

1. Graph Theory

This section provides an introduction to the key concepts of graph theory. It is intended for teacher to understand the mathematical fundamental principles underlaying the Dijkstra algorithm. Graph theory is part of discrete mathematics. For a detailed description, books about graph theory as [19], [bhargava2024algorithmen], [dorfler2011graphentheorie], [20], [21], or [trudeau2013introduction] are recommended. An introduction in the field of set theory is presented in the teachers education book of schichl2009einfuhrung[schichl2009einfuhrung] In general graph theory describes the relationship between objects. In a more mathematical definition, a graph consists of nodes which are connected by edges. Graphs are mathematical models and have many useful applications in the modern world. It is important to notice that they have nothing in common with graphs of functions. Graph theory is an effective tool having applications in a variety of domains, including computer science, biology, sociology, and transportation.

- Network analysis: modeling and optimization of transportation networks (road, rail, air travel) [peranginangin2024analysis]
- Electronics: design of digital circuits [dorfler2018electrical]
- Biology: analyze biological networks [pavlopoulos2011using]
- AI: graph neural networks (GNN) [li2023graph] and explainable AI through graph theory [ucer2022explainable]
- Sports analytics: analyze player interactions, and strategies [sports]
- Automata theory: state diagrams [dutta2022graphs]



1.1. Historical Remarks

The Seven Bridge Problem goes back to the year 1736. It is also called 'Königsberger Brücken Problem'. The problem statement is to find a tour crossing every bridge exactly once.

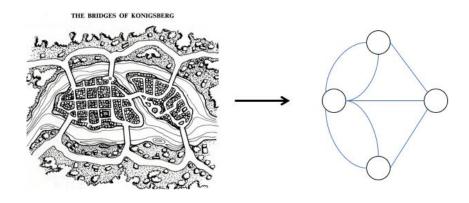


Figure 1.1.: Königsberg Bridge Problem, taken from [kbp]

The medieval city Königsberg is now Kaliningrad. The Pregel river goes through this town, which has two large islands (named Lomse and Kneiphof) in the middle. These islands are surrounded by the river. Figure ?? illustrates the seven bridges that connect the islands. Karl Leonhard Gottlieb Ehler came up with the question, which route has one to take to cross all seven bridges without crossing any of them more than once? Karl struggled with this problem and decided to write the famous mathematician Leonard Euler for help. Euler simplified the problem in a graphical representation of the four landmasses by four nodes named A,B,C and D, and each bridge as an edge between the nodes. He demonstrated in his article **euler1741solutio** that, if each node has an even number of edges a tour crossing every bridge exactly once can be found. With his article[**euler1741solutio**] Leonard Euler invented a new field in mathematics, the so called "Geometry of Position", now known as graph theory.



1.2. Mathematical Graph Theory Basic Definitions

The definitions and information in this section are taken from the books [dorfler2011graphentheorie] and [20].

1.2.1. Graph

A **graph** G is an ordered pair (V, E), where:

- *V* is a set of **vertices** (also called nodes).
- *E* is a set of **edges**, which are unordered pairs of vertices.

Unordered pairs are written in curly brackets. The number of nodes is called **order** of the graph. The number of edges is called **size** of the graph. Two nodes are **adjacent** if they are connected by an edge. In other words, if the two nodes are neighbors.

Mathematically,
$$G = (V, E)$$
, where $V = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_n\}$ and $E = \{\{v_i, v_i\} \mid v_i, v_i \in V\}$.

The edges of a graph represent the relationship between the nodes. Nodes can be labeled by letters or numbers to distinguish them from each other. An example of a graph *G* is given by the sets:

- $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $E = \{\{1,2\},\{1,3\},\{2,3\},\{3,4\}\}$

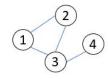


Figure 1.2.: Example of an undirected graph



1.2.2. Directed Graph

A **directed graph** or **digraph** G is an ordered pair (V, E), where:

- *V* is a set of vertices.
- *E* is a set of ordered pairs of vertices, called **directed edges**.

Mathematically, G = (V, E), where $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ and $E = \{(v_i, v_j) \mid v_i, v_i \in V\}$.

Consider the following directed graph *G* with:

- $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- $E = \{(1,2), (1,3), (2,5), (3,4), (3,6), (4,1)\}$

Ordered pairs are written in round brackets and are also called tuples. The graphical representation of the digraph is shown in figure ??. It has 6 nodes and 6 edges.

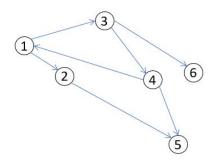


Figure 1.3.: Example of a directed graph

1.2.3. Weighted Graph

A **weighted graph** is a graph G = (V, E) where each edge $\{v_i, v_j\}$ has an associated weight w_{ij} . Weighted graphs can be directed or undirected.

A street map can be visualized as a weighted graph, with weights representing the distance in kilometers. Another example is a railway network in which the weights between stations indicate the duration between them.

Mathematically, G = (V, E, w), where $w : E \to \mathbb{R}$.



The representation of an edge is expanded from a pair to triplets to indicate the weight in the 3rd position.

Consider a weighted graph *G* with:

- $V = \{a, b, c, d\}$
- $E = \{\{a, b, 5\}, \{a, c, 3\}, \{b, c, 1\}, \{b, d, 4\}\}$

Here, nodes are labeled with letters. The edges have weights 5, 3, 1 and 4 respectively.

