

Graphs

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Learning Objectives

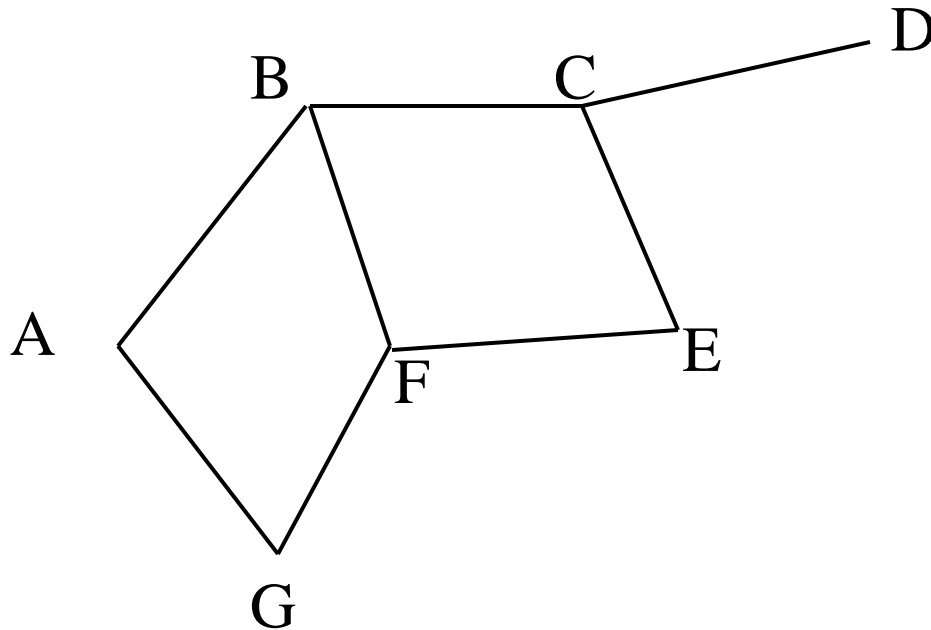
- To be able to *understand* and describe the definition of a graph and its related terminology;
- To be able to *understand* the Graph ADT;
- To be able to *implement* the Graph ADT and analyze the complexity of the methods;
- To be able to *apply* the Graph ADT to solve problems

Learning Objectives

- To be able to *understand* and describe graph traversal algorithms;
- To be able to *implement* graph traversal algorithms and analyze their complexity;
- To be able to *apply* graph traversal algorithms to solve problems

Definition of a graph

A graph is a set of *nodes*, or *vertices*, connected by *edges*.



Applications of Graphs

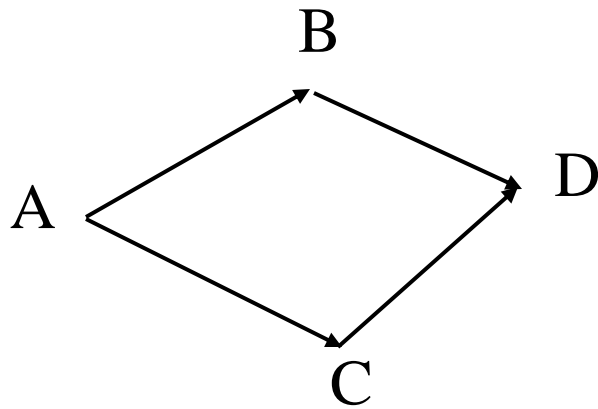
Graphs can be used to represent

- networks (e.g., of computers or roads)
- flow charts
- tasks in some project (some of which should be completed before others), so edges correspond to prerequisites.
- states of an automaton / program

Directed and Undirected Graphs

Graphs can be

- undirected (edges don't have direction)
- directed (edges have direction)



directed graph

Directed and Undirected Graphs

Undirected graphs can be represented as directed graphs where for each edge (X,Y) there is a corresponding edge (Y,X) .

A — B — C

undirected graph

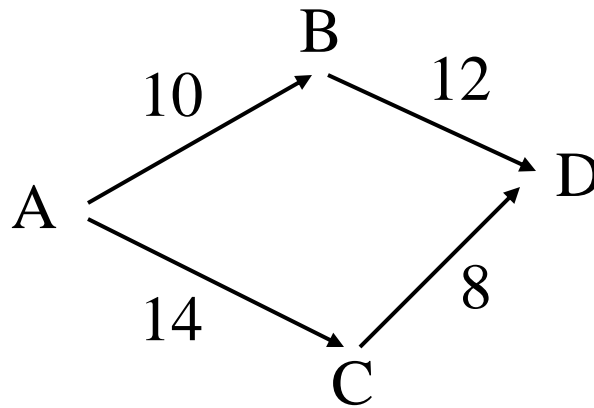
A \longleftrightarrow B \longleftrightarrow C

corresponding
directed graph

Weighted and Unweighted Graphs

Graphs can also be

- unweighted (as in the previous examples)
- weighted (edges have weights)

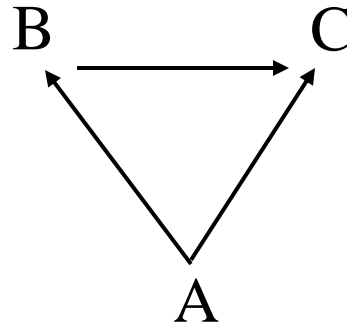


weighted graph

Notation

- Set V of *vertices* (nodes)
- Set E of *edges* ($E \subseteq V \times V$)

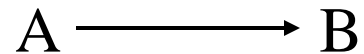
Example:



$$V = \{A, B, C\}, \quad E = \{(A,B), (A,C), (B,C)\}$$

Adjacency relation

- Node B is *adjacent* to A if there is an edge from A to B.



Paths and reachability

- A *path* from A to B is a sequence of vertices A_1, \dots, A_n such that there is an edge from A to A_1 , from A_1 to A_2 , ..., from A_n to B.

$$A \longrightarrow A_1 \longrightarrow A_2 \longrightarrow A_3 \longrightarrow A_4 \longrightarrow A_5 \longrightarrow B$$

- What about the case where there is an edge from A to B?
- A path is a sequence of alternating vertices and edges that starts at a vertex and ends at a vertex such that each edge is incident to its predecessor and successor vertex.
- A vertex B is *reachable* from A if there is a path from A to B

More Terminology

- A *cycle* is a path from a vertex to itself
- Graph is *acyclic* if it does not have cycles
- Graph is *connected* if there is a path between every pair of vertices
- Graph is *strongly connected* if there is a path in both directions between every pair of vertices

Applications of Graphs

For example,

- nodes could represent positions in a board game, and edges the moves that transform one position into another ...
- nodes could represent computers (or routers) in a network and weighted edges the bandwidth between them
- nodes could represent towns and weighted edges road distances between them, or train journey times or ticket prices ...

Graph ADT

- `numVertices()`: Returns the number of vertices of the graph.
- `vertices()`: Returns an iteration of all the vertices of the graph.
- `numEdges()`: Returns the number of edges of the graph.
- `edges()`: Returns an iteration of all the edges of the graph.
- `getEdge(u, v)`: Returns the edge from vertex u to vertex v , if one exists; otherwise return null. For an undirected graph, there is no difference between `getEdge(u, v)` and `getEdge(v, u)`.
- `endVertices(e)`: Returns an array containing the two endpoint vertices of edge e . If the graph is directed, the first vertex is the origin and the second is the destination.
- `opposite(v, e)`: For edge e incident to vertex v , returns the other vertex of the edge; an error occurs if e is not incident to v .

Graph ADT

`outDegree(v)`: Returns the number of outgoing edges from vertex v .

`inDegree(v)`: Returns the number of incoming edges to vertex v . For an undirected graph, this returns the same value as does `outDegree(v)`.

`outgoingEdges(v)`: Returns an iteration of all outgoing edges from vertex v .

`incomingEdges(v)`: Returns an iteration of all incoming edges to vertex v . For an undirected graph, this returns the same collection as does `outgoingEdges(v)`.

Graph ADT

- `insertVertex(x)`: Creates and returns a new Vertex storing element x .
- `insertEdge(u, v, x)`: Creates and returns a new Edge from vertex u to vertex v , storing element x ; an error occurs if there already exists an edge from u to v .
- `removeVertex(v)`: Removes vertex v and all its incident edges from the graph.
- `removeEdge(e)`: Removes edge e from the graph.

Some graph problems

- Searching a graph for a vertex
- Searching a graph for an edge
- Finding a path in the graph (from one vertex to another)
- Finding the shortest path between two vertices
- Cycle detection

More graph problems

- Topological sort (finding a linear sequence of vertices which agrees with the direction of edges in the graph, e.g., for scheduling tasks in a project)
- Minimal spanning tree (deleting as many edges in a graph as possible, so that all vertices are still connected by shortest possible edges, e.g., in network or circuit design.)

How to implement a graph

As with lists, there are several approaches, e.g.,

- using a static indexed data structure
- using a dynamic data structure

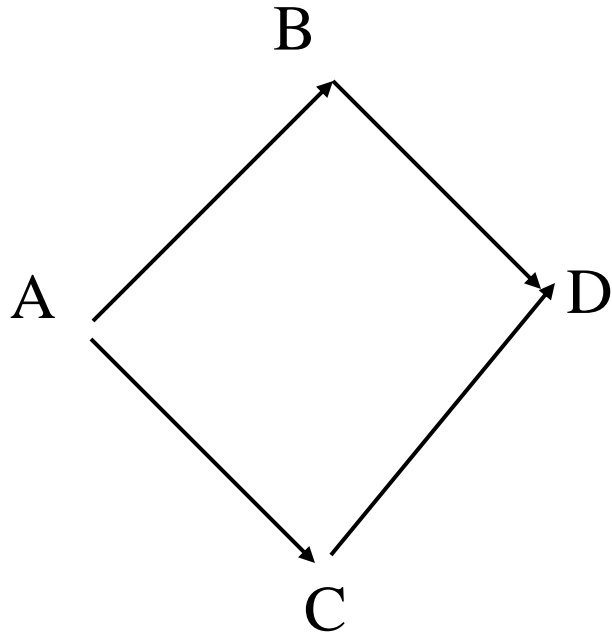
Static implementation: Adjacency Matrix

- Store node in the array: each node is associated with an integer (array index)
- Represent information about the edges using a two dimensional array, where

$$\mathbf{array}[i][j] == 1$$

iff there is an edge from node with index i to the node with index j .

