

① Permutation Graphs

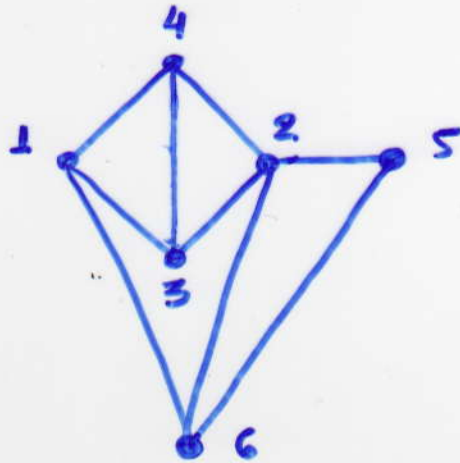
- Let π be a permutation on $N_n = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.
- Let us think of π as a sequence $[\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_n]$ so, for example, the permutation $\pi = [4, 3, 6, 1, 5, 2]$ has $\pi_1 = 4$, $\pi_2 = 3$, etc.
- Notice that π_i^{-1} is the position in the sequence where the number i can be found; in our example $\pi_4^{-1} = 1$, $\pi_3^{-1} = 2$, etc.
- We define the **inversion Graph** $G[\pi] = (V, E)$ of π as follows:

$$V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

$$(i, j) \in E \iff (i - j)(\pi_i^{-1} - \pi_j^{-1}) < 0$$

- In our example, both **4** and **3** are connected to **1**, whereas neither **5** nor **2** is connected to **1**.

- **Definition:** An undirected graph G is called a **permutation graph** if there exists a permutation π on N_n such that $G \cong G[\pi]$.



The graph $G[4,3,6,1,5,2]$

- Notice what happens when we reverse the sequence π .
 - the permutation graph we obtain is the complement of $G[\pi]$; $\pi^r = [2,5,1,6,3,4]$
 - $G[\pi^r] = \overline{G[\pi]}$
- This shows that the complement of a permutation graph is also a permutation graph.

- **Theorem**: An undirected graph G is a permutation graph iff G and \bar{G} are comparability graphs.

- Let (V, F_1) and (V, F_2) be transitive orientations of $G=(V, E)$ and $\bar{G}=(V, \bar{E})$, respectively.

- Then, (i) $(V, F_1 + F_2)$ is acyclic.


- (ii) $(V, F_1^{-1} + F_2)$ is acyclic.

Pls, prove (i) and (ii).

- Construction of a permutation $\pi : G \cong G[\pi]$.

- An acyclic orientation of a complete graph K_n on n vertices is transitive, and it determines a unique linear order of the vertices.

- show: Columbic p. 42


 $v_i \equiv n\text{-degree}$
 $n-1$

- Let F be an orientation of K_n . We call F a **transitive orientation** if, for all triples of vertices,

$$xy \in F, yz \in F \Rightarrow xz \in F$$

- Theorem:** Let F be an orientation of K_n . The following statements are equivalent.

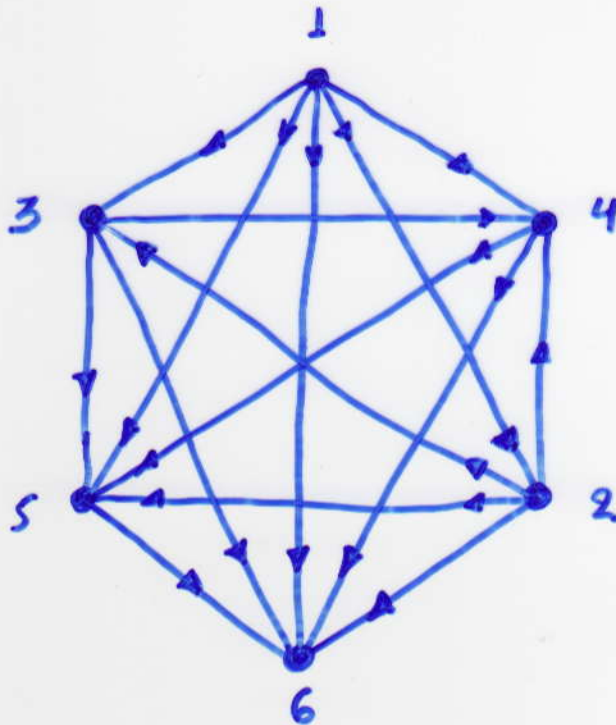
- (i) F is a transitive orientation.
- (ii) F is acyclic.

Moreover, the vertices can be linearly ordered $[v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ such that

- (iii) v_i has in-degree $i-1$ in F , for all i , and
- (iv) $v_i v_j \in F$ iff $i < j$.

- This linear ordering of the vertices is **unique**.

- The following figure shows a transitive orientation and the linear ordering of its vertices.



- This theorem provides us with a $O(n)$ time algorithm for recognizing transitive orientations.
 - First, calculate the **in-degree** of each vertex;
 - Then, using a Boolean vector, verify that there are no duplicates among the in-degrees.

- A slightly more general problem than recognizing transitive orientations is that of topological sorting an arbitrary acyclic oriented graph $G = (V, F)$.

- What we seek is a linear ordering of the vertices $[v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n]$ which is consistent with the edges of G ; that is

$$v_i v_j \in F \Rightarrow i < j \quad (\text{for all } i, j).$$

— such an ordering is called a topological sorting of G .

- One method for finding ^{such} an ordering is the following:

for $i \leftarrow n$ to 1 step -1 do

- locate a sink v of the remaining graph; $v \equiv v_i$;
- delete v and all edges incident on v from G ;

end;

• End-show;

• Consider the following procedure which constructs a permutation π such that $G \cong G[\pi]$.

– Recall: (V, F_1) , (V, F_2) are the transitive orientations of G and \bar{G} , respectively.

• Procedure:

