





ZPR PWr – Zintegrowany Program Rozwoju Politechniki Wrocławskiej

Data Structures and Algorithms – W10

Graph Theory part.1
Introduction – definition, representation
Connected Components
Bread-first and Depth-first search

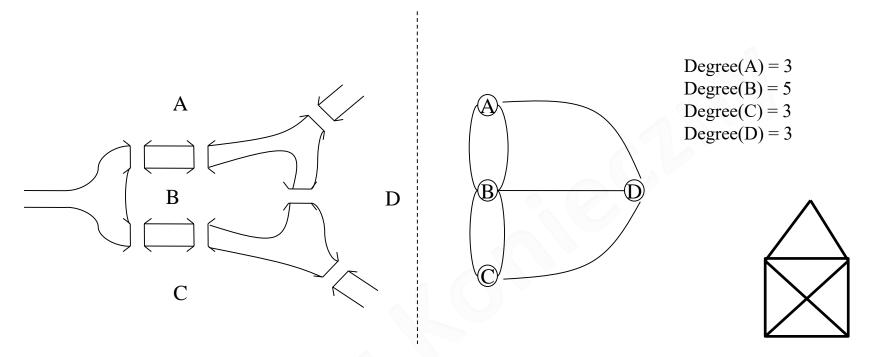
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Contents

- Introduction into graph theory
 - Definitions: graph, digraph,...
 - Other definitions: path, cycle etc.
- Representation in computer memory
 - Adjacency matrix
 - Adjacency list
 - Incidence matrix
- Algorithm for connected components
- Breadth-first search (BFS)
- Depth-first search (DFS)

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Seven Bridges of Königsberg (1736)



- An *Euler tour* of a graph is a cycle that traverses each edge of the graph exactly once, although it may visit a vertex more than once
- A graph has an Euler tour if degree(v) is even for each vertex v.
- An **Euler walk** in an graph is a path that uses each edge exactly once An Euler walk exist if at most two vertices in the graph are of odd degree .

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Graph - definition

A graph G (undirected graph) is an ordered pair:

V – is a finite set of points called *vertices*

E – is a finite set of *edges*, each of which connect a pair of vertices. The vertices belonging to the edge are called its *endpoints* of the edge.

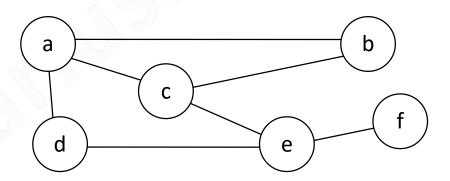
 $e \in E$ is **unordered** pair (u, v), where u, $v \in V$ (vertices u and v **are connected**)

An example:

$$G_1=(V_1,E_1)$$

 $V_1=\{a,b,c,d,e,f\}$
 $E_1=\{(a,c),(b,a),(a,d),(d,e),(c,e),(e,f),(c,b)\}$

 In theory, there are also infinite graphs, but we will not deal with them in the lecture



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Digraph (directed graph) - definition

Digraph (directed graph) G is an ordered pair:

V – a finite set of points called *vertices*

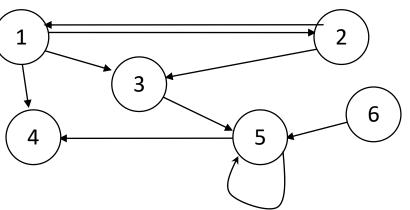
A – a finite set of *directed edges (arcs)*

 $e \in A$ is an **ordered** pair (u, v), where u, $v \in V$ (there is connection **from** u **to** v)), u is a **head**, v is a **tail**

An example:

$$G_2=(V_2,E_2)$$

 $V_2=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
 $E_2=\{(1,4),(5,4),(1,2),(6,5),(2,1),(3,5),(1,3),(2,3),(5,5)\}$



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Others graphs

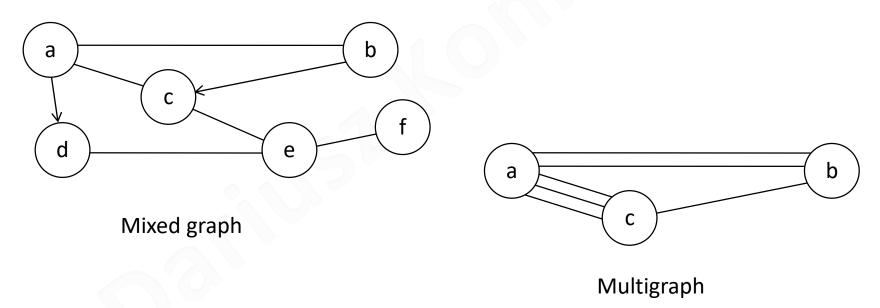
• **Mixed** graph:

$$G=(V,E,A)$$

Where:

V,E,A – like in previous definitions

 Multihgraph (pseudograph), where can be, that two or more edges connect the same two vertices