Example



A	B	C	D
0	1	2	3

node indices

	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1
2	0	0	0	1
3	0	0	0	0

adjacency
matrix

Weighted graphs

- For weighted graphs, place weights in matrix (if there is no edge we use a value which can not be confused with a weight, e.g., -1 or **Integer.MAX_VALUE**)

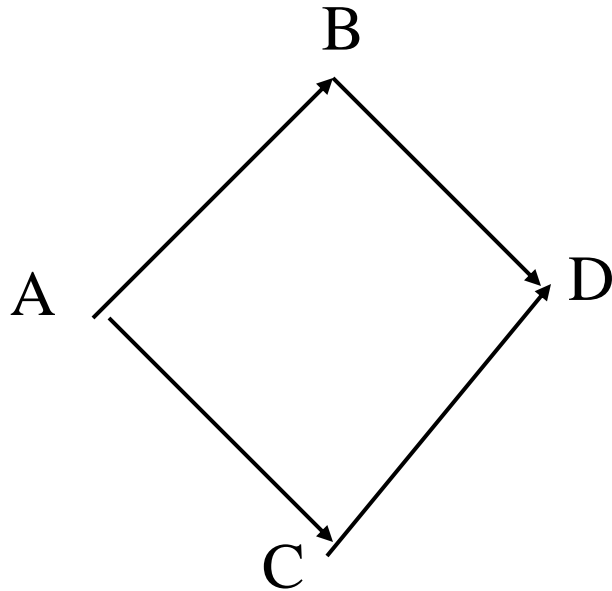
Disadvantages of adjacency matrices

- Sparse graphs with few edges for number of vertices result in many zero entries in adjacency matrix—this *wastes space* and makes many algorithms *less efficient* (e.g., to find nodes adjacent to a given node, we have to iterate through the whole row even if there are few 1s there).
- Also, if the number of nodes in the graph may change, matrix representation is too *inflexible* (especially if we don't know the maximal size of the graph).

Adjacency List

- For every vertex, keep a list of adjacent vertices.
- Keep a list of vertices, or keep vertices in a Map (e.g. HashMap) as keys and lists of adjacent vertices as values.

Adjacency list



nodes list of adjacent nodes

A \longrightarrow B, C

B \longrightarrow D

C \longrightarrow D

D \longrightarrow

Reading

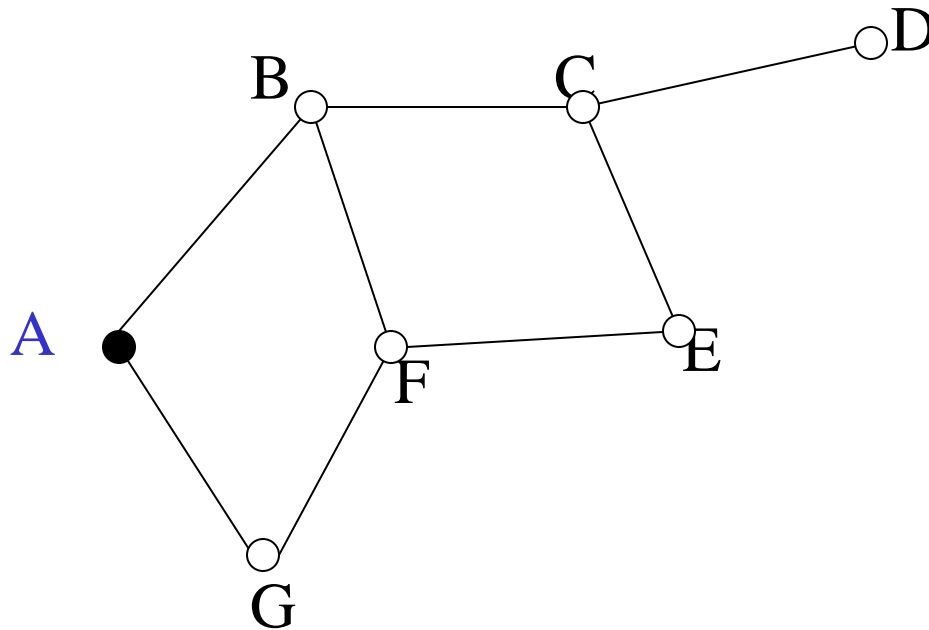
- Goodrich and Tamassia (Ch. 14) have a somewhat different Graph implementation, where edges are first-class objects.
- In general, choice of implementation depends on what we want to do with a graph.

Graph traversals

- In this lecture, we look at two ways of visiting all vertices in a graph: *breadth-first search* and *depth-first search*.
- Traversal of the graph is used to perform tasks such as searching for a certain node
- It can also be slightly modified to search for a path between two nodes, check if the graph is connected, check if it contains loops, and so on.

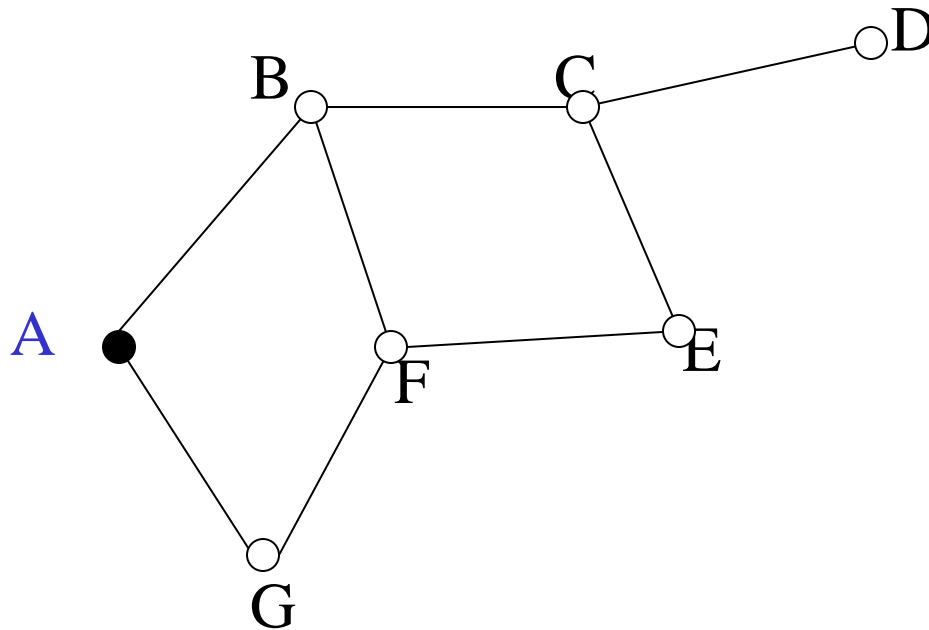
Graph traversal starting from A:

- *Exercise: What might we do?*

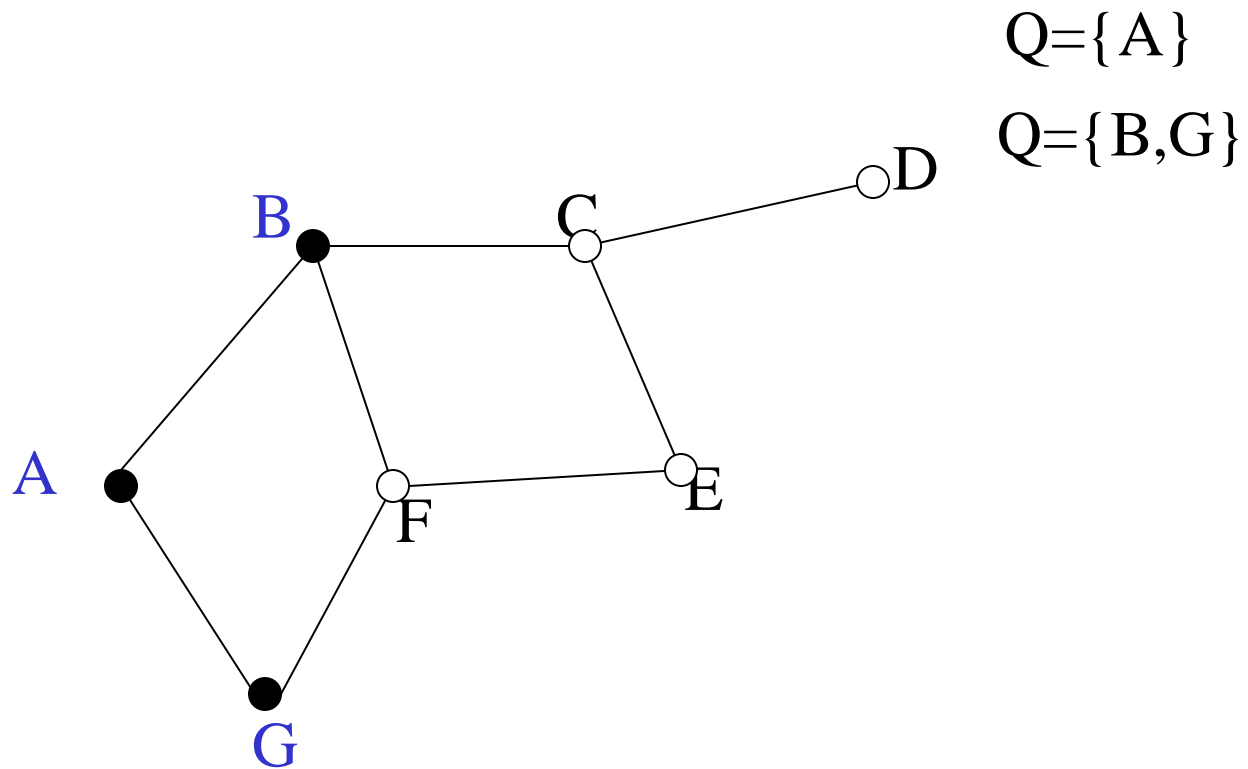


BFS starting from A:

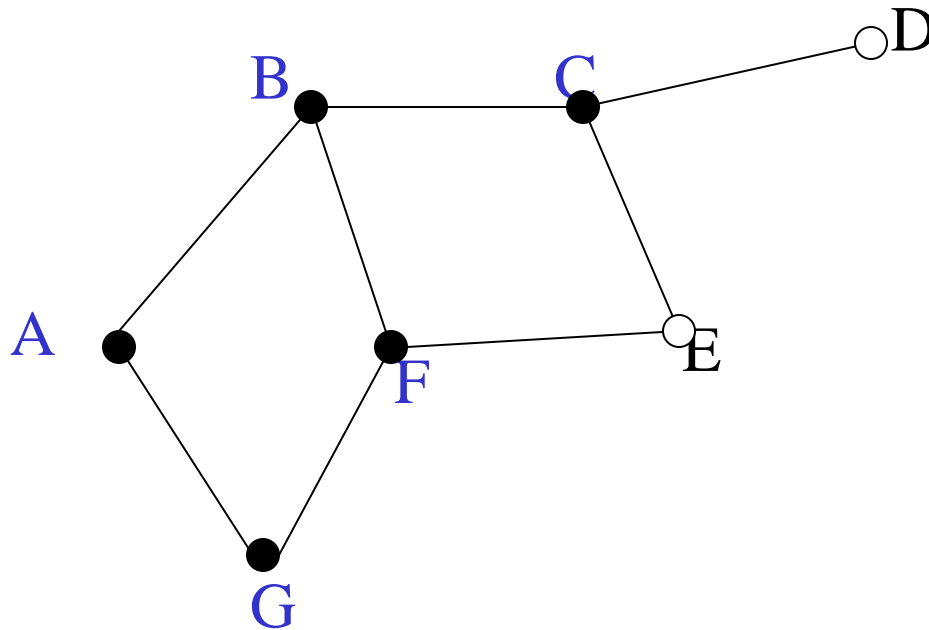
$Q=\{A\}$



BFS starting from A:



BFS starting from A:

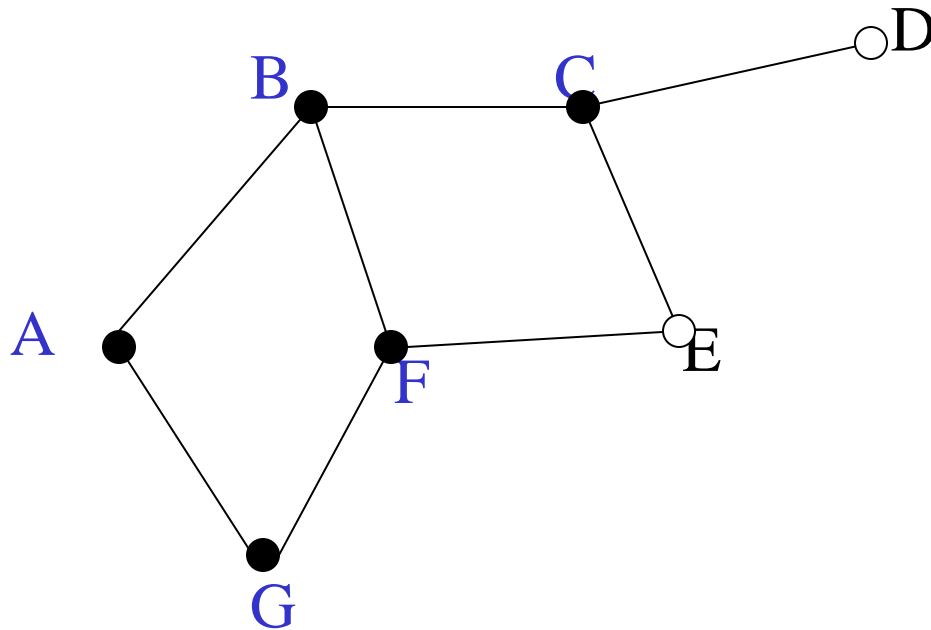


$Q = \{A\}$

$Q = \{B, G\}$

$Q = \{G, C, F\}$

BFS starting from A:



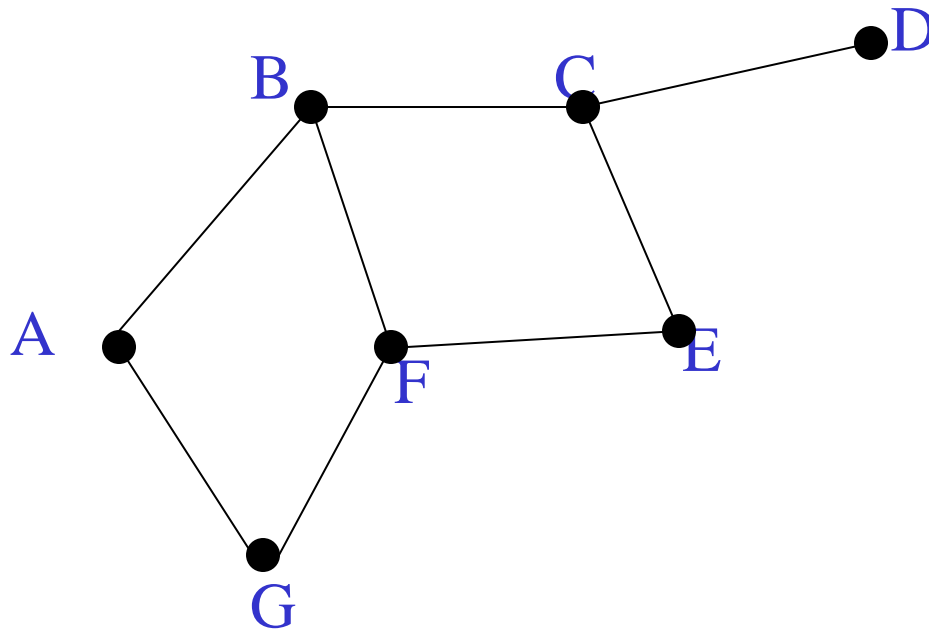
$Q=\{A\}$

$Q=\{B,G\}$

$Q=\{G,C,F\}$

$Q=\{C,F\}$

BFS starting from A:



$Q = \{A\}$

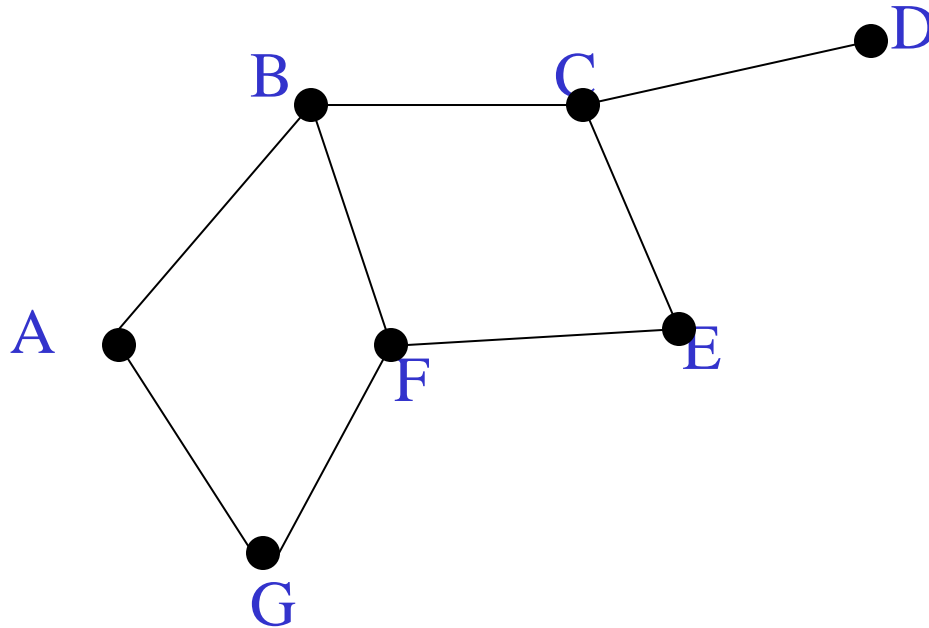
$Q = \{B, G\}$

$Q = \{G, C, F\}$

$Q = \{C, F\}$

$Q = \{F, D, E\}$

BFS starting from A:



$Q=\{A\}$

$Q=\{B,G\}$

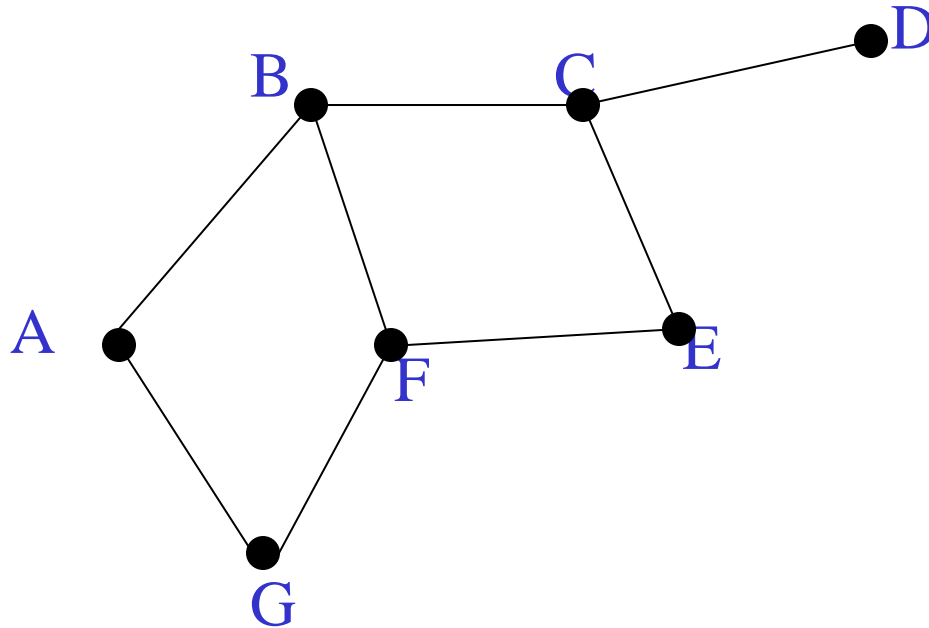
$Q=\{G,C,F\}$

$Q=\{C,F\}$

$Q=\{F,D,E\}$

$Q=\{D,E\}$

BFS starting from A:



$Q=\{A\}$

$Q=\{B,G\}$

$Q=\{G,C,F\}$

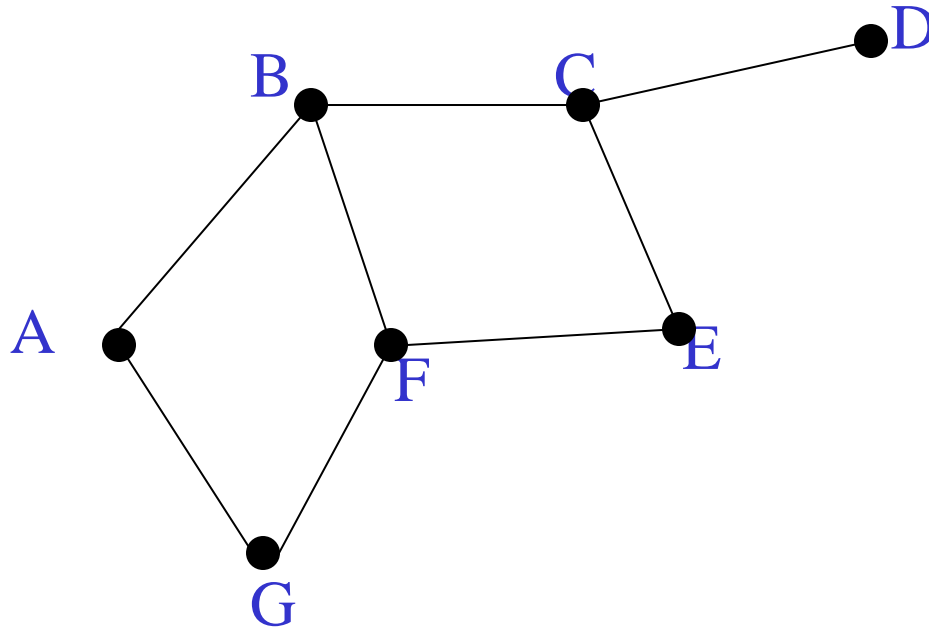
$Q=\{C,F\}$

$Q=\{F,D,E\}$

$Q=\{D,E\}$

$Q=\{E\}$

BFS starting from A:



$Q = \{A\}$

$Q = \{B, G\}$

$Q = \{G, C, F\}$

$Q = \{C, F\}$

$Q = \{F, D, E\}$

$Q = \{D, E\}$

$Q = \{E\}$

$Q = \{\}$

Breadth first search

BFS starting from vertex v :

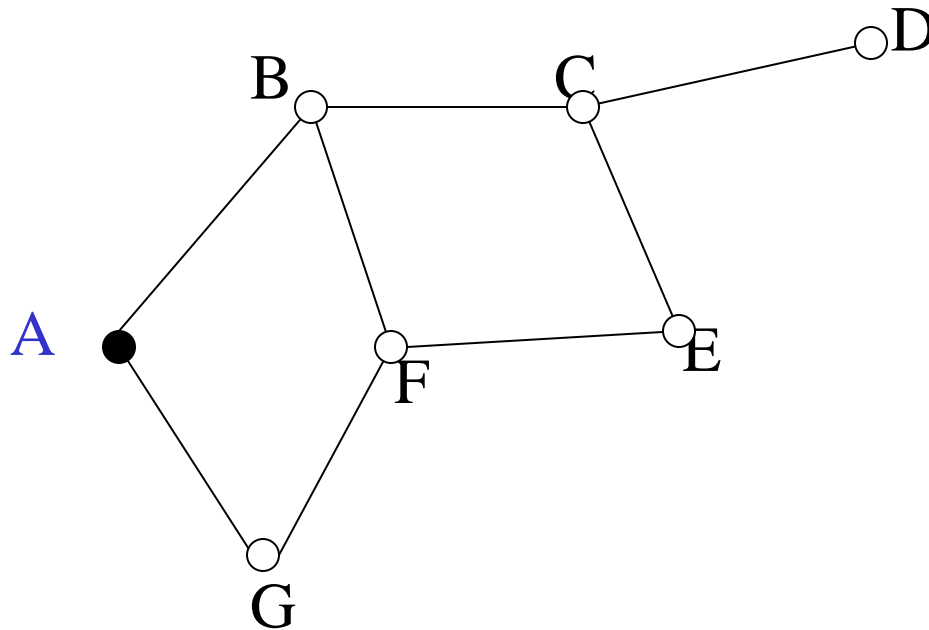
```
create a queue  $Q$   
mark  $v$  as visited and put  $v$  into  $Q$   
while  $Q$  is non-empty  
    remove the head  $u$  of  $Q$   
    mark and enqueue all (unvisited)  
    neighbours of  $u$ 
```

Overall Traversal Order: BFS

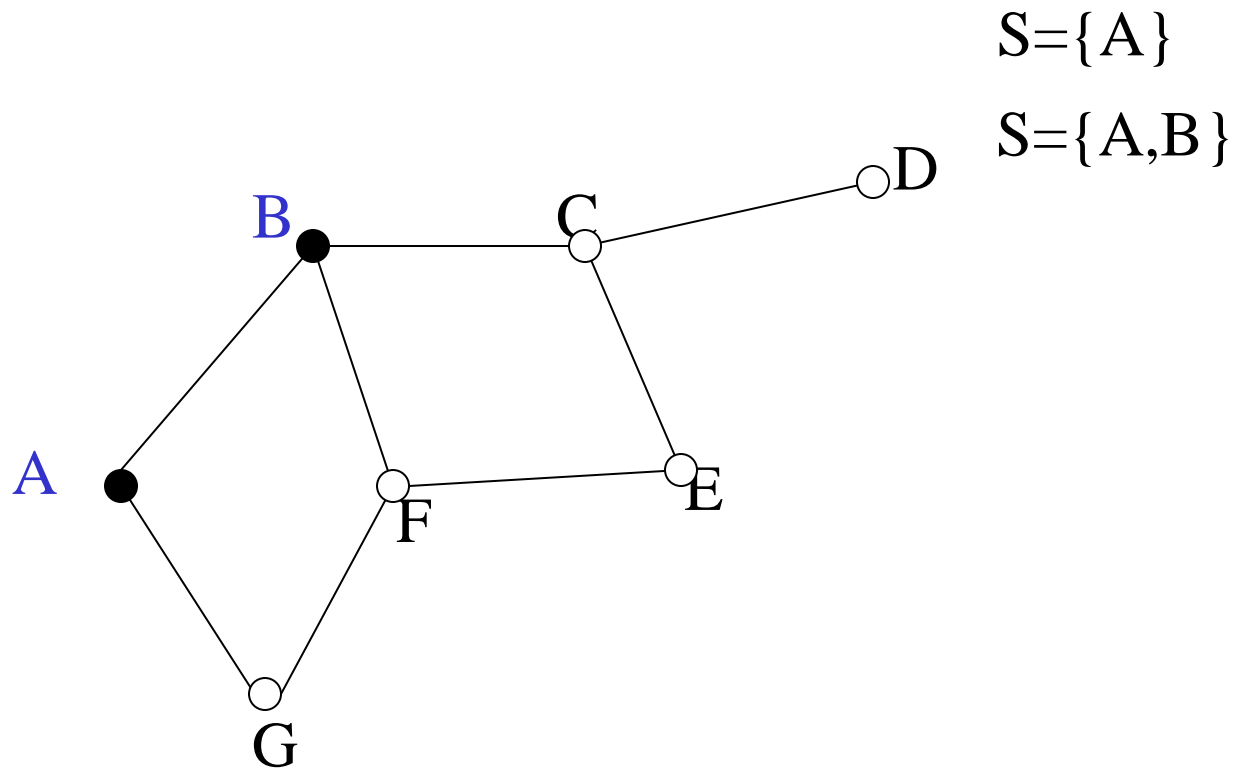
- In this example, the nodes are traversed from the starting point A in this order:
A B G C F D E
- The BFS order is that those closest to the start point A occur earliest
- The order is not generally unique; e.g. either of B or G could occur first

DFS starting from A:

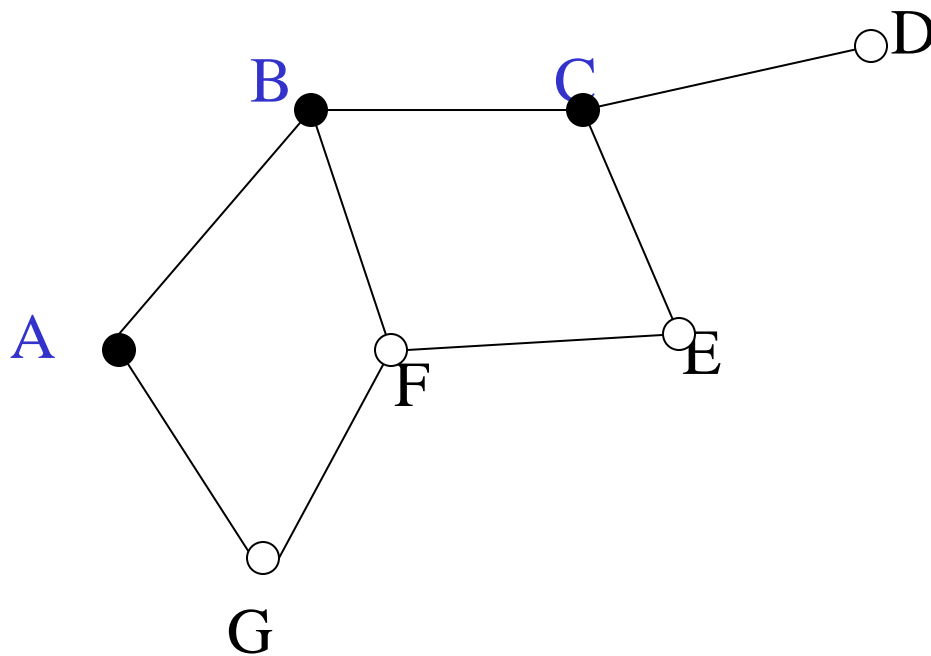
$S=\{A\}$



DFS starting from A:



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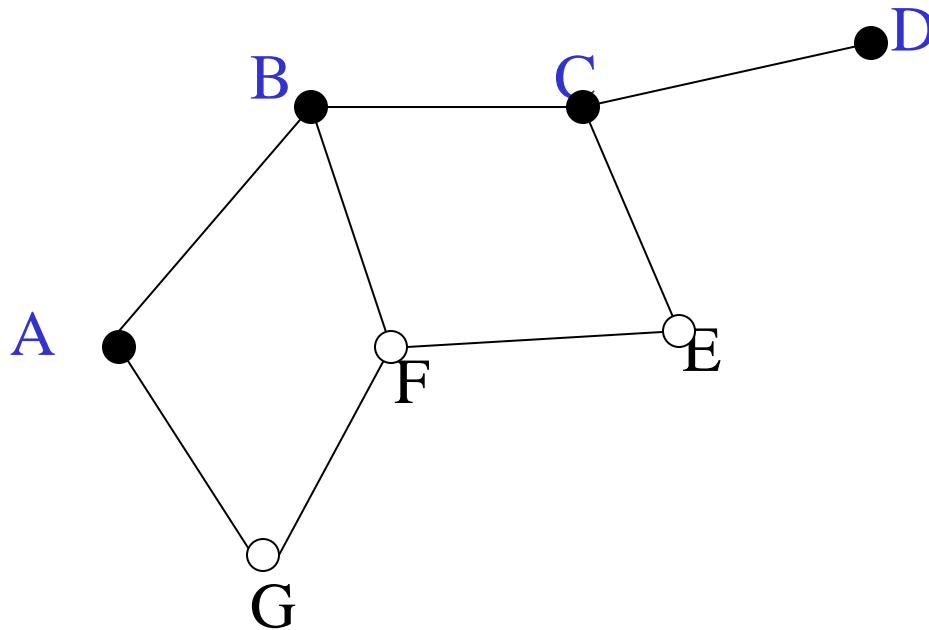


$S=\{A\}$

$S=\{A,B\}$

$S=\{A,B,C\}$

DFS starting from A:



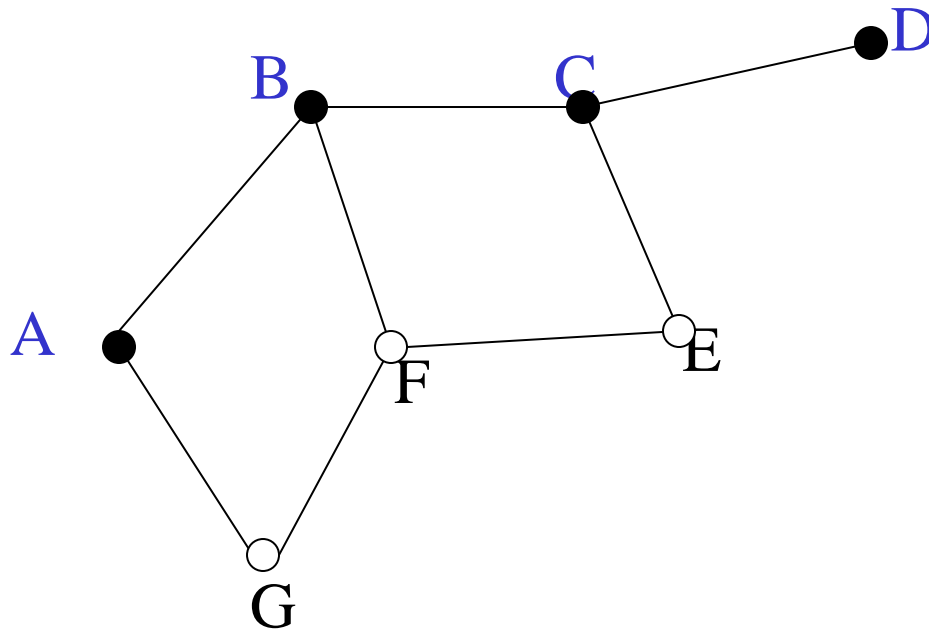
$S=\{A\}$

$S=\{A,B\}$

$S=\{A,B,C\}$

$S=\{A,B,C,D\}$

DFS starting from A:



