Now let  $p(x) = v(x) \odot g(x) \in C_2$  with v(x) an arbitrary polynomial. Then

$$p(x) = \left(v_0 + v_1 x + \dots + v_{gr(v)} x^{gr(v)}\right) \odot g(x)$$
  
=  $v_0 \odot g(x) + v_1 (x \odot g(x)) + v_2 (x_2 \odot g(x)) + \dots + v_{gr(v)} \left(x^{gr(v)} \odot g(x)\right)$   
=  $v_0 g(x) + v_1 Rot (g(x)) + v_2 Rot^2 (g(x)) + \dots + v_{gr(v)} Rot^{gr(v)} (g(x))$ 

All rotations of g(x) belong to *C*.

$$\therefore p(x) \in C$$

 $\therefore C_2 \subseteq C.$ 

Now let  $p(x) \in C$ . By definition, gr(p) < n, which implies  $p(x) = p(x) \mod (1+x^n)$ . We know

$$p(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x)$$

for some q(x), r(x) s.t. gr(r) < gr(g). Then

$$p(x) = (g(x)q(x) + r(x)) \mod (1 + x^{n})$$
  
=  $g(x) \odot q(x) + (r(x) \mod (1 + x^{n}))$   
=  $g(x) \odot q(x) + r(x)$  {Since  $gr(r) < gr(g) < n$ }

$$\therefore r(x) = p(x) + g(x) \odot q(x).$$

We know  $p \in C$  and  $g(x) \odot q(x) \in C^2 \subseteq C$ .

 $\therefore r(x) \in C.$ 

But since g is generating polynomial, it is the unique polynomial with the least non-null degree in C.

 $\therefore gr(r) < gr(g) \Rightarrow r(x) = 0.$  $\therefore g(x) \mid p(x) \text{ and then } p(x) \in C_1.$  $\therefore C \subseteq C_1$ 

(3) Let  $p(x) \in C$ . Then there is q(x) s.t. p(x) = g(x)q(x) with n > gr(p) = gr(g) + gr(q). This readily implies gr(q) < n - gr(g) < n. Then  $g(x)q(x) \in C$ .

This entails there is a bijection between C and the set of polynomials of degree n-gr(g). Then

$$|C| = | \{ p(x) : gr(p) < n - gr(g) \} |$$
  

$$\iff 2^{k} = 2^{n - gr(g)}$$
  

$$\iff gr(g) = n - k \blacksquare$$

(4) Divide  $(1 + x^n)$  by g(x) to obtain

$$1 + x^n = g(x)q(x) + r(x)$$

with gr(r) < gr(g). Taking the modulus,

 $0 = (1 + x^{n}) \mod (1 + x^{n})$ =  $(g(x)q(x) + r(x)) \mod (1 + x^{n})$ =  $(g(x) \odot q(x)) + (r(x) \mod 1 + x^{n})$  $g(x) \odot q(x) = r(x)$ 

because gr(r) < gr(g) < n.  $\therefore r(x) = g(x) \odot q(x) \in C$ . But gr(r) < gr(g).  $\therefore r(x) = 0$  and  $g(x) \mid (1 + x^n)$ .

## 6 Matchings

### 6.1 Konig

We want to prove that any bipartite and regular graph G = (V, E) has a perfect matching. Let X, Y be the two parts of G. For any  $W \subseteq V$  let  $E_W := \{wu \in E : w \in W\}$ .

(1) Let  $S \subseteq X$  and  $l \in E_S$ . It follows that

$$\exists x \in S, y \in Y : l = xy = yx$$

 $\therefore$   $y \in \Gamma(x)$ . And since  $x \in S$  we have  $y \in \Gamma(S)$  and  $l \in E_{\Gamma(S)}$ .

 $\therefore E_S \subseteq E_{\Gamma(S)}$  and  $|E_S| \leq |E_{\Gamma(S)}|$ .

(2) Let us calculate  $|E_W|$  when  $W \subseteq X$ .