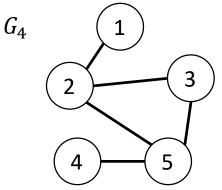


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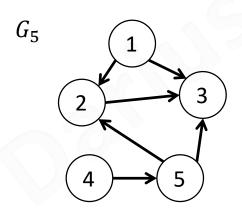
Graph's representation – adjacency matrix

• The adjacency matrix of graph G = (V, E) is an $n \times n$ array $(n=|V|) A = (a_{i,j})$, which elements are defined as follows:

$$a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & (v_i, v_j) \in E \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

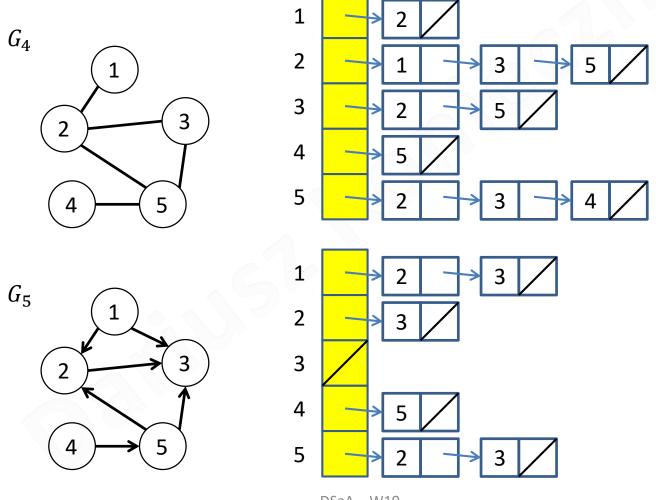


$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Graph's representation – adjacency list

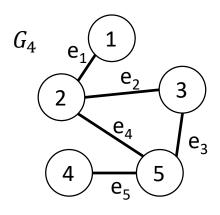
• The <u>adjacency list</u> of graph G = (V, E) is an array Adj[1..|V|] of lists. For each $v \in V$, Adj[v] is a linked list of all vertices adjacent to v.



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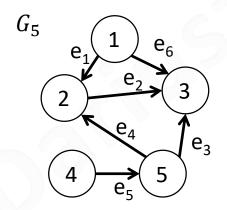
Graph's representation – incidence matrix

- Less popular, only for part of algorithms is useable
- It needs many memory O(|V|*|E|)
- Every column descibe one edge: value 1 or -1 are in rows where are endpoints for the egde
- There are many other graph representations in the computer memory adapted to **specific** graphs, situations, algorithms.



edges
$$e_{1} \quad e_{2} \quad e_{3} \quad e_{4} \quad e_{5}$$

$$1 \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



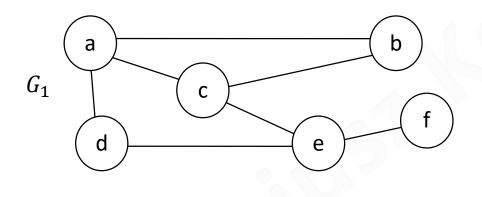
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} e_1 & e_2 & e_3 & e_4 & e_5 & e_6 \\ 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 2 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

edges

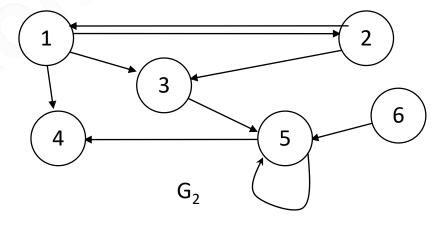
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Definitions 1/9

- General remark: how many books so many definitions!
- The **degree** deg(v) of a vertex v in a graph is its number of incident edges
 - In a directed graph, one may distinguish the in-degree (number of incoming edges) degIn(v) and out-degree (number of outgoing edges) degOut(v)
- An isolated vertex of a graph is a vertex whose degree is zero.



np.
 deg(c)=3
 deg(f)=1

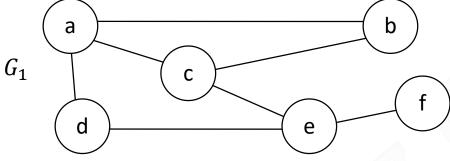


np.
degOut(3)=1
degIn(3)=2

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Definitions 2/9

- An edge is adjacent to its endpoints.
- Two edges are adjacent if they have one the same endpoint.
 - In directed graph two edges have to be adjacent to an endpoint which is a head for one edge and a tail for another edge.
- Two vertices u, v are adjacent if there is an edge (u,v)



 G_2 np.

