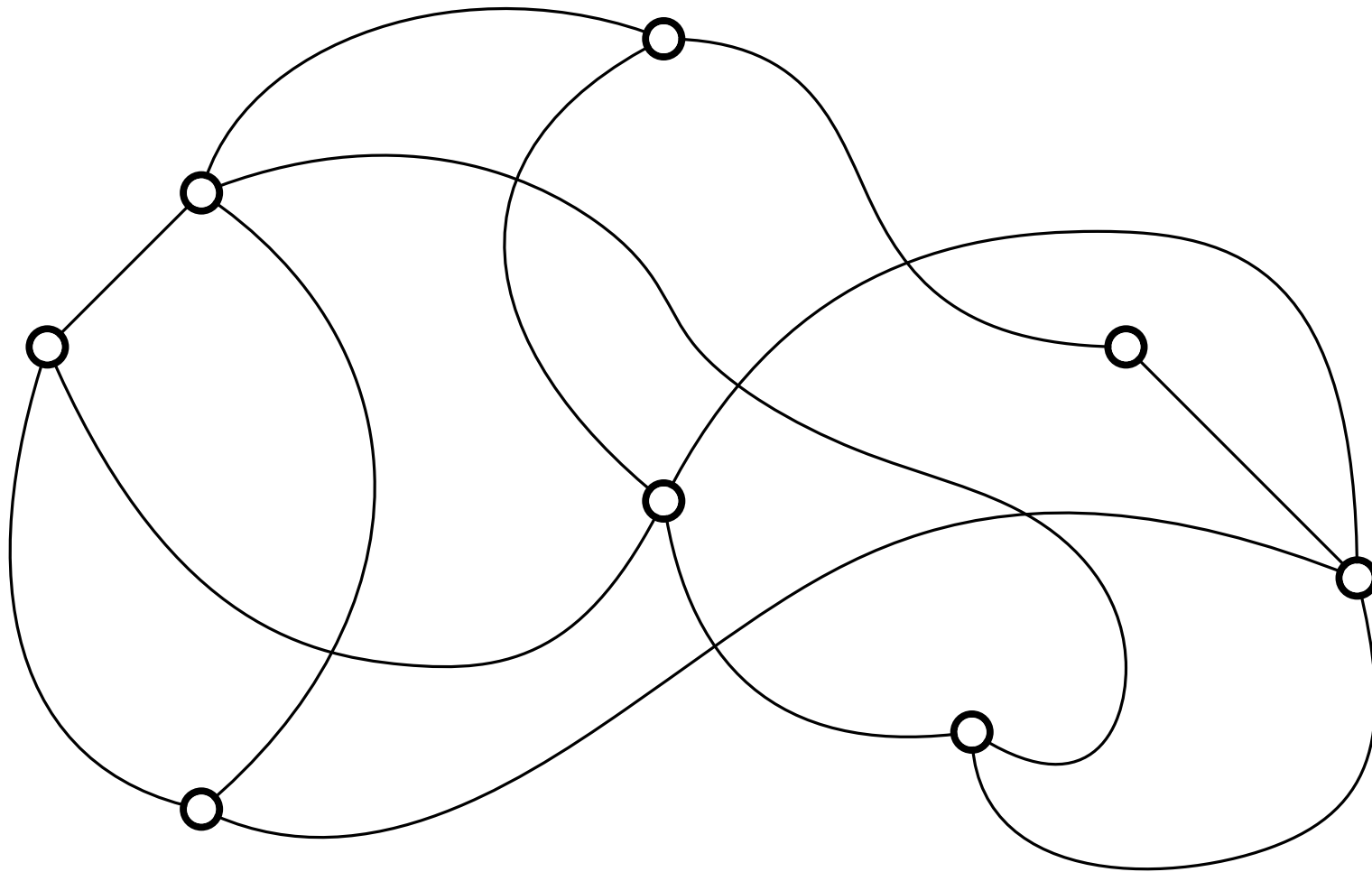


Basic Graph Theory

Birgit Vogtenhuber

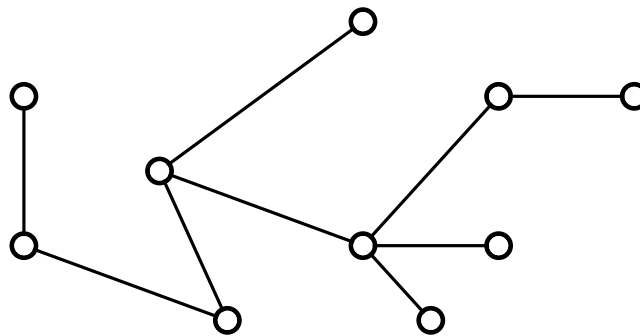


Graphs?



Why Graphs?

- Graphs are a versatile data structure
- Graph-related algorithms are rather important in algorithm theory and applications
- Many computational problems can be formulated efficiently in terms of graphs, see for example optimization problems.



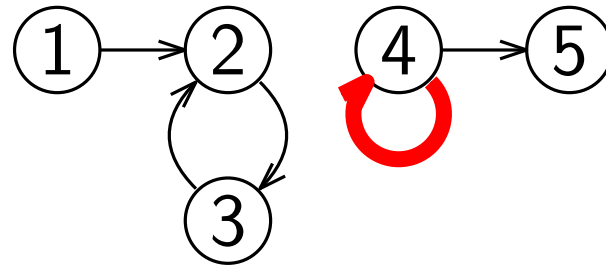
Overview

- Basic graph terminology
- Different ways to store graphs
- Some simple graph algorithms
- Planar graphs and plane drawings

Basic Terminology

- **Directed graph** $G = (V, E)$:
 V is the set of vertices and
 E is the set of edges: $E \subseteq V \times V$
edge (u, v) : ordered pair of vertices,
 $u = \text{startpoint}$, $v = \text{endpoint}$

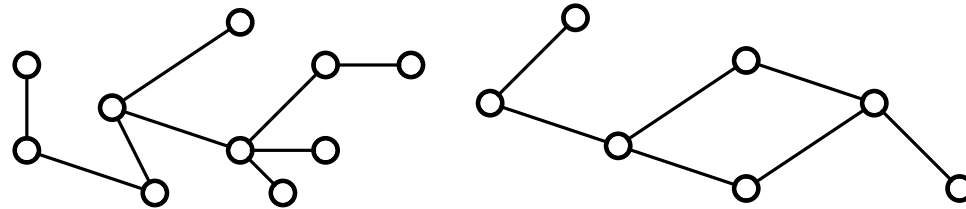
Example: $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$,
 $E = \{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 2), (4, 5), (4, 4)\}$



- A **loop** at a vertex $v \in V$ is an edge (v, v)
- A directed Graph is called **simple** if it has no loops

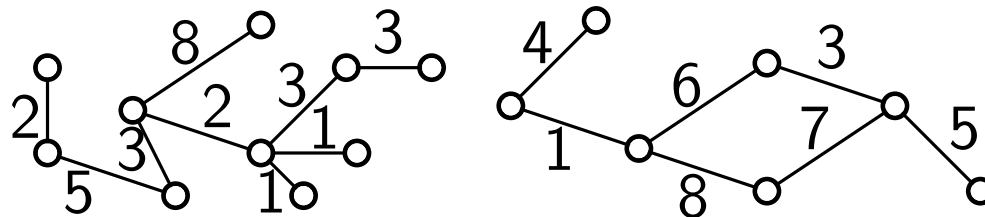
Basic Terminology

- **Undirected graph:** like a simple directed graph where E is symmetric, that is, $(v, w) \in E \Leftrightarrow (w, v) \in E$



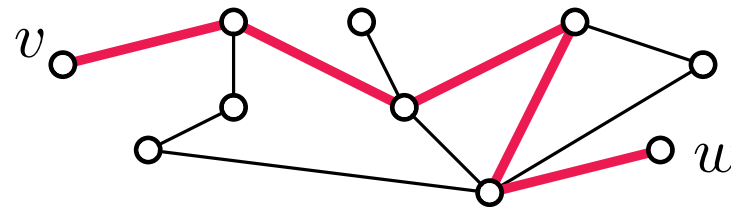
$\Leftrightarrow E$ is a set of unordered pairs (v, w) with $v \neq w \in V$

- A (directed or undirected) **weighted graph** is a triple $G = (V, E, g)$ where g assigns a weight to each edge



Basic Terminology

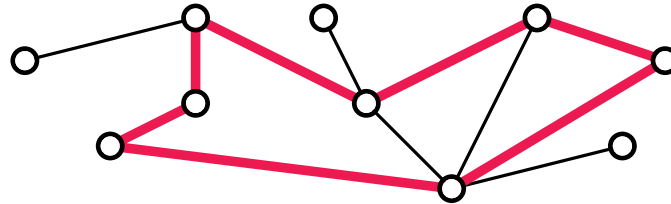
- A **path** in $G = (V, E)$ from v to w is a sequence of vertices $v = v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k = w \in V$ with edges $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ for all $0 \leq i < k$

