# **Graphs**

#### Objects & Relationships

#### Facebook friends:

Obj: People

Rel: Two are related if they are friends

#### Cities and Roads:

Obj: Cities

Rel: Two are related if they have a road between them

#### Data flow in programs:

Obj: Lines of the program

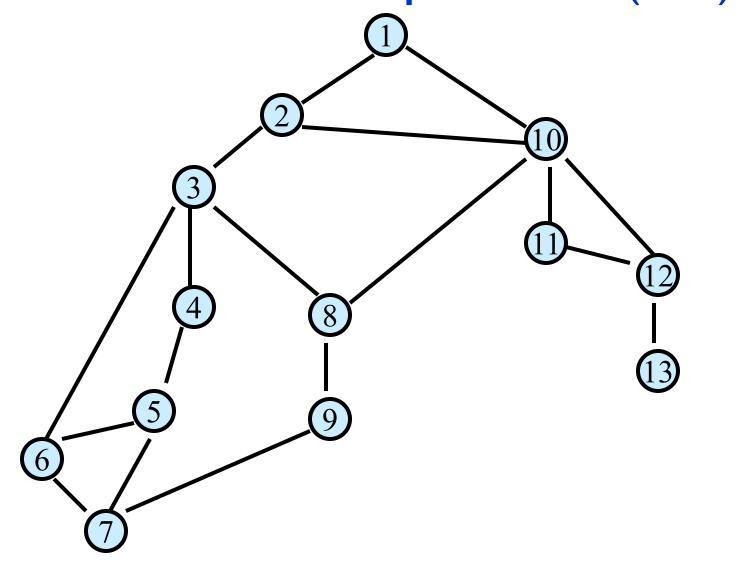
Rel: Two are related if one line depends on the other

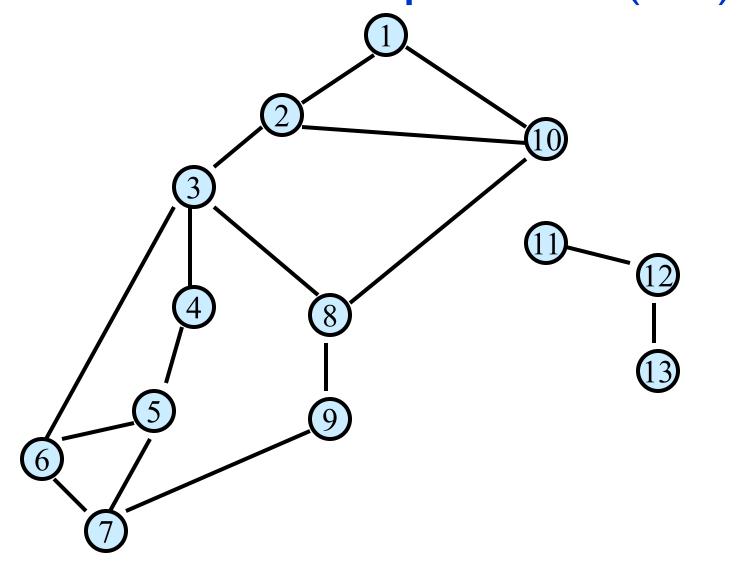
#### Graphs

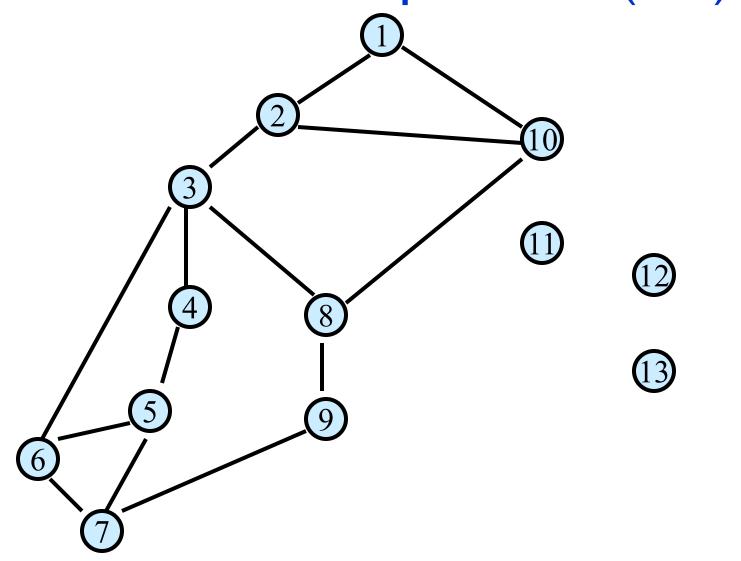
Objects: "vertices," aka "nodes"

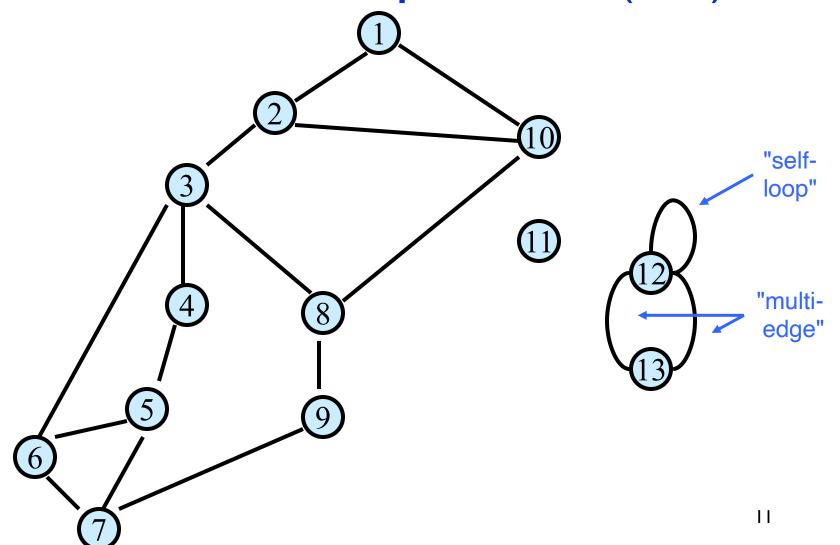
Relationships between pairs: "edges"

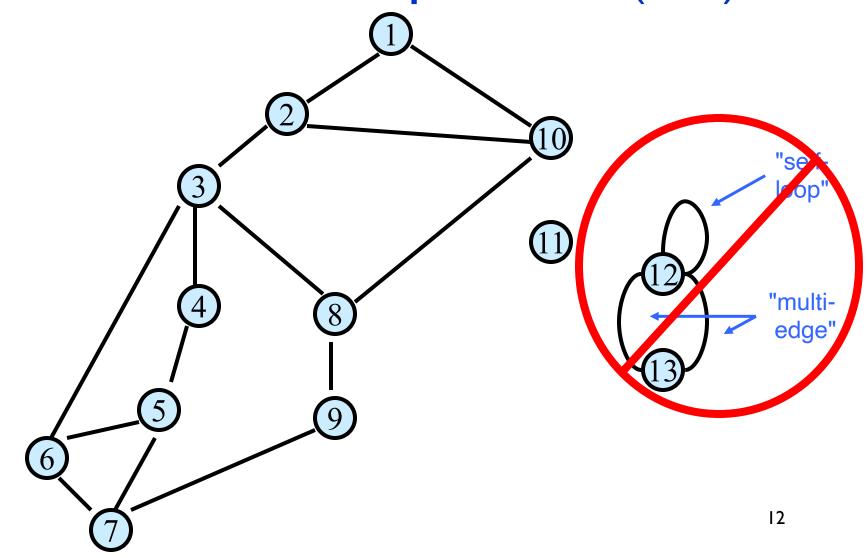
Formally, a graph G = (V, E) is a pair of sets, V the vertices and E the edges. Each edge is a set or tuple of two vertices.





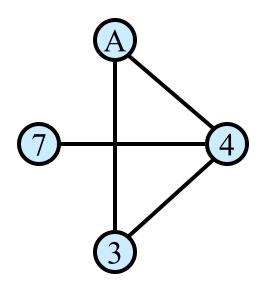


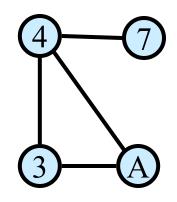


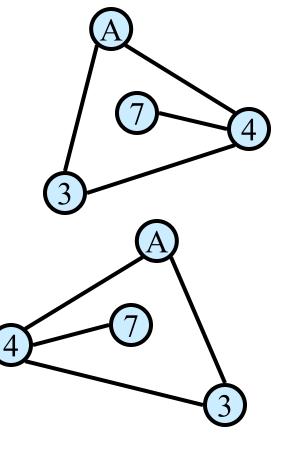


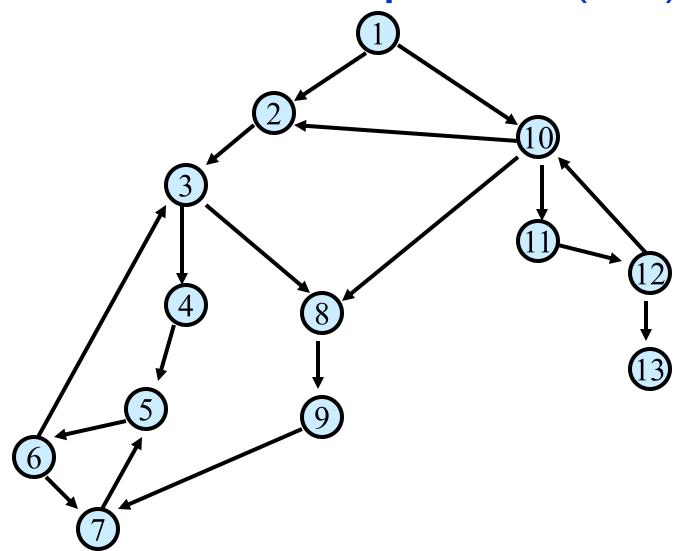
#### Graphs don't live in Flatland

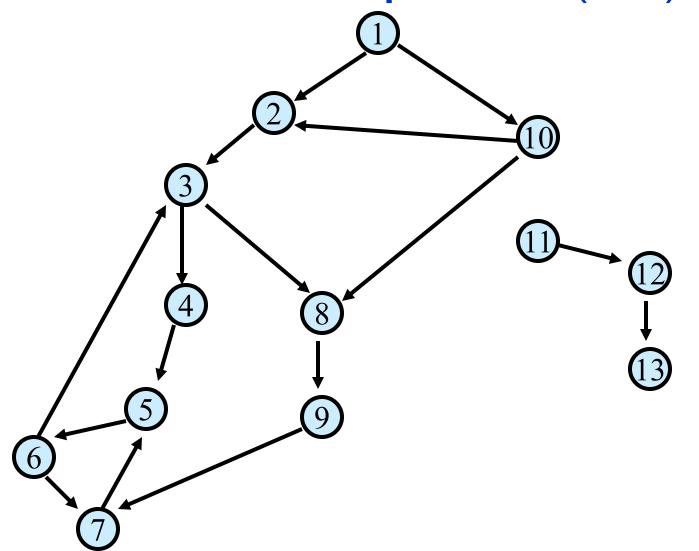
Geometrical drawing is mentally convenient, but mathematically irrelevant: 4 drawings, I graph.

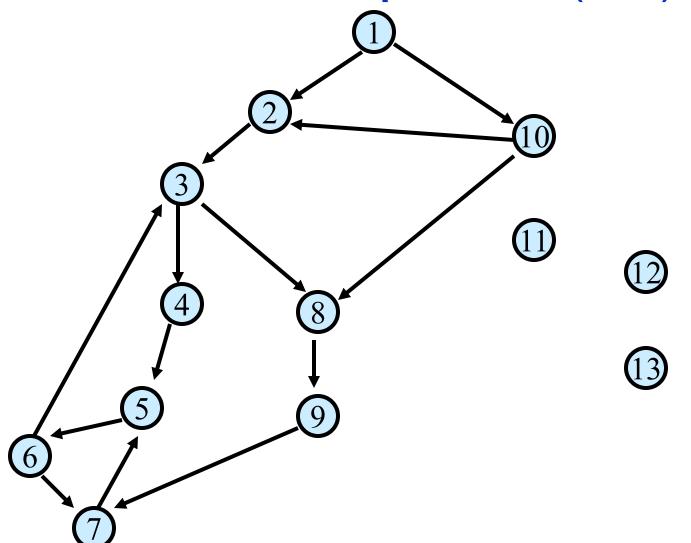


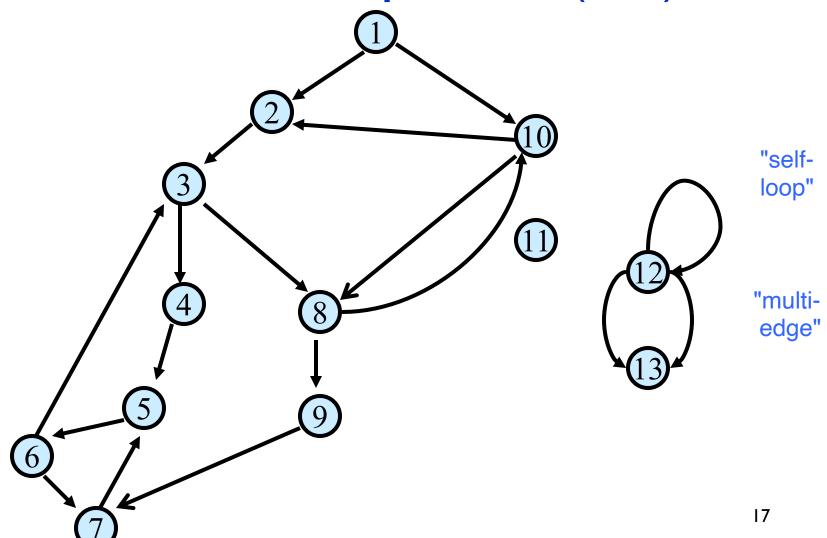


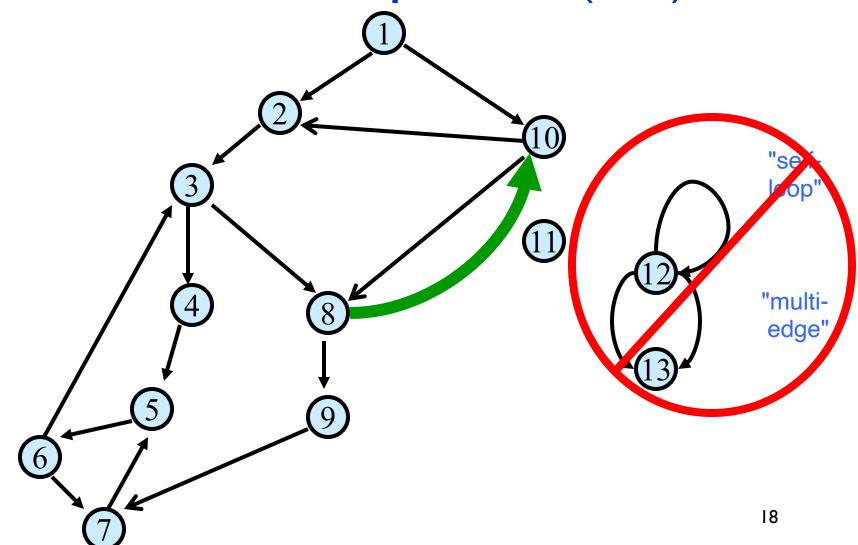






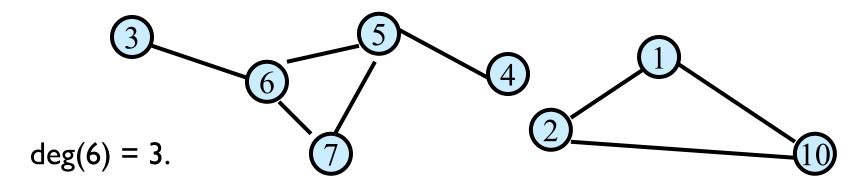






#### Graphs

**Degree of a vertex, deg(v)**: # edges that touch that vertex



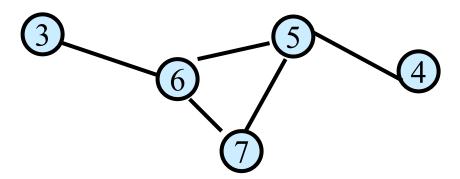
**Path**: sequence of distinct vertices s.t. each vertex is connected to the next vertex with an edge

Eg: 3,6,5,4

**Connected**: Graph is connected if there is a path between every two vertices

Connected component: Maximal set of connected vertices

**Cycle**: Path of length > 1 that has the same start and end. Eg: 6,5,7



**Tree**: A connected graph with no cycles

#### # Vertices vs # Edges

Let G be an undirected graph with n vertices and m edges. How are n and m related?

#### # Vertices vs # Edges

Let G be an undirected graph with n vertices and m edges. How are n and m related?

#### Since

every edge connects two different vertices (no loops), and no two edges connect the same two vertices (no multi-edges),

it must be true that:

$$0 \le m \le n(n-1)/2 = o(n^2)$$

## More Cool Graph Lingo

A graph is called sparse if  $m \ll n^2$ , otherwise it is dense

Boundary is somewhat fuzzy; O(n) edges is certainly sparse,  $\Omega(n^2)$  edges is dense.

Sparse graphs are common in practice

E.g., all planar graphs are sparse  $(m \leq 3n-6)$ , for  $n \geq 3$ )

Q: which is a better run time, O(n+m) or  $O(n^2)$ ?

