

Graph Algorithms

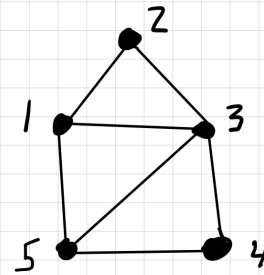
Graph $G = (V, E)$

V – vertices (nodes) $|V| = n$

$E \subseteq V \times V$ – edges $|E| = m$

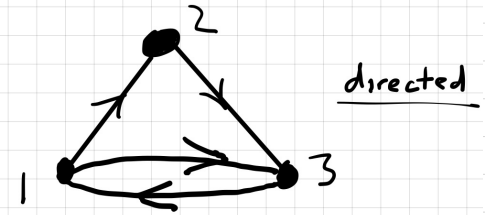
edges can be undirected (unordered pairs)
or directed (ordered pairs)

Examples



$V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$E = \{(1,2), (1,3), (1,5), \dots\}$



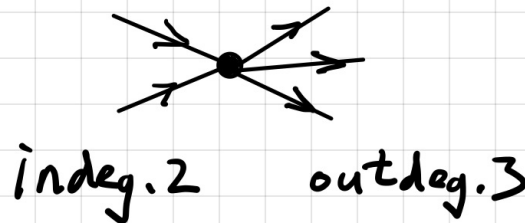
$V = \{1, 2, 3\}$

$E = \{(1,2), (2,3), (3,1), (1,3)\}$

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Basic Notions

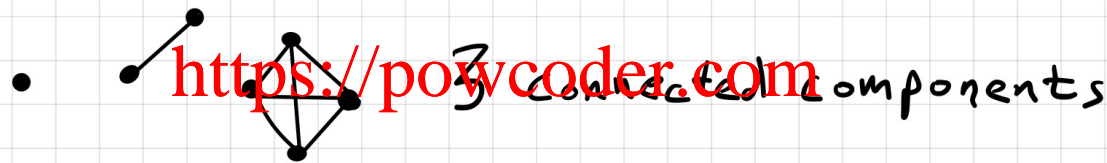
- $u, v \in V$ are adjacent or neighbours if $(u, v) \in E$
- $v \in V$ is incident to $e \in E$ if v is an endpoint of e . $e = (v, u)$ or $e = (u, v)$
- $\deg(v) = \#$ incident edges
- for directed graph indegree(v), outdegree(v)



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- a path is a sequence of vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k s.t. $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E, i = 1, \dots, k - 1$
a simple path does not repeat vertices
- a cycle is a path that starts and ends at the same vertex. simple cycle – no repeats
CAUTION: Some sources use “path” to mean a simple path
- a tree is a connected (undirected) graph without cycles
- an undirected graph is connected if every $u, v \in V$ are joined by a path
- connected component of a graph = maximal connected subgraph



History: Euler, Königsberg bridge problem 1735 W <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8v8n4r1U854> Seven Bridges of Königsberg

Applications — many!

- networks: wireless, transportation, social
- web pages, game configurations etc.
- W Graph Theory

Storing Graphs

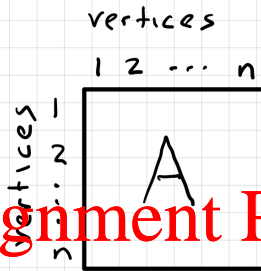
In practice, vertices and edges may have names or other associated information, but our algorithms will be for abstract graphs.

Assume vertices are $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ (sometimes write v_1, \dots, v_n or use letters)

Two basic ways to store a graph:

Adjacency matrix

$n \times n$ matrix
space $O(n^2)$



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

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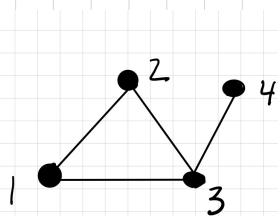
Adjacency lists for every vertex u , store a linked list of its (forward) neighbours, i.e., vertices v such that $(u, v) \in E$

space $O(n + m)$

Examples

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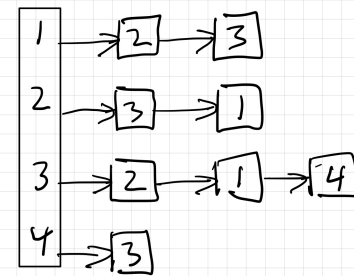
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| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 4 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

for an undirected graph

$$A[i, j] = A[j, i]$$



For an undirected graph, every edge “appears” twice, e.g., $(2, 3)$ is in 2’s list and 3’s list.

More examples in CLRS or <http://jeffe.cs.illinois.edu/teaching/algorithms/book/05-graphs.pdf>

Ex. Do an example of a directed graph.

Basic operations:

| | adjacency matrix | adjacency lists |
|------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| list v 's neighbours | $\Theta(n)$ | $\Theta(1 + \deg(v))$ |
| list all edges | $\Theta(n^2)$ | $\Theta(n + m)$ |
| is $(u, v) \in E$ | $\Theta(1)$ | $O(1 + \deg(u))$ |
| space | $\Theta(n^2)$ | $\Theta(n + m)$ |

our algorithms
will only need
these

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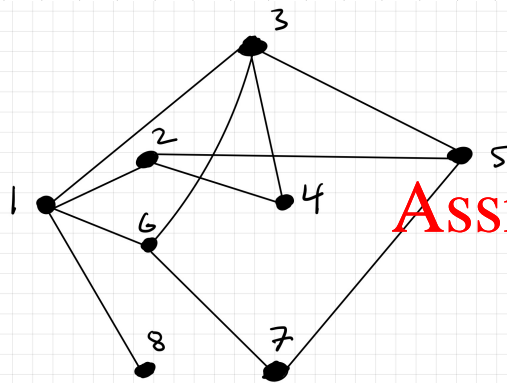
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For algorithms in this course, we'll use adjacency lists.

