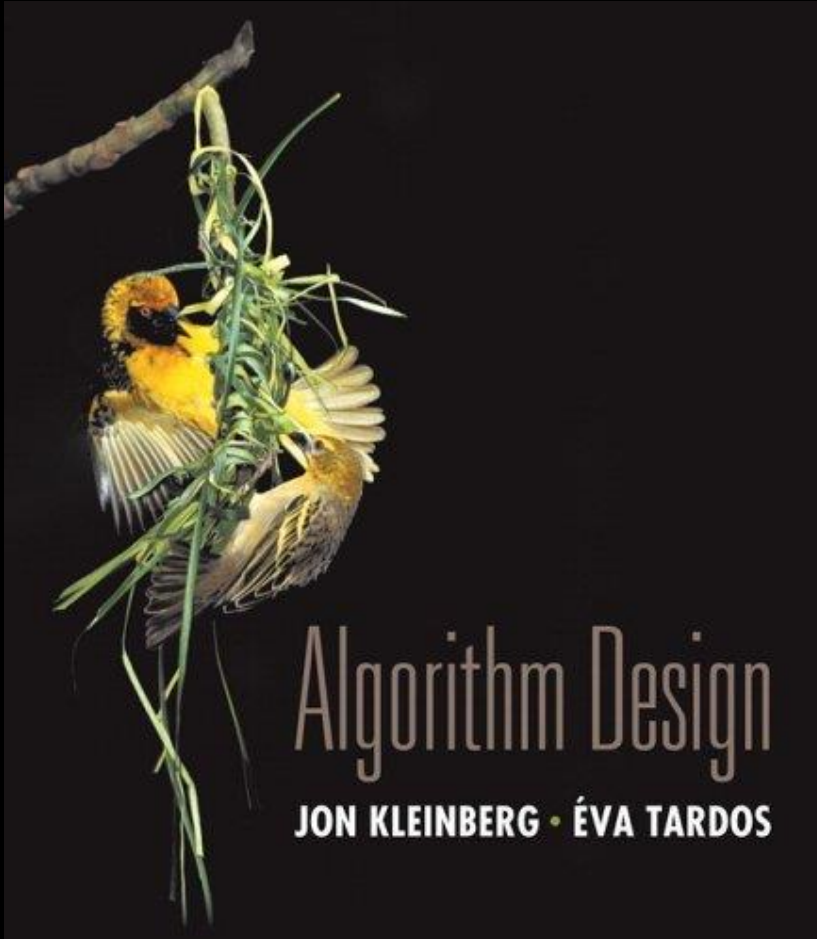


Chapter 3

Graphs



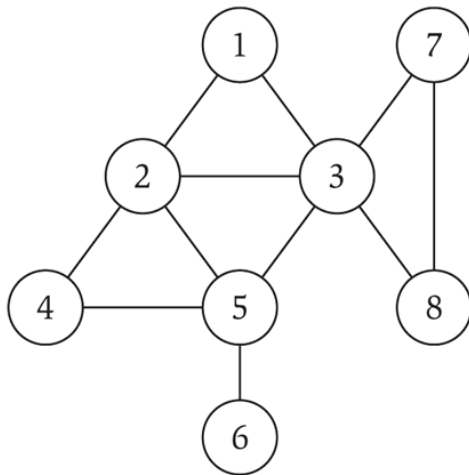
Slides by Kevin Wayne.
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3.1 Basic Definitions and Applications

