

COMP20230: Data Structures & Algorithms

Lecture 16: Graphs (1)

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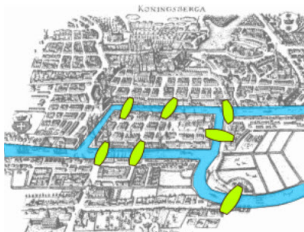
What is a graph?

- Definitions
- Graph ADT
- Array-based Representation
- Traversing a graph: DFS and BFS

Take home message

Like a Tree ADT, a graph is a *non-linear* data type but cycles and non-connected components are allowed.

Origin of Graphs



History

G. Boole pioneered the development of symbolic logic, and he introduced many of the basic set notations in a book published in 1854. Modern set theory was created by G. Cantor during the period 1874–1895. Cantor focused primarily on sets of infinite cardinality. The term “function” is attributed to G. W. Leibniz, who used it to refer to several kinds of mathematical formulas. His limited definition has been generalised many times. Graph theory originated in 1736, when L. Euler proved that it was impossible to cross each of the seven bridges in the city of Königsberg exactly once and return to the starting point.

A collection of vertices (nodes), joined together by edges.
No definite beginning or end.

Searching

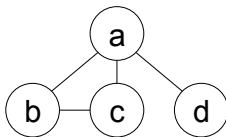
Many algorithms begin by searching (e.g. DFS, BFS) their input graph to obtain this structural information.

Representations of graphs

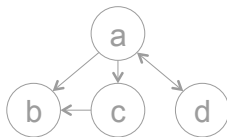
Two common methods: adjacency lists and adjacency matrices

The Graph ADT represents the mathematical concepts of:

- directed graph
- undirected graph (we will focus on this type today)



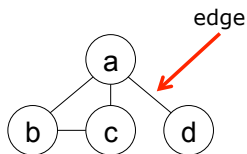
undirected graph



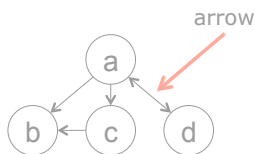
directed graph

Connections between vertices

- **undirected graph:** edges, arcs
- **directed graph:** arrows, directed edges, directed arcs



undirected graph



directed graph

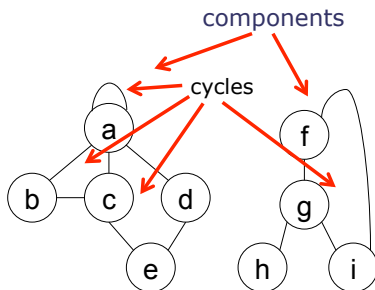
Graphs vs Trees

Unlike trees, graphs

can have cycles

can be composed of different components

Example undirected graph with cycles and components:

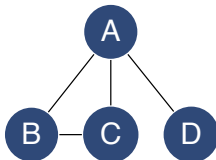


Operations of the Graph ADT

- `adjacent(G, x, y)`: tests whether there is an edge from the vertices x to y ;
- `neighbours(G, x)`: lists all vertices y such that there is an edge from the vertices x to y ;
- `add_vertex(G, x)`: adds the vertex x , if it is not there;
- `remove_vertex(G, x)`: removes the vertex x , if it is there;
- `add_edge(G, x, y)`: adds the edge from the vertices x to y , if it is not there;
- `remove_edge(G, x, y)`: removes the edge from the vertices x to y , if it is there;

`adjacent(G, x, y)`

`adjacent(G, b, c) = True`
`adjacent(G, c, d) = False`

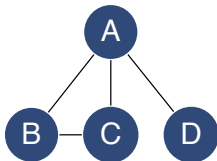


neighbours(G, x)

`neighbours(G, a) = {b, c, d}`

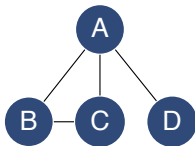
`neighbours(G, b) = {a, c}`

`neighbours(G, d) = {a}`

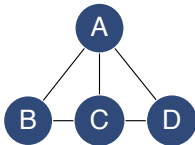


`add_edge(G, x, y)`

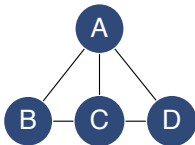
Original Graph:



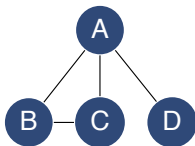
`add_edge(G, c, d)`



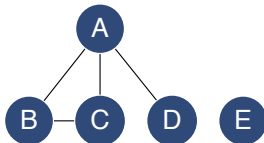
`add_edge(G, a, b)`



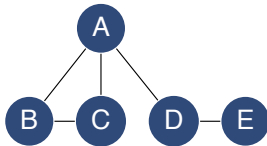
Original Graph:



add_vertex(G, e)

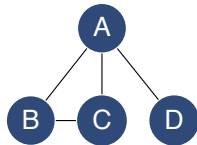


add_edge(G, d, e)

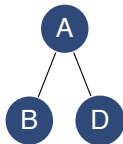


`remove_vertex(G, x)`

Original Graph:

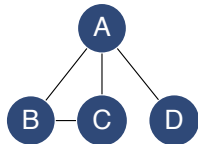


`remove_vertex(G, c)`

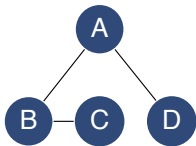


```
remove_edge(G, x, y)
```

Original Graph:



`remove_edge(G, a, c)`



Computational Representation of Graphs

Computational Representation of Graphs

How to convert the visualisation into a computer data structure.

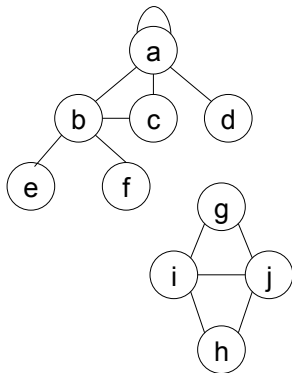
$G(V, E)$: Graphs are a function of their **Vertices** and **Edges**

(Again) data will dictate the best way to represent the graph

An **adjacency-list** provide a compact representation for sparse graphs, i.e. those for which $|E|$ is much less than $|V|^2$

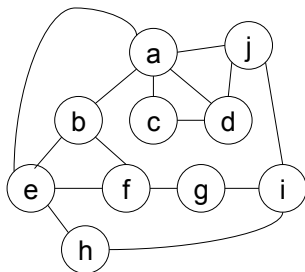
An **adjacency-matrix** is better when a graph is dense, i.e. $|E|$ is close to $|V|^2$

Adjacency List Example



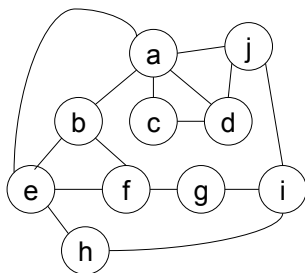
a	a, b, c, d
b	a, c, e, f
c	a, b
d	a
e	b
f	b
g	i, j
h	i, j
i	g, h, j
j	g, h, i

Adjacency List Exercise



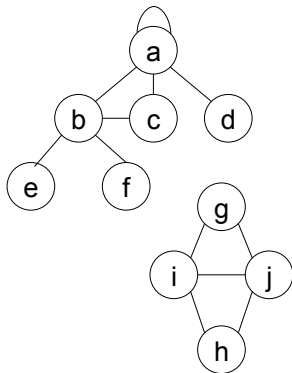
a	
b	
c	
d	
e	
f	
g	
h	
i	
j	

Adjacency List Exercise



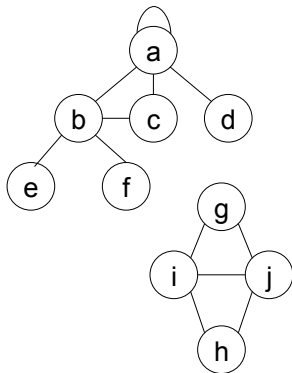
a	b, c, d, e, j
b	a, e, f
c	a, d, f
d	a, c, j
e	a, b, f, h
f	b, c, e, g
g	f, i
h	e, i
i	g, h, j
j	a, d, i