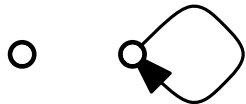
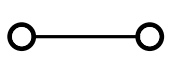


- **Simple** path: contains every vertex in V at most once
- **Length** of a path: number of its edges (v_i, v_{i+1})
length in *weighted graphs*: sum of the edge weights
- **Distance** $d_G(v, w)$ from v to w : length of the *shortest path* from v to w in G (or ∞ if no such path exists)

Basic Terminology

- A **cycle** in $G = (V, E)$ is a path v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k with $v_0 = v_k$



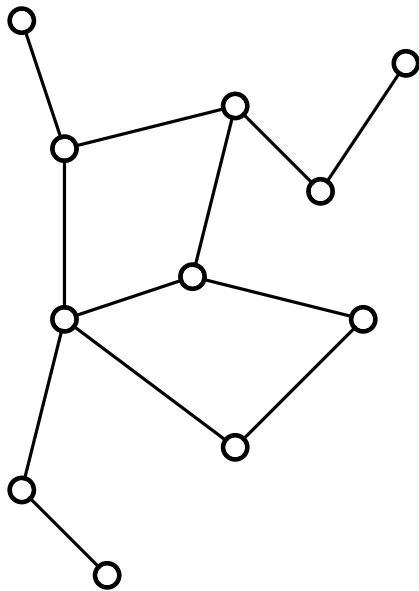
- **Simple** cycle: contains every vertex in V at most once, except for $v_0 = v_k$
- **Length** of a cycle: number of its edges (v_i, v_{i+1})
length in *weighted graphs*: sum of the edge weights
- **Trivial** cycle: contains only one vertex: 
or two for undirected graphs: 

Basic Terminology

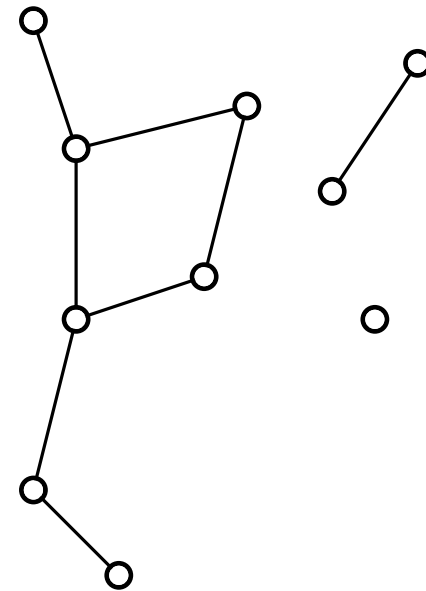
- A **subgraph** $G' = (E', V')$ of $G = (E, V)$ is a graph with $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$. Note that for every edge $(u', v') \in E'$ we must have $u', v' \in V'$.

Example :

Graph G



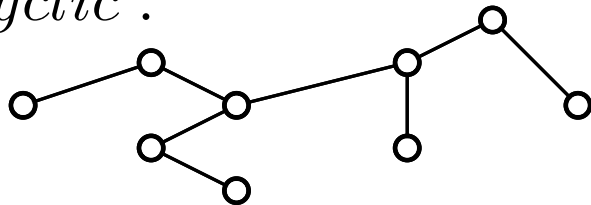
Subgraph G'



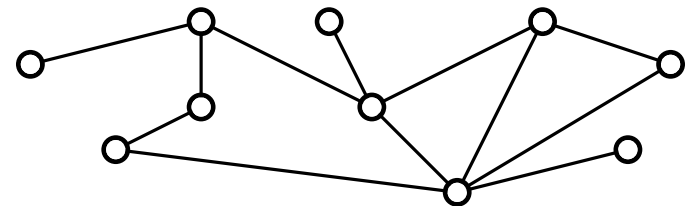
Basic Terminology

- A graph is **acyclic** if it does not contain any subgraph that is a non-trivial simple cycle

acyclic :

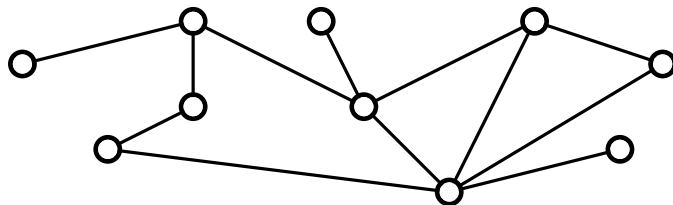


not acyclic :

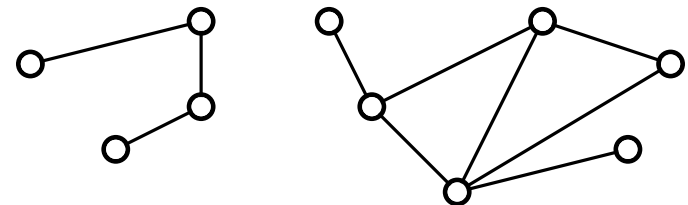


- A graph is **connected** if it contains a path from v to w for every pair $v, w \in V$ (not necessarily an edge (v, w))

connected :

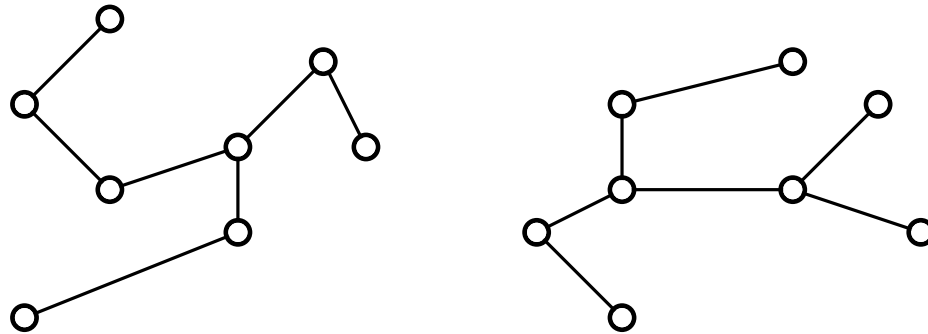


disconnected :

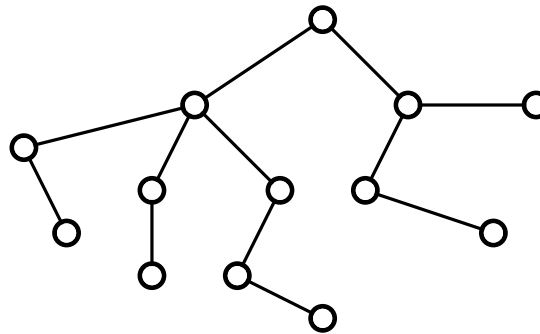


Basic Terminology

- An undirected graph is a **forest** if it is acyclic



- An undirected graph is a **tree** if it is acyclic and connected



Basic Terminology

Degrees of vertices in a graph $G = (V, E)$:

- The **in-degree (out-degree)** of a vertex $v \in V$ is the number of edges ending (starting) in v :

$$\text{in-degree}(v) := |\{w \mid (w, v) \in E\}|$$

$$\text{out-degree}(v) := |\{w \mid (v, w) \in E\}|$$

- For undirected graphs we have

$$\text{in-degree}(v) = \text{out-degree}(v) \quad \forall v \in V.$$

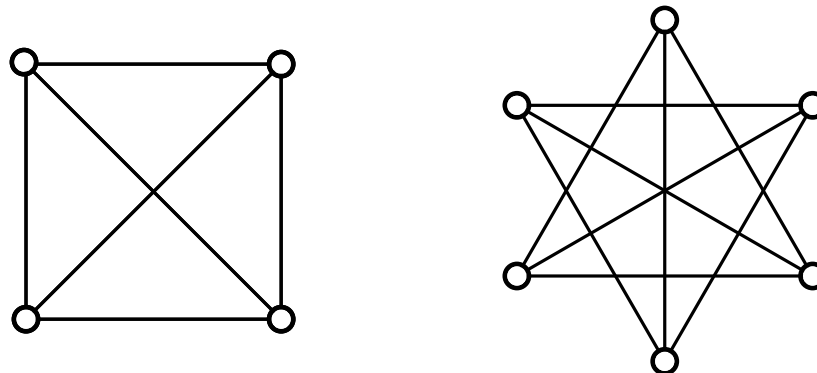
In this case it is called the **degree** of the vertex v .

