

Algorithms 09

CS201

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Representation of Graphs

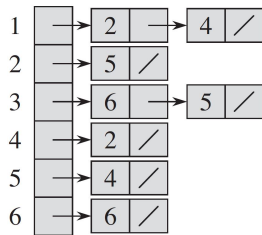
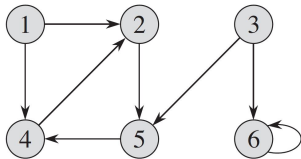
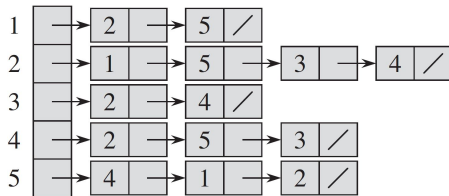
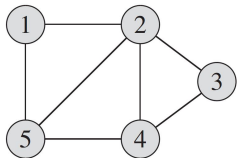
Two Ways of Representing a Graph $G = (V, E)$

- ▶ **Adjacency-list:** Provides a compact way to represent sparse graphs—those for which E is much less than $|V|^2$.
- ▶ **Adjacency-matrix:** Preferred to represent dense graphs—those for which E is close to $|V|^2$ when we need to be able to tell quickly if there is an edge connecting two given vertices.

Adjacency-List

- ▶ The adjacency-list representation of a graph $G = (V, E)$ consists of an array Adj of $|V|$ lists, one for each vertex in V .
- ▶ For each $u \in V$, the adjacency list $Adj[u]$ contains all the vertices v such that there is an edge $(u, v) \in E$.
- ▶ $Adj[u]$ consists of all the vertices adjacent to $u \in G$. (Alternatively, it may contain pointers to these vertices.)
- ▶ Since the adjacency lists represent the edges of a graph, in pseudocode we treat the array Adj as an attribute of the graph, just as we treat the edge set E .
- ▶ If G is a directed graph, the sum of the lengths of all the adjacency lists is $|E|$. If G is an undirected graph, the sum of the lengths of all the adjacency lists is $2|E|$.
- ▶ For both directed and undirected graphs, the adjacency-list representation has the memory requirement of $\theta(V + E)$.

Adjacency-List



Adjacency-List

- ▶ For both directed and undirected graphs, the adjacency-list representation has the memory requirement of $\theta(V + E)$.
- ▶ We can readily adapt adjacency lists to represent weighted graphs, that is, graphs for which each edge has an associated weight, typically given by a weight function $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- ▶ Provides no quicker way to determine whether a given edge (u, v) present in the graph than to search for v in the adjacency list $Adj[u]$.

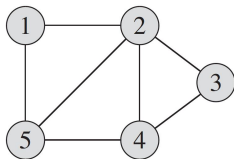
Adjacency-Matrix

- ▶ We assume that the vertices are numbered $1, 2, \dots, |V|$ in some arbitrary manner. Then the adjacency-matrix representation of a graph G consists of a $|V| \times |V|$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ such that

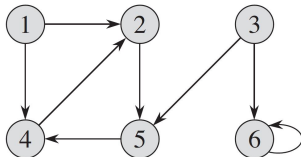
$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i,j) \in E, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- ▶ The adjacency matrix of a graph requires $|V|^2$ memory, independent of the number of edges in the graph.
- ▶ Since in an undirected graph, (u,v) and (v,u) represent the same edge, the adjacency matrix A of an undirected graph is its own transpose: $A = A^T$.
- ▶ We may store above the diagonal of the adjacency matrix, thereby cutting the memory needed to store the graph almost in half.

Adjacency-Matrix



	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	1	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	1	1
3	0	1	0	1	0
4	0	1	1	0	1
5	1	1	0	1	0



	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	0	1	0	1	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	0	1	1
4	0	1	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	1	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	1

Adjacency-Matrix

- ▶ An adjacency matrix can represent a weighted graph.
- ▶ We can store the weight $w(u, v)$ of the edge $(u, v) \in E$ as the entry in row u and column v of the adjacency matrix. If an edge does not exist, we can store a NIL, 0, or ∞ .