Np.
a is adjacent to (a,c)
c is adjacent to e
(d,e) is adjacent to(e,f)

(2,1) is adjacent to (1,4) (2,1) is adjacent to (2,3)

4 is adjacent to (5,4)

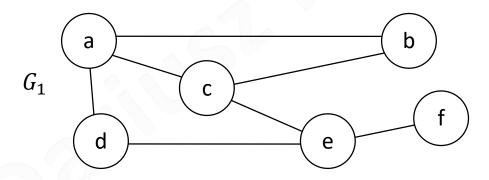
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Definitions 3/9

- A walk is an alternating sequence of vertices and edges, starting and ending at a vertex, in which each edge is adjacent in the sequence to its two endpoints.
- A trail A walk without repeated edges (but with vertex repetition allowed)
- A **path** from vertex v to vertex u is a trail sequence $(v_0, v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$ of vertices where:

$$v_0 = v$$
, $v_k = u$ and $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ for $i = 0, 1, ..., k-1$

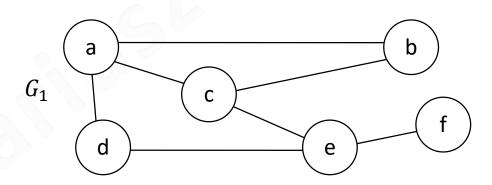
- Vertices v and u are called endpoints of the path
- E.a. for the graph G_1 a path is $p_1=(a,c,e,d,a,b)$
- The length of a path is the number of edges in the path
 - The lenght of p₁ is equal 5



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Definitions 4/9

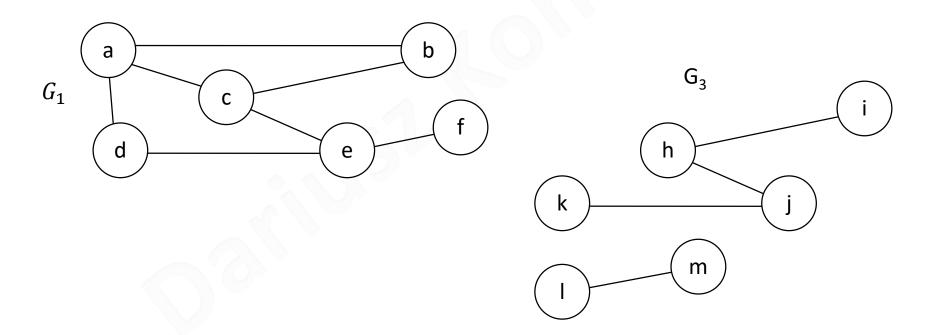
- A simple path a walk with no repetitions of vertices or edges (beside maybe the first and the last vertex)
 - A path p_1 is not simple, a simple path is jest p_2 =(b,c,e,d)
- A cycle it is closed path where first and last vertex are the same.
- A **simple cycle** Cycle without repetition of edges.
- A loop/self-loop is an edge both of whose endpoints are the same vertex.
 - It forms a cycle of length 1. These are not allowed in simple graphs.
- We say that the graph is acyclic when it contains no cycle.



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Definitions 5/9

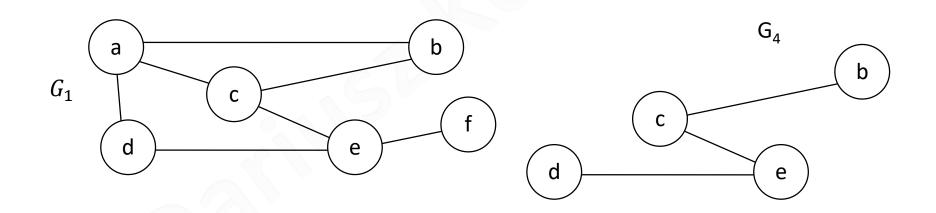
- A graph is **connected** if every pair of vertices is connected by a path
 - For the undirected graph, the definition is used directly
 - For a directed graph it is transformed into a undirected underlying graph obtained by replacing all directed edges of the graph with undirected edges.
- Graph G₁ is connected, graph G₃ is not connected.



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Definitions 6/9

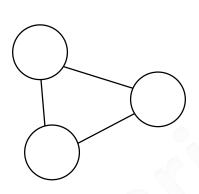
- A graph $G_I = (V_I, E_I)$ is a <u>subgraph</u> of G = (V, E) if $V_I \subseteq V$ and $E_I \subseteq E$
- The subgraph of G induced by $V_i \subseteq V$ is the graph $G_i = (V_i, E_i)$, where $E_i = \{(u, v) \in E \mid u, v \in V_i\}$
 - G₄ the subgraph of G₁ induced by set of vertices {b,c,d,e}



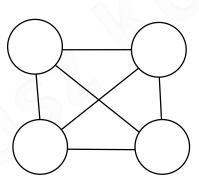
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Definitions 7/9

- A **complete graph** is one in which every two vertices are adjacent: all edges that could exist are present. The undirected complete graph has exactly $|E| = |V| * (|V| 1)/2 = \Theta(n^2)$ edges.
- Density of the graph the ratio of the number of edges to the largest possible number of edges.
 - We say that a graph is **dense**, when the number of its edges is of the order of the number of edges of the full graph
 - We say that a graph is sparse otherwise
 - Most often, we assume that the number of edges in a sparse graph |E|=O(|V|)



