#### CSE 421: Intro Algorithms

Autumn 2012 Graphs and Graph Algorithms Pratik Prasad / Larry Ruzzo

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## Goals

Graphs: defns, examples, utility, terminology Representation: input, internal Traversal: Breadth- & Depth-first search Three Algorithms: Connected components Bipartiteness Topological sort

## **Objects & Relationships**

The Kevin Bacon Game:

**Obj:** Actors

Rel: Two are related if they've been in a movie together

**Exam Scheduling:** 

Obj: Classes

Rel: Two are related if they have students in common

**Traveling Salesperson Problem:** 

**Obj:** Cities

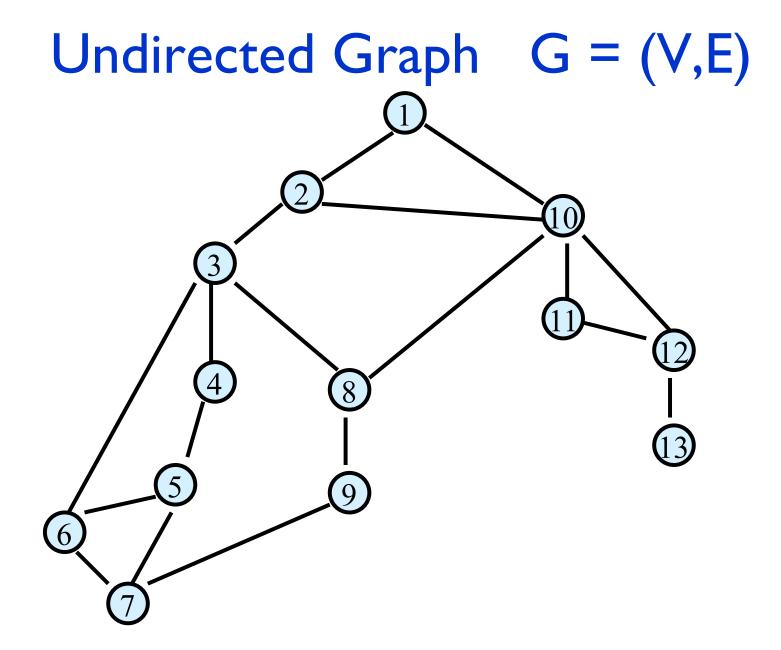
Rel: Two are related if can travel *directly* between them

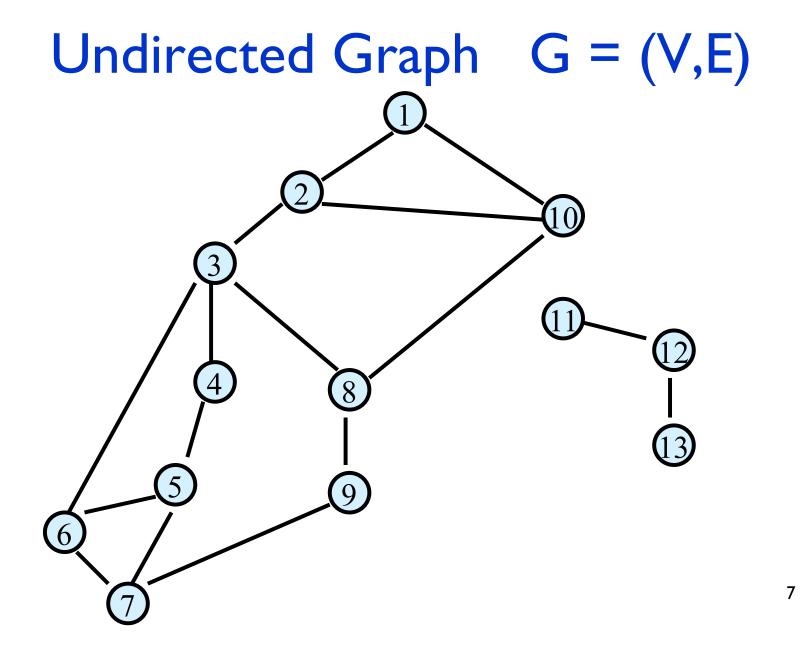
# Graphs

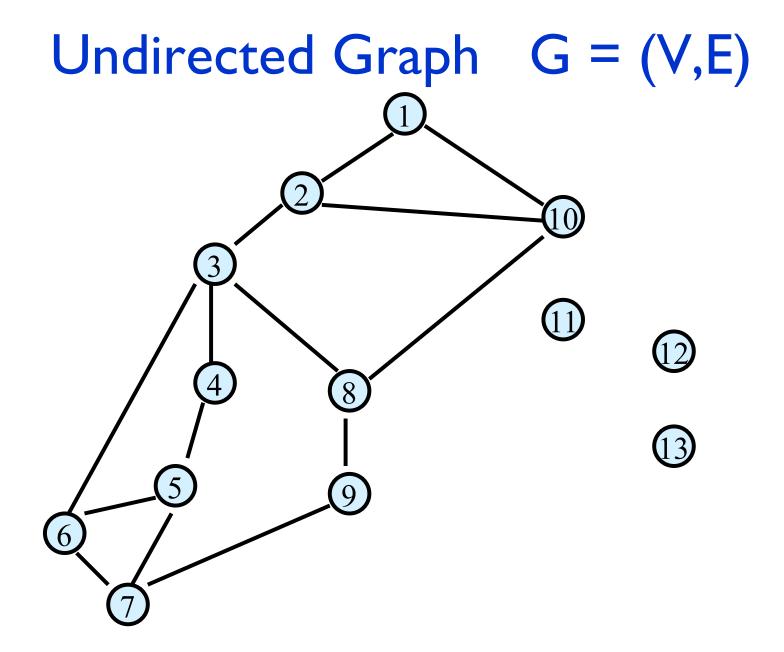
An extremely important formalism for representing (binary) relationships

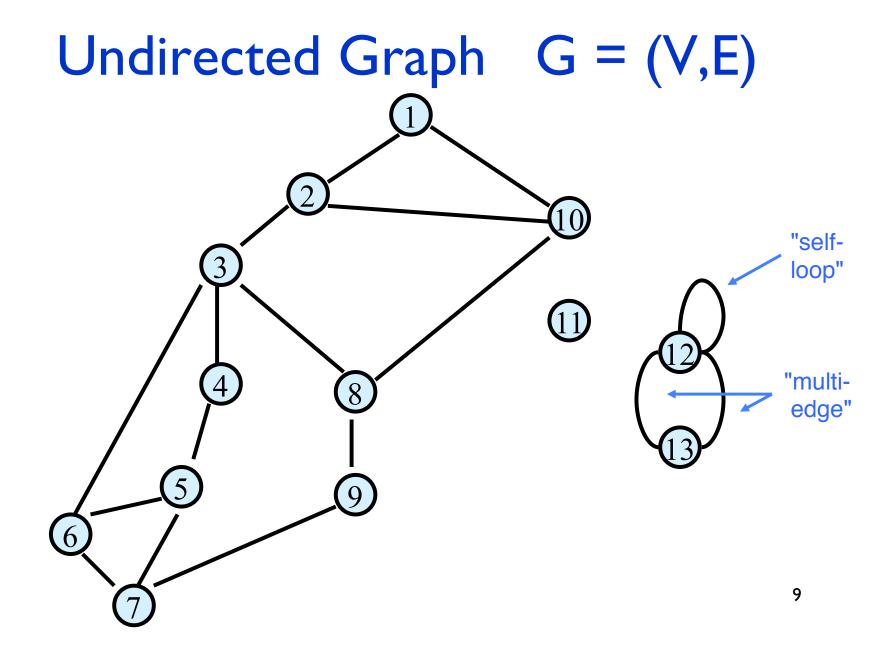
- Objects: "vertices," aka "nodes"
- Relationships between pairs: "edges," aka "arcs"

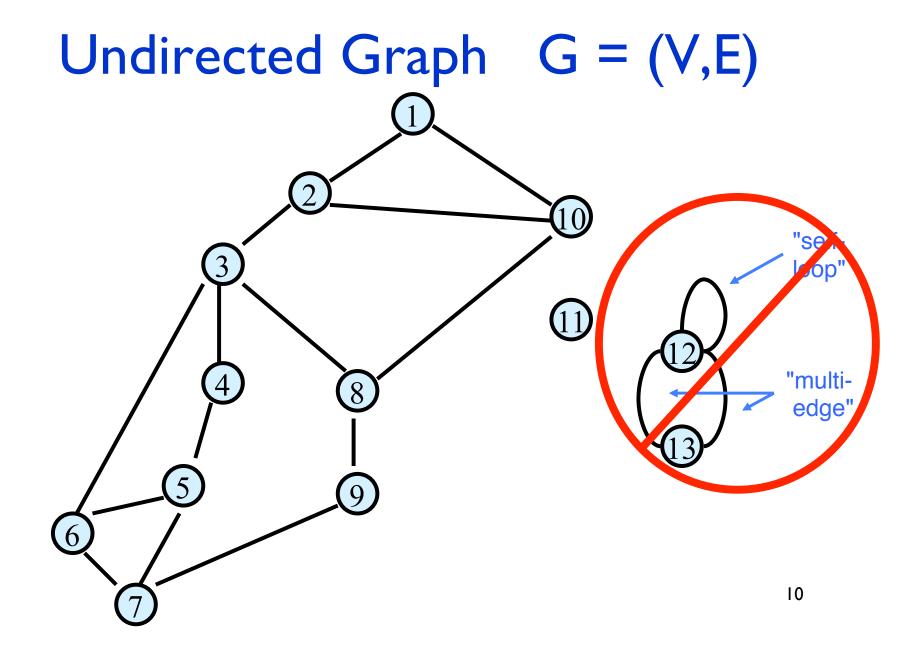
Formally, a graph G = (V, E) is a pair of sets, V the vertices and E the edges





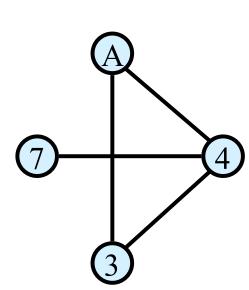


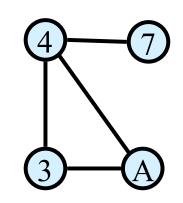


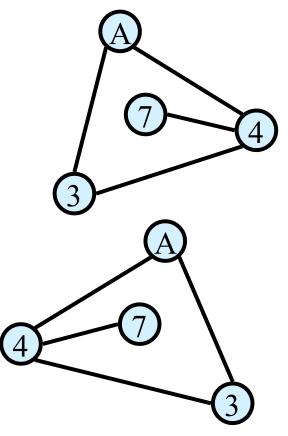


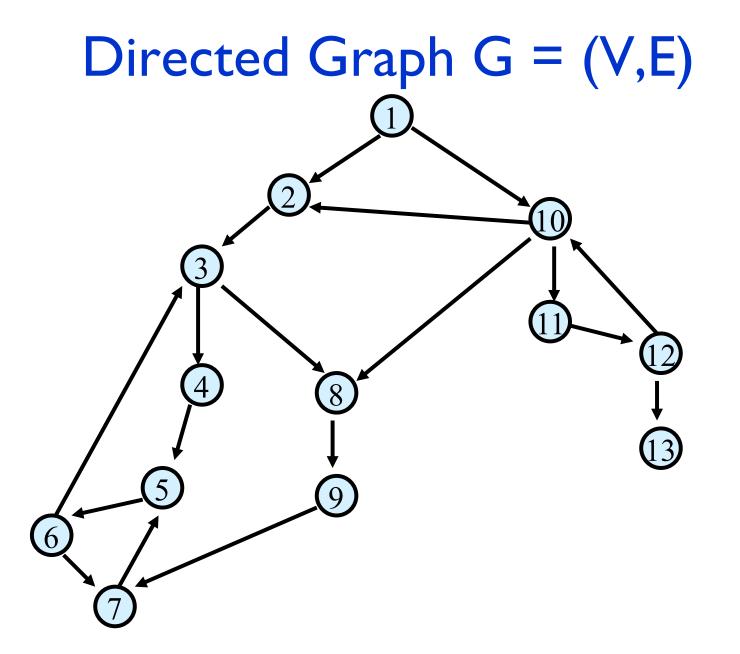
#### Graphs don't live in Flatland

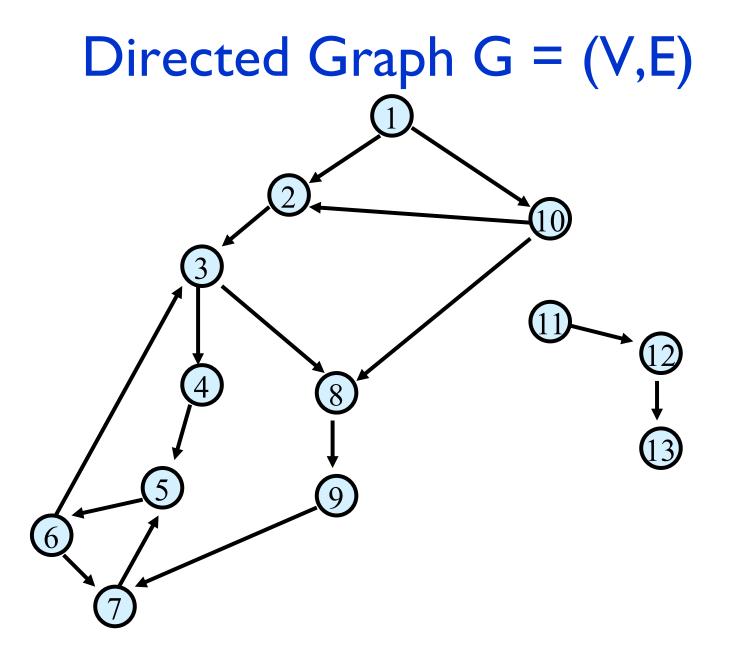
Geometrical drawing is mentally convenient, but mathematically irrelevant: 4 drawings, 1 graph.

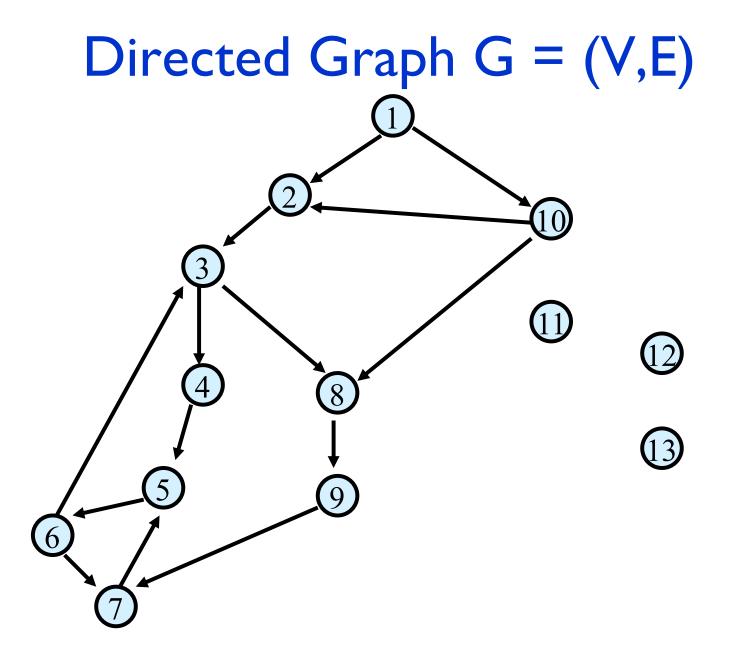


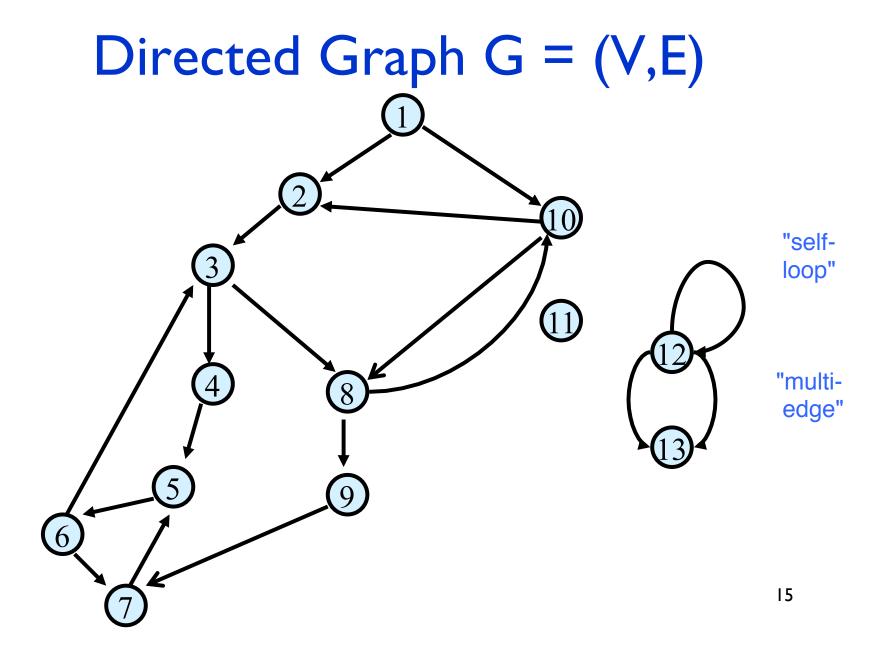


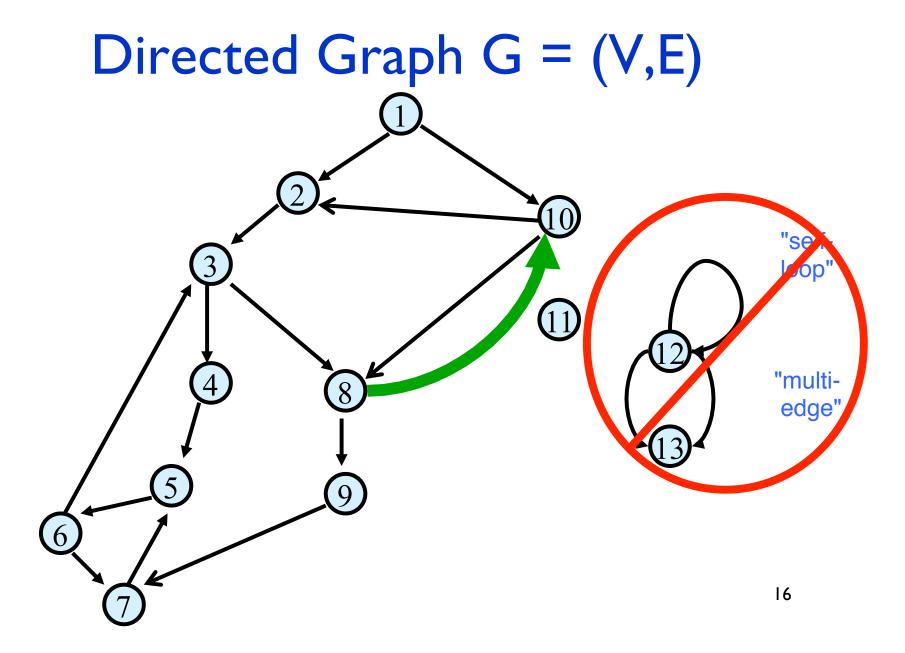


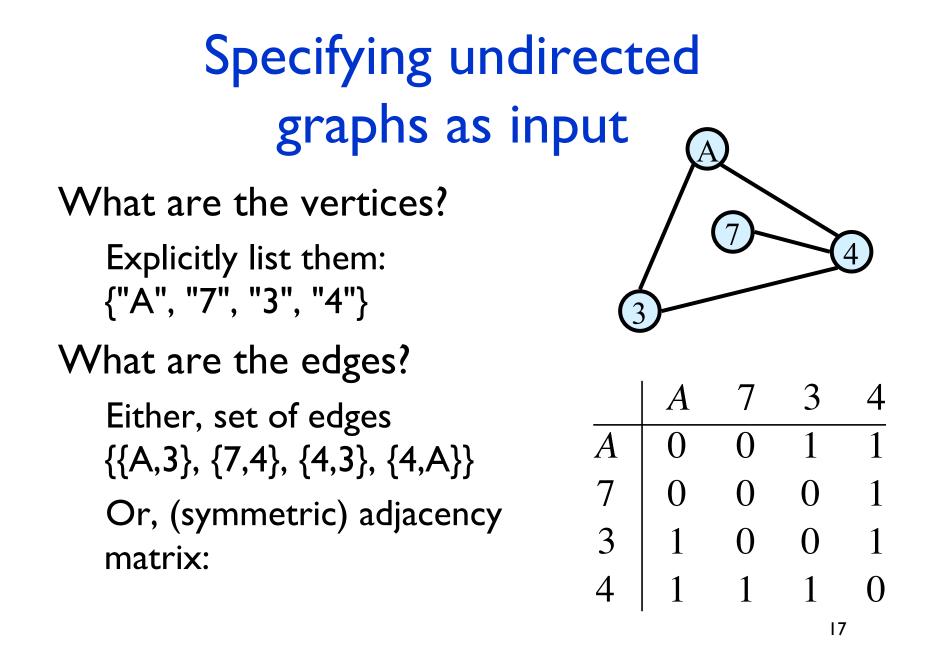












# Specifying directed graphs as input

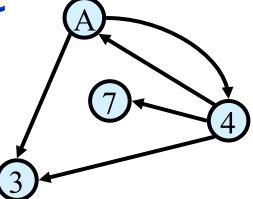
What are the vertices?

