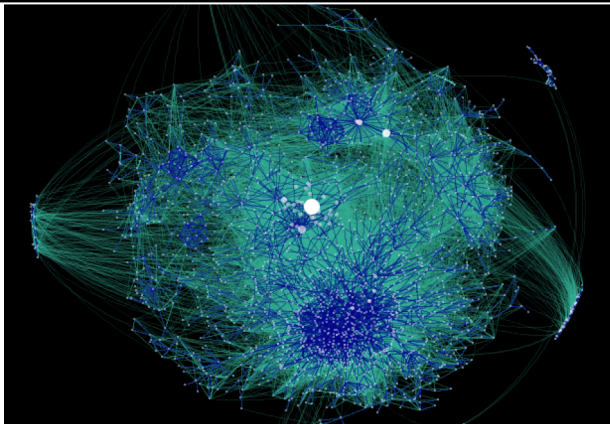


Chapter 3 - Graphs

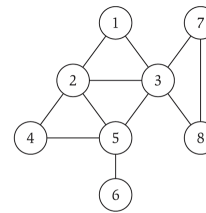


<http://datamining.typepad.com/gallery/blog-map-gallery.html>

Undirected Graphs

Undirected graph. $G = (V, E)$

- V = set of nodes.
- E = set of edges between pairs of nodes.
- Captures pairwise relationship between objects.
- Graph size parameters: $n = |V|$, $m = |E|$.



$V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$

$E = \{1-2, 1-3, 2-3, 2-4, 2-5, 3-5, 3-7, 3-8, 4-5, 5-6\}$

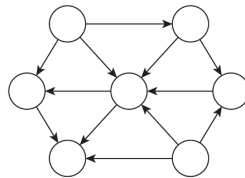
$n = 8$

$m = 11$

Directed Graphs

Directed graph. $G = (V, E)$

- Edge (u, v) goes from node u to node v .



Example. Web graph - hyperlink points from one web page to another.

- Modern web search engines exploit hyperlink structure to rank web pages by importance.

3

Graph definitions

Graph $G = (V, E)$, V : set of **nodes** or vertices, E : set of **edges** (pairs of nodes).

In an **undirected** graph, edges are unordered pairs (sets) of nodes. In a **directed** graph edges are ordered pairs (tuples) of nodes.

Path: sequence of nodes $(v_0..v_n)$ s.t. $\forall i: (v_i, v_{i+1})$ is an edge. **Path length**: number of edges in the path, or sum of weights. **Simple path**: all nodes distinct.

Cycle: path with first and last node equal. **Acyclic graph**: graph without cycles. **DAG**: directed acyclic graph.

Two nodes are **adjacent** if there is an edge between them. In a **complete graph** all nodes in the graph are adjacent.

more definitions

An undirected graph is **connected** if for all nodes v_i and v_j there is a path from v_i to v_j . An undirected graph can be partitioned in **connected components**: maximal connected sub-graphs.

A directed graph can be partitioned in **strongly connected components**: maximal sub-graphs C where for every u and v in C there is a path from u to v and there is a path from v to u .

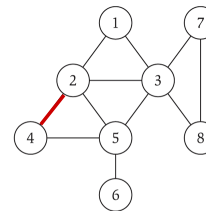
$G'(V', E')$ is a **sub-graph** of $G(V, E)$ if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$. The sub-graph of G **induced** by V' has all the edges $(u, v) \in E$ such that $u \in V'$ and $v \in V'$.

In a **weighted graph** the edges have a weight (cost, length,...) associated with them.

Graph Representation: Adjacency Matrix

Adjacency matrix. n -by- n matrix with $A_{uv} = 1$ if (u, v) is an edge, or weight_{uv} in a weighted graph.

- For undirected graphs, each edge is represented **twice**.
- Space proportional to n^2 .
- Checking if (u, v) is an edge takes $\Theta(1)$ time.
- Identifying all outgoing edges from a node takes $\Theta(n)$ time.

