

# Graphs

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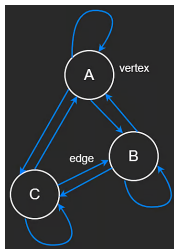
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# Introduction to Graphs

## Graph Terminology:

- *Vertices*: The nodes within a graph.
- *Edges*: The connections between vertices.
- A graph can vary widely in structure, from fully connected to completely disconnected (*null graph*).



## Characteristics of Graphs:

- The number of edges  $E$  in a graph with  $V$  vertices is at most  $V^2$ , reflecting the potential for each vertex to connect to every other vertex and itself.
- *Directed Graphs*: Edges have a direction (e.g., trees and linked lists with pointers like *prev*, *next*, *left\_child*, *right\_child*).
- *Undirected Graphs*: Edges have no direction, implying a bidirectional relationship between vertices.

# Formats of Graphs in Interviews

- Graphs, being abstract data structures, can be concretely represented in multiple ways, notably:

## Order Property:

- Matrix
- Adjacency Matrix
- Adjacency List

## Matrix Representation:

- Utilizes a two-dimensional array to represent graphs.
- Example: Consider a 4x4 grid where each element can be accessed via `grid[row][col]` notation.  

```
grid = [[0, 0, 0, 0],
        [1, 1, 0, 0],
        [0, 0, 0, 1],
        [0, 1, 0, 0]]
```
- Vertices can be represented by specific values (e.g., all "0"s) in the matrix.
- Edges are implied by the adjacency of "0"s, allowing traversal up, down, left, and right to connect components.

	0	1	2	3	
0	0	0	0	0	1 - Blocked 0 - Free
1	1	1	0	0	
2	0	0	0	1	
3	0	1	0	0	

# Adjacency Matrix Representation

	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0	0
2	0	0	0	1
3	0	1	0	0

An edge exists from v1 to v2  
 $adjMatrix[v1][v2] = 1$

An edge exists from v2 to v1  
 $adjMatrix[v2][v1] = 1$

- In this matrix:
  - A value of 0 indicates no edge between two vertices.
  - A value of 1 indicates the presence of an edge.

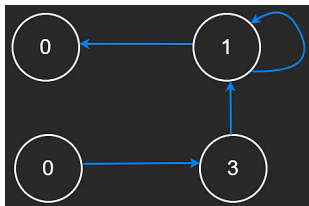
- **Example:**

```
adjMatrix = [[0, 0, 0, 0],
              [1, 1, 0, 0],
              [0, 0, 0, 1],
              [0, 1, 0, 0]]
```

- **Interpretation:**

- $adjMatrix[1][2] == 0$ : No edge between vertex 1 and 2.
  - $adjMatrix[2][3] == 1$ : An edge exists between vertex 2 and 3.
- **Space Complexity:** For a graph with  $V$  vertices, the space complexity is  $O(V^2)$ , making it less memory-efficient for sparse graphs.
- Ideal for dense graphs or when constant-time edge lookup is a priority.

# Adjacency List: Preferred Graph Representation



- Represents the graph as an array of lists.
- Each index in the array represents a vertex, and the list at each index contains the neighbors of that vertex.

```

class GraphNode:
    def __init__(self, val):
        self.val = val
        self.neighbors = []
  
```

- This structure allows easy access to all neighbors of a given vertex, enhancing traversal efficiency.

## Advantages:

- More space-efficient than adjacency matrices, especially for sparse graphs.
- Directly represents the connections between vertices without redundant information.

# Applying DFS to Graphs

- **Example Problem:** Count unique paths from top left to bottom right in a grid, moving only on "0"s.

- **Matrix Representation:**

```
matrix = [[0,0,0,0],
          [1,1,0,0],
          [0,0,0,1],
          [0,1,0,0]]
```

- **DFS Approach:**

- DFS is inherently recursive, perfect for exploring all paths through the grid.

## Base case considerations

- Out-of-bounds movements return 0 (invalid path).
  - Reaching the bottom right corner signifies a valid path.
- Incorporate backtracking to undo moves that don't lead to a solution, ensuring each cell is visited only once per path.
- This approach is akin to backtracking, with the goal of counting all valid paths given the movement constraints.