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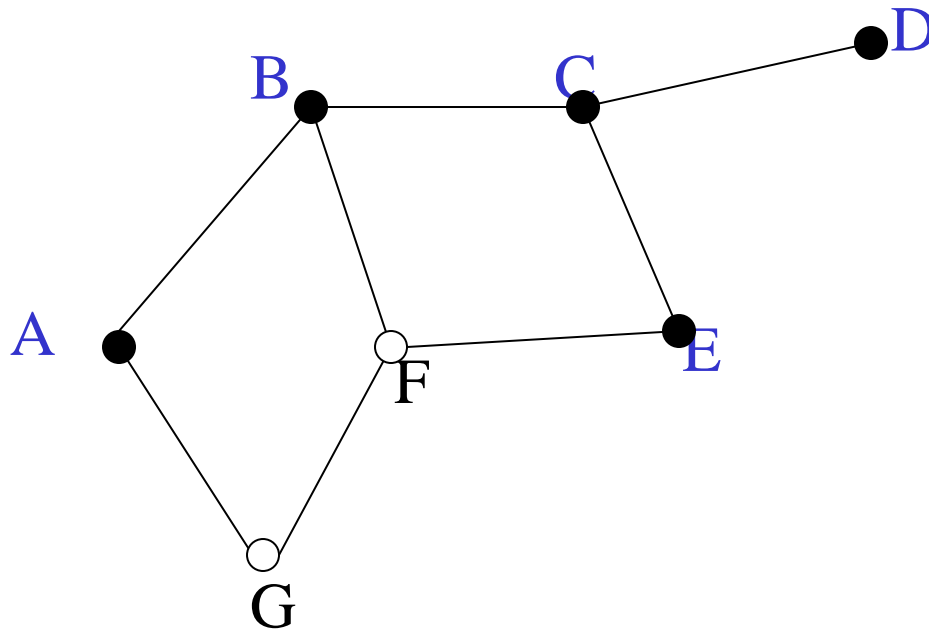
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DFS starting from A:



$S=\{A\}$

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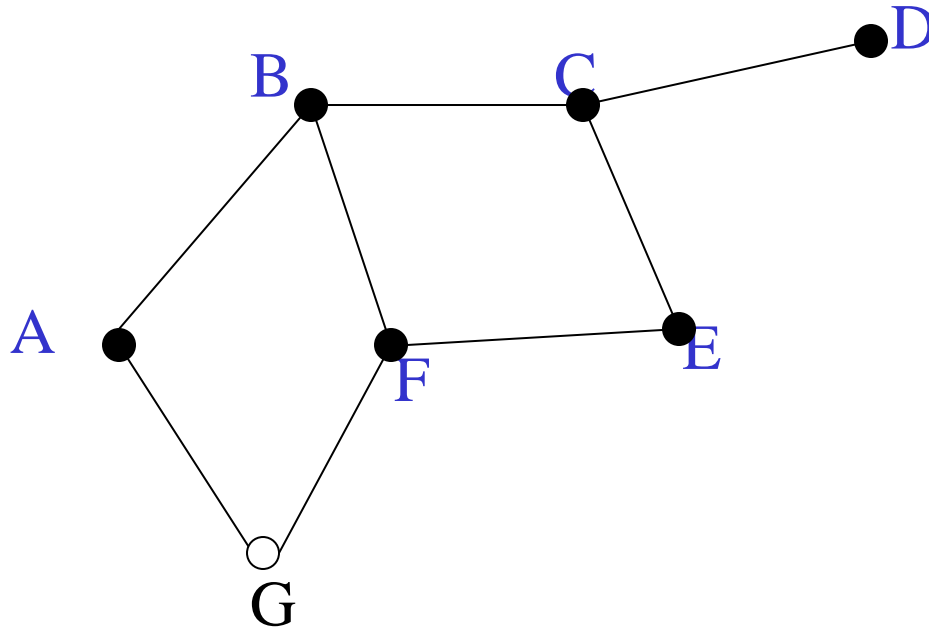
$S=\{A,B,C\}$

$S=\{A,B,C,D\}$

$S=\{A,B,C\}$

$S=\{A,B,C,E\}$

DFS starting from A:



$S = \{A\}$

$S = \{A, B\}$

$S = \{A, B, C\}$

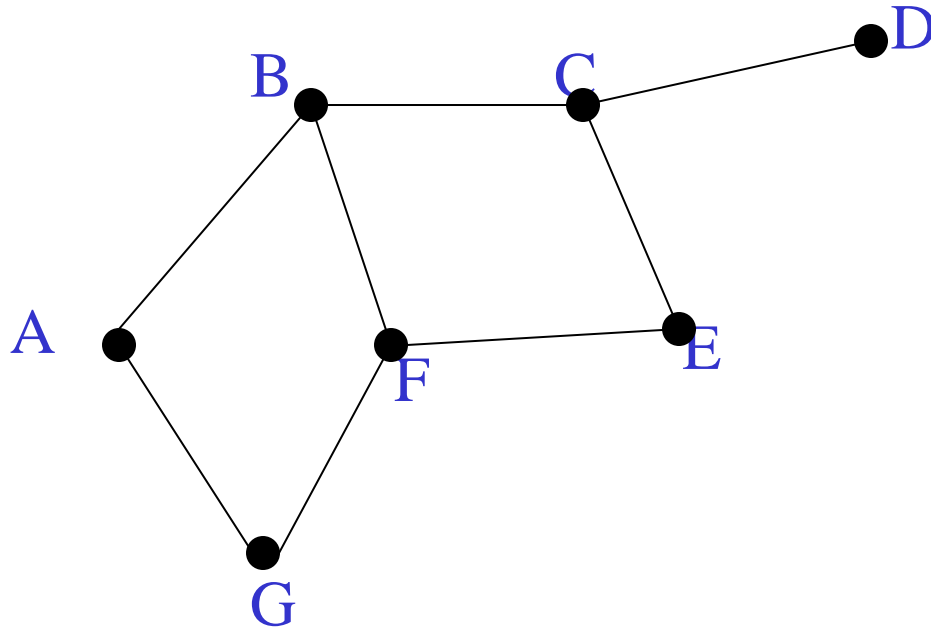
$S = \{A, B, C, D\}$

$S = \{A, B, C\}$

$S = \{A, B, C, E\}$

$S = \{A, B, C, E, F\}$

DFS starting from A:



$S = \{A\}$

$S = \{A, B\}$

$S = \{A, B, C\}$

$S = \{A, B, C, D\}$

$S = \{A, B, C\}$

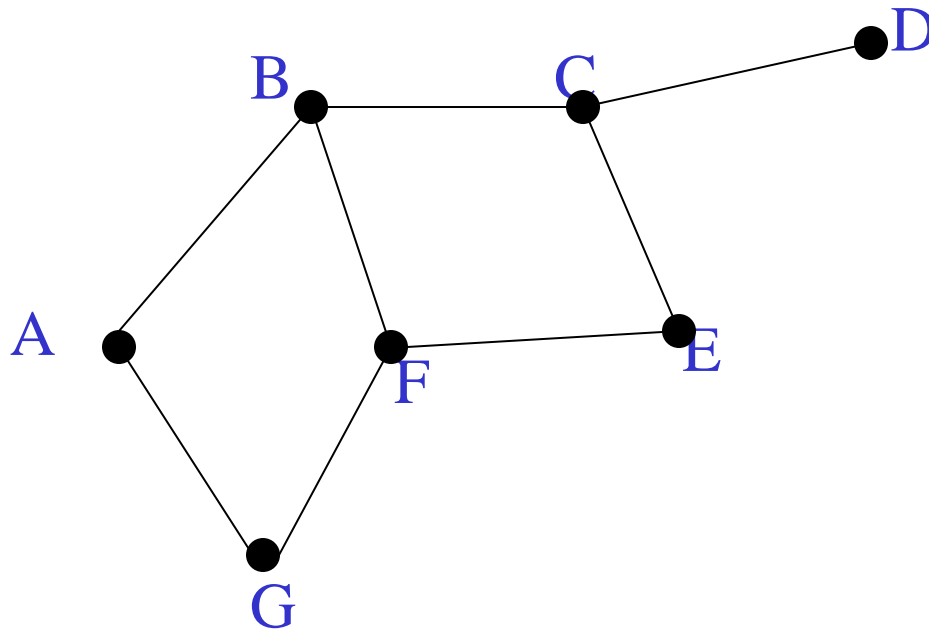
$S = \{A, B, C, E\}$

$S = \{A, B, C, E, F\}$

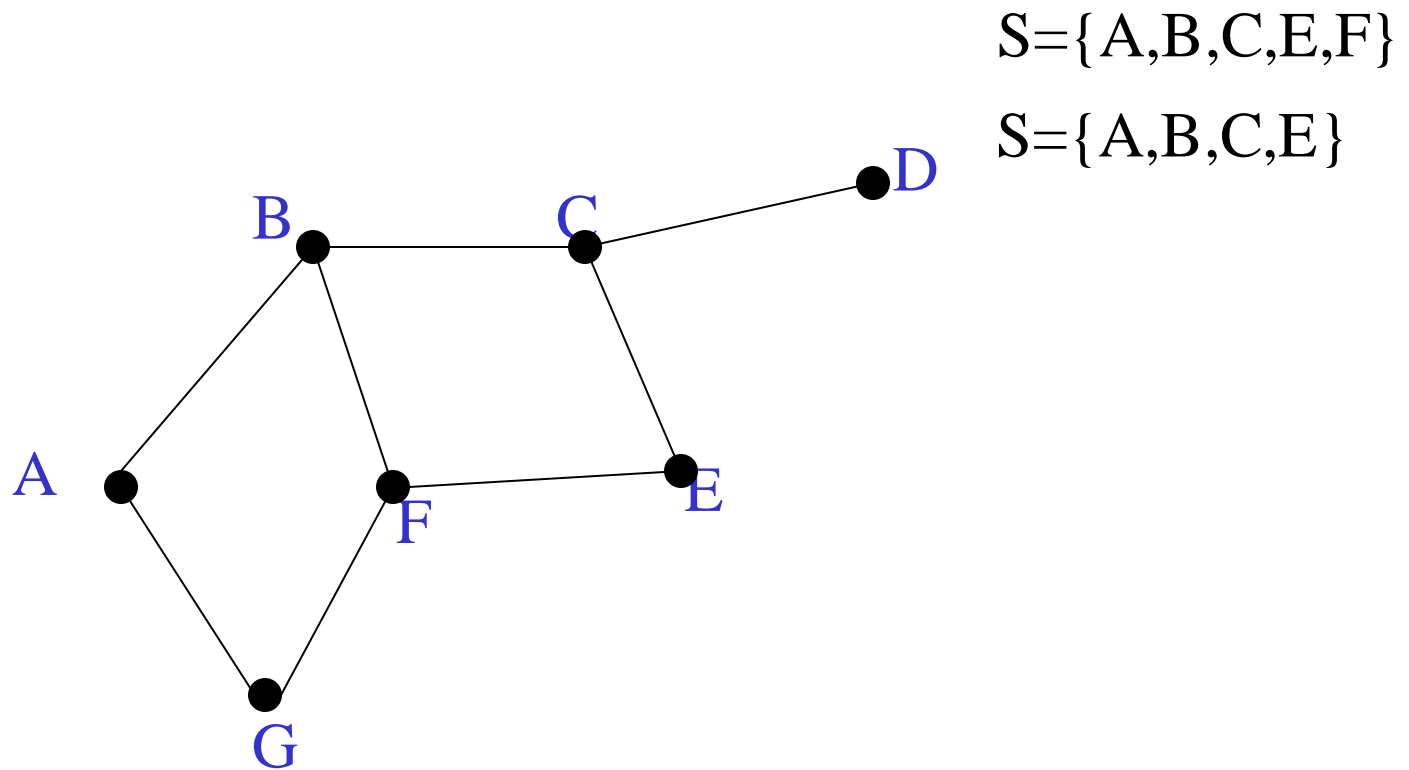
$S = \{A, B, C, E, F, G\}$

DFS starting from A:

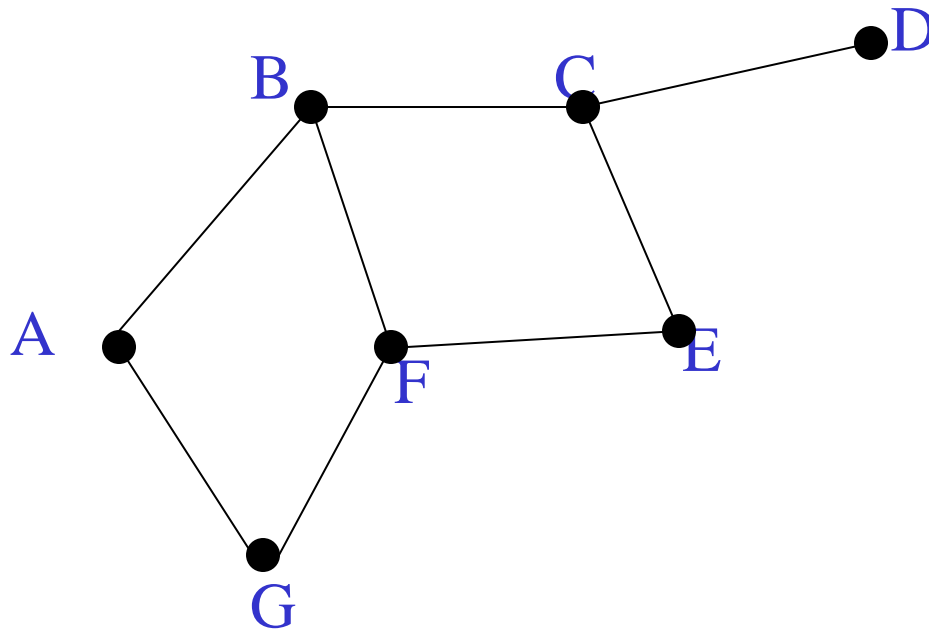
$S = \{A, B, C, E, F\}$



DFS starting from A:



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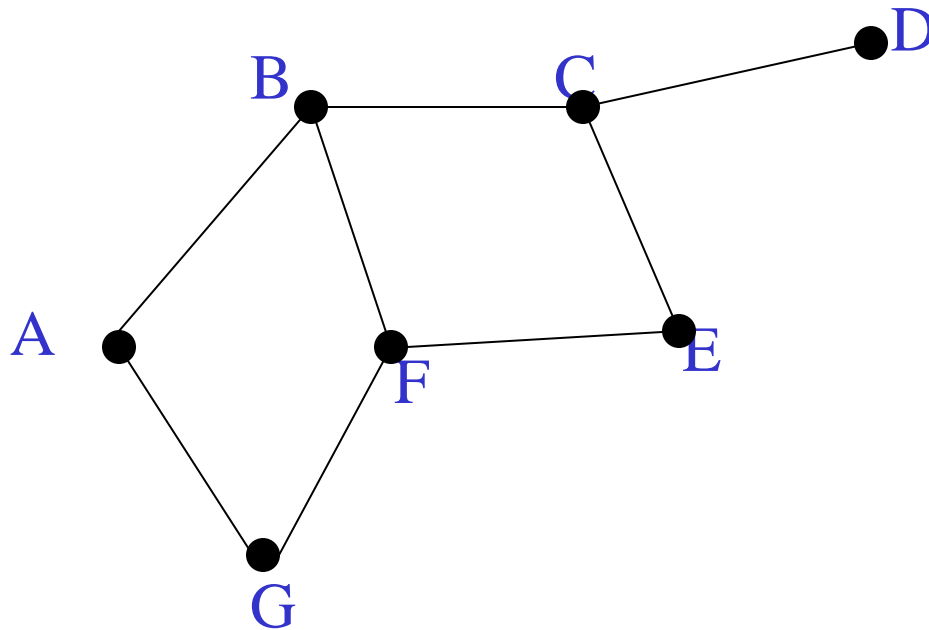


$S = \{A, B, C, E, F\}$

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DFS starting from A:



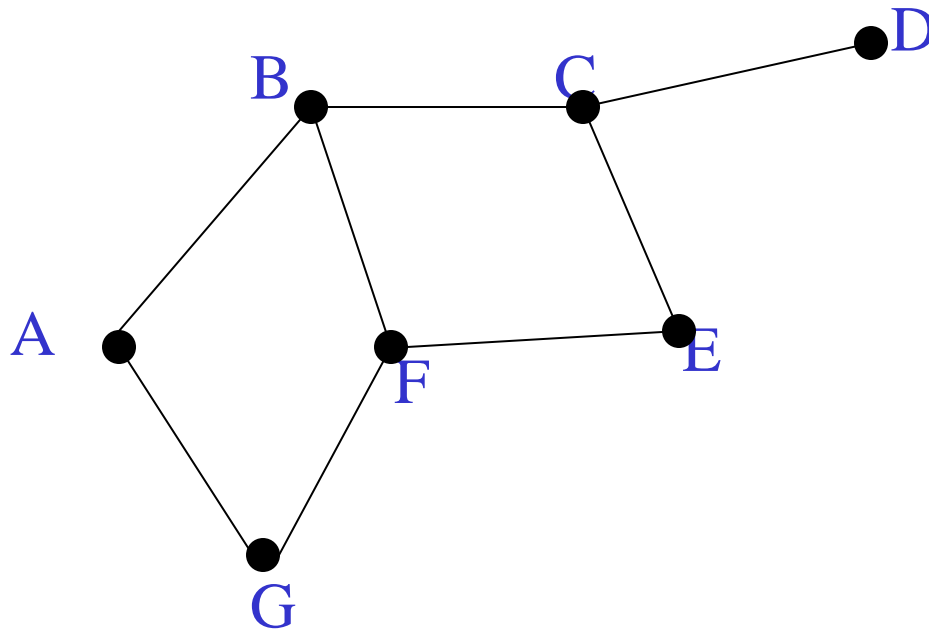
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DFS starting from A:



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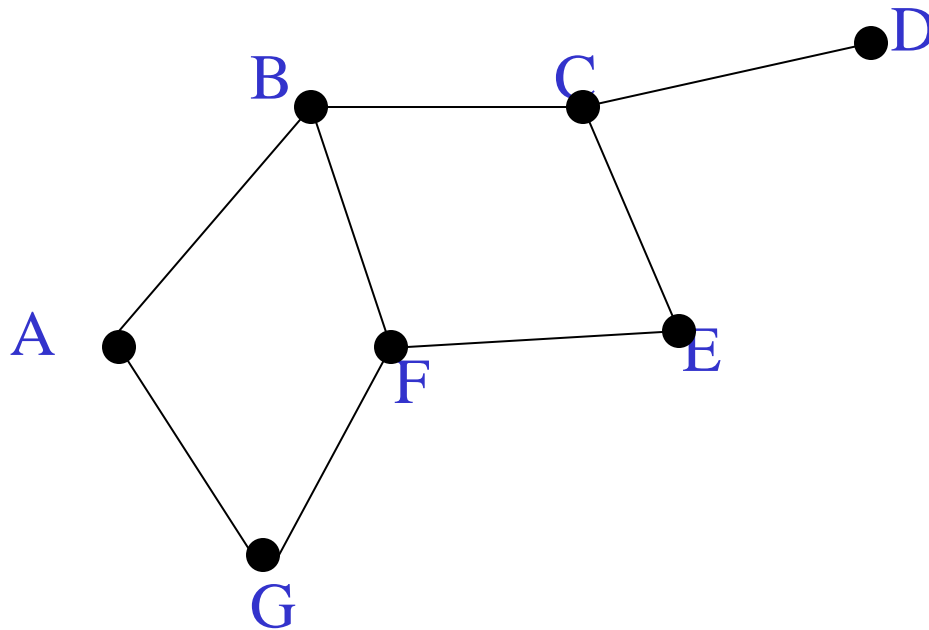
$S = \{A, B, C, E\}$

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DFS starting from A:



$S = \{A, B, C, E, F\}$

$S = \{A, B, C, E\}$

$S = \{A, B, C\}$

$S = \{A, B\}$

$S = \{A\}$

$S = \{\}$

Simple DFS

DFS starting from vertex v :

create a stack S

mark v as visited and push v onto S

while S is non-empty

 peek at the top u of S

 if u has **an** (unvisited) neighbour w ,
 mark w and push it onto S

 else pop S

Overall Traversal Order: DFS

- In this example, the nodes are traversed from the starting point A in this order:
A B C D E F G
- The DFS search tends to “dive”.
- The order is not generally unique; e.g. either of B or G could occur first.