Undirected Graphs

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

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



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

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

$n = 8$

$m = 11$

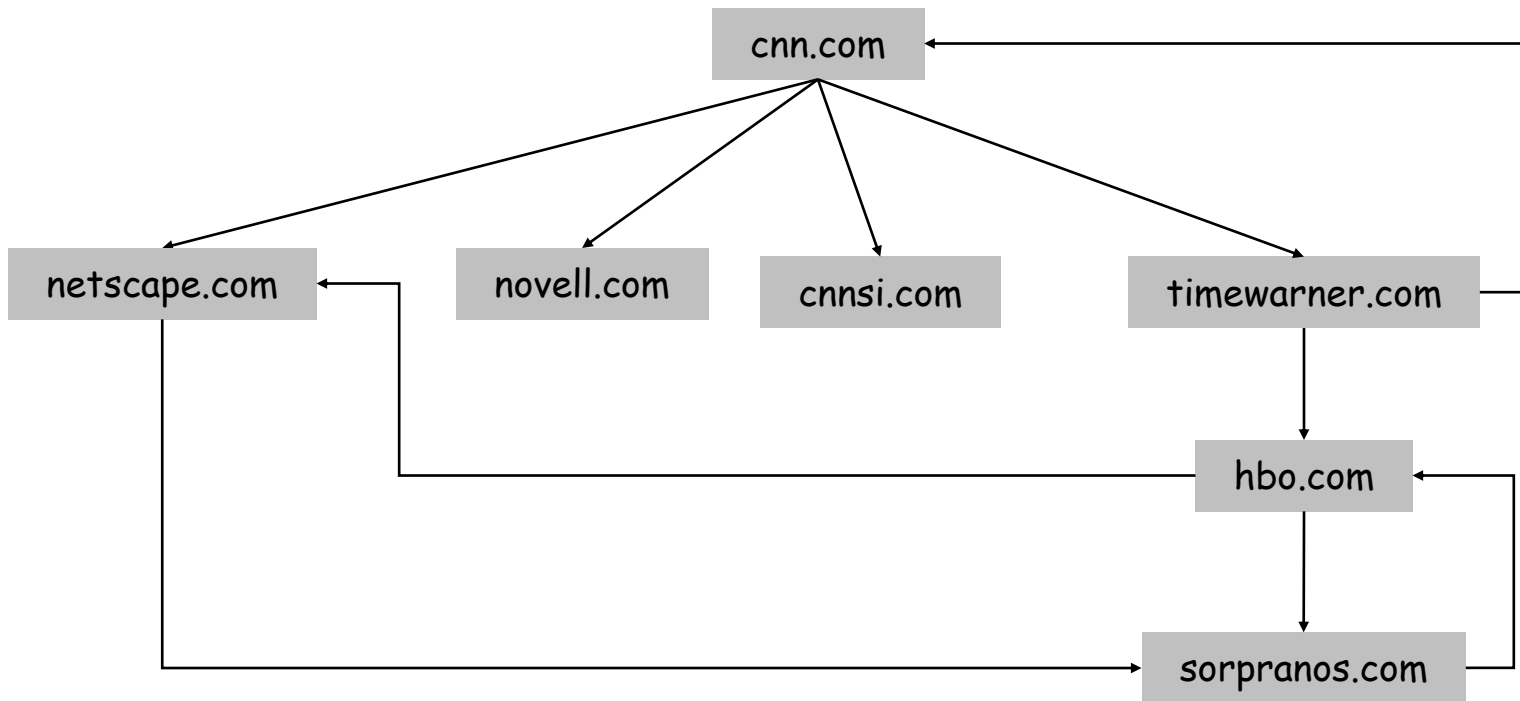
Some Graph Applications

<i>Graph</i>	<i>Nodes</i>	<i>Edges</i>
transportation	street intersections	highways
communication	computers	fiber optic cables
World Wide Web	web pages	hyperlinks
social	people	relationships
food web	species	predator-prey
software systems	functions	function calls
scheduling	tasks	precedence constraints
circuits	gates	wires

World Wide Web

Web graph.

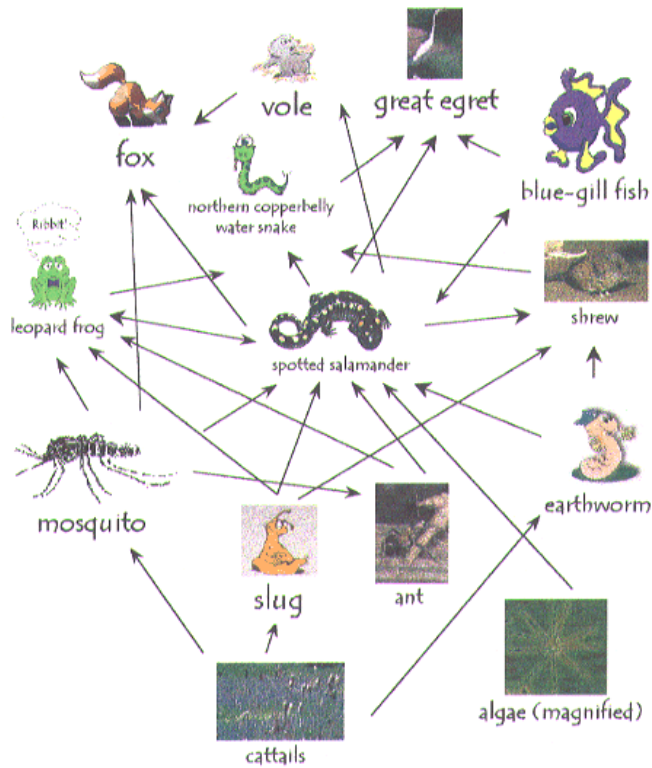
- Node: web page.
- Edge: hyperlink from one page to another.



Ecological Food Web

Food web graph.

- Node = species.
- Edge = from prey to predator.

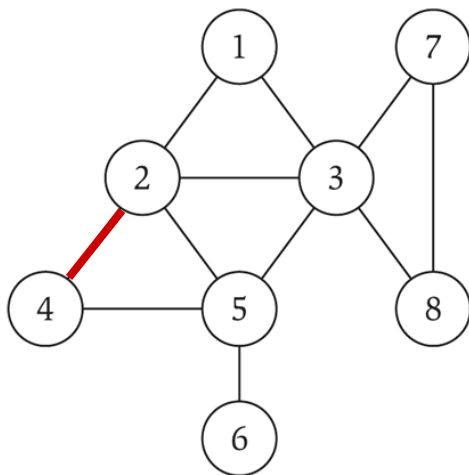


Reference: <http://www.twingroves.district96.k12.il.us/Wetlands/Salamander/SalGraphics/salfoodweb.gif>

Graph Representation: Adjacency Matrix

Adjacency matrix. n -by- n matrix with $A_{uv} = 1$ if (u, v) is an edge.

- Two representations of each edge.
- Space proportional to n^2 .
- Checking if (u, v) is an edge takes $\Theta(1)$ time.
- Identifying all edges takes $\Theta(n^2)$ time.



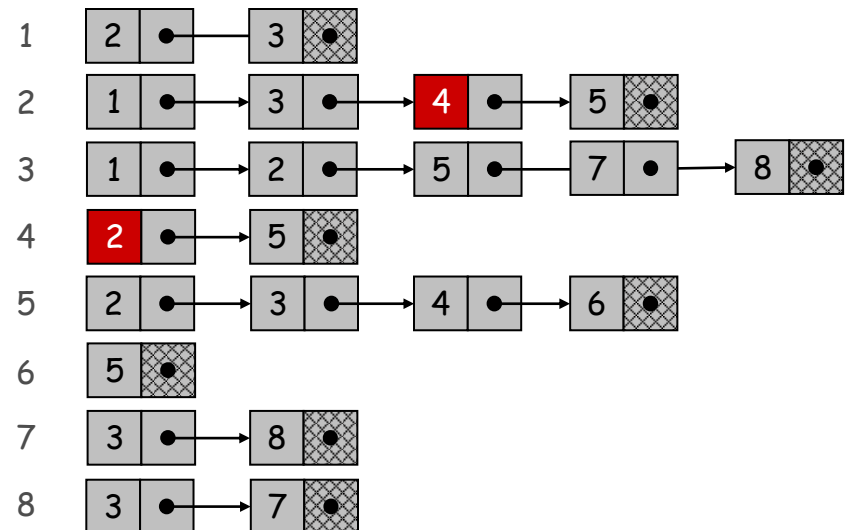
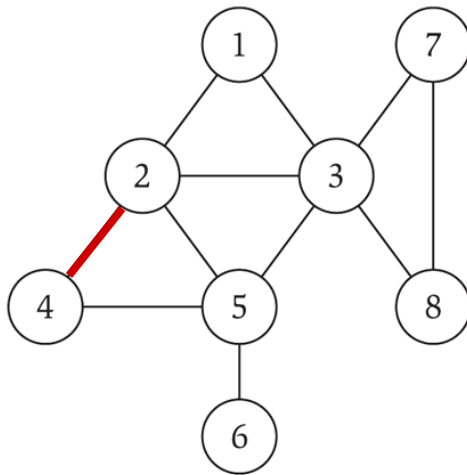
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
2	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
3	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1
4	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
5	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
7	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
8	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0