# DFS in Graphs: Understanding the Base Cases

## • Base Case 1: Path Does Not Exist

- Movement leads out of bounds ( $r < 0$ ,  $r \geq \text{rows}$ ,  $c < 0$ ,  $c \geq \text{cols}$ ).
- Coordinate already visited or is an obstacle ( $\text{matrix}[r][c] = 1$ ).
- **Action:** Return 0 indicating no valid path through this coordinate.

## • Base Case 2: Valid Path Exists

- Reached the bottom-right corner without violating any constraints ( $\text{matrix}[\text{rows} - 1][\text{cols} - 1]$ ).
  - **Action:** Return 1 to signify a valid path has been found.
- These base cases guide the recursive DFS process, enabling it to backtrack from dead ends and count all unique paths from the top-left to the bottom-right of the matrix.



# DFS Implementation for Unique Paths

- To avoid revisiting coordinates, track visited ones in a global HashSet.
- Perform DFS recursively in all four directions from any coordinate:  $r + 1, r - 1, c + 1, c - 1$ .
- Increment count based on the return value of DFS calls: 1 signifies a valid path, 0 has no effect.

## Key Implementation Steps:

- 1 Check base cases to determine if the current path is valid or needs backtracking.
- 2 Add the current coordinate to the visited set to avoid cycles.
- 3 Recursively call DFS in four directions and manage the count of unique paths.
- 4 Upon returning from recursive calls, remove the current coordinate from the visited set to allow re-visitation in different paths.

# Example Pseudo code

```
# Matrix (2D Grid)
grid = [[0, 0, 0, 0],
        [1, 1, 0, 0],
        [0, 0, 0, 1],
        [0, 1, 0, 0]]

# Count paths (backtracking)
def dfs(grid, r, c, visit):
    ROWS, COLS = len(grid), len(grid[0])
    if (min(r, c) < 0 or
        r == ROWS or c == COLS or
        (r, c) in visit or grid[r][c] == 1):
        return 0
    if r == ROWS - 1 and c == COLS - 1:
        return 1

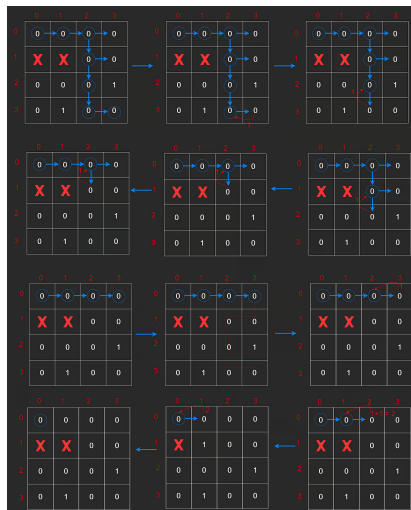
    visit.add((r, c))

    count = 0
    count += dfs(grid, r + 1, c, visit)
    count += dfs(grid, r - 1, c, visit)
    count += dfs(grid, r, c + 1, visit)
    count += dfs(grid, r, c - 1, visit)

    visit.remove((r, c))
    return count
```

- This approach allows exploring all potential paths, backtracking as necessary, and accurately counting unique paths from the top-left to the bottom-right of the matrix.

# Visualization of the Implementation



Our function returns 2, denoting there exist 2 unique paths from (0,0) to (3,3).

# Time Complexity of DFS for Unique Paths

- **Branching Factor:** Each cell in the matrix has up to four directions to move - up, down, left, or right, resulting in a branching factor of 4.
- **Height of Decision Tree:** The depth of recursive exploration is determined by the size of the matrix, denoted as  $n \times m$ , where  $n$  is the number of rows, and  $m$  is the number of columns.
- **Worst-Case Scenario:** In the most complex case, every cell might be visited, and from each cell, all four directions might need to be explored.
- **Time Complexity:** The total number of operations is proportional to  $4^{n \times m}$ , which signifies the exhaustive exploration of all paths.
- **Space Complexity:** Due to the recursive nature of DFS, the space complexity is primarily dictated by the call stack, which grows to  $O(n \times m)$  in the worst case.

# Breadth-First Search for Shortest Path

## Objective:

Use BFS to find the shortest path from the top-left to the bottom-right of a grid.