Explicitly list them: {"A", "7", "3", "4"}

What are the edges?

Either, set of directed edges: {(A,4), (4,7), (4,3), (4,A), (A,3)} Or, (nonsymmetric)

adjacency matrix:



### # Vertices vs # Edges

Let G be an undirected graph with *n* vertices and *m* edges. How are *n* and *m* related?

Since

every edge connects two different vertices (no loops), and no two edges connect the same two vertices (no multi-edges),

it must be true that:

$$0 \le m \le n(n-1)/2 = O(n^2)$$

## More Cool Graph Lingo

A graph is called sparse if  $m \ll n^2$ , otherwise it is dense

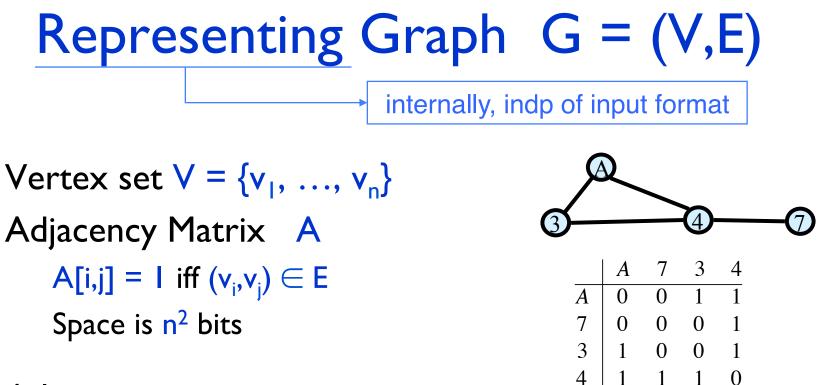
Boundary is somewhat fuzzy; O(n) edges is certainly sparse,  $\Omega(n^2)$  edges is dense.

Sparse graphs are common in practice

E.g., all planar graphs are sparse  $(m \le 3n-6, \text{ for } n \ge 3)$ 

Q: which is a better run time, O(n+m) or  $O(n^2)$ ?

A:  $O(n+m) = O(n^2)$ , but n+m usually way better!



Advantages:

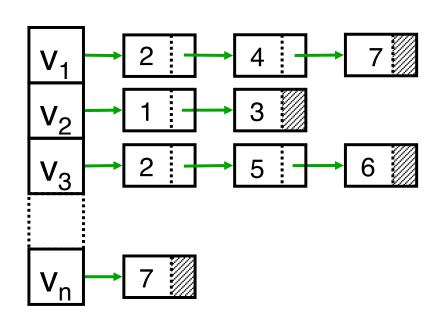
O(I) test for presence or absence of edges.

Disadvantages: inefficient for sparse graphs, both in storage and access

Representing Graph G=(V,E) n vertices, m edges

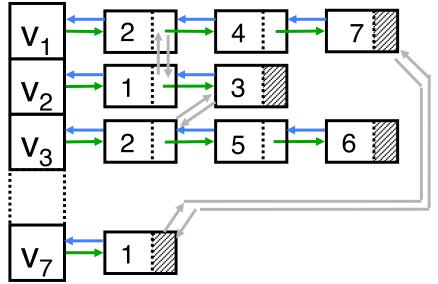
Adjacency List: O(n+m) words Advantages: Compact for sparse graphs Easily see all edges Disadvantages

More complex data structure no O(I) edge test



Representing Graph G=(V,E) n vertices, m edges

Adjacency List: O(n+m) words



Back- and cross pointers more work to build, but allow easier traversal and deletion of edges, *if needed*, (don't bother if not)

### Graph Traversal

Learn the basic structure of a graph "Walk," <u>via edges</u>, from a fixed starting vertex s to all vertices reachable from s

Being orderly helps. Two common ways: Breadth-First Search Depth-First Search

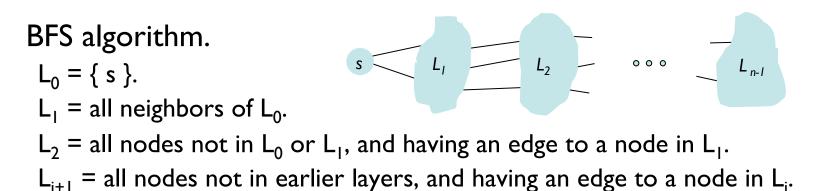
#### **Breadth-First Search**

Completely explore the vertices in order of their distance from s

Naturally implemented using a queue

#### Breadth-First Search

Idea: Explore from s in all possible directions, layer by layer.



Theorem. For each i, L<sub>i</sub> consists of all nodes at distance (i.e., min path length) exactly i from s. Cor: There is a path from s to t iff t appears in some layer.

## Graph Traversal: Implementation

Learn the basic structure of a graph "Walk," <u>via edges</u>, from a fixed starting vertex s to all vertices reachable from s

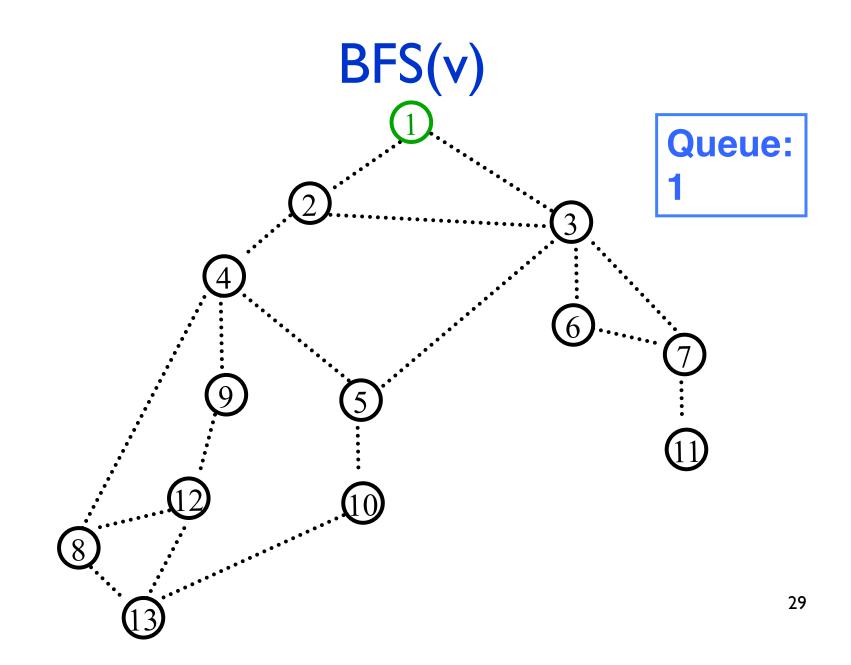
Three states of vertices undiscovered discovered fully-explored

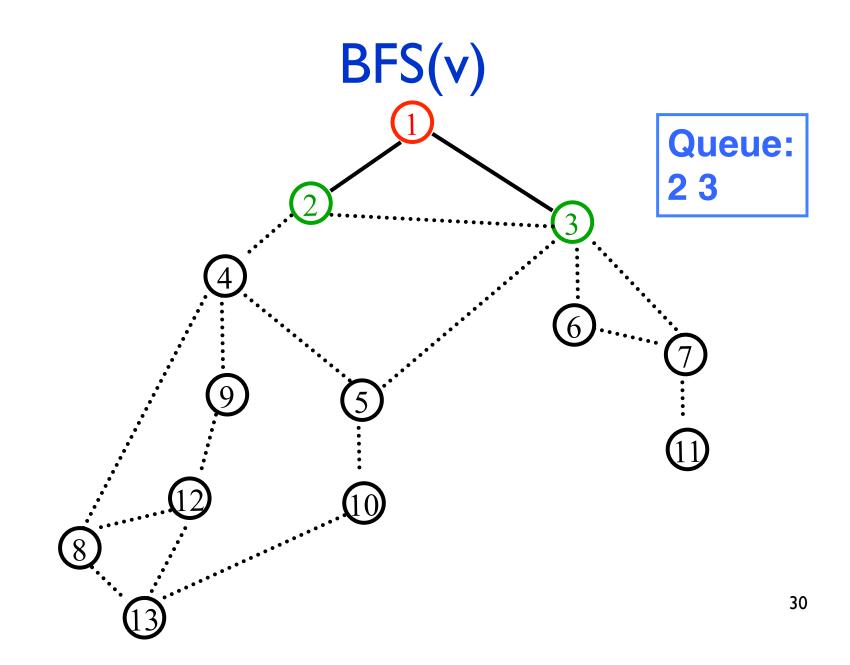
# **BFS(s)** Implementation

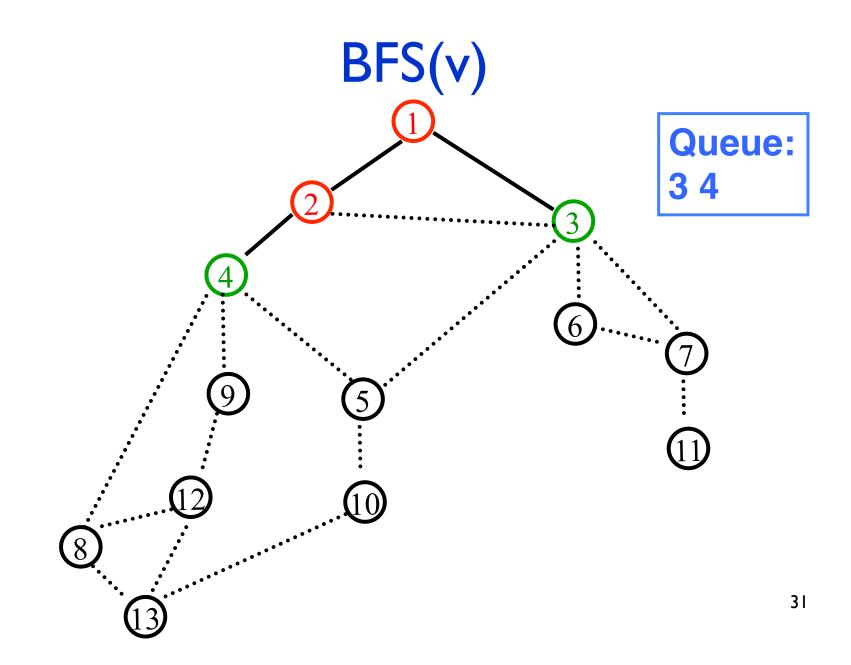
Global initialization: mark all vertices "undiscovered" BFS(s) mark s "discovered" queue = { s } while queue not empty

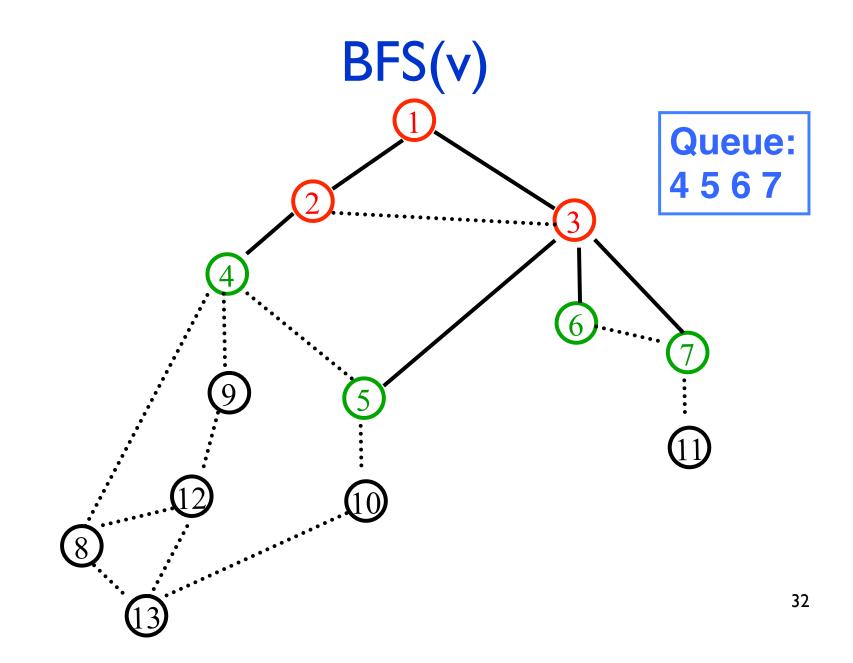
```
u = remove_first(queue)
for each edge {u,x}
if (x is undiscovered)
mark x discovered
append x on queue
mark u fully explored
```

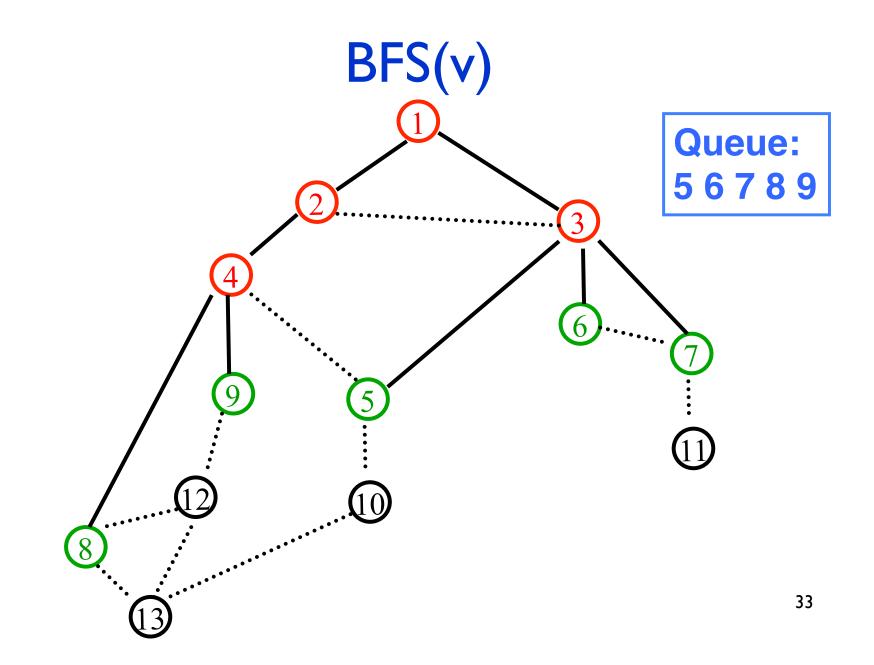
Exercise: modify code to number vertices & compute level numbers

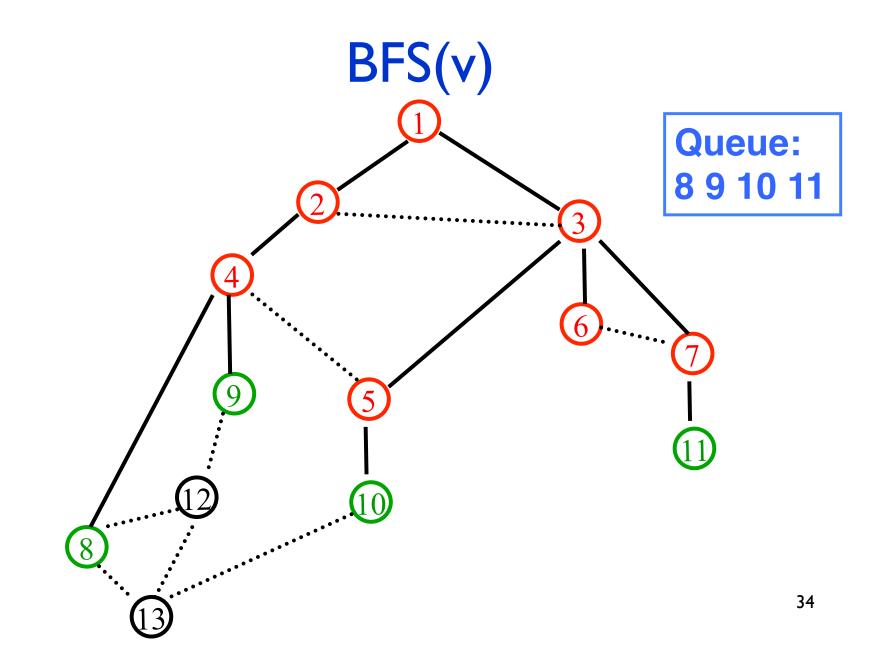


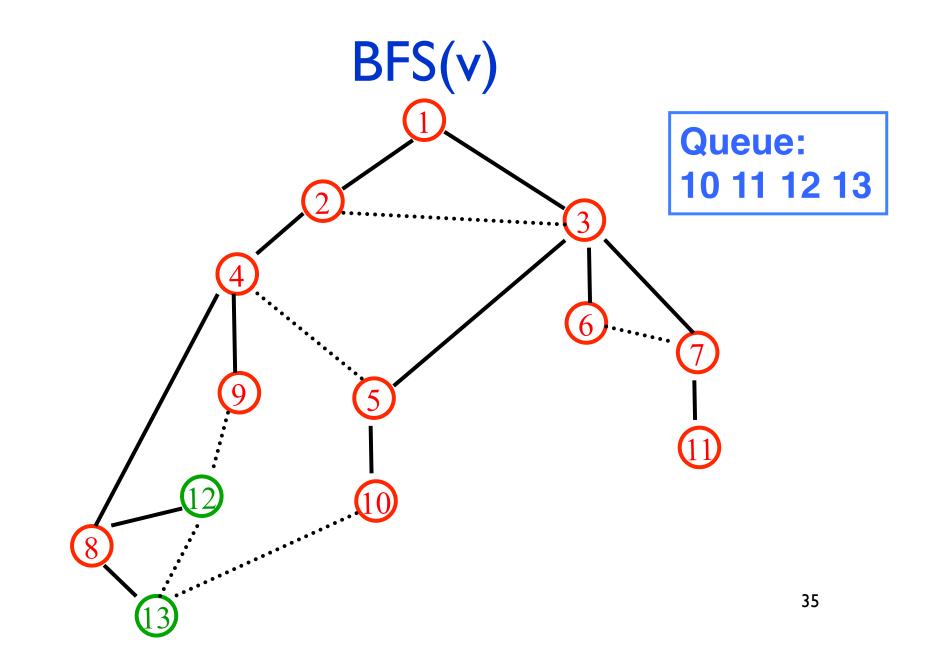


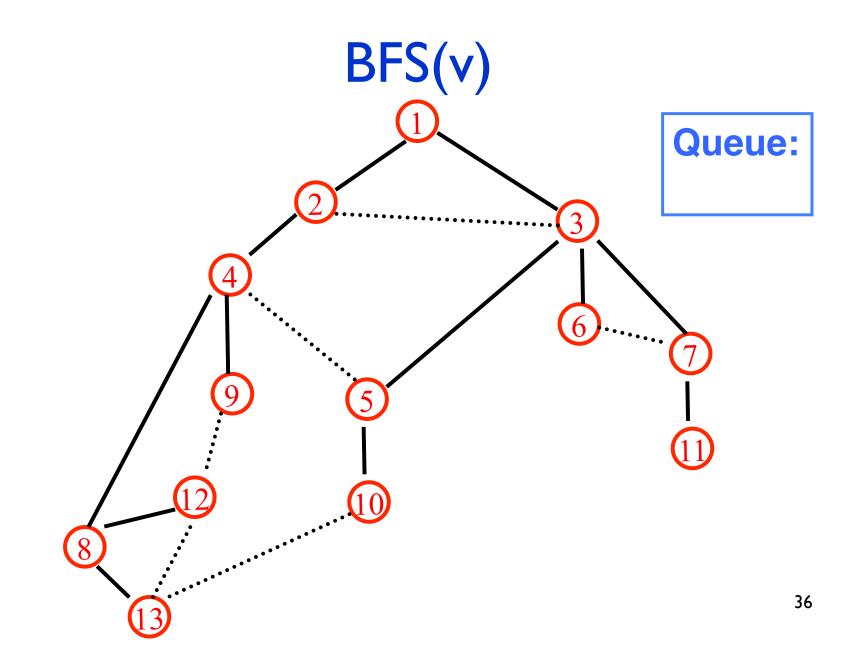




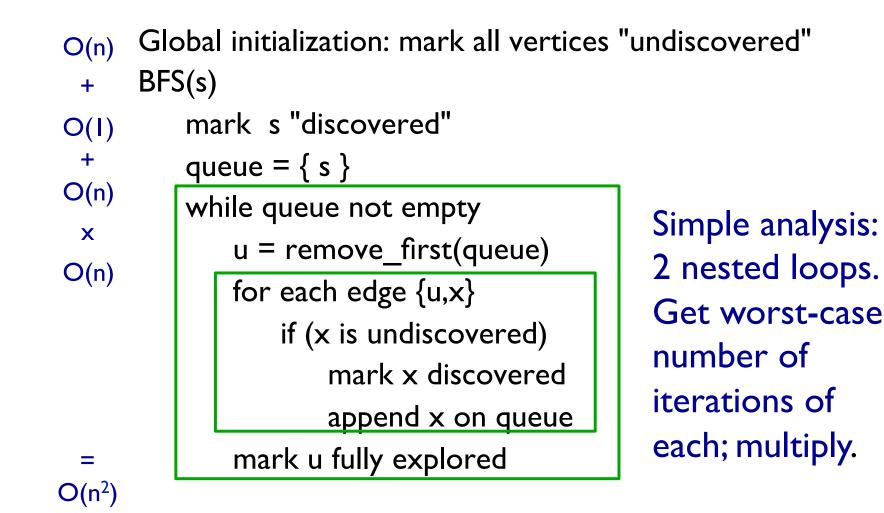








# BFS: Analysis, I



### BFS: Analysis, II

Above analysis correct, but pessimistic (can't have  $\Omega(n)$  edges incident to each of  $\Omega(n)$  distinct "u" vertices if G is sparse). Alt, more global analysis:

Each edge is explored once from each end-point, so *total* runtime of inner loop is O(m). Exercise: extend algorithm and analysis to nonconnected graphs

Total O(n+m), n = # nodes, m = # edges

### Properties of (Undirected) BFS(v)

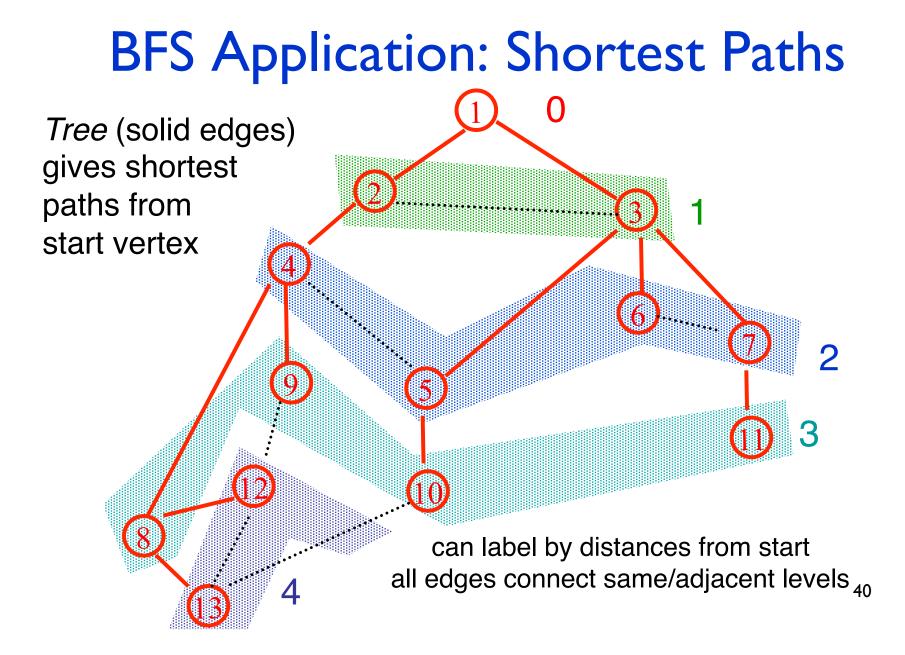
BFS(v) visits x if and only if there is a path in G from v to x.