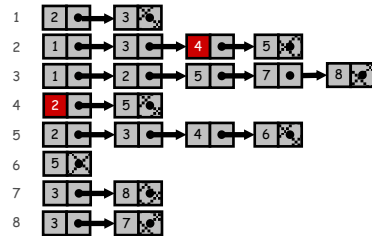
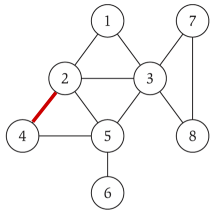


	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
3	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
4	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
5	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
7	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
8	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0

Graph Representation: Adjacency List

Adjacency list. Node indexed array of lists.

- For undirected graphs, each edge is again represented twice.
- Space proportional to $m + n$.
- Checking if (u, v) is an edge takes $O(\text{degree}(u))$ time. degree = number of neighbors of u
- Identifying all outgoing edges from a node takes $O(\text{degree}(u))$ time
- Identifying all edges takes $\Theta(m + n)$ time.
- Cool python representation: dictionary



7

Which Implementation

Which implementation best supports common graph operations:

- Is there an edge between vertex i and vertex j ?
- Find all vertices adjacent to vertex j

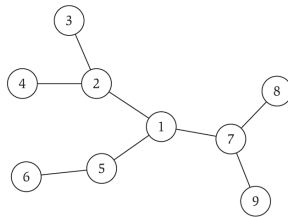
Which best uses space?

8

Trees

Def. An undirected graph is a **tree** if it is connected and does not contain a cycle.

How many edges does a tree have?



9

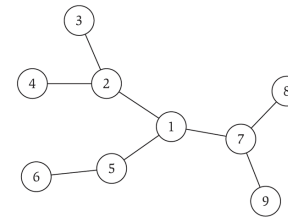
Trees

Def. An undirected graph is a **tree** if it is connected and does not contain a cycle.

How many edges does a tree have?

Given a set of nodes, build a tree step wise

- every time you add an edge, you must add a new node to the growing tree. WHY?
- how many edges to connect n nodes?

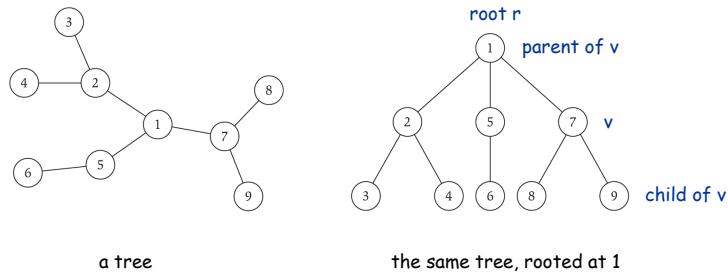


10

Rooted Trees

Rooted tree. Given a tree T , choose a root node r and orient each edge below r ; do same for sub-trees.

Models hierarchical structure. By rooting the tree it is easy to see that it has $n-1$ edges.



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Traversing a Binary Tree

Pre order

- visit the node
- go left
- go right

In order

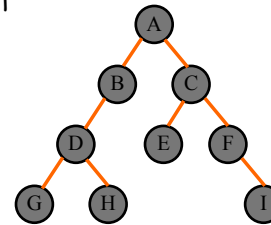
- go left
- visit the node
- go right

Post order

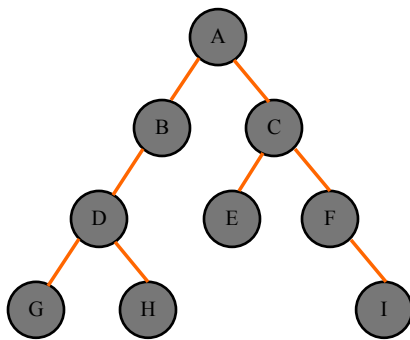
- go left
- go right
- visit the node

Level order / breadth first

- for $d = 0$ to height
- visit nodes at level d



Traversal Examples



Pre order

ABDGHCEFI

In order

GDHBAECFI

Post order

GHDBEIFCA

Level order

ABCDEFGHI

IMPLEMENTATION of these traversals??

Tree traversal Implementation

recursive implementation of preorder

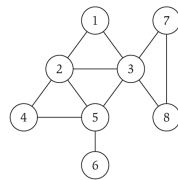
- The steps:
 - visit node
 - preorder(left child)
 - preorder(right child)
- What changes need to be made for in-order, post-order?

How would you implement level order?