## Efficiency of BFS:

Unlike DFS, BFS efficiently finds the shortest path due to its level-wise exploration. The first discovery of a vertex signifies the shortest distance from the source.

# Initial Setup

- Define the dimensions of the grid to determine boundaries.
- Utilize a set to track visited vertices, preventing re-visitation.
- Employ a deque (double-ended queue) for managing vertices by levels, initiating with the vertex at (0,0) and marking it as visited.

This approach ensures systematic exploration, with each level in the queue representing a step further from the source, efficiently leading to the identification of the shortest path.

```
# Matrix (2D Grid)
grid = [[0, 0, 0, 0],
        [1, 1, 0, 0],
        [0, 0, 0, 1],
        [0, 1, 0, 0]]

def bfs(grid):
    ROWS, COLS = len(grid), len(grid[0])
    visit = set()
    queue = deque()
    queue.append((0, 0))
    visit.add((0, 0))
```

# Applying BFS on Graphs for Shortest Path

- **Objective:** Determine the shortest path's length in a grid using BFS.
- **Traversal Process:**
  - Initialize a length variable to 0 to track the path length.
  - Use a while loop to process each level (vertex) stored in the queue.
  - On dequeuing, we obtain row ( $r$ ) and column ( $c$ ) coordinates, analogous to accessing a node's children in tree BFS.
  - The search continues unless the bottom-right corner ( $r = \text{ROWS} - 1$  and  $c = \text{COLS} - 1$ ) is reached.
- **Exploring Neighbors:**
  - Define movement directions with a 2-D array: `neighbors = [[0, 1], [0, -1], [1, 0], [-1, 0]]` for right, left, down, up, respectively.
  - Exclude moves that lead out of bounds, to blocked coordinates, or to already visited vertices.
  - Append viable neighbors to the queue and mark them as visited to prevent reprocessing.
- **Efficiency:**
  - Adding vertices to a visited set upon queueing ensures no duplicates in the queue, enhancing time efficiency.

# Example Pseudo Code for BFS on Graphs

*# Shortest path from top left to bottom right*

```
def bfs(grid):
    ROWS, COLS = len(grid), len(grid[0])
    visit = set()
    queue = deque()
    queue.append((0, 0))
    visit.add((0, 0))

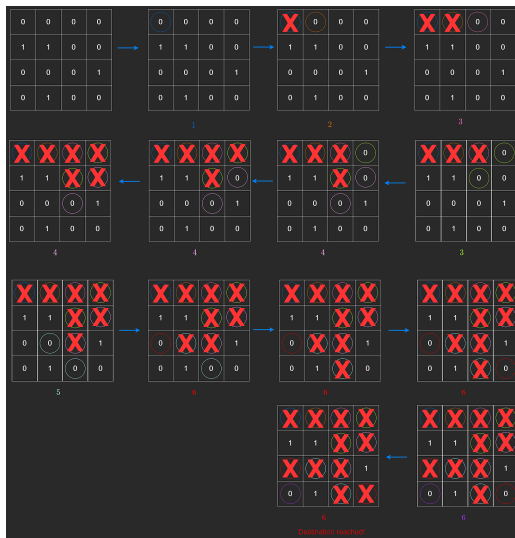
    length = 0
    while queue:
        for i in range(len(queue)):
            r, c = queue.popleft()
            if r == ROWS - 1 and c == COLS - 1:
                return length

            neighbors = [[0, 1], [0, -1], [1, 0], [-1, 0]]
            for dr, dc in neighbors:
                if (min(r + dr, c + dc) < 0 or
                    r + dr == ROWS or c + dc == COLS or
                    (r + dr, c + dc) in visit or grid[r + dr][c + dc] == 1):
                    continue
                queue.append((r + dr, c + dc))
                visit.add((r + dr, c + dc))

        length += 1
```



# Visualization of the Implementation of BFS on Graphs



If  $n$  represents the number of rows and  $m$  represents the number of columns in the grid, then the time complexity of the BFS algorithm in this context is given by:  $O(n \times m)$

# Breadth-First Search for Shortest Path

## Advantage of Adjacency List:

- Offers a compact representation of graphs, especially useful for sparse graphs.
- Directly maps a vertex to its neighbors, facilitating efficient traversal and connectivity checks.

