

# Elementary Graph Algorithms

- Design and analysis of algorithms

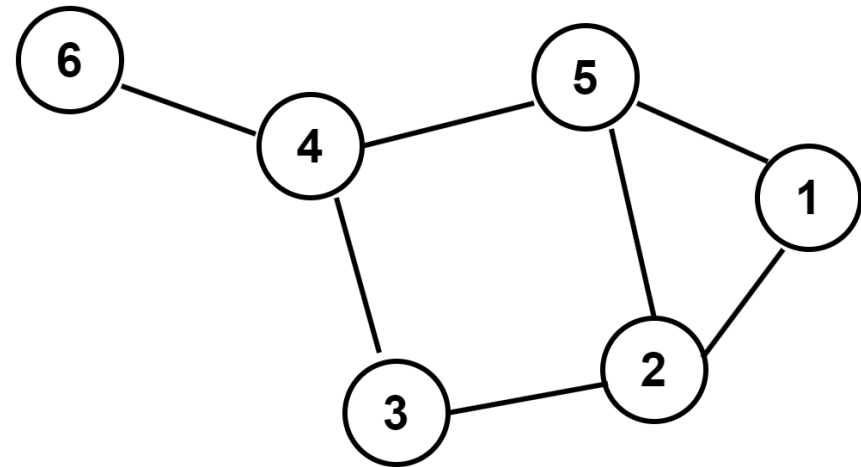
# Introduction

- Graph and set theory
- Graph and computer science



# Graph and set theory

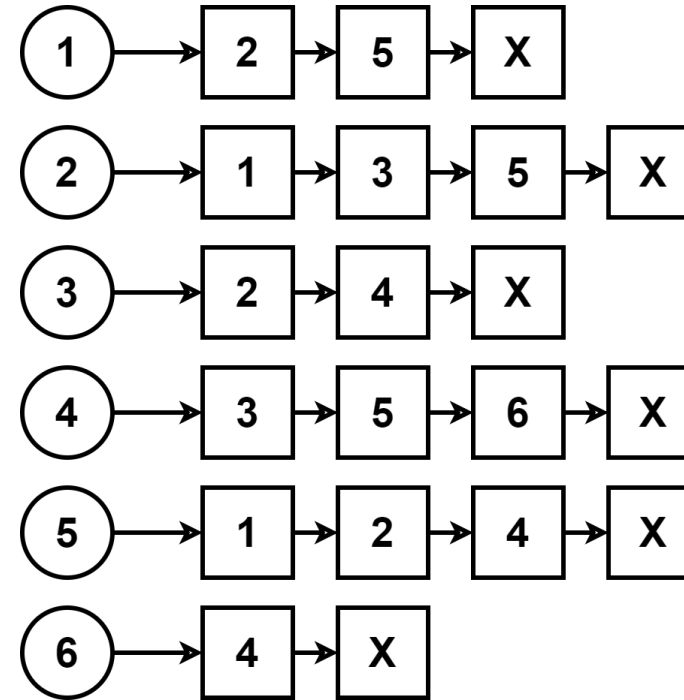
- In set theory, a graph  $G$  is defined as a set of vertices  $V$  and a relation  $E$  describing how the vertices are related to each other.
- A graph is denoted as:  $G = (V, E)$
- A graph may be directed or undirected.
- A graph may also be weighted, i.e. the edges of the graph are assigned values or weights.



An undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V = \{6, 4, 5, 3, 1, 2\}$  and  $E = \{(6, 4), (4, 5), (4, 3), (5, 1), (5, 2), (3, 2), (2, 1)\}$

# Graph and computer science

- In computer science, graph is an abstract data type which is an implementation of a graph in set theory.
- One of the ways of implementing graphs is by using linked lists.
- The circular nodes are the vertices and the square nodes are the vertices they are connected to.
- So the path from a circular node to any of the square node in the adjacent list is an edge.



Implementation using linked lists

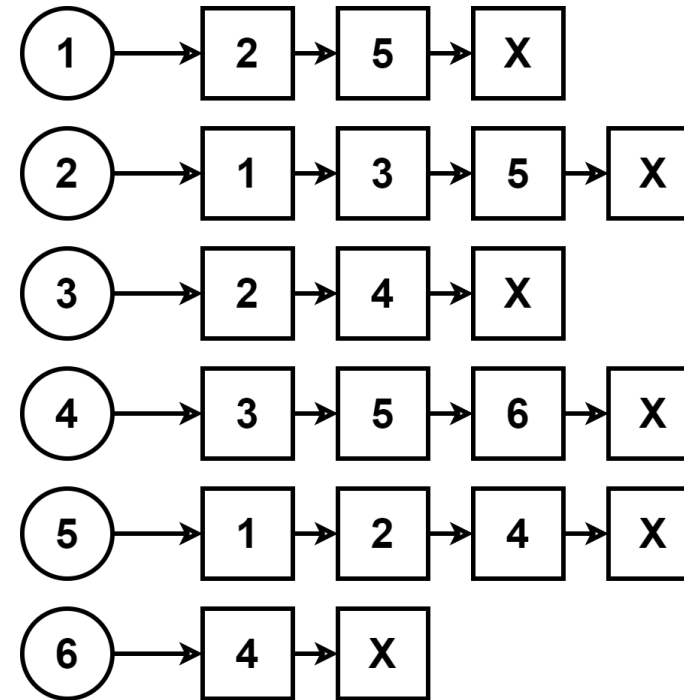
# Representations of graph

- Adjacency list
- Adjacency list – time complexity
- Adjacency matrix
- Adjacency matrix – time complexity



# Adjacency list

- In this method, linked lists are used to store the adjacent vertices.
- A graph consists of a list of vertices. Each vertex in the list, in turn, has a pointer to a list of vertices directly connected to it.
- So every vertex in the graph has an edge to each vertex in its adjacency list.
- To represent a weighted graph, an additional attribute of weight can be added to each vertex in the adjacency list.



Implementation using adjacency list

# Adjacency list – time complexity

| Operation     | Time complexity |
|---------------|-----------------|
| Add vertex    | $O(1)$          |
| Add edge      | $O(1)$          |
| Remove vertex | $O( E )$        |
| Remove edge   | $O( V )$        |
| Adjacency     | $O( V )$        |

# Adjacency matrix

- In this method, a matrix is used to represent if two vertices are connected.
- A graph contains a list of vertices and a  $n \times n$  matrix such that  $n$  is the number of vertices in the graph.
- If there is an edge between the  $x^{th}$  and  $y^{th}$  vertex, then  $M_{xy} = 1$ . Else  $M_{xy} = 0$ .
- To represent a weighted graph, weights can be stored at the row and column corresponding to the edge in the adjacency matrix.

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |

Implementation using adjacency matrix



# Adjacency matrix – time complexity

| Operation     | Time complexity |
|---------------|-----------------|
| Add vertex    | $O( V ^2)$      |
| Add edge      | $O(1)$          |
| Remove vertex | $O( V ^2)$      |
| Remove edge   | $O(1)$          |
| Adjacency     | $O(1)$          |