A:  $n+m = O(n^2)$ , but n+m usually way better!

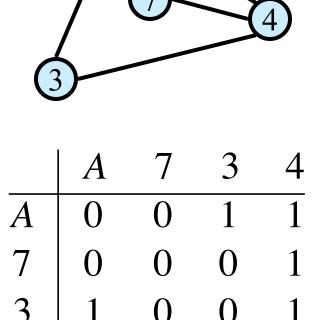
# Specifying undirected graphs as input

#### What are the vertices?

Explicitly list them: {"A", "7", "3", "4"}

#### What are the edges?

Either, set of edges {{A,3}, {7,4}, {4,3}, {4,A}} Or, (symmetric) adjacency matrix:



# Specifying directed graphs as input

What are the vertices?

#### What are the edges?

Either, set of directed edges: {(A,4), (4,7), (4,3), (4,A), (A,3)}
Or, (nonsymmetric)
adjacency matrix:

	$\mid A \mid$	7	3	4
$\overline{A}$	0	0	1	1
7	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	1	1	1	0

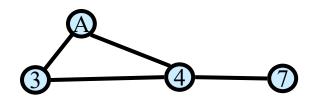
## Representing Graph G = (V,E)

internally, indp of input format

Vertex set  $V = \{v_1, ..., v_n\}$ 

Adjacency Matrix A

$$A[i,j] = I \text{ iff } (v_i,v_j) \in E$$
  
Space is  $n^2$  bits



	A	7	3	4
$\overline{A}$ 7	0	0	1	1
7	0	0	0	1
3	1	0	0	1
4	1	1	1	0

#### Advantages:

O(1) test for presence or absence of edges.

Disadvantages: inefficient for sparse graphs, both in storage and access

 $m \ll n^2$ 

## Representing Graph G=(V,E)

n vertices, m edges

#### Adjacency List:

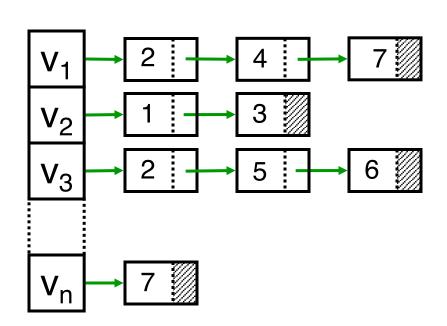
O(n+m) words

#### Advantages:

Compact for sparse graphs
Easily see all edges

#### **Disadvantages**

More complex data structure no O(I) edge test

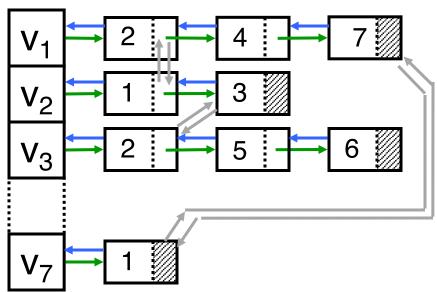


## Representing Graph G=(V,E)

n vertices, m edges

#### Adjacency List:

O(n+m) words



Back- and cross pointers more work to build, but allow easier traversal and deletion of edges, if needed, (don't bother if not)

### Graph Traversal

Learn the basic structure of a graph "Walk," *via edges*, from a fixed starting vertex s to all vertices reachable from s

#### Being orderly helps. Two common ways:

Breadth-First Search: order the nodes in successive layers based on distance from s

Depth-First Search: more natural approach for exploring a maze; many efficient algs build on it. 29

#### **Breadth-First Search**

Completely explore the vertices in order of their distance from s

Naturally implemented using a queue

#### Graph Traversal: Implementation

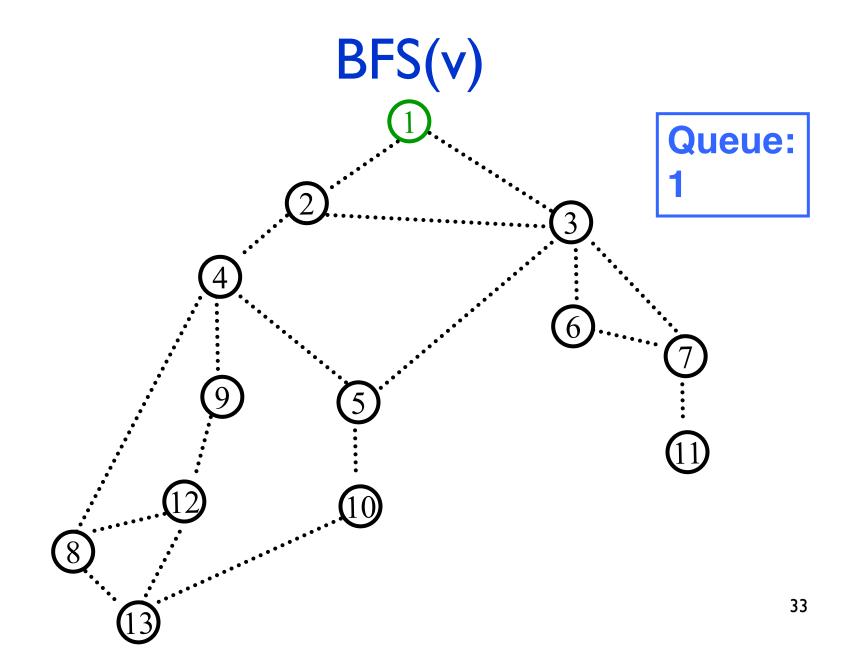
Learn the basic structure of a graph "Walk," via edges, from a fixed starting vertex s to all vertices reachable from s

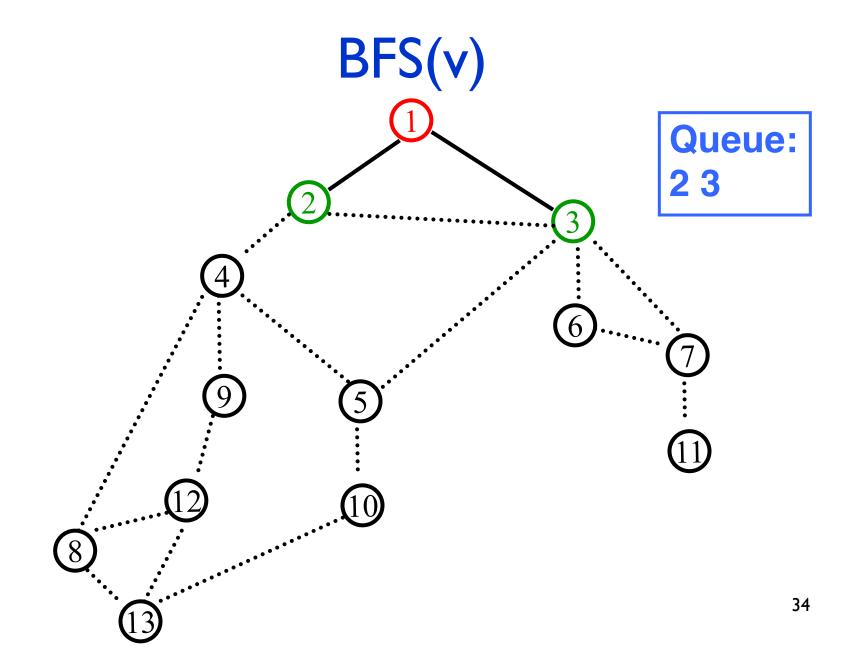
```
Three states of vertices undiscovered discovered fully-explored
```

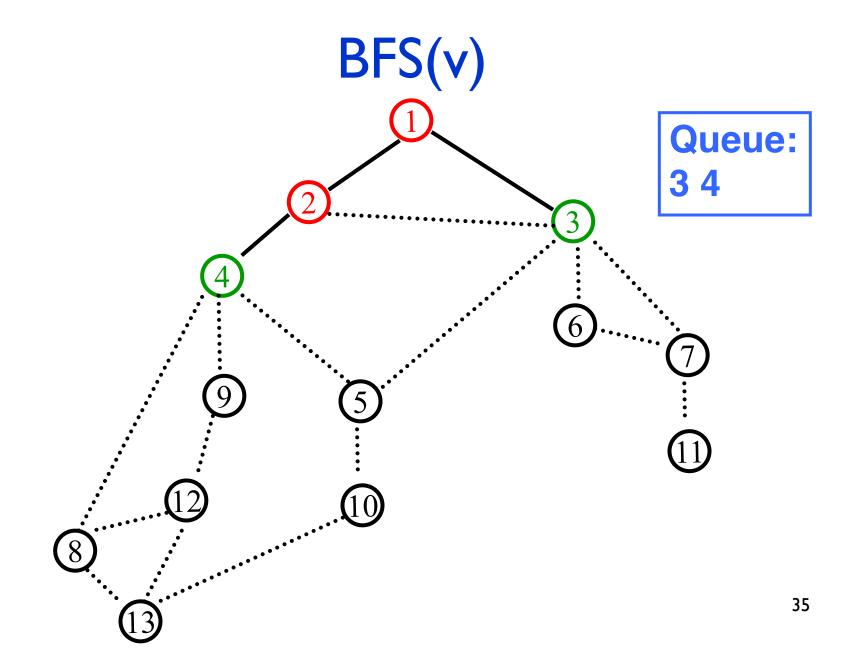
### BFS(s) Implementation

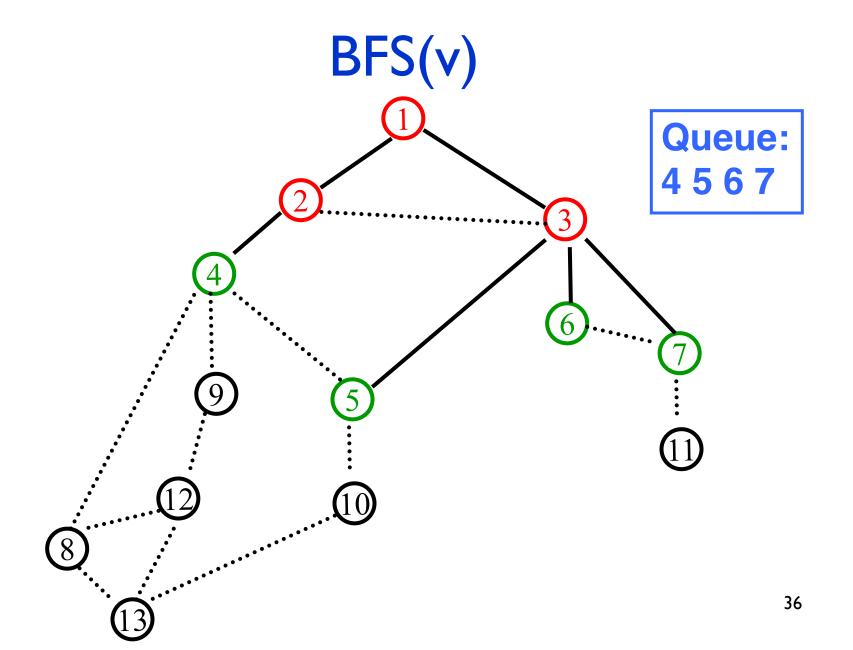
Global initialization: mark all vertices "undiscovered" BFS(s)
mark s "discovered"

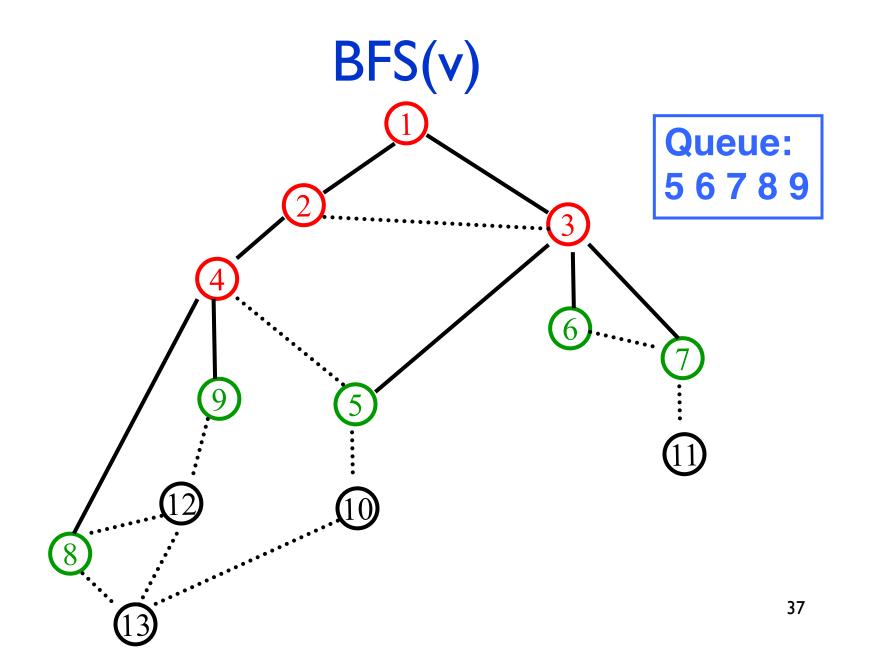
queue = { s }
while queue not empty
u = remove\_first(queue)
for each edge {u,x}
if (x is undiscovered)
mark x discovered
append x on queue
mark u fully explored

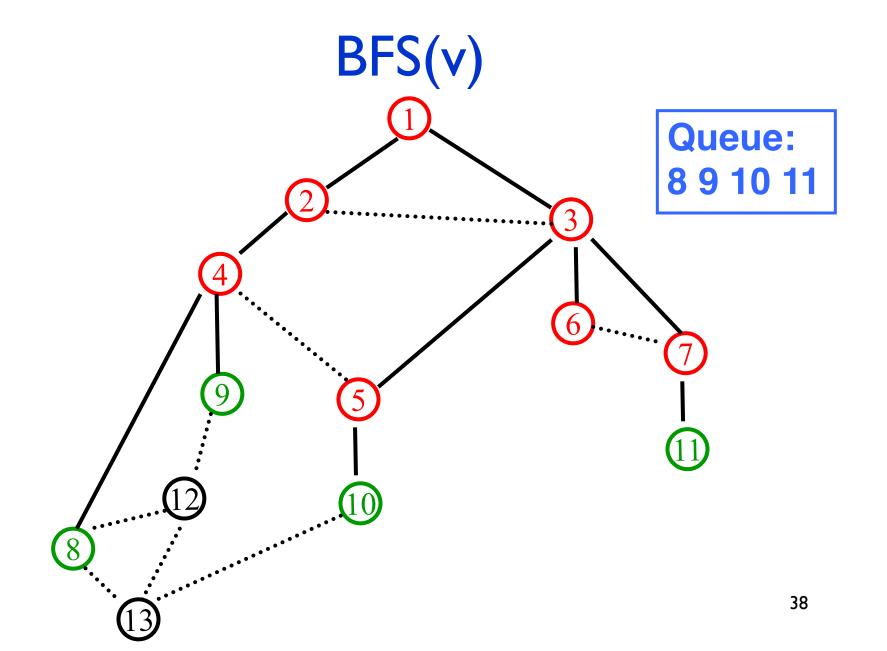


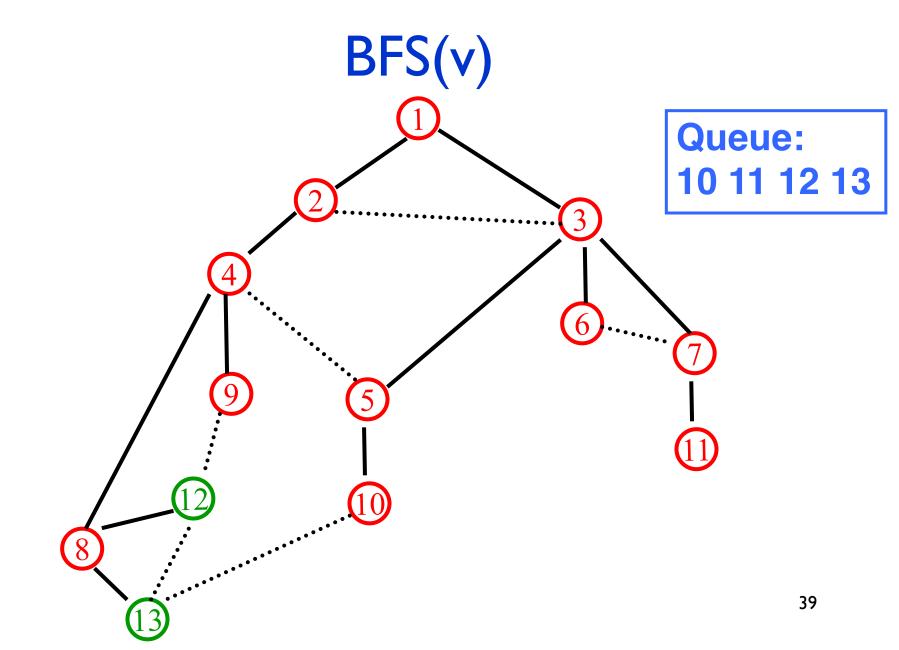


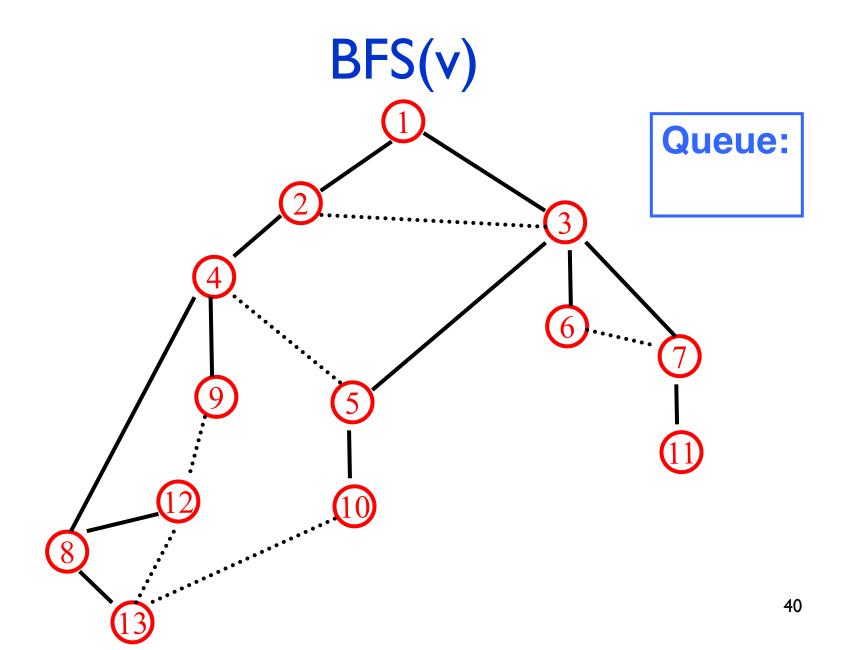












# BFS: Analysis, I

```
Global initialization: mark all vertices "undiscovered"
O(n)
     BFS(s)
         mark s "discovered"
O(1)
 +
         queue = \{s\}
O(n)
         while queue not empty
 X
             u = remove_first(queue)
O(n)
             for each edge {u,x}
                 if (x is undiscovered)
                     mark x discovered
                     append x on queue
             mark u fully explored
```

Simple analysis: 2 nested loops. Get worst-case number of iterations of each; multiply.