Graph Representation: Adjacency List

Adjacency list. Node indexed array of lists.

- Two representations of each edge.
- Space proportional to $m + n$.
- Checking if (u, v) is an edge takes $O(\deg(u))$ time.
- Identifying all edges takes $\Theta(m + n)$ time.

degree = number of neighbors of u

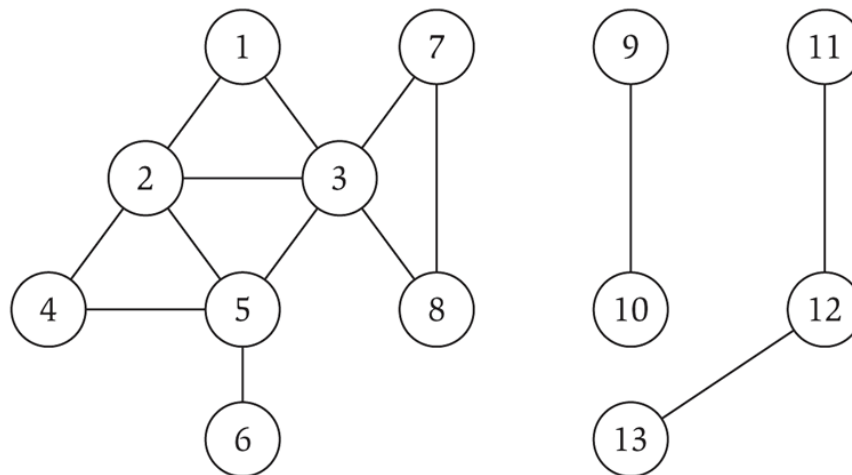


Paths and Connectivity

Def. A **path** in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a sequence P of nodes $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_k$ with the property that each consecutive pair v_i, v_{i+1} is joined by an edge in E .

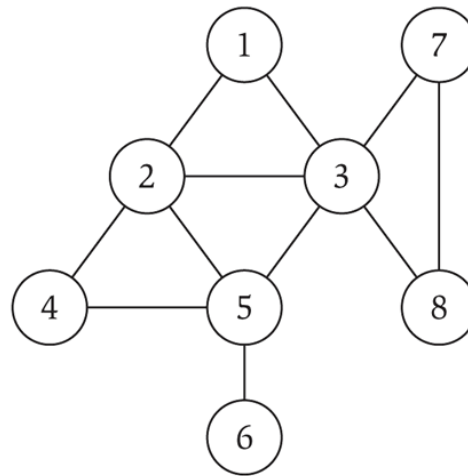
Def. A path is **simple** if all nodes are distinct.

Def. An undirected graph is **connected** if for every pair of nodes u and v , there is a path between u and v .



Cycles

Def. A **cycle** is a path $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_k$ in which $v_1 = v_k$, $k > 2$, and the first $k-1$ nodes are all distinct.



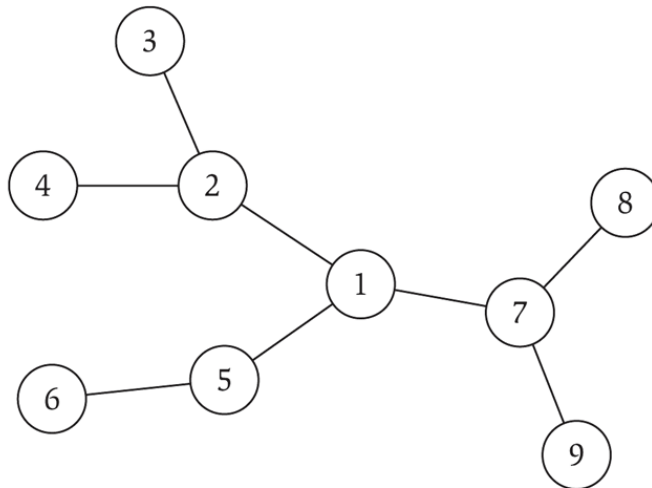
cycle $C = 1-2-4-5-3-1$

Trees

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

Theorem. Let G be an undirected graph on n nodes. Any two of the following statements imply the third.

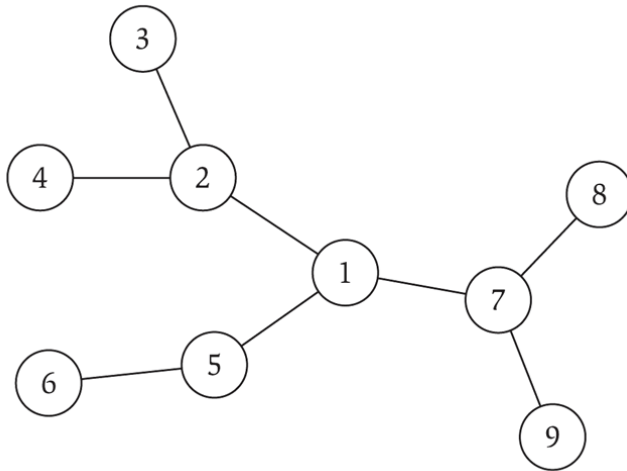
- ▣ G is connected.
- ▣ G does not contain a cycle.
- ▣ G has $n-1$ edges.