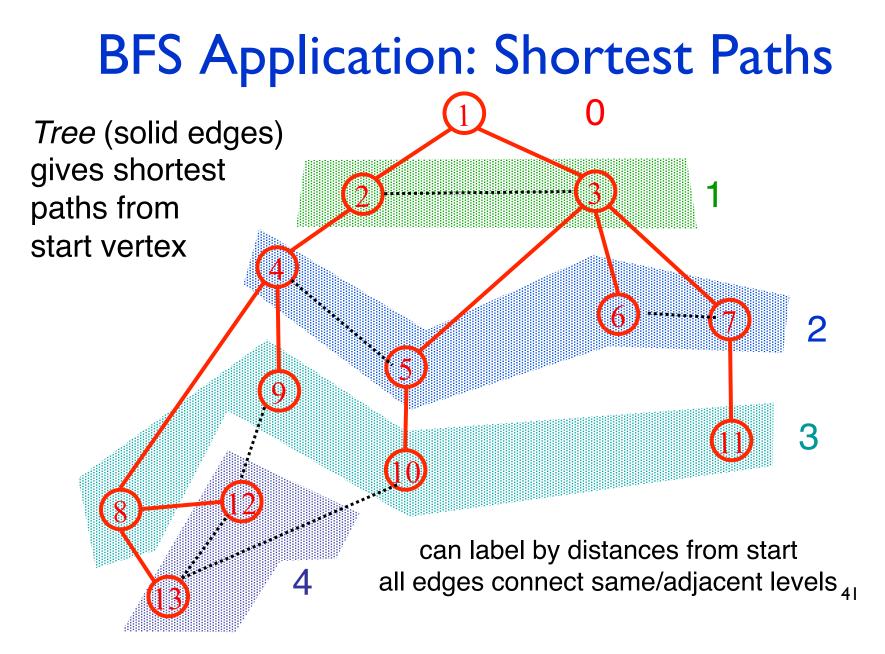
Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a **tree** – the "breadth first spanning tree" of G

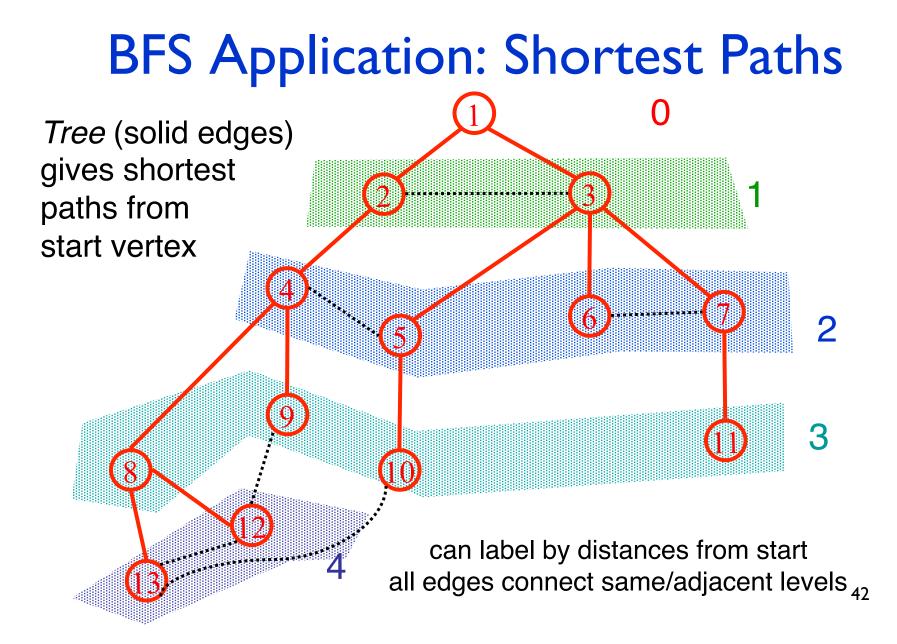
Level i in this tree are exactly those vertices u such that the shortest path (in G, not just the tree) from the root v is of length i.

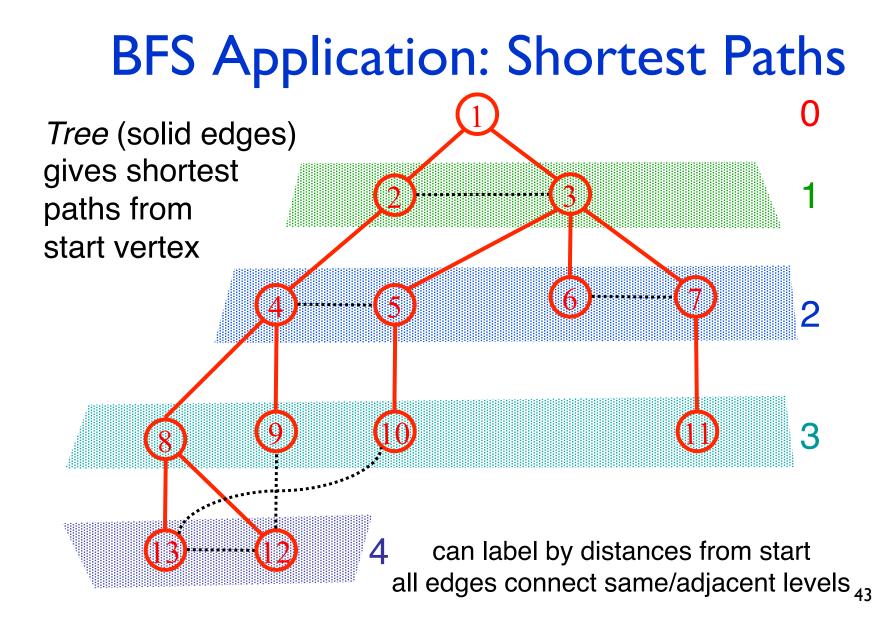
All non-tree edges join vertices on the same or adjacent levels

not true of every spanning tree!









### Why fuss about trees?

Trees are simpler than graphs

Ditto for algorithms on trees vs algs on graphs So, this is often a good way to approach a graph problem: find a "nice" tree in the graph, i.e., one such that non-tree edges have some simplifying structure

E.g., BFS finds a tree s.t. level-jumps are minimized DFS (below) finds a different tree, but it also has interesting structure...

## Graph Search Application: Connected Components

Want to answer questions of the form:

given vertices u and v, is there a path from u to v?

Idea: create array A such that

A[u] = smallest numbered vertex thatis connected to u. Question reducesto whether <math>A[u]=A[v]? Q: Why not create 2-d array Path [u,v]?

# Graph Search Application: Connected Components

initial state: all v undiscovered
for v = I to n do
 if state(v) != fully-explored then
 BFS(v): setting A[u] ←v for each u found
 (and marking u discovered/fully-explored)
 endif
endfor

Total cost: O(n+m)

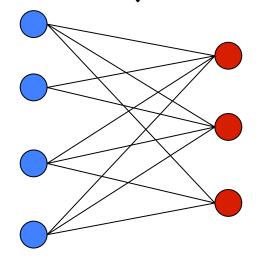
each edge is touched a constant number of times (twice) works also with DFS

### 3.4 Testing Bipartiteness

Def. An undirected graph G = (V, E) is bipartite (2-colorable) if the nodes can be colored red or blue such that no edge has both ends the same color.

#### Applications.

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



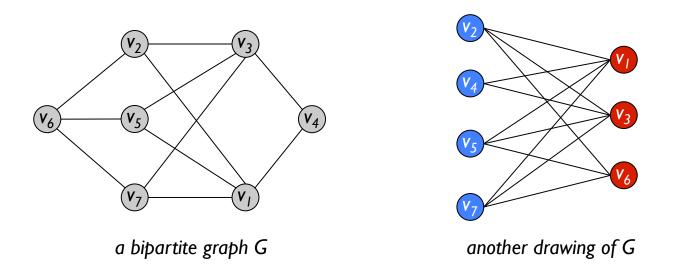
"bi-partite" means "two parts." An equivalent definition: G is bipartite if you can partition the node set into 2 parts (say, blue/red or left/ right) so that all edges join nodes in different parts/no edge has both ends in the same part.

a bipartite graph

#### **Testing Bipartiteness**

Testing bipartiteness. Given a graph G, is it bipartite? Many graph problems become:

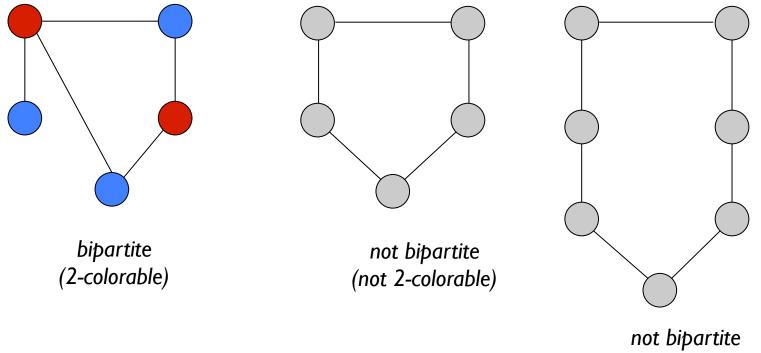
easier if the underlying graph is bipartite (matching) tractable if the underlying graph is bipartite (independent set) Before attempting to design an algorithm, we need to understand structure of bipartite graphs.



#### An Obstruction to Bipartiteness

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

Pf. Impossible to 2-color the odd cycle, let alone G.

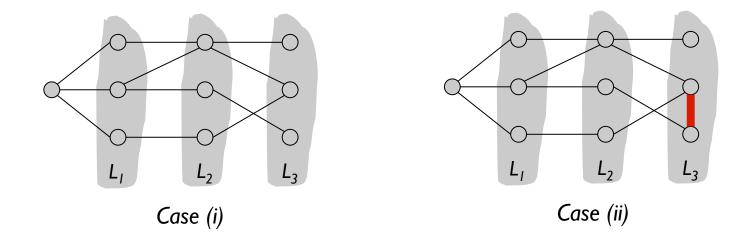


not Dipartite (not 2-colorable)

Lemma. Let G be a connected graph, and let  $L_0, ..., L_k$  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).



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

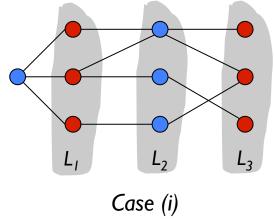
(i) No edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G is bipartite.

(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, all edges join nodes on adjacent levels.



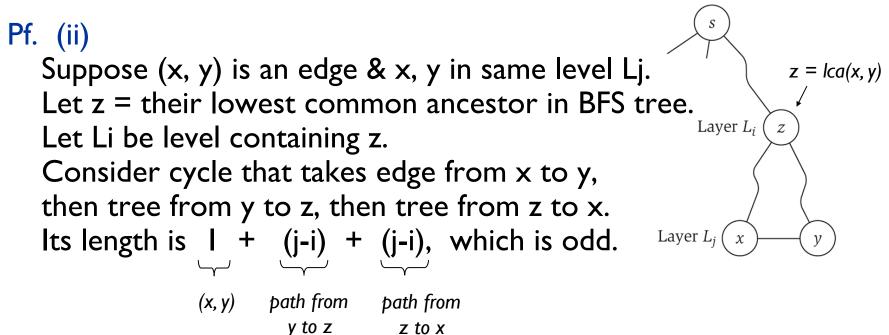
Bipartition:

red = nodes on odd levels, blue = nodes on even levels.

Lemma. Let G be a connected graph, and let  $L_0, ..., L_k$  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.

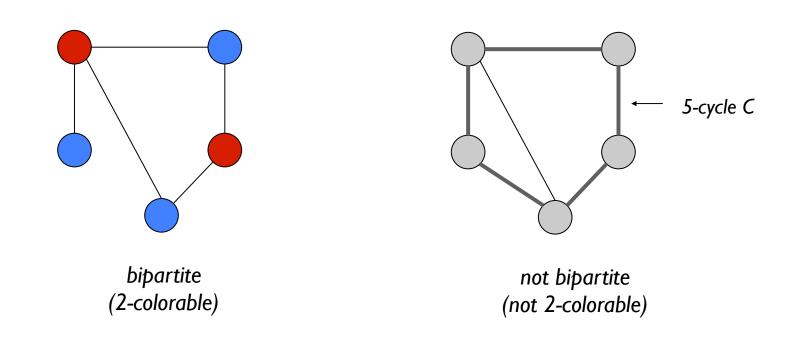
(ii) An edge of G joins two nodes of the same layer, and G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).



### **Obstruction to** Bipartiteness

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

NB: the proof is algorithmic–it *finds* a coloring or odd cycle.



### 3.6 DAGs and Topological Ordering

#### Precedence Constraints

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

**Applications** 

Course prerequisites: course  $v_i$  must be taken before  $v_i$ 

Compilation: must compile module  $v_i$  before  $v_i$ 

Computing workflow: output of job  $v_i$  is input to job  $v_i$ 

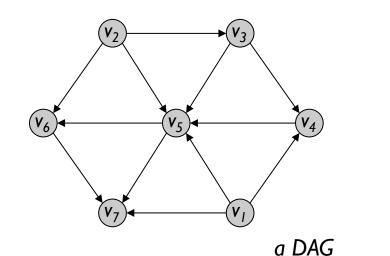
Manufacturing or assembly: sand it before you paint it...

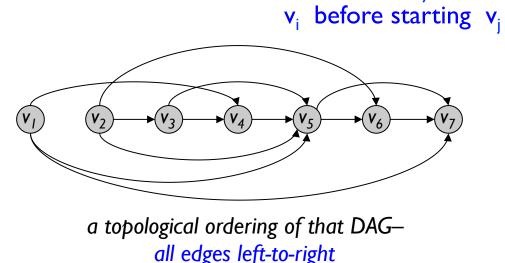
Spreadsheet evaluation order: if A7 is "=A6+A5+A4", evaluate them first

Def. A DAG is a directed acyclic graph, i.e., one that contains no directed cycles.

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

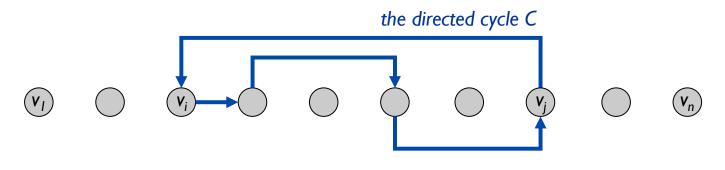
Def. A <u>topological order</u> of a directed graph G = (V, E) is an ordering of its nodes as  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n$  so that for every edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  we have i < j. E.g.,  $\forall$  edge  $(v_i, v_j)$ , finish





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

Pf. (by contradiction) Suppose that G has a topological order  $v_1, ..., v_n$ 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  $v_1, ..., v_n$  is a topological order, we must have j < i, a contradiction.



the supposed topological order:  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ 

if all edges go  $L \rightarrow R$ ,

Lemma (above). 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?

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.

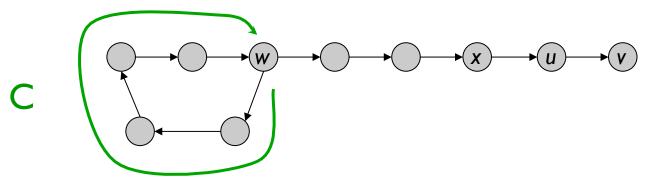
Pick any node v, and begin following edges *backward* from v. Since v has at least one incoming edge (u, v) we can walk backward to u. Then, since u has at least one incoming edge (x, u), we can walk backward to x.

Repeat until we visit a node, say w, twice.

Why must this happen?

Let C be the sequence of nodes encountered

between successive visits to w. C is a cycle, contradicting acyclicity.



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.

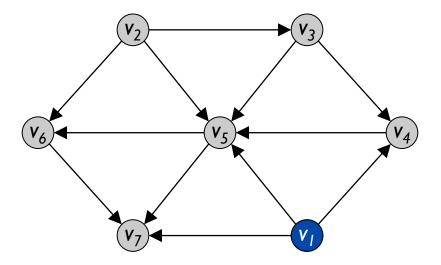
```
To compute a topological ordering of G:

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

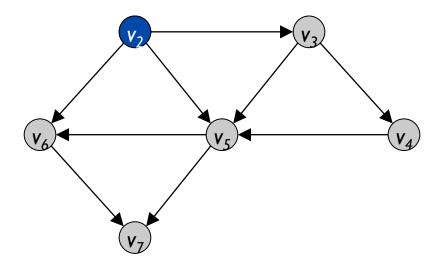
Delete v from G

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

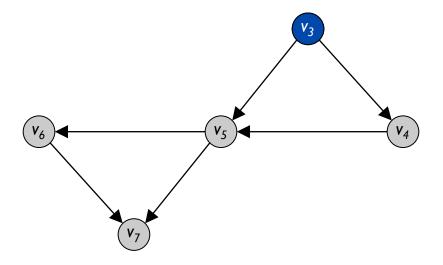
and append this order after v
```



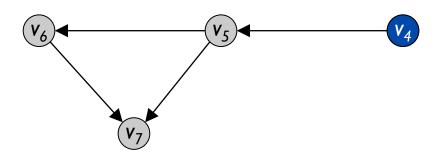
Topological order:



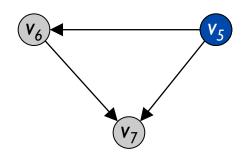
Topological order:  $v_1$ 



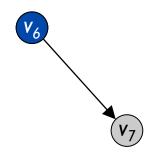
Topological order:  $v_1, v_2$ 



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3$ 



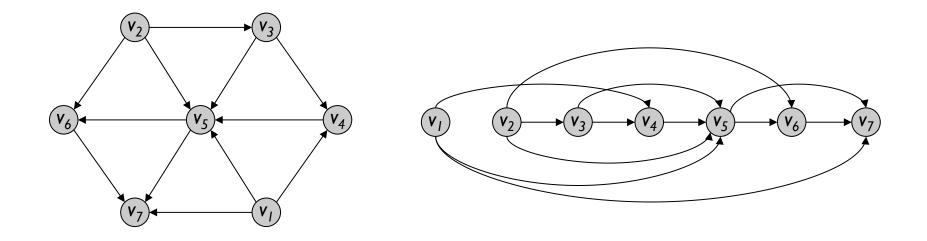
Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ 



Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ ,  $v_5$ 



Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ ,  $v_5$ ,  $v_6$ 



Topological order:  $v_1$ ,  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$ ,  $v_5$ ,  $v_6$ ,  $v_7$ .