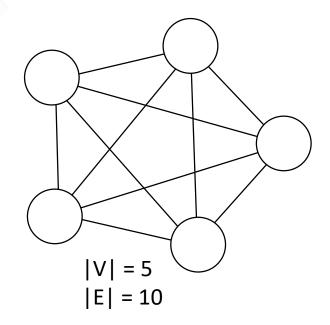
$$|E| = 3$$



$$|V| = 4$$

$$|E| = 6$$

Complete graphs

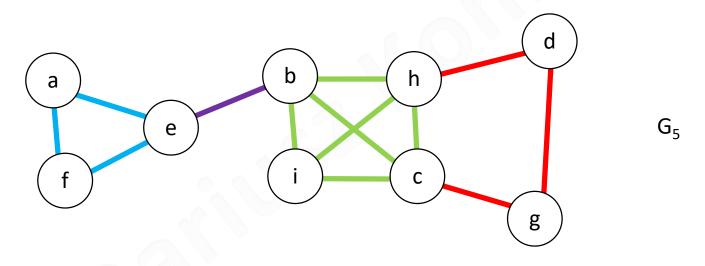


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Definitions 8/9

• A clique – a complete subgraph

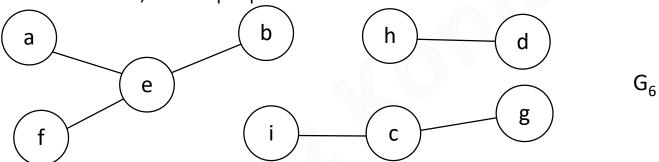
- The subgraph of G₅ induced by the vertices {b, c, h, i} is a clique
- The subgraph of G₅ induced by the vertices {a, e, f} is a clique
- The subgraph of G₅ induced by the vertices {e, b} is a clique
- The subgraph of G_5 induced by the vertices $\{c, d, g, h\}$ is **not** a **clique**



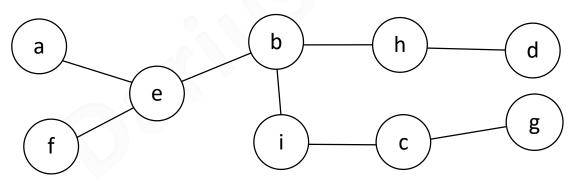
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Definitions 9/9

- A forest is an acyclic graph
 - Graphs G₆ and G₇ are forests
- A <u>tree is</u> a connected acyclic graph
 - Graph G₇ (but not G₆) is a tree
- If G = (V, E) is a tree, then |E| = |V| 1
- Often in considerations on computational / memory complexity, the number of vertices is taken as the size, i.e. n = |V|



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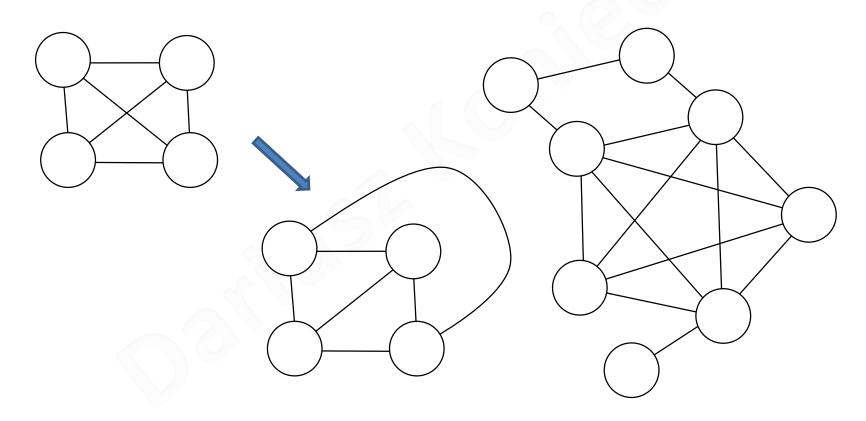


 G_7

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Problems of graph theory 1/4

- **Planar graph** A planar graph is a graph that has an embedding onto the Euclidean plane.
 - We can draw such a graph without crossing edges
- Problem: if the input graph is a planar one?
 - A complete graph with 4 vertices is planar, but any complete graph with more than one vertex is no longer planar.



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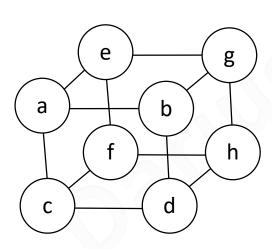
Problems of graph theory 2/4

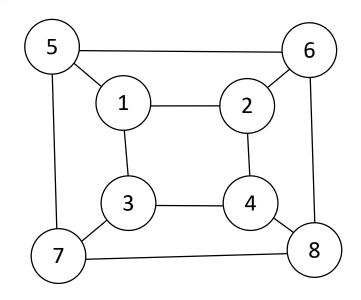
- Graph coloring: assigns different colors to the endpoints of each edge
 - Minimal number of colors
- Eulerian graph An Eulerian graph is a graph that has an Eulerian cycle (a closed walk that uses every edge exactly once)
- Hamiltonian graph it has a path which cover all of the vertices in the graph exactly once.