Modification of depth first search

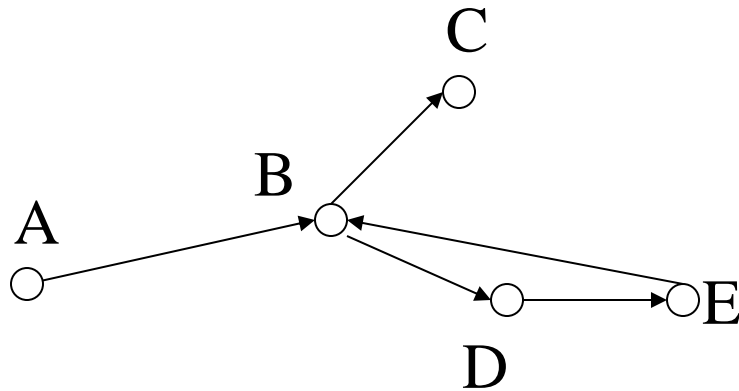
- How to get DFS to detect cycles in a directed graph:

idea: if we encounter a vertex which is already on the stack, we found a loop (stack contains vertices on a path, and if we see the same vertex again, the path must contain a cycle).

- Instead of visited and unvisited, use three colours:
 - **white** = unvisited
 - **grey** = on the stack
 - **black** = finished (we backtracked from it, seen everywhere we can reach from it)

Tracing modified DFS from A

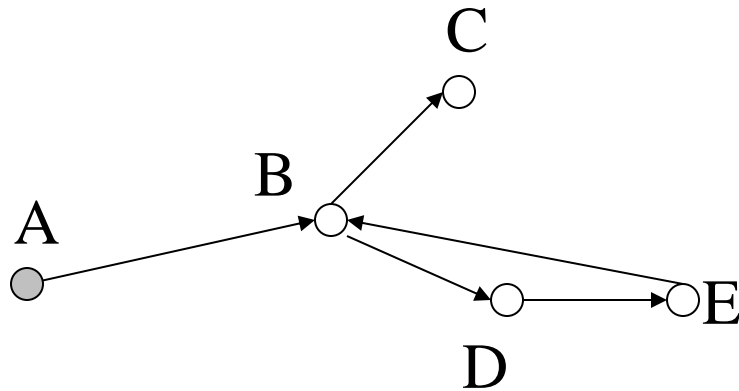
$S = \{\}$



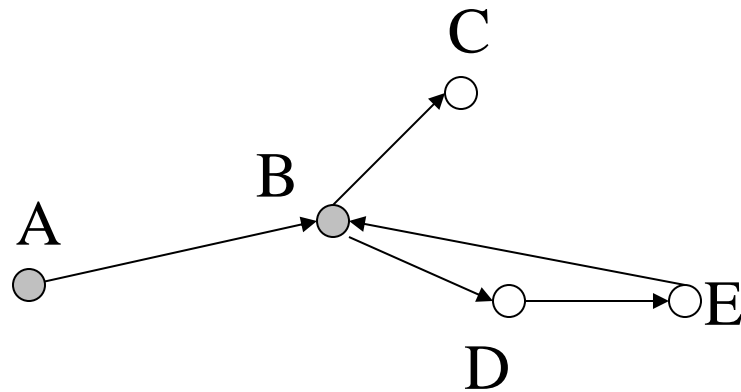
Tracing modified DFS from A

$S = \{\}$

$S = A$



Tracing modified DFS from A



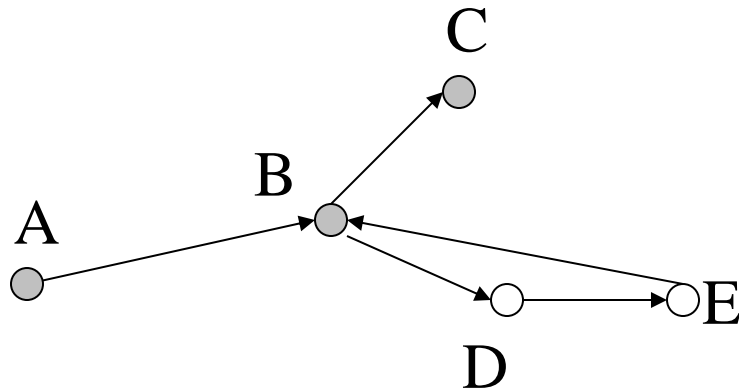
$S = \{\}$

$S = A$

B

$S = A$

Tracing modified DFS from A



$S = \{\}$

$S = A$

B

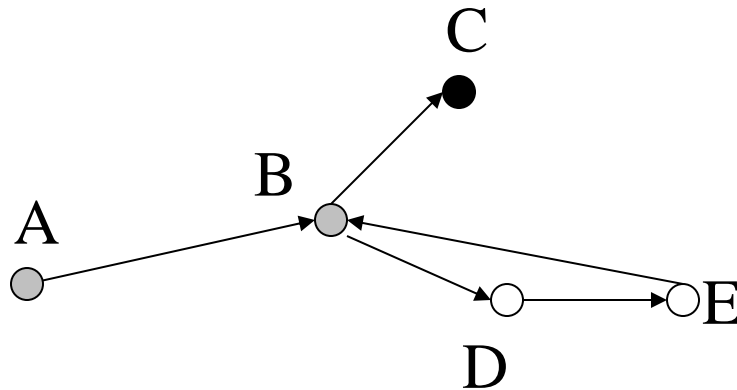
$S = A$

C

B

$S = A$

Tracing modified DFS from A



$S = \{\}$

$S = A$

B

$S = A$

C

B

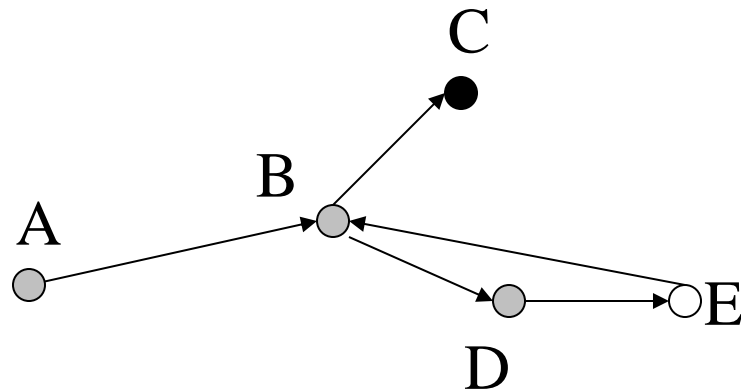
$S = A$

B

pop:

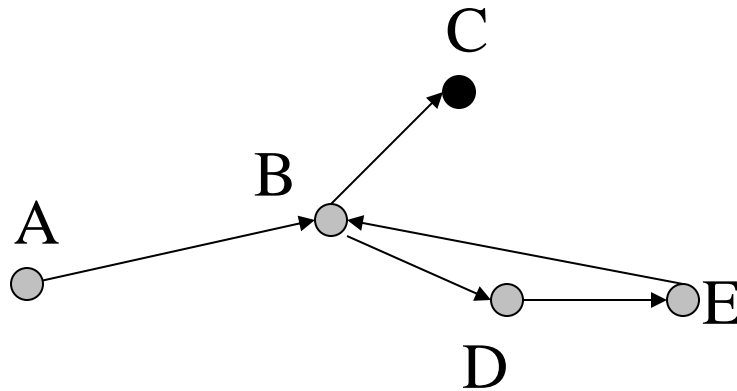
$S = A$

Tracing modified DFS from A



push: D
B
S = A

Tracing modified DFS from A



push:

D

B

$S = A$

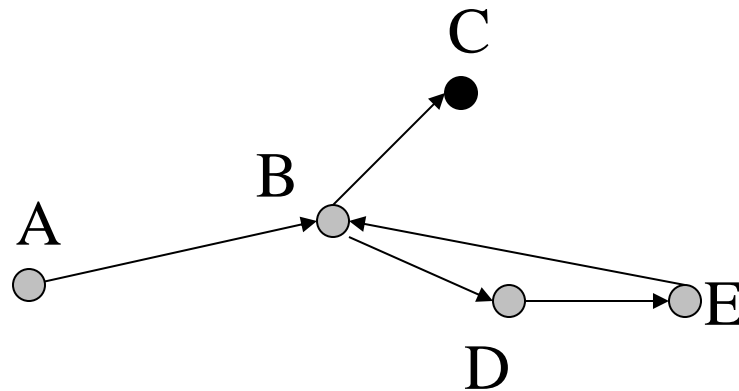
E

D

B

$S = A$

Tracing modified DFS from A



push: D

B

S = A

E

D

B

S = A

E has a grey neighbour: B!

Found a loop!

Modification of depth first search

Modified DFS starting from v :

all vertices coloured white

create a stack S

colour v grey and push v onto S

while S is non-empty

 peek at the top u of S

 if u has a grey neighbour, there is a cycle

 else if u has a white neighbour w ,
 colour w grey and push it onto S

 else colour u black and pop S

Pseudocode for BFS and DFS

- To compute complexity, we will be referring to an adjacency list implementation
- Assume that we have a method which returns the first unmarked vertex adjacent to a given one:

GraphNode firstUnmarkedAdj (GraphNode v)

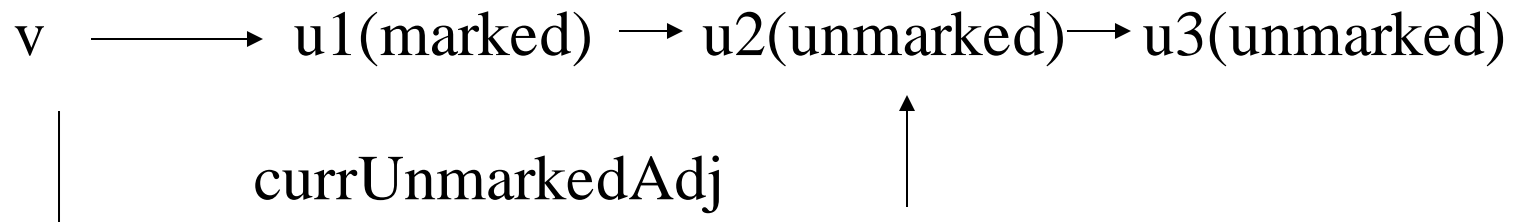
list of v's neighbours

v → u1(marked) → u2(unmarked) → u3(unmarked)

↑ bookmark

Implementation of firstUnmarkedAdj()

- We keep a pointer into the adjacency list of each vertex so that we do not start to traverse the list of adjacent vertices from the beginning each time.
- Or we use the same iterator for this list, so when we call `next()` it returns the next element in the list – again does not start from the beginning.