### **Topological Sorting Algorithm**

#### Maintain the following:

count[w] = (remaining) number of incoming edges to node w S = set of (remaining) nodes with no incoming edgesInitialization: count[w] = 0 for all w count[w]++ for all edges (v,w)  $S = S \cup \{w\}$  for all w with count[w]==0 count[w] = 0 for all w O(m + n) Main loop: while S not empty remove some v from S make v next in topo order for all edges from v to some w O(I) per edge decrement count[w] add w to S if count[w] hits 0 Correctness: clear, I hope

Time: O(m + n) (assuming edge-list representation of graph)

### **Depth-First Search**

Follow the first path you find as far as you can go Back up to last unexplored edge when you reach a dead end, then go as far you can

Naturally implemented using recursive calls or a stack

# DFS(v) – Recursive version

```
Global Initialization:
for all nodes v, v.dfs# = -1 // mark v "undiscovered"
dfscounter = 0
```

DFS(v)

```
v.dfs# = dfscounter++
for each edge (v,x)
if (x.dfs# = -1)
DFS(x)
else ...
```

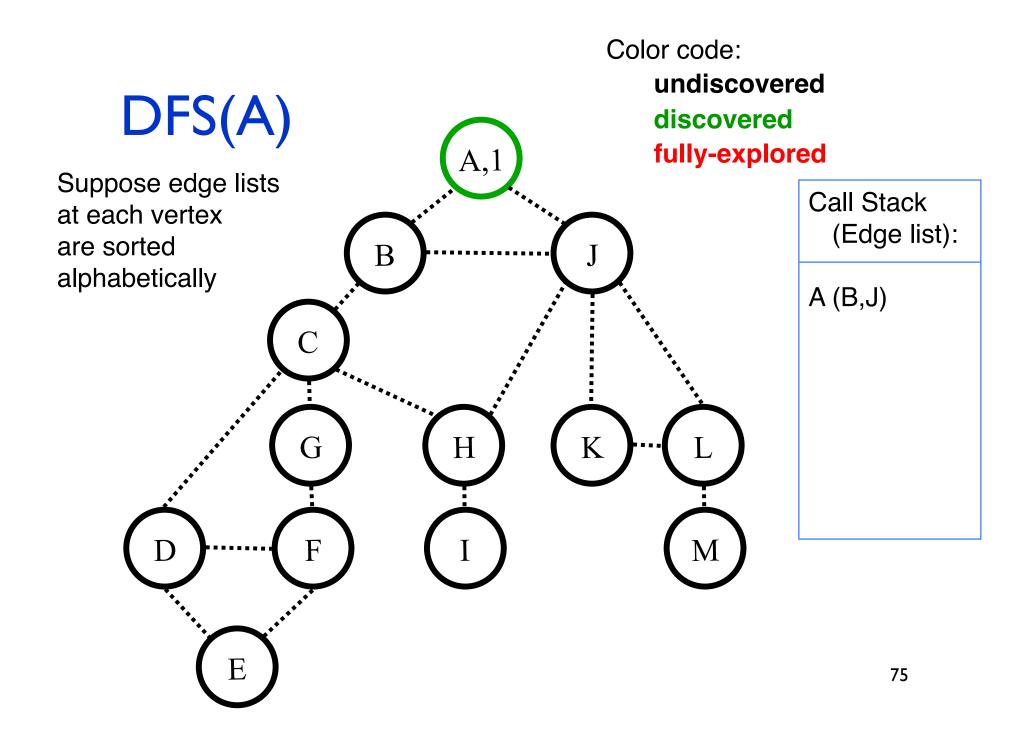
```
// v "discovered", number it
```

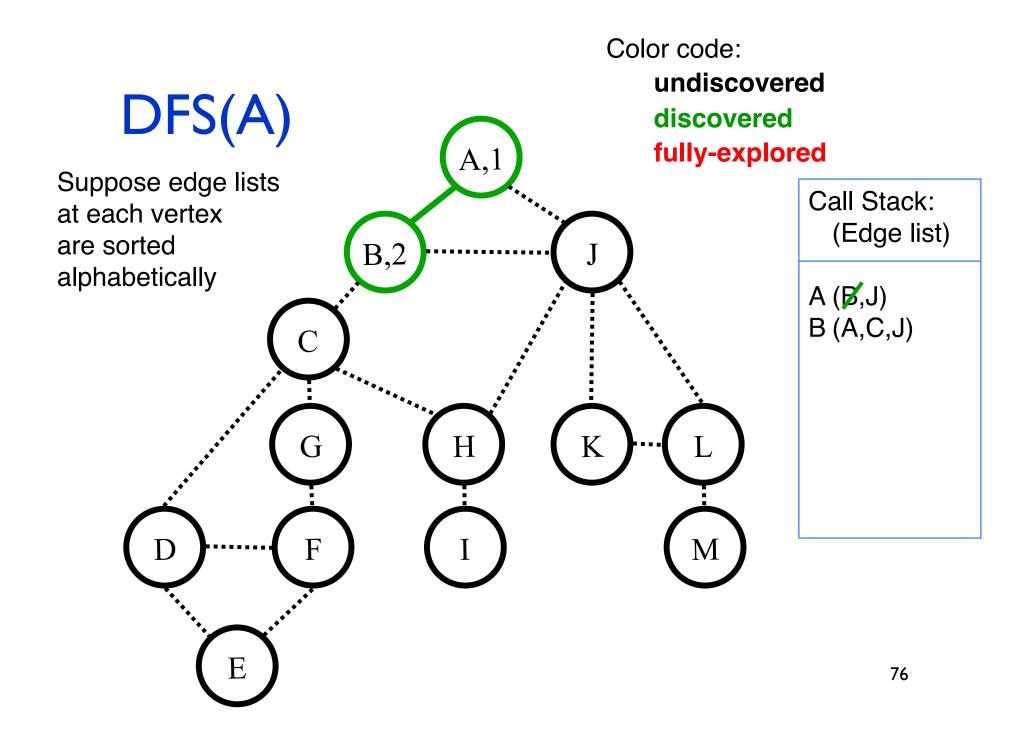
// tree edge (x previously undiscovered)

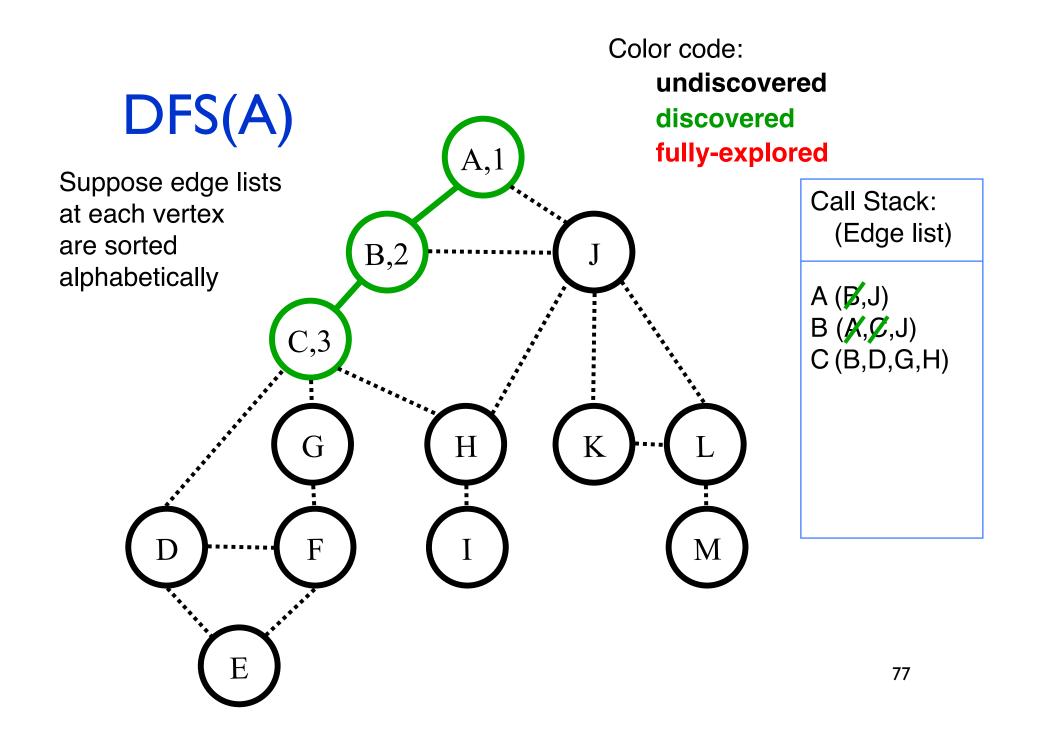
// code for back-, fwd-, parent,
// edges, if needed
// mark v "completed," if needed

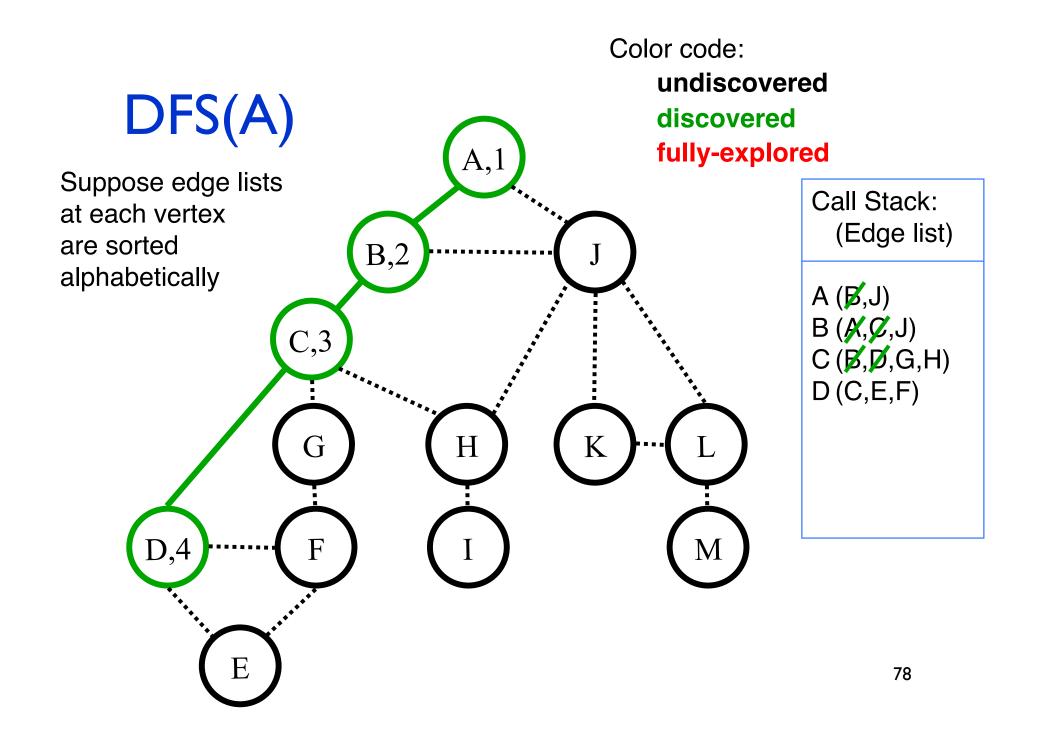
### Why fuss about trees (again)?

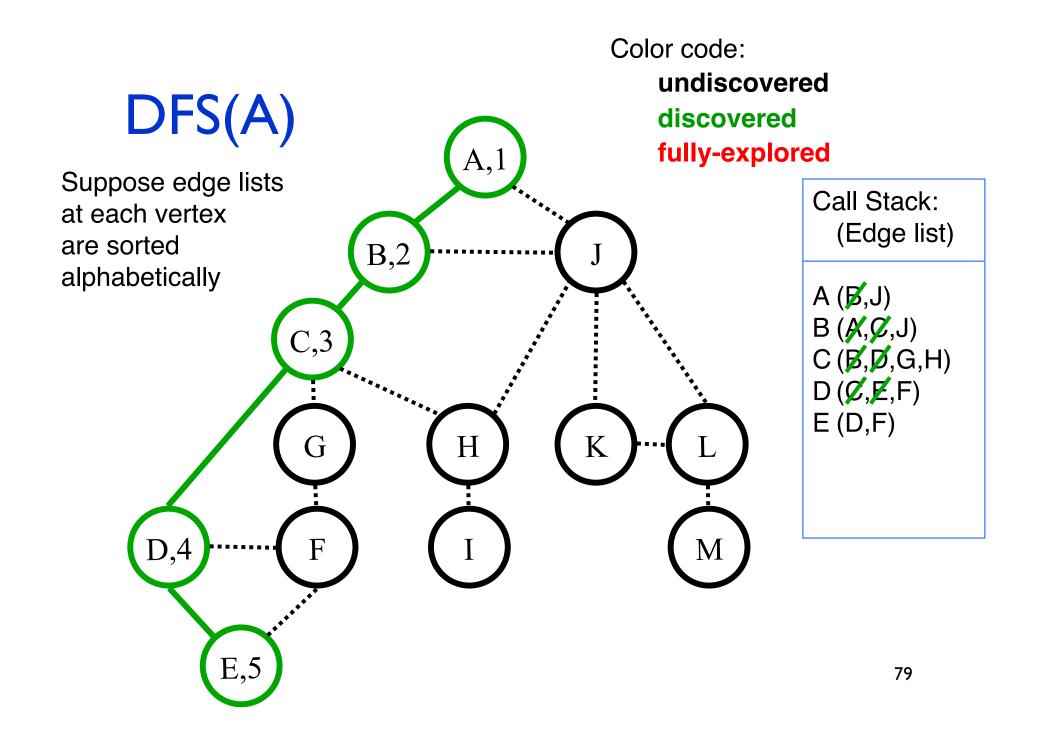
BFS tree ≠ DFS tree, but, as with BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple" – only descendant/ ancestor