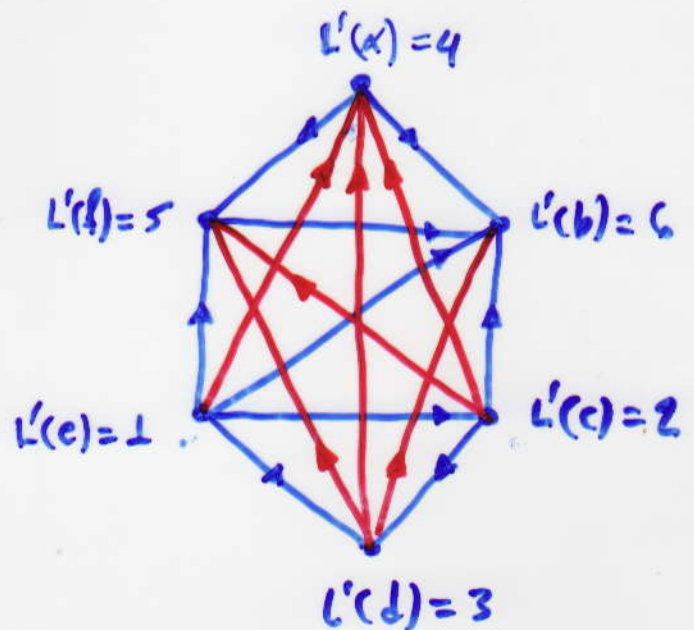
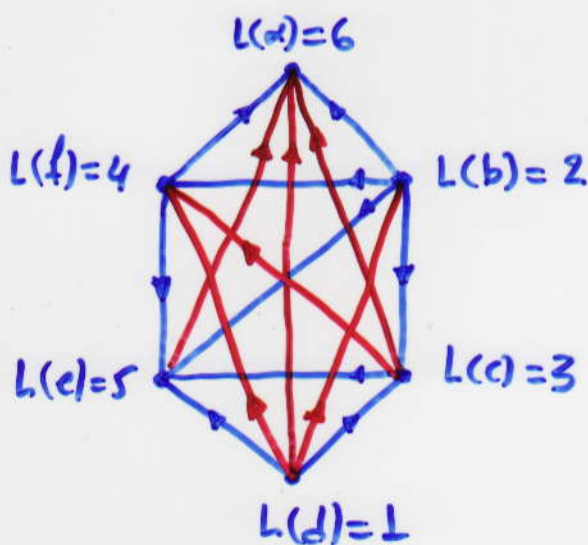
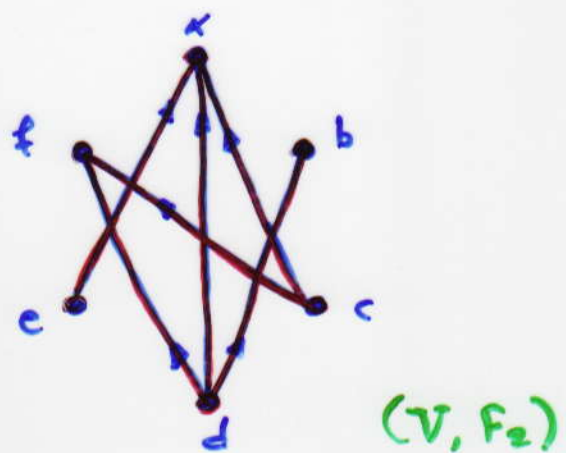
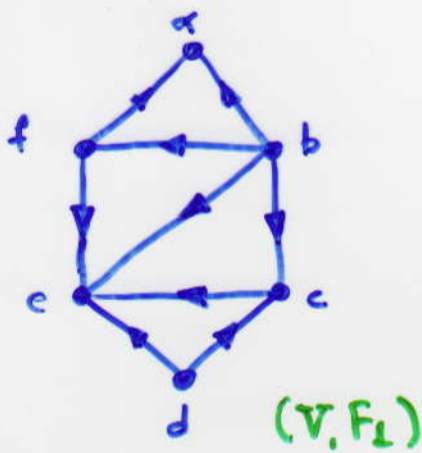
Step I. Label the vertices according to the order determined by $F_1 + F_2$; namely, if $\text{in-degree}(x) = i-1$ then $L(x) = i$.

Step II. Label the vertices according to the order determined by $F_1^{-1} + F_2$; namely, if $\text{in-degree}(x) = i-1$ then $L'(x) = i$.

• Notice that

$$xy \in E \Leftrightarrow [L(x) - L(y)][L'(x) - L'(y)] < 0 \quad (1)$$

since it is the edges of E which have their orientations reversed between steps I and II.



• $\pi = [5, 3, 1, 6, 4, 2]$ (see step III).

Step III. Define π as follows: For each vertex x , if $L(x) = i$, then $\pi_i^{-1} = L'(x)$.

- We have shown that G is a permutation graph if and only if G and \bar{G} are comparability graphs.
- This result suggests an algorithm for recognizing permutation graphs, namely, applying the transitive orientation algorithm to the graph G and to its complement \bar{G} .
 - if we succeed in finding transitive orientations, then the graph is a permutation graph.
- To find a suitable permutation we can follow the construction procedure. The entire method requires $O(n^3)$ time and $O(n^2)$ space for a graph with n vertices.

• Permutation Labeling

- A related, but simpler, problem is that of testing whether a **given labeling** is a permutation labeling.

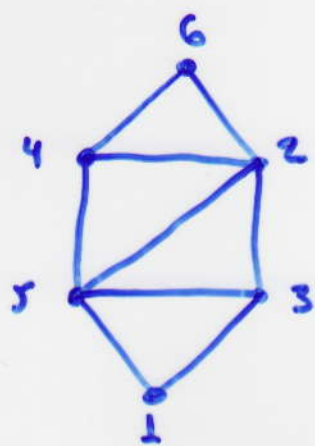
- Let $L: V \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ be a bijection labeling of a graph $G = (V, E)$.

- We call L a **permutation labeling** if there exists a permutation π of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ such that

$$xy \in E \Leftrightarrow [L(x) - L(y)][\pi^{-1}(L(x)) - \pi^{-1}(L(y))] < 0$$

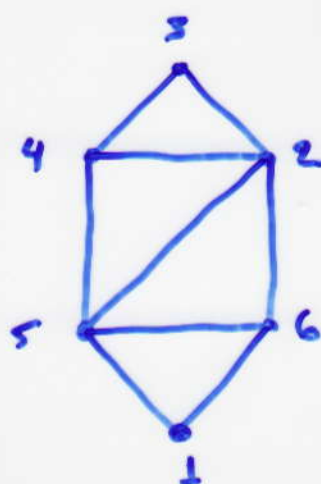
- clearly, G is a permutation graph if and only if it has at least one **permutation labeling**.

- The following figure shows two labelings of the same graph.