Pseudocode for breadth-first search starting from vertex s

```
s.marked = true; // marked is a field in
                  // GraphNode
Queue Q = new Queue();
Q.enqueue(s);
while(! Q.isEmpty()) {
    v = Q.dequeue();
    u = firstUnmarkedAdj(v);
    while (u != null){
        u.marked = true;
        Q.enqueue(u);
        u = firstUnmarkedAdj(v); } } }
```

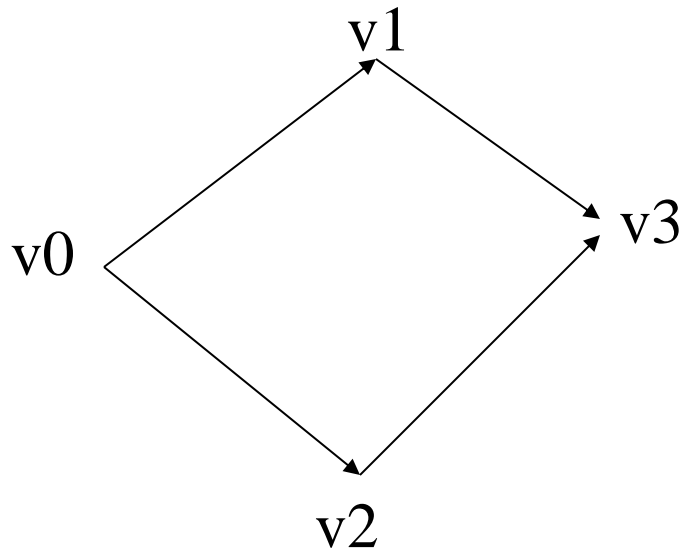
Pseudocode for DFS

```
s.marked = true;
Stack S = new Stack();
S.push(s);
while(! S.isEmpty()) {
    v = S.peek();
    u = firstUnmarkedAdj(v);
    if (u == null) S.pop();
    else {
        u.marked = true;
        S.push(u);
    }
}
```

Time Complexity of BFS and DFS

- In terms of the number of vertices $|V|$: two nested loops over $|V|$, hence $O(|V|^2)$.
- More useful complexity estimate is in terms of the number of edges. Usually, the number of edges is less than $|V|^2$.

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V	E
---	---

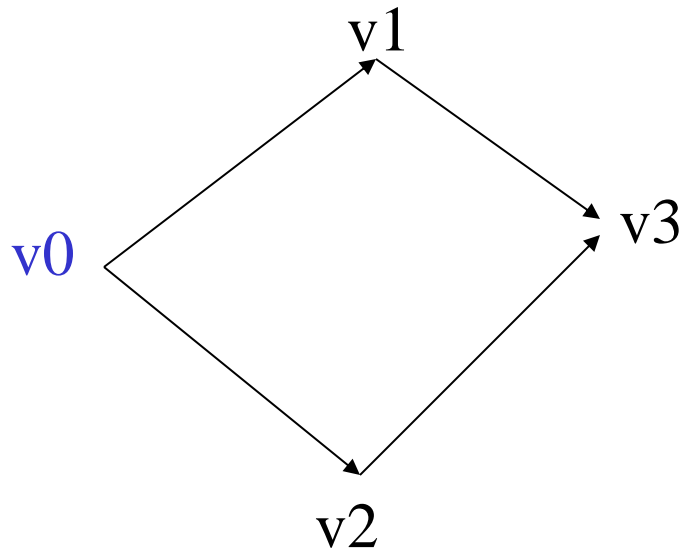
v0:	{v1,v2}
-----	---------

v1:	{v3}
-----	------

v2:	{v3}
-----	------

v3:	{}
-----	----

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V E

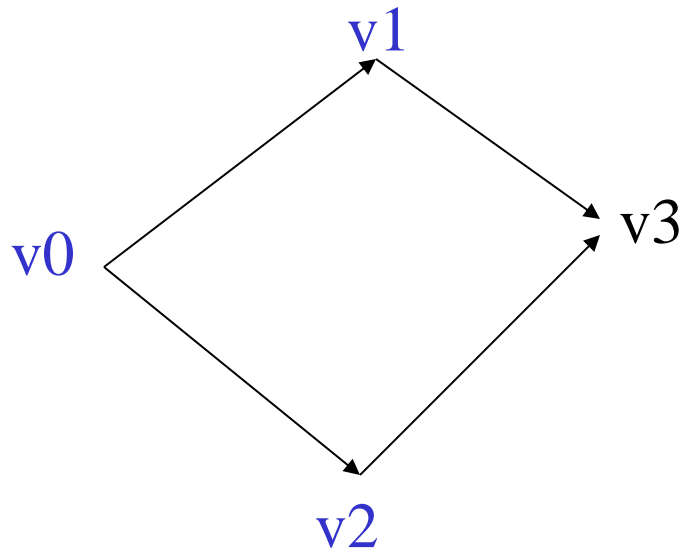
v0: {v1,v2} mark, enqueue
v0

v1: {v3}

v2: {v3}

v3: {}

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V E

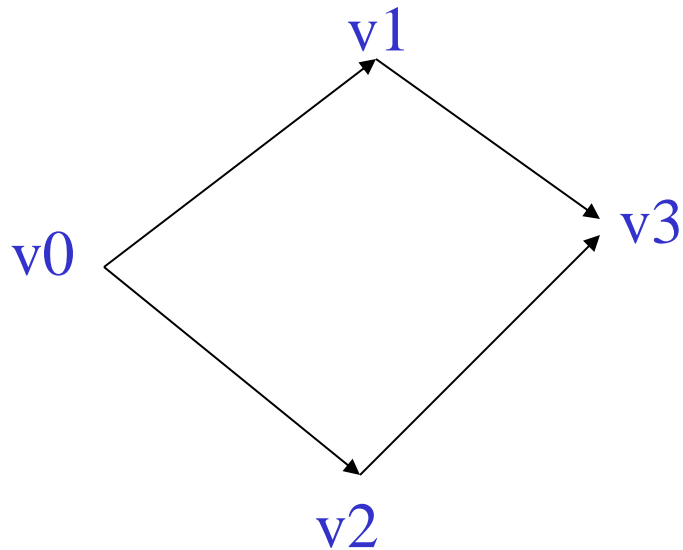
v0: {**v1**, **v2**} dequeue v0;
mark, enqueue v1, v2

v1: {v3}

v2: {v3}

v3: {}

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V E

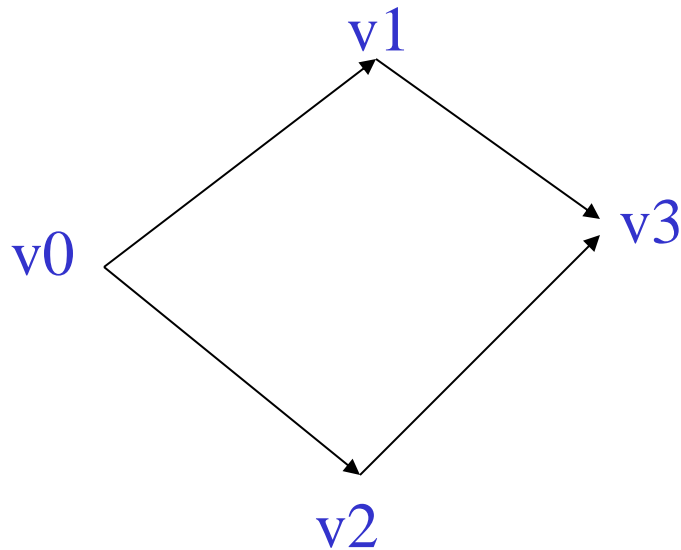
v0: {**v1**, **v2**}

v1: {**v3**} dequeue v1; mark,
enqueue v3

v2: {v3}

v3: {}

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V E

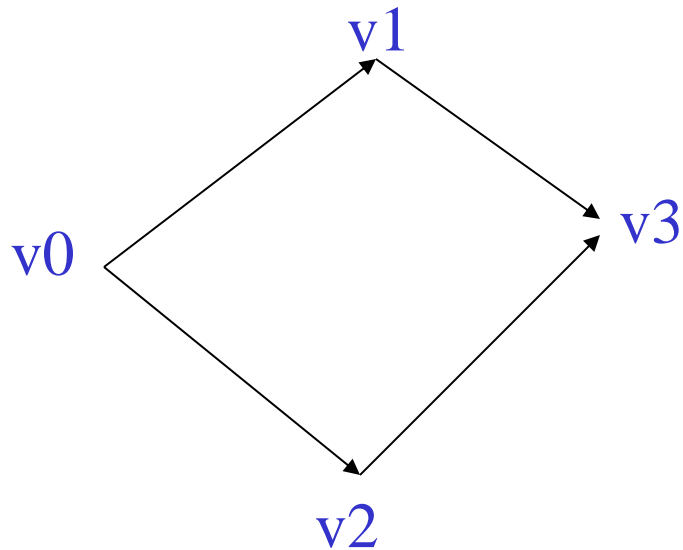
v0: {**v1**, **v2**}

v1: {**v3**}

v2: {**v3**} dequeue v2, check
its adjacency list (v3
already marked)

v3: {}

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V E

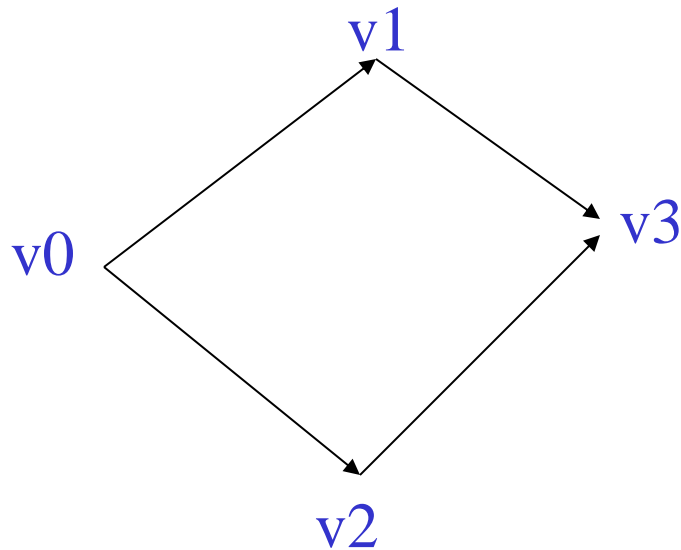
v0: { **v1**, **v2** }

v1: { **v3** }

v2: { **v3** }

v3: { } dequeue v3; check its
adjacency list

Time complexity of BFS



Adjacency lists:

V	E
---	---

v0 :	{ v1 , v2 } E0 = 2
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v1 :	{ v3 } E1 = 1
-------------	------------------------

v2 :	{ v3 } E2 = 1
-------------	------------------------

v3 :	{ } E3 = 0
-------------	--------------

Total number of steps:

$$\begin{aligned} &|V| + |E0| + |E1| + |E2| + |E3| \\ &= \\ &= |V| + |E|. \end{aligned}$$

Complexity of breadth-first search

- Assume an adjacency list representation, $|V|$ is the number of vertices, $|E|$ is the number of edges.
- Each vertex is enqueued and dequeued at most once.
- Scanning for all adjacent vertices takes $O(|E|)$ time, since sum of lengths of adjacency lists is $|E|$.
- Gives a $O(|V|+|E|)$ time complexity.

Complexity of depth-first search

- Each vertex is pushed on the stack and popped at most once.
- For every vertex we check what the next unvisited neighbour is.
- In our implementation, we traverse the adjacency list only once. This gives $O(|V|+|E|)$ again.