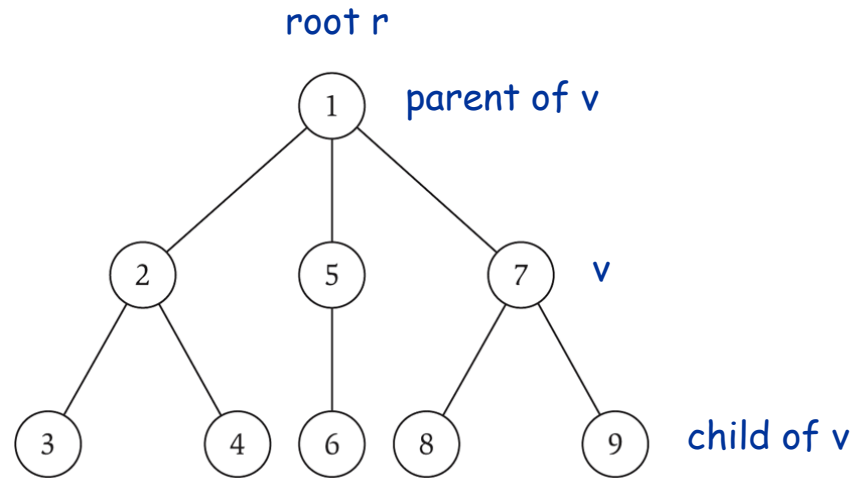
Rooted Trees

Rooted tree. Given a tree T , choose a root node r and orient each edge away from r .

Importance. Models hierarchical structure.



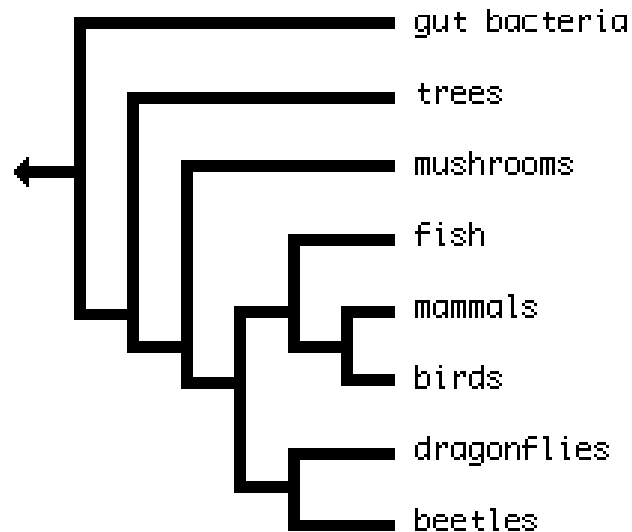
a tree



the same tree, rooted at 1

Phylogeny Trees

Phylogeny trees. Describe evolutionary history of species.



3.2 Graph Traversal

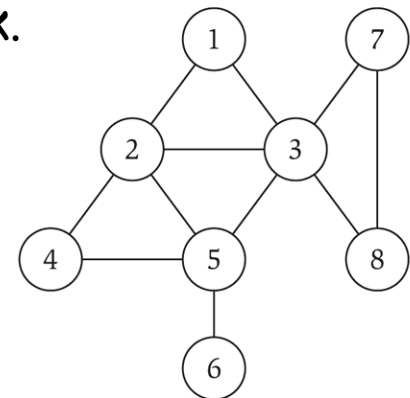
Connectivity

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 ?

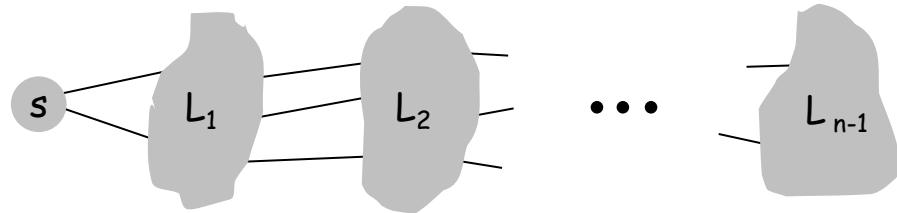
Applications.

- Friendster.
- Maze traversal.
- Kevin Bacon number.
- Fewest number of hops in a communication network.



Breadth First Search

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



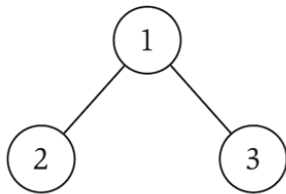
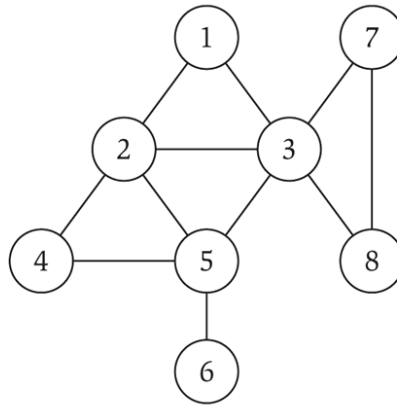
BFS algorithm.

- $L_0 = \{ s \}$.
- $L_1 =$ 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 .