Connectivity

s-t connectivity problem. Given two nodes s and t , is there a path between s and t ?

s-t shortest path problem. Given two nodes s and t , what is the length of the shortest path between s and t ? Length: either in terms of number of edges, or in terms of sum of weights.



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Graph Traversal

What makes it different from tree traversals?

Graph Traversal

What makes it different from tree traversals:

- you can visit the same node more than once
- you can get in a cycle

What to do about it?

Graph Traversal

What makes it different from tree traversals:

- you can visit the same node more than once
- you can get in a cycle

What to do about it:

- **mark** the nodes
 - White: unvisited
 - Grey: (still being considered) on the frontier: not all adjacent nodes have been visited yet
 - Black: off the frontier: all adjacent nodes visited (not considered anymore)

BFS: Breadth First Search

Like **level** traversal in trees, **BFS(G, s)** explores the edges of G and locates every node v reachable from s in a level order using a queue.

BFS: Breadth First Search

Like level traversal in trees, **BFS(G, s)** explores the edges of G and locates every node v reachable from s in a level order using a queue.
BFS also computes the **distance**: number of edges from s to all these nodes, and the **shortest path** (minimal #edges) from s to v .

BFS: Breadth First Search

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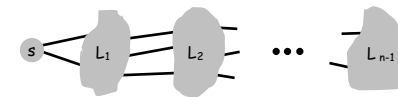
BFS also computes the **distance**: number of edges from s to all these nodes, and the **shortest path** (minimal #edges) from s to v . BFS expands a **frontier** of **discovered** but not yet visited nodes. Nodes are colored white, grey or black. They start out undiscovered or white.

Breadth First Search

BFS intuition. Explore outward from s , adding nodes one "layer" at a time.

BFS algorithm.

- $L_0 = \{s\}$.
- $L_1 =$ all neighbors of L_0 .
- $L_2 =$ all nodes that do not belong to L_0 or L_1 , and that have an edge to a node in L_1 .
- $L_{i+1} =$ all nodes that do not belong to an earlier layer, and that have an edge to a node in L_i .



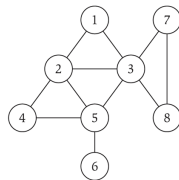
For each i , L_i consists of all nodes at distance exactly i from s . There is a path between s and t iff t appears in some layer.

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Breadth First Tree

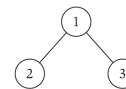
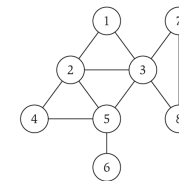
BFS produces a **Breadth First Tree** rooted at s :
 when a node v in L_{i+1} is discovered as a neighbor of
 node u in L_i we add edge (u,v) to the BF tree

Property. Let T be a BFS tree of G , and let (x, y) be
 an edge of G . Then the level of x and y differ by at
 most 1. **WHY?**

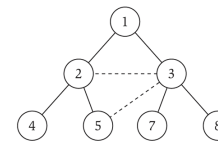


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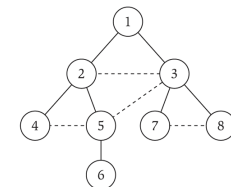
Breadth First Search



(a)



(b)



(c)

L_0
 L_1
 L_2
 L_3

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BFS(G,s)

```
#d: distance, c: color, p: parent in BFS tree
forall v in V-s {c[v]=white; d[v]=∞,p[v]=nil}
c[s]=grey; d[s]=0; p[s]=nil;
Q=empty;
enqueue(Q,s);
while (Q != empty)
  u = deque(Q);
  forall v in adj(u)
    if (c[v]==white)
      c[v]=grey; d[v]=d[u]+1; p[v]=u;
      enqueue(Q,v)
  c[u]=black;
# don't really need grey here, why?
```

Complexity BFS

Each node is painted white once, and is enqueued and dequeued at most once.

Complexity BFS

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Why?

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Enque and deque take constant time. The adjacency list of each node is scanned only once: when it is dequeued.

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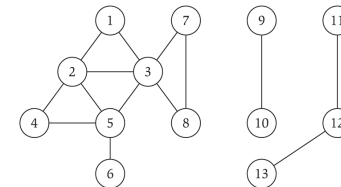
Enqueue and deque take constant time. The adjacency list of each node is scanned only once, when it is dequeued.

