Solutions to In-Class Problems Week 5, Wed.

Problem 1. Let $L_n$ be the $(n+1)$-vertex line graph, which consists of a single simple path of length $n$. For example, here is $L_4$:

![The line graph $L_4$.](image)

A graph is two-ended if it has exactly two vertices of degree one and all other vertices have degree two. Note that $L_n$ is a two-ended graph for every $n \geq 1$.

(a) Draw a diagram of the smallest two-ended graph that is not isomorphic to a line graph.

Solution. Here is the smallest counterexample:

![Diagram](image)

(b) Identify where the following proof makes a logical error (where something is deduced that didn’t follow from the previous results and hypotheses).

False Theorem. Every two-ended graph with $n$ edges is isomorphic to $L_n$.

False proof. We prove the theorem by induction on $n$, the number of edges in the graph, with the hypothesis

$$P(n) ::= \text{every two-ended graph with } n \text{ edges is isomorphic to } L_n.$$
**Base case,** \( n = 1 \): A graph with one edge has the two vertices connected by that edge and some number of vertices not attached to any edge, that is, vertices of degree zero. A two-ended graph cannot have vertices of degree zero, so the only two-ended graph with one edge consists of that edge and the two vertices it joins, which makes it isomorphic to \( L_1 \).

**Inductive step:** Assume that \( n \geq 1 \), and let \( G_n \) be any two-ended graph with \( n \) edges. By hypothesis, \( G_n \) is isomorphic to \( L_n \).

Now suppose we have a two-ended graph \( G_{n+1} \). We will show that \( G_{n+1} \) is also a line graph. Consider how an edge can be added to the line graph \( G_n \) to form a two-ended \( G_{n+1} \):

If an edge with two new vertices is added to any line graph, the result is not two-ended because it has four degree one vertices. If an edge is attached to one of the degree 2 ("middle") vertices of the line graph, the result is again not two-ended because it has a vertex of degree 3. So the only way to add an edge to the line graph to get a two-ended graph is to have that edge be incident on one side to one of the degree-one vertices — that is, to one end — and to on the other side to a new vertex. But adding such an edge to the end of a line graph yields a line graph that is one longer. So the resulting \((n + 1)\)-edge graph, \( G_{n+1} \), is indeed isomorphic to \( L_{n+1} \). This proves \( P(n + 1) \).

The Theorem follows by induction. \( \square \)

**Solution.** The first logical error is in the next-to-last sentence: "This proves \( P(n + 1) \)." Something other than \( P(n + 1) \) was (correctly) proved instead, namely, that every two-ended graph built by adding an edge to an \( n \)-vertex line graph, is a line graph, \( L_{n+1} \).

But to prove \( P(n + 1) \) we had to prove that every two-ended graph, \( G_{n+1} \), with \( n + 1 \) vertices is a line graph. Since not every such \( G_{n+1} \) can be built from a line graph by adding an edge (as illustrated in part (a)), the proof did not cover all the possible \( G_{n+1} \)'s.

You might want to argue that the proof made a logical error when it began considering "how an edge can be added to the line graph, \( G_n \), to form \( G_{n+1} \)" but that's not right. There was no logical error at that point. Rather, there was a strategic error that lead to the later logical error. A proof could make lots of strategic errors and still wind up being correct, though unduly long-winded, if it eventually got back on track with a correct argument at the end. \( \blacksquare \)

**Problem 2.** In this problem you will prove:

**Theorem.** A graph \( G \) is 2-colorable iff it contains no odd length cycle.

As usual with “iff” assertions, the proof splits into two proofs: part (a) asks you to prove that the left side of the “iff” implies the right side. The other problem parts prove that the right side implies the left.

(a) Assume the left side and prove the right side. Three to five sentences should suffice.

**Solution.** First, we assume that \( G \) is 2-colorable and prove that \( G \) contains no odd length cycle.

Select a 2-coloring of \( G \). Consider an arbitrary cycle with successive vertices \( v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k, v_1 \). Then the vertices \( v_i \) must be one color for all even \( i \) even and the other color for all odd \( i \). (We
could confirm this claim with a proof by induction, but it seems obvious enough to accept without further proof.) Since \( v_1 \) and \( v_k \) must be colored differently, \( k \) must be even. Thus, the cycle has even length. We can make the same argument for any cycle in \( G \), so every cycle has even length. \( \blacksquare \)

(b) Now assume the right side. As a first step toward proving the left side, explain why we can focus on a single connected component \( H \) within \( G \).