Observe that  $E_W = \bigcup_{w \in W} \{wv : v \in \Gamma(w)\}$ . Furthermore, the union is disjoint, because  $wv \in E_W \Rightarrow w \in X \Rightarrow v \in Y$ . Then

$$|E_W| = \sum_{w \in W} |\Gamma(w)| = \sum_{w \in W} d(w)$$

Since G is regular,  $d(w) = \delta = \Delta$ .

 $\therefore |E_W| = \Delta |W|$ 

(3) Using what we established in (1), it follows from (2) that

$$|S|\Delta \le |\Gamma(S)|\Delta \Longrightarrow |S| \le |\Gamma(S)|$$

This holds for any  $S \subseteq X$ . Then Hall's theorem implies there is a complete matching from X to Y. To prove it is perfect, we must prove |X| = |Y|.

But since X, Y are the two parts of G,  $E = E_X = E_Y$ . Then  $|E_X| = |E_Y|$ , which implies  $|X|\Delta = |Y|\delta \Rightarrow |X| = |Y|$ .

Alternatively, since there is a complete matching from *X* to *Y*,  $|X| \le |Y|$ . But the choice of *X* over *Y* was arbitrary, and then the same holds for *Y*. Then |X| = |Y|.

In both caes the matching is perfect.

### 6.2 Hall

Let G = (V, E) a bipartite graph with parts X and Y, and let  $Z \in \{X, Y\}$ . We want to prove that there is a complete matching from X to Y iff  $\forall S \subseteq Z : |S| \le |\Gamma(S)|$ .

(⇒) The proof is trivial, because if such matching exists, it induces an injective function  $f : X \to Y$  s.t.  $f(x) \in \Gamma(x)$ . Since it is an injection, |f(S)| = |S| for any S. Then  $f(S) \subseteq \Gamma(S) \Rightarrow |S| \le |\Gamma(S)|$ .

(⇐) Assume the Hall condition  $|S| \le |\Gamma(S)|$  holds. Assume that, after running the algorithm to find a maximal matching, an incomplete matching is found. We will build  $S \subseteq X$  that violates our assumption (we could use  $S \subseteq Y$  without loss of generality).

(1) Let  $S_0$  be the set of rows unmatched and  $T_1 = \Gamma(S_0)$ . Observe that, by assumption,  $S_0 \neq \emptyset$ , and all columns in  $T_1$  have a match that is not in  $S_0$ . Let  $S_1$  the set of rows matching columns of  $T_1$  and  $T_2 = \Gamma(S_1) - T_1$ . Generally,

 $S_i$  = Rows matching with  $T_i$ 

$$T_{i+1} = \Gamma(S_i) - \bigcup_{j=0}^{J=i} T_j$$

The algorithm stops only when it is revising a row and this row has no available neighbors; this is, it only stops passing from a  $S_i$  to a  $T_{i+1}$  when  $T_{i+1} = \emptyset$ . Furthermore, since each column only labels a single row (that of its match), and  $T_i$  "creates"  $S_i$ , we have  $|S_j| = |T_j|$ .

Define  $S = \bigcup S_i, T = \bigcup T_i$ , and note that all the  $S_i$  are disjoint and all the  $T_i$  are disjoint. Then

$$|S| = \sum |S_i|$$
$$= |S_0| + \sum |T_i|$$
$$= |S_0| + |T|$$

 $\therefore$  |S| > |T| (since  $S_0 \neq \emptyset$ ).

We must only prove now that  $T = \Gamma(S)$ .

(1) *T* are the labeled columns, and each column is labeled by a row in *S*. Each row only labels its neighbors. This implies  $T \subset \Gamma(S)$ .

(2) Assume  $y \in \Gamma(S)$  and  $y \notin T$ . Then y was not labeled. But since  $y \in \Gamma(S)$  there is an  $x \in S$  s.t.  $y \in \Gamma(x)$ . Then each time the algorithm passes through x it should label y, which contradicts the fact that y is not labeled. Then  $y \in T$ . Then  $\Gamma(S) \subseteq T$ .