Adjacency Matrix Example



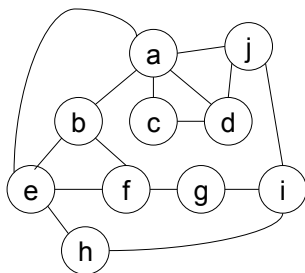
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j
a	1	1	1	1						
b	1		1		1	1				
c	1	1								
d	1									
e		1								
f		1								
g									1	1
h									1	1
i							1	1		1
j							1	1	1	

Adjacency Matrix Example – Note Symmetry



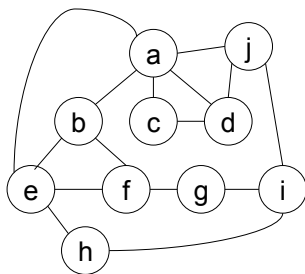
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j
a	1	1	1	1						
b		1	1		1	1				
c			1							
d				1						
e					1					
f						1				
g							1		1	1
h								1	1	1
i									1	1
j										1

Adjacency Matrix Exercise



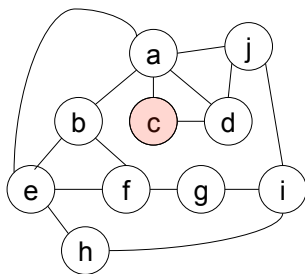
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j
a										
b										
c										
d										
e										
f										
g										
h										
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Adjacency Matrix Exercise



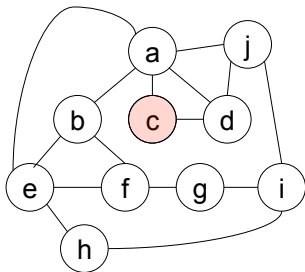
	a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j
a		1	1	1	1					1
b	1				1	1				
c	1			1						
d	1		1							1
e	1	1				1		1		
f		1			1		1			
g						1			1	
h					1				1	
i							1	1		1
j	1			1					1	

Depth First Search



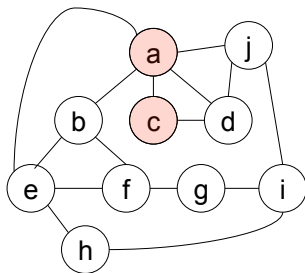
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Depth First Search



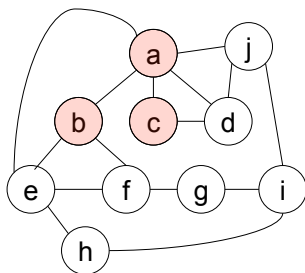
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Depth First Search



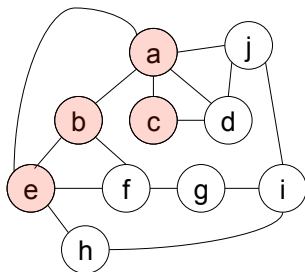
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Depth First Search



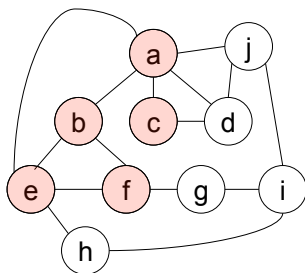
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Depth First Search



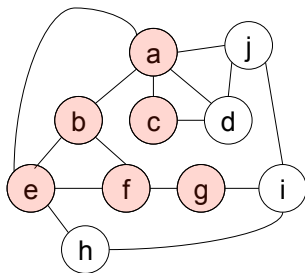
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Depth First Search



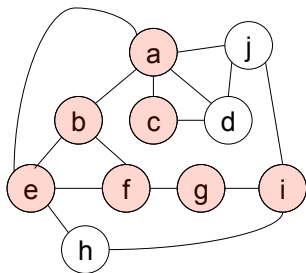
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Depth First Search



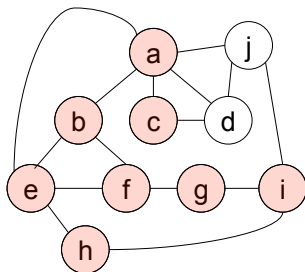
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Depth First Search