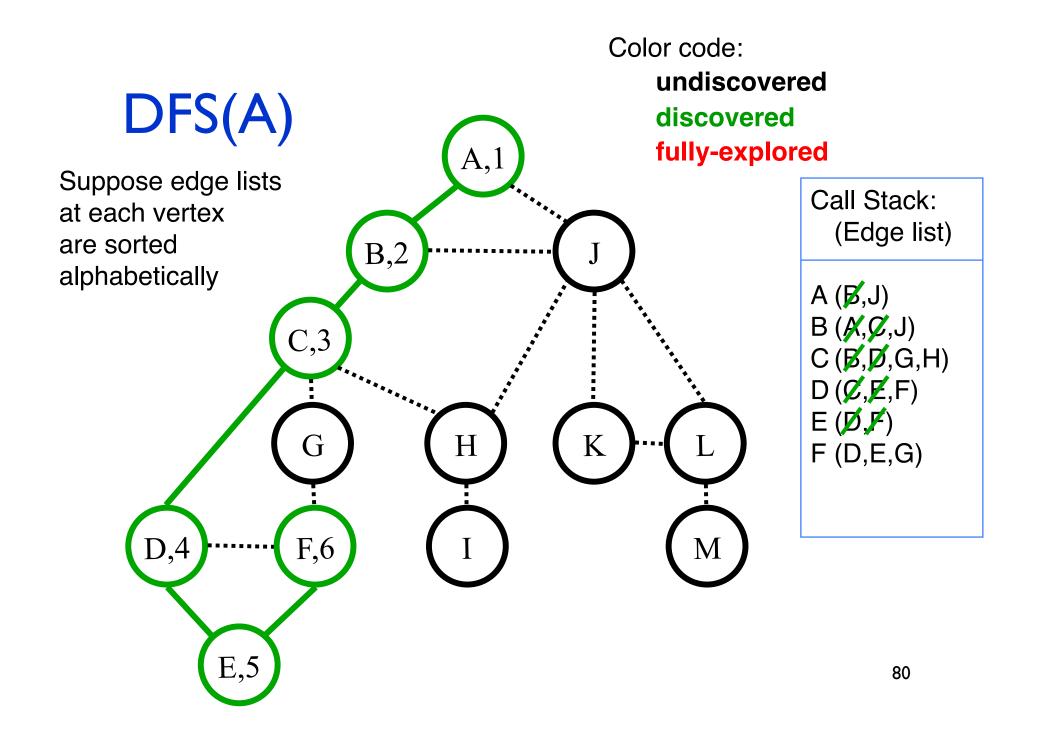


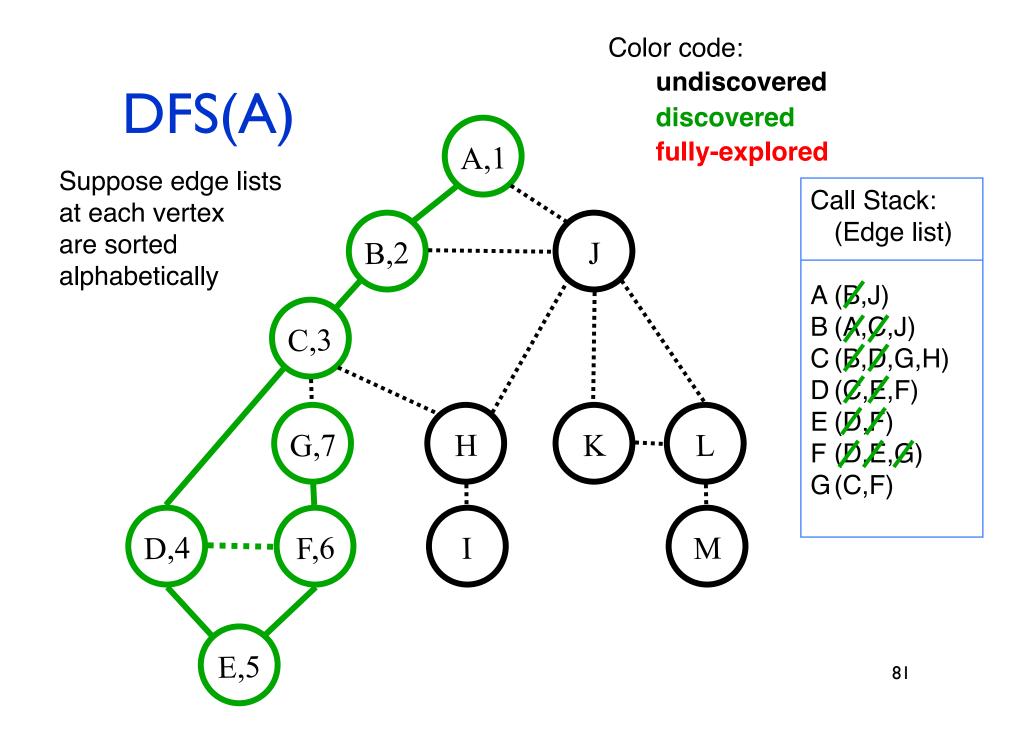


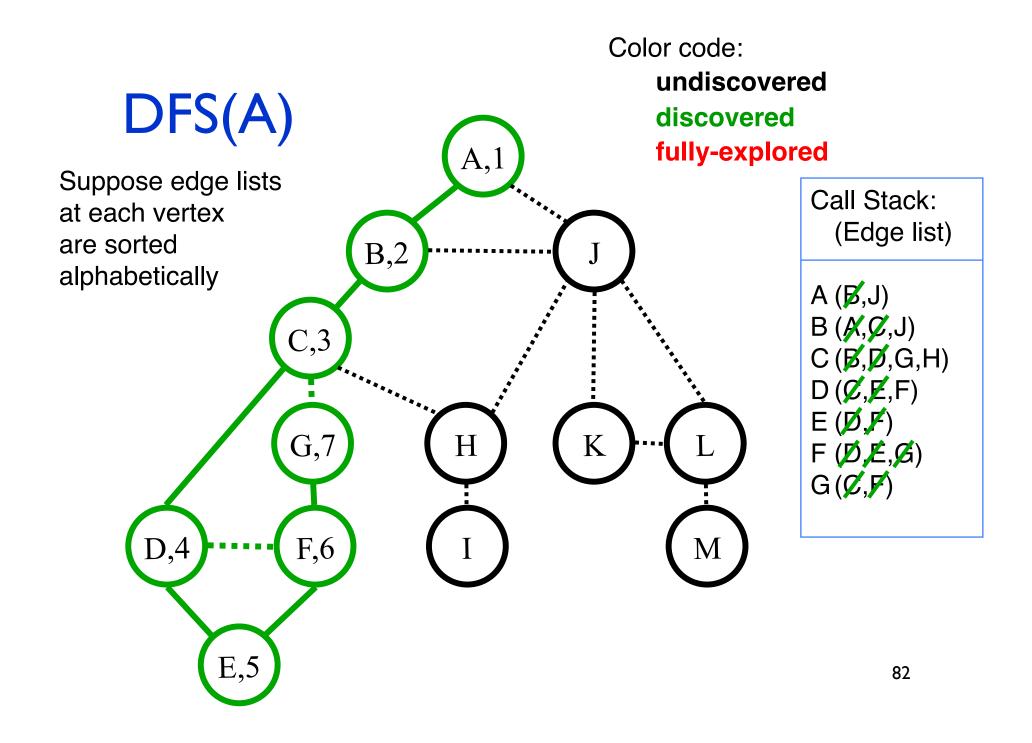


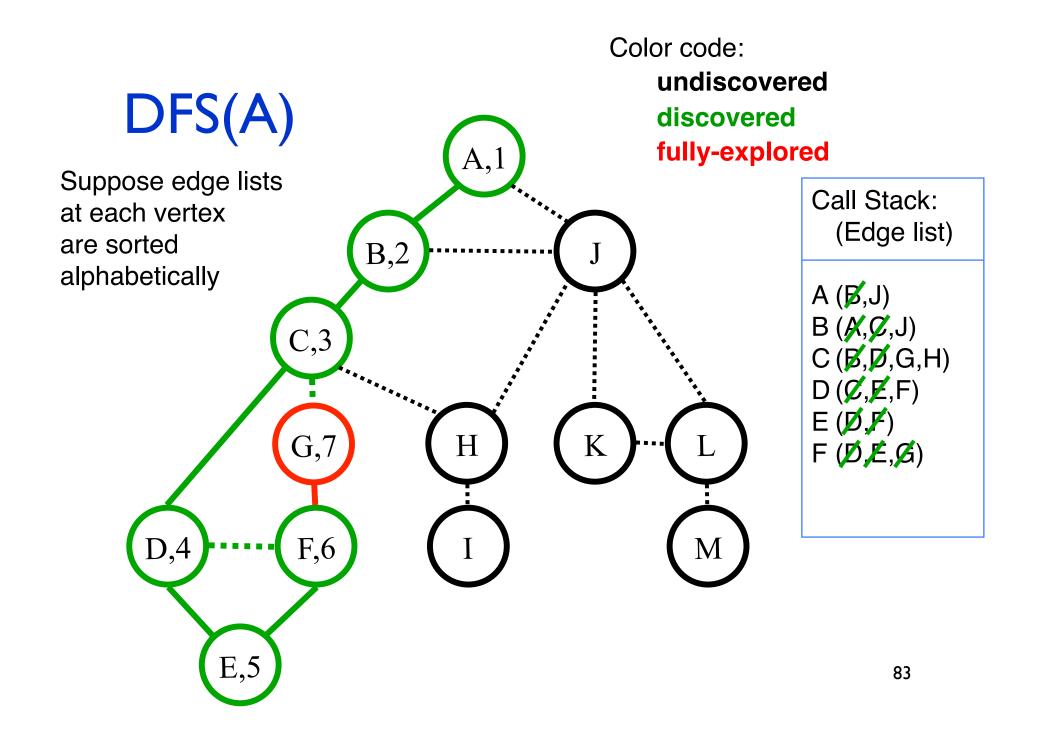


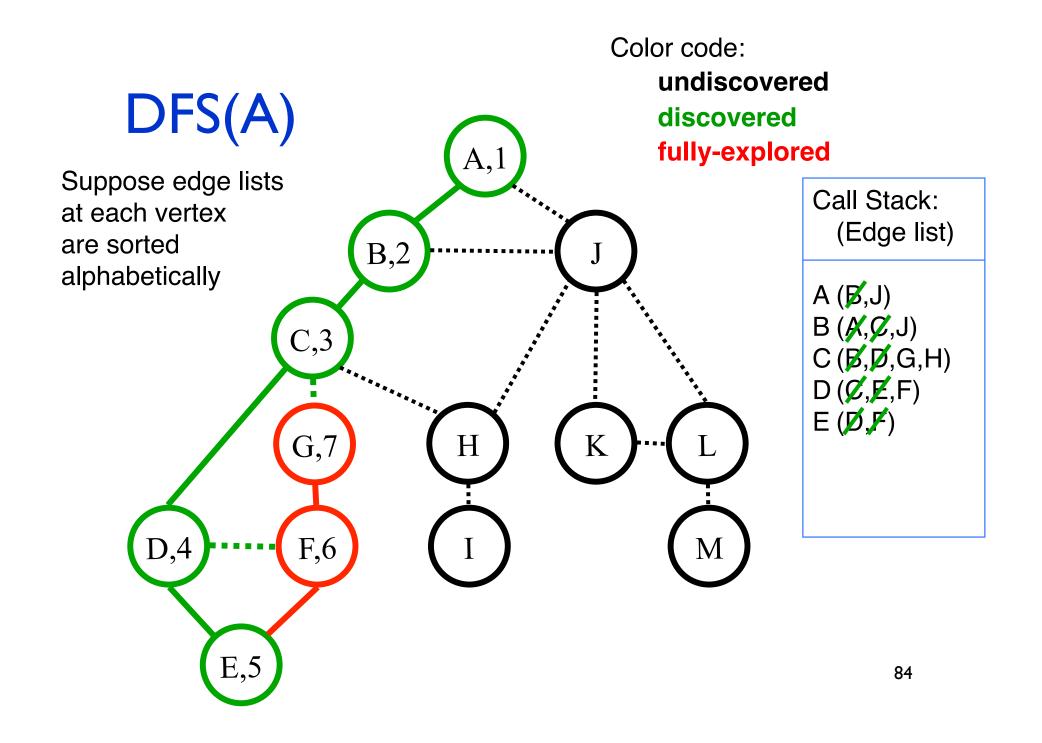


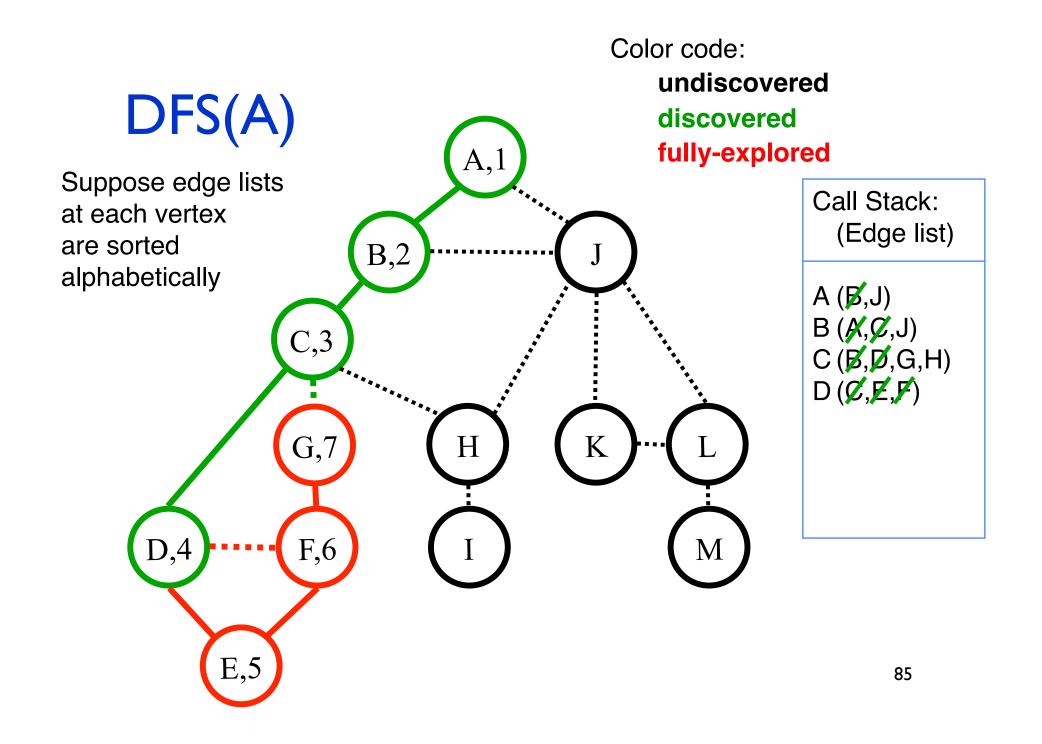


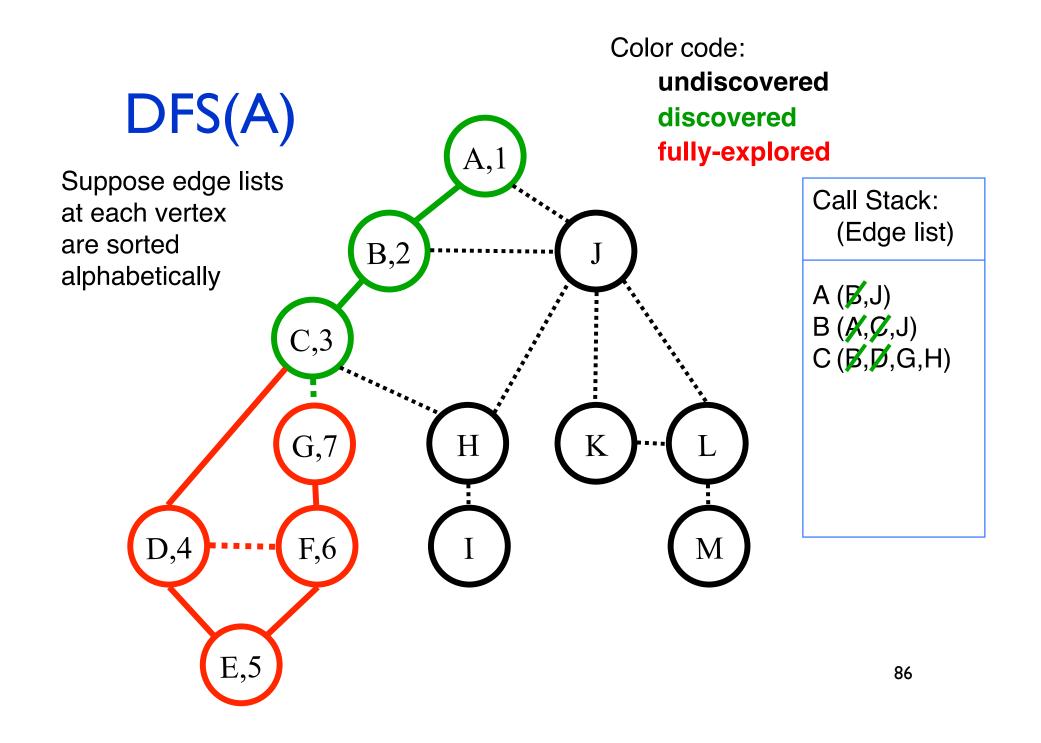


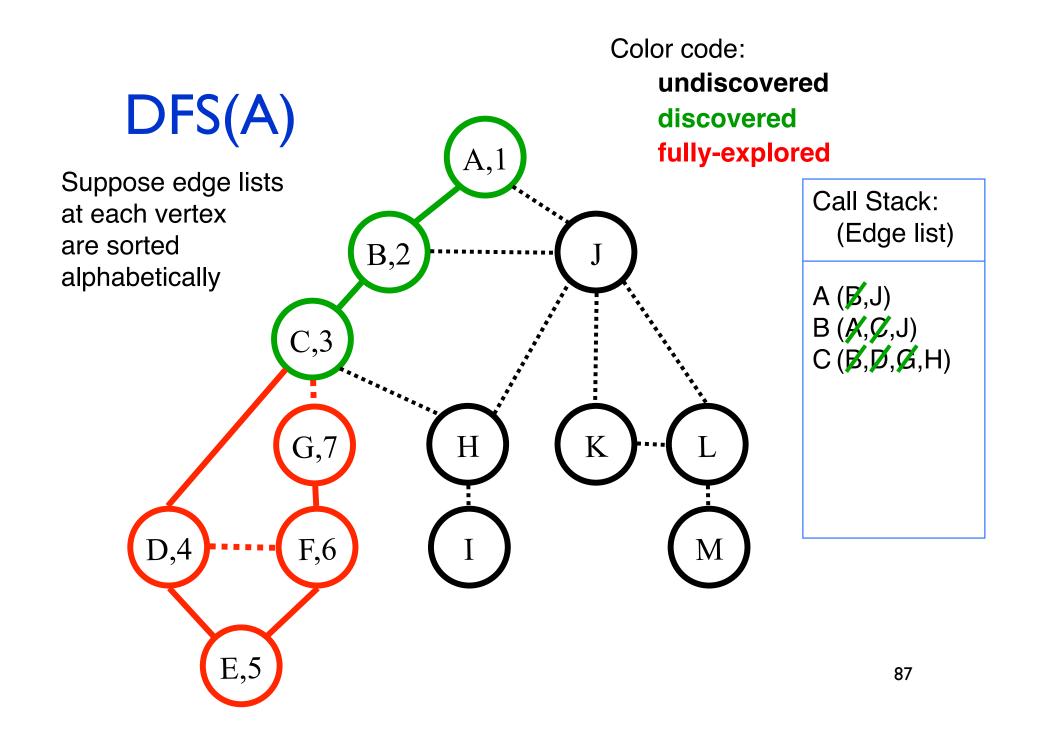


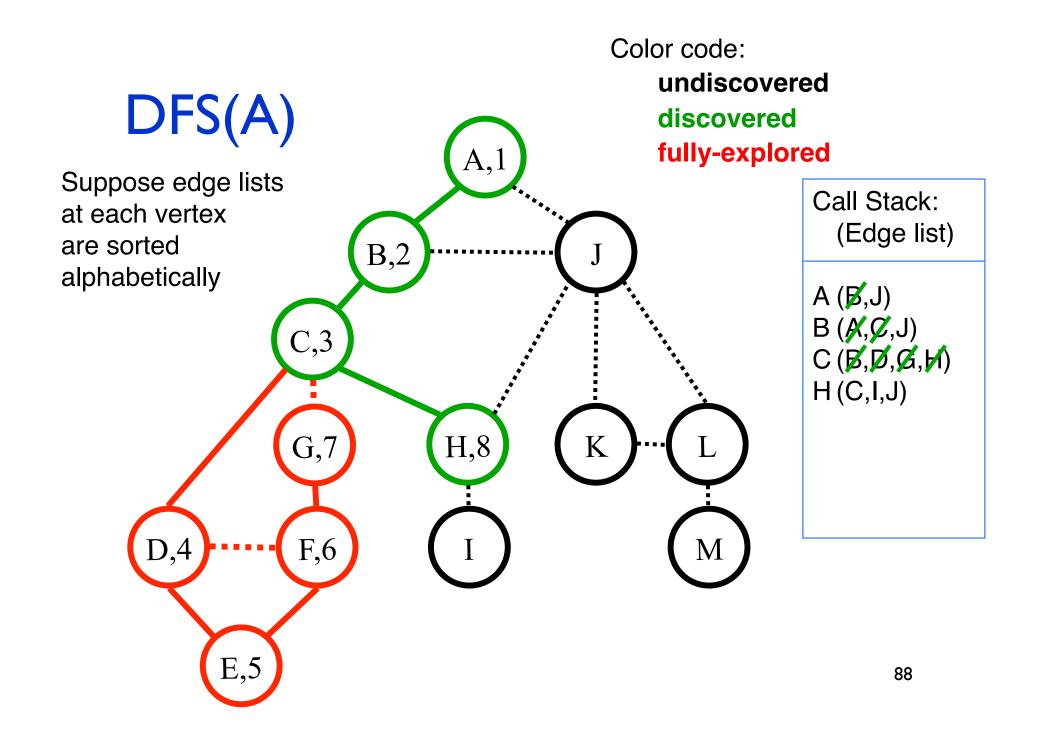


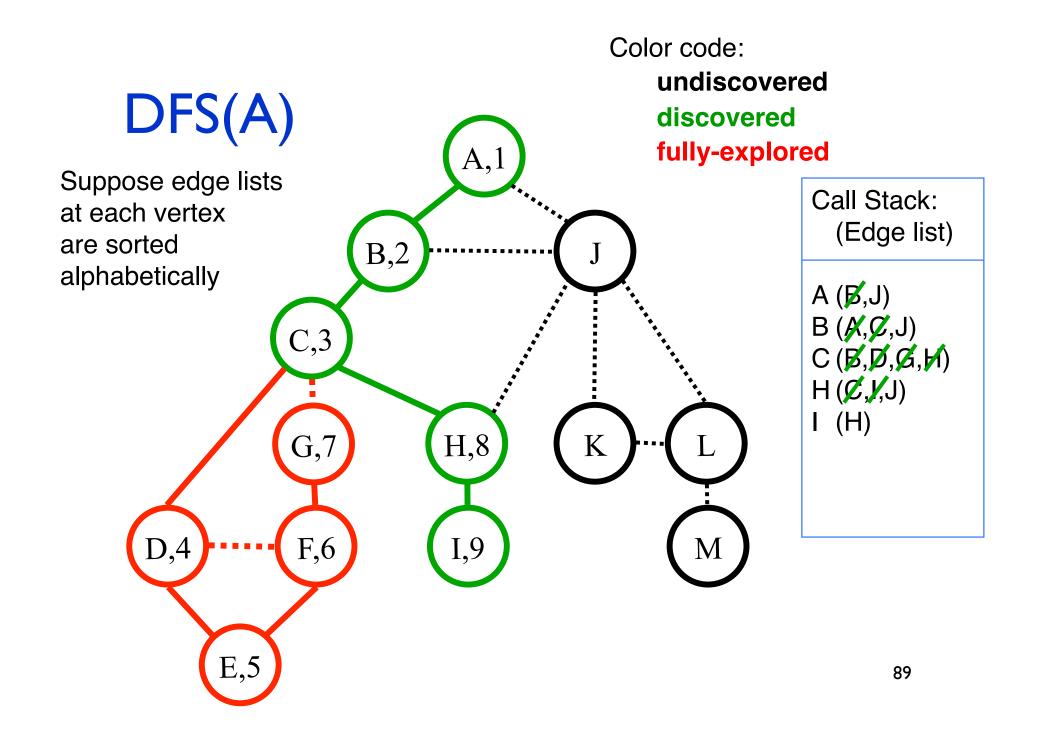


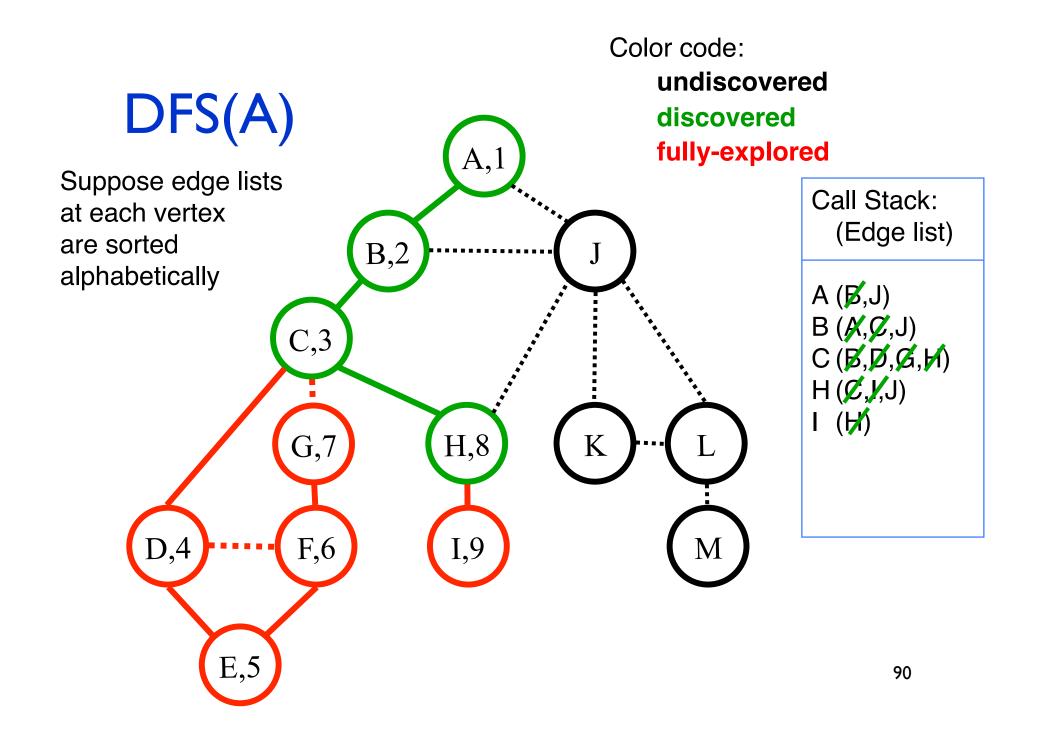


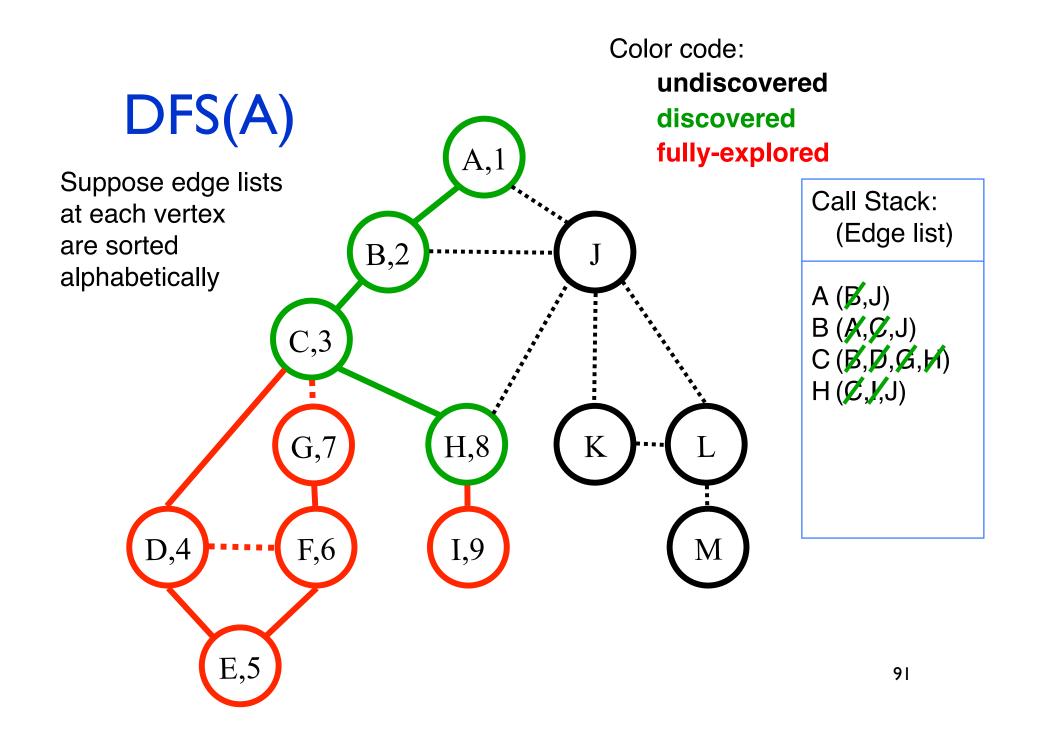


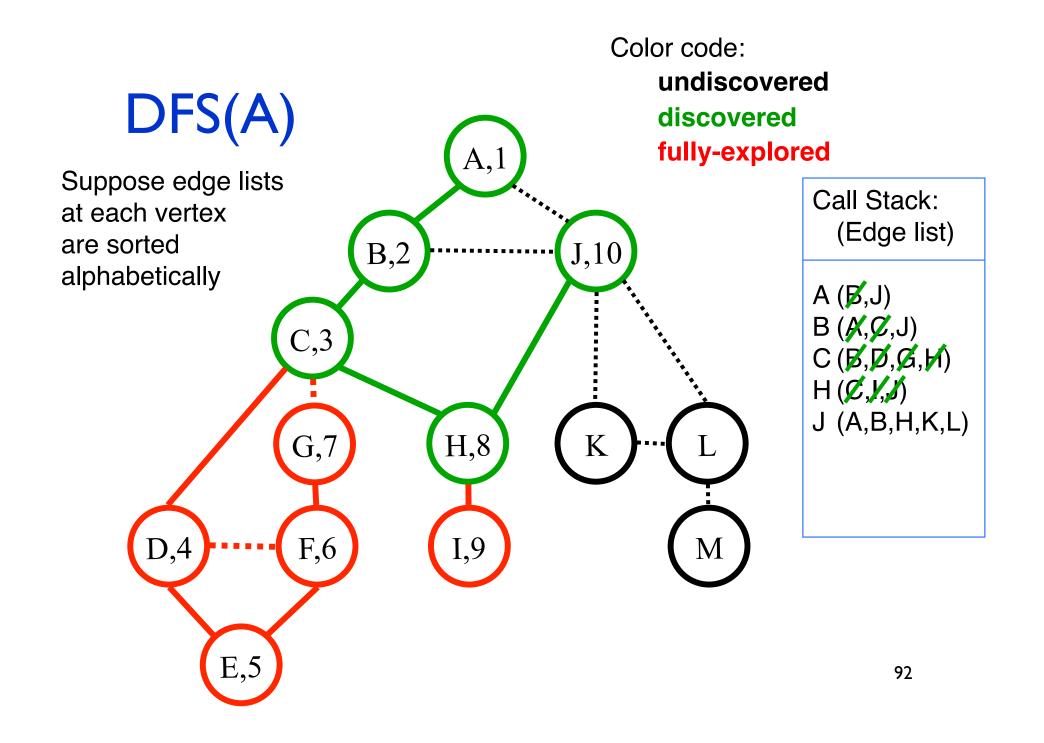


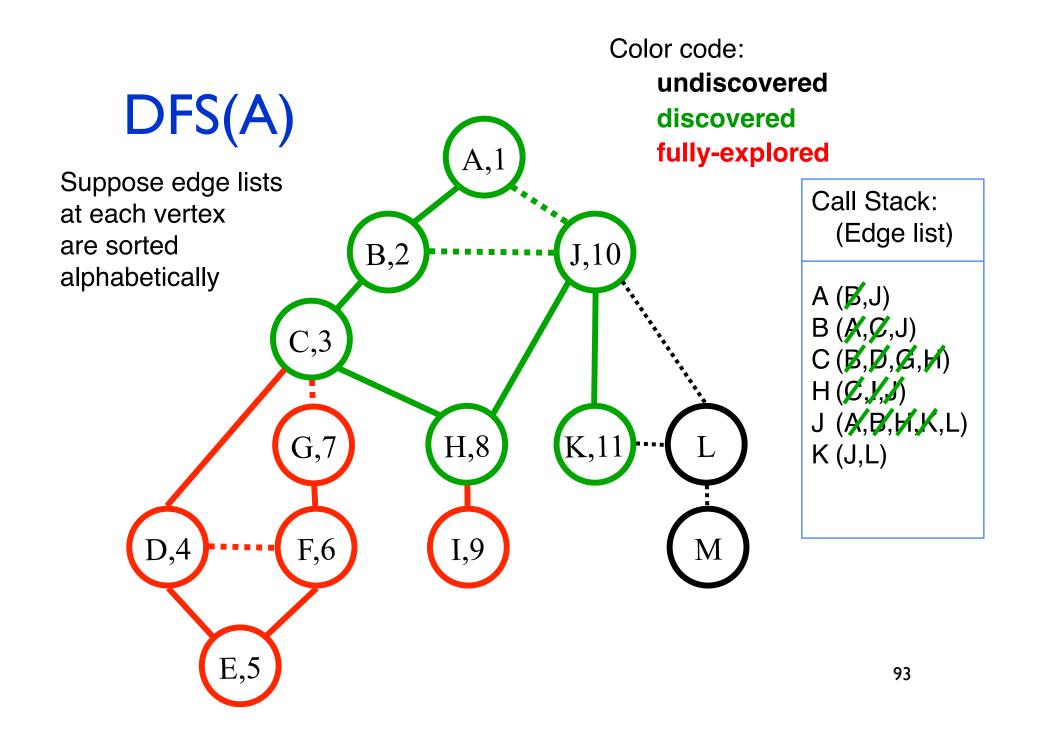


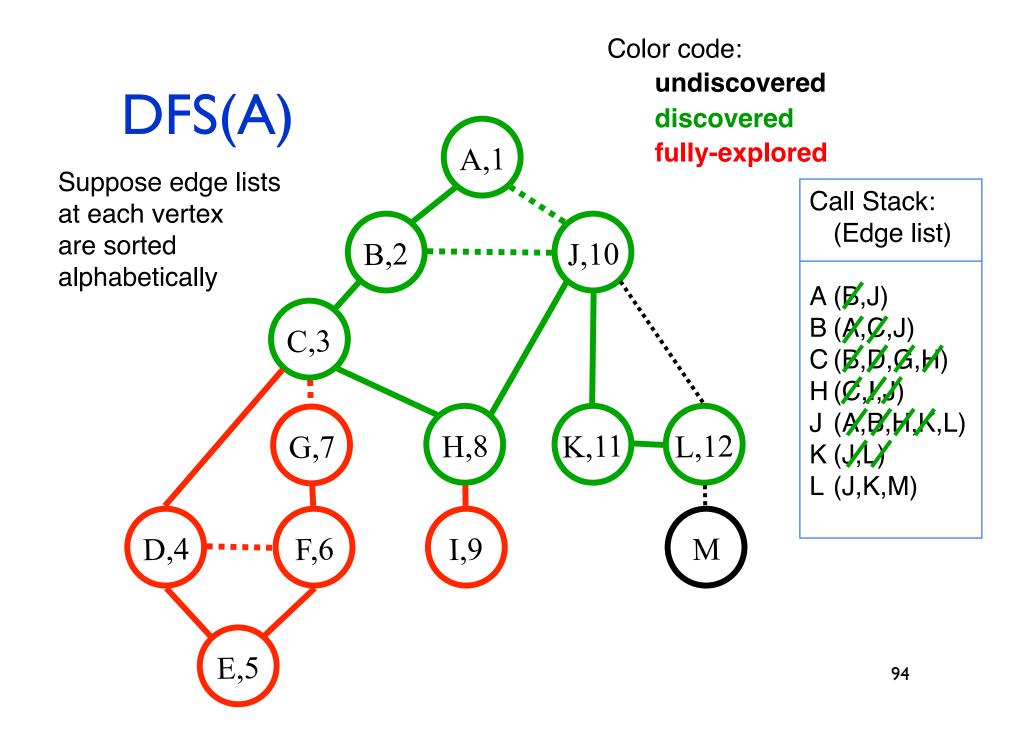


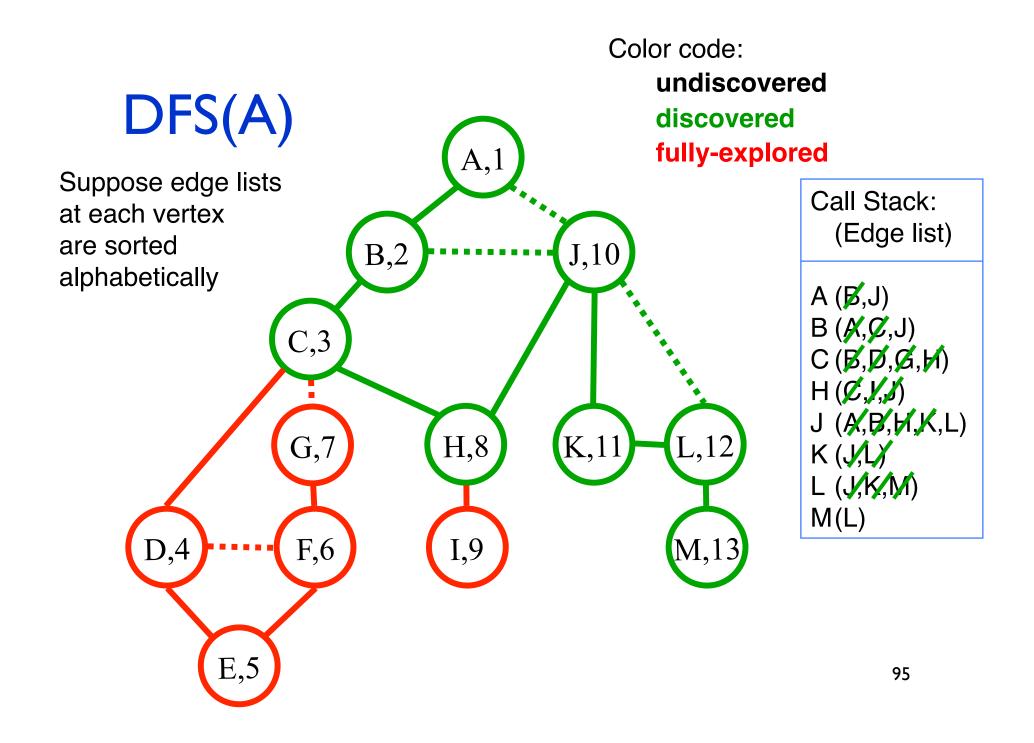


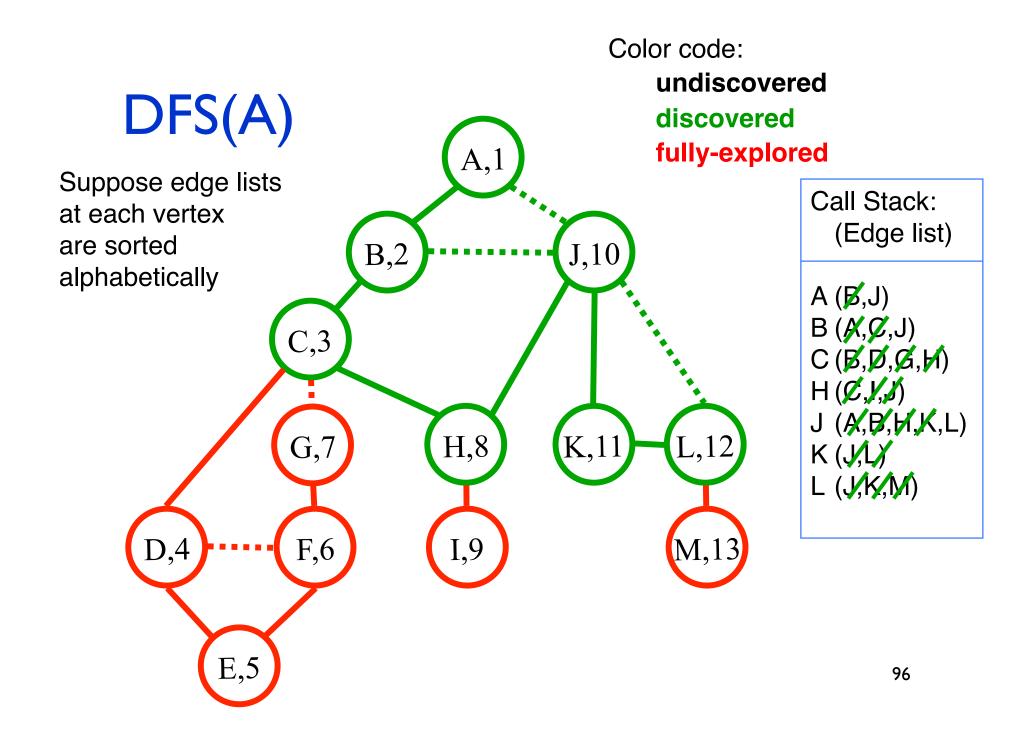


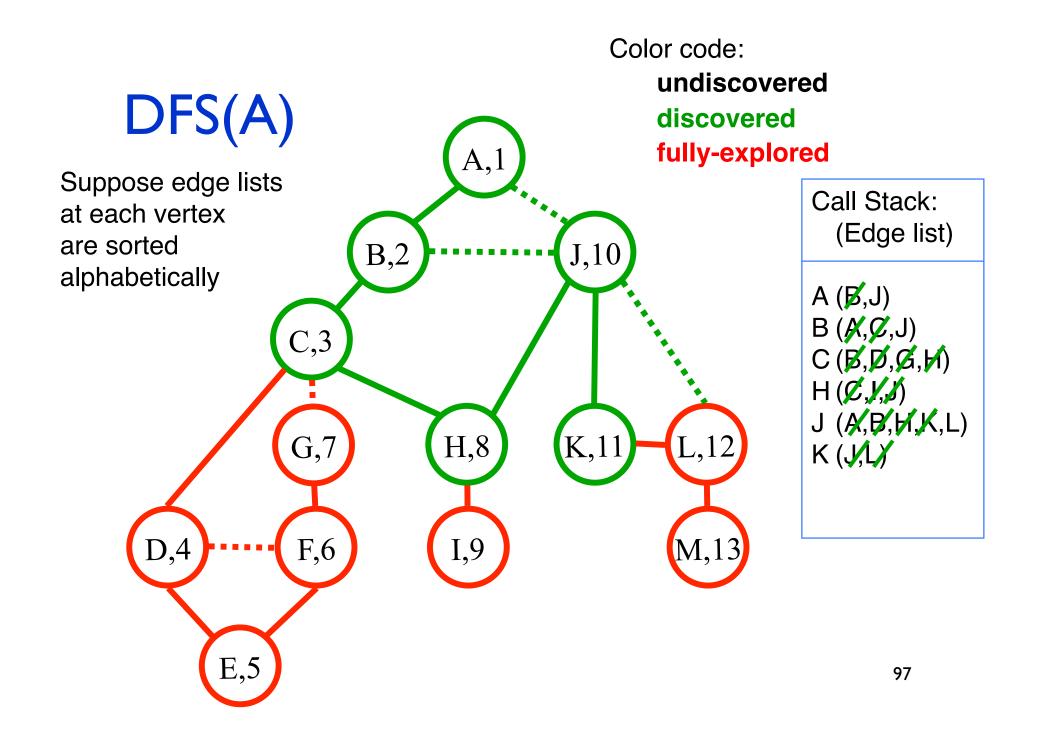


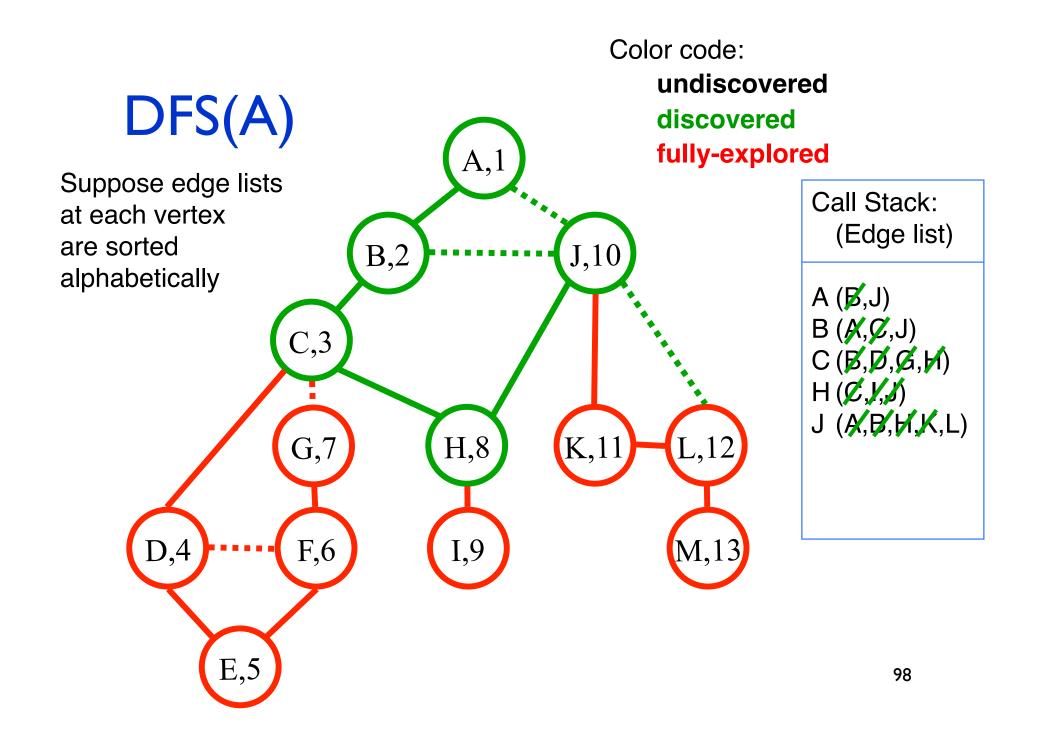


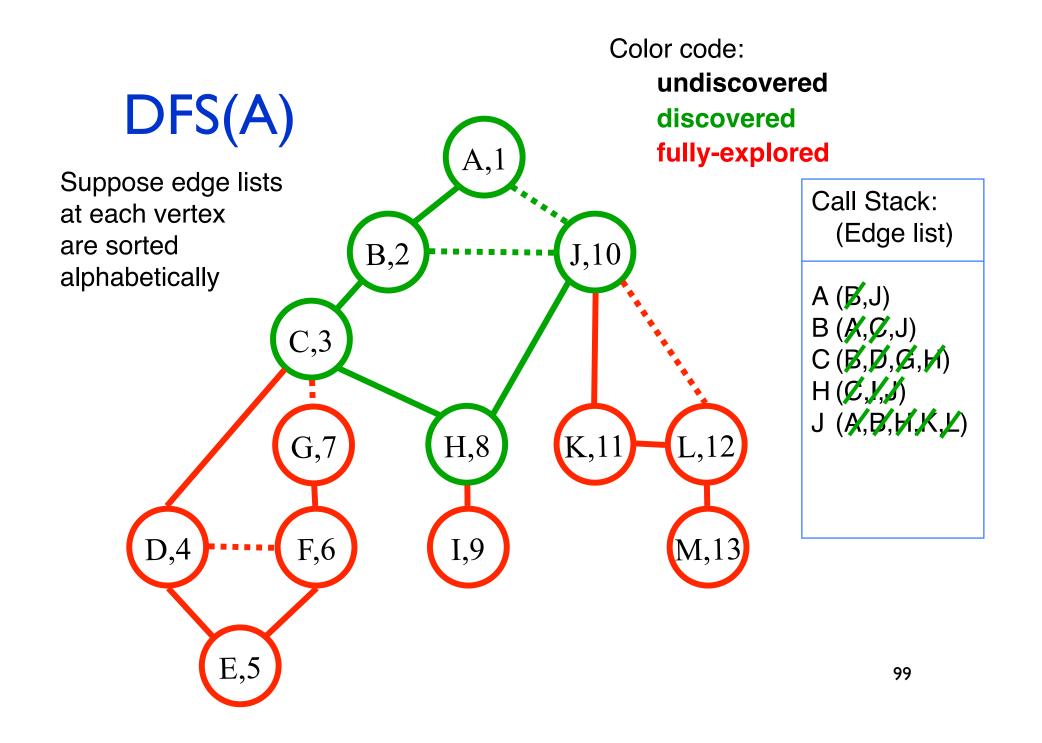


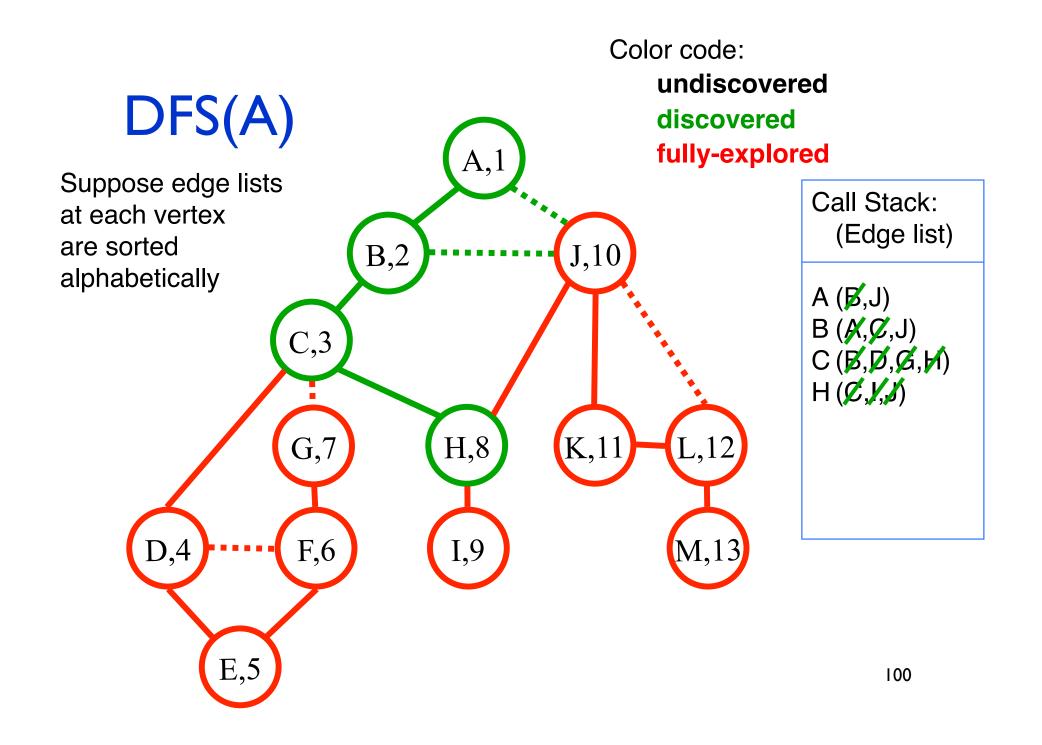


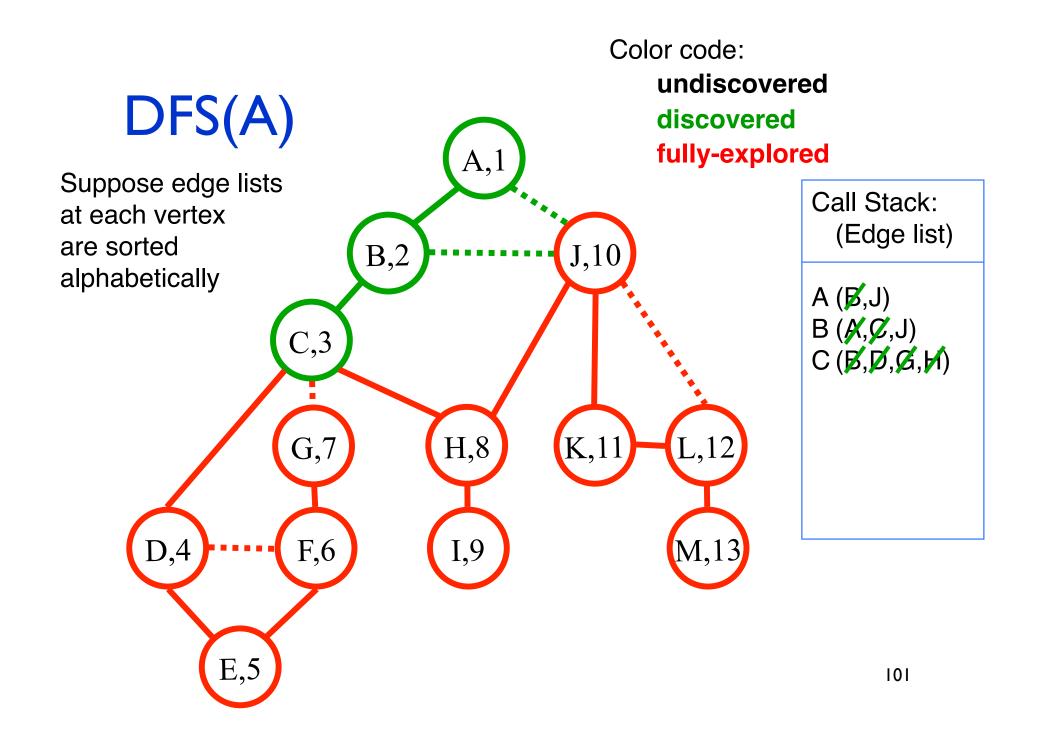


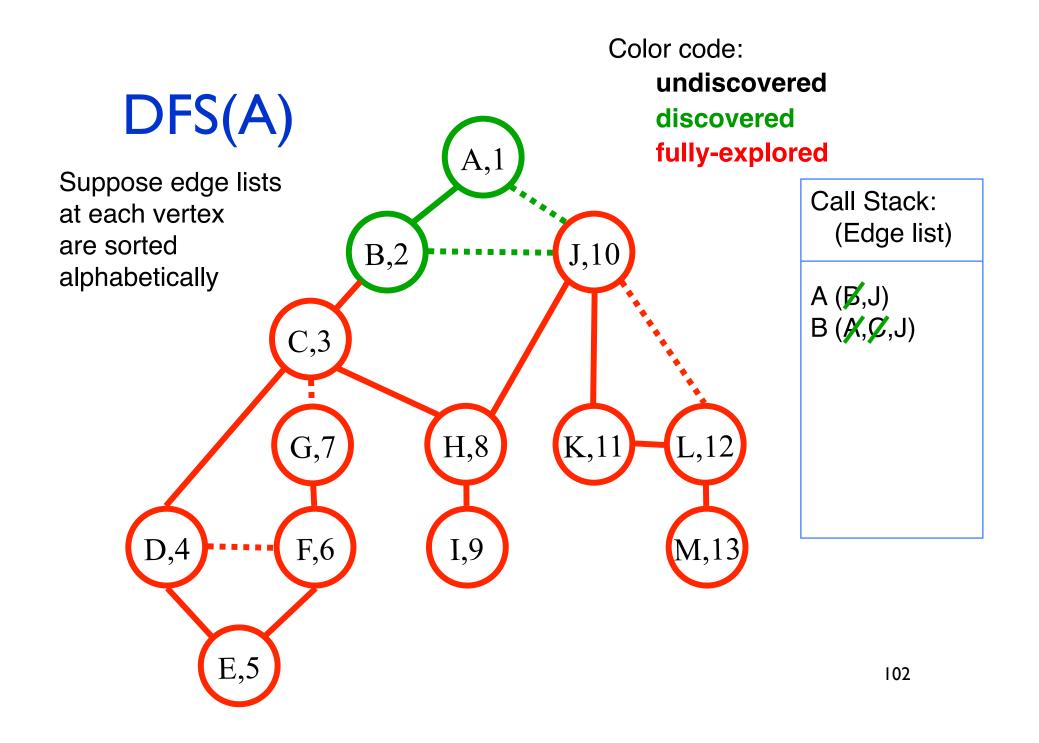


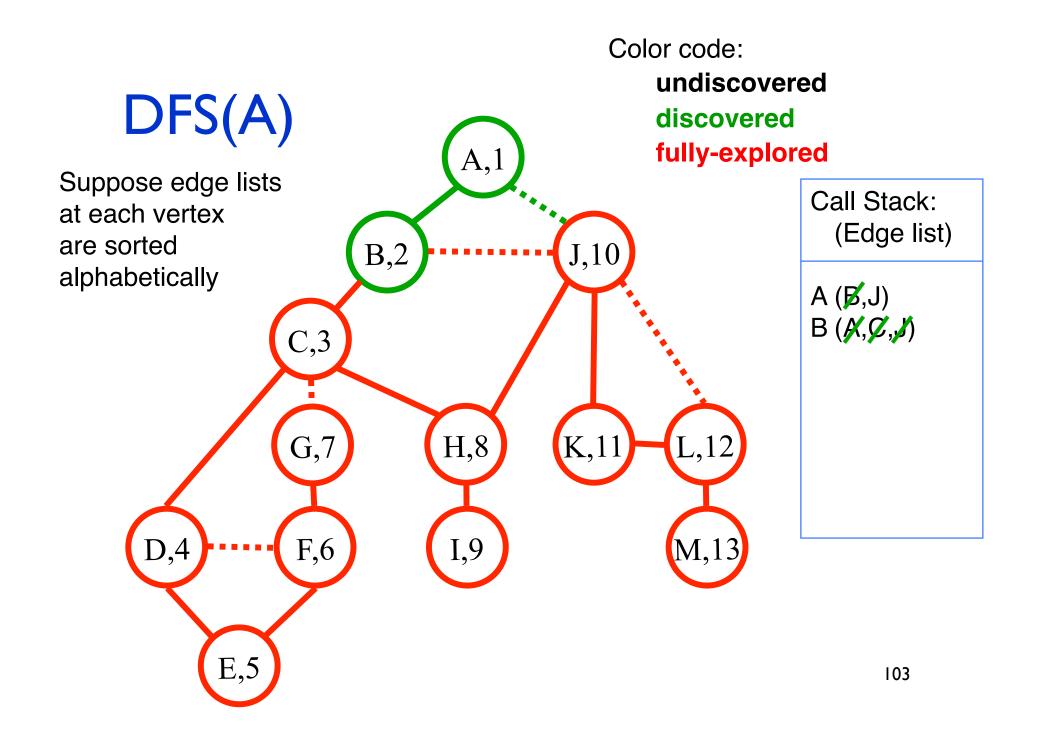


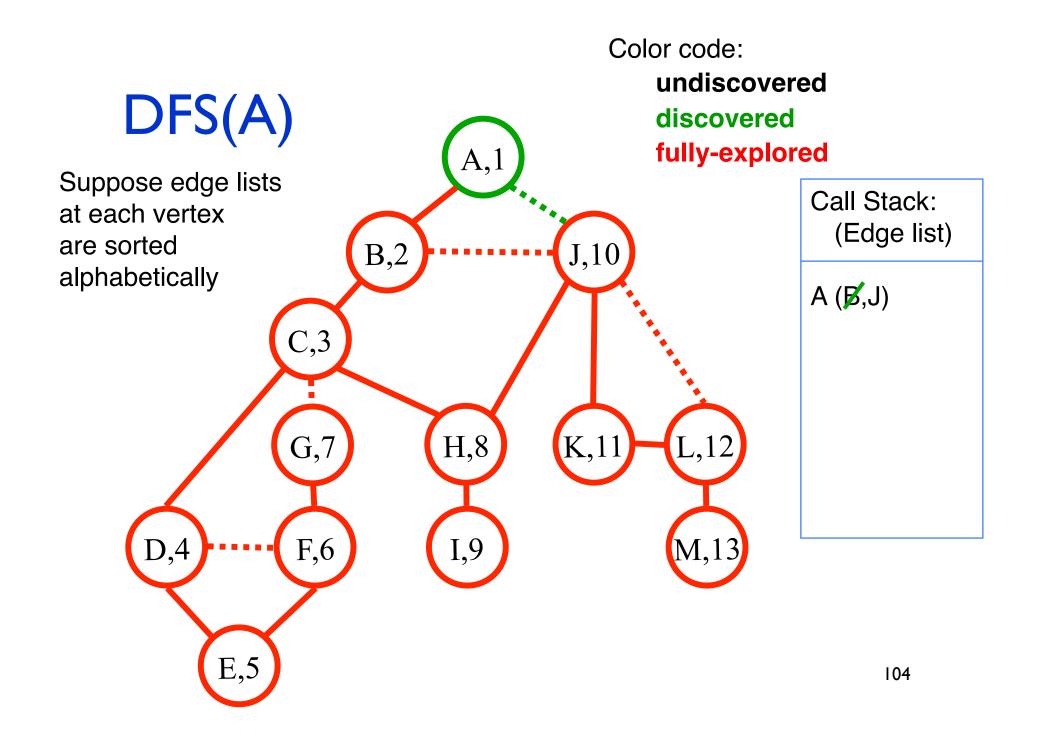


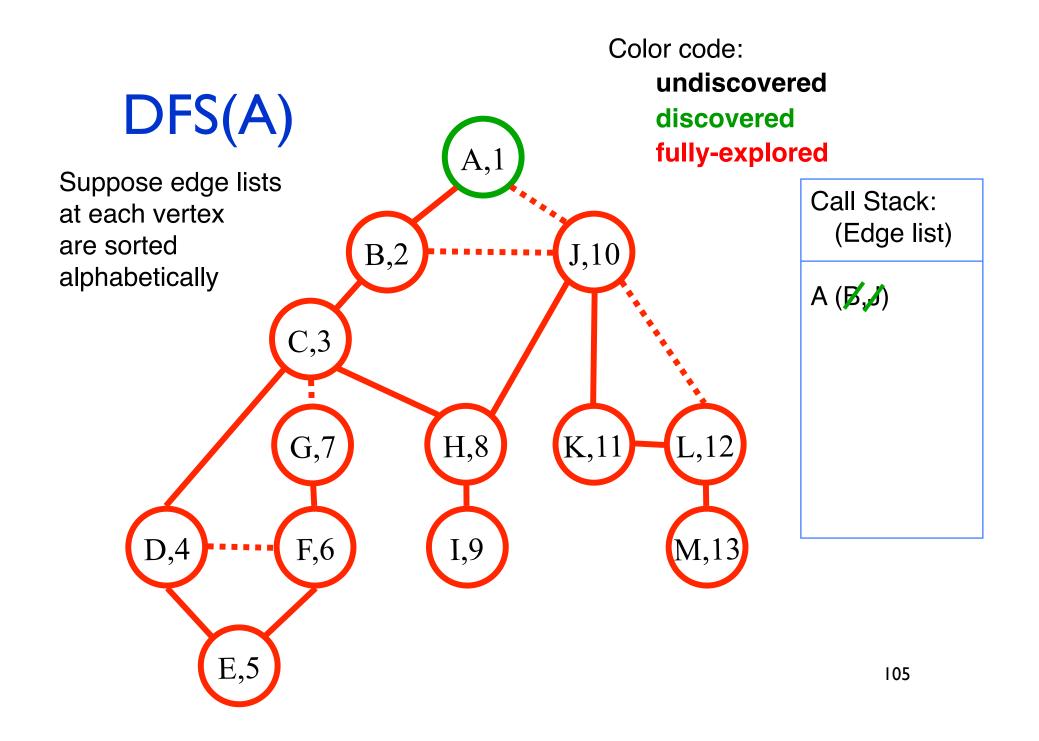


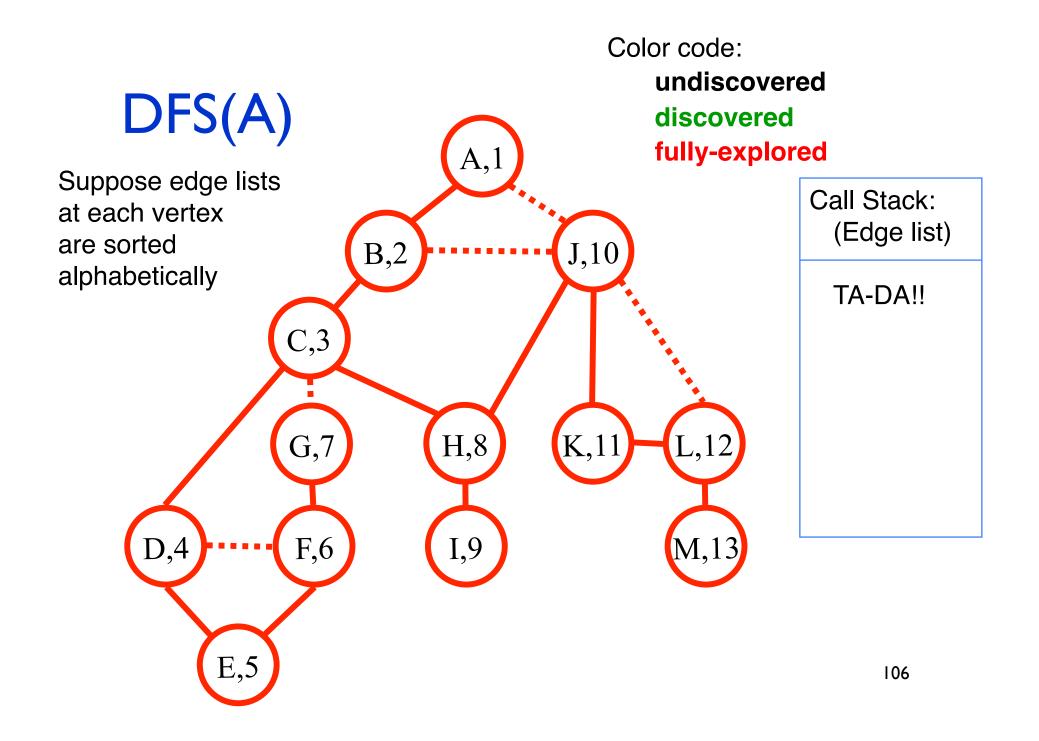


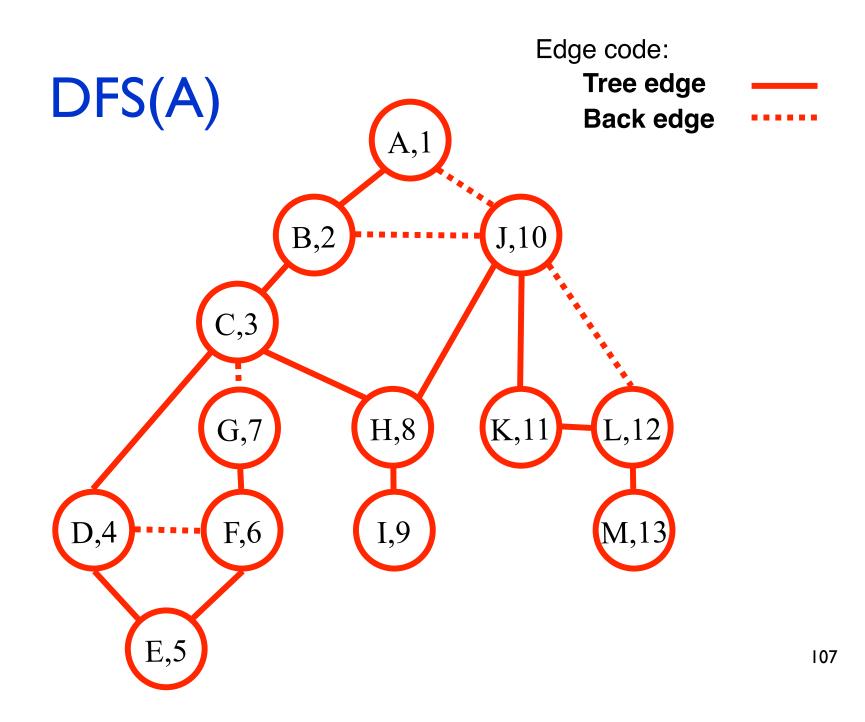


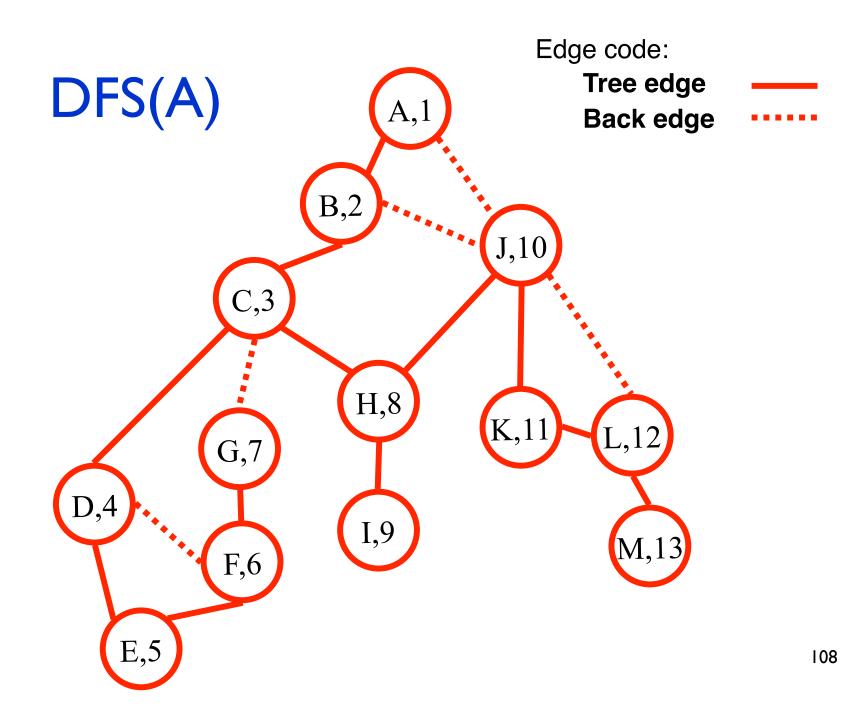


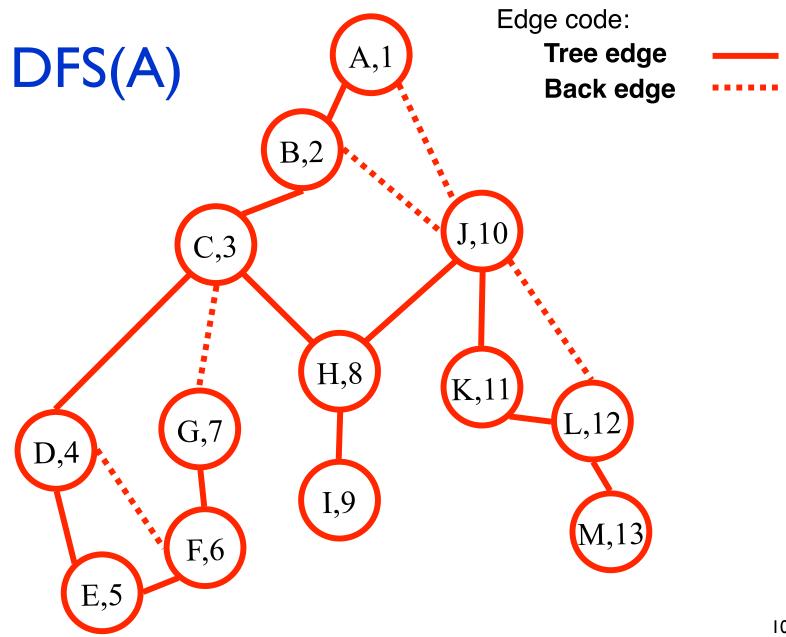