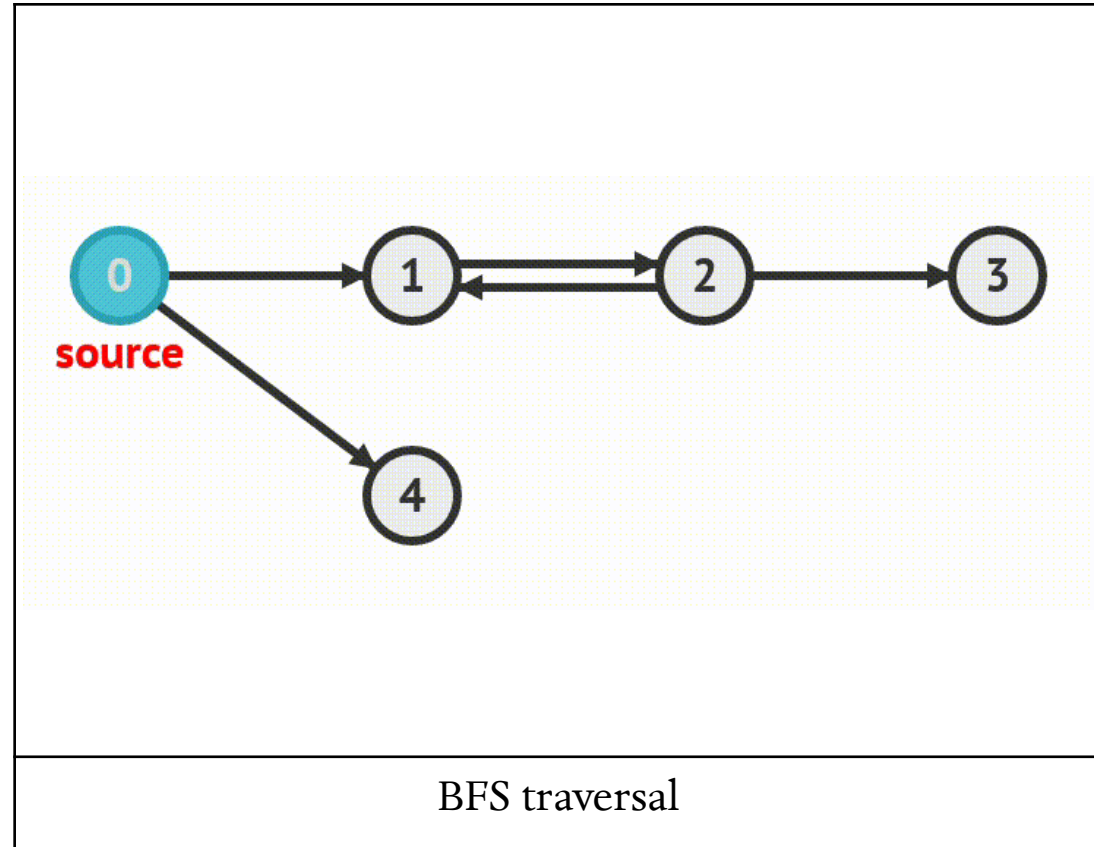
# Breadth first search

- What is BFS?
- Attributes
- Algorithm
- Analysis
- Properties
- Applications



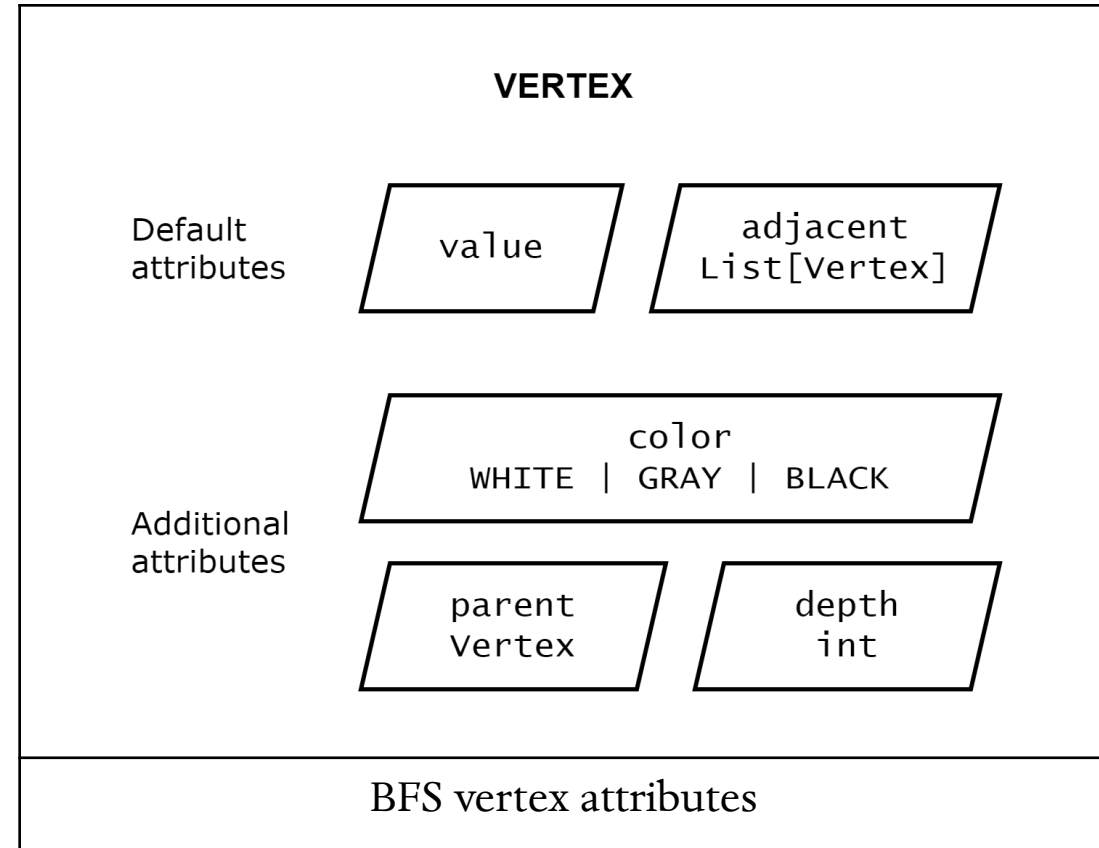
# What is BFS?

- During breadth first search, a *source* vertex is selected from where traversal will start.
- The algorithm systematically traverses all the adjacent vertices of *source*.
- Then for all the discovered vertices, it then discovers the next set of adjacent vertices.
- This goes on until all the vertices connected to *source* have been discovered.



# Attributes

- For BFS traversal, some additional attributes are added to each vertex.
- *color*: *WHITE* means that the vertex is yet to be reached, *GRAY* means that the vertex has been reached but not yet traversed, and *BLACK* means that the vertex has been traversed.
- *depth*: Distance of the vertex from the source vertex.
- *parent*: Parent of the vertex in the breadth first tree.



# Algorithm

```
function BFS(graph, source):  
    # whiten all vertices  
    for v in graph.vertices:  
        v.color = WHITE  
        v.parent = NULL  
    # traverse source  
    source.color = GRAY  
    source.depth = 0  
    source.parent = NULL  
    enqueue(source)
```