Therefore time complexity for BFS is
 $O(|V|+|E|)$ or $O(n+m)$

Connected Components

Connected graph. There is a path between any pair of nodes.

Connected component of a node s . The set of all nodes reachable from s .

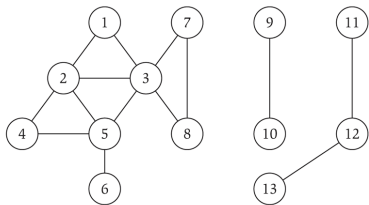


Connected component containing node 1 = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 }.

Connected Components

Connected component of a node s . The set of all nodes reachable from s .

Given two nodes s , and t , their connected components are either identical or disjoint. **WHY?**

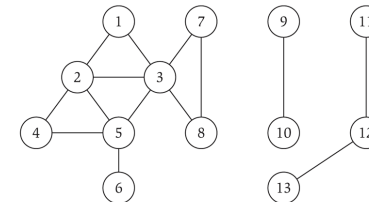


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Connected Components

Connected component of a node s . The set of all nodes reachable from s .

Given two nodes s , and t , their connected components are either identical or disjoint.



Two cases - either there is a path between s and t or there isn't.

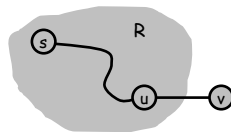
If there is a path: take a node u in the connected component of s , and construct a path from t to u : t to s , then s to u , so $CC_s = CC_t$

If there is no path: assume that the intersection contains a node u . Use it to construct a path between s and t : s to u , then u to t - **contradiction**.

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Connected Components

A generic algorithm for finding connected components:



```
R = {s} # the connected component of s is initially s.
while there is an edge (u,v) where u is in R and v is not in R:
    add v to R
```

Upon termination, R is the connected component containing s.

- BFS: explore in order of distance from s.
- DFS: explores edges **from the most recently discovered node**; backtracks when reaching a dead-end.

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DFS: Depth First Search

Explores edges **from the most recently discovered node**; backtracks when reaching a dead-end. The algorithm below does not use white, grey, black, but uses **explored** (and implicitly unexplored). Recursive code:

```
DFS(u) :
    mark u as Explored and add u to R
    for each edge (u,v) :
        if v is not marked Explored :
            DFS(v)
```

BUT, how do we find cycles in a graph?

DFS and cyclic graphs

When DFS visits a node for the first time it is white. There are two ways DFS can **revisit** a node:

1. DFS has already fully explored the node. **What color does it have then? Is there a cycle then?**

2. DFS is still exploring this node. **What color does it have in this case? Is there a cycle then?**

35

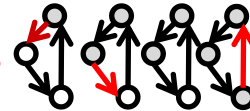
DFS and cyclic graphs

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36

DFS and cyclic graphs

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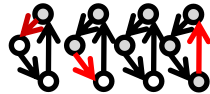
No, the node is revisited from outside.



2. DFS is still exploring this node.

What color does it have in this case? Is there a cycle then?

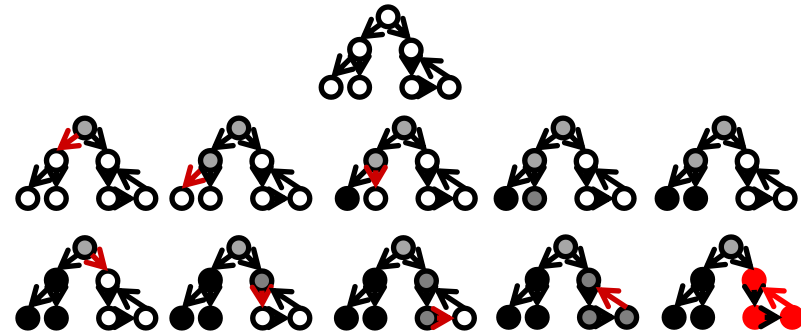
Yes, the node is revisited on a path containing the node itself.



So DFS with the white, grey, black coloring scheme detects a cycle when a **GREY** node is visited

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Cycle detection: DFS + coloring



When a grey (frontier) node is visited, a cycle is detected.