Basic Terminology

Degrees of vertices in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$:

- degree $(v) = 0$: v is called an **isolated vertex** of G
- degree $(v) = 1$: v is called a **leaf** (end vertex) of G
- degree $(v) = r \quad \forall v \in V$: The graph G is called a **regular graph** of degree r

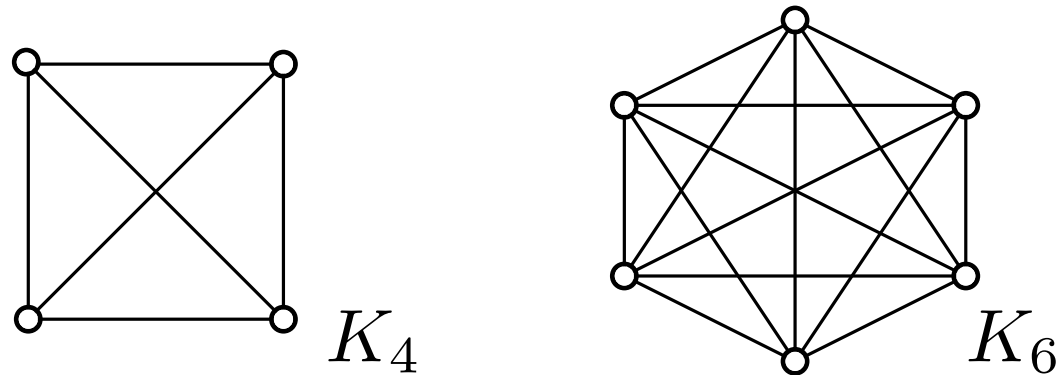
Example: regular graph(s) of degree 3



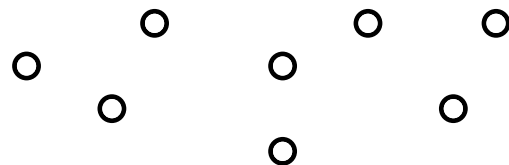
Basic Terminology

Degrees of vertices in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$:

- An undirected **complete graph** on n vertices contains all $\binom{n}{2}$ possible edges (regular of degree $n - 1$)



- An **empty graph** has no edges (regular of degree 0)



How to Store a Graph?

- **Size** of a graph $G = (V, E)$:
 - Number of vertices: $n = |V|$
 - Number of edges: $m = |E|$, $0 \leq m \leq n^2$

⇒ In total: size $\Theta(n + m)$

⇒ **Analysis** needs two parameters !
- We distinguish between
 - **dense** graphs: $m \approx n^2$, for example complete graphs
 - **sparse** graphs: $m \ll n^2$, for ex. trees ($m = n - 1$) or hypercubes ($m = \frac{d}{2} \cdot n = O(n \log n)$, where d is the dimension of the hypercube)

How to Store a Graph?

Adjacency-matrix: Matrix $A[1 \dots n, 1 \dots n]$ with

$$A[i, j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

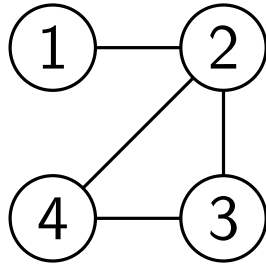
- Memory: $\Theta(n^2)$
- convenient for dense graphs
- test for existence of an edge in $\Theta(1)$ time

Adjacency-List: Array $F[1 \dots n]$ with pointers, $F[i]$ points to a linear list with all vertices that are incident to the i^{th} vertex

- Memory: $\Theta(n + m)$
- test for existence of an edge in $\Omega(1), O(n)$ time

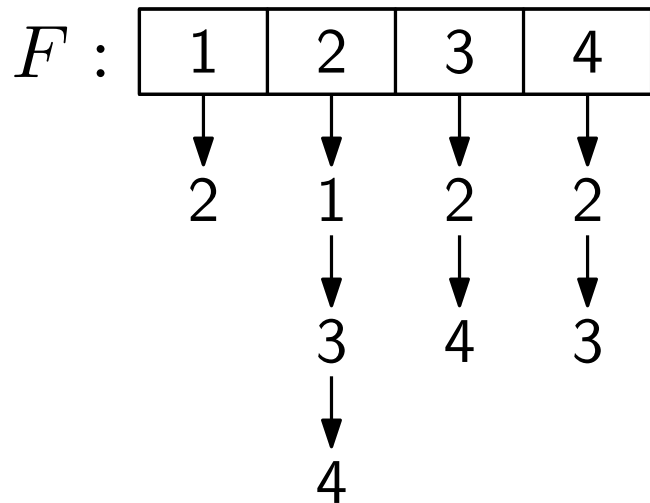
How to Store a Graph?

A small example:



$$A = \begin{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

↑ symmetric if graph is undirected



← 1 Entry for every node,
 $\Theta(n + m)$ memory for all edges.
The k neighbours of a node can
be obtained in $\Theta(k)$ time.

Searching in Graphs

- Known from Data Structures and Algorithms 1:
 - Searching in binary trees
 - “Walking” through a binary tree:
 - in-order (symmetrische Reihenfolge)
 - pre-order (Hauptreihenfolge)
 - post-order (Nebenreihenfolge)
- Searching in general graphs:
 - Breadth-first search (BFS):
search closeby vertices first
 - Depth-first search (DFS)
search one branch first

Breadth First Search - BFS

Given: connected graph $G = (V, E)$, startnode $s \in V$

Idea: Starting from s , search in all directions uniformly

- visit vertices u with distance $d_G(s, u) = 1$, then with $d_G(s, u) = 2$, and so on.
- traverse a *BFS-tree* T with root s :
branches of T consist of shortest paths to s .
- to build T , assign the following values to each vertex u :
 $pre(u)$ predecessor of u in the BFS-Tree T
 $state(u)$ new (unvisited), labelled (visited),
saturated (all neighbours visited)
- store visited unsaturated vertices in a **queue** Q
- initially: Q empty, $pre(u)$ not set, $state(u) = \text{new}$

BFS Algorithm: Pseudo-Code

```
BFS( $G, s$ )    /*  $G$  given as adjacency list  $F$  */  
for all  $u \in V$   
    state( $u$ )=new  
state( $s$ )=labelled  
num( $s$ )=1;  $i = 2$ ; pre( $s$ )=nil  
PUT( $Q, s$ )  
while  $Q \neq 0$   
    GET( $Q, u$ )  
    for all  $v \in F[u]$     /* testing all neighbors of  $u$  */  
        if state( $v$ )==new  
            state( $v$ )=labelled; num( $v$ )= $i$   
            pre( $v$ )= $u$ ; PUT( $Q, v$ );  $i = i + 1$   
state( $u$ )=saturated
```

BFS Algorithm: Analysis

Runtime:

- Each vertex is inserted into Q exactly once:
 $\Theta(1)$ time per vertex $\Rightarrow \Theta(n)$ for all vertices
- After removal of a vertex u from Q , the algorithm goes through the adjacency-list of u :
 $\Theta(\text{degree}(u))$ time for $u \Rightarrow$ How much for all vertices?

Every edge contributes to exactly two lists

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{u \in V} \text{degree}(u) = 2m \quad \Rightarrow \Theta(m) \text{ for all vertices}$$

\Rightarrow The whole algorithm: $\Theta(n + m)$ time in total

Memory: $\Theta(n)$ for Q , +graph $\Rightarrow \Theta(n + m)$ space in total

\Rightarrow Runtime and memory **linear in the size of G**

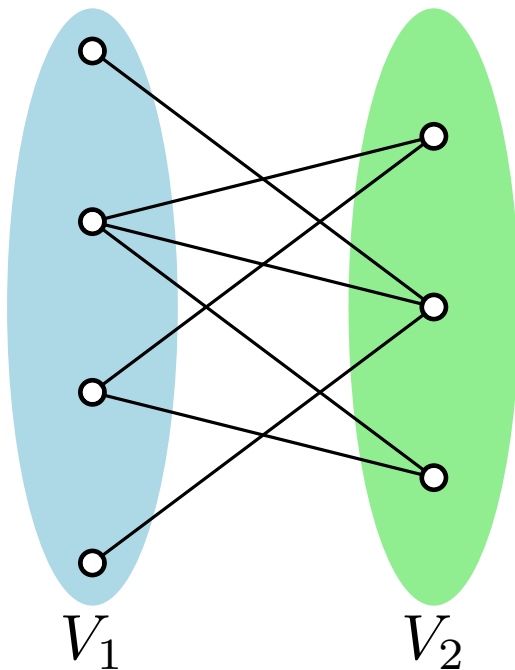
All Distances in an Unweighted Graph

Question: How can one compute all distances between pairs of vertices in an unweighted graph G ?

- All the shortest paths from some vertex u to s are coded in the BFS-tree T via the pre-pointers.
 - distances to s can be easily computed during BFS:
 - $d_G(s, s) = 0$
 - $d_G(s, u) = d_G(s, \text{pre}(u)) + 1$
- ⇒ Running BFS for n times (once for each vertex), one can compute the distances between any $u, v \in V$
- ⇒ The *distance-matrix* of G can be computed in $\Theta(n \cdot m)$ time and $\Theta(n^2)$ space if G is connected.
- ? What if G is disconnected?