This labeling is
a permutation labeling

$$\{5, 3\} - (1) - \{2, 4, 6\}$$



This labeling is not
a perm. labeling.

$$\{5, 6\} - (1) - \{2, 3, 4\}$$

- Theorem:** Let G be a graph. A bijection $L: V \rightarrow \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is a per. labeling of G iff the mapping

$$F: x \rightarrow L(x) - d^-(x) + d^+(x) \quad (x \in V)$$

is an injection, where

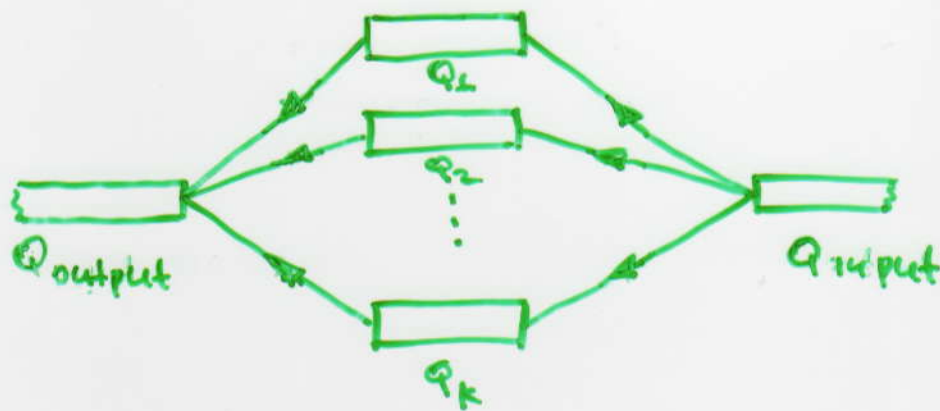
$$d^-(x) = |\{y \in N(x) \mid L(y) < L(x)\}|$$

and

$$d^+(x) = |\{y \in N(x) \mid L(y) > L(x)\}|$$

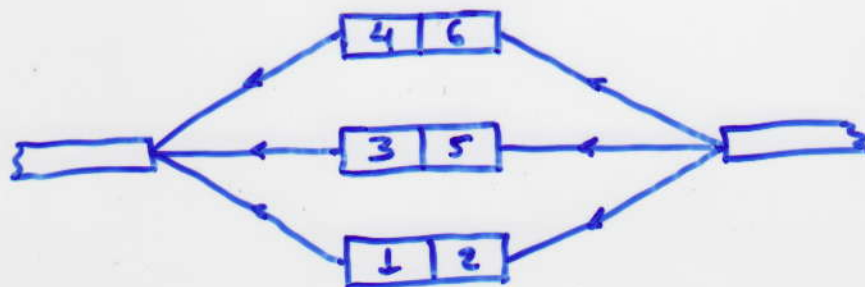
Sorting a Permutation using Queues

- Let us consider the problem of sorting a permutation π of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ using a network of k queues arranged in parallel.



- Given a permutation π , how many queues will we need?

- Example: $\pi \in [4, 3, 6, 1, 5, 2]$



- What is it that forces two numbers to go into different queues?

Answer: The numbers occur in reversed order in $\pi = [4, 3, 6, 1, 5, 2]$

- Thus, if i and j are adjacent in $G[\pi]$, then they must go through different queues.

- **Proposition:** Let $\pi = [\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_n]$ be a permutation on N_n . There is a one-to-one correspondence between the proper k -colorings of $G[\pi]$ and the successful sorting strategies for π in a network of k parallel queues.

- **Corollary:** Let π be a permutation on N_n . The following numbers are equal:
 - (i) the chromatic number of $G[\pi]$,
 - (ii) the minimum number of queues required to sort π ,
 - (iii) the length of a longest decreasing subsequence of π .

- The **canonical sorting strategy** for π places each number in the first available queue.

- From this strategy, we obtain the **canonical coloring** of $G[\pi]$.

- **Algorithm Canonical coloring**

input : A permutation π on N_n ;

output : A coloring of the vertices of $G[\pi]$ and $\chi(G[\pi])$;

Method

During the j th iteration, π_j is transferred onto the queue Q_i having the smallest index i satisfying $\pi_j \geq \text{last entry of } Q_i$.

begin

$k \leftarrow 0$;

for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do

$i \leftarrow$ first allowable queue;

$\text{COLOR}(\pi_j) \leftarrow i$;

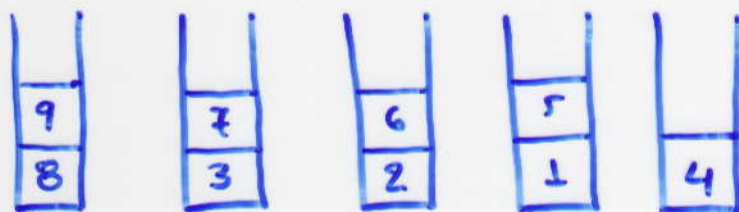
$\text{LAST}(i) \leftarrow \pi_j$;

$k \leftarrow \max\{k, i\}$;

end

$\chi \leftarrow k$;

- Example: $\pi = [8, 3, 2, 7, 1, 9, 6, 5, 4]$



χ : 1 2 3 4 5

- **Theorem:** Let π be a permutation on N_n . The canonical coloring of $G[\pi]$, as produced by Algorithm Canonical coloring, is a minimum coloring.

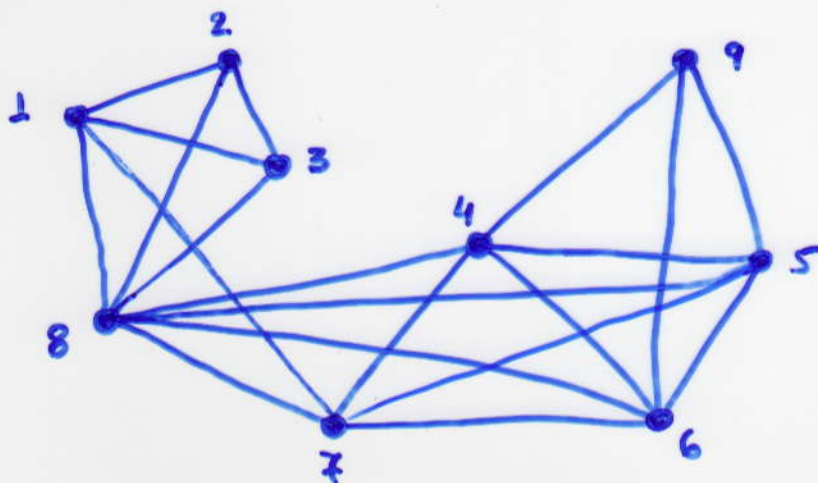
Proof. Clearly the algorithm produces a proper χ -coloring of $G[\pi]$. We must show $\chi = \chi(G[\pi])$. It is sufficient to show that π has a decreasing subsequence of length χ .

Predecessor function p : If $\text{COLOR}(\pi_j) = i \geq 2$, then $\pi_{p(j)} = \text{value of LAST}(i-1)$ during the j -th iteration.

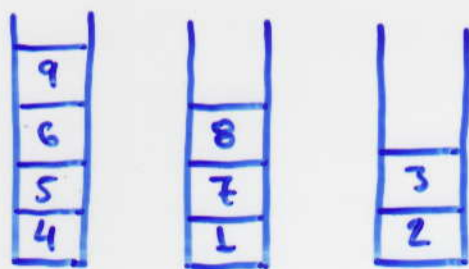
Clearly, $\pi_{p(j)} > \pi_j$ and $p(j) < j$.

Then, $\pi_{j_1}, \pi_{j_2}, \dots, \pi_{j_\chi}$ where $\text{COLOR}(\pi_{j_\chi}) = \chi$ and $\pi_{j_{i-1}} = \pi_{p(j_i)}$ for $i = \chi, \chi-1, \dots, 2$.