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Recursive / node coloring version

```

DFS(u):
  #c: color, p: parent
  c[u]=grey
  forall v in Adj(u):
    if c[v]==white:
      p[v]=u
      DFS(v)
  c[u]=black

```

The above implementation of DFS runs in $O(m + n)$ time if the graph is given by its adjacency list representation.

Proof:

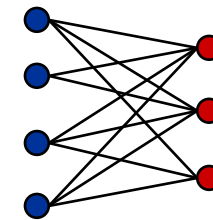
Same as in BFS.

Bipartite Graphs

Def. An undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is **bipartite** if the nodes can be colored red or blue such that every edge has one red end and one blue end.

Applications.

- Scheduling: machines = red, jobs = blue.



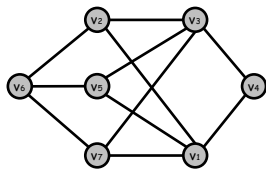
a bipartite graph

40

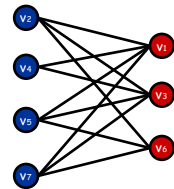
Testing Bipartite-ness

Given a graph G , is it bipartite?

- Many graph problems become tractable if the underlying graph is bipartite (independent set)
- A graph is bipartite if it is **2-colorable**



a bipartite graph G

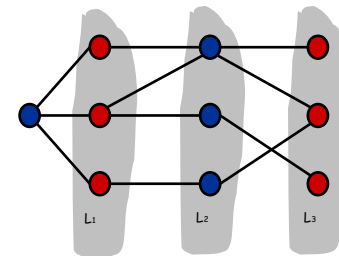


another drawing of G

41

Algorithm for testing if a graph is bipartite

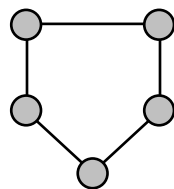
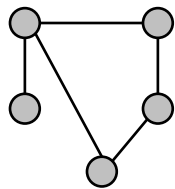
- Pick a node s and color it blue
- Its neighbors must be colored red.
- Their neighbors must be colored blue.
- Proceed until the graph is colored.
- Check that there is no edge whose ends are the same color.



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An Obstacle to Bipartite-ness

Which of these graphs is 2-colorable?

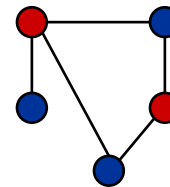


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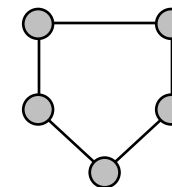
An Obstacle to Bipartite-ness

Lemma. If a graph G is bipartite, it cannot contain an odd cycle.

Proof. Not possible to 2-color the odd cycle, let alone G .



bipartite
(2-colorable)



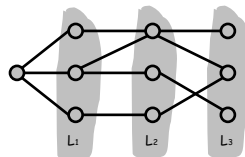
not bipartite
(not 2-colorable)

44

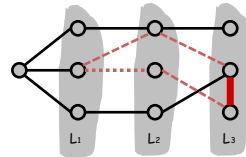
Bipartite Graphs

Lemma. Let G be a connected graph, and let L_0, \dots, L_k be the layers produced by BFS starting at node s . Exactly one of the following holds.

- (i) No edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer. G is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer. G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).



Case (i)



Case (ii)

45

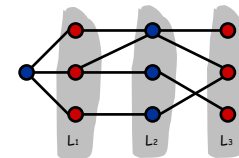
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Proof. (i)

- Suppose no edge joins two nodes in the same layer.
- I.e. all edges join nodes on adjacent layers.
- Bipartition: red = nodes on odd levels, blue = nodes on even levels.



Case (i)

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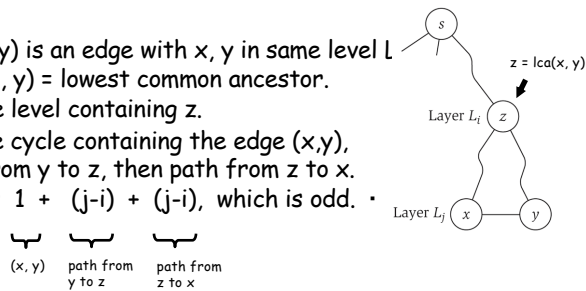
Bipartite Graphs

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Proof. (ii)

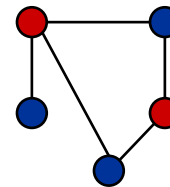
- Suppose (x, y) is an edge with x, y in same level L_j .
- Let $z = \text{lca}(x, y)$ = lowest common ancestor.
- Let L_i be the level containing z .
- Consider the cycle containing the edge (x, y) , then path from y to z , then path from z to x .
- Its length is $1 + (j-i) + (j-i)$, which is odd.