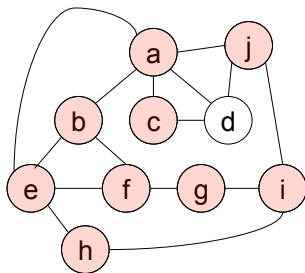
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Depth First Search



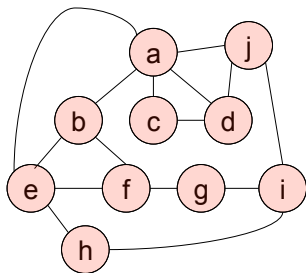
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g	f, i
h	e, i
i	g, h, j
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Depth First Search



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d	a, c, j
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Depth First Search



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c	a, d
d	a, c, j
e	a, b, f, h
f	b, e, g
g	f, i
h	e, i
i	g, h, j
j	a, d, i

Depth First Search (non-recursive)

Algorithm dfs:

Input: a Graph g and a node n

Output: the procedure explores every node starting from n

$to_visit \leftarrow$ empty stack

add n to to_visit

$visited \leftarrow$ empty sequence (?)

while to_visit is not empty do

$current \leftarrow$ pop to_visit # get the first element

 push all neighbours of $current$ (not in $visited$)
 to to_visit

 do something on $current$

endfor

Depth First Search (recursive)

Algorithm dfs:

Input: a Graph g and a node n

Output: the function explores every node from n
flag n as visited

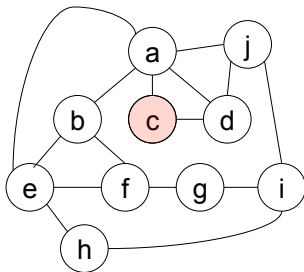
do something

for each neighbour n_c of n which is not visited do
 dfs(n_c)

endfor

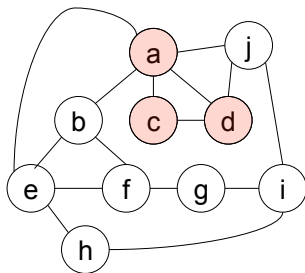
Compare the traversal (search) algorithms for graphs to those for trees. Starting point needs to be chosen for graph as there is no root node but otherwise similar.

Breadth First Search



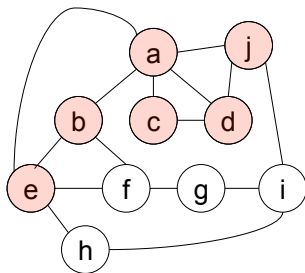
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h	e, i
i	g, h, j
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Breadth First Search



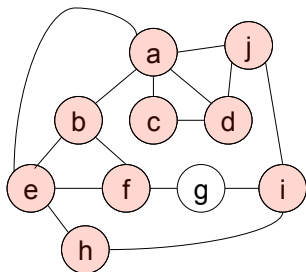
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Breadth First Search



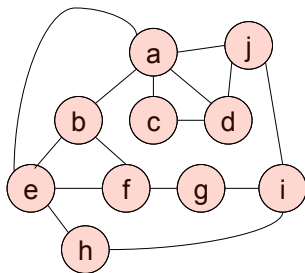
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Breadth First Search



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Breadth First Search



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d	a, c, j
e	a, b, f, h
f	b, e, g
g	f, i
h	e, i
i	g, h, j
j	a, d, i

Breadth First Search (non-recursive)

Algorithm bfs:

Input: a Graph g and a node n

Output: the procedure explores every node of g from n

to_visit is a queue

enqueue n

visited is a sequence (?)

while to_visit is not empty do

$n_{\text{current}} \leftarrow \text{dequeue to_visit}$

 add n_{current} to visited

 for each neighbour n_c of n_{current} that is not
visited do

 enqueue n_c to to_visit

 endfor

 do something on n_{current}

endwhile

Breadth First Search (recursive)

Algorithm bfs:

Input: a Graph g a queue q (originally having a starting node)

Output: explores every node from the starting node

if q is empty then # base case

do something (?)