## Construction Process:

- Given: A list of directed edges representing connections from source vertices to destination vertices.
- Objective: Build an adjacency list to represent the graph.

## Implementation:

- Use a hashmap to maintain a mapping of each vertex to its list of neighbors.
- Key: Vertex. Value: List of neighbor vertices.
- Assumes uniqueness of vertex identifiers to effectively use them as keys in the hashmap.

# Demonstration of Adjacency List

*# GraphNode used for adjacency list*

```
class GraphNode:
```

```
    def __init__(self, val):
```

```
        self.val = val
```

```
        self.neighbors = []
```

*# Or use a HashMap*

```
adjList = { "A": [], "B": [] }
```

*# Given directed edges, build an adjacency list*

```
edges = [{"A", "B"}, {"B", "C"}, {"B", "E"}, {"C", "E"}, {"E", "D"}]
```

```
adjList = {}
```

```
for src, dst in edges:
```

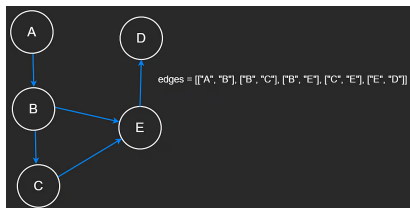
```
    if src not in adjList:
```

```
        adjList[src] = []
```

```
    if dst not in adjList:
```

```
        adjList[dst] = []
```

```
    adjList[src].append(dst)
```



# DFS on an Adjacency List

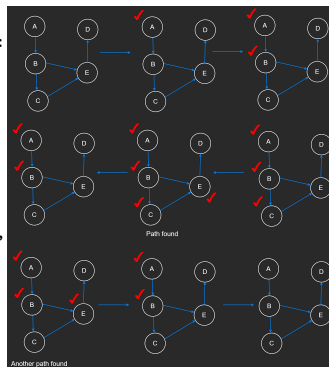
- **Objective:** Count the number of paths from a given source to a destination using DFS on an adjacency list.
- **Adjacency List:** A data structure where each vertex key maps to a list of neighbor vertices, facilitating the representation of graph connections.
- **Traversal Strategy:**
  - Utilize a `HashSet` named `visit` to track visited vertices, ensuring no vertex is explored more than once.
  - Recursively apply DFS starting from the source vertex, exploring all paths through the adjacency list.
  - Upon reaching the target vertex, return 1 to signify a successful path discovery.
  - Implement backtracking by removing nodes from the visited set after exploring paths, enabling the search for new paths.
- **Path Counting:** The recursive nature of DFS, combined with backtracking, allows for an efficient counting of all distinct paths from source to target.
- This method leverages the structure of an adjacency list to explore graph connections deeply, showcasing the flexibility and power of DFS in graph analysis.

# DFS on an Adjacency List

```
# Count paths (backtracking)
def dfs(node, target, adjList, visit):
    if node in visit:
        return 0
    if node == target:
        return 1

    count = 0
    visit.add(node)
    for neighbor in adjList[node]:
        count += dfs(neighbor, target,
                    adjList, visit)
    visit.remove(node)

    return count
```



# Time Complexity of DFS on an Adjacency List

- **Worst-Case Scenario:**

- Consider a graph where each node is connected to every other node, adhering to the rule  $E \leq V^2$ , where  $E$  is the number of edges, and  $V$  is the number of vertices.
- Assuming each vertex has  $N$  edges.

- **Decision Tree Analysis:**

- A decision tree can model the potential exploration paths from each vertex.
- With the tree height being  $V$ , representing the maximum depth of DFS traversal.

- **Exponential Time Complexity:**

- In such a dense graph, the DFS algorithm may perform  $N^V$  work, reflecting an exponential time complexity.
- This complexity arises from exploring all possible paths emanating from each vertex, compounded by the graph's dense nature.
- This analysis illustrates the potential computational demands of DFS in the worst-case scenario, echoing discussions from the matrix chapter about the exponential nature of certain graph traversals.