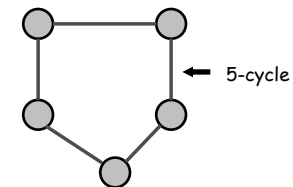
47

Obstruction to Bipartiteness

Corollary. A graph G is bipartite iff it contains no odd length cycle.



bipartite
(2-colorable)



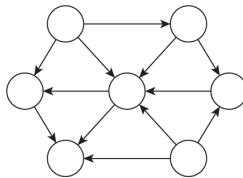
not bipartite
(not 2-colorable)

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Directed Graphs

Directed graph. $G = (V, E)$

- Edge (u, v) goes from node u to node v .



Example. Web graph - hyperlink points from one web page to another.

- Search engines exploit hyperlink structure to rank web pages by importance.

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Graph Search

Directed reachability. Given a node s , find all nodes reachable from s .

Web crawler. Start from web page s . Find all web pages linked from s , either directly or indirectly.

BFS and DFS extend naturally to directed graphs.

Given a path from s to t , not guaranteed there is a path from t to s .

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Strong Connectivity

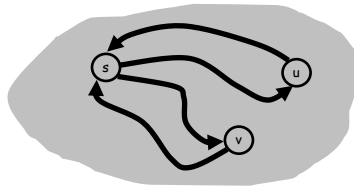
Def. Nodes u and v are **mutually reachable** if there is a path from u to v and also a path from v to u .

Def. A graph is **strongly connected** if every pair of nodes is mutually reachable.

Lemma. Let s be any node. G is strongly connected iff every node is reachable from s , and reversely, s is reachable from every node.

Proof. \Rightarrow Follows from definition.

Proof. \Leftarrow Path from u to v : concatenate u - s path with s - v path.
Path from v to u : concatenate v - s path with s - u path. \cdot



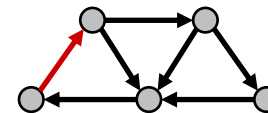
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Strong Connectivity: Algorithm

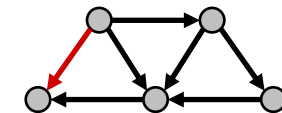
Theorem. Strong connectivity of a graph can be determined in $O(m + n)$ time.

Proof.

- Pick any node s .
- 1. Run BFS from s in G . \leftarrow reverse orientation of every edge in G
- 2. Run BFS from s in G^{rev} .
- Return true iff all nodes reached in both BFS executions.
- 1: s can reach all nodes, 2: s can be reached from all nodes
- Correctness follows immediately from previous lemma. \cdot



strongly connected



not strongly connected

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DAGs and Topological Ordering

Examples: Graphs Describing Precedence

- prerequisites for a set of courses
- dependencies between programs
- dependencies between jobs
- order of putting your clothes on

Precedence constraints. Edge (v_i, v_j) means task v_i must occur before v_j .

Topological ordering: a total ordering of the nodes that respects the precedence relation

- Example: An ordering of CS courses

Graphs describing precedence must not contain cycles.

Why?