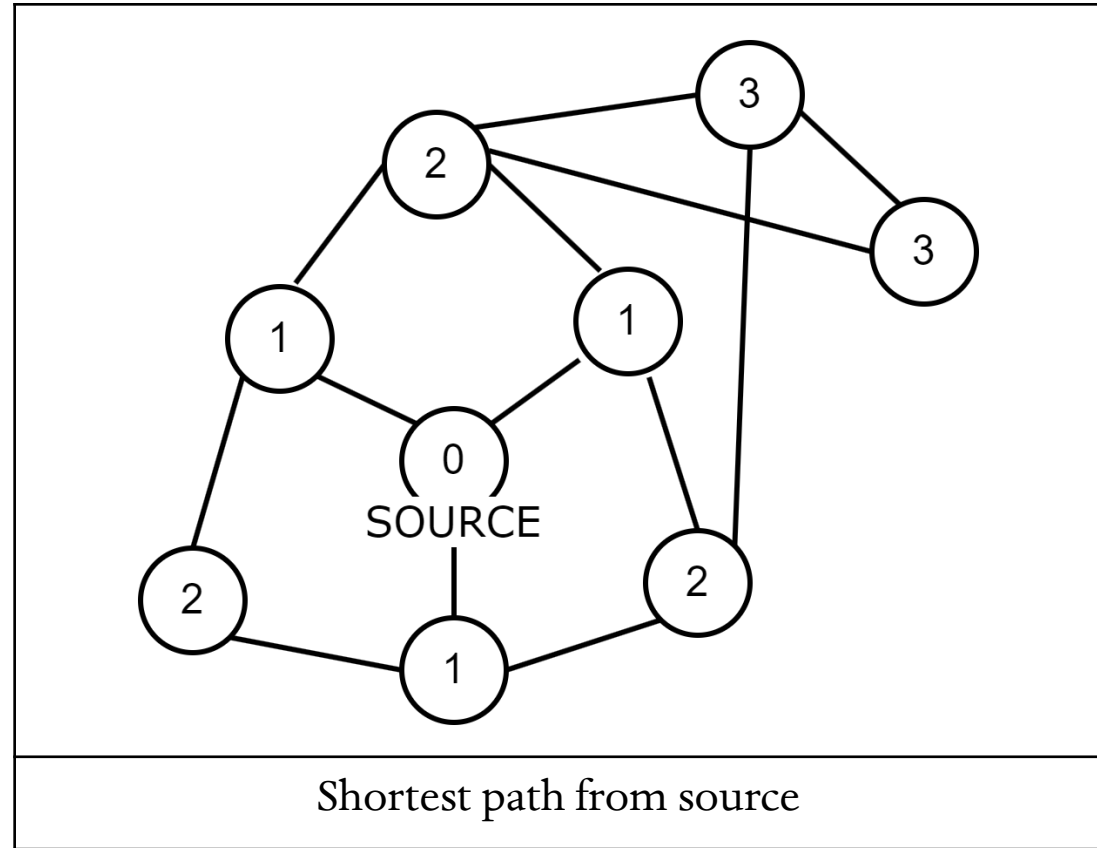
```
# keep dequeuing  
while not is_queue_empty():  
    curr = dequeue()  
    # traverse nodes adjacent to source  
    for v in curr.adjacent:  
        if v.color == WHITE:  
            v.color = GRAY  
            v.depth = curr.depth + 1  
            v.parent = curr  
            enqueue(v)
```

# Analysis

- Whitening all vertices takes  $O(V)$  time.
- Traversing source vertex takes  $O(1)$  time.
- Since a vertex is enqueued only once, the queue can be dequeued  $V$  times.
- The sum of all adjacent vertices of every vertex is  $E$ .
- Time complexity of BFS is  $O(V + E)$ .

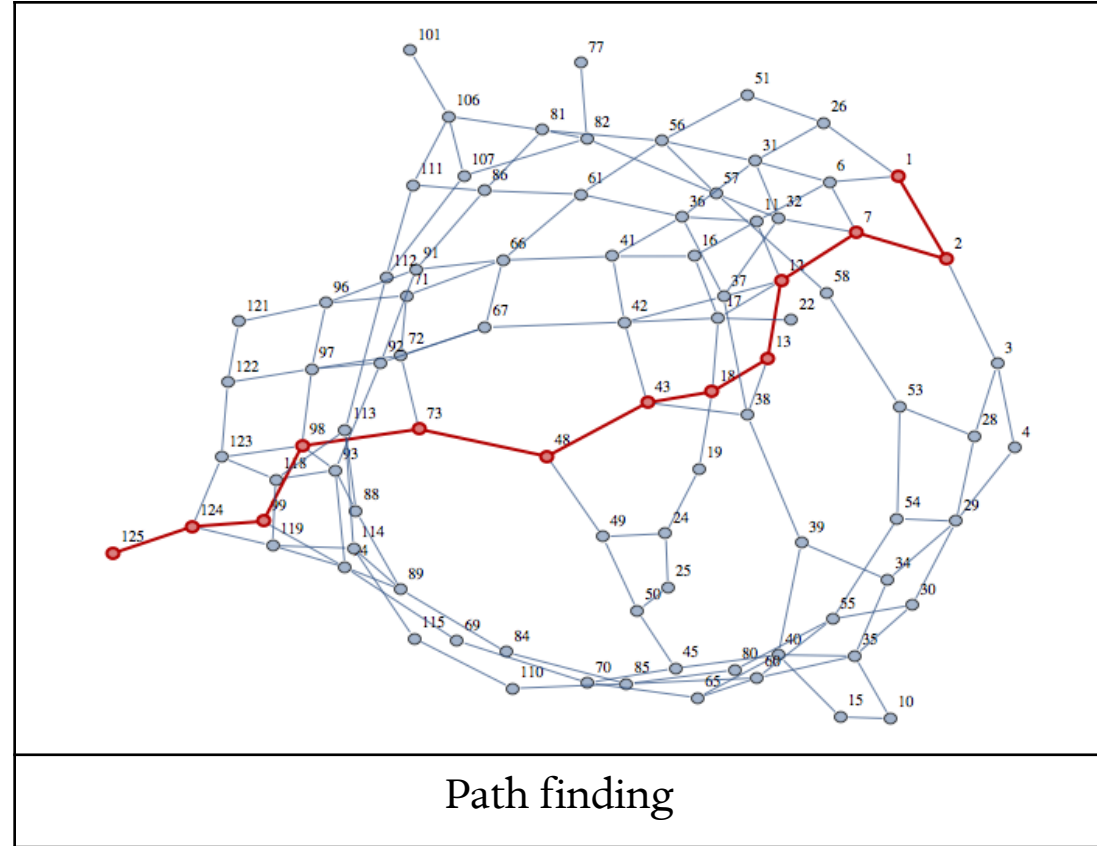
# Properties

- Breadth first search creates a breadth first tree where the parent of  $v$  is  $v.parent$
- $source$  is the root of the tree and  $source.parent$  is  $NULL$ .
- For any vertex  $v$ ,  $v.depth$  is the shortest distance from  $source$  to  $v$ .



# Applications

- Prim's algorithm uses BFS procedure to find minimal spanning tree in weighted graphs.
- Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm also uses BFS procedure for path finding.
- Alternatively, it can also be used to find solution to mazes.
- BFS traversal is also used to analyze relationships and connections, especially in social networking.