 $\therefore \Gamma(S) = T$  and  $|S| > |\Gamma(S)|$ . But this contradicts the hypothesis that the Hall condition holds. The contradiction comes from assuming there wasn't a complete matching.  $\therefore$  There is a complete matching.

## 7 **P-NP**

#### 7.1 2-Color is polynomial

To prove 2-color is polynomial, we must provide an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  that correctly decides whether any given G = (V, E) is 2-colorable in polynomial time. We will first provide  $\mathcal{A}$  and then show its correctness and its belonging to P.

The algorithm takes an arbitrary non-colored vertex to be the root of its connected component and colors it with 1. Within each connected component, it runs BFS from the given root to explore it. Each time BFS pivots over a vertex  $p \in V$  and enqueues its neighbors, the algorithm also colors each neighbor with 3 - c(p), thus ensuring that all colors are in the range  $\{1, 2\}$ .

It is important to note that the color of any given vertex is fully determined by the parity of its level in the BFS tree. Since the root at level zero is set to 1, all vertices in the second level are colored with 2, those in the third with 1, and so on.

```
i := 0
while j < n do
     r = arbitrary non-colored vertex
     c(r) = 1
     j = j + 1
     queue = \{r\}
     while queue \neq \emptyset do
          p = pop(queue)
          for x \in \Gamma(p) do
               if x not colored do
                    c(x) = 3 - c(p)
                    j = j + 1
                    push(queue, x)
               fi
          od
     od
od
for \{xy\} \in E do
     if c(x) = c(y) do return False fi
od
return True
```

The inner while runs BFS with a slight modification to color vertices when they are enqueued and is thus O(m). It is executed per each connected component and the number of connected components is O(n).  $\therefore$  The algorithm is polynomial.

That the algorithm correctly decides that a graph is two-colorable is trivial. To prove

that it also correctly decides that a graph is not two-colorable, we shall prove a negative answer entails the graph contains an odd cycle.

Assume the algorithm was executed over G = (V, E) and returned **False**. Then there is some  $\overrightarrow{xy} \in E$ , in a particular connected component  $C \subseteq G$ , s.t. c(x) = c(y). Let us presume, without loss of generality, that x was enqueued before y. Let us denote with r the root of C from which BFS was ran.

Assume x enqueues y. Then  $c(y) = 3 - c(x) \neq c(x)$ , a contradiction. Then x does not enqueue y. But this can only happen if, when x is the at front of the queue, y was already enqueued by some other vertex.

In particular, there is a vertex w that is the vertex of greater level common to x and y in the BFS tree—i.e. the vertex from which x and y diverge—. Let  $\eta(w)$  be the level of w in the BFS tree.

Consider the cycle  $w \dots xy \dots w$ , which exists because all these vertices belong to *C*. There are  $\eta(x) - \eta(w)$  edges from *w* to *x*, and  $\eta(y) - \eta(w)$  edges from *y* to *w*. There is one extra edge for *xy*. The total amount is then

$$\eta(x) - \eta(w) + \eta(y) - \eta(w) + 1 = \eta(x) + \eta(y) - 2\eta(w) + 1$$

By assumption,  $\eta(x)$  and  $\eta(y)$  are both greater than  $\eta(w)$ .  $\therefore \eta(x) + \eta(y) > 2\eta(w)$  and length of the path is greater than zero (sanity check).

Since c(x) = c(y),  $\eta(x) \equiv \eta(y) \mod 2$  and therefore  $\eta(x) + \eta(y)$  is even. Then the length of the cycle is odd.

 $\therefore C_{2k+1} \subseteq C$  and  $\chi(G) \ge 3$ .