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Problems of graph theory 3/4

- **Graph isomorphism**: a one-to-one incidence preserving correspondence of the vertices and edges of one graph to the vertices and edges of another graph.
 - The graphical representation of graphs (in the form of dots and curves connecting them) is only a way of representing the relationships between the vertices. For each graph there are infinitely many graphs (drawings) that clearly show it. The properties of the graphs are independent of the vertex numbering method, the order in which they are drawn, etc. Graphs that differ only in the way they are represented, or in the indexes assigned to the vertices, are called isomorphic.
 - Problem: are given two graphs isomorphic?

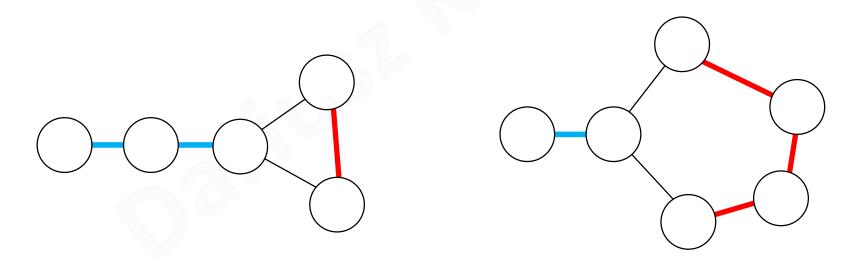




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Problems of graph theory 4/4

- Homeomorphism of graphs
 - Two graphs are homeomorphic if one can obtain the other from one graph by replacing selected edges with straight chains or straight chains with single edges ("drawing" on the edges of any number of vertices or erasing them).
 - Problem: are these two graphs homeomorphic?



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Weighted graph

- A weighted graph (digraph) G is a triple (V, E, w), where V set of vertices, E set of edges, while w: $E \to \Re$ z is a real-valued function defined on E.
 - Instead of writing $w((v_1,v_2))$ we will use $w(v_1,v_2)$
- The weight of graph is the sum of the weight of its edges
- The weight of a path is the sum of the weight of its edges
- example:

```
G_3=(V_3,E_3,w)

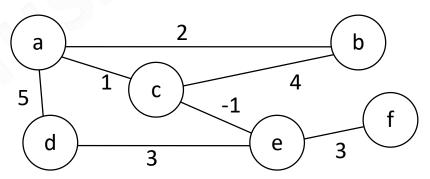
V_3=\{a,b,c,d,e,f\}

E_3=\{(a,c),(b,a),(a,d),(d,e),(c,e),(e,f),(c,b)\}

w – function in the below array
```

- The weight of graph G₃ is 17
- The weight of path $p_1=(a,c,e,d,a,b)$ is 10

$e \in E_3$	(a,c)	(b,a)	(a,d)	(d,e)	(c,e)	(e,f)	(c,b)
w(e)	1	2	5	3	-1	3	4



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Why/where

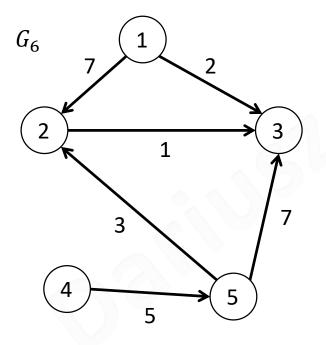
- With graphs we can express:
 - nets
 - computer nets
 - traffic nets
 - urban nets
 - ... nets
 - person connections
 - technology processes
 - work flow
 - relations in databases
 - etc.

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Adjacency matrix for weighted graph

• The adjacency matrix for weighted graph G = (V, E, W) is an $n \times n$ array (n=|V|) $A = (a_{i,i})$, which elements are defined as follows:

$$a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} w(v_i, v_j) & if (v_i, v_j) \in E \\ 0 & if i = j \\ \infty & otherwise \end{cases}$$

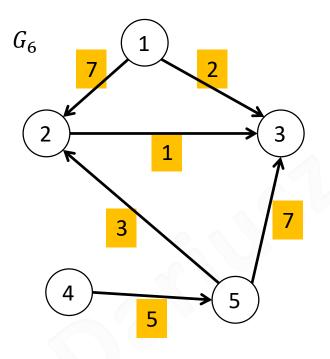


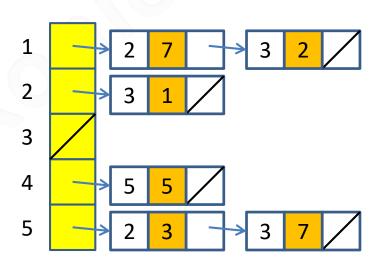
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & 0 & 7 & 2 & \infty & \infty \\ 2 & \infty & 0 & 1 & \infty & \infty \\ 4 & \infty & \infty & 0 & \infty & \infty \\ 5 & \infty & 3 & 7 & \infty & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Adjacency list for weighted graph

• Simple modification of the adjacency list to accommodate weighted graph. Every element stores a weight of a proper egde.