# BFS: Analysis, II

Above analysis correct, but pessimistic (can't have  $\Omega(n)$  edges incident to each of  $\Omega(n)$  distinct "u" vertices if G is sparse). Alt, more global analysis:

Each edge is explored once from each end-point, so *total* runtime of inner loop is O(m).

Exercise: extend algorithm and analysis to non-connected graphs

Total O(n+m), n = # nodes, m = # edges

# Properties of (Undirected) BFS(v)

BFS(v) visits x if and only if there is a path in G from v to x.

Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a **tree**- the "breadth first spanning tree" of G

Level i in this tree are exactly those vertices *u* such that the shortest path (in G, not just the tree) from the root v is of length i.

All non-tree edges join vertices on the same or adjacent levels

not true of every spanning tree!

# Proof of correctness

Lemma I: Every vertex at level i is explored after every vertex at level i-I.

Proof is by induction on i.

Base case: i = I. True.

Induction step: Let a be at level i, and b be at level i-1. Since we use a queue, it is enough to prove that a is added to the queue after b. But a was added when a vertex at level i-1 was explored, and b is added when a vertex of level i-2 was explored. So a is added after b by induction.

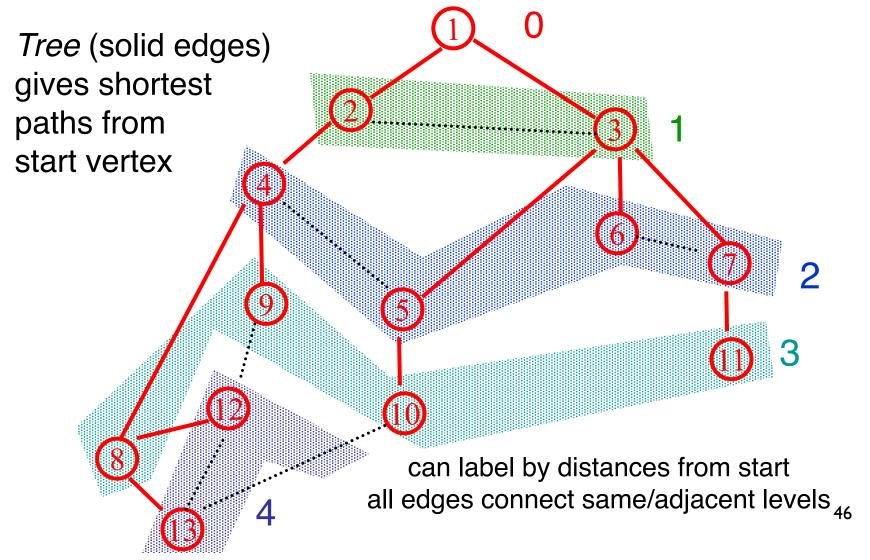
# Proof of correctness

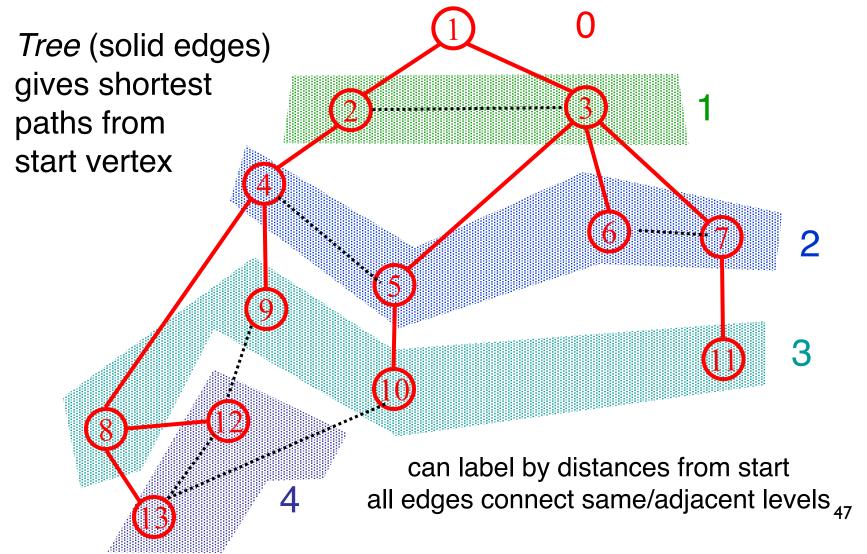
Lemma 2: Level i in this tree are exactly those vertices *u* such that the shortest path (in G, not just the tree) from the root is of length i.

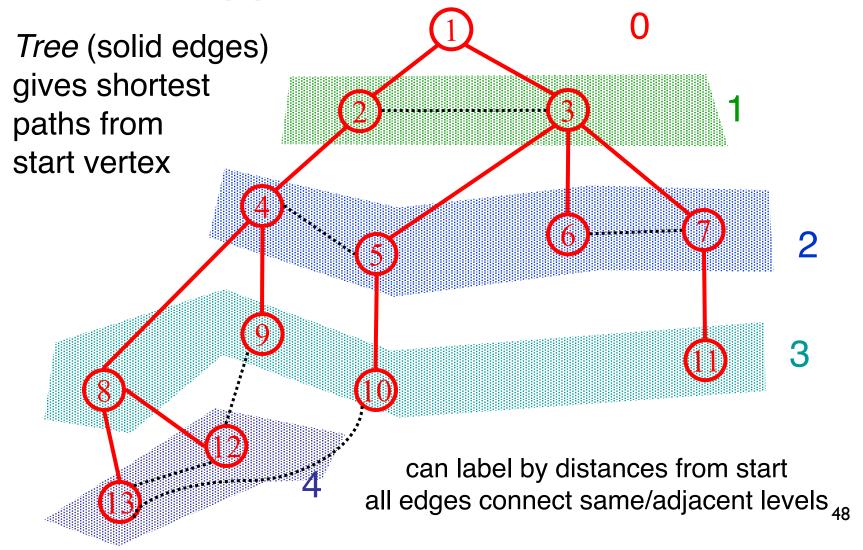
Proof is by induction on i.

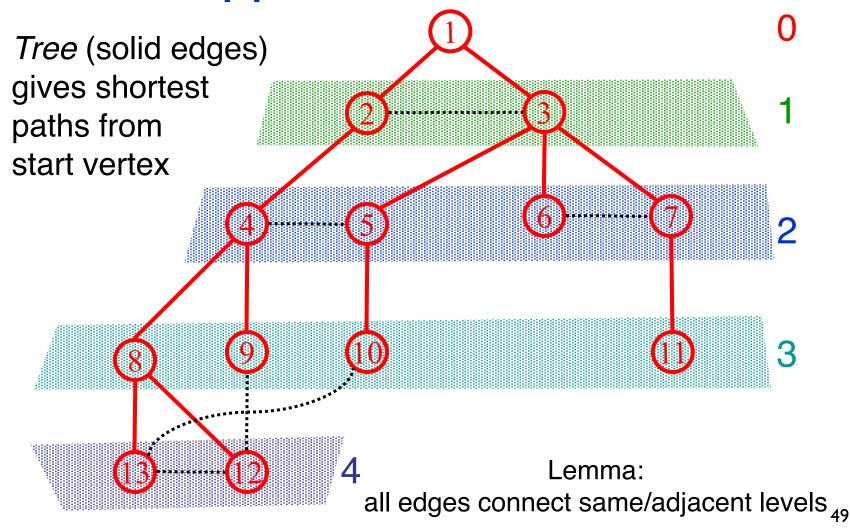
Base case: i = 0. True.

Induction step: Every vertex u at level i certainly has distance at most i, because we discover a path of length i from u to v. If the distance from the root is less than i, and u was discovered when exploring a (at level i-1), then u is a neighbor of a vertex b at distance (and level) < i-1. But then, by Lemma 1, b would have been explored before a, and u would have been added in level i-1.









# Why fuss about trees?

Trees are simpler than graphs

Ditto for algorithms on trees vs algs on graphs So, this is often a good way to approach a graph problem: find a "nice" tree in the graph, i.e., one such that non-tree edges have some simplifying structure

E.g., BFS finds a tree s.t. level-jumps are minimized DFS (below) finds a different tree, but it also has interesting structure...

# Graph Search Application: Connected Components

Want to answer questions of the form:

given vertices u and v, is there a path from u to v?

Set up one-time data structure to answer such questions efficiently.

# Graph Search Application: Connected Components

Want to answer questions of the form:

given vertices u and v, is there a path from u to v?

Idea: create array A such that

A[u] = smallest numbered vertex that is connected to u. Question reduces to whether A[u]=A[v]?

# Graph Search Application: Connected Components

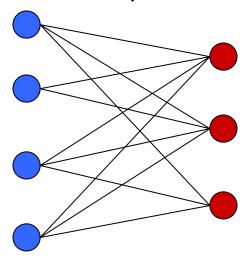
```
initial state: all v undiscovered
for v = 1 to n do
   if state(v) != fully-explored then
       BFS(v): setting A[u] = v for each u found
       (and marking u discovered/fully-explored)
   endif
endfor
Total cost: O(n+m)
  each edge is touched a constant number of times (twice)
  works also with DFS
```

# 3.4 Testing Bipartiteness

Def. An undirected graph G = (V, E) is bipartite (2-colorable) if the nodes can be colored red or blue such that no edge has both ends the same color.

### Applications.

Stable marriage: men = red, women = blue Scheduling: machines = red, jobs = blue



a bipartite graph

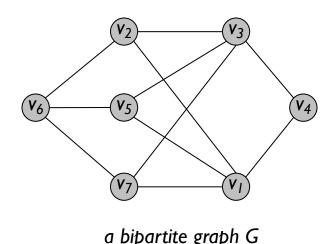
"bi-partite" means
"two parts." An
equivalent definition:
G is bipartite if you
can partition the
node set into 2 parts
(say, blue/red or
left/right) so that all
edges join nodes in
different parts/no
edge has both ends
in the same part.

## Testing Bipartiteness

### Testing bipartiteness. Given a graph G, is it bipartite?

Many graph problems become:

easier if the underlying graph is bipartite (matching) tractable if the underlying graph is bipartite (independent set) Before attempting to design an algorithm, we need to understand structure of bipartite graphs.



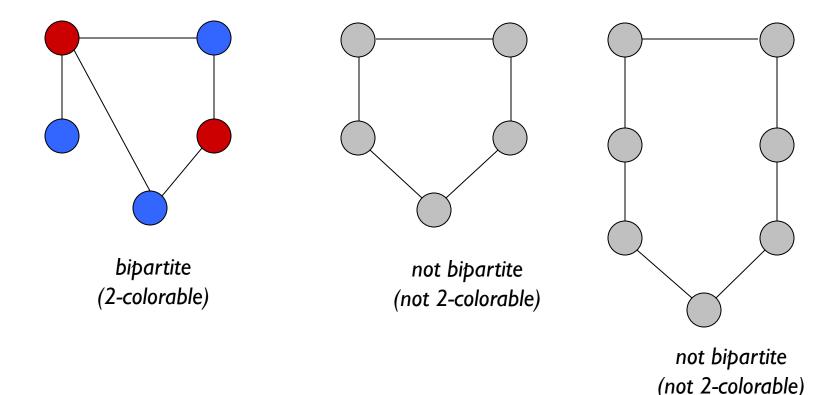
V<sub>2</sub>
V<sub>3</sub>
V<sub>5</sub>
V<sub>7</sub>

another drawing of G

## An Obstruction to Bipartiteness

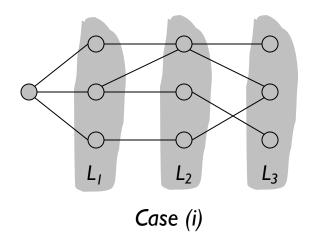
Lemma. If a graph G is bipartite, it cannot contain an odd length cycle.

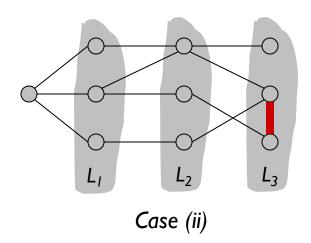
Pf. Impossible to 2-color the odd cycle, let alone G.



Lemma. Let G be a connected graph, and let  $L_0, \ldots, L_k$  be the layers produced by BFS starting at node s. Exactly one of the following holds.

- (i) No edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).



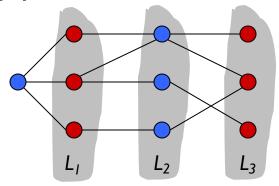


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### Pf. (i)

Suppose no edge joins two nodes in the same layer. By previous lemma, all edges join nodes on adjacent levels.



Case (i)

### Bipartition:

red = nodes on odd levels, blue = nodes on even levels.

Lemma. Let G be a connected graph, and let  $L_0, \ldots, L_k$  be the layers produced by BFS starting at node s. Exactly one of the following holds.

- (i) No edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).

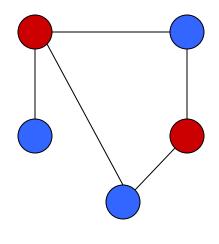
# Pf. (ii) Suppose (x, y) is an edge & x, y in same level Lj. Let z = their lowest common ancestor in BFS tree. Let Li be level containing z. Consider cycle that takes edge from x to y, then tree from y to z, then tree from z to x. Its length is I + (j-i) + (j-i), which is odd. Layer $L_j$ x

z to x

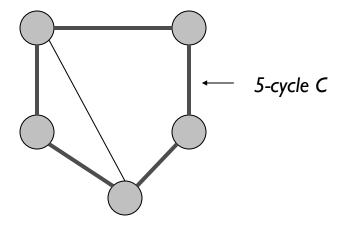
# Obstruction to Bipartiteness

Cor: A graph G is bipartite iff it contains no odd length cycle.

NB: the proof is algorithmic—it *finds* a coloring or odd cycle.



bipartite (2-colorable)



not bipartite (not 2-colorable)

# 3.6 DAGs and Topological Ordering

### Precedence Constraints

Precedence constraints. Edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  means task  $v_i$  must occur before  $v_j$ .

### **Applications**

Course prerequisites: course v<sub>i</sub> must be taken before v<sub>j</sub>

Compilation: must compile module v<sub>i</sub> before v<sub>j</sub>

Computing workflow: output of job  $v_i$  is input to job  $v_j$ 

Manufacturing or assembly: sand it before you paint it...

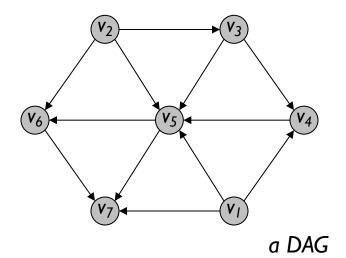
Spreadsheet evaluation order: if A7 is "=A6+A5+A4", evaluate them first

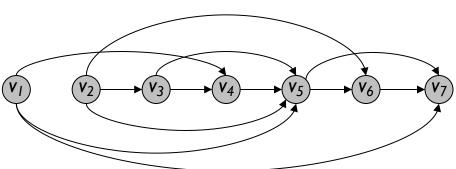
Def. A DAG is a directed acyclic graph, i.e., one that contains no directed cycles.

Ex. Precedence constraints: edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  means  $v_i$  must precede  $v_i$ .

Def. A <u>topological order</u> of a directed graph G = (V, E) is an ordering of its nodes as  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n$  so that for every edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  we have i < j.