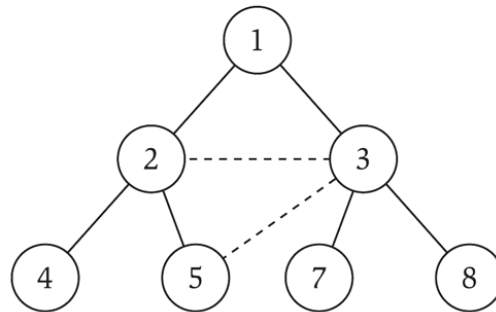
Theorem. For each i , L_i consists of all nodes at distance exactly i from s . There is a path from s to t iff t appears in some layer.

Breadth First Search

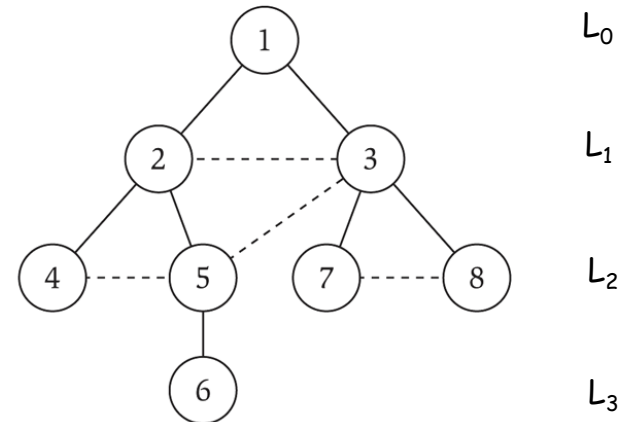
Property. Let T be a BFS tree of $G = (V, E)$, and let (x, y) be an edge of G . Then the level of x and y differ by at most 1.



(a)



(b)



(c)

L_0

L_1

L_2

L_3

Breadth First Search: Analysis

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

Pf.

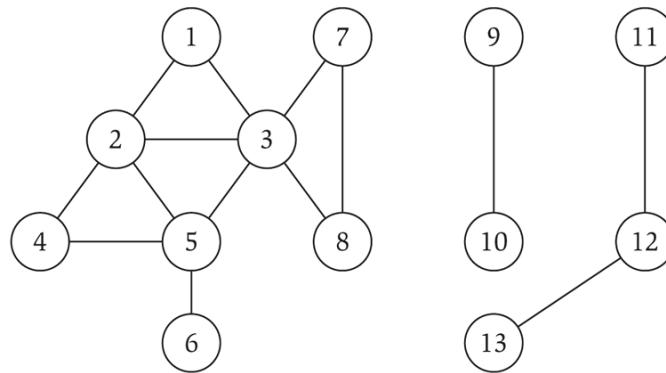
- Easy to prove $O(n^2)$ running time:
 - at most n lists $L[i]$
 - each node occurs on at most one list; for loop runs $\leq n$ times
 - when we consider node u , there are $\leq n$ incident edges (u, v) , and we spend $O(1)$ processing each edge

- Actually runs in $O(m + n)$ time:
 - when we consider node u , there are $\deg(u)$ incident edges (u, v)
 - total time processing edges is $\sum_{u \in V} \deg(u) = 2m$ ■

↑
each edge (u, v) is counted exactly twice
in sum: once in $\deg(u)$ and once in $\deg(v)$

Connected Component

Connected component. Find all nodes reachable from s.



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

Connected Component

Connected component. Find all nodes reachable from s .

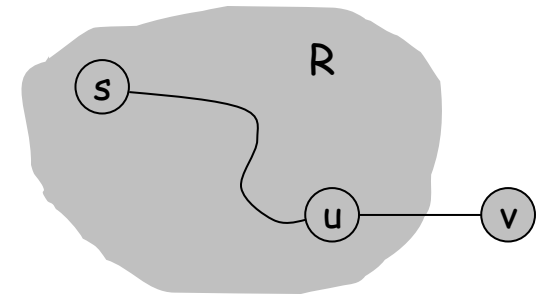
R will consist of nodes to which s has a path

Initially $R = \{s\}$

While there is an edge (u, v) where $u \in R$ and $v \notin R$

 Add v to R

Endwhile



it's safe to add v

Theorem. Upon termination, R is the connected component containing s .

- BFS = explore in order of distance from s .
- DFS = explore in a different way.

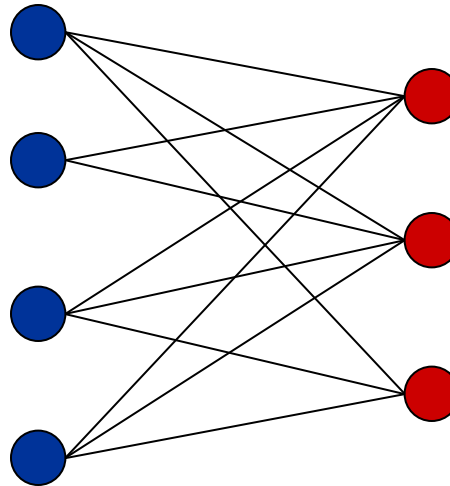
3.4 Testing Bipartiteness

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 and one blue end.

Applications.

- Stable marriage: men = red, women = blue.
- Scheduling: machines = red, jobs = blue.

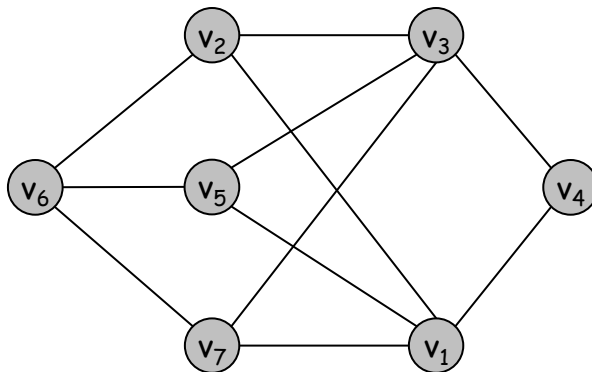


a bipartite graph

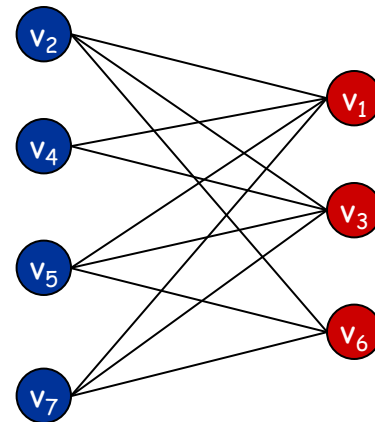
Testing Bipartiteness

Testing bipartiteness. Given a graph G , is it bipartite?