#### 7.2 3SAT es NP-Completo

Let  $B = B_1 \land ... B_m$  an instance of SAT with variables  $x_1, ..., x_n$ . We build an instance of 3-SAT by transforming each  $B_i$  into an  $E_i$  as follows:

Complete.

$$E_i = (e_1 \lor e_2 \lor y_1) \land (\overline{y_1} \lor y_2 \lor e_3) \land (\overline{y_2} \lor y_3 \lor e_4) \lor \dots (\overline{y_{k-3}} \lor e_{k-1} \lor e_k)$$

We want to prove

$$\exists \overrightarrow{b} : B(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1 \iff \exists \overrightarrow{\alpha} : \widetilde{B}(\overrightarrow{b}, \overrightarrow{\alpha}) = 1$$

 $(\Leftarrow)$  Asume  $B(\overrightarrow{b}) = 0$ . Then  $D_i(\overrightarrow{b}) = 0$  for some *i*. Let  $e_1, \ldots, e_k$  be the literals in  $D_i$ .

If k = 3 a contradiction ensues trivially. If k = 2, then  $D_i = e_1 \lor e_2$  and then  $E_i = (e_1 \lor e_2 \lor y_1) \land (e_1 \lor e_2 \lor \overline{y_1})$ . Since  $D_i = 0$ ,  $e_1 \lor e_2 = 0$  and therefore  $e_1 = e_2 = 0$  From this follows  $E_i = y_1 \land \overline{y_1} = 1$ . ( $\perp$ )

If k = 1 then  $e_1 = 0$  and therefore  $E_i = (y_1 \lor y_2) \land (y_1 \lor \overline{y_2}) \land (\overline{y_1} \lor y_2) \land (\overline{y_1} \lor \overline{y_2}) = 0$ . But by assumption  $E_i = 1(\bot)$ .

If  $k \ge 4$  we must observe that, since  $D_i(\vec{b}) = 0$ , we have  $e_1 = e_2 = \ldots = e_k = 0$ . Then this literals are neutral elements in the disjunctions and can be ignored. Since  $E_i(\vec{b}, \vec{\alpha}) = 1$ , its first term is true; in other words,  $e_1 \lor e_2 \lor y_1 = 1 \Rightarrow y_1 = 1$ . In all the following cases (except the last),  $E_i = \overline{y_{i-1}} \lor y_i$  must be true; this is,  $y_i \Rightarrow y_{i+1}$  is true. But the last term is  $\overline{y_{k-3}}$ , which cannot be true because  $y_1$  and  $y_1 \Rightarrow y_2 \Rightarrow \ldots \Rightarrow y_{k-3}$ .  $(\bot)$ 

(⇒) Assume  $B(\vec{b}) = 1$ . For k = 1, k = 2, define  $y_i = 0$  for all i.  $\therefore D_i(\vec{b}) = 1 \Rightarrow E_i(\vec{b}, \vec{\alpha}) = 1$ . For k = 3 the result is trivial. Let us consider the case  $k \ge 4$ .

Since  $D_i(\vec{b}) = 1$  is a true disjunction, at least one  $e_r$  is true under  $\vec{b}$ . Define the following assignment:

$$y_1 = y_2 = \ldots = y_{r-2} = 1$$
  
 $y_i = 0$  para todos los demás *i*

Then

$$E(\overrightarrow{b}, \overrightarrow{a}) = (e_1 \lor e_2 \lor y_1) \qquad \{ \text{True because } y_1 = 1 \}$$

$$\land (\overrightarrow{y_1} \lor y_2 \lor e_3) \qquad \{ \text{True because } y_2 = 1 \}$$

$$\vdots \qquad (\overrightarrow{y_{r-3}} \lor y_{r-2} \lor e_{r-1}) \qquad \{ \text{True because } y_{r-2} = 1 \}$$

$$\land (\overrightarrow{y_{r-2}} \lor y_{r-1} \lor e_r) \qquad \{ \text{True because } e_r = 1 \}$$

$$\land (\overrightarrow{y_{r-1}} \lor y_r \lor e_{r+1}) \qquad \{ \text{True because } y_{r-1} = 0 \}$$

$$\vdots \qquad (\overrightarrow{y_{k-3}} \lor e_{k-1} \lor e_k) \qquad \{ \text{True because } y_{k-3} = 0 \}$$

 $\therefore$  Our assignment makes  $\tilde{B}$  true.