E.g.,  $\forall$ edge  $(v_i, v_j)$ , finish  $v_i$  before starting  $v_j$ 





a topological ordering of that DAG—all edges left-to-right

Lemma. If G has a topological order, then G is a DAG.

if all edges go  $L \rightarrow R$ , you can't loop back to close a cycle

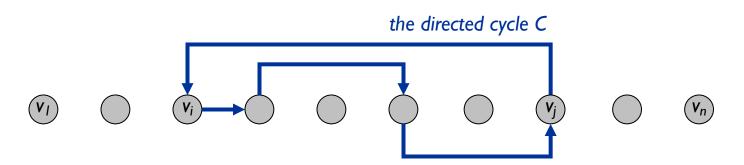
#### Pf. (by contradiction)

Suppose that G has a topological order  $v_1, ..., v_n$  and that G also has a directed cycle C.

Let  $v_i$  be the lowest-indexed node in C, and let  $v_j$  be the node just before  $v_i$ ; thus  $(v_i, v_i)$  is an edge.

By our choice of i, we have i < j.

On the other hand, since  $(v_j, v_i)$  is an edge and  $v_1, ..., v_n$  is a topological order, we must have j < i, a contradiction.



the supposed topological order:  $v_1, ..., v_n$ 

Lemma.

If G has a topological order, then G is a DAG.

- Q. Does every DAG have a topological ordering?
- Q. If so, how do we compute one?

Lemma. If G is a DAG, then G has a node with no incoming edges.

### Pf. (by contradiction)

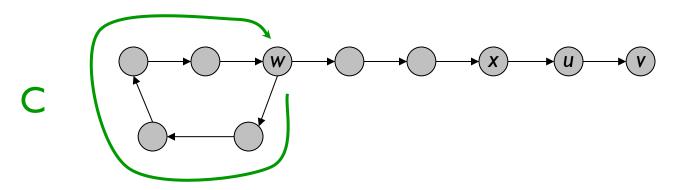
Suppose that G is a DAG and every node has at least one incoming edge. Let's see what happens.

Pick any node v, and begin following edges backward from v. Since v has at least one incoming edge (u, v) we can walk backward to u.

Then, since u has at least one incoming edge (x, u), we can walk

backward to x.

Repeat until we visit a node, say w, twice. Let C be the sequence of nodes encountered between successive visits to w. C is a cycle.



Why must

this happen?

Lemma. If G is a DAG, then G has a topological ordering.

Pf. (by induction on n)

Base case: true if n = 1.

Given DAG on n > 1 nodes, find a node v with no incoming edges.

G - { v } is a DAG, since deleting v cannot create cycles.

By inductive hypothesis, G - { v } has a topological ordering.

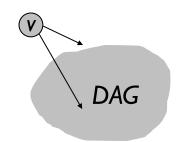
Place v first in topological ordering; then append nodes of G - { v }

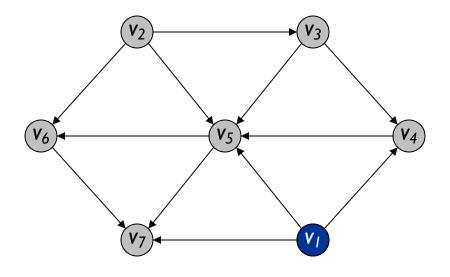
in topological order. This is valid since v has no incoming edges.

To compute a topological ordering of G:

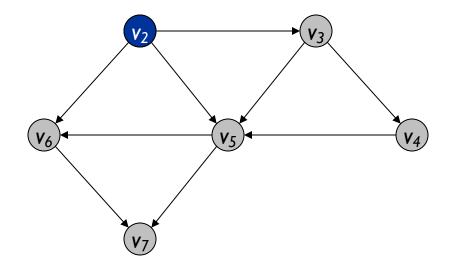
Find a node v with no incoming edges and order it first Delete v from G

Recursively compute a topological ordering of  $G-\{v\}$  and append this order after v

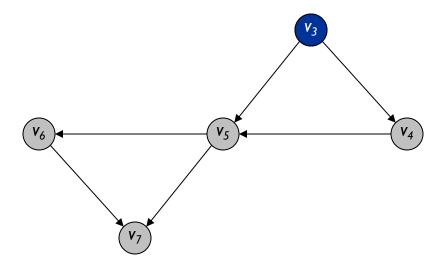




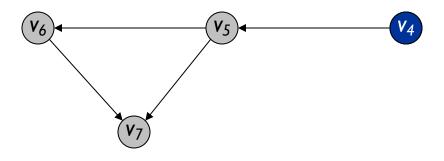
Topological order:



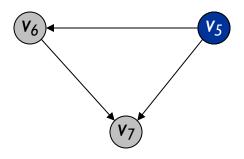
Topological order: v<sub>1</sub>



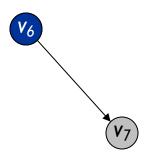
Topological order:  $v_1, v_2$ 



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3$ 



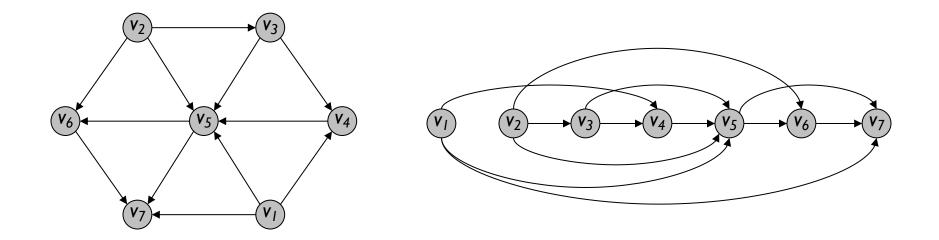
Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ 



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$ 



Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ ,  $v_5$ ,  $v_6$ 



Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ ,  $v_5$ ,  $v_6$ ,  $v_7$ .

## Topological Sorting Algorithm

```
Maintain the following:
  count[w] = (remaining) number of incoming edges to node w
  S = set of (remaining) nodes with no incoming edges
Initialization:
  count[w] = 0 for all w
 count[w]++ for all edges (v,w)
 S = S \cup \{w\} for all w with count[w]==0
Main loop:
  while S not empty
      remove some v from S
      make v next in topo order
      for all edges from v to some w
      decrement count[w]
      add w to S if count[w] hits 0
Correctness: clear, I hope
Time: O(m + n) (assuming edge-list representation of graph)
```

## Depth-First Search

Follow the first path you find as far as you can go Back up to last unexplored edge when you reach a dead end, then go as far you can

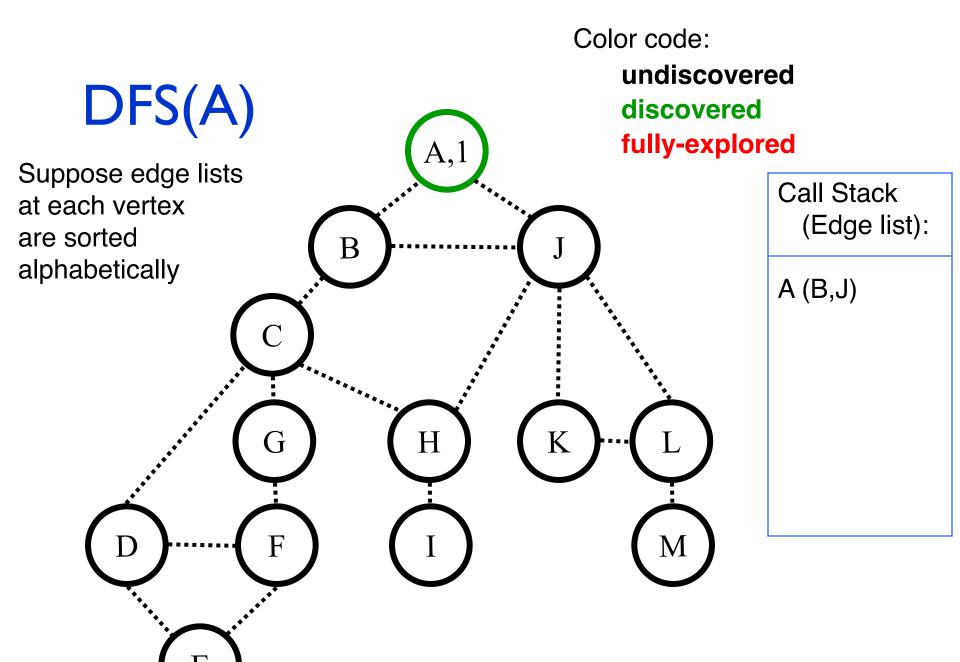
Naturally implemented using recursive calls or a stack

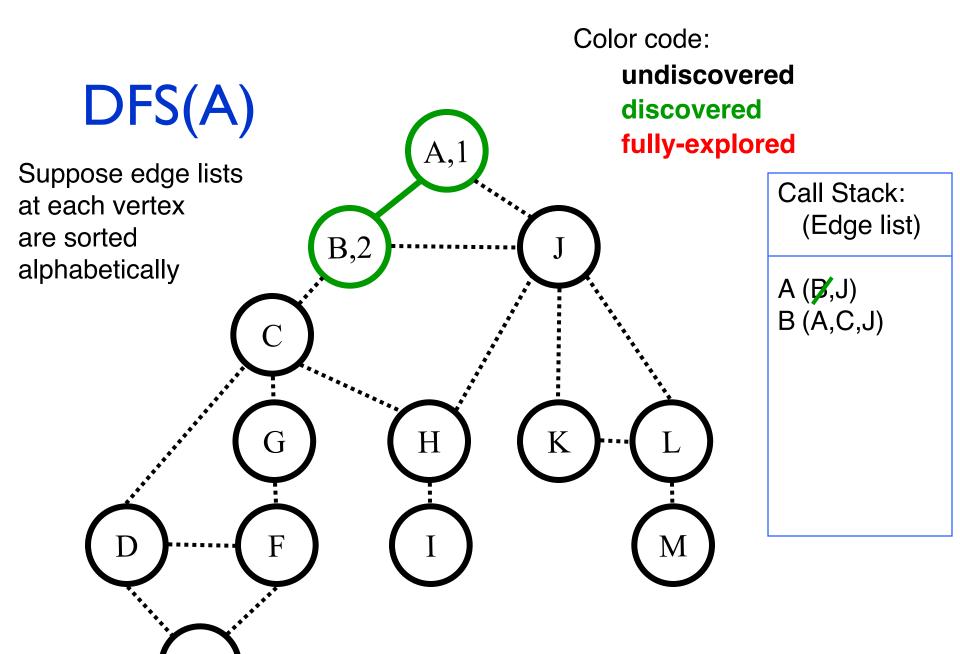
## DFS(v) – Recursive version

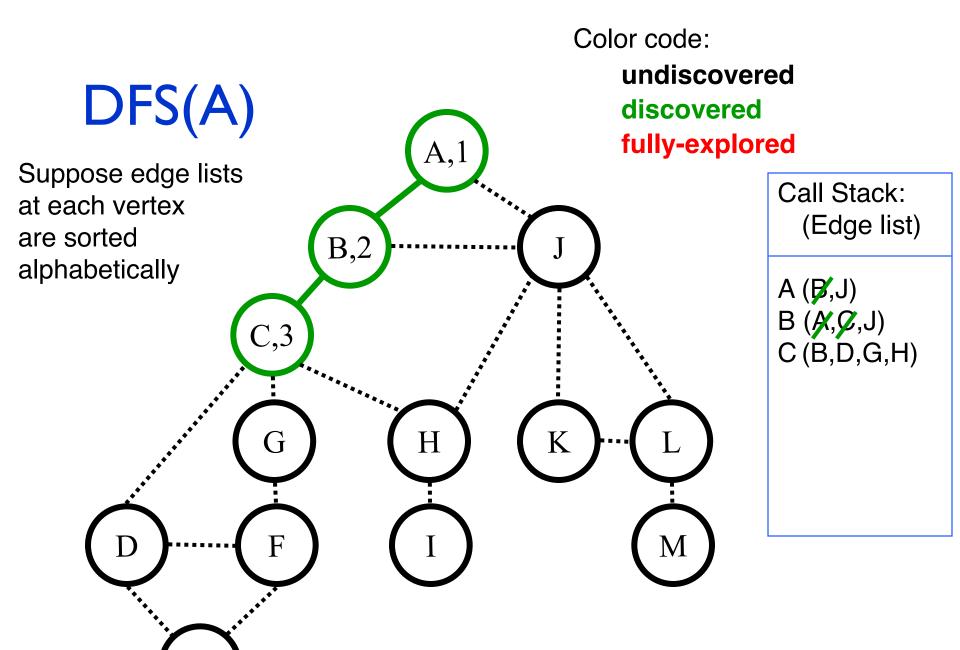
```
Global Initialization:
  for all nodes v, v.dfs# = -I // mark v "undiscovered"
  dfscounter = 0
DFS(v)
                               // v "discovered", number it
  v.dfs# = dfscounter++
  for each edge (v,x)
      if (x.dfs# = -1)
                               // tree edge (x previously undiscovered)
          DFS(x)
      else ...
                               // code for back-, fwd-, parent,
                               // edges, if needed
                               // mark v "completed," if needed
```

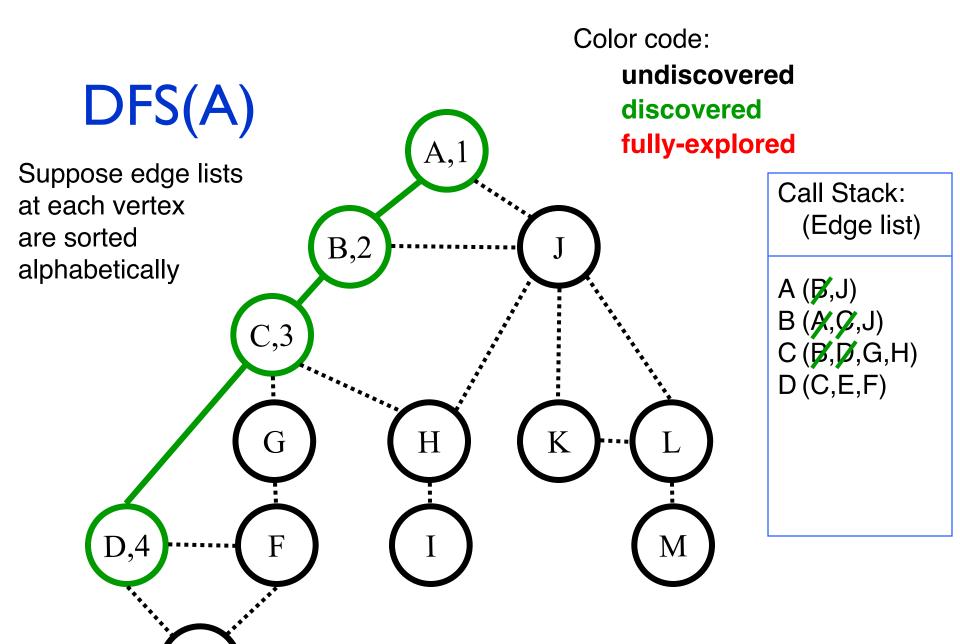
## Why fuss about trees (again)?