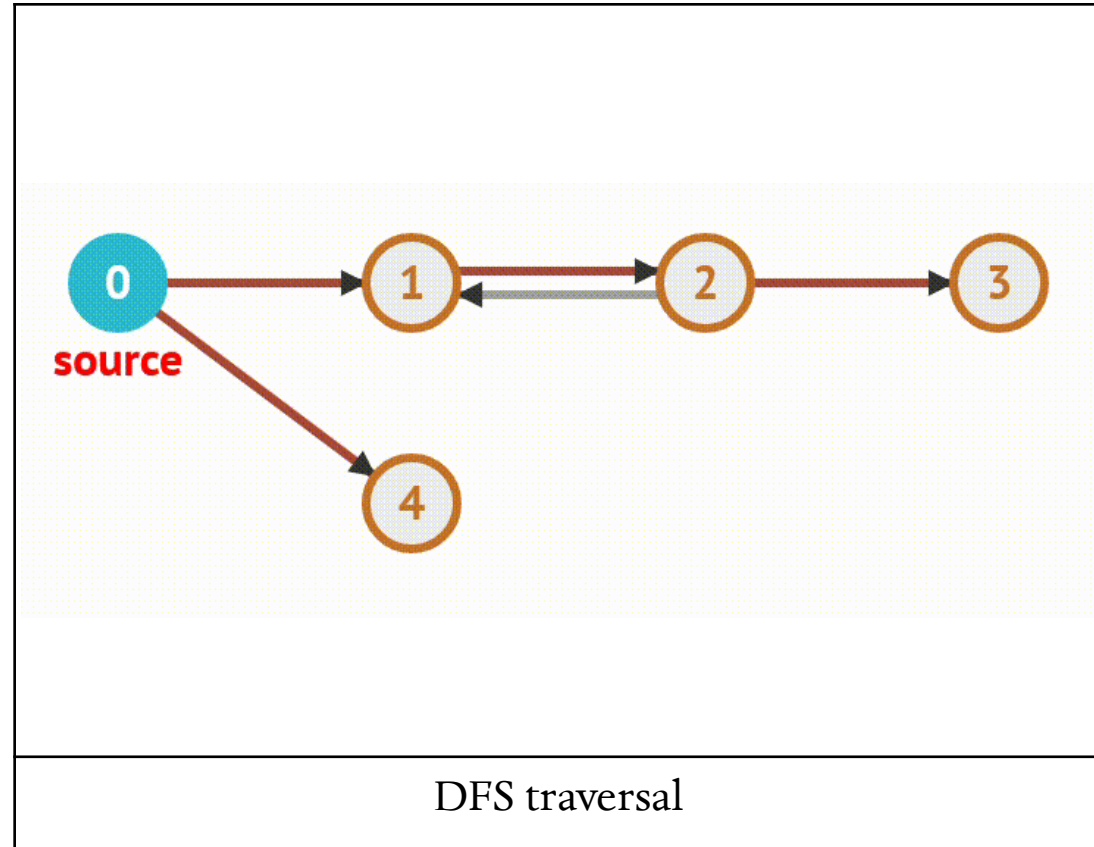
# Depth first search

- What is DFS?
- Attributes
- Algorithm
- Analysis
- Properties
- Types of edges
- White-path theorem
- Applications



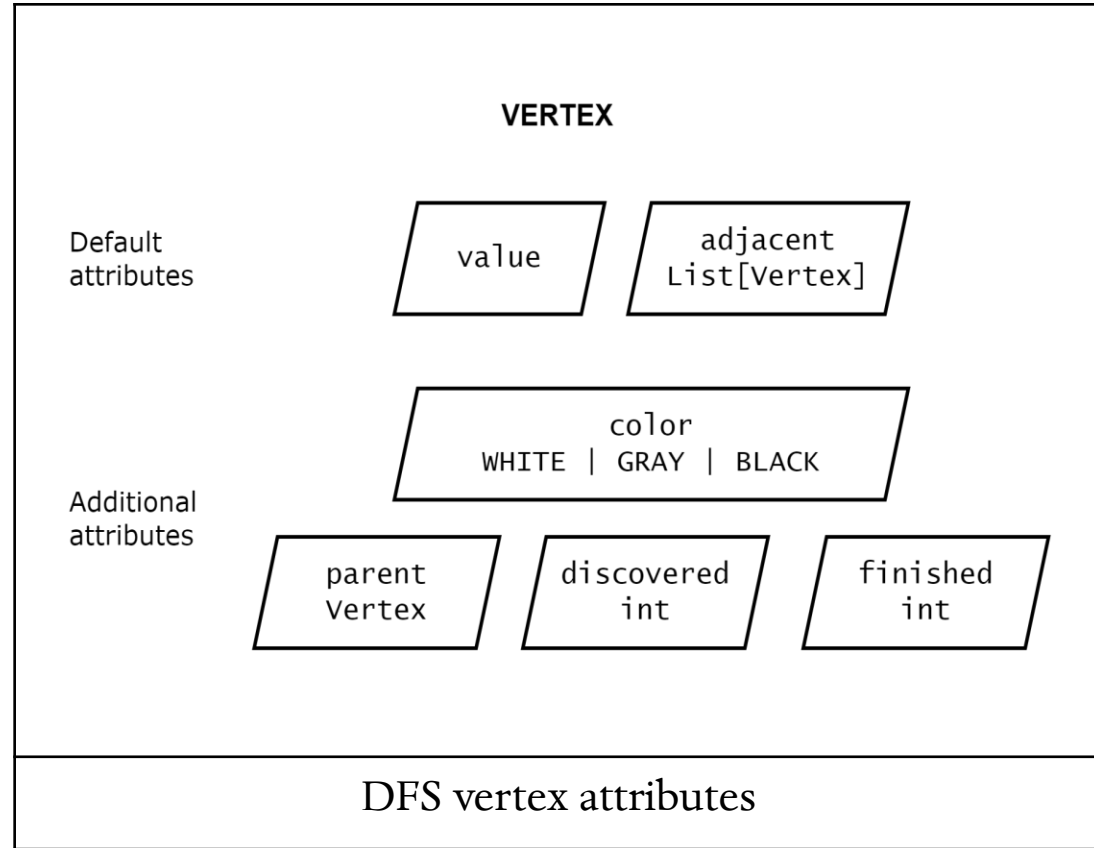
# What is DFS?

- The aim of depth first search is to traverse *deeper* vertices first whenever possible.
- The algorithm starts with a vertex, keeps discovering *deeper* vertices until there are no more undiscovered vertices.
- Then the same process is repeated for every other undiscovered vertices.



# Attributes

- DFS traversal also defines some more attributes for vertices.
- *color*: *WHITE*, *GRAY* or *BLACK*.
- *discovered*: Timestamp when vertex was discovered.
- *finished*: Timestamp when the traversal of the vertex finished.
- *parent*: Parent of the vertex in the breadth first tree.



# Algorithm

```
function DFS(graph):  
    # whiten all vertices  
    for v in graph.vertices:  
        v.color = WHITE  
        v.parent = NULL  
  
    # reset timestamp  
    timestamp = 0  
  
    # visit every vertex  
    for v in graph.vertices:  
        if v.color == WHITE:  
            DFS_VISIT(graph, v)
```

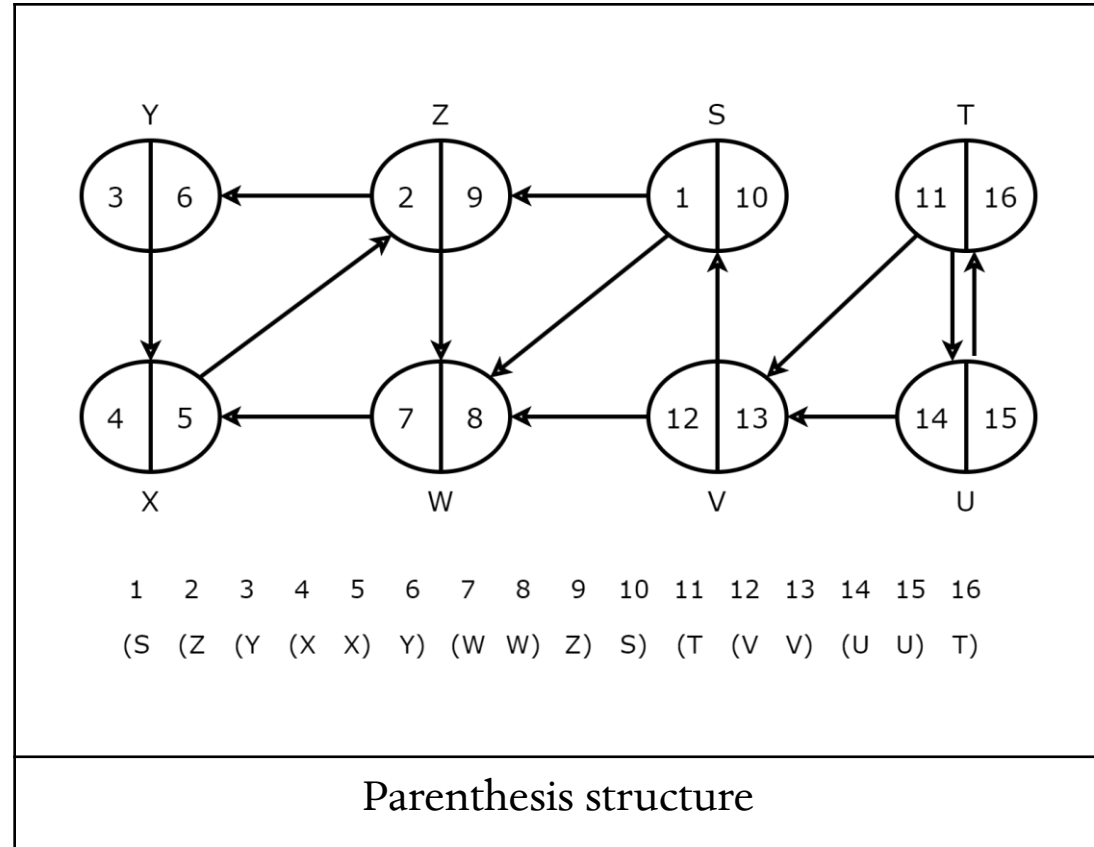
```
function DFS_VISIT(vertex):  
    timestamp += 1  
    vertex.discovered = timestamp  
    vertex.color = GRAY  
    for v in vertex.adjacent:  
        if v.color == WHITE:  
            v.parent = vertex  
            DFS_VISIT(v)  
  
    timestamp += 1  
    vertex.finished = timestamp  
    vertex.color = BLACK
```