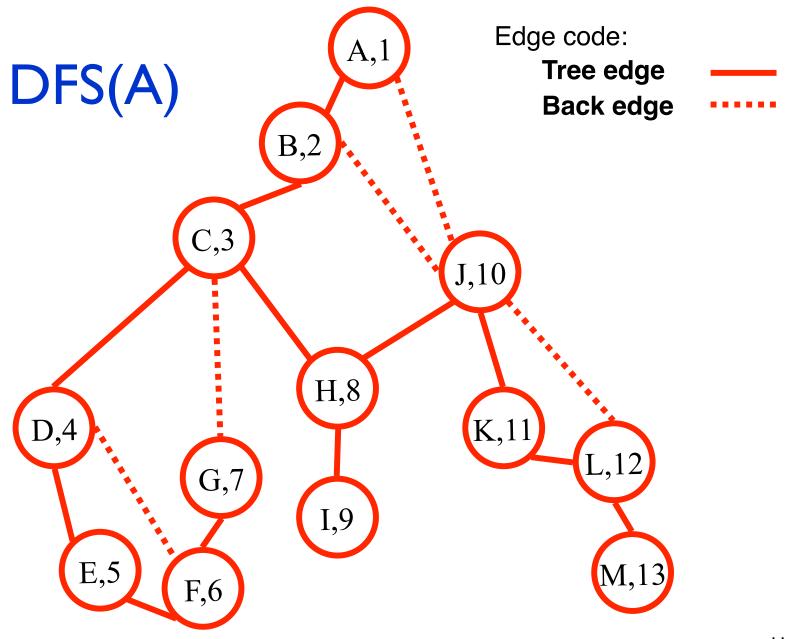


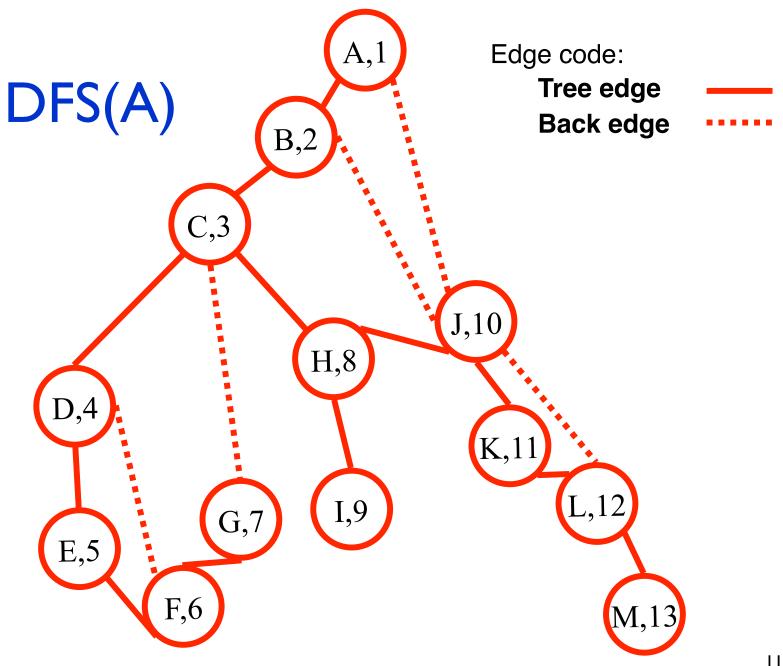


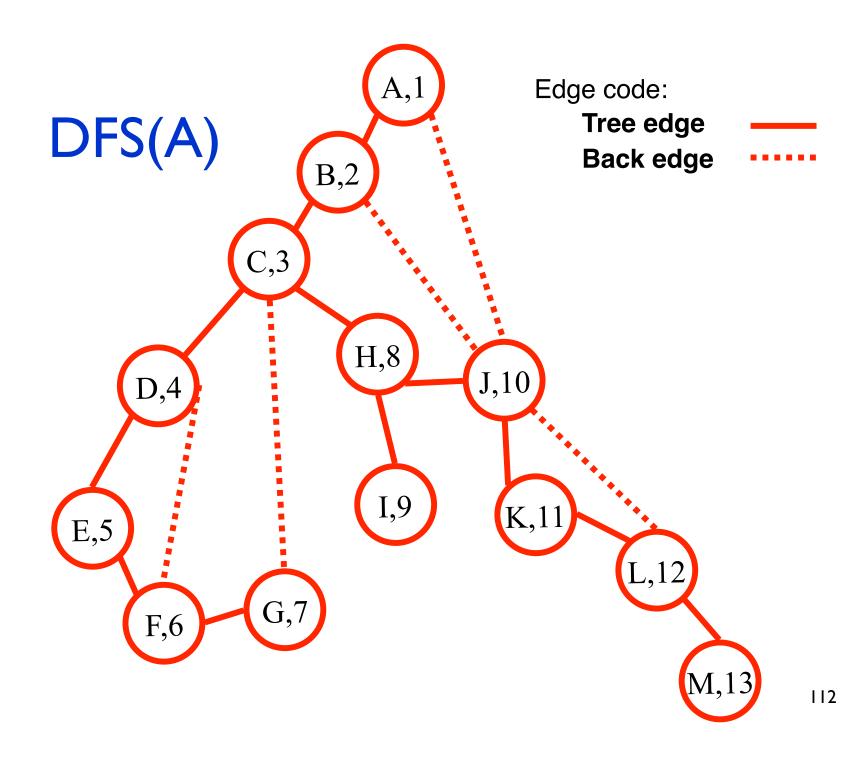


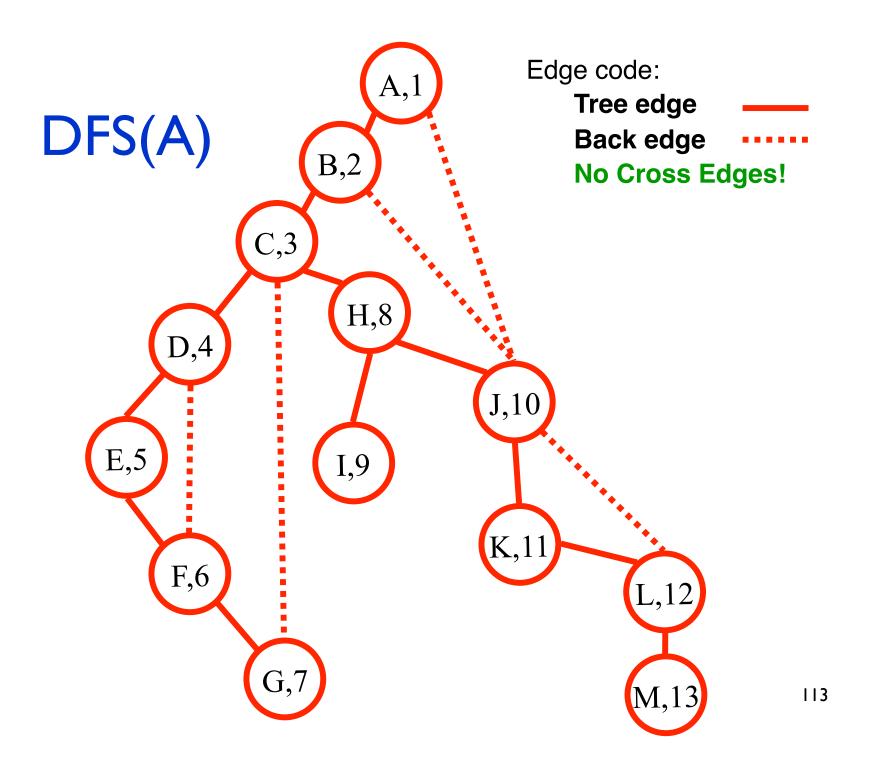












## Properties of (Undirected) DFS(v)

#### Like BFS(v):

DFS(v) visits x if and only if there is a path in G from v to x (through previously unvisited vertices)

Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a **tree** – the "depth first spanning tree" of G

#### Unlike the BFS tree:

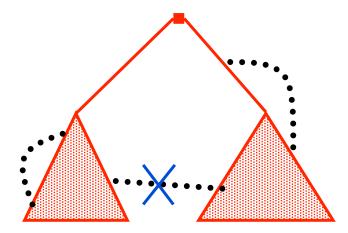
the DF spanning tree isn't minimum depth its levels don't reflect min distance from the root non-tree edges never join vertices on the same or adjacent levels

BUT...

#### Non-tree edges

All non-tree edges join a vertex and one of its descendents/ancestors in the DFS tree

No cross edges!



## Why fuss about trees (again)?

As with BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple"--only descendant/ancestor

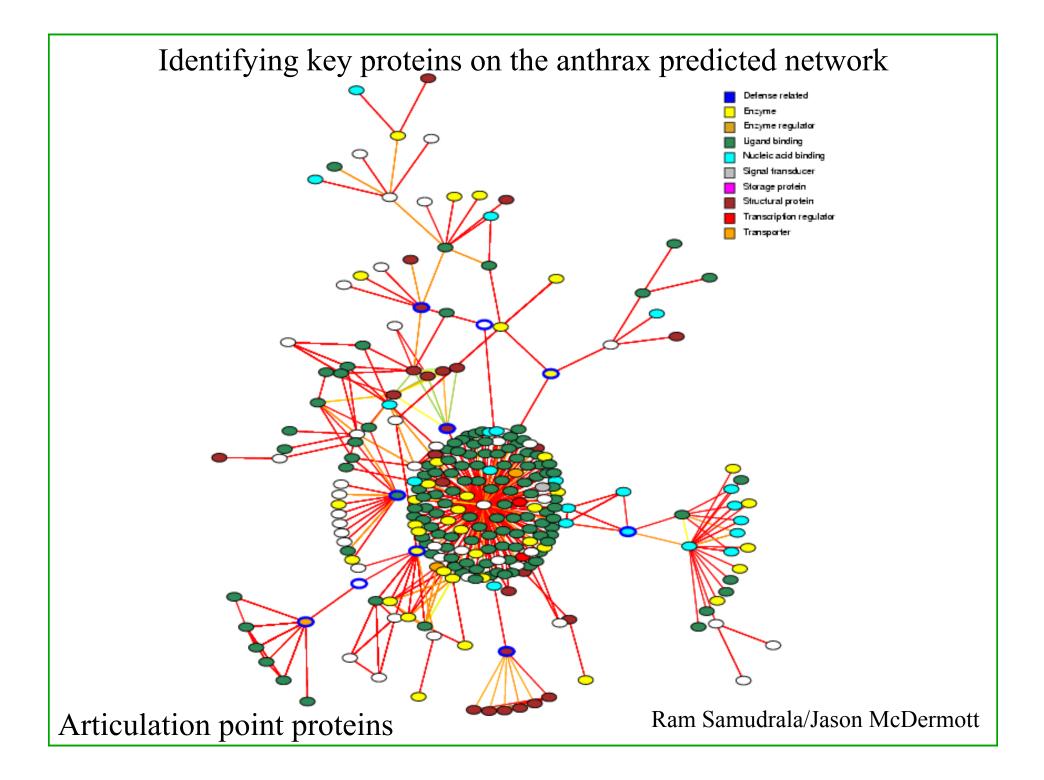
## A simple problem on trees

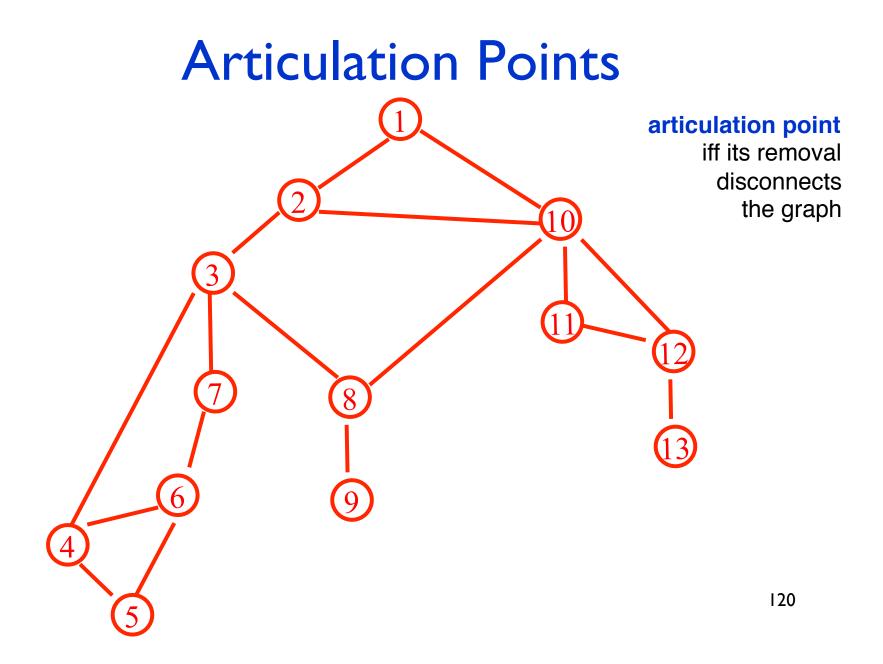
Given: tree T, a value L(v) defined for every vertex v in T Goal: find M(v), the min value of L(v) anywhere in the subtree rooted at v (including v itself). How? Depth first search, using:  $M(v) = \begin{cases} L(v) & \text{if } v \text{ is a leaf} \\ \min(L(v), \min_{w \text{ a child of v}} M(w)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