- Many graph problems become:
 - easier if the underlying graph is bipartite (matching)
 - tractable if the underlying graph is bipartite (independent set)
- Before attempting to design an algorithm, we need to understand structure of bipartite graphs.



a bipartite graph G

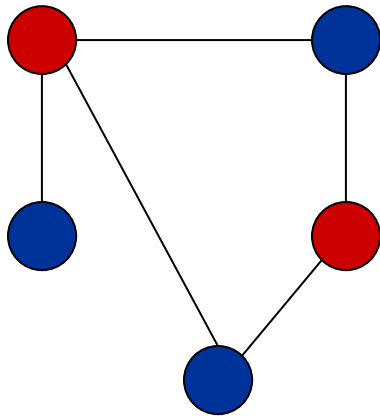


another drawing of G

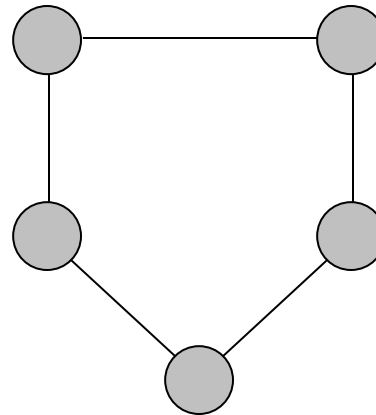
An Obstruction to Bipartiteness

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

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



bipartite
(2-colorable)

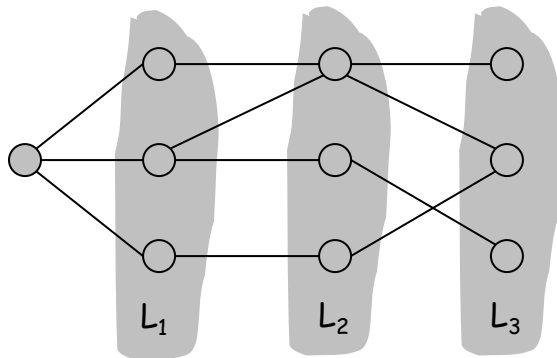


not bipartite
(not 2-colorable)

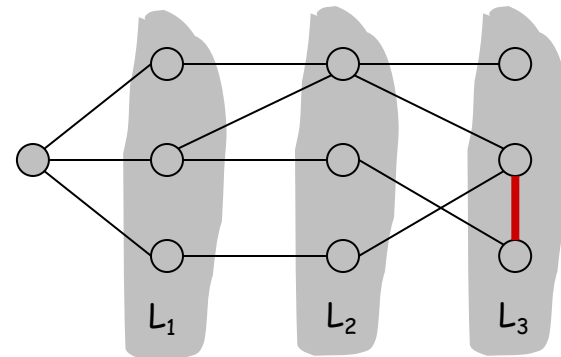
Bipartite Graphs

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, and G is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).



Case (i)



Case (ii)

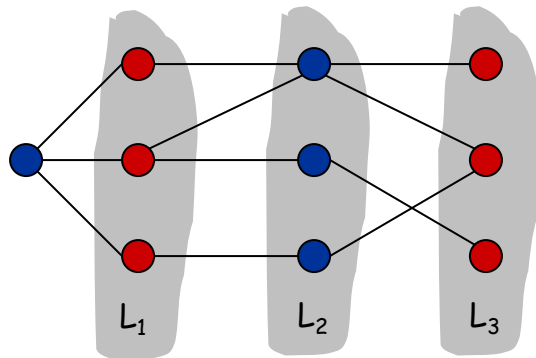
Bipartite Graphs

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, and G is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).

Pf. (i)

- Suppose no edge joins two nodes in the same layer.
- By previous lemma, this implies all edges join nodes on adjacent levels.
- Bipartition: red = nodes on odd levels, blue = nodes on even levels.



Case (i)

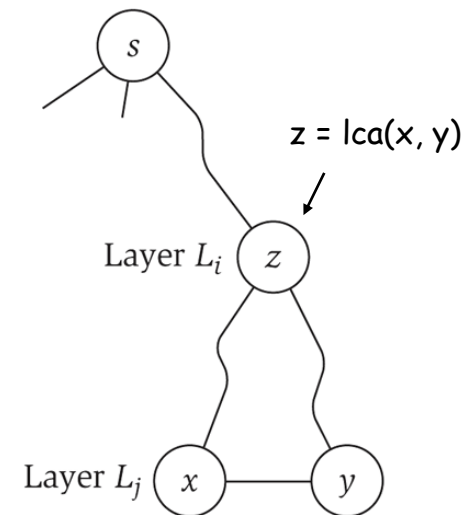
Bipartite Graphs

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, and G is bipartite.
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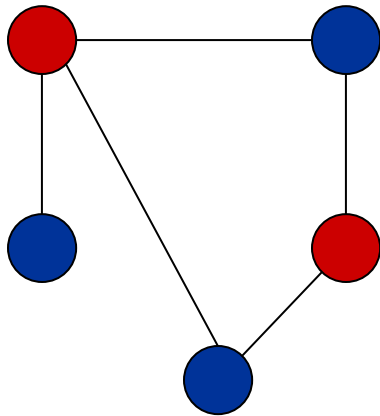
Pf. (ii)

