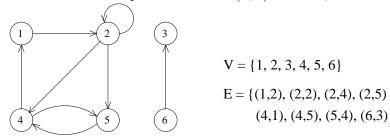
# Basic Graph Algorithms

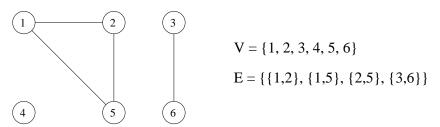
(CLRS B.4-B.5, 22.1-22.4)

### 1 Basic Graph Definitions

- A graph G = (V, E) consists of a finite set of vertices V and a finite set of edges E.
  - Directed graphs: E is a set of ordered pairs of vertices (u, v) where  $u, v \in V$



- Undirected graph: E is a set of unordered pairs of vertices  $\{u,v\}$  where  $u,v\in V$ 



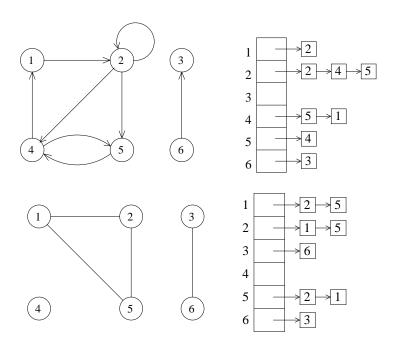
- Edge (u, v) is incident to u and v
- Degree of vertex in undirected graph is the number of edges incident to it.
- In (out) degree of a vertex in directed graph is the number of edges entering (leaving) it.
- A path from  $u_1$  to  $u_2$  is a sequence of vertices  $\langle u_1=v_0, v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_k=u_2 \rangle$  such that  $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$  (or  $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} \in E$ )
  - We say that  $u_2$  is reachable from  $u_1$
  - The length of the path is k
  - It is a cycle if  $v_0 = v_k$
- An undirected graph is *connected* if every pair of vertices are connected by a path
  - The *connected components* are the equivalence classes of the vertices under the "reachability" relation. (All connected pair of vertices are in the same connected component).

- A directed graph is strongly connected if every pair of vertices are reachable from each other
  - The *strongly connected components* are the equivalence classes of the vertices under the "mutual reachability" relation.
- Graphs appear all over the place in all kinds of applications, e.g.
  - Trees (|E| = |V| 1)
  - Connectivity/dependencies (house building plans, WWW-page connections = internet graph)
- Often the edges (u, v) in a graph have weights w(u, v), e.g.
  - Road networks (distances)
  - Cable networks (capacity)

#### 1.1 Representation

- Adjacency-list representation:
  - Array of |V| list of edges incident to each vertex.

Examples:

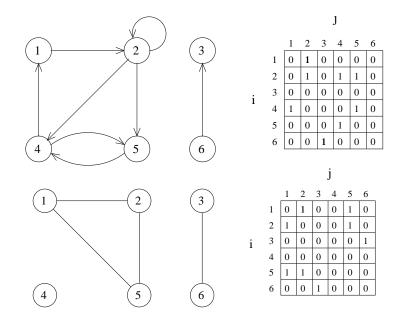


- Note: For undirected graphs, every edge is stored twice.
- If graph is weighted, a weight is stored with each edge.
- Adjacency-matrix representation:

-  $|V| \times |V|$  matrix A where

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

Examples:



- Note: For undirected graphs, the adjacency matrix is symmetric along the main diagonal  $(A^T = A)$ .
- If graph is weighted, weights are stored instead of one's.
- Comparison of matrix and list representation:

Adjacency list	Adjacency matrix
O( V  +  E ) space	$O( V ^2)$ space
Good if graph sparse ( $ E  \ll  V ^2$ )	Good if graph dense ( $ E  \approx  V ^2$ )
No quick access to $(u, v)$	O(1) access to $(u, v)$

• We will use adjacency list representation unless stated otherwise (O(|V| + |E|)) space).