Breadth-first Search

- ▶ Breadth-first search is one of the simplest algorithms for searching a graph and the archetype for many important graph algorithms.
- ▶ It produces a “breadth-first tree” with root s that contains all reachable vertices. For any vertex v reachable from source vertex s , the simple 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.
- ▶ Breadth-first search is so named because it expands the frontier between discovered and undiscovered vertices uniformly across the breadth of the frontier. The algorithm discovers all vertices at distance k from s before discovering any vertices at distance $k + 1$.

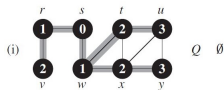
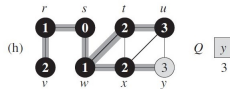
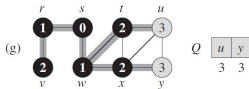
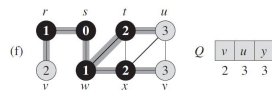
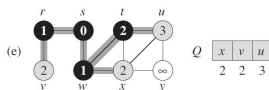
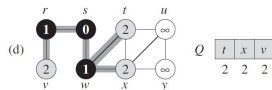
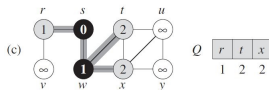
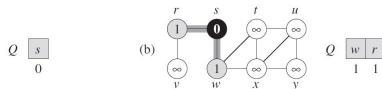
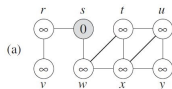
Breadth-first Search

BFS(G, s)

```

1  for each vertex  $u \in G.V - \{s\}$ 
2     $u.color = \text{WHITE}$ 
3     $u.d = \infty$ 
4     $u.\pi = \text{NIL}$ 
5   $s.color = \text{GRAY}$ 
6   $s.d = 0$ 
7   $s.\pi = \text{NIL}$ 
8   $Q = \emptyset$ 
9  ENQUEUE( $Q, s$ )
10 while  $Q \neq \emptyset$ 
11    $u = \text{DEQUEUE}(Q)$ 
12   for each  $v \in G.Adj[u]$ 
13     if  $v.color == \text{WHITE}$ 
14        $v.color = \text{GRAY}$ 
15        $v.d = u.d + 1$ 
16        $v.\pi = u$ 
17       ENQUEUE( $Q, v$ )
18    $u.color = \text{BLACK}$ 

```



Breadth-first Search

Printing Path

```
PRINT-PATH( $G, s, v$ )  
1  if  $v == s$   
2      print  $s$   
3  elseif  $v.\pi == \text{NIL}$   
4      print “no path from”  $s$  “to”  $v$  “exists”  
5  else PRINT-PATH( $G, s, v.\pi$ )  
6      print  $v$ 
```

Breadth-first Search

Analysis

- ▶ The overhead for initialization is $O(|V|)$.
- ▶ After initialization, breadth-first search never whitens a vertex, and thus the test in line 13 ensures that each vertex is enqueued at most once, and hence dequeued at most once.
- ▶ The operations of enqueueing and dequeueing take $O(1)$ time, and so the total time devoted to queue operations is $O(|V|)$.
- ▶ Because the procedure scans the adjacency list of each vertex only when the vertex is dequeued, it scans each adjacency list at most once.
- ▶ Since the sum of the lengths of all the adjacency lists is $\Theta(|E|)$, the total time spent in scanning adjacency lists is $O(|E|)$.
- ▶ Thus the total running time of the BFS procedure is $O(|V| + |E|)$.

Depth-first search

- ▶ The strategy followed by depth-first search (DFS) searches “deeper” in the graph whenever possible.
- ▶ DFS explores edges out of the most recently discovered vertex v that still has unexplored edges leaving it.
- ▶ Once 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 depth-first search selects one of them as a new source, and it repeats the search from that source. The algorithm repeats this entire process until it has discovered every vertex.