- **Remark:** To find a **minimum clique cover** of $G[\pi]$, apply Algorithm canonical coloring to the reversal π^r of π .



$$\pi^r = [4, 5, 6, 9, 1, 7, 2, 3, 8]$$



- The algorithm **canonical coloring** runs in $O(n \log n)$ time provided we have the permutation π and the isomorphism $G \rightarrow G[\pi]$.
- If we do not have π , then we would revert to the coloring algorithm for comparability graphs.

⊙ Basic Properties of Permutations

- Permutations may be represented in many ways.
- The most straightforward is simply a rearrangement of the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$, as in the following example:

index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
permutation	9	14	4	1	12	2	10	13	5	6	11	3	8	15	7

- An **inversion** is a pair $i < j$ with $\pi_i > \pi_j$.
If q_j is the number of $i < j$ with $\pi_i > \pi_j$, then $q_1 q_2 \dots q_n$ is called the **inversion table** of π .

permutation	9	14	4	1	12	2	10	13	5	6	11	3	8	15	7
inversion table	0	0	2	3	1	4	2	1	5	5	3	9	6	0	8

- The sample permutation given above has **49** inversions.

- A **left-to-right maximum** is an index i :
 $\pi_j < \pi_i$ for all $j < i$

We use the notation $\lambda(\pi)$ to refer to the number of l-r maxima in a permutation π .

- The sample permutation given above: $\lambda(\pi) = 3$.

- A **cycle** is an index sequence $i_1 i_2 \dots i_t$ with $\pi_{i_1} = i_2, \pi_{i_2} = i_3, \dots, \pi_{i_t} = i_1$.

We use the notation $(i_1 i_2 \dots i_t)$ to specify a cycle.

index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
permutation	9	14	4	1	12	2	10	13	5	6	11	3	8	15	7
Cycles	(1 9 5 12 3 4)				(2 14 15 7 10 6)					(8 13)		(11)			

- An element in π of length n belongs to a unique cycle of length from 1 to n .
- A **derangement** is a permutation with no cycles of length 1.

- If we choose to list the largest element in each cycle (the **cycle leaders**) first and then take the cycles in increasing order of their leaders, then
- we get a canonical form that has an interesting property:
the parentheses are unnecessary !!!
- since each l-r maximum in the canonical form corresponds to a **new cycle**.

- **Example:**

cycles : $(\underline{1} \ 9 \ 5 \ \underline{12} \ 3 \ 4) \ (2 \ 14 \ \underline{15} \ 7 \ 10 \ 6) \ (8 \ \underline{13}) \ (\underline{11})$

canonical form : $\underline{11} \ \underline{12} \ 3 \ 4 \ 1 \ 9 \ 5 \ \underline{13} \ 8 \ \underline{15} \ 7 \ 10 \ 6 \ 2 \ 14$

- In combinatorics, this is known as "**Foata's correspondence**", or the "**fundamental correspondence**".
- **Reference:** Sedgewick/Flajolet, "An Introduction to the Analysis of Algorithms", Addison-Wesley, 1996.

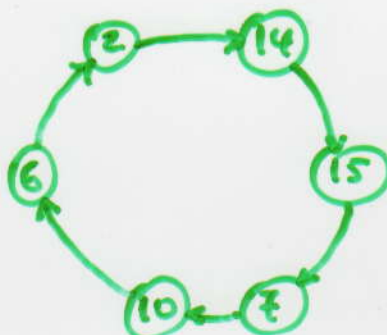
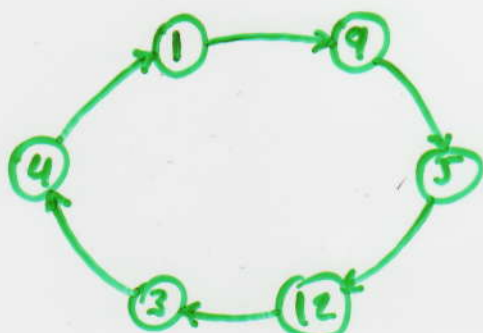
● Representations of Permutations

- While it is normally most convenient to represent permutations as rearrangements of the numbers $1, 2, \dots, n$, many other ways to represent permutations are often appropriate.

● cycle representation

- The fundamental correspondence between a permutation and the canonical form of its cycle structure representation defines a "representation" of permutations.

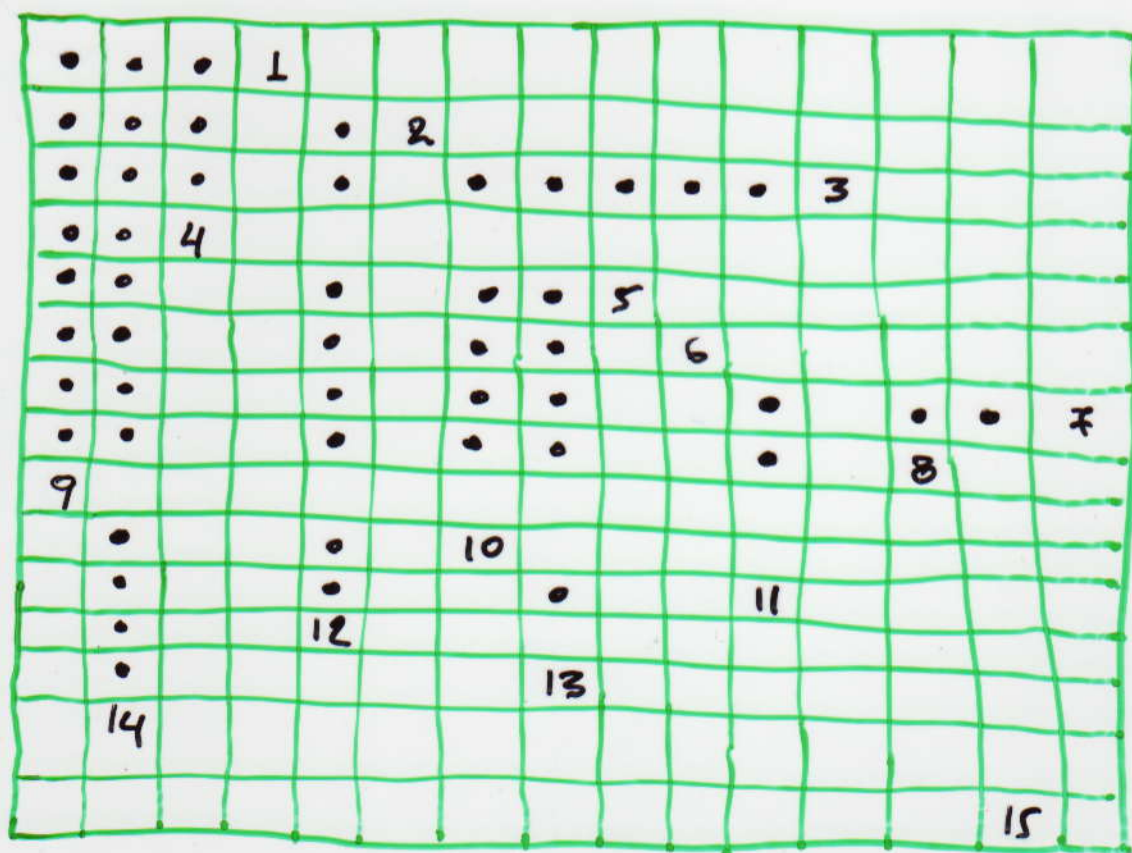
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
permutation :	9	14	4	1	12	2	10	13	5	6	11	3	8	15	7
cycle form :	11	12	3	4	1	9	5	13	8	15	7	10	6	2	14