else

current \leftarrow dequeue q

flag current as visited

for each neighbour n_c of current not visited do

enqueue n_c

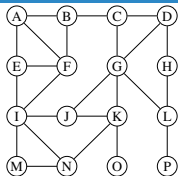
endfor

do something

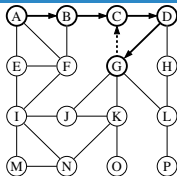
bfs(q)

endif

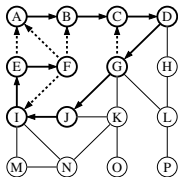
DFS example



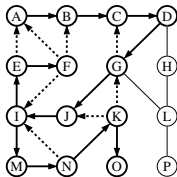
(a)



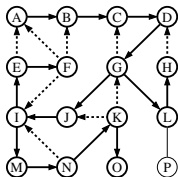
(b)



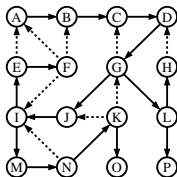
(c)



(d)



(e)



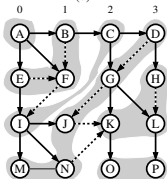
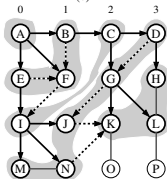
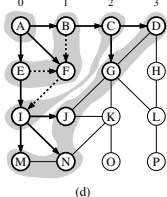
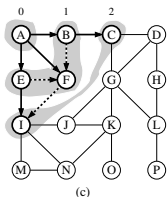
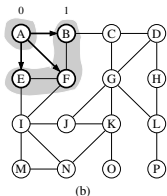
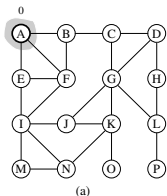
(f)

Example from Goodrich of DFS traversal

Undirected graph starting at vertex A. We assume that a vertex's adjacencies are considered in alphabetical order.

Visited vertices and explored edges are highlighted, with discovery edges drawn as solid lines and nontree (back) edges as dashed lines: (a) input graph; (b) path of tree edges, traced from A until back edge (G,C) is examined; (c) reaching F, which is a dead end; (d) after backtracking to I, resuming with edge (I,M), and hitting another dead end at O; (e) after backtracking to G, continuing with edge (G,L), and hitting another dead end at H; (f) final result.

BFS example



Example from Goodrich of BFS traversal

The edges incident to a vertex are considered in alphabetical order of the adjacent vertices. The discovery edges are shown with solid lines and the nontree (cross) edges are shown with dashed lines: (a) starting the search at A; (b) discovery of level 1; (c) discovery of level 2; (d) discovery of level 3; (e) discovery of level 4; (f) discovery of level 5.

Question

Why might you choose a DFS rather than a BFS or vice-versa?

Can you think of an examples to explain your answer?

You will find a lot of answers if you Google it so have a think about it first!

Graph ADT is similar to Tree ADT but cycles and non-connected components allowed

- **Two array based representations:** adjacency list and adjacency matrix
- **Traversal methods:** DFS and BFS

Next: Weighted Graphs, but first an aside...

Remember trying to work out the order for brushing your teeth or inflating a tyre?

Directed Graph Topological Sort Example

See page 613 of Cormen for more detail if interested.

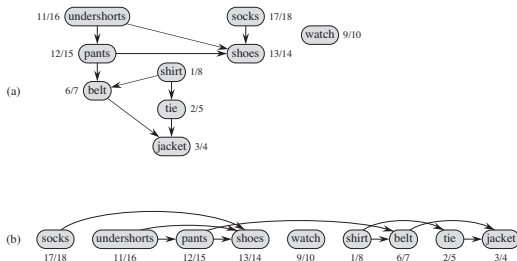


Figure 22.7 (a) Professor Bumstead topologically sorts his clothing when getting dressed. Each directed edge (u, v) means that garment u must be put on before garment v . The discovery and finishing times from a depth-first search are shown next to each vertex. (b) The same graph shown topologically sorted, with its vertices arranged from left to right in order of decreasing finishing time. All directed edges go from left to right.