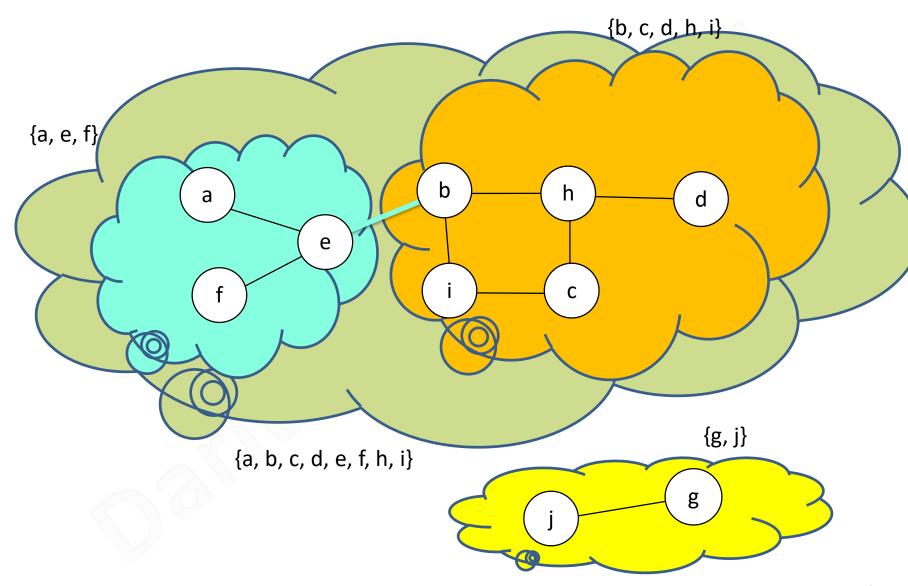
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Connected components

- In an undirected graph, a connected component or component is a maximal connected subgraph.
- Two vertices are in the same connected component if and only if there exists a path between them.
- Problem: division of the graph into connected components.
- The idea behind the algorithm: You don't have to search for an exact path between two vertices.
 - We analyze consecutive edges (in any order, each edge exactly once)
 - It is enough to remember during running the algorithm between which vertices some path exists as a set of vertices between which paths exist. Sets of such paths are disjoint. At the beginning, they are one-element sets (one set for each vertex)
 - When it analyzes the edge between vertices belonging to different sets, for example A and B, it means that using it you can find (through) a path from every vertex in set A to every vertex in set B. So we need to join these two sets.
 - If the edge connects vertices from the same set, we found a different path (probably also a cycle), but that doesn't change the division of the vertices into sets

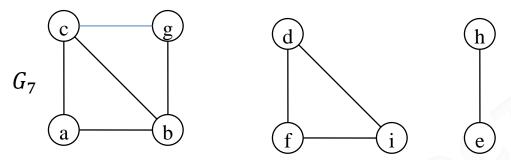
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Sample algorithm step - edge analysis (b, e)



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Connected components



A graph with three connected components.

- The solution is to use a structure to remember disjoint sets
 - That is, the forest of disjoint sets (DSF)
 - After the algorithm is completed, the set representative determines the connected component
- Complexity (adjacent lists): O(|V|+|E|)
- Complexity (adjacent matrix): O(|V|²)

```
ConnectedComponents (G, w)

{ 1} for each vertex u \in V[G] do

{ 2} MakeSet(u)

{ 3} for each edge (u, v) \in E do

if FindSet(u) \neq FindSet(v) then

{ 5} Union(u, v)
```

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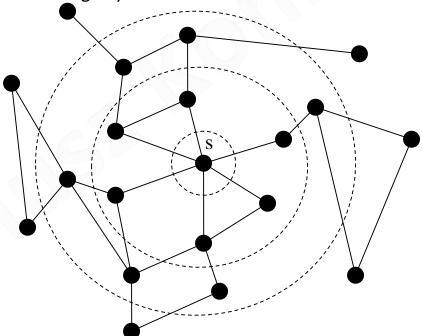
Connected components - example

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Breadth-first search

Given a graph G = (V, E) and a distinguished **source** vertex s, breadth-first search systematically explores the edges of G to "discover" every vertex that is reachable from s. It computes the distance (smallest number of edges) from s to each reachable vertex. It also produces a "breadth-first tree" with root s that contains all reachable vertices. For any vertex v reachable from s, the path in the breadth-first tree from s to v corresponds to a "shortest path" from s to v in G, that is, a path containing the smallest number of edges. The algorithm works on both directed and undirected graphs.