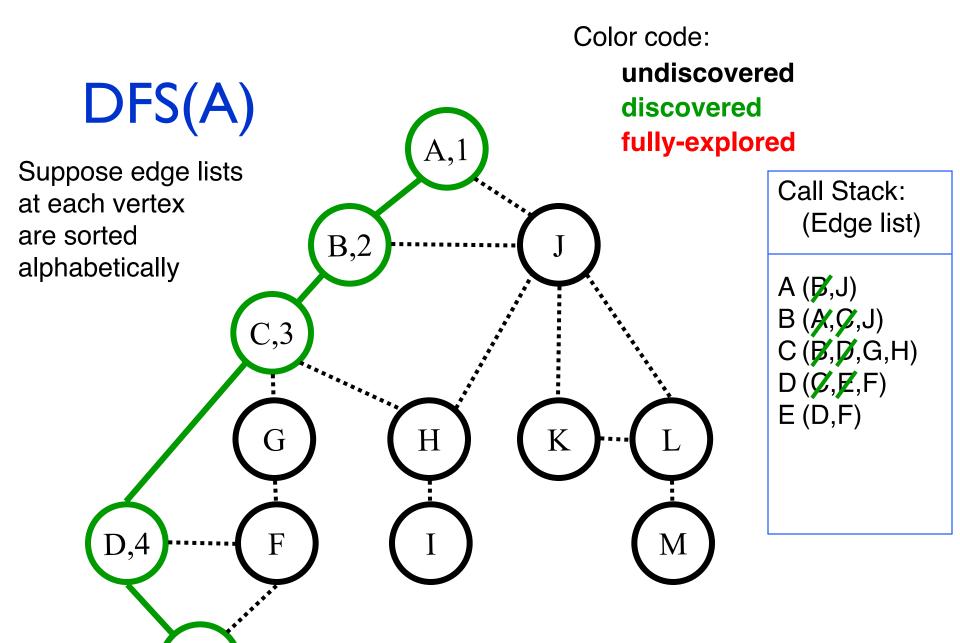
BFS tree # **DFS tree**, **but**, **as with** BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple"