Bipartite Graphs

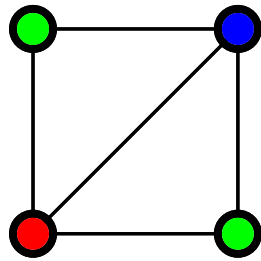
A graph $G(V, E)$ is called **bipartite**, if there exists a partition of V into V_1, V_2 such that all $(u, v) \in E$ have one endpoint in V_1 and the other one in V_2 .



In other words:
 G contains no edges within V_1 or V_2

k -Colorability of a Graph

A graph $G(V, E)$ is called **k -colorable** if its nodes can be colored with $\leq k$ colors, so that no nodes of the same color share an edge.

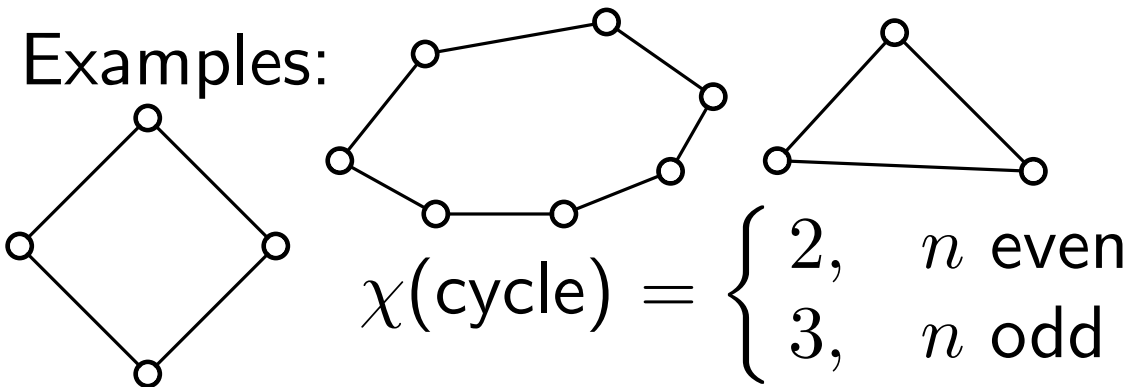


Example: How many colors are needed?

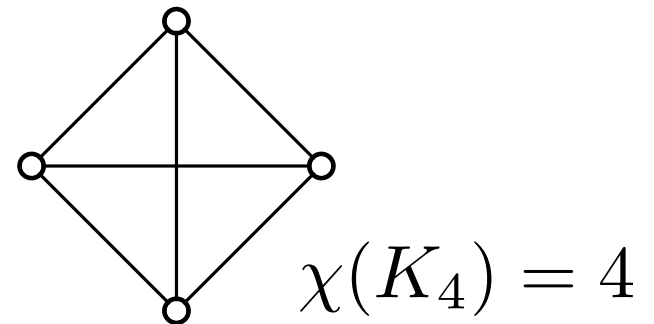
$k = 3$ colors are enough

The **chromatic number** $\chi(G)$ (spoken 'Chi of G ') of a graph G is the minimum k such that G is k -colorable.

Examples:



$$\chi(\text{cycle}) = \begin{cases} 2, & n \text{ even} \\ 3, & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$



$$\chi(K_4) = 4$$

Recognizing Bipartite Graphs

Question: How to determine whether a graph is bipartite?

Observation: A graph G is 2-colorable $\Leftrightarrow G$ is bipartite

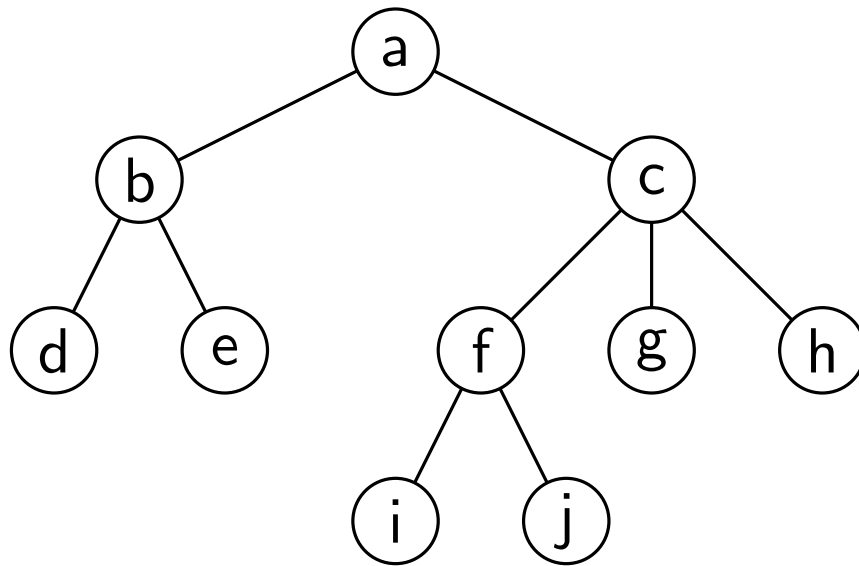
Algorithm:

- Choose arbitrary vertex s and color it blue
- Traverse G in BFS-Order, starting from s
- For each vertex u that is removed from the queue Q :
 - u is colored, w.l.o.g. say red
 - check for all colored neighbors of u that they are blue. If no: return false
 - color all uncolored neighbors of u in blue
- After processing all vertices: return true.

Questions: Correctness? Runtime & Memory?

Depth First Search - DFS

- **Idea:**
DFS explores the graph, starting at the last visited vertex having unvisited neighbors.
- **Special case:** G is a tree \Rightarrow DFS-Order = pre-order



- Maintain Stack ST that contains all visited but not yet saturated nodes.
- Rest similar to BFS

Question: What is the pre-order for this tree?

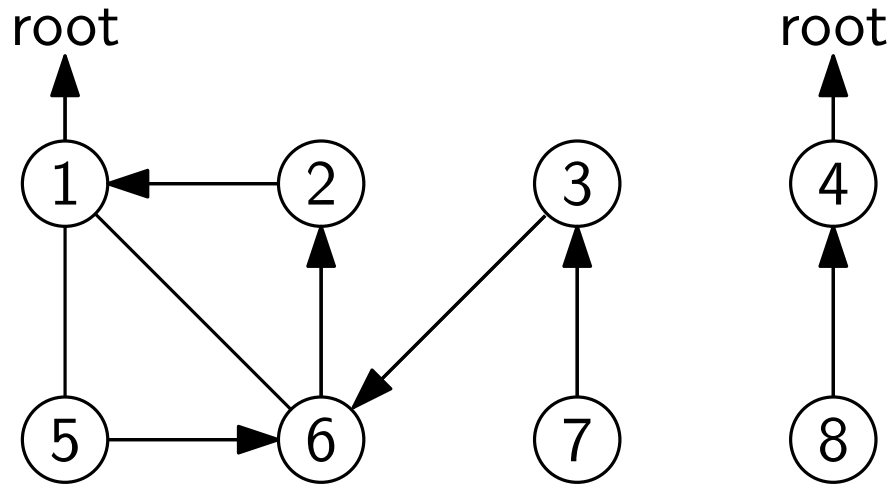
a b d e c f i j g h

DFS Algorithm: Pseudo-Code

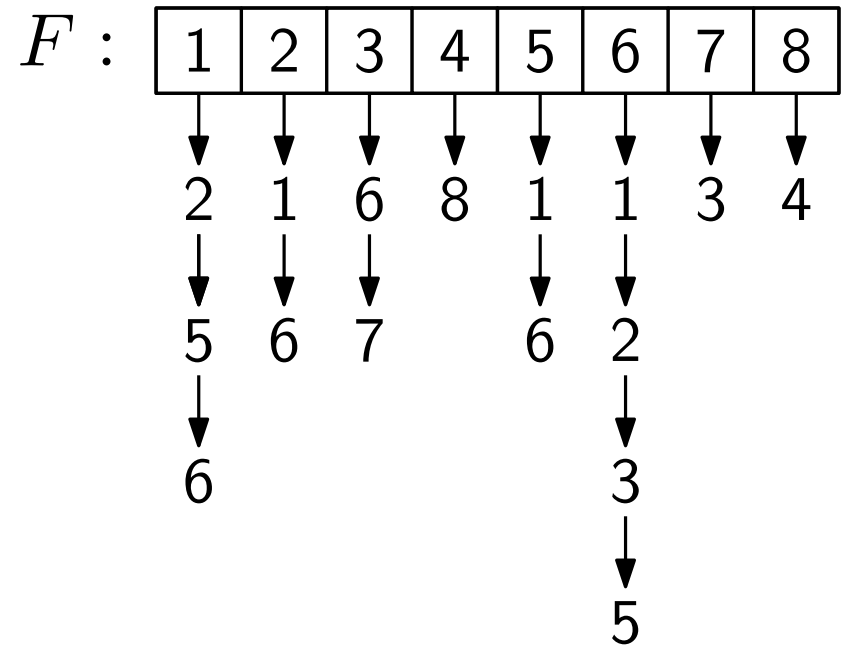
```
DFS( $G$ )      /*  $G$  given as adjacency list  $F$  */  
for all  $u \in V$   
    state( $u$ )=new  
    pre( $u$ )=nil  
for all  $u \in V$       /* loop not necessary for connected graphs */  
    if state( $u$ )==new  
        DEPTH( $u$ )  
  
DEPTH( $u$ )  
state( $u$ )=visited; write( $u$ )  
for all  $v \in F[u]$       /* test all neighbors of  $u$  */  
    if state( $v$ )==new  
        pre( $v$ )= $u$   
        DEPTH( $v$ )      ← recursion can be replaced by stack  
state( $u$ )=saturated
```