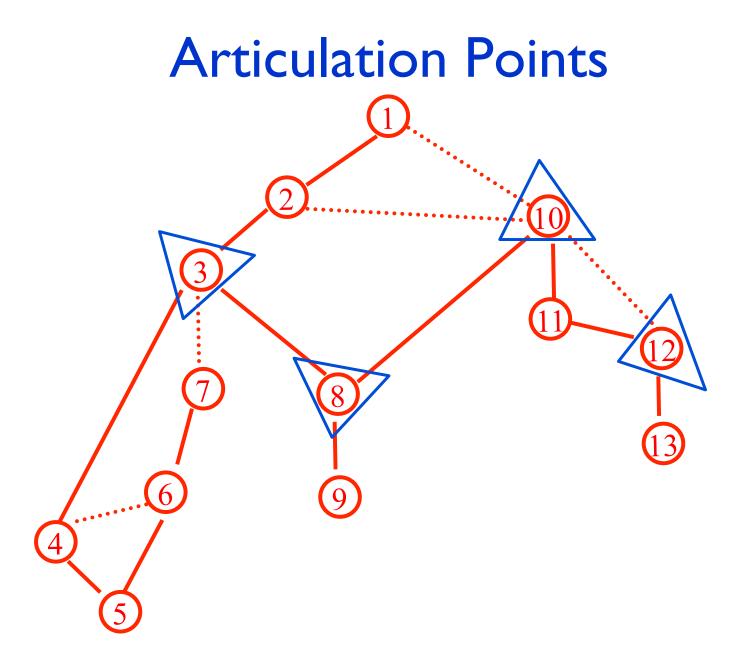
### **Application: Articulation Points**

A node in an undirected graph is an **articulation point** iff removing it disconnects the graph

articulation points represent vulnerabilities in a network – single points whose failure would split the network into 2 or more disconnected components







#### Simple Case: Artic. Pts in a tree

Leaves – never articulation points Internal nodes – always articulation points Root – articulation point if and only if two or more children

Non-tree: extra edges remove some articulation points (which ones?)

#### Articulation Points from DFS

Root node is an articulation point iff it has more than one child

Leaf is never an articulation point

non-leaf, non-root node u is an articulation point

I some child y of u s.t. no non-tree edge goes above u from y or below If removal of u does NOT separate x, there must be an exit from x's subtree. How? Via back edge. 124

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## Articulation Points: the "LOW" function

Definition: LOW(v) is the lowest dfs# of any vertex that is either in the dfs subtree rooted at v (including v itself) or connected to a vertex in that subtree by a back edge.