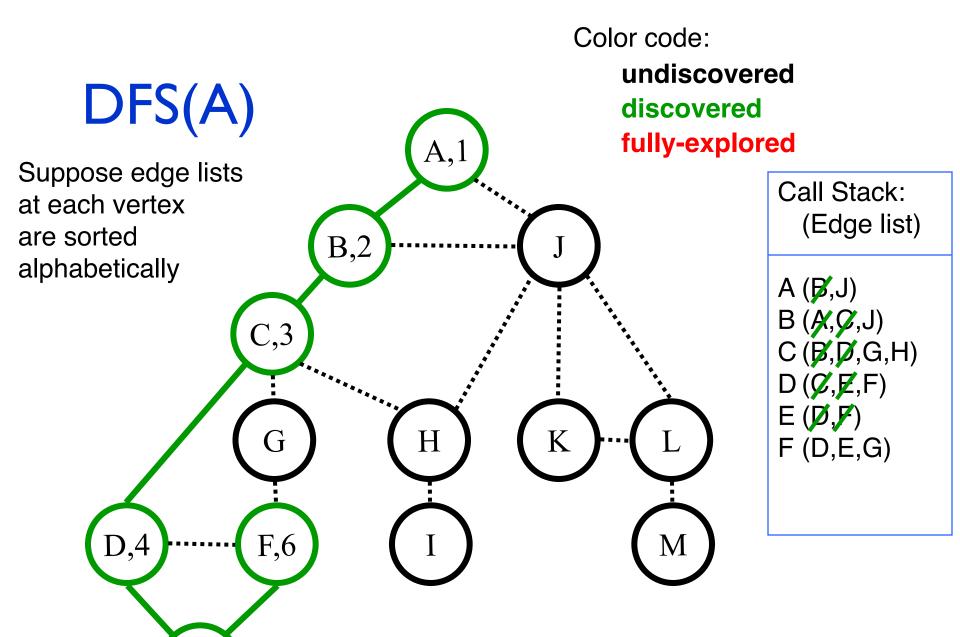


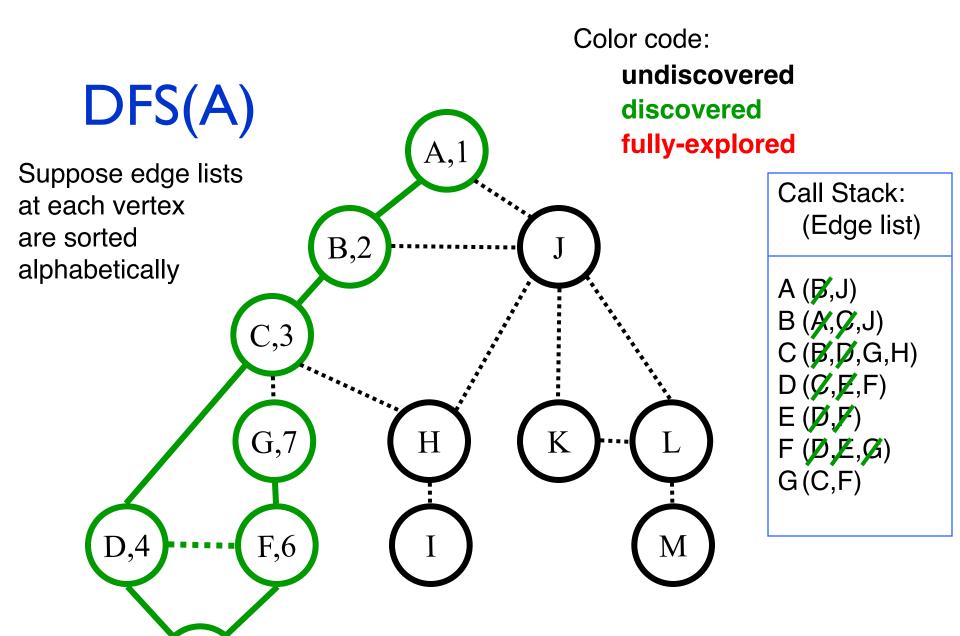


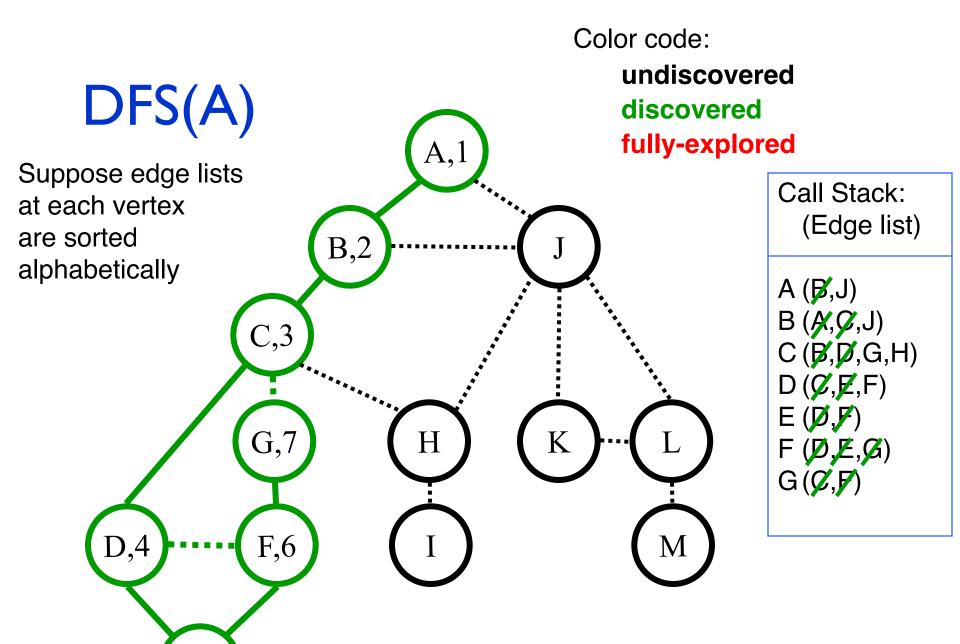


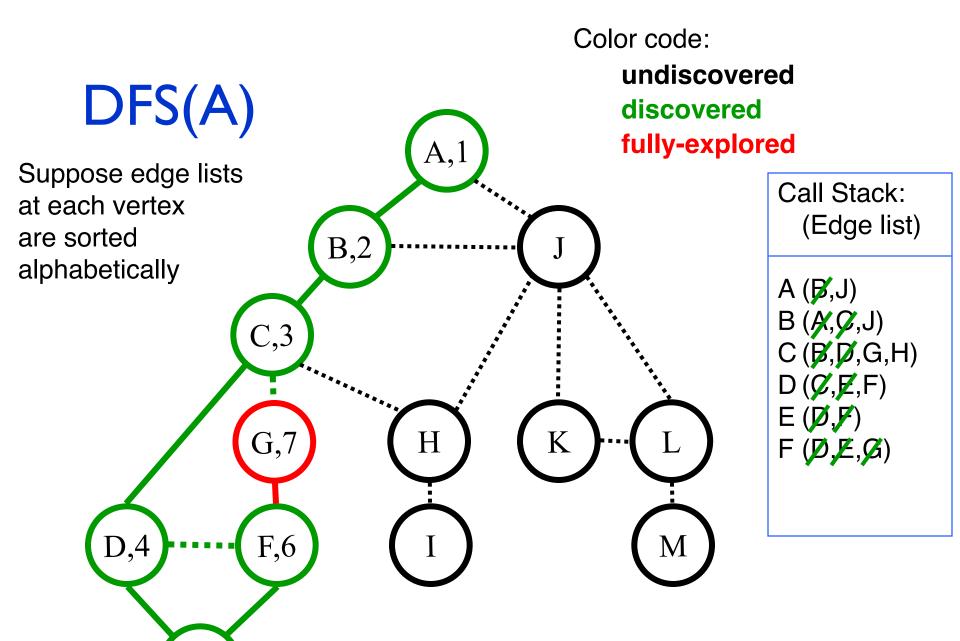


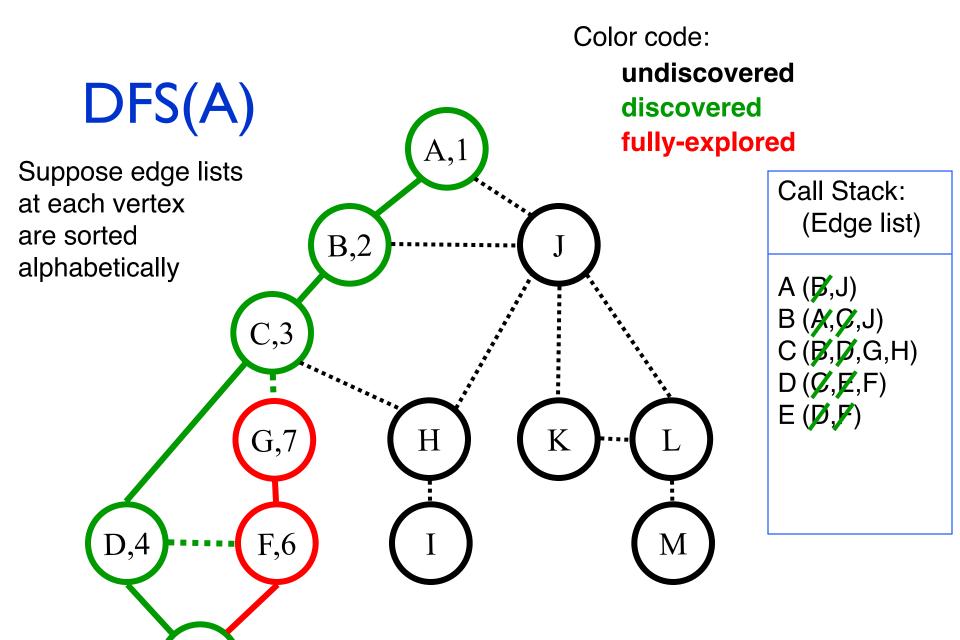


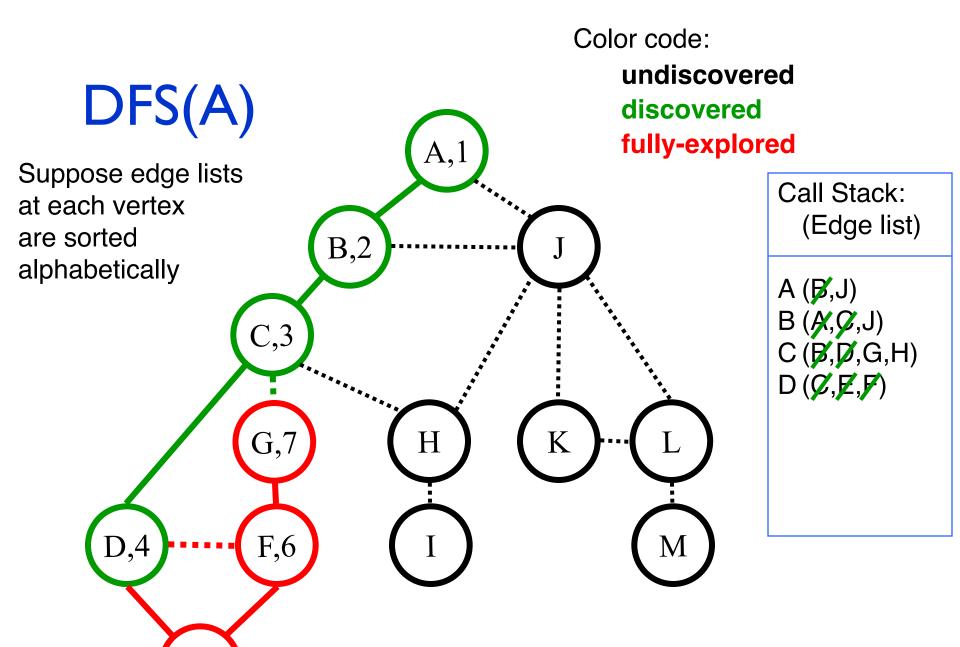


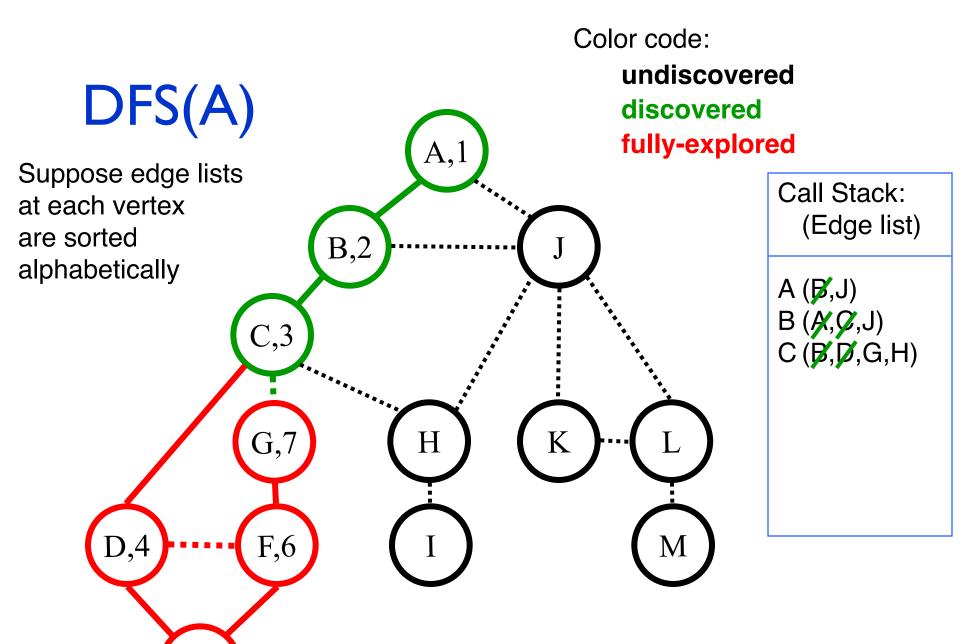


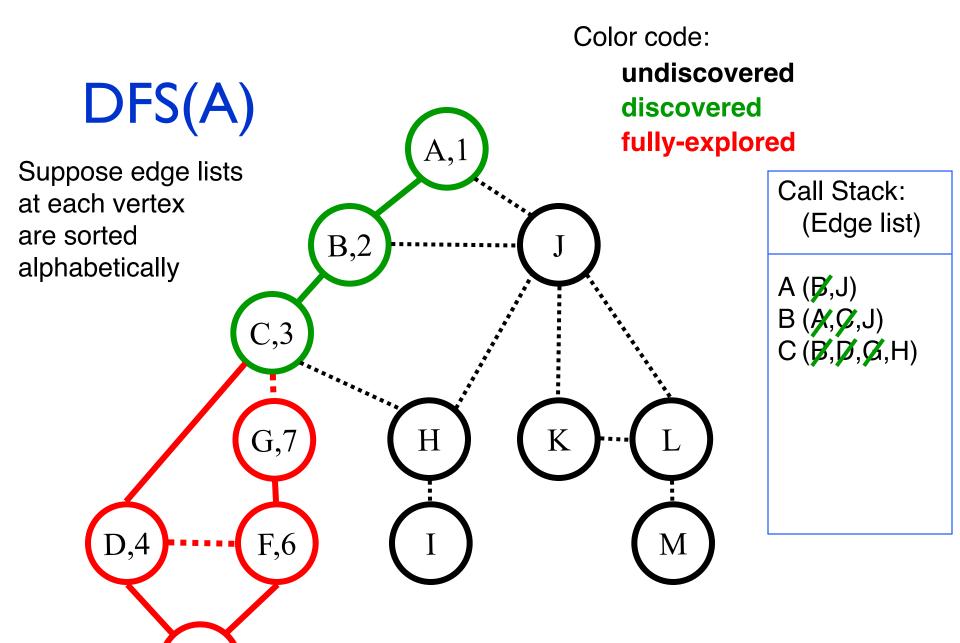


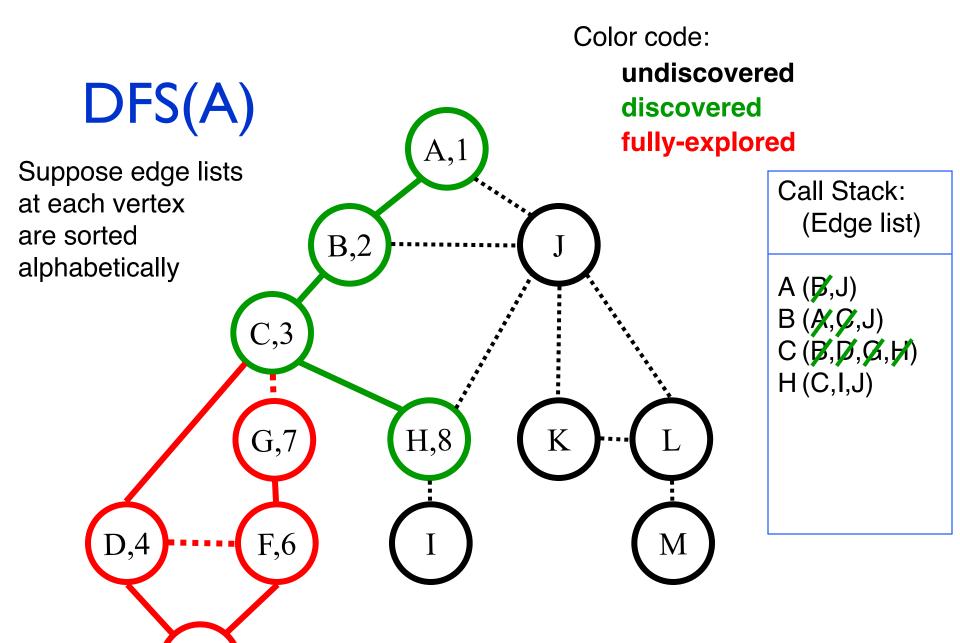


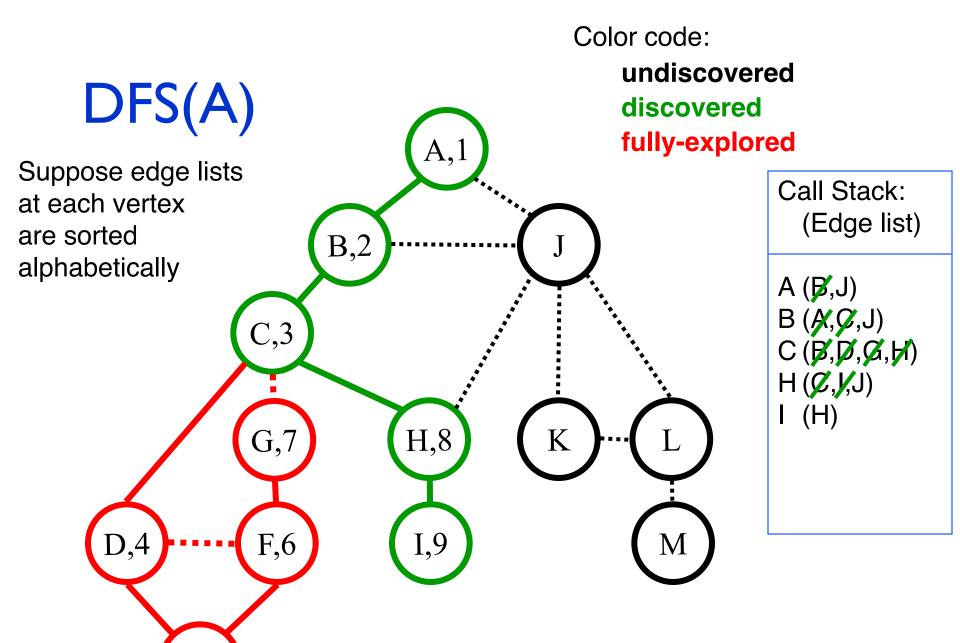


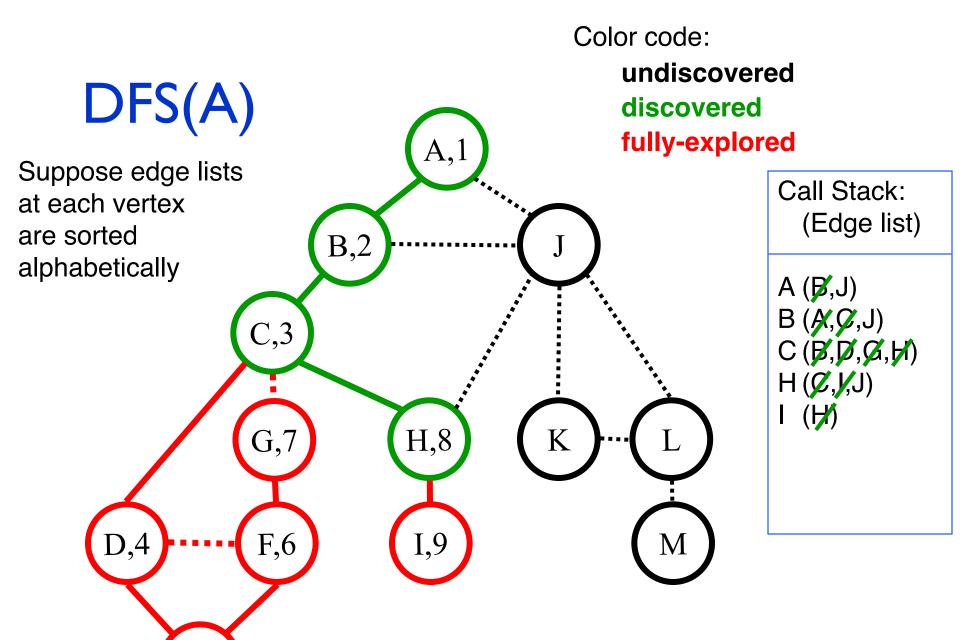


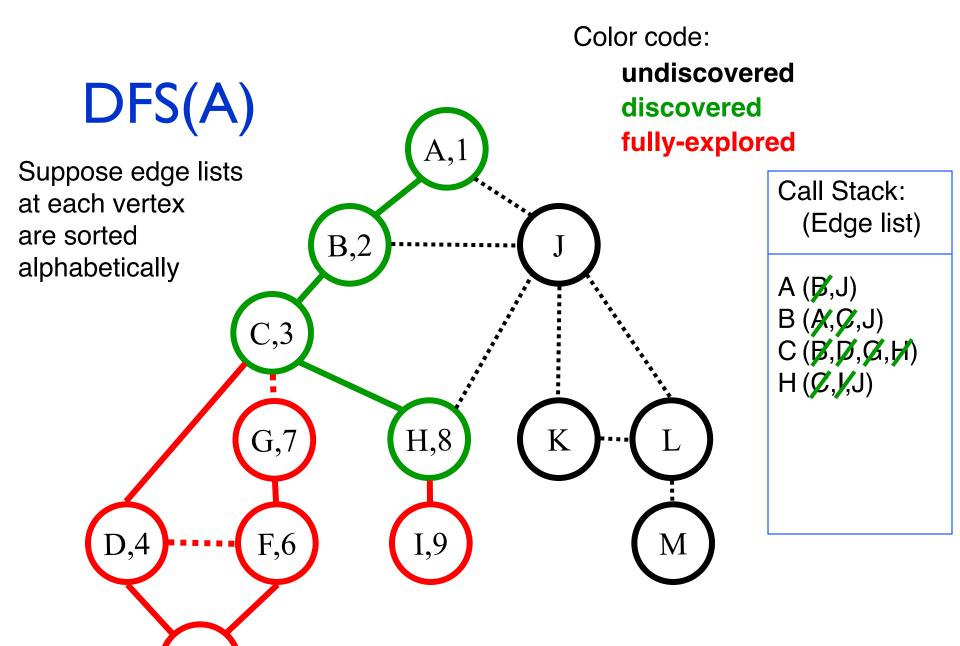


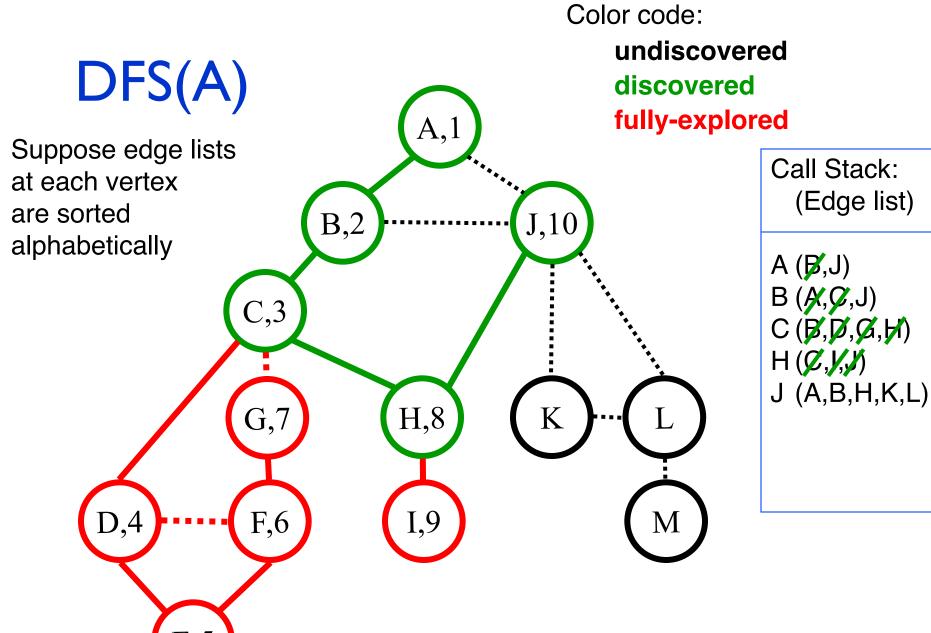