# BFS on an Adjacency List for Shortest Path

- **Objective:** Utilize BFS to determine the shortest path from a source node to a target node in a graph represented as an adjacency list.
- **Shortest Path Definition:** The path that connects the source to the destination with the fewest vertices visited.
- **Traversal Method:**
  - Similar to matrix BFS, the approach involves incrementally exploring the graph level by level.
  - Unlike matrix traversal, adjacency list BFS does not encounter boundary edge cases, simplifying the traversal logic.
  - A queue is employed to manage the exploration of vertices, ensuring that vertices are visited in the order they are discovered.
  - The path length is incremented with each level traversed, ensuring that when the target vertex is reached, the shortest path length is recorded.
- **Key Aspects:**
  - The BFS algorithm ensures that the first time the target node is reached, it is via the shortest path due to the algorithm's level-wise exploration.
  - This method effectively utilizes the adjacency list's structure to efficiently explore the graph and find the shortest path.

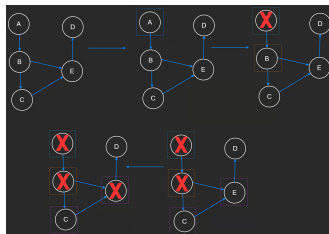
# DFS on an Adjacency List

```
# Shortest path from node to target
def bfs(node, target, adjList):
    length = 0
    visit = set()
    visit.add(node)
    queue = deque()
    queue.append(node)

    while queue:
        for i in range(len(queue)):
            curr = queue.popleft()
            if curr == target:
                return length

            for neighbor in adjList[curr]:
                if neighbor not in visit:
                    visit.add(neighbor)
                    queue.append(neighbor)

        length += 1
    return length
```





# Time Complexity of BFS on an Adjacency List

- **Understanding Graph Edges:** The number of edges ( $E$ ) in a graph is upper bounded by  $V^2$ , where  $V$  is the number of vertices. This bound assumes a fully connected graph, including self-loops and connections between all pairs of vertices.
- **Adjusting for Real-World Graphs:**
  - Real-world graphs often do not contain self-loops and may not fully connect all vertices, reducing the upper bound on the number of edges.
  - Consequently, the maximal number of edges is not a realistic estimate for many graphs.
- **Time Complexity of BFS:**
  - Considering the practical aspects of graph structures, the time complexity of BFS can be expressed as  $O(V + E)$ .
  - This complexity accounts for the need to explore all vertices ( $V$ ) and traverse all edges ( $E$ ) in the worst-case scenario.
- **Implications:**
  - This formulation highlights the efficiency of BFS in exploring graphs by ensuring that each vertex and edge is considered exactly once in the traversal process.
  - It underscores the importance of both vertices and edges in determining the computational demand of BFS on an adjacency list.

# Introduction to Graphs

- Graphs consist of vertices (nodes) and edges (connections between nodes).
- Types of graphs:
  - Directed vs. Undirected
  - Weighted vs. Unweighted
- Graphs can be represented in various forms: adjacency matrices, adjacency lists, edge lists.
- Essential for modeling complex relationships and networks in computer science, engineering, and beyond.

# DFS in Matrix

- Depth-First Search (DFS) explores as far as possible along each branch before backtracking.
- In matrices, DFS can navigate through connected components, avoiding revisits to already explored cells.
- Used for problems like finding connected components, solving mazes, and other pathfinding algorithms.
- Time complexity is generally  $O(V + E)$  for graphs but tailored to  $O(n \times m)$  for matrices, where  $n$  and  $m$  are dimensions.

# BFS in Matrix

- Breadth-First Search (BFS) explores all neighbors of a vertex before going deeper.
- Ideal for finding the shortest path or the minimum number of steps in a grid or matrix representation.
- Utilizes a queue to keep track of the vertices to visit next.
- Time complexity for BFS is also tailored to matrices as  $O(n \times m)$ .

# Adjacency List Representation

- An efficient way to represent graphs, particularly sparse ones.
- Each vertex stores a list of its adjacent vertices, reducing space complexity compared to adjacency matrices.
- Facilitates faster lookups to find all neighbors of a vertex.
- DFS and BFS on adjacency lists have a time complexity of  $O(V + E)$ , reflecting the need to explore every vertex and edge.