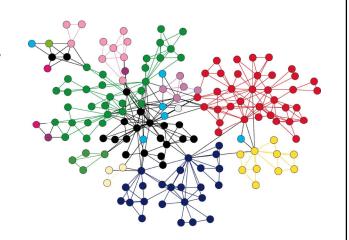


Data Structure

Lecture 6: The Graph
Instructor
Ali A. Al-Ani



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Graph

- A Graph is a non-linear data structure consisting of nodes and edges. The nodes are sometimes also referred to as vertices and the edges are lines or arcs that connect any two nodes in the graph.
- Graphs provide the ultimate in data structure flexibility. Its can model both real-world systems, so they are used in hundreds of applications.
- Since they are powerful abstractions, graphs can be very important in modeling data. In fact, Graphs have applications in a host of different domains, including:
- 1. Social network graphs: to tweet or not to tweet. Graphs that represent who knows whom, who communicates with whom, who influences whom or other relationships in social structures.



Graph

- 2. Transportation networks. In road networks vertices are intersections and edges are the road segments between them, and for public transportation networks vertices are stops and edges are the links between them. Such networks are used by many map programs such as Google maps and GPS maps.
- 3. Utility graphs. The power grid, the Internet, and the water network are all examples of graphs where vertices represent connection points, and edges the wires or pipes between them.
- **4. Document link graphs.** The best known example is the link graph of the web, where each web page is a vertex, and each hyperlink a directed edge.

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Graph: Formal Def.

- Graph: A graph consists of a set of vertices V and a set of edges E, The set of edges describes relationships among the vertices such that each edge in E is a connection between a pair of vertices in V.
- A graph **G** is defined as follows:

$$G = (V, E)$$

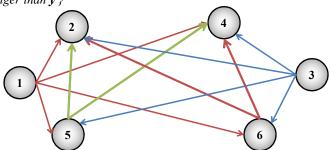
V(G): a finite, nonempty set of vertices.

E(G): a set of edges (pairs of vertices).



Graph: Example_1

- A "Real-life" Example of a Graph: V = set of 6 people: Ali(1), Ahmed(2), Tarq(3), Youisf(4), Suha(5), and Saja(6), of ages 12, 15, 12, 15, 13, and 13, respectively.
- $E = \{ (x,y) \mid if x \text{ is younger than } y \}$



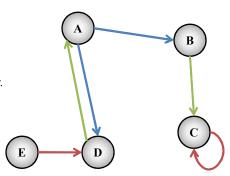
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Graph: Example_2

- $V = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$
- $E = \{ (A,B), (B,C), (A,D), (D,A), (C,C), (E,D) \}$
- When (x, y) is an edge,
- we say that x is adjacent to y, and y is adjacent from x.
- A is adjacent to B.
- **B** is not adjacent to **A**.
- C is adjacent from B.





The Graph Terminology

1. Adjacent nodes: two nodes are adjacent if they are connected by an edge

Ex: A is adjacent to B.



- 2. Path: a sequence of vertices that connect two or more nodes in a graph.
- 3. Weighted graph: a graph in which each edge carries a value



4. Complete graph: a graph in which every vertex is directly connected to every other vertex.

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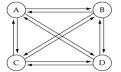
Graph Terminology

1. We can compute the number of edges in a complete directed graph with N vertices as follow:

No. of
$$E = N * (N-1)$$

No. of
$$E = 4 * (4-1)$$

No. of
$$E = 12$$

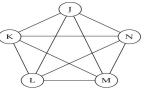


2. Also we can compute the number of edges in a complete undirected graph with N vertices as follow:

No. of
$$E = N * (N-1)/2$$

No. of
$$E = 5*(5-1)/2$$

No. of
$$E = 10$$





Directed vs. Undirected Graphs

- 1. Directed graph (digraph)
- When the edges in a graph have a direction, the graph is called directed (or digraph).
- Let **G** be a directed graph
 - 1. The **Indegree** of a node x in G is the number of edges coming to x
 - 2. The **Outdegree** of x is the number of edges leaving x.
- 2. Undirected graph
- When the edges in a graph have no direction, the graph is called undirected

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Graph Representation

- For graphs to be computationally useful, they have to be conveniently represented in programs. There are two computer representations of graphs:
 - 1. Adjacency matrix representation.
 - 2. Adjacency lists representation.
- Basic Operations: Following are basic primary operations of a Graph:
 - 1. Add Vertex: Adds a vertex to the graph.
 - 2. Add Edge: Adds an edge between the two vertices of the graph.
 - 3. Display Vertex: Displays a vertex of the graph.