Graphs Describing Precedence

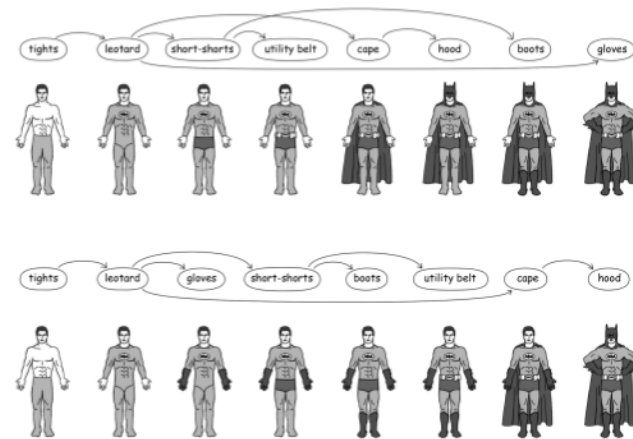
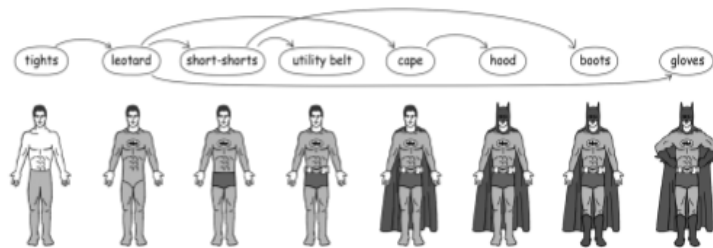


Batman images are from the book "Introduction to bioinformatics algorithms"

Topological Order of DAGs

DAG: Directed Acyclic Graph

Topological order: listing of nodes such that if (a, b) is an edge, a appears before b in the list
 Is a topological sort unique?



Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If G has a topological order, then G is a DAG.

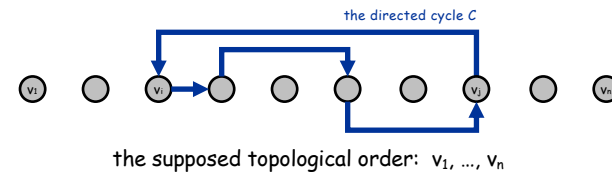
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Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If G has a topological order, then G is a DAG.

Proof. (by contradiction)

- Suppose that G has a topological order v_1, \dots, v_n and that G also has a directed cycle C .
- Let v_i be the lowest-indexed node in C , and let v_j be the node just before v_i ; thus (v_j, v_i) is an edge.
- By our choice of i , we have $i < j$.
- On the other hand, since (v_j, v_i) is an edge and v_1, \dots, v_n is a topological order, we must have $j < i$.
- contradiction.**



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Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If G has a topological order, then G is a DAG.

Q. Does every DAG have a topological ordering?

Q. If so, how do we compute one?

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Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If G is a DAG, then G has a node with no incoming edges.

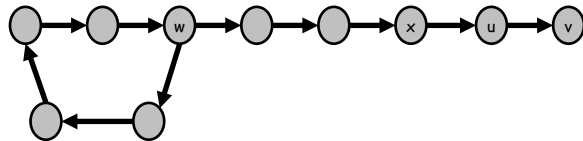
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Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If G is a DAG, then G has a node with no incoming edges.

Proof. (by contradiction)

- Suppose that G is a DAG and every node has at least one incoming edge. Then it has a cycle and thus is not a DAG:
 - Pick any node v , and begin following edges backward from v .
 - Repeat. After $n + 1$ steps we have visited a node, say w , twice. The sequence of nodes encountered between successive visits is a cycle.
- **Contradiction**



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Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If G is a DAG, then G has a topological ordering.

Proof. (by induction on n)

- Base: true if $n = 1$.
- Step: Given a DAG with $n > 1$ nodes, find a node v with no incoming edges. $G - \{v\}$ is a DAG, since deleting v cannot create cycles. By induction hypothesis, $G - \{v\}$ has a topological ordering.

To compute a topological ordering of G :

Find a node v with no incoming edges and order it first

Delete v from G

Recursively compute a topological ordering of $G - \{v\}$

and append this order after v

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Topological Sort: Algorithm

Algorithm:

keep track of # incoming edges per node
 while (nodes left) :
 extract one with 0 incoming
 subtract one from all its adjacent nodes

Time complexity?
 Better way?

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Topological Sort: Algorithm Running Time

Theorem. Algorithm can run in $O(m + n)$ time.

Proof.

- Maintain the following information:
 - $\text{count}[w]$ = remaining number of incoming edges
 - S = set of nodes with no incoming edges
 - Initialization: $O(m + n)$ via single scan through graph.
 - Update: pick a node v in S
 - remove v from S
 - for each edge (v, w) : decrement $\text{count}[w]$ and add w to S if $\text{count}[w]$ hits 0
- this is $O(1)$ per edge ·

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