# 2 Graph traversal

- There are two standard (and simple) ways of traversing all vertices/edges in a graph in a systematic way
  - Breadth-first
  - Depth-first
- $\bullet$  We can use them in many fundamental algorithms, e.g finding cycles, connected components,  $\dots$

#### 2.1 Breadth-first search (BFS)

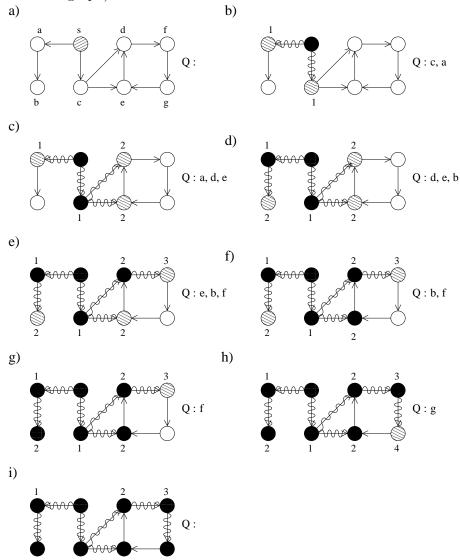
- Main idea:
  - Start at some source vertex s and visit,
  - All vertices at distance 1,
  - Followed by all vertices at distance 2,
  - Followed by all vertices at distance 3,
     .

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- $\bullet$  BFS corresponds to computing *shortest path* distance (number of edges) from s to all other vertices.
- To control progress of our BFS algorithm, we think about coloring each vertex
  - White before we start,
  - Gray after we visit the vertex but before we have visited all its adjacent vertices,
  - Black after we have visited the vertex and all its adjacent vertices (all adjacent vertices are gray).
- We use a queue Q to hold all gray vertices—vertices we have seen but are still not done with.
- We remember from which vertex a given vertex v is colored gray i.e. the node that discovered v first; this is called parent[v].
- Algorithm:

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\begin{aligned} \operatorname{color}[s] &= \operatorname{gray} \\ d[s] &= 0 \\ \operatorname{ENQUEUE}(Q, s) \\ \operatorname{WHILE} Q \text{ not empty DO} \\ \operatorname{DEQUEUE}(Q, u) \\ \operatorname{FOR} (u, v) &\in E \operatorname{DO} \\ \operatorname{IF color}[v] &= \operatorname{white THEN} \\ \operatorname{color}[v] &= \operatorname{gray} \\ d[v] &= d[u] + 1 \\ \operatorname{parent}[v] &= \operatorname{u} \\ \operatorname{ENQUEUE}(Q, v) \\ \operatorname{FI} \\ \operatorname{color}[u] &= \operatorname{black} \\ \operatorname{OD} \end{aligned}
```

- Algorithm runs in O(|V| + |E|) time
- Example (for directed graph):



- Note:
  - parent[v] forms a tree; BFS-tree.
  - -d[v] contains length of shortest path from s to v. (Prove by induction)
  - We can use parent[v] to find the shortest path from s to a given vertex.
- If graph is not connected we have to try to start the traversal at all nodes.

FOR each vertex 
$$u \in V$$
 DO

IF  $\operatorname{color}[u] = \text{white THEN BFS}(u)$ 

OD

- Note: We can use algorithm to compute connected components in O(|V| + |E|) time.

#### 2.2 Depth-first search (DFS)

- If we use stack instead of queue Q we get another traversal order; depth-first
  - We go "as deep as possible",
  - Go back until we find unexplored adjacent vertex,
  - Go as deep as possible,

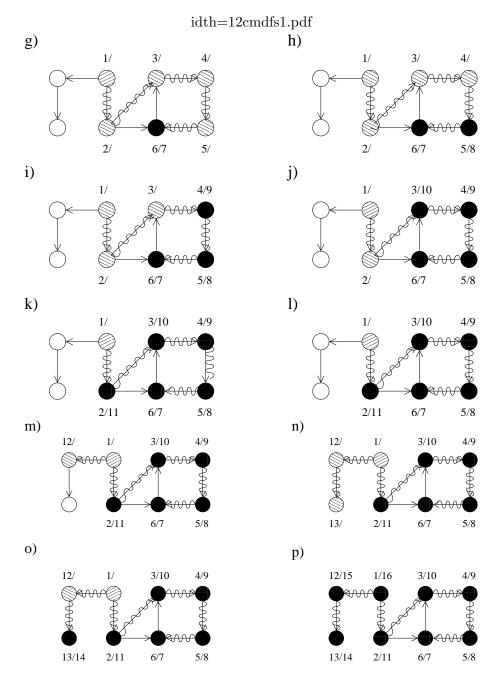
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- Often we are interested in "start time" and "finish time" of vertex u
  - Start time (d[u]): indicates at what "time" vertex is first visited.
  - Finish time (f[u]): indicates at what "time" all adjacent vertices have been visited.
- We can write DFS iteratively using the same algorithm as for BFS but with a STACK instead of a QUEUE, or, we can write a recursive DFS procedure
  - We will color a vertex gray when we first meet it and black when we finish processing all adjacent vertices.
- Algorithm:

```
\begin{aligned} \operatorname{DFS}(u) \\ \operatorname{color}[u] &= \operatorname{gray} \\ d[u] &= \operatorname{time} \\ \operatorname{time} &= \operatorname{time} + 1 \\ \operatorname{FOR}(u,v) \in E \text{ DO} \\ \operatorname{IF} \operatorname{color}[v] &= \operatorname{white} \operatorname{THEN} \\ \operatorname{parent}[v] &= u \\ \operatorname{DFS}(v) \\ \operatorname{FI} \\ \operatorname{OD} \\ \operatorname{color}[u] &= \operatorname{black} \\ f[u] &= \operatorname{time} \\ \operatorname{time} &= \operatorname{time} + 1 \end{aligned}
```

- Algorithm runs in O(|V| + |E|) time
  - As before we can extend algorithm to unconnected graphs and we can use it to detect cycles in O(|V| + |E|) time.

• Example:

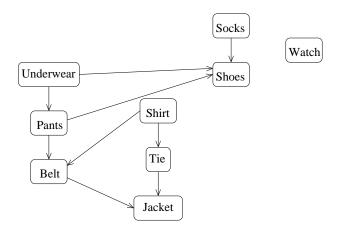


- ullet As previously parent[v] forms a tree; DFS-tree
  - Note: If u is descendent of v in DFS-tree then d[v] < d[u] < f[u] < f[v]

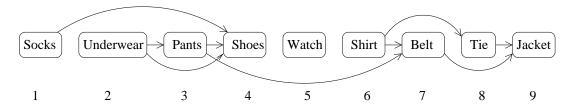
### 3 Topological sorting

• Definition: Topological sorting of directed acyclic graph G=(V,E) is a linear ordering of vertices V such that  $(u,v) \in E \Rightarrow u$  appear before v in ordering.

- Topological ordering can be used in scheduling:
  - Example: Dressing (arrow implies "must come before")



We want to compute order in which to get dressed. One possibility:



The given order is one possible topological order.

- Algorithm: Topological order just reverse DFS finish time ( $\Rightarrow O(|V| + |E|)$  running time).
- Correctness:  $(u, v) \in E \Leftrightarrow f(v) < f(u)$ 
  - Proof: When (u, v) is explored by DFS algorithm, v must be white or black (gray  $\Rightarrow$  cycle).
    - \* v white: v visited and finished before u is finished  $\Rightarrow f(v) < f(u)$
    - \* v black: v already finished  $\Rightarrow f(v) < f(u)$
- Alternative algorithm: Count in-degree of each vertex and repeatedly number and remove in-degree 0 vertex and its outgoing edges: Homework.