● Lattice representation

- The following figure shows a two-dimensional representation that is useful for studying a number of properties of permutations.

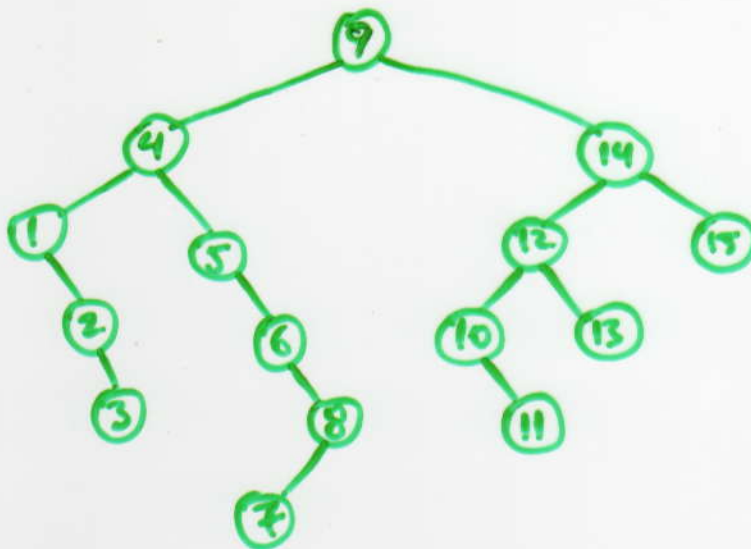
Indices: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15
Permutation: 9 14 4 1 12 2 10 13 5 6 11 3 8 15 7



- The permutation π is represented by labelling the cell at row π_i and column i with the number π_i for each i .

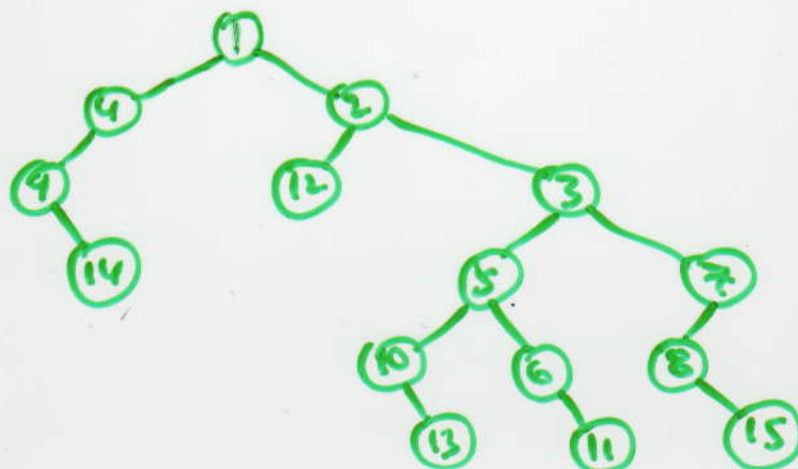
• Binary Search Trees:

- A direct relationship between permutations and BST is shown in the following figure:



• Heap-ordered Trees:

- A tree can also be built from the lattice representation in a similar way as illustrated in the next figure:

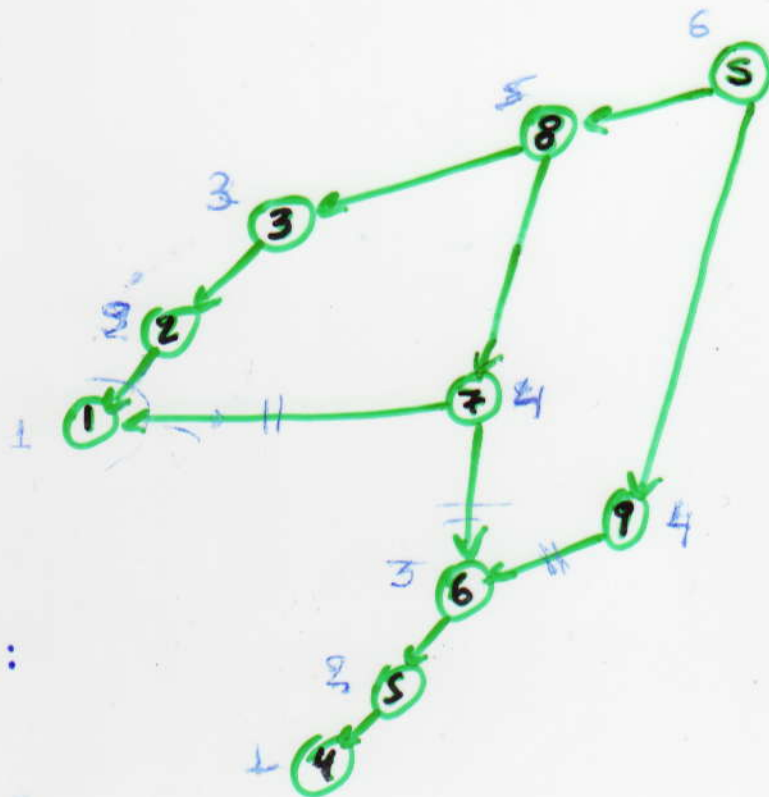


⊙ DAG representation

- We show a strategy to transform a permutation π into a directed acyclic graph (DAG) $G^*[\pi]$ using certain combinatorial properties of π .
- We say that an element π_i inverts π_j if $i < j$ and $\pi_i > \pi_j$.
- An element π_i D-inverts π_j if π_i inverts π_j and there exists no element π_k such that π_i inverts π_k and π_k inverts π_j .
- We construct $G^*[\pi]$ by exploiting the D-inversion relation, as follows:
 1. for every $i \in \pi$ add v_i in $G^*[\pi]$
 2. if i D-inverts j add $\langle v_i, v_j \rangle$ to $G^*[\pi]$
 3. add a dummy vertex s in $G^*[\pi]$ and set $\langle s, v_i \rangle \in E^*$ $\forall v_i : \text{indegree}(v_i) = 0$;

• Example

index	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
permutation	8	3	2	7	1	9	6	5	4



$G^*[\pi]$:

- We show that there is an 1-1 correspondence between the length of the longest path from s to a vertex v in $G^*[\pi]$ and the color of the vertex v .