# Analysis

- Whitening all vertices takes  $O(V)$  time.
- Since a vertex is pushed only once, the stack can be popped  $V$  times, i.e. *DFS\_VISIT* will be called  $V$  times.
- The sum of all adjacent vertices of every vertex is  $E$ , i.e. during *DFS\_VISIT*, adjacent vertices will be checked  $E$  times.
- Time complexity of DFS is  $O(V + E)$ .

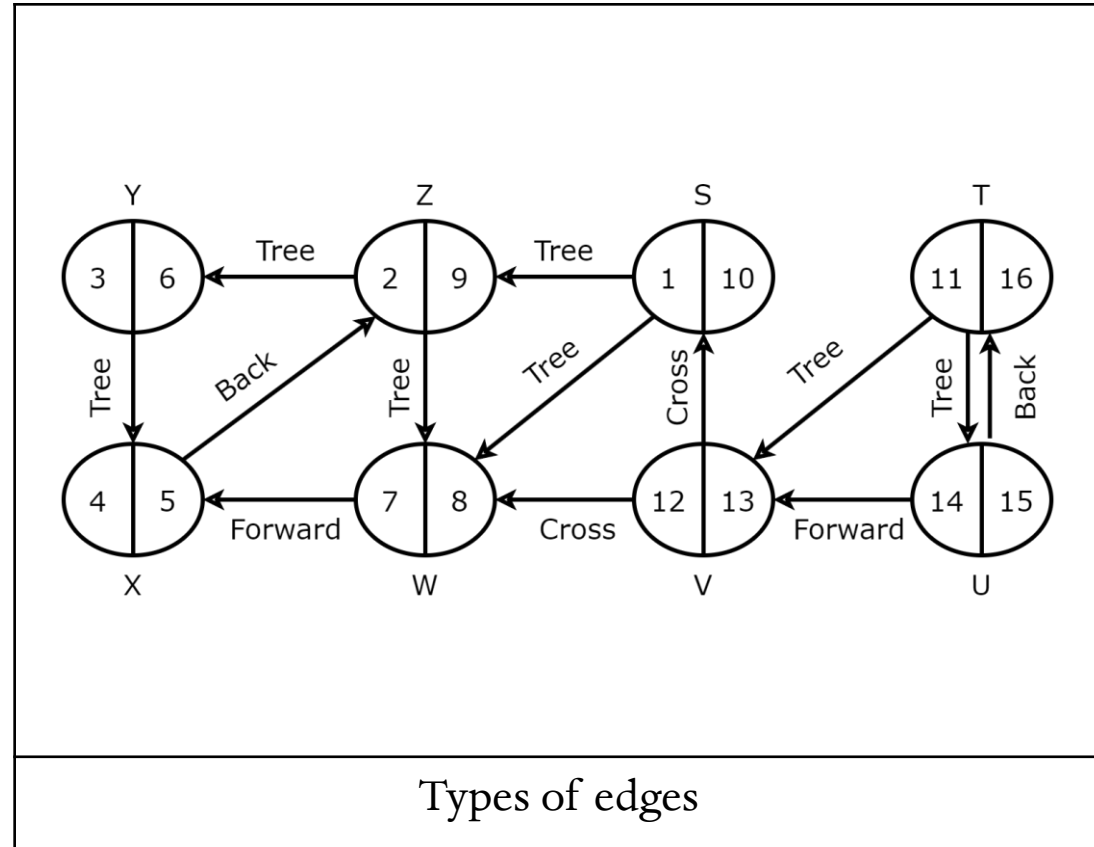
# Properties

- Depth first search creates multiple trees or a depth first forest where the parent of  $v$  is  $v.parent$
- Each disconnected vertex has a corresponding tree, the root of the trees are vertices whose  $v.parent$  is  $NULL$ .
- DFS discovery and finish times have parenthesis structure.



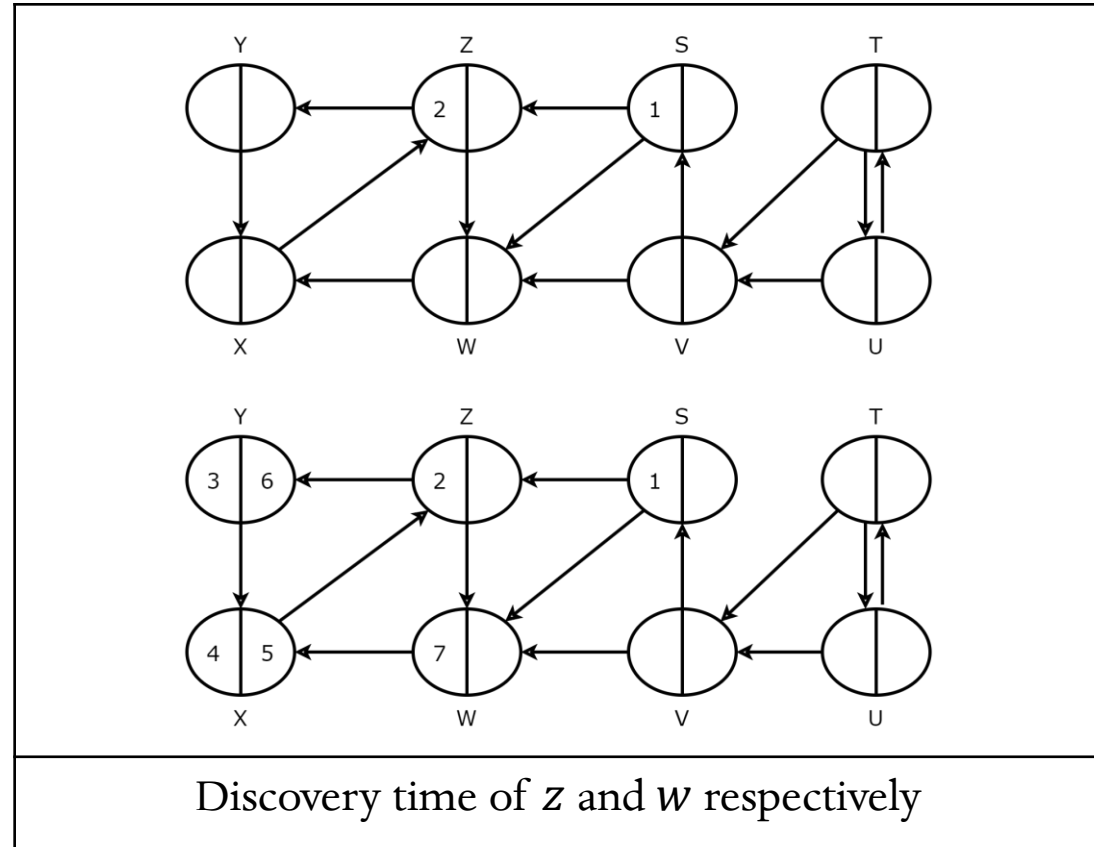
# Types of edges

- Tree edges:  $u \rightarrow v$  if  $v$  is the child of  $u$ , i.e. when  $u$  is discovered,  $v$  is *WHITE*.
- Back edges:  $u \rightarrow v$  if  $v$  is an ancestor of  $u$ , i.e. when  $u$  is discovered,  $v$  is *GRAY*.
- Forward edges:  $u \rightarrow v$  if  $v$  is a descendent of  $u$  in the same tree, i.e. when  $u$  is discovered,  $v$  is *BLACK* and in the same tree.
- Cross edges:  $u \rightarrow v$  if  $v$  and  $u$  are in different trees, i.e. when  $u$  is discovered,  $v$  is *BLACK* but in a different tree.