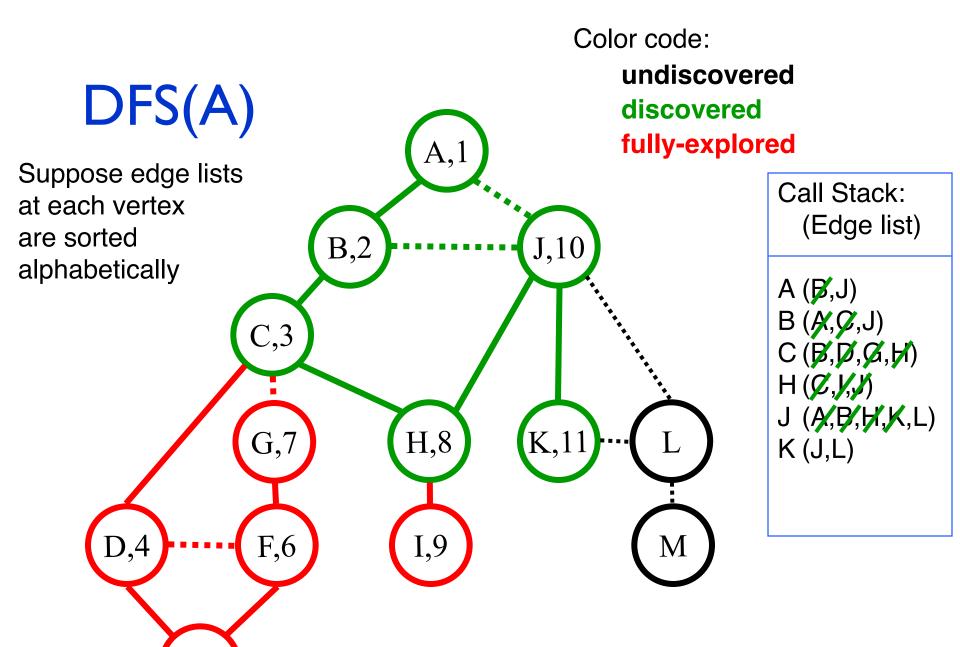




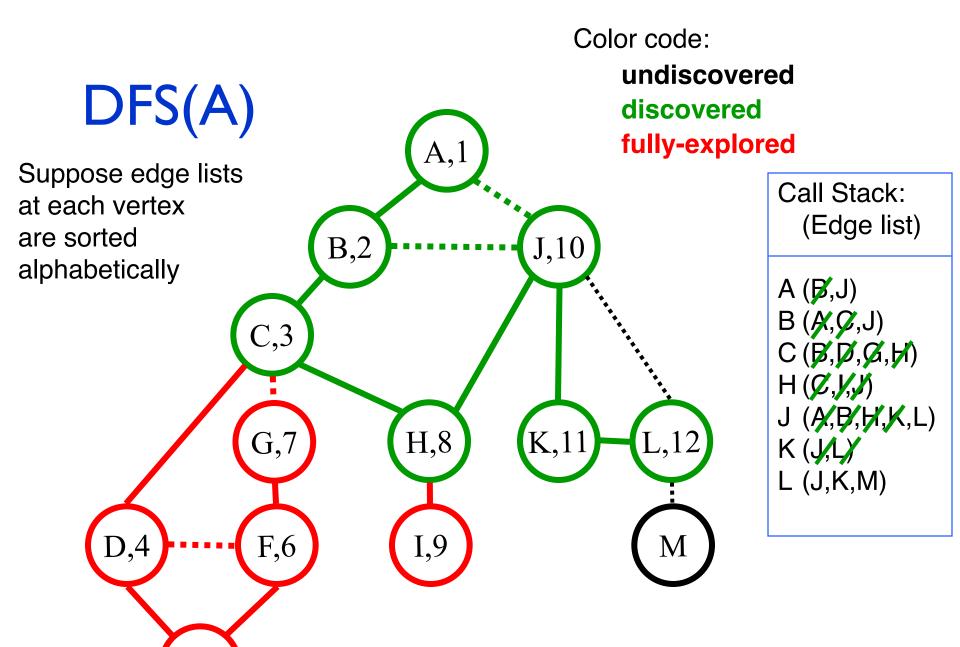




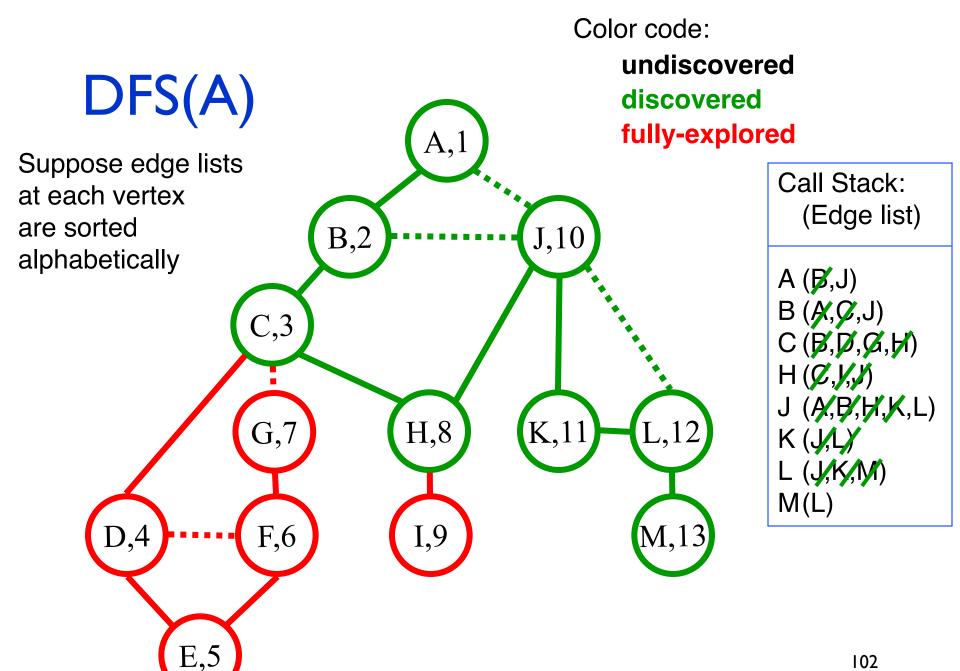


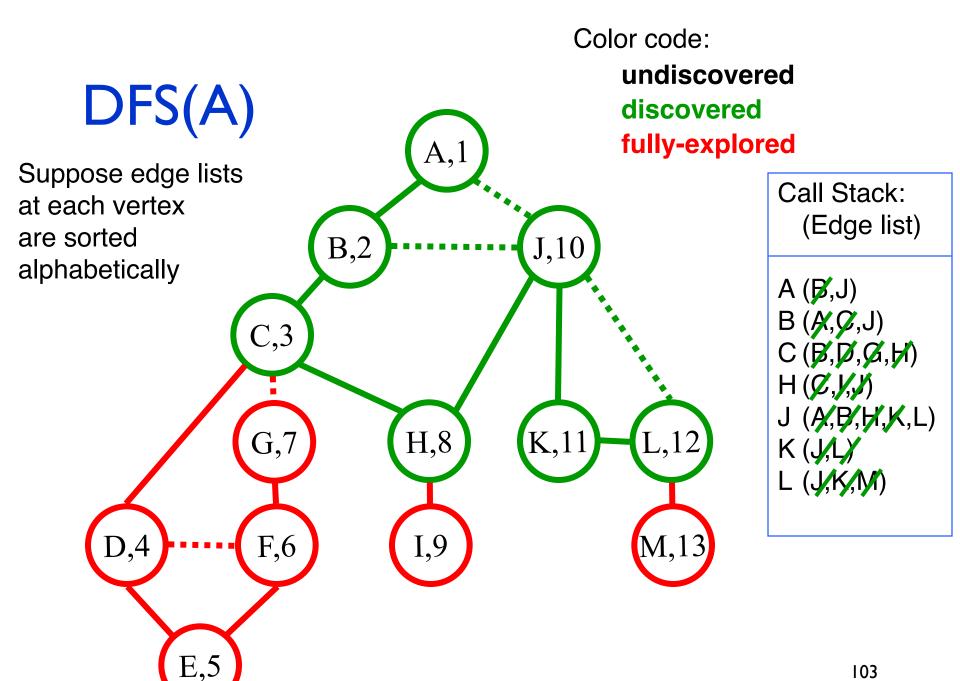


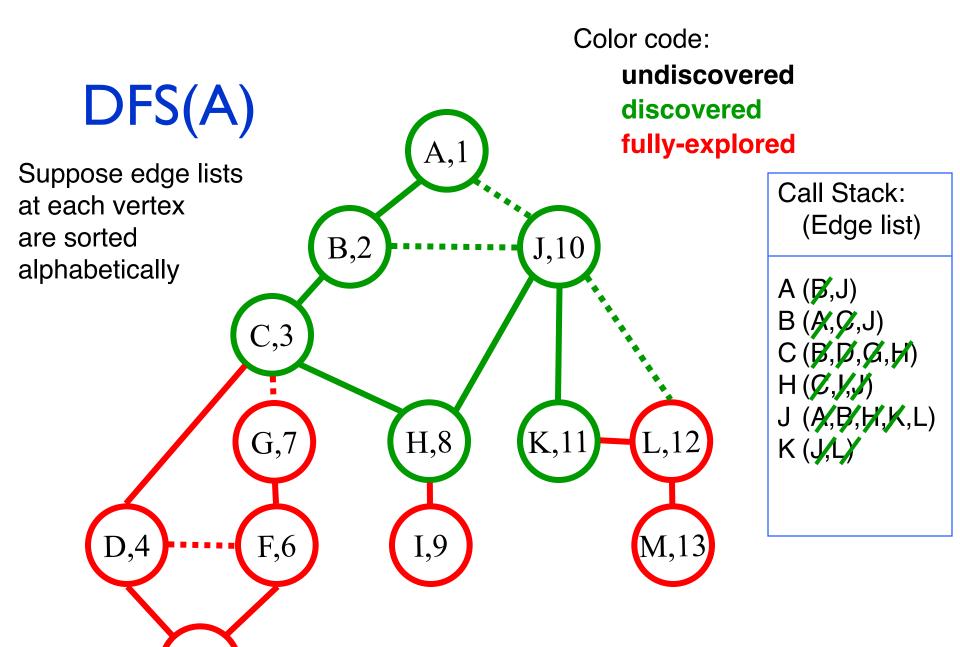
E,5



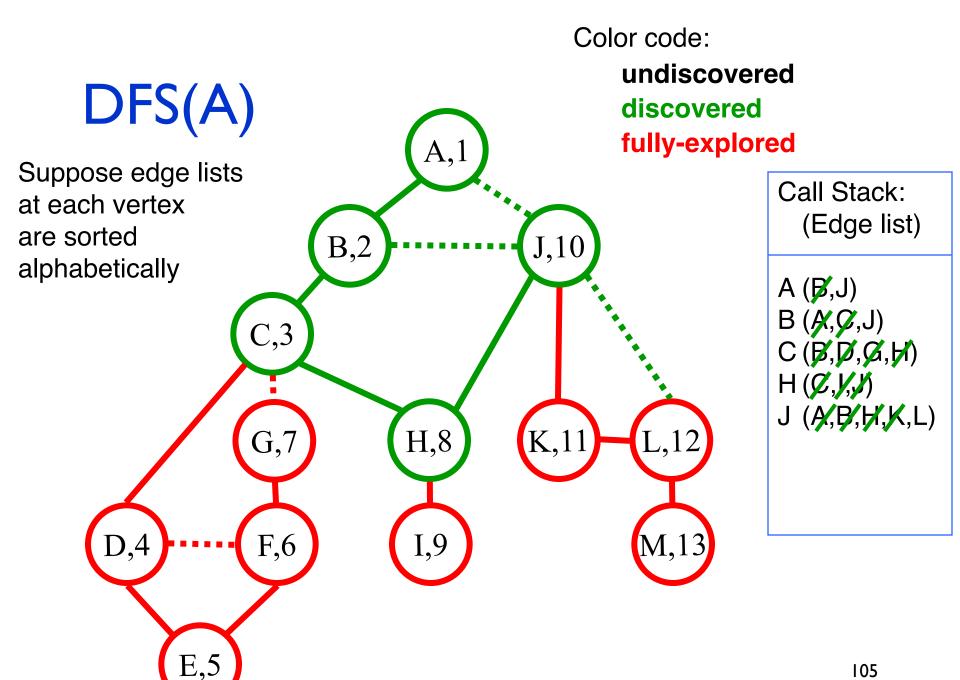
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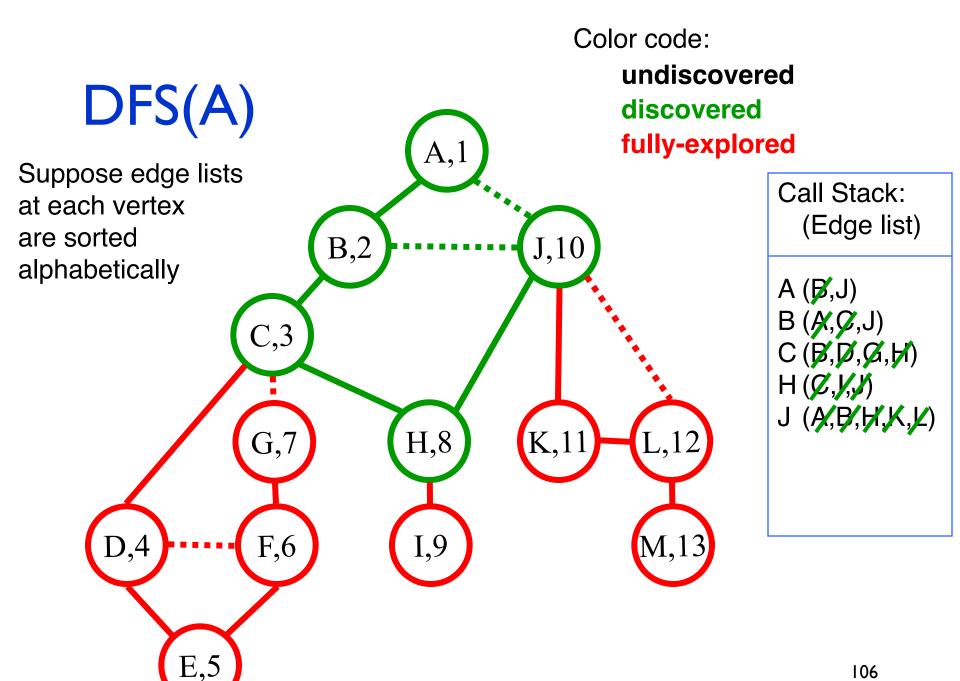


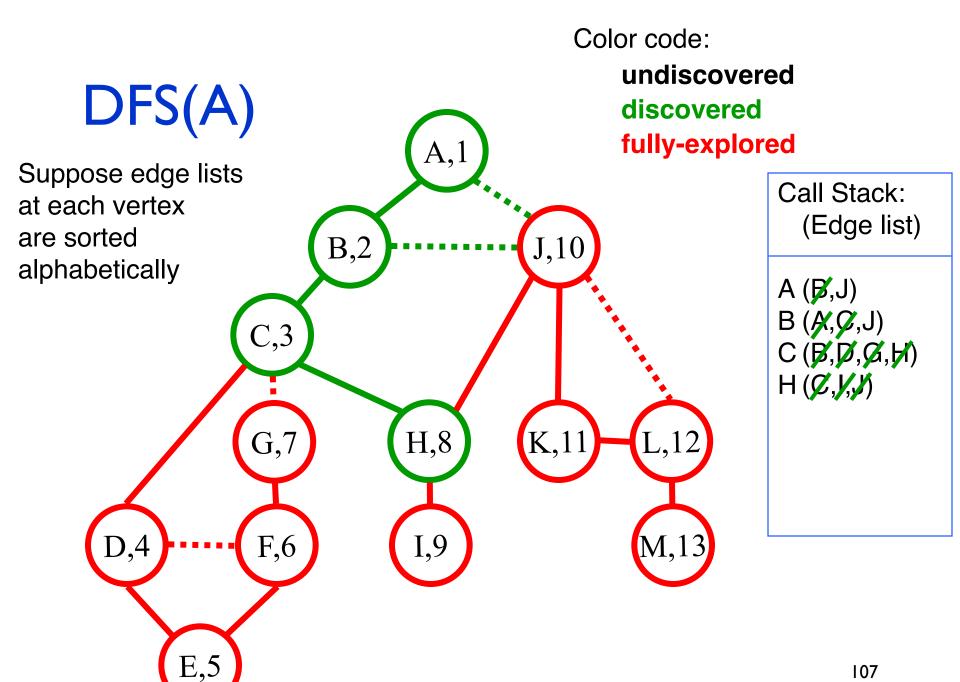


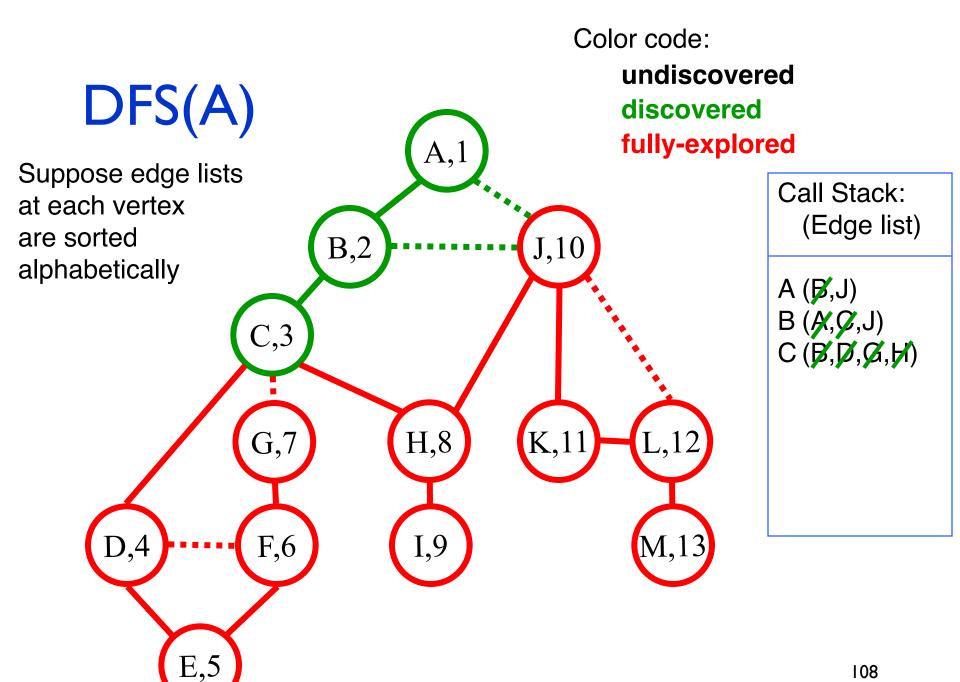


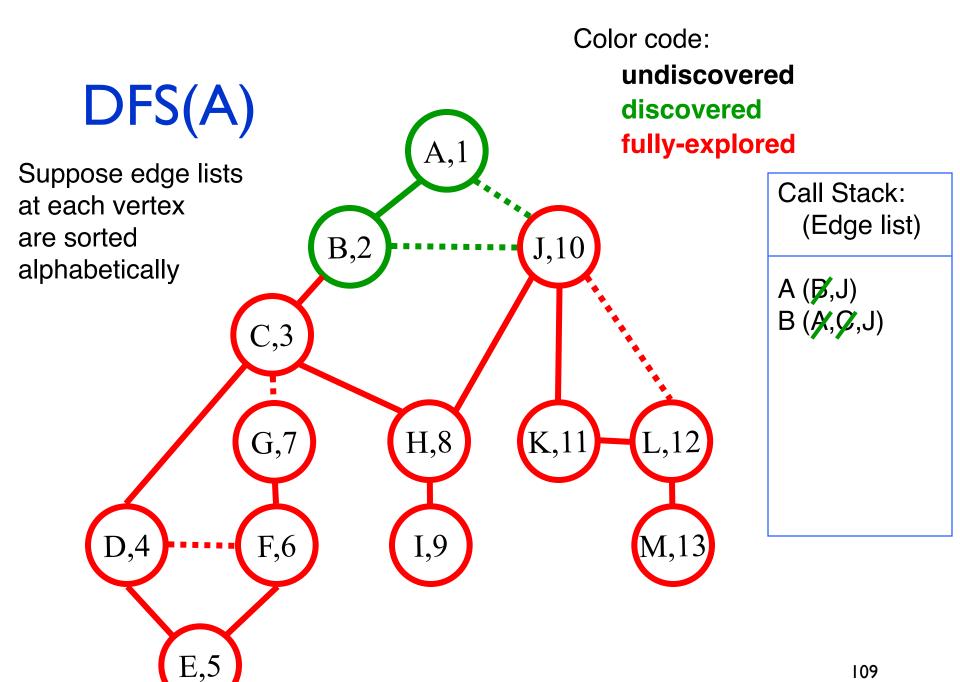
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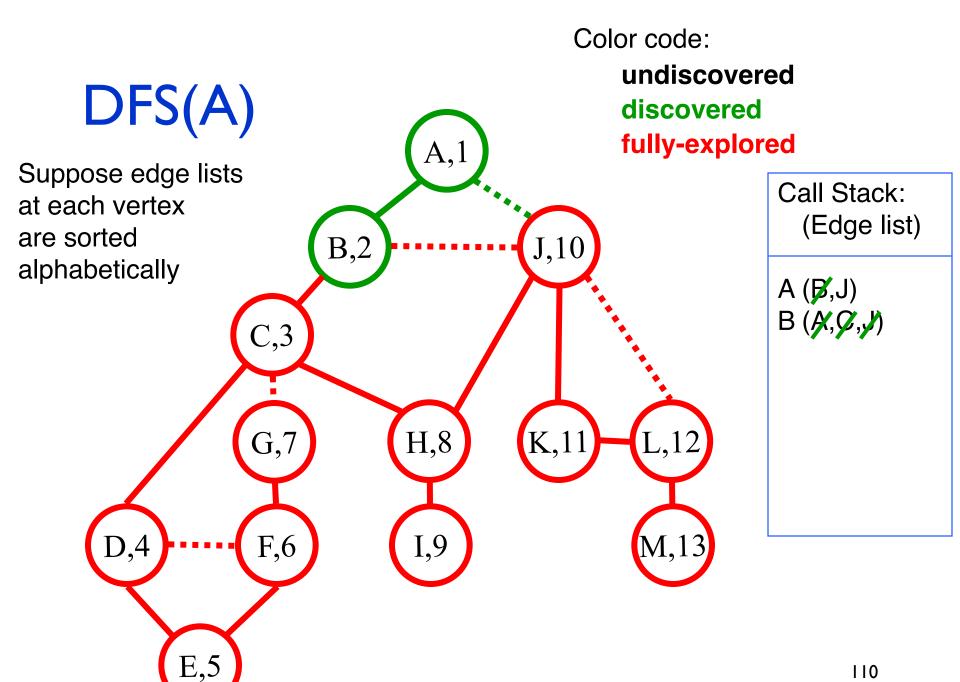