**Solution.** Next, we assume that \( G \) contains no odd cycle and prove that \( G \) is 2-colorable. If we can 2-color every connected component of \( G \), then we can 2-color all of \( G \). Thus, it suffices to show that an arbitrary connected component \( H \) of \( G \) is 2-colorable. \( \blacksquare \)

(c) Choose any 2-coloring of a spanning tree, \( T \), of \( H \). Prove that \( H \) is 2-colorable by showing that any edge *not* in \( T \) must also connect different-colored vertices.

**Solution.** Any 2-coloring of \( T \) can be defined by selecting any fixed vertex \( v \), and coloring a vertex one color if the (unique) path from to it from \( v \) has odd length, and coloring it with the other color if the path has even length.

Now let \( x-y \) be an edge not \( T \), and consider the unique paths in \( T \). Let \( z \) be the last vertex on the path from \( v \) to \( x \) that also occurs on the path from \( v \) to \( y \). Of the paths from \( z \) to \( x \) and from \( z \) to \( y \), exactly one must have odd length; otherwise, these two paths together with the edge \( x-y \) would form an odd length cycle.

Now let \( p \) be the path from \( v \) to \( z \). The \( v \) to \( x \) path must be \( p \) followed by the \( z \) to \( x \) path, and the \( v \) to \( y \) path must be \( p \) followed by the \( z \) to \( y \) path. So exactly one of the paths from \( v \) to \( x \) and from \( v \) to \( y \) has odd length, which means \( x \) and \( y \) are colored differently. \( \blacksquare \)

**Problem 3.** A portion of a computer program consists of a sequence of calculations where the results are stored in variables, like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Inputs:</th>
<th>Outputs:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>( a, b )</td>
<td>( a, b )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>( c = a + b )</td>
<td>( c )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>( d = a \ast c )</td>
<td>( d )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>( e = c + 3 )</td>
<td>( e )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>( f = c - e )</td>
<td>( f )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>( g = a + f )</td>
<td>( g )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( h = f + 1 )</td>
<td>( h )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A computer can perform such calculations most quickly if the value of each variable is stored in a *register*, a chunk of very fast memory inside the microprocessor. Computers usually have few
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registers, however, so they must be used wisely and reused often. The problem of assigning each variable in a program to a register is called register allocation.

In the example above, variables $a$ and $b$ must be assigned different registers, because they hold distinct input values. Furthermore, $c$ and $d$ must be assigned different registers; if they used the same one, then the value of $c$ would be overwritten in the second step and we’d get the wrong answer in the third step. On the other hand, variables $b$ and $d$ may use the same register; after the first step, we no longer need $b$ and can overwrite the register that holds its value. Also, $f$ and $h$ may use the same register; once $f + 1$ is evaluated in the last step, the register holding the value of $f$ can be overwritten.

(Assume that the computer carries out each step in the order listed and that each step is completed before the next is begun.)

(a) Recast the register allocation problem as a question about graph coloring. What do the vertices correspond to? Under what conditions should there be an edge between two vertices? Construct the graph corresponding to the example above.

Solution. There is one vertex for each variable. An edge between two vertices indicates that the values of the variables must be stored in different registers.

We can classify each appearance of a variable in the program as either an assignment or a use. In particular, an appearance is an assignment if the variable is on the left side of an equation or on the “Inputs” line. An appearance of a variable is a use if the variable is on the right side of an equation or on the “Outputs” line.

The lifetime of a variable is the segment of code extending from the initial assignment of the variable until the last use. There is an edge between two variables if their lifetimes overlap. This rule generates the following graph:

(b) Color your graph using as few colors as you can. Call the computer’s registers $R1$, $R2$, etc. Describe the assignment of variables to registers implied by your coloring. How many registers do you need?

Solution. Four registers are needed. One possible assignment of variables to registers is indicated in the figure above.
In general, coloring a graph using the minimum number of colors is quite difficult; no efficient procedure is known. However, the register allocation problem always leads to an interval graph. For interval graphs, there are efficient coloring procedures, which can be incorporated into a compiler.

(c) Suppose that a variable is assigned a value more than once, as in the code snippet below:

\[
\begin{align*}
\ldots \\
t &= r + s \\
u &= t \times 3 \\
t &= m - k \\
v &= t + u \\
\ldots
\end{align*}
\]

How might you cope with this complication?

**Solution.** Each time a variable is reassigned, we could regard it as a completely new variable. Then we would regard the example as equivalent to the following:

\[
\begin{align*}
\ldots \\
t &= r + s \\
u &= t \times 3 \\
t' &= m - k \\
v &= t' + u \\
\ldots
\end{align*}
\]

We can now proceed with graph construction and coloring as before.