DFS Algorithm: Example

Example:

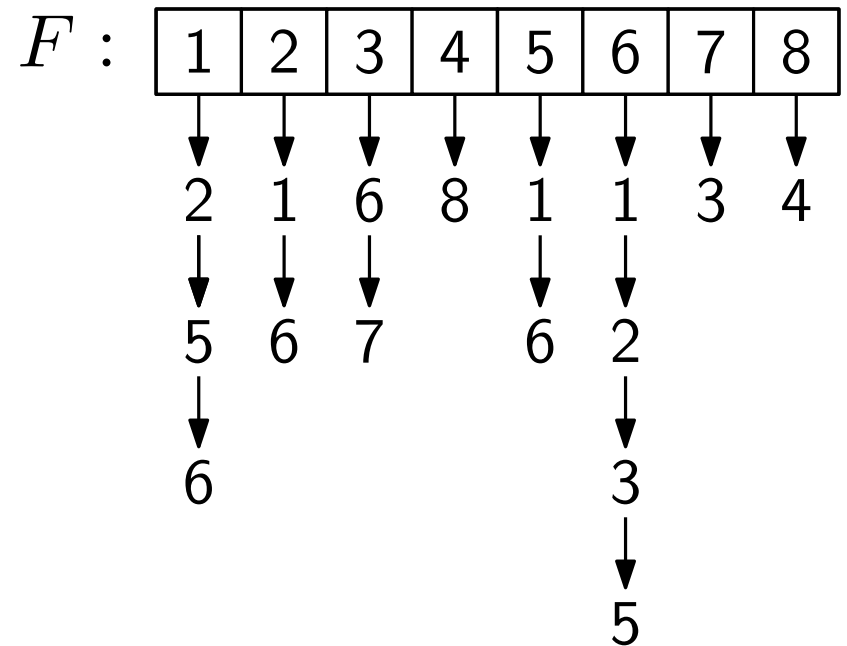
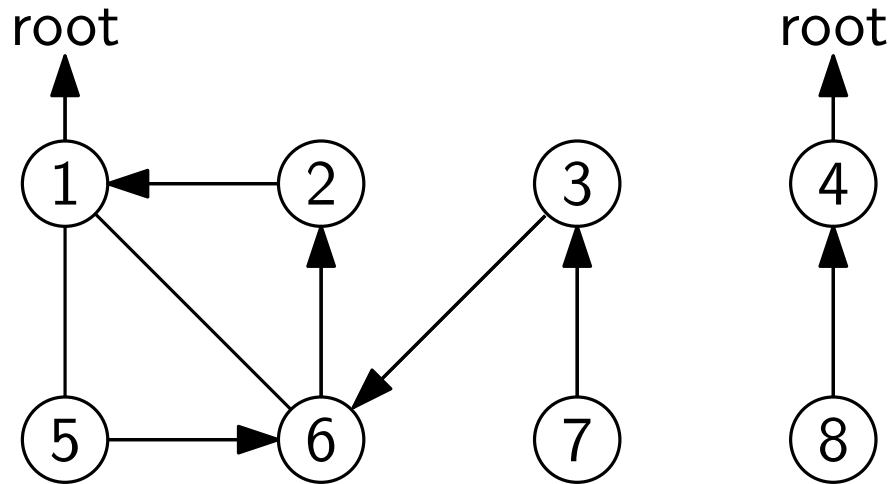


arrows point to predecessors



DFS Algorithm: Example

Example:



Further Observations:

- The pre-pointers form a set of trees (DFS-forest);
- every call of DEPTH in the main programm (not in the recursion) results in a new root and tree.
- For connected graphs there is only one root and tree.

DFS Algorithm: Analysis

Runtime Analysis:

- DEPTH is called exactly once per node (only for new nodes, that are immediately marked as "visited").
- A call of $\text{DEPTH}(v)$ takes $O(\text{degree}(v))$ time

$\Rightarrow \Theta(n + m)$ time in total

Space: $\Theta(n + m)$ space in total

Correctness:

- vertex that is set to visited:
 - put on stack
 - when removed from stack, all neighbors are considered

\Rightarrow every vertex set to visited exactly once

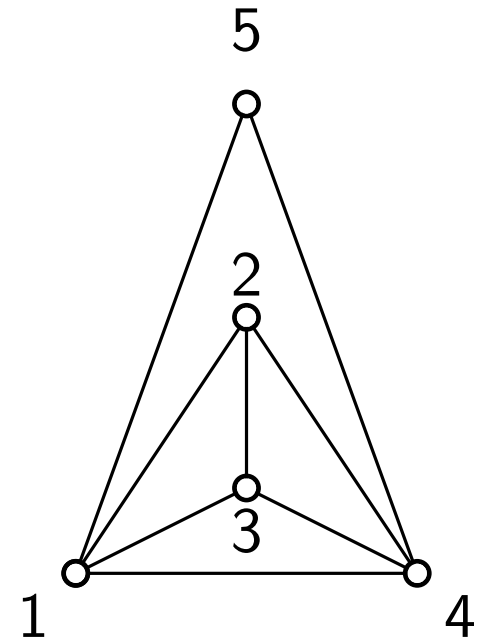
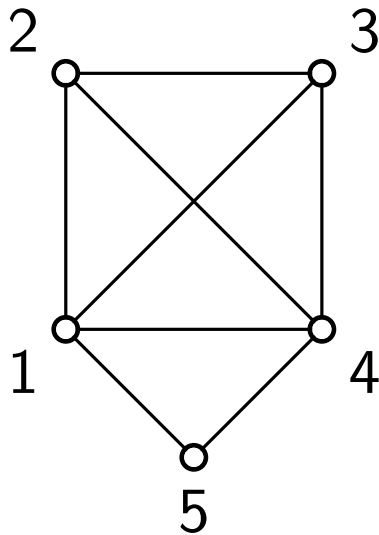
Next

Planar and Plane Graphs:
Definition, Recognition, Properties

Isomorphic Graphs

Two graphs $G = (V, E)$ and $G' = (V', E')$ are called **isomorphic** if there exists a bijection $\phi : V \rightarrow V'$, so that $(v, w) \in E \Leftrightarrow (\phi(v), \phi(w)) \in E'$

Example:



Planar Graphs

Definition 1:

A graph $G = (V, E)$ is called **planar** if there exists an injective mapping of V to $n = |V|$ distinct points in the Euclidian plane and a mapping of E to pairwise disjoint open curves in the Euclidian plane, so that:

1. $e = (x_i, x_j) \Rightarrow$ curve (e) connects point (x_i) with point (x_j)
2. $e = (x_i, x_j) \Rightarrow$ curve (e) does not contain any other point $(x_k), k \neq i, j$

Definition 2:

A graph is called **planar** if it can be drawn in the plane without intersections between its edges (except in endpoints).

