CS 261-020
Data Structures

Lecture 16
Graphs
3/3/22, Thursday
Odds and Ends

• Assignment 5 posted

• Sign up for Assignment 4 demo!!!

• Due 3/6 11:59 pm
  • Quiz 9

• Recitation 10
Graph

- **Graph** – a collection of objects or states, where some pairs of those objects are related or connected in some way.

- Graphs examples in computer science:
  - Social networks like Facebook or Twitter
  - Computer graphics
  - Machine learning
  - Computer vision
  - Logistics and optimization
  - Computer networking
Graph

• A graph is composed of vertices (or nodes or points) and edges (or arcs or lines).

• Vertices represent objects, states (i.e. conditions or configurations), locations, etc.
  • Form a set where each vertex is unique: $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, \ldots, v_n\}$.
Graph

• Edges represent **relationships** or **connections** between vertices.
  • These are represented as vertex pairs: $E = \{(v_i, v_j), \ldots\}$
  • Edges can be **directed** or **undirected**.
    • If there is an edge between $v_i$ and $v_j$, then $v_i$ and $v_j$ are said to be **adjacent** (or they are **neighbors**).
    • Edges can be **weighted** or **unweighted**.

• An **undirected edge** is like a friend relationship in Facebook:
Graph

• A directed edge is like a “follows” relationship in Twitter,

• The edge is directed from Han to Chewie.
• Han is the head of this edge and that Chewie is its tail.
• Chewie is a direct successor of Han and that Han is a direct predecessor of Chewie.
• Chewie is reachable from Han.
Graph

• An example graph with 6 vertices and 7 undirected, unweighted edges:
Graph

- An example of a similar graph with directed, weighted edges:
Graph

• Graphs represent general relationships between objects.
  • A node may have connections to any number of other nodes.
  • There can be multiple paths (or no path) from one node to another.
  • There can be cycles (loops) in the graph, where there is a path from one node back to itself.

• Trees are a special, more restricted subclass of graphs.
Graph

• Questions we might want to ask about a graph:
  • Is X in the graph?
  • Is Y reachable from X?
  • What nodes are reachable from X?
  • Are X and Y adjacent?
  • What’s the shortest path from X to Y?
  • How many edges between A and Y?
Representing Graphs

• Two main ways to represent a graph in practice:

  • An **adjacency list**: each vertex stores a list of its adjacent vertices.

  • An **adjacency matrix**: a two-dimensional matrix whose rows and columns represent vertices. If there is an edge between \( v_i \) and \( v_j \), the value at location \( (i, j) \) in the matrix will be non-zero.
Representing Graphs

• Consider this graph, where flights between US airports are represented, as an example:
Representing Graphs

• As an adjacency list, this graph would look like this:

  ATL: [ORD, PHL, STL],
  BOS: [ORD, PHL],
  LAX: [ORD, SFO, STL],
  MSP: [ORD, PDX, SEA, SFO],
  ORD: [ATL, BOS, LAX, MSP, PHL, SFO, STL],
  PDX: [MSP, SEA, SFO],
  PHL: [ATL, BOS, ORD],
  SEA: [MSP, PDX],
  SFO: [LAX, MSP, ORD, PDX],
  STL: [ATL, LAX, ORD]
Representing Graphs

• As an adjacency matrix, the graph would look like this:

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• Note that this matrix is symmetric.
Representing Graphs

• What is the space complexity of each of these representations?
  • Adjacency list: $O(|V| + |E|)$
  • Adjacency matrix: $O(|V|^2)$

• Thus, the adjacency list is more space efficient when the graph is sparse, i.e. when it has relatively few edges.
Representing Graphs

• What if our graph is a directed graph, e.g. if we have a flight from airport A to airport B but not a return flight?