- 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 level containing z .
- Consider cycle that takes edge from x to y , then path from y to z , then path from z to x .
- Its length is $1 + \underbrace{(j-i)}_{\text{path from } y \text{ to } z} + \underbrace{(j-i)}_{\text{path from } z \text{ to } x}$, which is odd. ▀

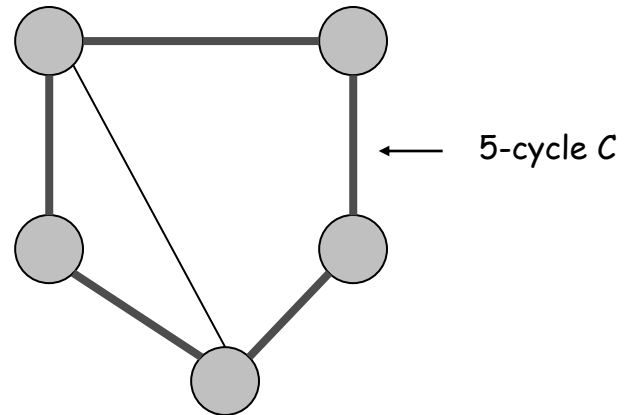


Obstruction to Bipartiteness

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



bipartite
(2-colorable)



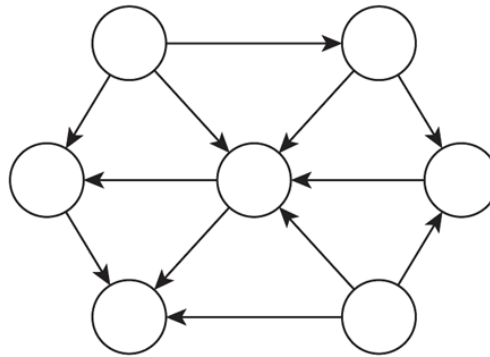
not bipartite
(not 2-colorable)

3.5 Connectivity in Directed Graphs

Directed Graphs

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

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



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

- Directedness of graph is crucial.
- Modern web search engines exploit hyperlink structure to rank web pages by importance.

Graph Search

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

Directed s - t shortest path problem. Given two nodes s and t , what is the length of the shortest path between s and t ?

Graph search. BFS extends naturally to directed graphs.

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

Strong Connectivity

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

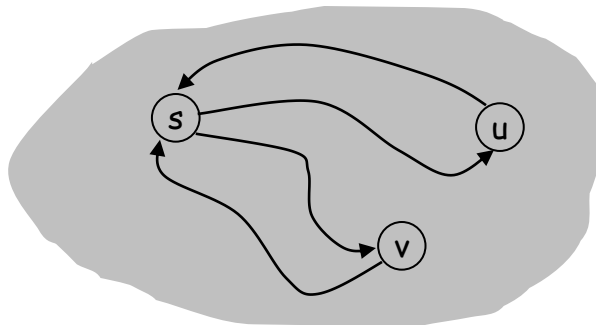
Def. A graph is **strongly connected** if every pair of nodes is mutually reachable.

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

Pf. \Rightarrow Follows from definition.

Pf. \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. ■

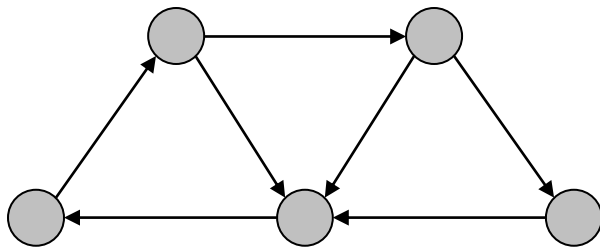


↖
ok if paths overlap

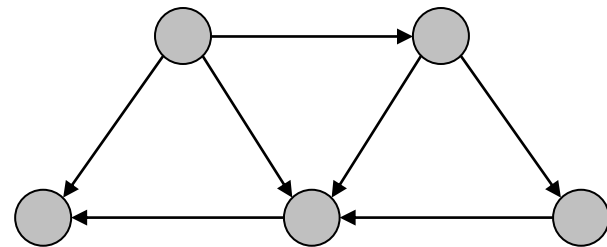
Strong Connectivity: Algorithm

Theorem. Can determine if G is strongly connected in $O(m + n)$ time.
Pf.

- Pick any node s .
- Run BFS from s in G .
- Run BFS from s in G^{rev} . ← reverse orientation of every edge in G
- Return true iff all nodes reached in both BFS executions.
- Correctness follows immediately from previous lemma. ■



strongly connected



not strongly connected

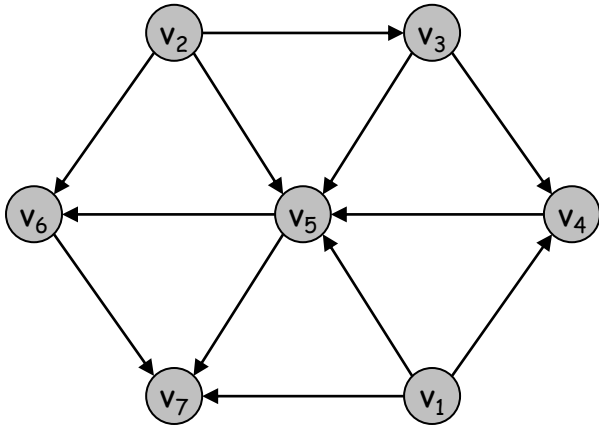
3.6 DAGs and Topological Ordering

Directed Acyclic Graphs

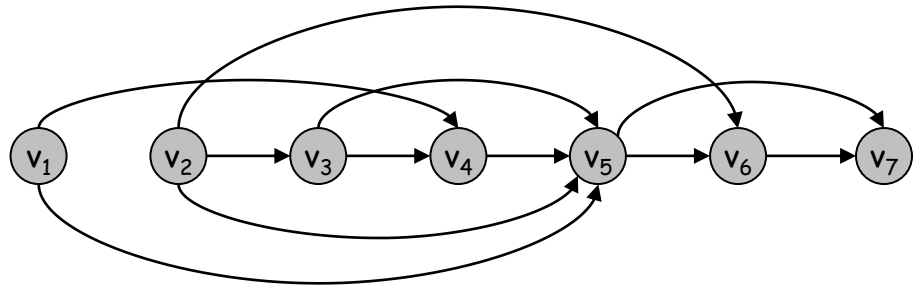
Def. A **DAG** is a directed graph that contains no directed cycles.