# White-path theorem

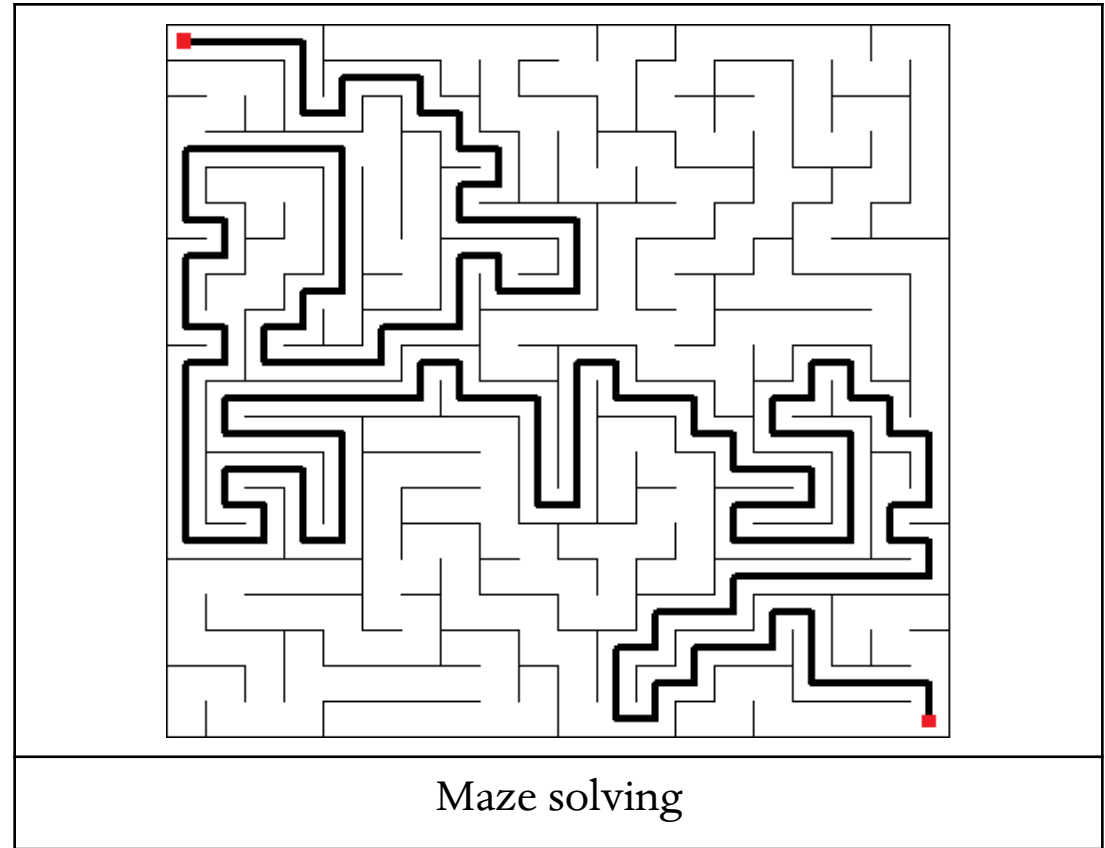
- White-path theorem states that in a depth first forest, vertex  $v$  is a descendent of vertex  $u$  if and only if at  $u$ . *discovered*, i.e. when  $u$  was discovered, there is a path from  $u$  to  $v$  consisting entirely of white vertices.
- In the depth first forest of the graph in the example,  $z$  is an ancestor of vertices  $x$ .
- $w$  is not an ancestor of  $z$  even if there exists a path from  $w$  to  $z$  because it does not consist of all white vertices.





# Applications

- DFS provides key information about the structure of the graph, e.g. if the graph is cyclic in nature.
- DFS can also be used to identify connected components in a graph.
- DFS is used in topological sort and topological sort is used to resolve dependencies in complex environments.
- It can also be used to solve mazes.



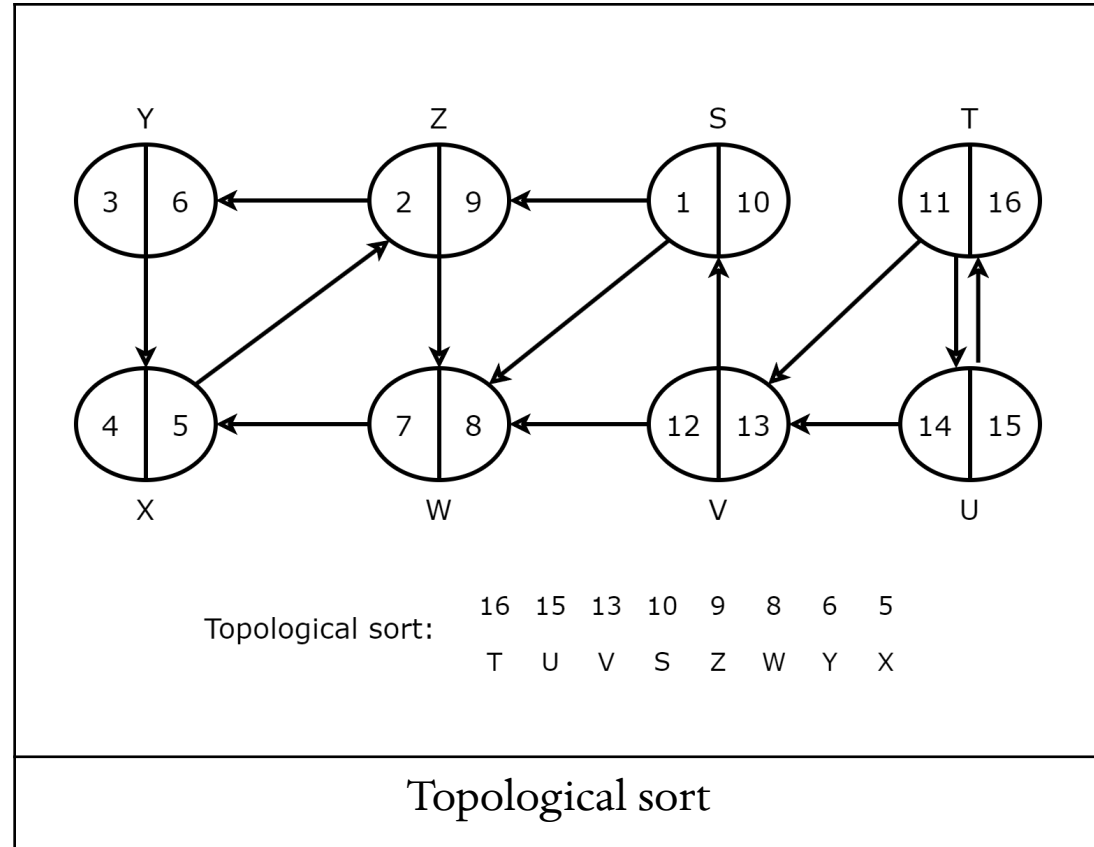
# Topological sort

- What is topological sort?
- Algorithm
- Analysis
- Applications



# What is topological sort?

- Topological sort is a way to order the vertices of a directed acyclic graph such that for any edge  $a \rightarrow b$ ,  $a$  always appears before  $b$  in the ordering.
- A directed acyclic graph or DAG is a graph with directed edges and no loops.
- Topological sort is only possible for DAGs because no linear ordering is possible for graphs that contain a loop.