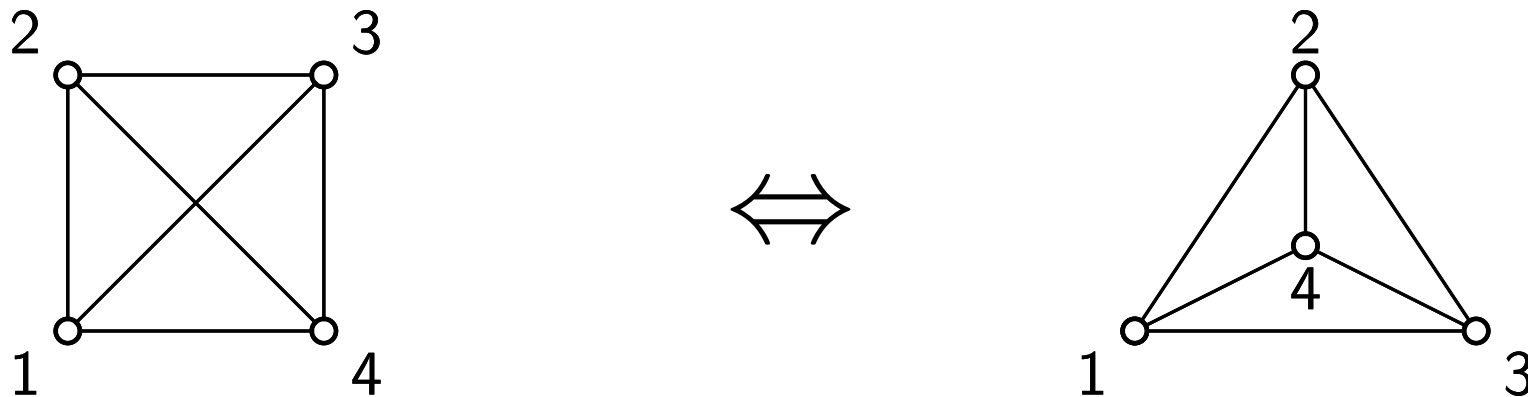
Plane & Embeddable Drawings

A drawing of a graph is called **plane** if it is free of intersections.

A non-plane drawing of a graph is called **embeddable** if it is isomorphic to a planar graph.

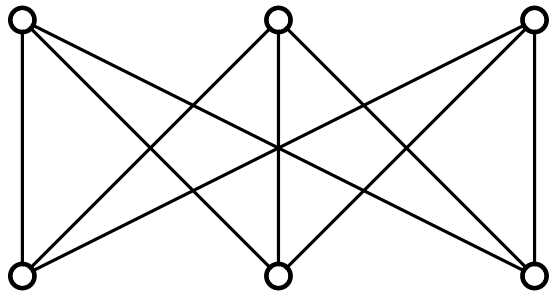
A **plane graph** is a plane drawing of a planar graph.

Example of an embeddable / plane drawing:

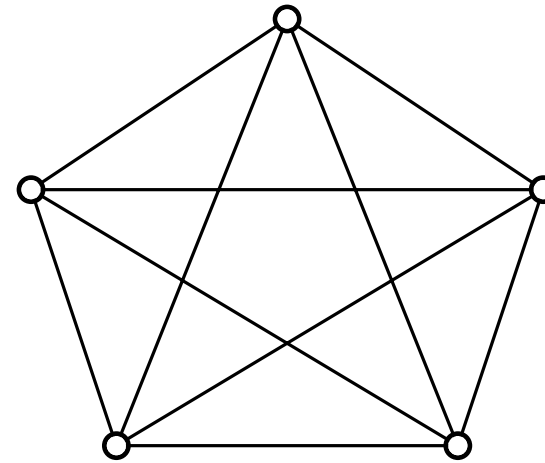


Recognizing Planar Graphs

Examples of non-embeddable drawings:

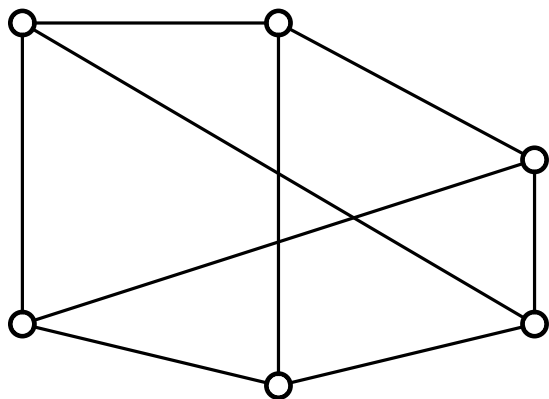


$K_{3,3}$

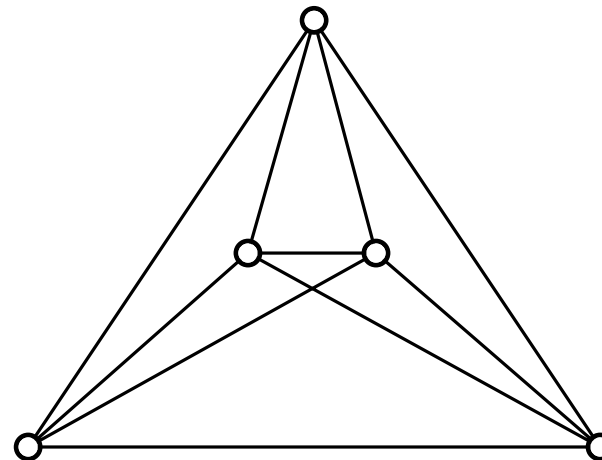


K_5

Non-embeddable drawing \Leftrightarrow drawing of a non-planar graph



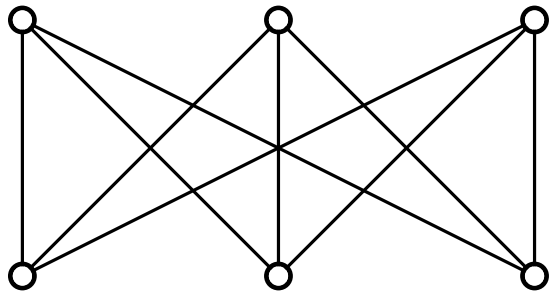
$K_{3,3}$



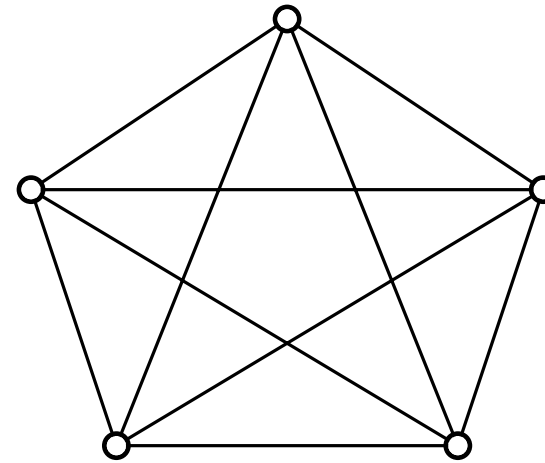
K_5

Recognizing Planar Graphs

Examples of non-embeddable drawings:

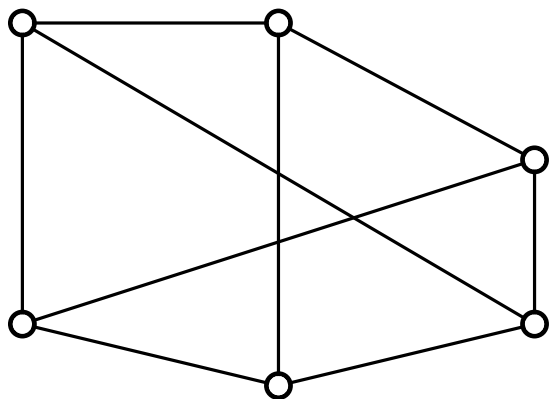


$K_{3,3}$

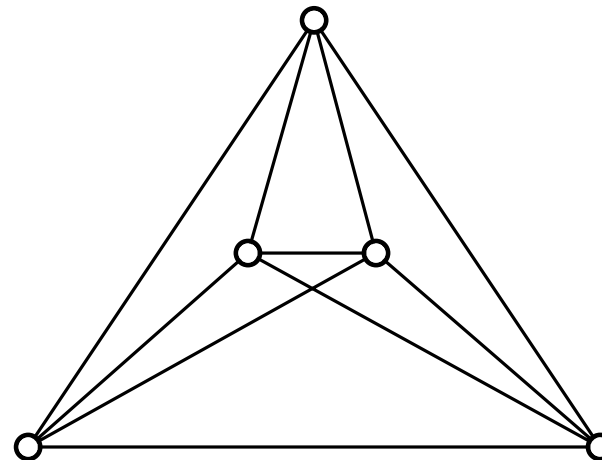


K_5

Embeddable drawing \Leftrightarrow drawing of a planar graph



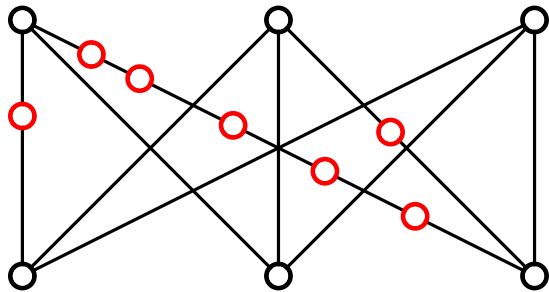
$K_{3,3}$



K_5

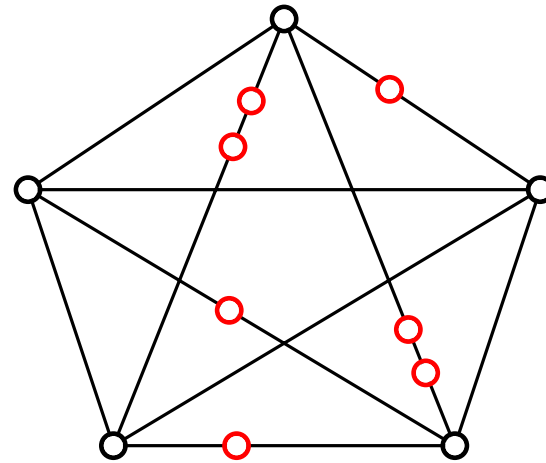
Recognizing Planar Graphs

embeddability is invariant under
subdivision of edges



$K_{3,3}$

additional vertices: degree 2

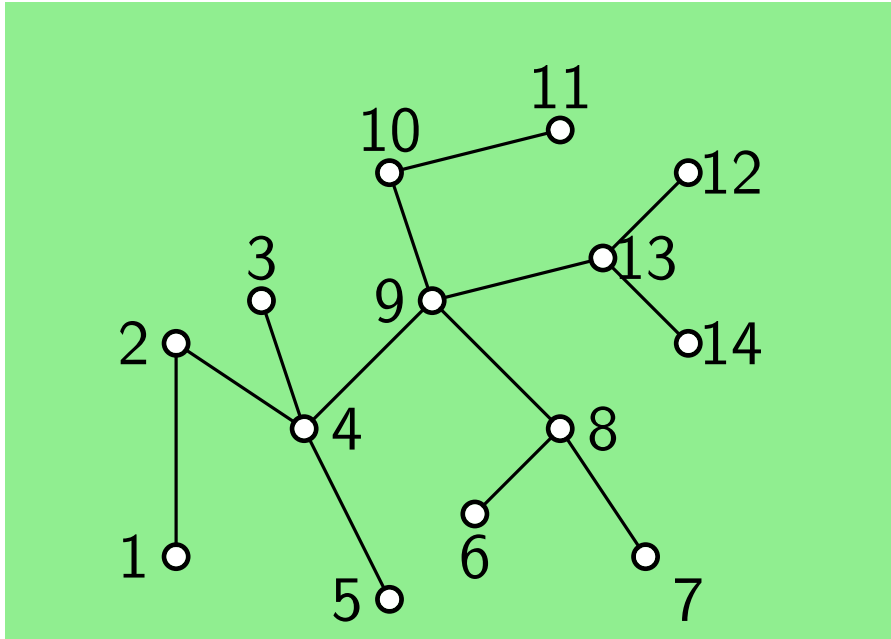


K_5

Kuratowski's Theorem: A graph G is planar if and only if it does not contain a subgraph G' that is isomorphic to a *subdivision* of $K_{3,3}$ or K_5 , respectively. [without proof]

Subdivision of a graph G : some vertices are added “on edges” of G (some edges of G replaced by paths)

Planar Graphs: Examples



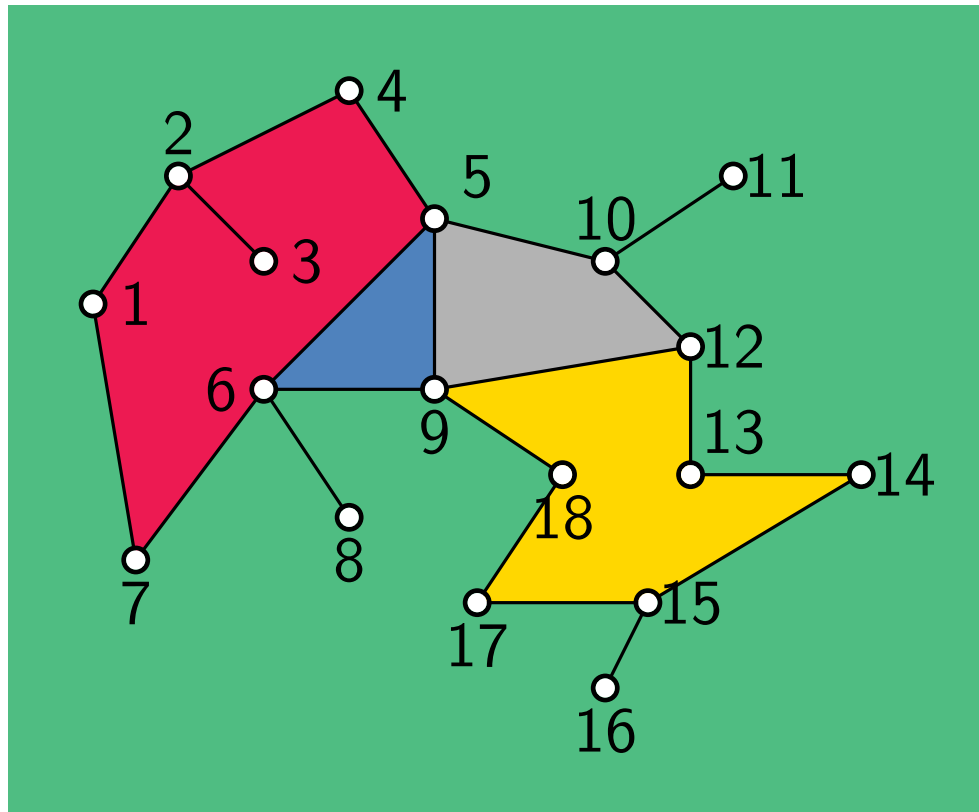
Vertices: $n = 14$

Edges: $m = 13$

Faces: $f = 1$

$$14 + 1 = 13 + 2 \checkmark$$

Planar Graphs: Examples



Vertices: $n = 18$

Edges: $m = 21$

Faces: $f = 5$

$$18 + 5 = 21 + 2 \checkmark$$

Note: All plane drawings of the same graph have the same number of faces

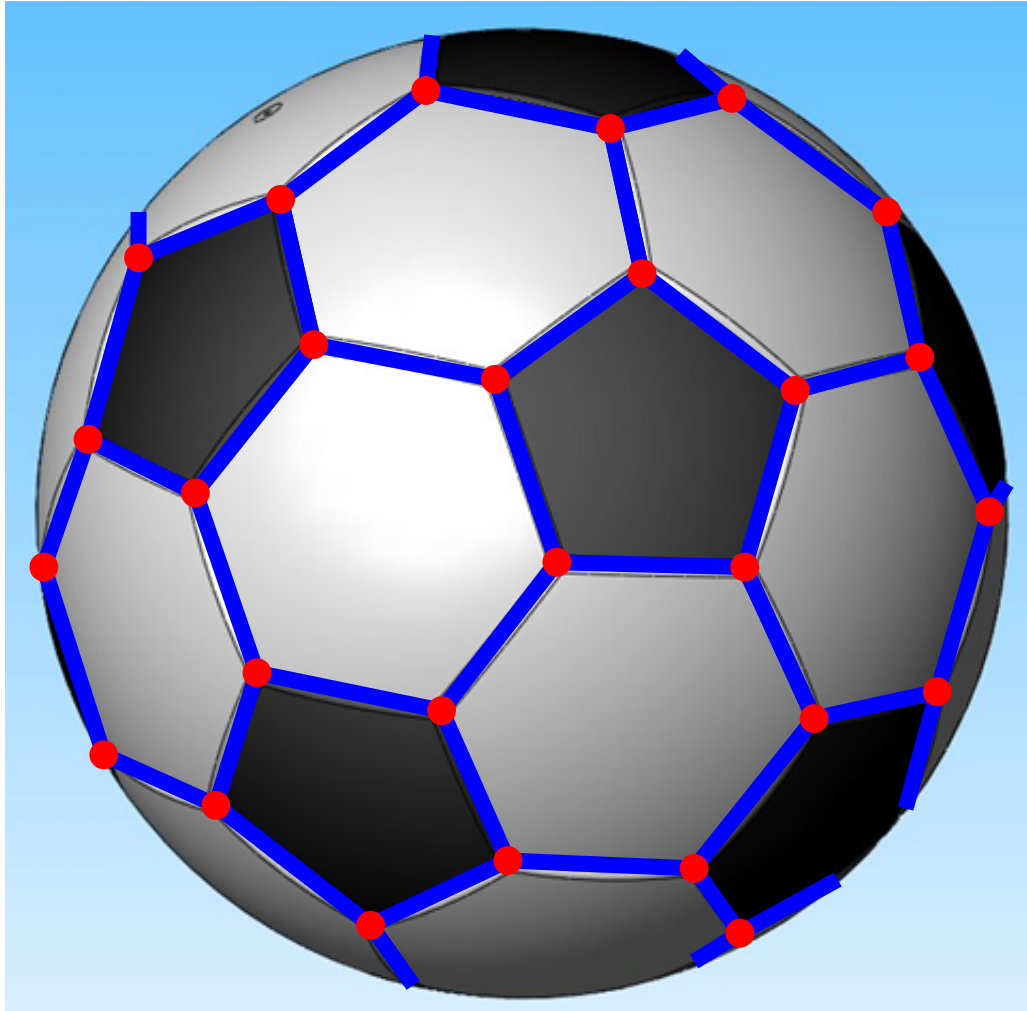
Plane Graphs: Examples

What is a **Truncated icosahedron** ?