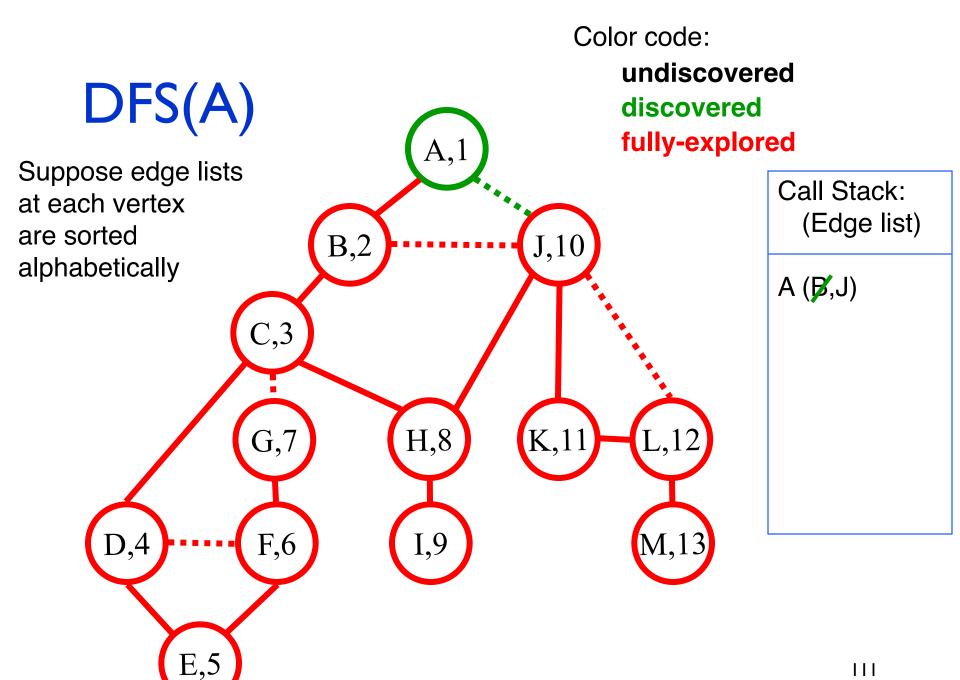


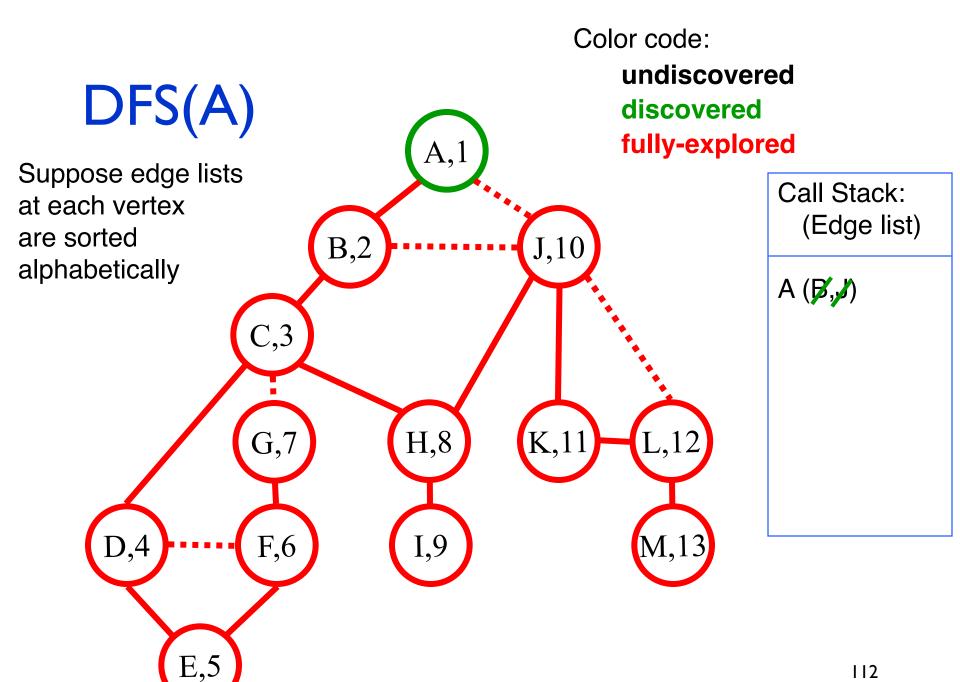


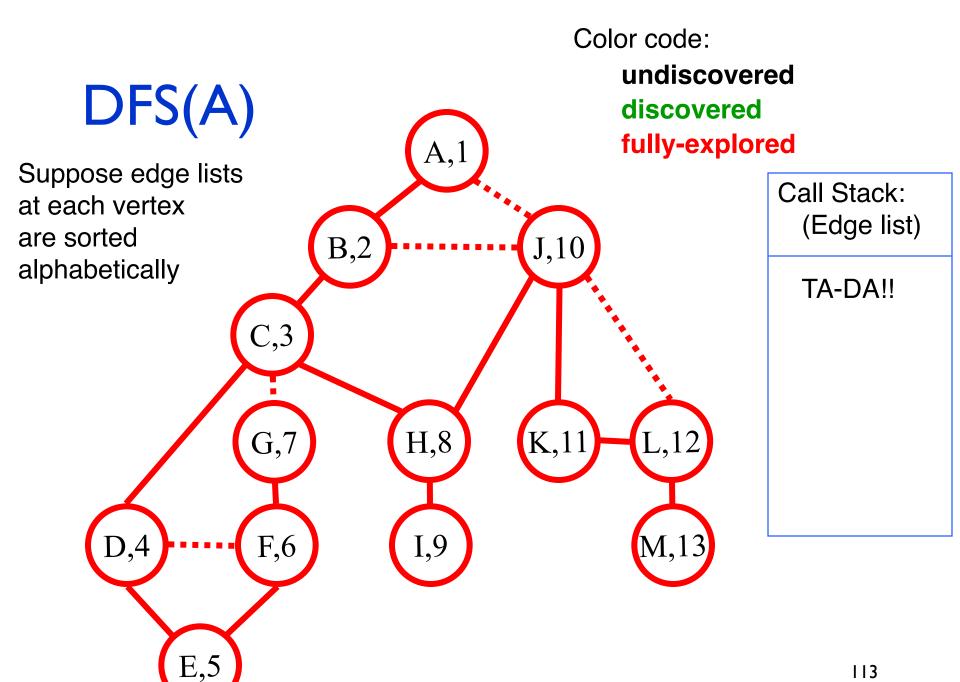


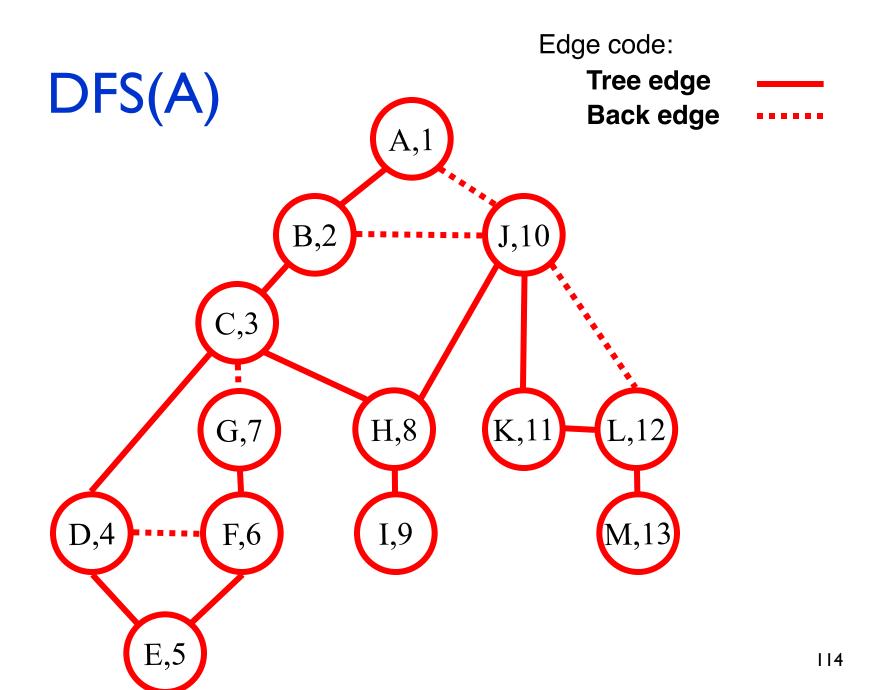


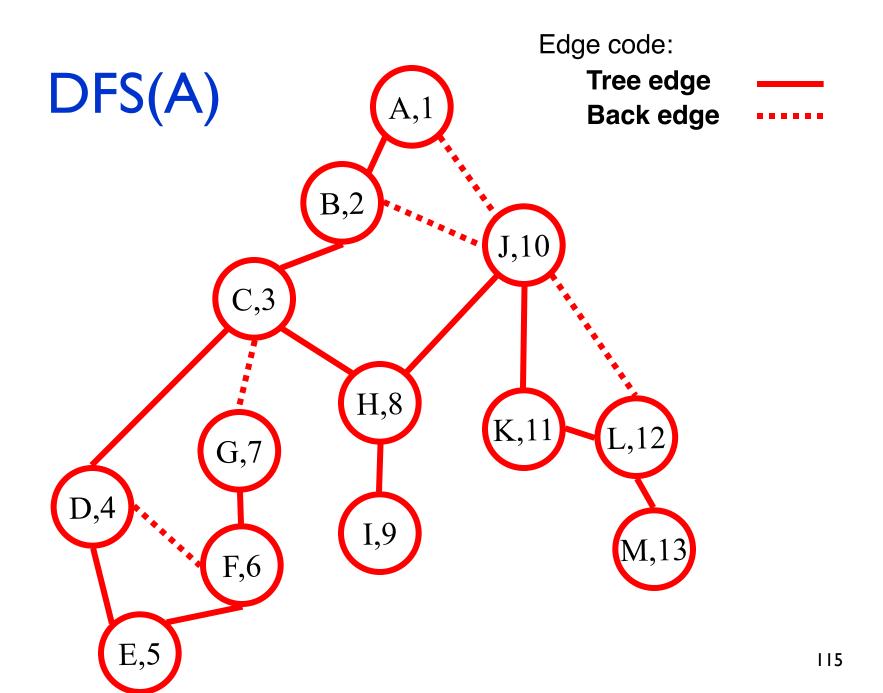


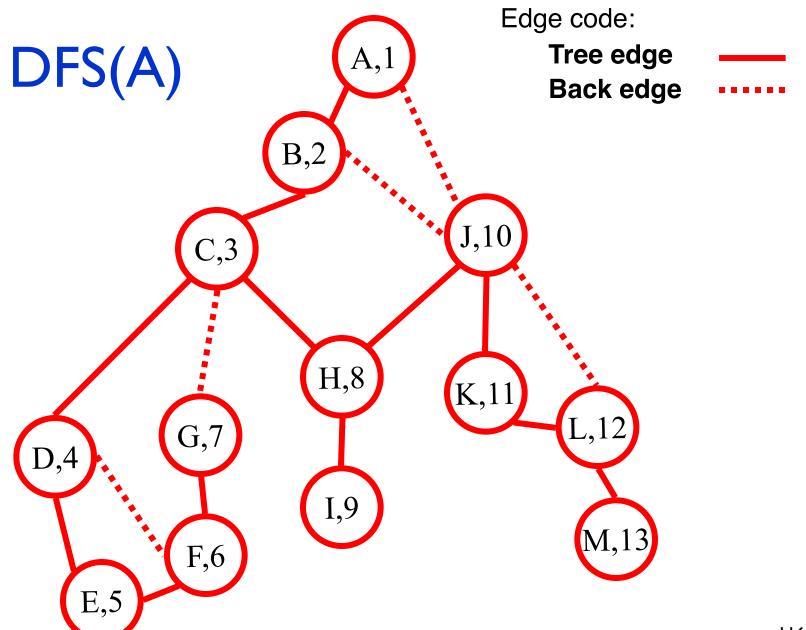


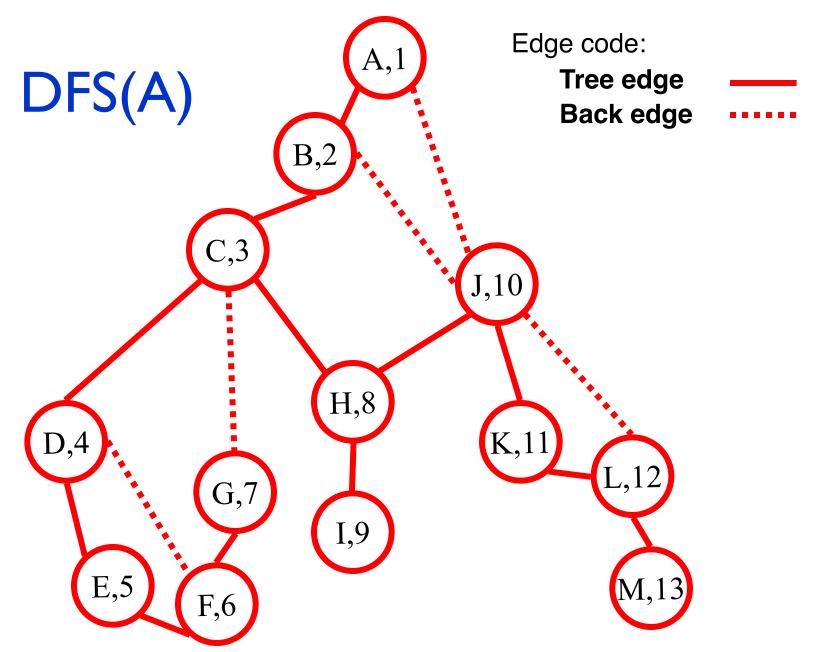


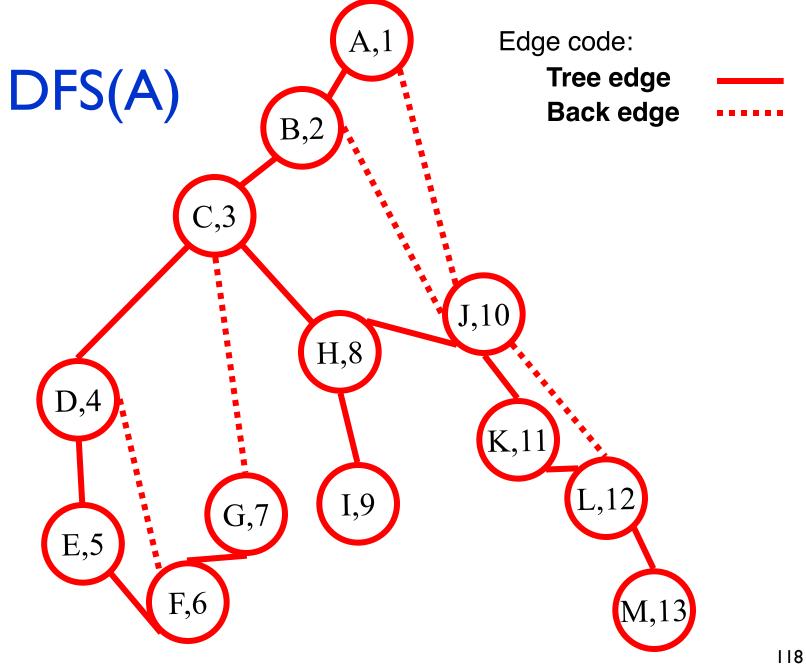


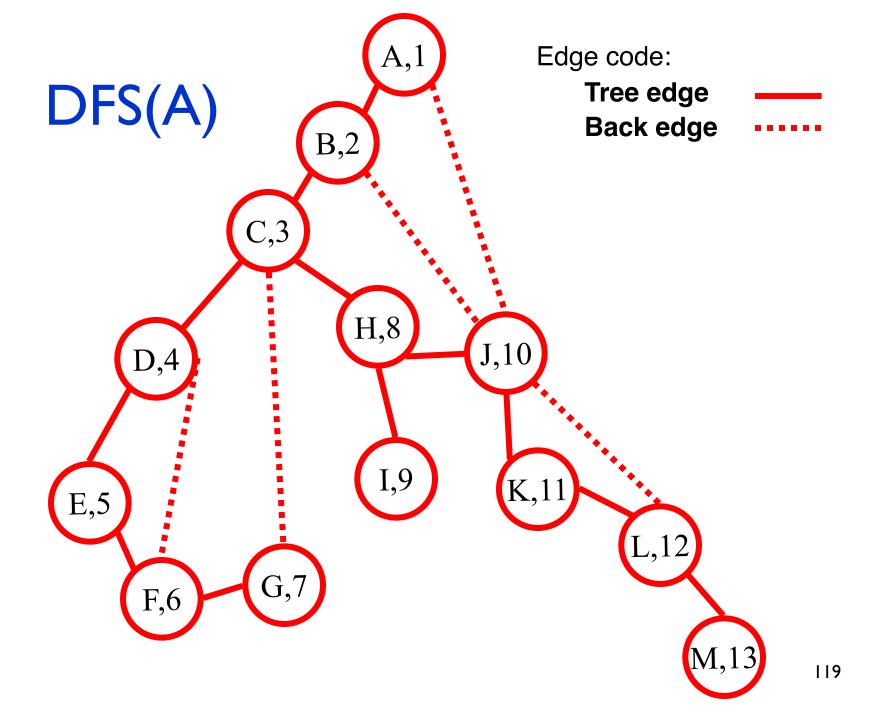


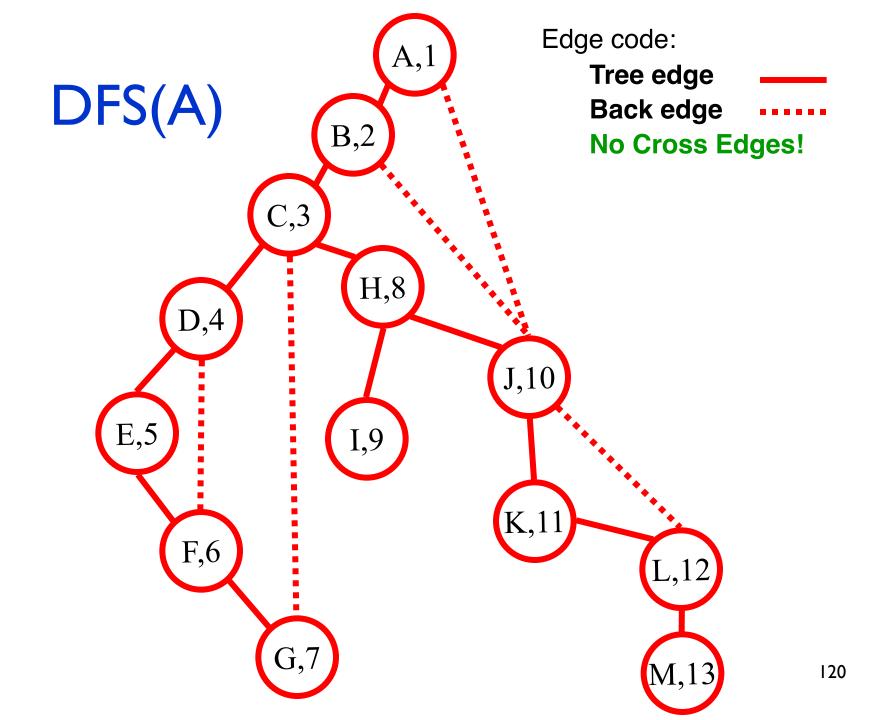












# Properties of (Undirected) DFS(v)

#### Like BFS(v):

DFS(v) visits x if and only if there is a path in G from v to x (through previously unvisited vertices)

Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a **tree** – the "depth first spanning tree" of G

#### Unlike the BFS tree:

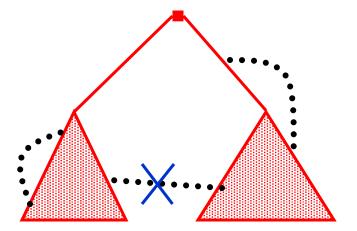
the DF spanning tree isn't minimum depth its levels don't reflect min distance from the root non-tree edges never join vertices on the same or adjacent levels

BUT...

# Non-tree edges

All non-tree edges join a vertex and one of its descendents/ancestors in the DFS tree

No cross edges!



# Why fuss about trees (again)?

As with BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple"--only descendant/ancestor

### A simple problem on trees

Given: tree T, a value L(v) defined for every vertex v in T

Goal: find M(v), the min value of L(v)

anywhere in the subtree rooted at v

(including v itself).

How?

#### DFS(v) – Recursive version

```
Global Initialization:
  for all nodes v, v.dfs# = -I // mark v "undiscovered"
  dfscounter = 0
DFS(v)
                               // v "discovered", number it
  v.dfs# = dfscounter++
  for each edge (v,x)
      if (x.dfs# = -1)
                               // tree edge (x previously undiscovered)
          DFS(x)
      else ...
                               // code for back-, fwd-, parent,
                               // edges, if needed
                               // mark v "completed," if needed,
```