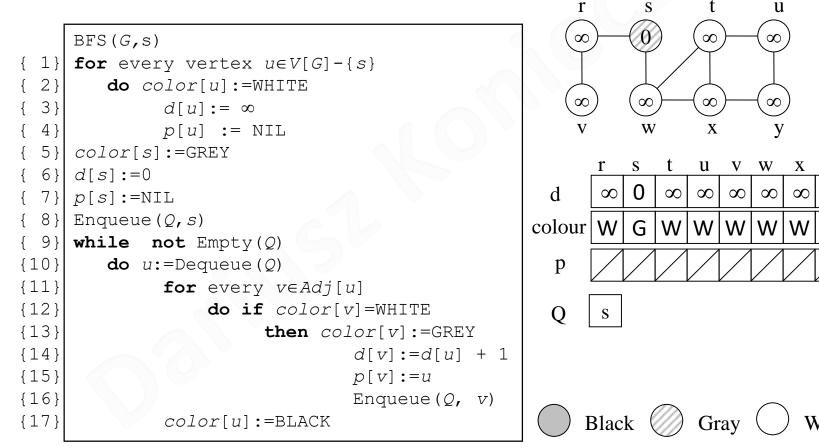
Breadth-first search is so named because it expands the frontier between discovered and undiscovered vertices uniformly across the breadth of the frontier. That is, the algorithm discovers all vertices at distance k from s before discovering any vertices at distance k + 1.



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BFS - code

- Breadth-first search colors each vertex white, gray, or black (color)
- Breadth-first search constructs a breadth-first tree, initially containing only its root, which is the source vertex s
- Predecessor of u is stored in the variable p[u]
- The distance from the source s to vertex u computed by the algorithm is stored in d[u].

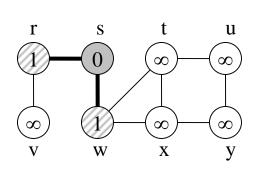


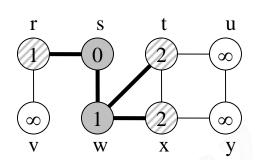
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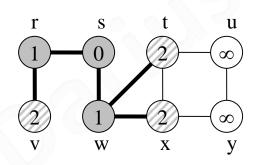
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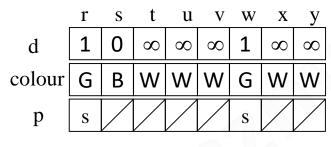
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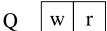
BFS – example 1/3

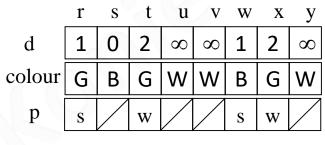




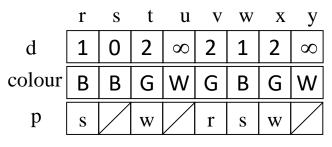








Q	r	t	X
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 $Q \quad \boxed{t \mid x \mid v}$

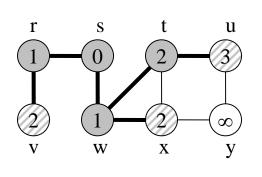
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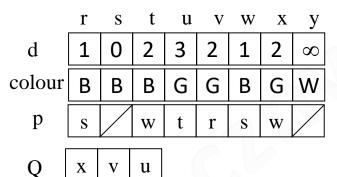
BFS – example 2/3

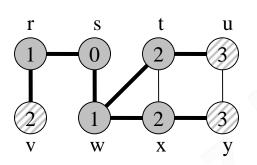
 \mathbf{X}

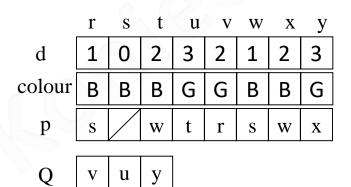
 \mathbf{V}

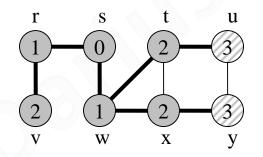
u







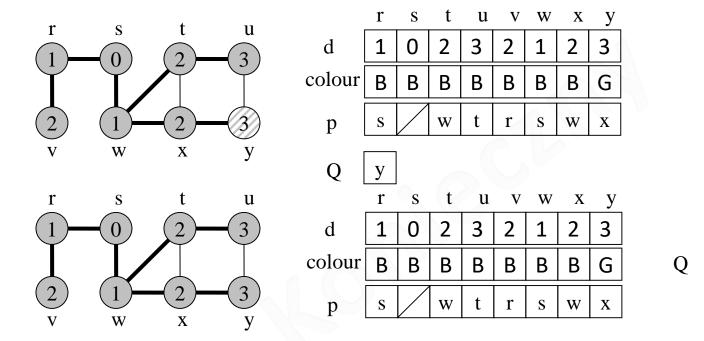




	r	S	t	u	V	W	X	у
d	1	0	2	3	2	1	2	3
colour	В	В	В	G	В	В	В	G
p	S		W	t	r	S	W	X
Q	u	y						

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BFS – example 3/3



- Complexity (adjacent lists): O(|V|+|E|)
- Complexity (adjacent matrix): O(|V|²)

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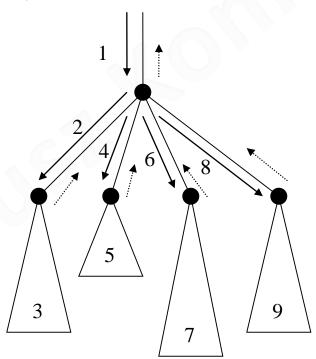
BFS - usage

- It creates tree of minimum paths (as number of edges)
- Can be a part of algorithm for another problem from graph theory.
 - In flow networks, searching for an extension path
- Idea used in solving problems in game theory (where the graph is built during computation)
 - Logic games chess etc.