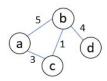


Figure 1.4.: Example of an undirected weighted graph

1.2.4. Walk

A **walk** in a graph is a finite sequence of nodes: $v_1, v_2, v_3, \ldots, v_k$ in which v_1 is connected by an edge to v_2, v_2 is connected by an edge to v_3 and so on til v_k . If the first and last node are the same it is a **closed walk**, otherwise it's **open**.

A **trail** is a walk with no repeated edges, though nodes may be repeated. Closed trails are also known as **circuits**. If all nodes in the sequence are distinct, a walk is called **path** (a walk with no repeated nodes and no repeated edges).

In figure ?? an example of a trail is the node sequence: b, a, c, b, d and an example of a path is the node sequence: a, c, b, d.

A graph is called **connected** if a walk from any node to any other node via edges exists.



1.2.5. Cycle

A **cycle** is a path that starts and ends at the same node with no repeated edges or nodes (except the starting and ending node). In figure ?? the directed graph contains a cycle of size 3 given by the following edge sequence: (1,3), (3,4), (4,1).

1.3. Common Graph Characteristics and Terms

1.3.1. Degree of a Vertex

The **degree** of a node v in an undirected graph, denoted deg(v), is the number of edges attached to v. The degree of node 3 in figure ?? is deg(3) = 3. In a directed graph, the degree is distinguished between:

- In-degree $deg^-(v)$: number of edges entering v
- Out-degree $deg^+(v)$: number of edges leaving v

In figure **??** the $deg^{-}(3) = 1$ and $deg^{+}(3) = 2$.

1.3.2. Complete Graph

A **complete graph** K_n is an undirected graph with n nodes where every pair of distinct nodes is connected by a unique edge. Figure **??** show the complete graph K_4 .



Figure 1.5.: Example complete graph with 4 nodes



1.3.3. Subgraph

A graph (V_1, E_1) is a **subgraph** of (V_2, E_2) if it is a graph where $(V_1 \subseteq V_2)$ and $(E_1 \subset E_2)$ The graph of figure **??** is a subgraph of K_4 , shown in **??**.

1.3.4. Planar Graph

A connected graph is said to be **planar** if it can be drawn without any edges crossing. When a planar graph is drawn, it divides the plane into regions. The complete graph K_4 can be drawn without crossing edges, as shown in figure \ref{figure} . It divides the plane into 4 regions, numbered with roman numerals.

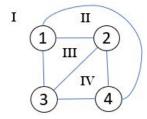


Figure 1.6.: Example complete planar graph with 4 nodes, divided into 4 regions

Definition 1 (Euler characteristic). For any connected planar graph the *Euler characteristic*: V - E + R = 2, respectively V number of nodes, E number of edges, E number of regions.

1.4. Graph Representations

1.4.1. Visual Representation

The most intuitive representation is the visual one. Nodes are visualized by circles or dots and edges are lines between two nodes.



1.4.2. Adjacency List

An adjacency list is a collection of unordered lists used to represent a graph. Each list describes the set of neighbors of a vertex in the graph.

The adjacency list representation of the graph of figure ?? is:

- 1: 2,3
- 2: 1,3
- 3: 1, 2, 4
- 4:3

1.4.3. Adjacency Matrix

The **adjacency matrix** A of a graph G with n vertices is an $n \times n$ matrix where the entry a_{ij} is 1 if there exists an edge from vertex i to vertex j, otherwise it is set to 0.

For a simple graph:

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if there is an edge between } v_i \text{ and } v_j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In a weighted graph the entry a_{ij} is set to the weight of the edge from vertex i to vertex j. The adjacency matrix of the undirected graph in figure **??** is given below:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Both adjacency lists and adjacency matrices are useful representations of graphs, most commonly used in programming languages. Adjacency lists are generally more space-efficient for graphs with less edges, while adjacency matrices allow for faster lookup times to determine if an edge exists between two nodes.



Understanding the basic definitions and properties of graphs is essential for exploring more advanced topics. Also, teachers should be aware of the mathematical foundation behind graph theory.

In the field of graph theory many exciting problems exists:

- Enumeration
- Subgraphs
- Planar Graphs
- Graph Coloring
- Route Problems
- Seven bridges of Königsberg
- Decomposition Problems
- Traveling Salesman
- Cycle Detection

The focus on the presented learning sequence is based on route problems.

1.5. Shortest Path Problem

An interesting problem for students in secondary school is to find the shortest path on a map. An algorithm to find the shortest path from a starting node to a destination node in a graph is described in the paper of Dijkstra[15].

The algorithm is shown below.



Algorithm 1 Dijkstra shortest path algorithm

```
Require: G = (V, E), s \in V
Ensure: P = V
 1: for each v \in V do
        dist(v) \leftarrow \infty
 2:
        prev(v) \leftarrow null
 4: end for
 5: dist(s) = 0
 6: repeat
 7:
        c \leftarrow arg \min_{v \in V \setminus P} dist(v)
        P = P \cap c
 8:
 9:
        for each node u \in V \setminus P adjacent to c do
            if dist(u) > d(c) + w(c, u) then
10:
                 dist(u) = d(c) + w(c, u)
11:
                 prev(u) = c
12:
             end if
13:
14:
        end for
15: until P = \emptyset
16: return dist, prev
```

Explanation of the key steps:

- Initialization (line 1 to 5): Set distance of all nodes to infinity, except starting node gets distance zero.
- Main Loop (line 6 to 15): While there are unvisited nodes, select the node with smallest known distance as current node.
- Check neighbors (line 9 to 14): For each neighbor of current node, calculate new distance. If it's less than current known distance, update distance and previous node is set to current node.



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