Depth-first search

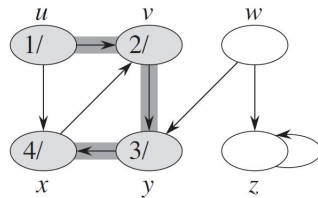
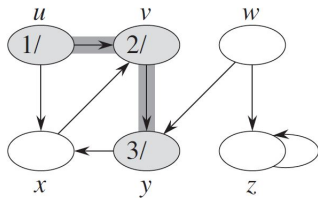
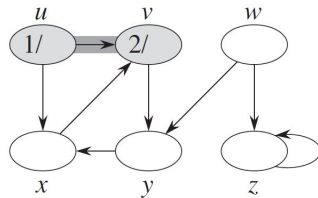
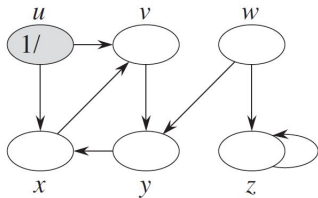
DFS(G)

```
1  for each vertex  $u \in G.V$ 
2       $u.color = \text{WHITE}$ 
3       $u.\pi = \text{NIL}$ 
4   $time = 0$ 
5  for each vertex  $u \in G.V$ 
6      if  $u.color == \text{WHITE}$ 
7          DFS-VISIT( $G, u$ )
```

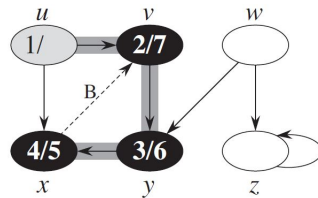
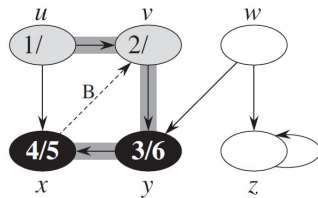
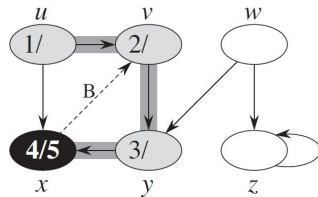
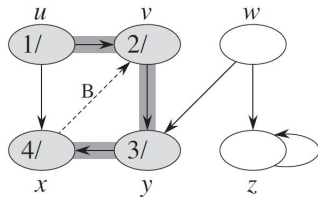
DFS-VISIT(G, u)

```
1   $time = time + 1$ 
2   $u.d = time$ 
3   $u.color = \text{GRAY}$ 
4  for each  $v \in G.Adj[u]$ 
5      if  $v.color == \text{WHITE}$ 
6           $v.\pi = u$ 
7          DFS-VISIT( $G, v$ )
8   $u.color = \text{BLACK}$ 
9   $time = time + 1$ 
10  $u.f = time$ 
```

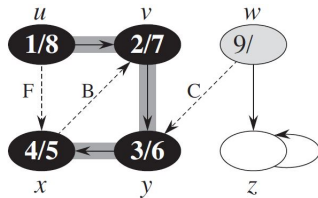
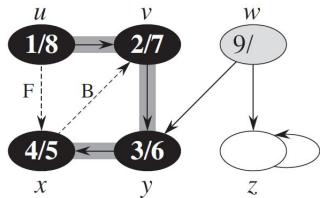
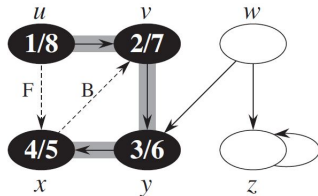
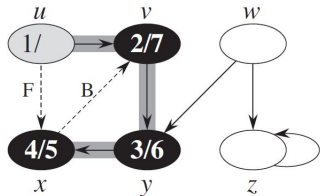
Depth-first search