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Depth-first search

- In depth-first search, edges are explored out of the most recently discovered vertex v that still has unexplored edges leaving it. When all of v's edges have been explored, the search "backtracks" to explore edges leaving the vertex from which v was discovered. This process continues until we have discovered all the vertices that are reachable from the original source vertex. If any undiscovered vertices remain, then one of them is selected as a new source and the search is repeated from that source. This entire process is repeated until all vertices are discovered
- Besides creating a depth-first forest, depth-first search also **timestamps** each vertex. Each vertex v has two timestamps: the first timestamp t[v] records when v is first discovered (and grayed), and the second timestamp f[v] records when the search finishes examining v's adjacency list (and blackens v)



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DFS - code

Recursive version, "global" time in variable time

```
DFS(G)

for each vertex u \in V[G] do

color[u] := WHITE

p[u] := NIL

time := 0

for each vertex u \in V[G] do

if color[u] = WHITE then

DFS_Visit(u)
```

```
DFS_VISIT(u)
color[u]:=GREY

time:=time+1

t[u]:=time

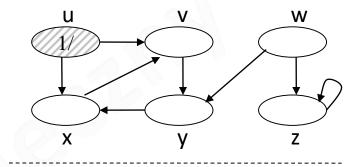
for each v ∈ Adj[u] do

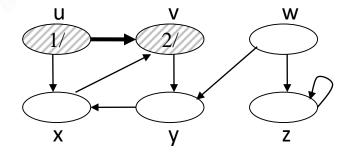
if color[v]=WHITE then

p[v] := u
DFS_Visit(v)

color[u]:=BLACK

f[u] := time := time+1;
```

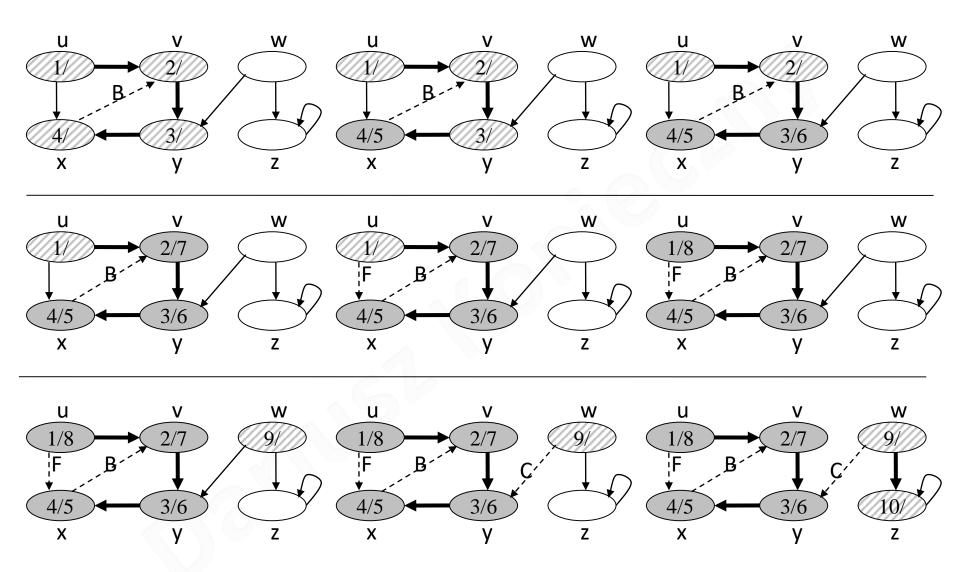




U V W W

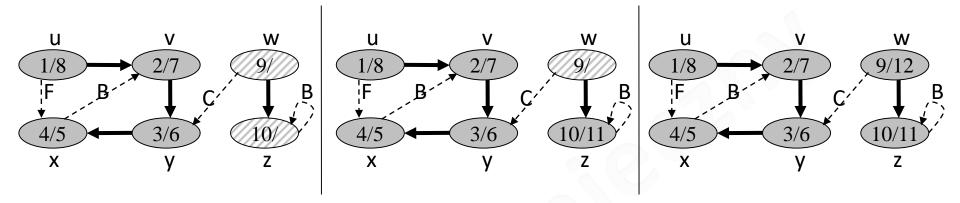
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DFS – example 1/2



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DFS – example 2/2



- On pictures there was marked edges:
 - -B-back edge
 - − F − *forward* edge
 - C cross edge
- Complexity (adjacent lists): O(|V|+|E|)
- Complexity (adjacent matrix): O(|V|²)

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DFS - usage

- A part of many other algorithms from graph theory
 - Searching bridges, or edges which divide a graph into dwo connected components
- Searching space of states for a game, when BFS generates to big number of states, specially when the space generated is a tree:
 - DFS need only store information about a path from source to a vertex
 - Variants of DFS algorithm: min-max, alpha-beta,
 A* etc.

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