• **Lemma:** Let π be a permutation of length n .
The following numbers are equal:

(i) $\chi(G[\pi])$;

(ii) the length of the longest decr. subseq. of π ;

(iii) the length of the longest path in $G^*[\pi]$;

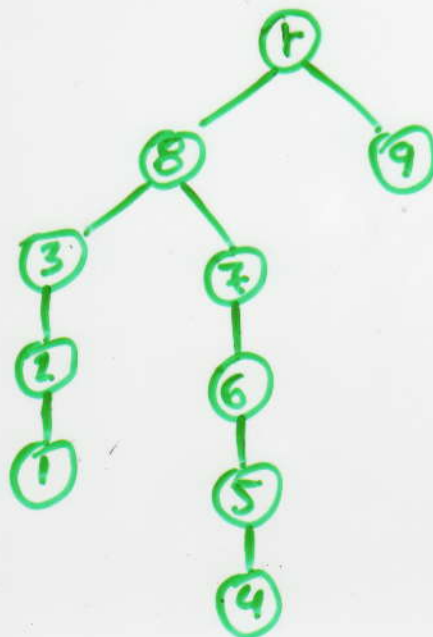
• Based on these results we can easily show that the problem of coloring a permutation graph $G[\pi]$ can be solved by computing the length $l_p(v_i)$ of the longest path $s \rightarrow v_i$ in $G^*[\pi]$.

• This computation can be done in $O(n^2)$ time (how?).

• It is easy to see that the $\chi(G[\pi])$ equals to $\max \{ l_p(v_i) \mid \text{outdegree}(v_i) = 0, 1 \leq i \leq n \}$.

• Can we compute the lengths $l_p(v_i)$ in parallel?

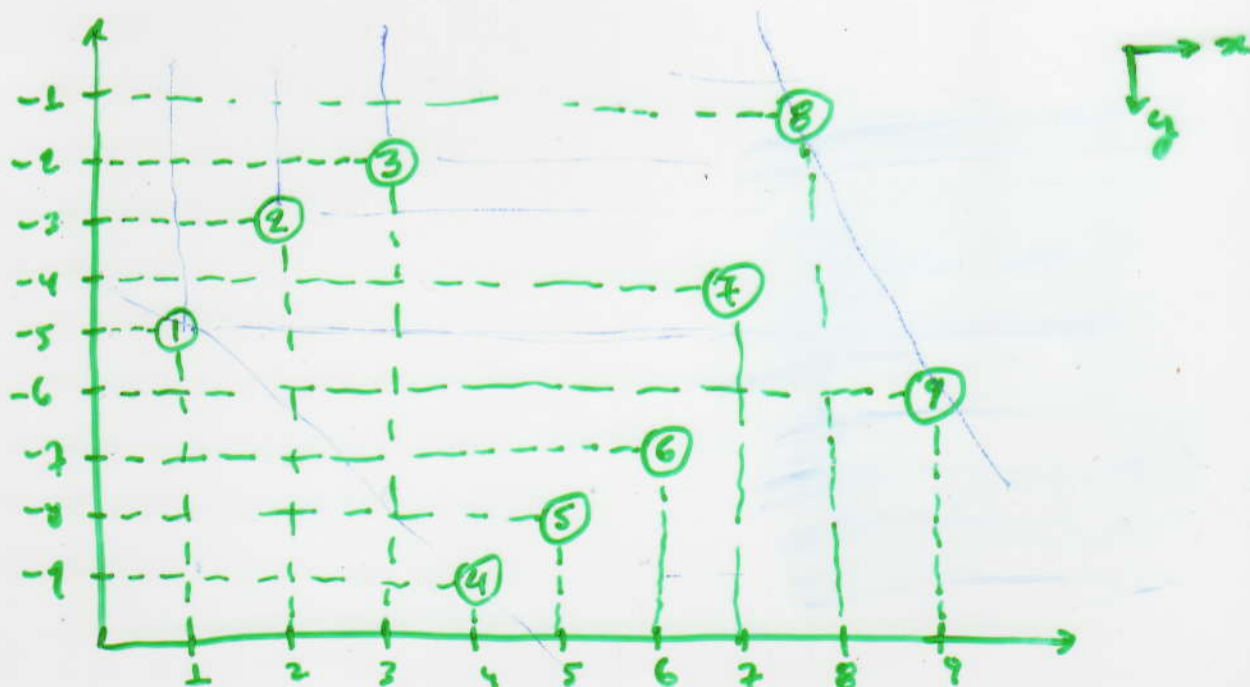
- From $G^*[\pi]$ we can construct a rooted tree $T^*[\pi]$, which we call **coloring-permutation tree** or **cp-tree** for short.
- We define a cp-tree $T^*[\pi] = (V^*, E^*)$ to be a rooted tree having the following properties:
 - $V^* = \{r, \pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_n\}$, $r > \pi_i \neq i$;
 - $\langle \pi_i, \pi_j \rangle \in E^*$ if π_i inverts π_j ;
 - there is no pair π_i, π_j : $\text{level}(\pi_i) \geq \text{level}(\pi_j)$ and π_i inverts π_j ;
- The next figure shows the $T^*[\pi]$ of the sample permutation $\pi = [8, 3, 2, 7, 1, 6, 9, 5, 4]$



① Euclidean plane transformation

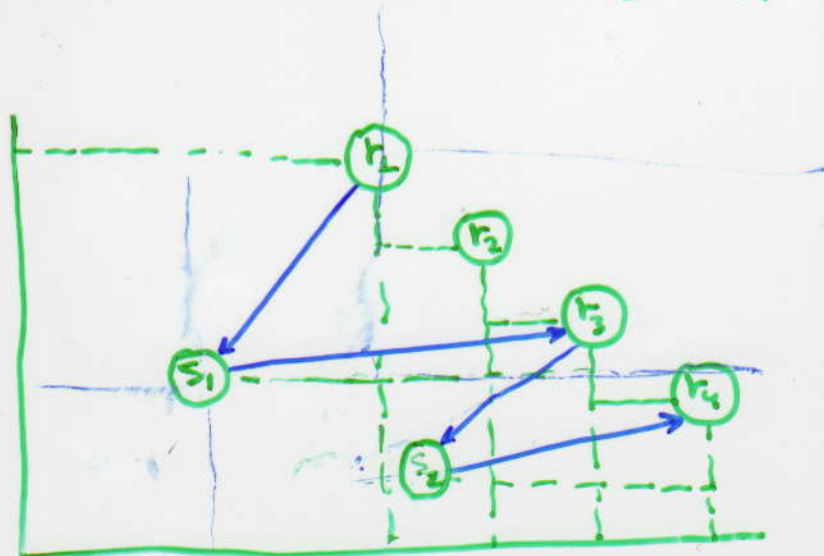
- We show a strategy which transforms a permutation π of length n into a set of n points in the plane.
- Let $\pi = [8, 3, 2, 7, 1, 7, 6, 5, 4]$ be a permutation of length 9. Then,

$$x(i) = i \quad \text{and} \quad y(i) = -\pi^{-1}(i)$$



⊙ BFS Tree

- Let $\pi = [8, 3, 2, 7, 1, 9, 6, 5, 4]$ be a permutation of length 9.
- We define two sequences:
 - $R = (r_1, r_2, \dots, r_p)$: the first increasing subseq. going from left to right;
 - $S = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_q)$: the first decreasing subseq. going from right to left;
- $R[\pi] = [8, 9]$ and $S[\pi] = [1, 4]$