# Algorithm

```
function TOPOLOGICAL_SORT(graph):  
    stack = []  
    timestamp = 0  
    # whiten all vertices  
    for v in graph.vertices:  
        v.color = WHITE  
    # visit every vertex  
    for v in graph.vertices:  
        if v.color == WHITE:  
            TOPOLOGICAL_VISIT(v, stack)
```

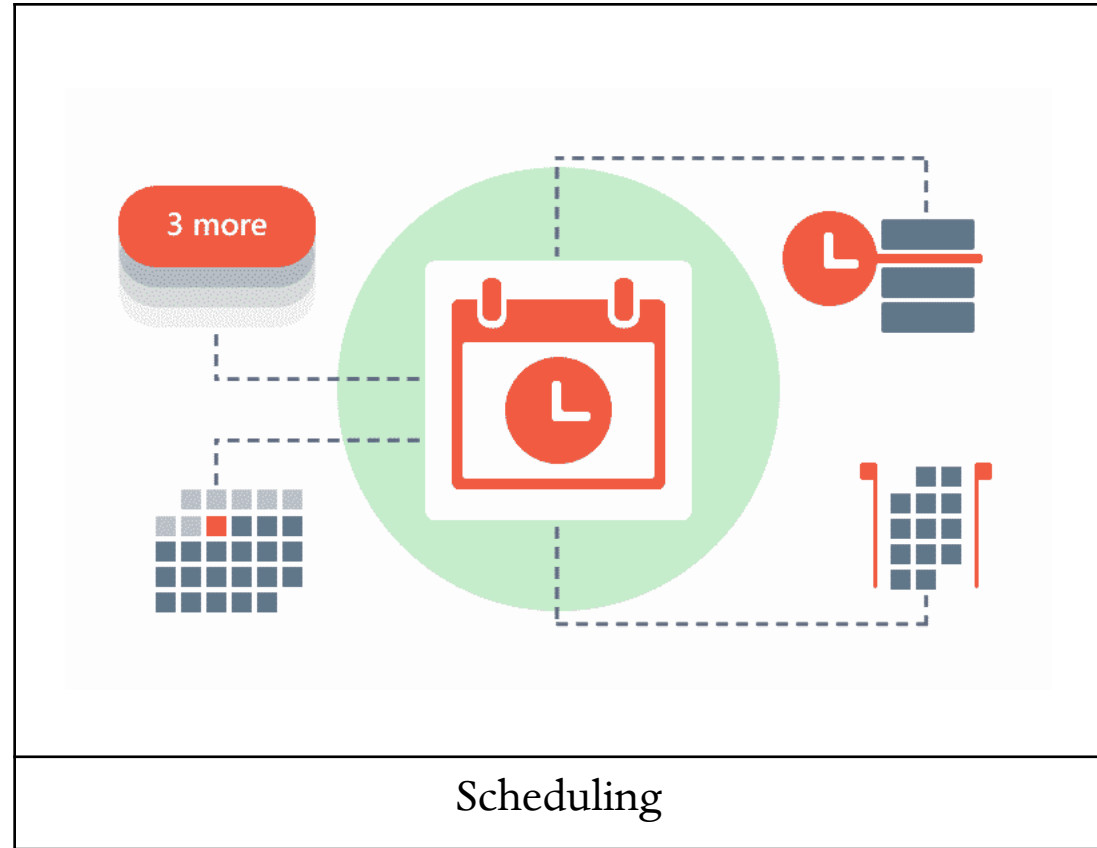
```
function TOPOLOGICAL_VISIT(vertex, stack):  
    # increase timestamp  
    timestamp += 1  
    vertex.color = GRAY  
    for v in vertex.adjacent:  
        if v.color == WHITE:  
            TOPOLOGICAL_VISIT(v)  
    timestamp += 1  
    vertex.finished = timestamp  
    stack.push_front(vertex)  
    vertex.color = BLACK
```

# Analysis

- Topological sort either uses a slightly modified depth first search algorithm or just uses DFS algorithm and then sorts the vertices in decreasing order of finish timestamps.
- Thus the time complexity of topological sort is the same as that of DFS.
- Time complexity of topological sort:  $O(V + E)$

# Applications

- Software compilation: Compilers use topological sort to find the order in which to compile source files according to their dependencies.
- Task scheduling: Similarly, CPU schedulers also use this sorting technique to find the order of tasks according to their dependencies.
- Project planning: It can be also useful while planning a complex projects.



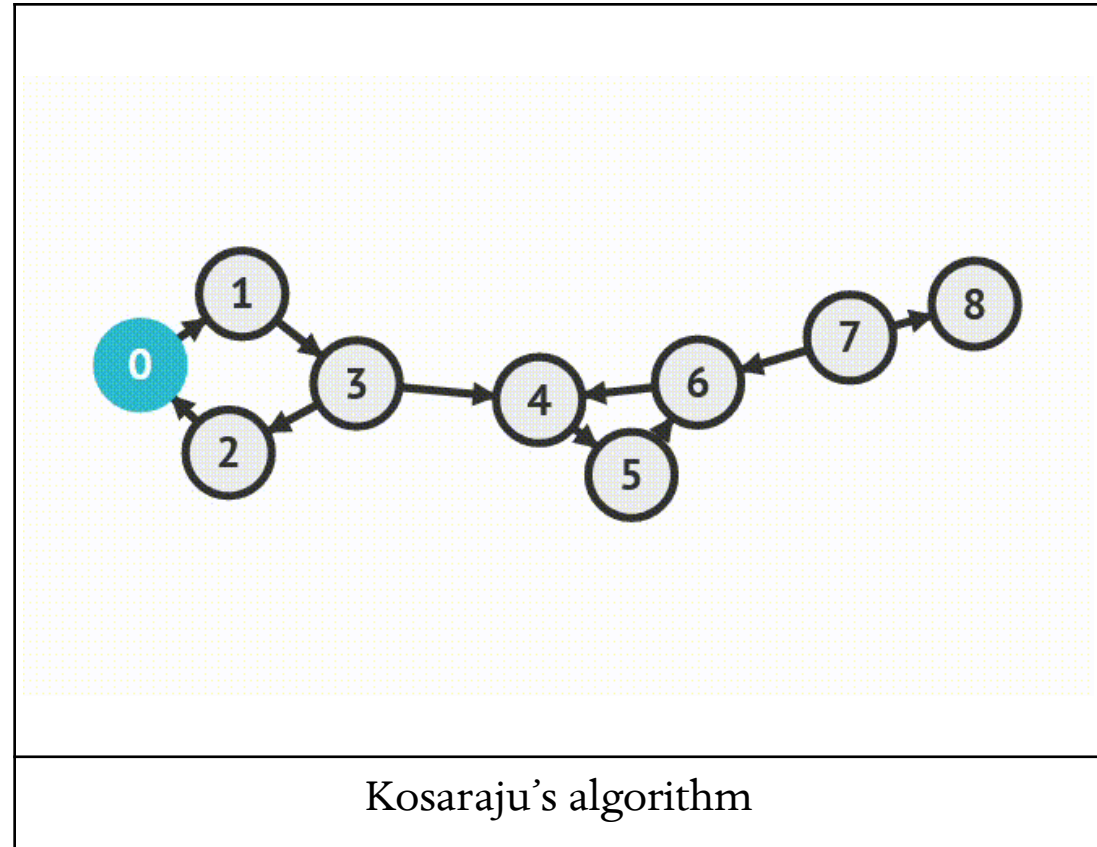
# Strongly connected components

- What is a strongly connected component?
- Algorithm
- Analysis



# What is strongly connected component?

- A strongly connected component or SCC of a directed graph is a maximal set of vertices where each vertex is connected to every other vertex.
- SCCs can be used to divide a complex graph into multiple sub-graphs which can be then worked upon individually.
- After the individual operations are complete, they can be then merged together.