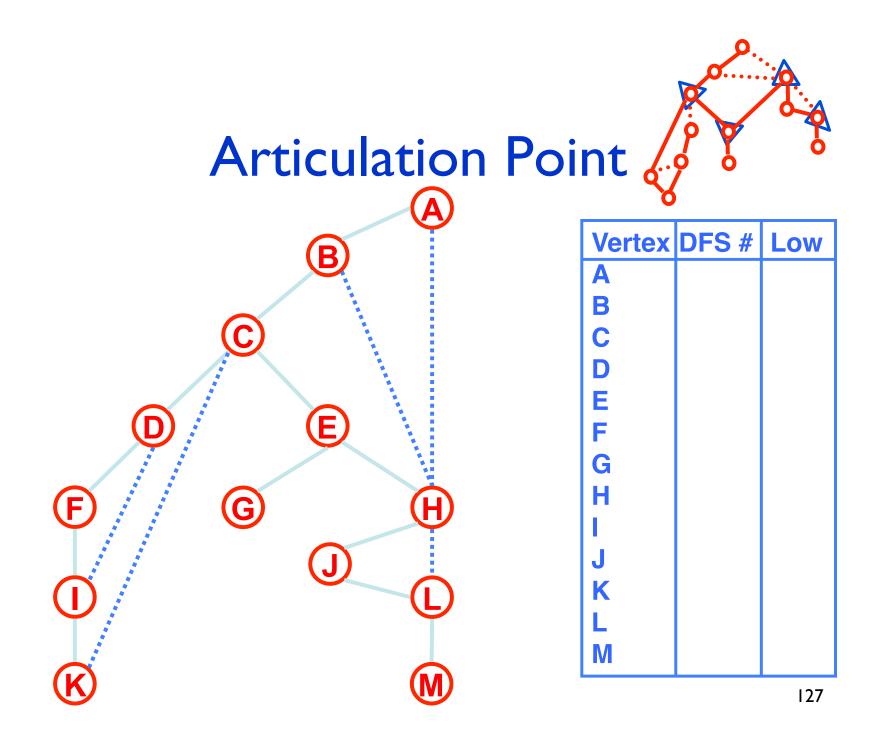
Key idea I: if some child x of v has LOW(x)  $\geq$ dfs#(v) then v is an articulation point (excl. root) Key idea 2: LOW(v) = min ( {dfs#(v)}  $\cup$  {LOW(w) | w a child of v }  $\cup$ { dfs#(x) | {v,x} is a back edge from v } )

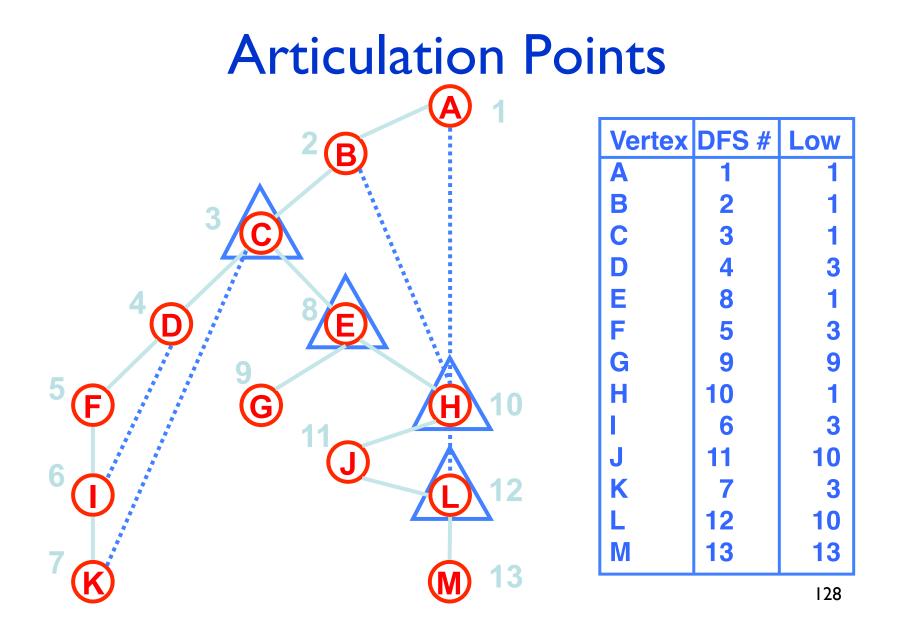
trivial

# DFS(v) for Finding Articulation Points

```
Global initialization: v.dfs # = -1 for all v.
DFS(v)
v.dfs # = dfscounter++
v.low = v.dfs#
                                // initialization
for each edge \{v,x\}
      if (x.dfs \# == -1) // x is undiscovered
         DFS(x)
         v.low = min(v.low, x.low)
         if (x.low \ge v.dfs#)
            print "v is art. pt., separating x"
      else if (x is not v's parent)
         v.low = min(v.low, x.dfs#)
```

Equiv: "if( {v,x} is a back edge)" Why?





## Summary

Graphs –abstract relationships among pairs of objects

Terminology – node/vertex/vertices, edges, paths, multiedges, self-loops, connected

Representation – edge list, adjacency matrix

Nodes vs Edges  $-m = O(n^2)$ , often less

BFS – Layers, queue, shortest paths, all edges go to same or adjacent layer

DFS – recursion/stack; all edges ancestor/descendant

Algorithms – connected components, bipartiteness, topological sort