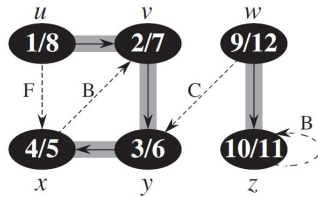
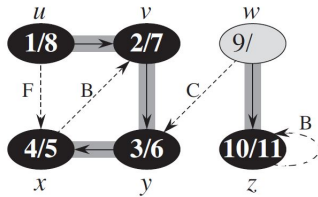
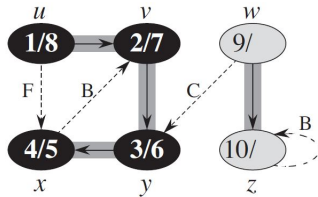
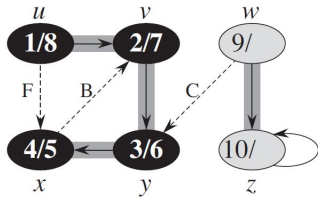
Depth-first search



Depth-first search



Depth-first search



Depth-first Search

Analysis

- ▶ The loops on lines 1–3 and lines 5–7 of DFS take time $\Theta(|V|)$, exclusive of the time to execute the calls to DFS-VISIT.
- ▶ The procedure DFS-VISIT is called exactly once for each vertex $v \in V$, since the vertex u on which DFS-VISIT is invoked must be white and the first thing DFS-VISIT does is paint vertex u gray.
- ▶ During an execution of DFS-VISIT (G, v) , the loop on lines 4–7 executes $|Adj[v]|$ times.
- ▶ Since

$$\sum_{v \in V} |Adj[v]| = \Theta(|E|)$$

the total cost of executing lines 4–7 of DFS-VISIT is $\Theta(|E|)$.

- ▶ The running time of DFS is therefore $\Theta(|V| + |E|)$.

BFS: Lemmas

Lemma 1

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a directed or undirected graph, and let $s \in V$ be an arbitrary vertex. Then, for any edge $(u, v) \in E$,

$$\delta(s, v) \leq \delta(s, u) + 1$$

where $\delta(s, v)$ is the shortest-path distance from s to v defined as the minimum number of edges in any path from vertex s to vertex v ; if there is no path from s to v , then $\delta(s, v) = \infty$.

BFS: Lemmas

Lemma 2

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a directed or undirected graph, and suppose that BFS is run on G from a given source vertex $s \in V$. Then upon termination, for each vertex $v \in V$, the value $v.d$ computed by BFS satisfies $v.d \geq \delta(s, v)$.

Lemma 3

Suppose that during the execution of BFS on a graph $G = (V, E)$, the queue Q contains the vertices $\langle v_1, v_2, \dots, v_r \rangle$, where v_1 is the head of Q and v_r is the tail. Then, $v_r.d \leq v_1.d + 1$ and $v_i.d \leq v_{i+1}.d$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, r - 1$.

Lemma 4

Suppose that vertices v_i and v_j are enqueued during the execution of BFS, and that v_i is enqueued before v_j . Then $v_i.d \leq v_j.d$ at the time that v_j is enqueued.

Breadth-first Trees

- For a graph $G = (V, E)$ with source s , we define the predecessor subgraph of G as $G_\pi = (V_\pi, E_\pi)$, where

$$V_\pi = \{v \in V : v.\pi \neq \text{NIL}\} \cup \{s\}$$

and

$$E_\pi = \{(v.\pi, v) : v \in V_\pi - \{s\}\}$$

The predecessor subgraph G_π is a breadth-first tree if V_π consists of the vertices reachable from s and, for all $v \in V_\pi$, the subgraph G_π contains a unique simple path from s to v that is also a shortest path from s to v in G . A breadth-first tree is in fact a tree, since it is connected and $|E_\pi| = |V_\pi| - 1$. We call the edges in E_π tree edges.