#### 7.3 3-Color es NP-Completo

We shall prove 3-color is NP complete. In order to do this, we will prove 3-SAT  $\leq_{\rho}$  3-Color. In other words, given an instance of 3-SAT of the form

$$B = \bigwedge i = 1^m (l_{i1} \lor l_{i2} \lor l_{i3})$$

with each literal  $l_{ij}$  a case of the variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , we shall provide an effective procedure that constructs a special graph G s.t. G is 3-colorable iff B is satisfiable.

(1 : Building G) We shall define G by parts; namely,

- 1. Two special vertices *s* and *t* that are connected.
- 2. *n* triangles, each connecting the vertices in  $\{t, v_i, w_i : 1 \le i \le n\}$
- 3. *m* triangles formed by the vertices  $\{b_{i1}, b_{i2}, b_{i3} : 1 \le i \le m\}$
- 4. A tip  $u_{ij}$  each connected to  $b_{ij}$  and s.

Now let us define

$$\psi(l_{ij}) = \begin{cases} v_k & l_{ij} = x_k \\ w_k & l_{ij} = \overline{x_k} \end{cases}$$

Then we also include in  $\mathcal{G}$  the sides  $\{u_{ij} \ \psi(l_{ij} : 1 \le i \le m, 1 \le j \le 3)\}$ . In other words, we connect each tip  $u_{ij}$  to either  $v_k$  or  $w_k$ , depending on what the literal  $l_{ij}$  is.

This completes the construction of G. Now we shall prove G is 3-colorable iff B is satisfiable.

 $(2: Proving \Rightarrow)$  Assume  $\mathcal{G}$  has a proper coloring of three colors or less. Since  $\mathcal{G}$  contains triangles, it must be a coloring of exactly three colors. We shall define

$$\overrightarrow{b}_{k} = \begin{cases} 1 & c(v_{k}) = c(s) \\ 0 & c(v_{k}) \neq c(s) \end{cases}$$

and prove that  $B(\vec{b}) = 1$ . Proving this equates to proving there is at least one *j* in  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  s.t.  $l_{ij}(\vec{b}) = 1$  for any arbitrary *i*. To prove this, we shall take  $u_{ij}$  and analyze what is color entails about the truth assignment.

The triangle  $\{b_{i1}, b_{i2}, b_{i3}\}$  must contain c(t) at some  $b_{ij_0}$  fixed. Take  $u_{ij_0}$ . Note that  $c(s) \neq c(u_{ij_0}) \neq c(t)$ . And since  $\psi(u_{ij_0})$  cannot have the color of t, it must be the case that  $c(\psi(u_{ij_0})) = c(s)$ . Now consider these cases.

*Case 1.* If  $\psi(u_{ij_0}) = v_k$ , it follows that  $l_{ij} = x_k$ . j Then  $c(v_k) = c(s) \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{b_k} = 1 \Rightarrow l_{ij}(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ .  $\therefore B_i(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ .

*Case 2.* If  $\psi(u_{ij_0}) = w_k$  then  $l_{ij} = \overline{x_k}$ . Since  $c(w_k) = c(s)$  in this case,  $c(v_k) \neq c(s)$  and  $\overrightarrow{b}_k = 0$ . Then  $l_{ij}(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ .  $\therefore B_i(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ .

In both cases, for an arbitrary *i*, the coloring of  $\mathcal{G}$  allows us to define an assignment  $ve^3$  that makes  $B_i(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ . Of course, this assignment is s.t.  $B(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ .

 $(3: Proving \Leftarrow)$  Assume *B* is satisfiable by a boolean vector  $\overrightarrow{b}$ . Then for any given *i* in [1, m] we have  $B_i(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ . Then  $l_{ij_0}(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$  for (at least) a fixed  $j_0, 1 \le j_0 \le 3$ . Let  $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$  a set of colors and define c(s) = 0, c(t) = 1. Let

$$c(v_k) = \begin{cases} c(s) & \overrightarrow{b}_k = 1\\ 2 & \overrightarrow{b}_k = 0 \end{cases} \qquad \qquad c(w_k) = \begin{cases} 2 & \overrightarrow{b}_k = 1\\ c(s) & \overrightarrow{b}_k = 0 \end{cases}$$

Clearly,  $\{s, t\}$  is properly colored and  $\{t, v_i, w_i\}$  is properly colored. All that is left is to color the triangles with tips.

Let

$$c(u_{ij}) = \begin{cases} 2 & j = j_0 \\ c(t) & j \neq j_0 \end{cases}$$

Of course, each  $\{u_{ij}, s\}$  is properly colored. But what about  $\{u_{ij}, \psi(l_{ij})\}$ ? Well, there are two cases to consider.

If  $j = j_0$ ,  $c(u_{ij}) = 2$  and  $l_{ij}(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ . If  $\psi(l_{ij}) = v_k$ , this means  $x_k(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1 \Rightarrow \overrightarrow{b_k} = 1$ . Then  $v_k$  is colored with  $c(s) \neq c(u_{ij})$  and the coloring is correct. If  $\psi(l_{ij}) = w_k$ , entailing that  $l_{ij} = \overline{x_k}$ , then  $\overrightarrow{b}_k = 0$  necessarily, in which case  $c(w_k) = c(s) \neq c(u_{ij})$ .

If  $j \neq j_0$ , then  $c(u_{ij}) = c(t)$ . But  $\psi(l_{ij}) \in \{v_k, w_k\}$  never takes the color of t, and the coloring is correct.

All that is left is to color the triangle  $\{b_{i1}, b_{i2}, b_{i3}\}$ . But this is trivial. Simply let  $c(b_{ij_0}) = c(s)$ , ensuring that  $\{b_{ij_0}, u_{ij_0}\}$  are properly colored, and color the remaining two vertices with c(t) and 2 in any order.

We have used  $\overrightarrow{b}$  to define a 3-coloring of  $\mathcal{G}$ .

#### 7.4 Trisexual marriage

We shall prove 3D-Marriage is NP-complete by proving 3-SAT  $\leq_{\rho}$  3D-Marriage. In order to do this, we shall build a tripartite 3-hypergraph, with parts of equal cardinality, s.t. there is a perfect matching among the three parts iff an arbitrary instance of 3-SAT is satisfiable.

Let *B* be such instance with *m* terms, *n* variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ , and literals  $l_{jr}$  for  $1 \le j \le m, 1 \le r \le 3$ . Let  $k \in \{1, \ldots, m(n-1)\}$ . Then we define the tree parts of the 3-hypergraph as follows:

$$X = \{a_{ij}\} \cup \{s_j\} \cup \{h_k\}$$
$$Y = \{b_{ij}\} \cup \{t_j\} \cup \{g_k\}$$
$$Z = \{u_{ij}\} \cup \{w_{ij}\}$$

for all possible combinations of their variables. It is trivial to see that their cardinalities are the same and always equal 2nm.

We define the edges of the 3-hypergraph as the union of

$$E_{0} = \{a_{ij}, b_{ij}, u_{ij}\}$$

$$E_{1} = \{a_{i(j+1)}, b_{ij}, w_{ij}\}$$

$$E_{2} = \{h_{k}, g_{k}, u_{ij}\} \cup \{h_{k}, g_{k}, w_{ij}\}$$

$$E_{3} = \{s_{i}, t_{i}, v_{ir}\}$$

where

$$v_{jr} = \begin{cases} u_{ij} & \exists i : l_{jr} = x_i \\ w_{ij} & \exists i : l_{jr} = \overline{x_i} \end{cases}$$

We will prove this 3-hypergraph has a matching iff *B* is satisfiable.