• Each of these representations can still be used. For example, say we have this graph:
Representing Graphs

• The adjacency list:

ATL: [ORD, PHL, STL],
BOS: [ORD, PHL],
LAX: [ORD, SFO],
MSP: [PDX, SFO],
ORD: [MSP, STL],
PDX: [SEA, SFO],
PHL: [BOS, ORD],
SEA: [MSP, PDX],
SFO: [ORD, PDX],
STL: [LAX, ORD]
Representing Graphs

• The adjacency matrix for this graph:

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• Note that this matrix is no longer symmetric.
Representing Graphs

• Adding weights to the graph. Say our graph contains the costs of flights between cities:
Representing Graphs

• The adjacency list would store the weights/costs along with the edges:

  ATL: [{ORD: 180}, {PHL: 250}, {STL: 160}],

  BOS: [{ORD: 115}, {PHL: 69}],

  LAX: [{ORD: 250}, {SFO: 75}],

  MSP: [{PDX: 175}, {SFO: 200}],

  ORD: [{MSP: 125}, {STL: 89}],

  PDX: [{SEA: 98}, {SFO: 125}],

  PHL: [{BOS: 69}, {ORD: 110}],

  SEA: [{MSP: 150}, {PDX: 98}],

  SFO: [{ORD: 225}, {PDX: 125}],

  STL: [{LAX: 175}, {ORD: 89}]
Representing Graphs

- The adjacency matrix would hold these weights/costs instead of binary values:

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- We could also use a special value here (e.g. -1) to indicate there is no edge.
Single Source Reachability

• Question: what nodes are reachable from some specific node?
• For example, what airports are reachable from PDX?
Single Source Reachability

• Algorithm to find reachable vertices from some vertex $v_i$:
  1. Initialize an empty set of reachable vertices.
  2. Initialize an empty stack. Add $v_i$ to the stack.
  3. If the stack is not empty, pop a vertex $v$ from the stack.
  4. If $v$ is not in the set of reachable vertices:
      • Add it to the set of reachable vertices.
      • Add each vertex that is direct successor of $v$ to the stack.
  5. Repeat from 3.
Single Source Reachability

• Looking for airports reachable from PDX would look like this:

1. reachable: {}
   stack: [PDX]

2. v: PDX
   successors: [SEA, SFO]
   reachable: {PDX}
   stack: [SEA, SFO]

3. v: SFO
   successors: [ORD, PDX]
   reachable: {PDX, SFO}
   stack: [SEA, ORD, PDX]
Single Source Reachability

• Looking for airports reachable from PDX would look like this:

4. v: PDX (already reachable)
   successors: --
   reachable: {PDX, SFO}
   stack: [SEA, ORD]

5. v: ORD
   successors: [MSP, STL]
   reachable: {ORD, PDX, SFO}
   stack: [SEA, MSP, STL]

6. v: STL
   successors: [LAX, ORD]
   reachable: {ORD, PDX, SFO, STL}
   stack: [SEA, MSP, LAX, ORD]
Single Source Reachability

• Looking for airports reachable from PDX would look like this:

7. v: ORD (already reachable)
   successors: --
   reachable: {ORD, PDX, SFO, STL}
   stack: [SEA, MSP, LAX]

8. v: LAX
   successors: [ORD, SFO]
   reachable: {LAX, ORD, PDX, SFO, STL}
   stack: [SEA, MSP, ORD, SFO]

9. v: SFO, ORD (both already reachable)
   successors: --
   reachable: {LAX, ORD, PDX, SFO, STL}
   stack: [SEA, MSP]
Single Source Reachability

• Looking for airports reachable from PDX would look like this:

10. v: MSP
    successors: [PDX, SFO]
    reachable: {LAX, MSP, ORD, PDX, SFO, STL}
    stack: [SEA, PDX, SFO]

11. v: SFO, PDX (both already reachable)
    successors: --
    reachable: {LAX, MSP, ORD, PDX, SFO, STL}
    stack: [SEA]

12. v: SEA
    successors: MSP, PDX
    reachable: {LAX, MSP, ORD, PDX, SEA, SFO, STL}
    stack: [MSP, PDX]
Single Source Reachability

• Looking for airports reachable from PDX would look like this:

13. $v$: PDX, MSP (both already reachable)
   Successors: --
   reachable: {LAX, MSP, ORD, PDX, SEA, SFO, STL}
   stack: []

14. Done (stack empty)
   reachable: {LAX, MSP, ORD, PDX, SEA, SFO, STL}
Single Source Reachability

• This algorithm can be implemented using either the adjacency list representation or the adjacency matrix representation.

• We could also use a queue instead of a stack.
  • Result in a different order of exploration of the graph.
Depth-first Search and Breadth-first Search

• The reachability algorithm we saw was an instance of depth-first search (or DFS).

• Recall: DFS: exploring a tree where we travel a particular path as far as we can before trying another path.
  • In other words, in DFS, the neighbors of a node’s neighbor are explored before exploring the node’s other neighbors.