Predecessor Subgraph of a Depth-first Search

- For a graph $G = (V, E)$, predecessor subgraph of a depth-first search can be defined as $G_\pi = (V, E_\pi)$ where

$$E_\pi = \{(v.\pi, v) : v \in V \text{ and } v.\pi \neq \text{NIL}\}$$

The predecessor subgraph of a depth-first search forms a depth-first forest comprising several depth-first trees. The edges in E_π are tree edges.

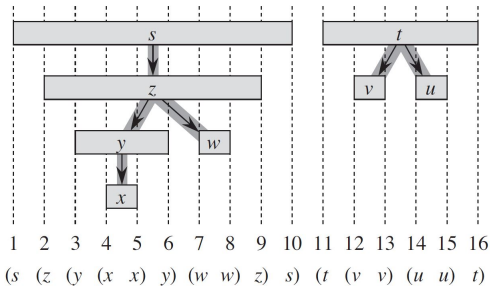
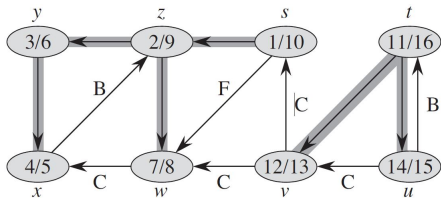
DFS: Theorems

Parenthesis Theorem

In any depth-first search of a (directed or undirected) graph $G = (V, E)$, for any two vertices u and v , exactly one of the following three conditions holds:

- ▶ the intervals $[u.d, u.f]$ and $[v.d, v.f]$ are entirely disjoint, and neither u nor v is a descendant of the other in the depth-first forest,
- ▶ the interval $[u.d, u.f]$ is contained entirely within the interval $[v.d, v.f]$, and u is a descendant of v in a depth-first tree, or
- ▶ the interval $[v.d, v.f]$ is contained entirely within the interval $[u.d, u.f]$, and v is a descendant of u in a depth-first tree.

DFS: Theorems



DFS: Theorems and Corollaries

Corollary: Nesting of Descendants' Intervals

Vertex v is a proper descendant of vertex u in the depth-first forest for a (directed or undirected) graph G if and only if $u.d < v.d < v.f < u.f$.

Theorem: White-path Theorem

In a depth-first forest of a (directed or undirected) graph $G = (V, E)$, vertex v is a descendant of vertex u if and only if at the time $u.d$ that the search discovers u , there is a path from u to v consisting entirely of white vertices.

Classification of Edges

Tree edges

Tree edges are edges in the depth-first forest G_π . Edge (u, v) is a tree edge if v was first discovered by exploring edge (u, v) .

Back edges

Back edges are those edges (u, v) connecting a vertex u to an ancestor v in a depth-first tree. We consider self-loops, which may occur in directed graphs, to be back edges.

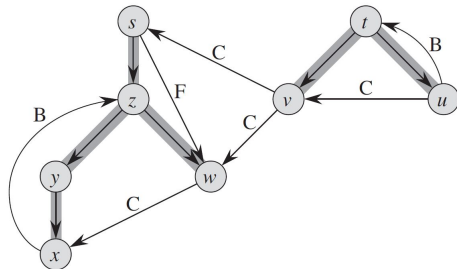
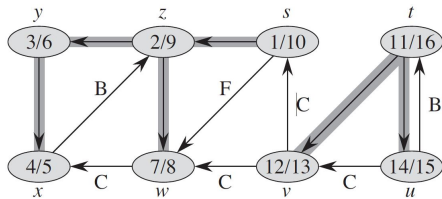
Forward edges

Forward edges are those nontree edges (u, v) connecting a vertex u to a descendant v in a depth-first tree.

Cross edges

Cross edges are all other edges. They can go between vertices in the same depth-first tree, as long as one vertex is not an ancestor of the other, or they can go between vertices in different depth-first trees.

Classification of Edges



White Board

White Board