Ex. Precedence constraints: edge (v_i, v_j) means v_i must precede v_j .

Def. A **topological order** of a directed graph $G = (V, E)$ is an ordering of its nodes as v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n so that for every edge (v_i, v_j) we have $i < j$.



a DAG



a topological ordering

Precedence Constraints

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

Applications.

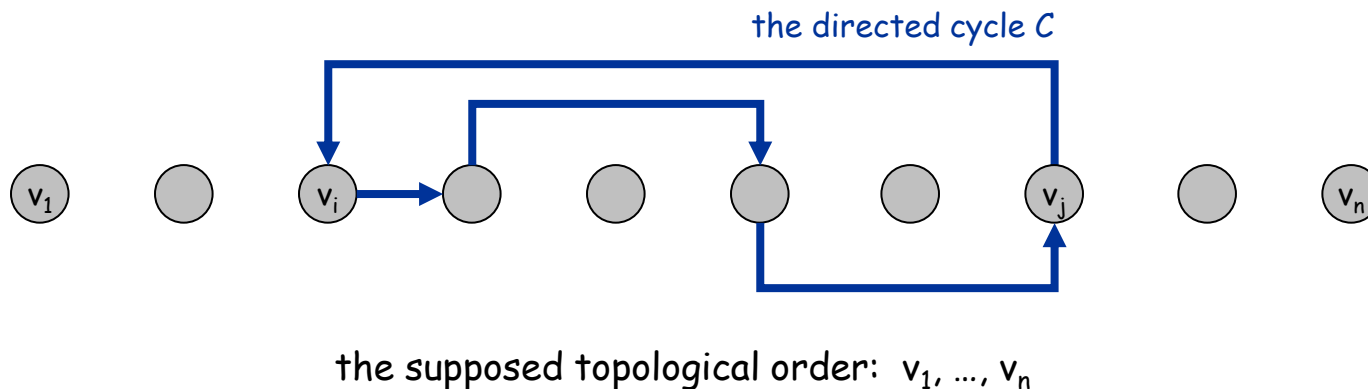
- Course prerequisite graph: course v_i must be taken before v_j .
- Compilation: module v_i must be compiled before v_j .
- Pipeline of computing jobs: output of job v_i needed to determine input of job v_j .

Directed Acyclic Graphs

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

Pf. (by contradiction)

- Suppose that G has a topological order v_1, \dots, v_n and that G also has a directed cycle C . Let's see what happens.
- 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 $j < i$, a contradiction. ▀



Directed Acyclic Graphs

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

Q. Does every DAG have a topological ordering?

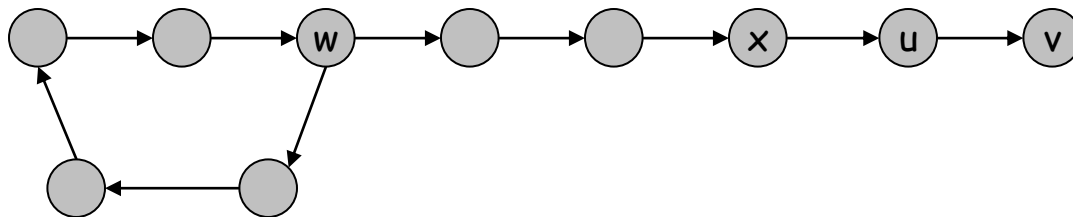
Q. If so, how do we compute one?

Directed Acyclic Graphs

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

Pf. (by contradiction)

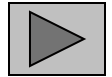
- Suppose that G is a DAG and every node has at least one incoming edge. Let's see what happens.
- Pick any node v , and begin following edges backward from v . Since v has at least one incoming edge (u, v) we can walk backward to u .
- Then, since u has at least one incoming edge (x, u) , we can walk backward to x .
- Repeat until we visit a node, say w , twice.
- Let C denote the sequence of nodes encountered between successive visits to w . C is a cycle. ▀



Directed Acyclic Graphs

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

Pf. (by induction on n)



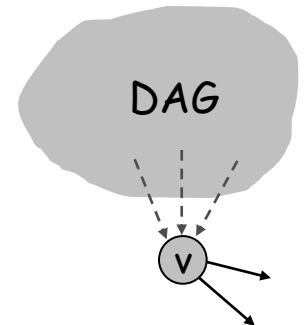
- Base case: true if $n = 1$.
- Given DAG on $n > 1$ nodes, find a node v with no incoming edges.
- $G - \{v\}$ is a DAG, since deleting v cannot create cycles.
- By inductive hypothesis, $G - \{v\}$ has a topological ordering.
- Place v first in topological ordering; then append nodes of $G - \{v\}$
- in topological order. This is valid since v has no incoming edges. ■

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



Topological Sorting Algorithm: Running Time

Theorem. Algorithm finds a topological order in $O(m + n)$ time.

Pf.

- Maintain the following information:
 - `count[w]` = remaining number of incoming edges
 - S = set of remaining nodes with no incoming edges
- Initialization: $O(m + n)$ via single scan through graph.
- Update: to delete v
 - remove v from S
 - decrement `count[w]` for all edges from v to w , and add w to S if `count[w]` hits 0
 - this is $O(1)$ per edge ▪