• DFS can be implemented using a stack, like the reachability algorithm.
Depth-first Search and Breadth-first Search

• If we replace the stack with a queue, that results in an exploration known as breadth-first search (or BFS).

• Recall: BFS explores a tree by traveling all paths to a given depth, then travelling all those paths one step deeper, then travelling them one step deeper, etc.
  • In other words, in BFS, all of a node’s neighbors are explored before exploring its neighbors’ neighbors.
  • That means BFS travels all paths of length 1, then travels all paths of length 2, then travels all paths of length 3, etc.
Depth-first Search and Breadth-first Search

- **General algorithm for DFS and BFS is below.**

1. Initialize an empty set of visited vertices.
2. Initialize an empty stack (DFS) or queue (BFS). Add $v_i$ to the stack/queue.
3. If the stack/queue is not empty, pop/dequeue a vertex $v$.
4. Perform any desired processing on $v$.
   - E.g. check if $v$ meets a desired condition.
5. **(DFS only):** If $v$ is not in the set of visited vertices:
   - Add $v$ to the set of visited vertices.
   - Push each vertex that is direct successor of $v$ to the stack.
6. **(BFS only):**
   - Add $v$ to the set of visited vertices.
   - For each direct successor $v'$ of $v$:
     - If $v'$ is not in the set of visited vertices, enqueue it into the queue.
7. Repeat from 3.
Depth-first Search and Breadth-first Search

• Often, we use BFS or DFS when we are looking for a node with a particular characteristic.

• For example, both algorithms can be used to find a path from start to finish in a maze.
Depth-first Search and Breadth-first Search

Depth-First (Stack)

Breadth-First (Queue)
**DFS vs. BFS**

Comparisons between DFS and BFS:

- **DFS** is a backtracking search: if we’re looking for a node with a specific characteristic and DFS takes a path that doesn’t contain such a node, it will backtrack to try a different path.

- In an infinite graph, **DFS** can become lost down an infinite path without ever finding a solution.

- **BFS** is **complete** and **optimal**: if a solution exists in the graph, BFS is guaranteed to find it, and it will find the shortest path to that solution.

- However, BFS may take a long time to find a solution if the solution is deep in the graph.
DFS vs. BFS (cont.)

Comparisons between DFS and BFS:

• DFS may find a deep solution more quickly.

• Both algorithms have $O(V)$ space complexity in the worst case.

• However, **BFS may take up more space in practice.**
  • If the graph has a high branching factor, i.e. if each node has many neighbors, BFS can take a lot of memory to maintain all of the paths it’s exploring on the queue.
Dijkstra’s algorithm: single source lowest-cost paths

• **Dijkstra’s algorithm**: finds the shortest/lowest-cost path from a specified vertex in a graph to all other reachable vertices in the graph.

• In Dijkstra’s algorithm, we will use a **priority queue** to order our search.
  • The priority values used in the queue correspond to the **cumulative distance** to each vertex added to the PQ.
  • Thus, we are always exploring the remaining node with the minimum cumulative cost.
Dijkstra’s algorithm: single source lowest-cost paths

Algorithm, which begins with some source vertex \( v_s \):

- Initialize an empty map/hash table representing visited vertices.
  - Key is the vertex \( v \).
  - Value is the min distance \( d \) to vertex \( v \).

- Initialize an empty priority queue, and insert \( v_s \) into it with distance (priority) 0.

- While the priority queue is not empty:
  - Remove the first element (a vertex) from the priority queue and assign it to \( v \). Let \( d \) be \( v \)'s distance (priority).
  - If \( v \) is not in the map of visited vertices:
    - Add \( v \) to the visited map with distance/cost \( d \).
    - For each direct successor \( v_i \) of \( v \):
      - Let \( d_i \) equal the cost/distance associated with edge \((v, v_i)\).
      - Insert \( v_i \) to the priority queue with distance (priority) \( d + d_i \).
Dijkstra’s algorithm: single source lowest-cost paths

• This version of the algorithm only keeps track of the minimum distance to each vertex, but it can be easily modified to keep track of the min-distance path, too.
  • Augment the visited vertex map and the priority queue to keep track of the vertex previous to each one added.

• The complexity of this version of the algorithm is $O(|E| \log |E|)$.
  • The innermost loop is executed at most $|E|$ times, and the cost of the instructions inside the loop is $O(\log |E|)$.
    • Inner cost comes from inserting into the PQ.