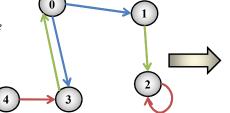


Adjacency Matrix Representation

- In this representation, each graph of n nodes is represented by an n x n matrix A, that is, a two-dimensional array A:
- The nodes are (re)-labeled 0,1,2,...,n

• A[i][j] = 1 if (i,j) is an edge

• A[i][j] = 0 if (i,j) is not an edge



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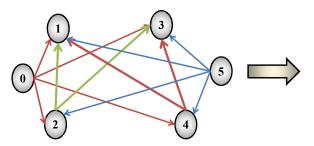
Adjacency Matrix Representation

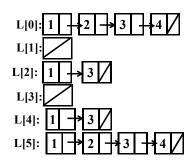
- Advantage:
 - Simple to implement.
 - Easy and fast to tell if a pair (i, j) is an edge: simply check if A[i][j] is 1 or 0
- Disadvantage:
 - No matter how few edges the graph has, the matrix takes $O(n^2)$ in memory.



Adjacency Lists Representation

- A graph of n nodes is represented by a one-dimensional array L of linked lists, where:
 - L [i] is the linked list containing all the nodes adjacent from node i.
 - The nodes in the list **L[i]** are in no particular order.





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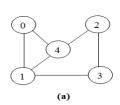
Adjacency Lists Representation

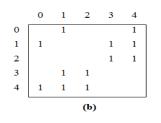
- Advantage:
 - Saves on space (memory): the representation takes as many memory words as there are nodes and edge.
- Disadvantage:
 - It can take up to O(n) time to determine if a pair of nodes (i, j) is an edge: one would have to search the linked list L[i], which takes time proportional to the length of L[i].

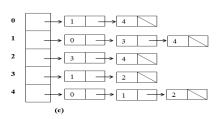


Undirected Representation

- Representations of the Undirected Graphs: The same two representations for directed graphs can be used for undirected graphs
- Adjacency matrix A: A [i] [j]=1 if (i,j) is an edge; 0 otherwise
- Adjacency Lists: L [i] is the linked list containing all the neighbors of i







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Graph Traversal Techniques

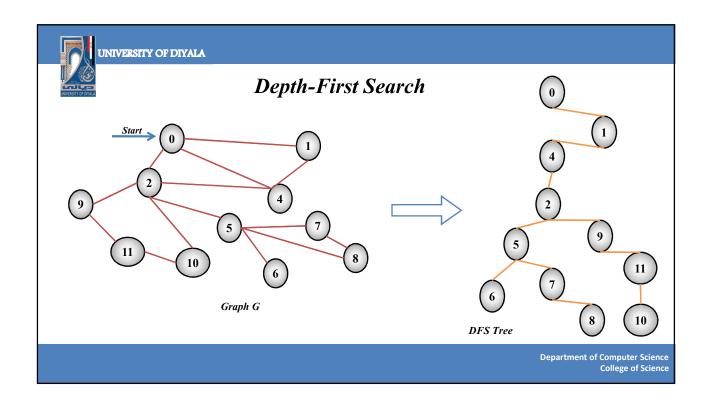
- There are two standard graph traversal techniques:
 - Depth-First Search (DFS)
 - Breadth-First Search (BFS)
- In both **DFS** and **BFS**, the nodes of the undirected graph are visited in a systematic manner so that every node is visited exactly one.
- Both **BFS** and **DFS** give rise to a tree:
 - When a node x is visited, it is labeled as visited, and it is added to the tree.
 - If the traversal got to node x from node y, y is viewed as the parent of x, and x a child of y.



Depth-First Search

• DFS follows the following rules:

- 1. Select an unvisited node x, visit it, and treat as the current node.
- 2. Find an unvisited neighbor of the current node, visit it, and make it the new current node;
- 3. If the current node has no unvisited neighbors, backtrack to the its parent, and make that parent the new current node;
- 4. Repeat steps 3 and 4 until no more nodes can be visited.
- 5. If there are still unvisited nodes, repeat from step 1.

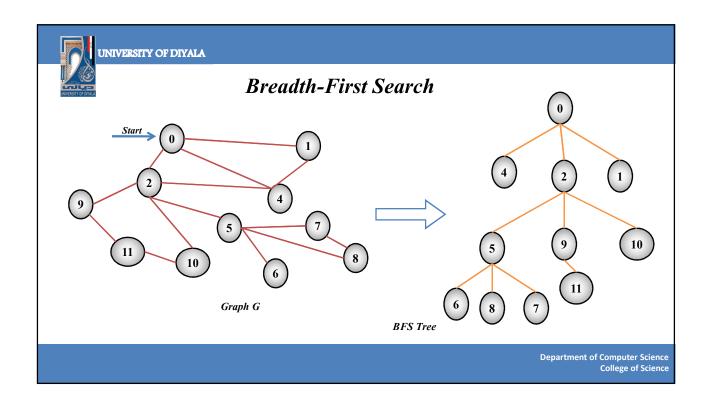




Breadth-First Search

• BFS follows the following rules:

- 1. Select an unvisited node **x**, visit it, have it be the root in a BFS tree being formed. Its level is called the current level.
- 2. From each node z in the current level, in the order in which the level nodes were visited, visit all the unvisited neighbors of z. The newly visited nodes from this level form a new level that becomes the next current level.
- 3. Repeat step 2 until no more nodes can be visited.
- 4. If there are still unvisited nodes, repeat from Step 1.





The End