# Algorithm

```
function STRONGLY_CONNECTED_COMPONENTS(graph):  
    DFS(graph)  
    TOPOLOGICAL_SORT(graph)  
    transpose = TRANSPOSE(graph)  
    # each tree in the forest is a strongly  
    # connected component  
    DFS(transpose)  
    forest = transpose.forest  
    return TRANSPOSE(forest)
```

```
function TRANSPOSE(graph):  
    transpose = Graph()  
    # reverse every edge direction  
    for v in graph.vertices:  
        for u in v.adjacent:  
            graph.vertex[u] = v  
    return transpose
```

# Analysis

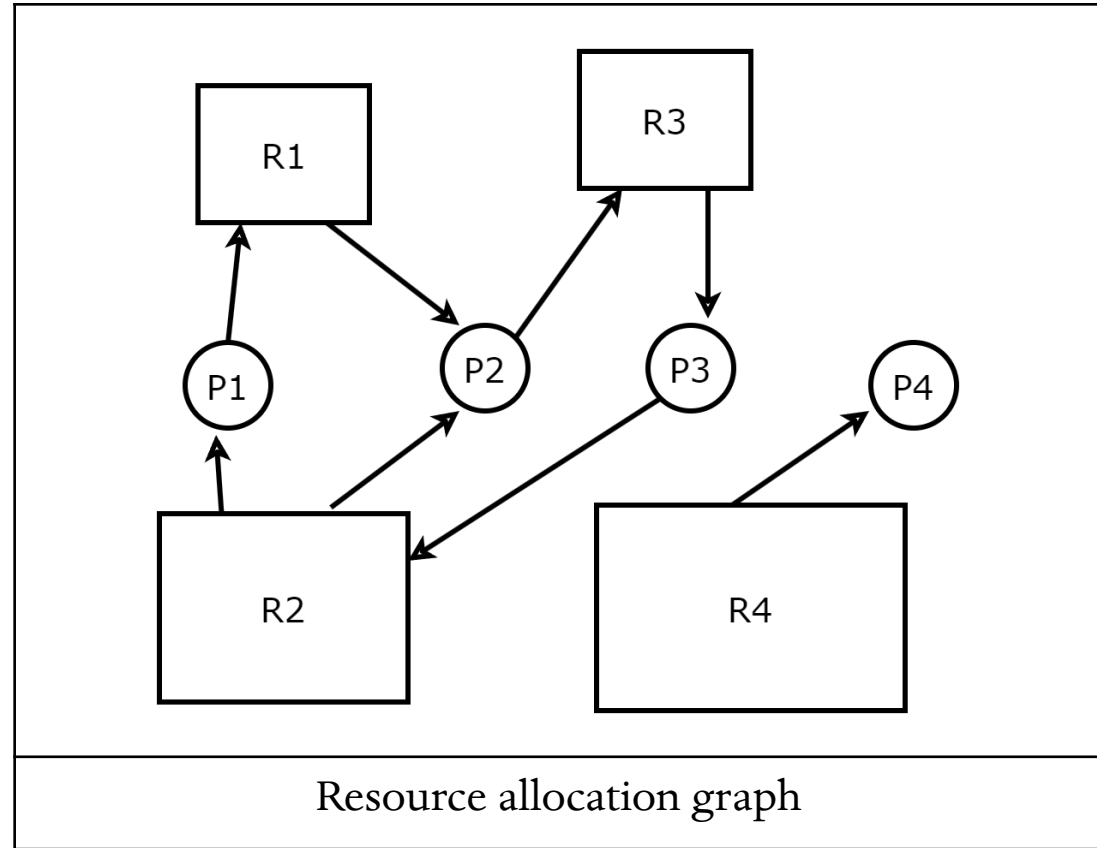
- Time complexity of DFS is  $O(V + E)$
- During transpose, outer *for* loop runs  $V$  times and inner *for* loop cumulatively runs  $E$  times. Thus time complexity of transpose is also  $O(V + E)$
- DFS on transpose graph is again  $O(V + E)$
- Time complexity of finding strongly connected components is  $O(V + E)$

# Conclusion

- Applications of graph: I
- Applications of graph: II

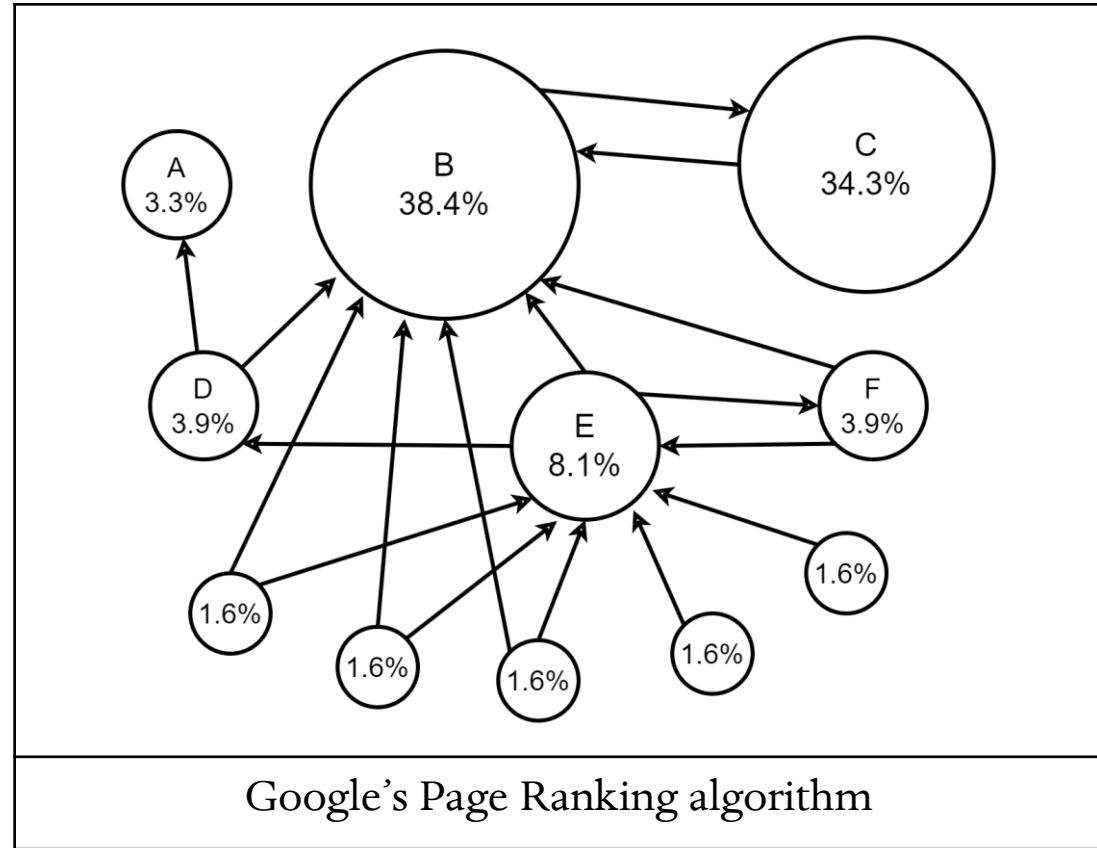
# Applications of graph: I

- Maps: Locations in a map are vertices and the paths connecting them are edges.
- Social media: All the users are vertices and if two users are friends there is an edge between them.
- Resource allocation graphs: In operating systems, processes and resources are vertices and an edge represents if an user is using a resource.



# Applications of graph: II

- Web: All the pages are vertices and if two pages are linked an edge is created between the two pages.
- Google uses graph algorithms to find the popularity of webpages. The popularity of a page is decided on the basis of the number and popularity of the pages which have links to it.
- Graphs are also used to solve many real life problems, like path finding and scheduling.



# Bibliography

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THANK YOU