Exploring Graphs – visit all nodes, or all nodes reachable from some “source” further – find shortest paths, connected components.

Breadth First / Depth First Search

BFS

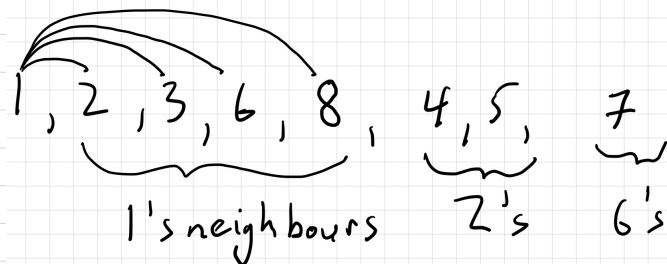


Cautious search:
check everything one
edge away, then two, etc.

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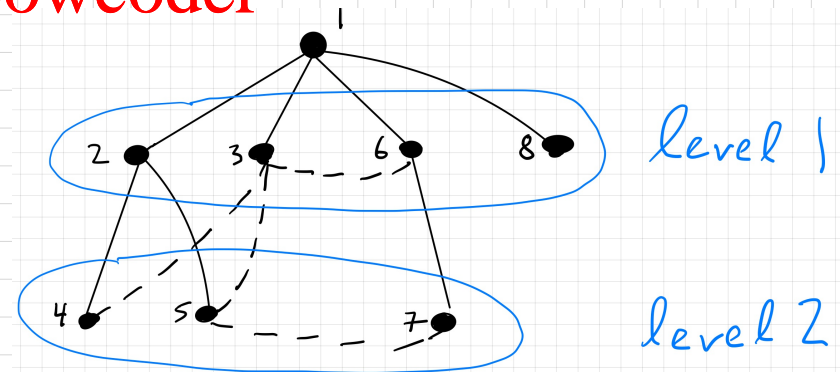
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order in which vertices are discovered



BFS tree

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Use a queue to store vertices that have been discovered but must still be explored.
Vertices are marked: undiscovered \rightarrow discovered.

Explore(v)

for each neighbour u of v **do**

if mark(u) = undiscovered **then**

mark(u) := discovered

parent(u) := v ; level(u) := level(v) + 1

add u to Queue

fi

od

BFS

initialize: mark all vertices undiscovered

pick initial vertex v_0

parent(v_0) := \emptyset ; level(v_0) := 0

add v_0 to Queue

mark(v_0) := discovered

while Queue not empty **do**

v := remove from Queue

Explore(v)

od

Also useful to store parent and level. *See blue additions above.*

BFS takes $O(n + m)$ time — we explore each vertex once and check all incident edges.

Time is $O(n + \sum_v \deg(v)) = O(n + m)$

Note: $\sum_v \deg(v) = 2m$ because we count each edge twice.

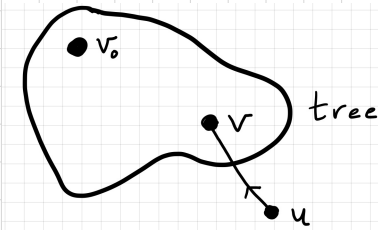
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Properties of BFS

- the parent pointers create a directed tree (because each addition adds a new vertex u , with parent v in the tree)
- u is connected to v_0 if and only if BFS from v_0 reaches u .



Stronger: Lemma: The level of a vertex v = length of shortest path from v_0 to v .

Proved via 2 claims:

Claim 1 v in level $i \Rightarrow$ there is a path v_0 to v of i edges.

Claim 2 v in level $i \Rightarrow$ every path v_0 to v has $\geq i$ edges.

Proof of claim 1 by induction on i , the level.

Basis $i = 0$: $v = v_0$, the root of the tree.

Induction step: v in level $i \Rightarrow$ parent(v) in level $i - 1$ $\xrightarrow[\text{hypo.}]{\text{ind.}}$ there is a path v_0 to parent(v) of $i - 1$ edges. Adding edge (parent(v), v) gives path v_0 to v of i edges \square

To prove claim 2 we will prove: if there is a path v_0 to v of j edges then v is in level $\leq j$.

Proof by induction on j . Basis $j = 0$: must have $v = v_0$, which is in level 0. Induction step. Let u be vertex before v in path. There is a path v_0 to u of $j - 1$ edges. By induction u is in level $\leq j - 1$. So one edge (u, v) goes to level $\leq j$. \square

Consequences:

1. BFS from v_0 finds the connected component of v_0 .
 2. BFS finds shortest paths (# edges) from v_0
-

Exercises:

- Enhance BFS to find all connected components in time $O(n + m)$.
- Use BFS to find if a connected graph has a cycle.
- Prove that if $(u, v) \in E$ then $\text{level}(u)$, $\text{level}(v)$ differ by 0 or 1.

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