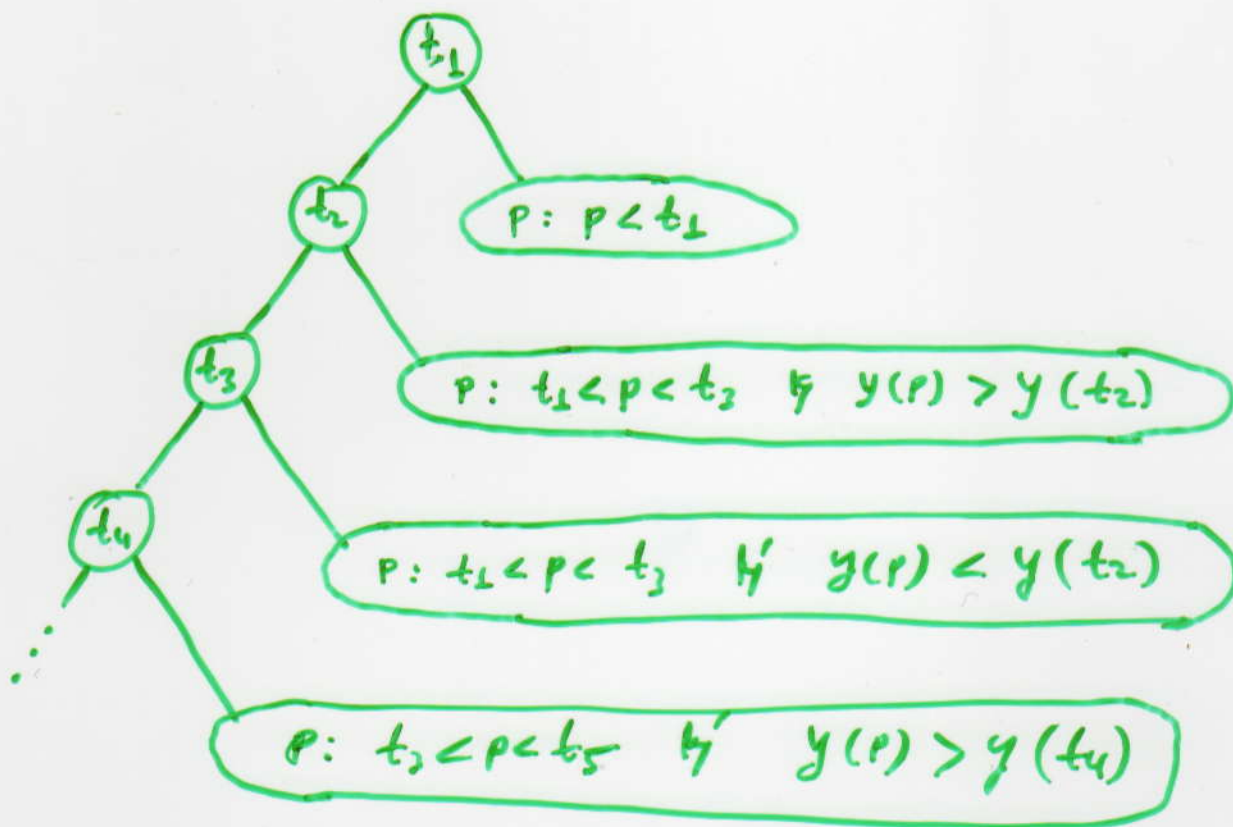


- We construct the following sequence:

$$r_1, s_1, r_2, \dots, r_p$$

- In general: t_1, t_2, \dots, t_h

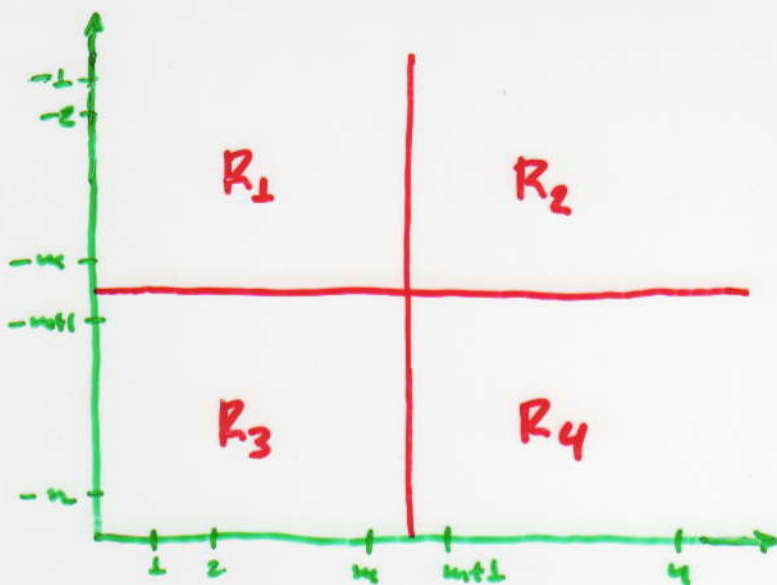
- The **BFS tree** of the graph $G[\pi]$ has the following structure:



⊙ DFS Tree

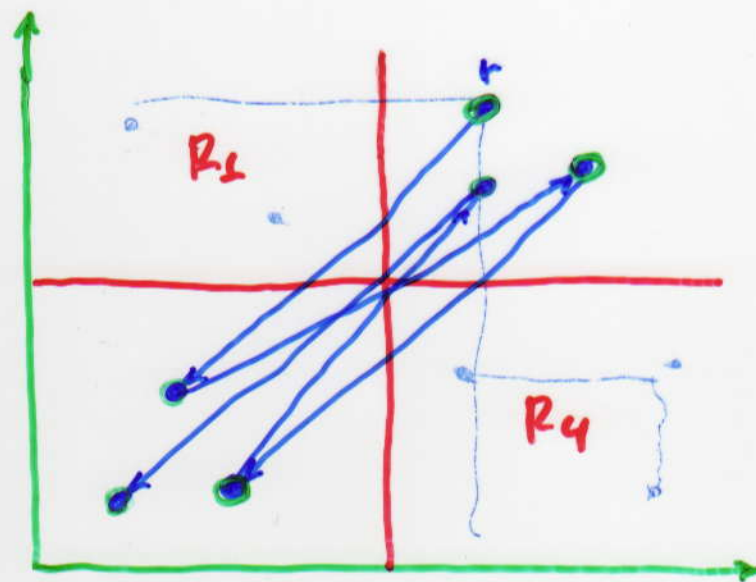
- Let $G=(V,E)$ be a connected graph and T be a spanning tree of G rooted at $r \in V$.
- T is a depth first spanning tree (DFS) of G if there exist no cross edges.
- We show the DFS tree problem can be solved efficiently for permutation graphs.
- Consider the Euclidean plane transformation of a permutation graph G .
- We can solve the problem by computing the decreasing subsequences of π .
(show how we can do it !!).
- We shall use a different approach.

- Let $m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$.



- Draw a horizontal line with y -coordinate $-m + 0.5$ and a vertical line with x -coordinate $m + 0.5$
- Let n_i ($1 \leq i \leq 4$) be the # of vertices in R_i .
- Observe that $n_1 + n_3 = n_1 + n_2 = m$
- This implies $n_2 = n_3$

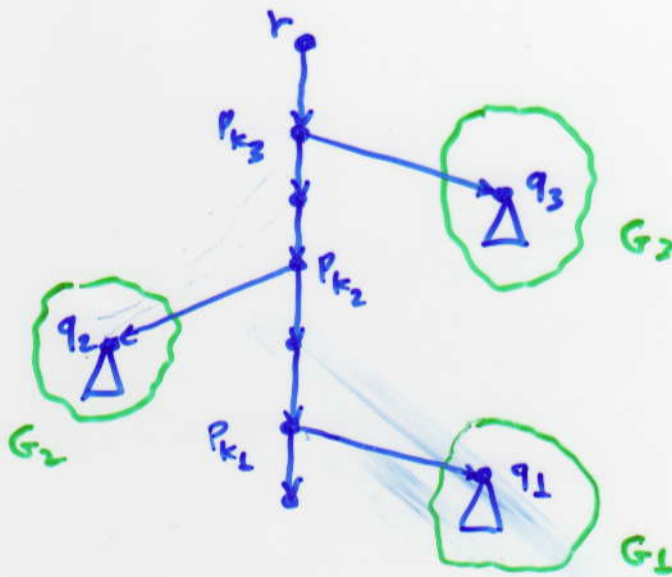
- Since each vertex in R_2 is adjacent to every vertex in R_3 , we can construct a path P consisting of all vertices in R_2 and R_3 , where the vertices of P alternate between R_2 and R_3 .



- $P = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_t\}$ starting at $r = P_1$.
- If P is removed from G , the graph $G[R_1 \cup R_4]$ becomes disconnected and each connected component has at most $n/2$ vertices.

• Algorithm DFST

1. Construct the path $P = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_t\}$, where $P_1 = r$ and r the root.
2. Let $G' = G - P$. Compute the connected components G_1, G_2, \dots, G_s of G' .

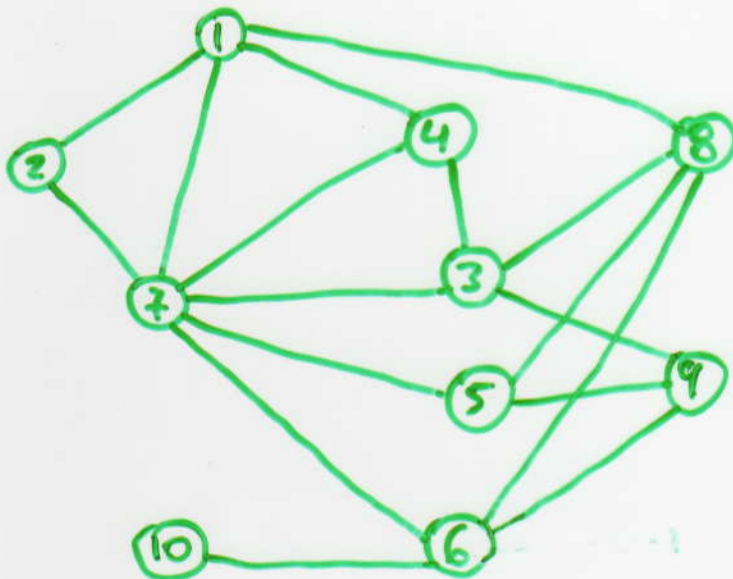


3. For each G_i ($1 \leq i \leq s$), let P_{k_i} be the vertex of P with the **largest index** such that P_{k_i} is adjacent to a vertex q_i in G_i .
 4. Recurse on each G_i to find a DFST T_i rooted at q_i .
 5. Return $T = P \cup \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^s T_i \right) \cup \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^s \{(P_{k_i}, q_i)\} \right)$.
- end;

• Hamilton path? Hamilton cycle?

• Maximum independent set

$$\pi = [7, 2, 4, 8, 1, 9, 3, 5, 10, 6]$$



stack 1 : $\bullet \rightarrow [7] \rightarrow [2] \rightarrow [1] \checkmark$

stack 2 : $\bullet \rightarrow [4] \rightarrow [3] \checkmark$

stack 3 : $\bullet \rightarrow [8] \rightarrow [5] \checkmark$

stack 4 : $\bullet \rightarrow [9] \rightarrow [6] \checkmark$

stack 5 : $\bullet \rightarrow [10] \checkmark$

• Maximum-weight independent set

$$\pi = [7, 2, 4, 8, 1, 9, 3, 5, 10, 6]$$

$$W = [4, 6, 7, 5, 3, 10, 8, 1, 2, 9]$$

1. First we have $\pi_1 = 7$, hence the MWIS containing vertex 7 in sequence $[\pi_1] = [7]$ is $I_7 = \{7\}$ and $W_7 = 4$.

2. Secondly we have: $\pi_2 = 2$ in $[\pi_1, \pi_2] = [7, 2]$ is an MWIS containing vertex 2. That is, $I_2 = \{2\}$ and $W_2 = 6$.

continuing in this way, we have:

$I_4 = \{2, 4\}$	$W_4 = 13$	}	max W_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$)
$I_8 = \{2, 4, 8\}$	$W_8 = 18$		
$I_1 = \{1\}$	$W_1 = 3$		
$I_9 = I_8 \cup \{9\}$	$W_9 = 28$		
$I_3 = I_2 \cup \{3\}$	$W_3 = 14$		
\vdots	\vdots		