Plane Graphs: Examples

What is a **Truncated icosahedron** ?



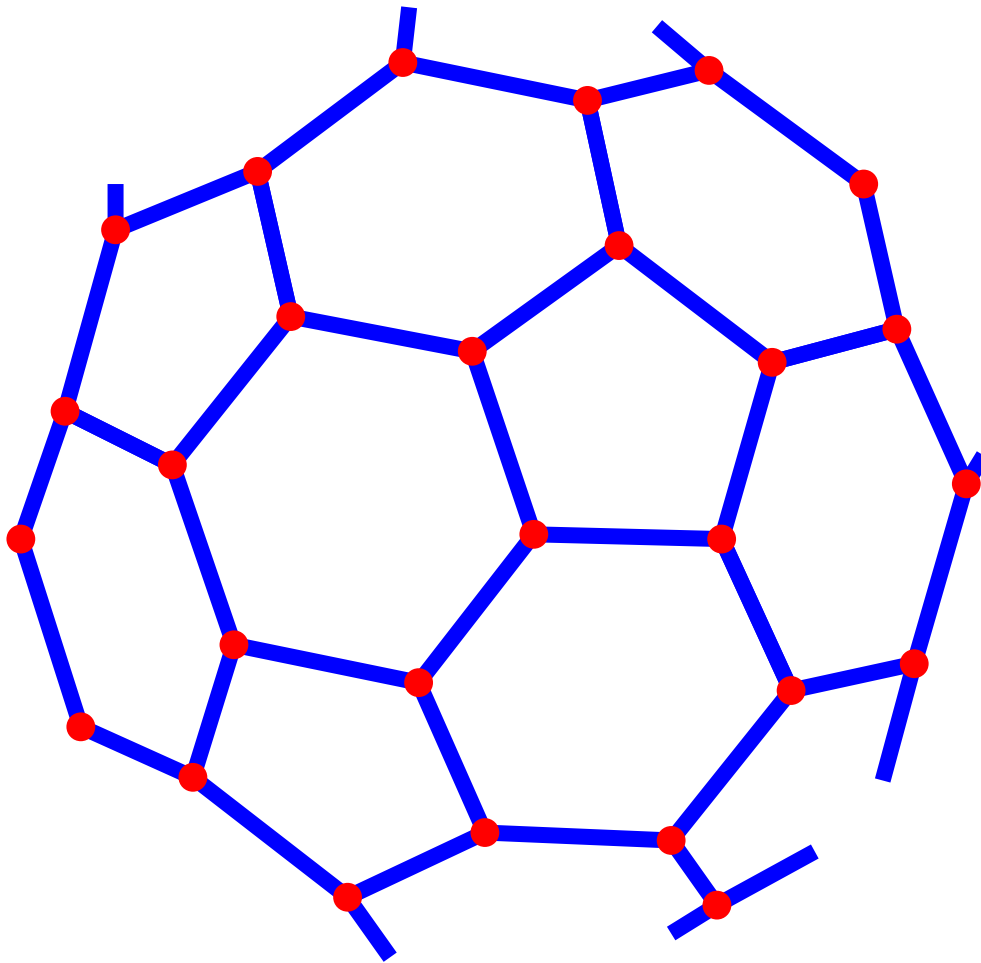
vertices: $n=60$

edges: $m=90$

faces: $f=32$

Plane Graphs: Examples

What is a **Truncated icosahedron** ?



vertices: $n=60$

edges: $m=90$

faces: $f=32$

Euler's Formula:

$$60 + 32 = 90 + 2 \checkmark$$

Planar Graphs

Theorem: For a planar connected graph $G = (V, E)$ with $|V| = n \geq 3$ and $|E| = m$ it holds that $m \leq 3 \cdot n - 6$

Proof: Consider a plane drawing of G with f faces. Let e_i , $i = 1, \dots, f$ be the number of edges which bound face i .

- $\sum_{i=1}^f e_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^f 3 = 3 \cdot f$ (since $e_i \geq 3$)

- $\sum_{i=1}^f e_i = 2 \cdot m$

(since each edge is counted twice – once from each side)

⇒ Combine the two results: $3 \cdot f \leq 2 \cdot m$

⇒ Combine with Euler's Formula (multiplied by 3):

$$3 \cdot m + 6 = 3 \cdot n + 3 \cdot f \leq 3 \cdot n + 2 \cdot m$$

$$\Leftrightarrow m \leq 3 \cdot n - 6$$



Non-Planarity of K_5

Claim: K_5 is not planar.

Proof:

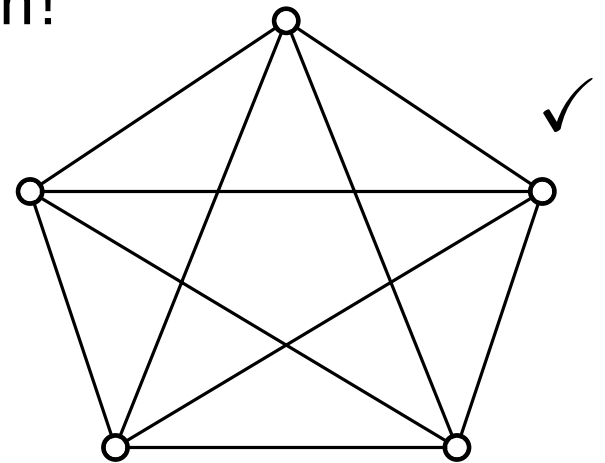
- K_5 has $n = 5$ vertices and $m = \binom{5}{2} = 10$ edges
- Assume K_5 is planar

\Rightarrow We can apply the previous theorem

$$m \leq 3 \cdot n - 6, \quad \text{with } n = 5, m = 10$$

$$10 \leq 3 \cdot 5 - 6 = 9 \quad \text{contradiction!}$$

$\Rightarrow K_5$ cannot be planar.



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$\Rightarrow K_5$ cannot be planar.



Question:

Can we show in the same way that $K_{3,3}$ is not planar?

Non-Planarity of $K_{3,3}$

Theorem: For a bipartite planar connected graph $G = (V, E)$ with $|V| = n \geq 3$ and $|E| = m$ it holds that $m \leq 2 \cdot n - 4$

Proof: Consider a plane drawing of G with f faces. Let e_i , $i = 1, \dots, f$ be the number of edges which bound face i .

- G bipartite \Rightarrow every face is 2-colorable $\Rightarrow e_i \geq 4$

- $\sum_{i=1}^f e_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^f 4 = 4 \cdot f, \quad \sum_{i=1}^f e_i = 2 \cdot m$

\Rightarrow Combine the two results: $4 \cdot f \leq 2 \cdot m \Leftrightarrow 2 \cdot f \leq m$

\Rightarrow Combine with Euler's Formula (multiplied by 2):

$$2 \cdot m + 4 = 2 \cdot n + 2 \cdot f \leq 2 \cdot n + m$$

$$\Leftrightarrow m \leq 2 \cdot n - 4$$

✓

Non-Planarity of $K_{3,3}$

Claim: $K_{3,3}$ is not planar.

Proof:

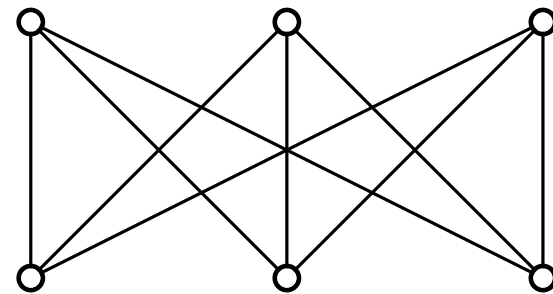
- $K_{3,3}$ has $n = 6$ vertices and $m = 3 \cdot 3 = 9$ edges
- Assume $K_{3,3}$ is planar

\Rightarrow We can apply the previous theorem

$$m \leq 2 \cdot n - 4, \quad \text{with } n = 6, m = 9$$

$$9 \leq 2 \cdot 6 - 4 = 8 \quad \text{contradiction!}$$

$\Rightarrow K_{3,3}$ cannot be planar.



✓

Summary

- Basic graph terminology
- Different ways to store graphs:
 - Adjacency matrix
 - Adjacency list
- Some simple graph algorithms:
 - Breadth first search (BFS), depth first search (DFS)
 - Distances in (unweighted) graphs
 - Recognizing bipartite graphs
- Planar graphs and plane drawings:
 - Kuratowski's Theorem
 - Euler's Formula
 - Non-planarity of $K_{3,3}$ and K_5

Graphs - Final