 $(\Rightarrow)$  Assume there is a perfect matching. Let *i* an fixed and arbitrary element. Since the matching is perfect, for any *j*,  $a_{ij}$  belongs to the matching. This could happen if  $a_{ij}$  is a side of  $E_0$  or a side of  $E_1$ .

It is trivial to see that if  $a_{ij}$  is part of a side of  $E_0$ , all sides of  $E_0$  belong to the matching and no side of  $E_1$  belong to the matching. Call this *Case 0*. Similarly, one sees that if a side of  $E_1$  belongs to the matching, all sides of  $E_1$  belong to the matching and no side of  $E_0$  belong to the matching. Call this *Case 1*.

It should be evident that if Case 0 does not hold then Case 1 holds, and vice-versa.

Let

$$\overrightarrow{b}_{i} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{Case 0 holds for } i \\ 1 & \text{Case 1 holds for } i \end{cases}$$

Since  $B = B_1 \land \ldots \land B_m$ , we must only prove  $B_j(\vec{b}) = 1$  for an arbitrary *j*, which amounts to proving there is some *r* s.t.  $l_{jr}(\vec{b}) = 1$ . But there are two cases for any such  $l_{jr}$ .

If  $l_{jr} = x_i$ , then  $v_{jr} = u_{ij}$  and  $\{s_j, t_j, u_{ij}\}$  belong to the matching. Then  $\{a_{ij}, b_{ij}, u_{ij}\} \in E_0$  cannot belong to the matching. Then we have *Case 1*. Then  $l_{jr}(\vec{b}) = x_i(\vec{b}) = 1$ .

Similarly, one proves  $l_{jr} = \overline{x_i}$  entails *Case 0*, which entails  $l_{jr}(\overrightarrow{b}) = \overline{x_i}(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ .

The assignment makes  $B(\vec{b}) = 1$ .

(⇐) Now assume there is some  $\overrightarrow{b}$  s.t.  $B(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ . We shall define edges  $F_0 \subseteq E_0, \ldots, F_3 \subseteq E_3$  to make up our matching. Let

$$F_0 = \{\{a_{ij}, b_{ij}, u_{ij}\} : 1 \le j \le m \land b_i = 0\}$$
  
$$F_1 = \{\{a_{i(j+1)}, b_{ij}, w_{ij}\} : 1 \le j \le m \land b_i = 1\}$$

These are clearly disjoint. Now, since  $B(\vec{b}) = 1$ , for any *j* there is some  $r_0$  s.t.  $l_{jr_0}(\vec{b}) = 1$ . We define

$$F_3 = \left\{ s_j, t_j, v_{jr_0} \right\}$$

If a vertex is common sides in  $F_0$  and  $F_3$ , this entails  $v_{jr_0} = u_{ij}$  which entails  $l_{jr_0} = x_i$ . But our assumption is  $b_i = 0$ , which contradicts  $l_{jr_0}(\overrightarrow{b}) = 1$ . The sets are disjoint.

Similarly, one sees  $F_1$  and  $F_3$  are disjoint. So we have provided a matching. However, our matching is not perfect, because we have left some vertices of Z uncovered. Let

$$N = \{z \in Z : z \text{ not covered by } F_0, F_1, F_3\}$$

Let  $p = |\{i : b_i = 0\}|, q = |\{i : b_i = 1\}|$ , s.t. n = p + q. It is clear, due to the definition of these sets, that

$$|Z - N| = |F_0| + |F_1| + |F_3|$$
  
= mp + mq + m  
= m(p + q + 1)  
= m(n + 1)

Now,

$$|N| = |Z| - |Z - N| = 2nm - m(n+1) = m(n-1)$$

This readily entails there is a bijection  $f : \{1, ..., m(n-1)\} \rightarrow N$ . Thus, we define

$$F_2 = \{h_k, g_k, f(k)\}$$

Since f is a bijection, the sides in this set have no vertices in common (injection) and all vertices are covered (surjection).

 $\therefore E(M) = \bigcup_{i=0}^{3} F_i$  induces a perfect matching.