

BACKGROUND: A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO GRAPH THEORY

- General definitions; Representations;
- Graph Traversals;
- Topological sort;

Graphs – definitions & representations

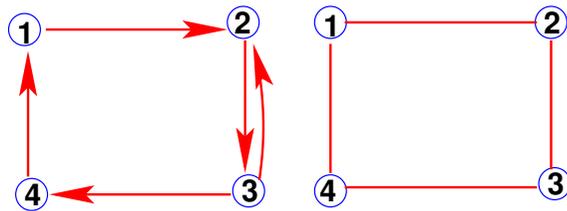
➤ Graph theory is a fundamental tool in sparse matrix techniques.

DEFINITION. A graph G is defined as a pair of sets $G = (V, E)$ with $E \subset V \times V$. So G represents a binary relation. The graph is **undirected** if the binary relation is symmetric. It is **directed** otherwise. V is the vertex set and E is the edge set.

If R is a binary relation between elements in V then, we can represent it by a graph $G = (V, E)$ as follows:

$$(u, v) \in E \leftrightarrow u R v$$

Undirected graph \leftrightarrow symmetric relation



$(1 R 2); (4 R 1); (2 R 3); (3 R 4); (3 R 2); (3 R 4)$ | $(1 R 2); (2 R 3); (3 R 4); (4 R 1)$

Given the numbers 5, 3, 9, 15, 16, show the two graphs representing the relations

R1: Either $x < y$ or y divides x .

R2: x and y are congruent modulo 3. [$\text{mod}(x,3) = \text{mod}(y,3)$]

- $|E| \leq |V|^2$. For undirected graphs: $|E| \leq |V|(|V| + 1)/2$.
- A sparse graph is one for which $|E| \ll |V|^2$.

Graphs – Examples and applications

➤ Applications of graphs are numerous.

1. Airport connection system: (a) R (b) if there is a non-stop flight from (a) to (b).
2. Highway system;
3. Computer Networks;
4. Electrical circuits;
5. Traffic Flow;
6. Social Networks;
7. Sparse matrices;

...

More terminology & notation

➤ For a given $Y \subset X$, the **section** graph of Y is the subgraph $G_Y = (Y, E(Y))$ where

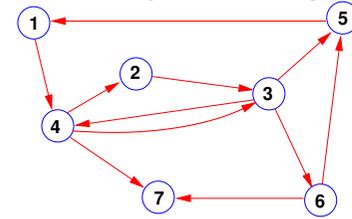
$$E(Y) = \{(x, y) \in E \mid x \in Y, y \text{ in } Y\}$$

- A section graph is a **clique** if all the nodes in the subgraph are pairwise adjacent (\rightarrow dense block in matrix)
- A **path** is a sequence of vertices w_0, w_1, \dots, w_k such that $(w_i, w_{i+1}) \in E$ for $i = 0, \dots, k - 1$.
- The **length** of the path w_0, w_1, \dots, w_k is k (# of edges in the path)
- A **cycle** is a closed path, i.e., a path with $w_k = w_0$.
- A graph is **acyclic** if it has no cycles.

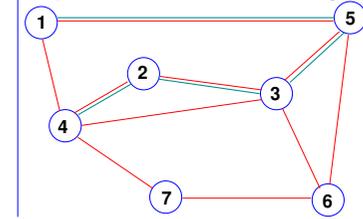
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Find cycles in this graph:



A path in an indirected graph



- A path w_0, \dots, w_k is **simple** if the vertices w_0, \dots, w_k are distinct (except that we may have $w_0 = w_k$ for cycles).
- An **undirected** graph is **connected** if there is path from every vertex to every other vertex.
- A **digraph** with the same property is said to be **strongly connected**

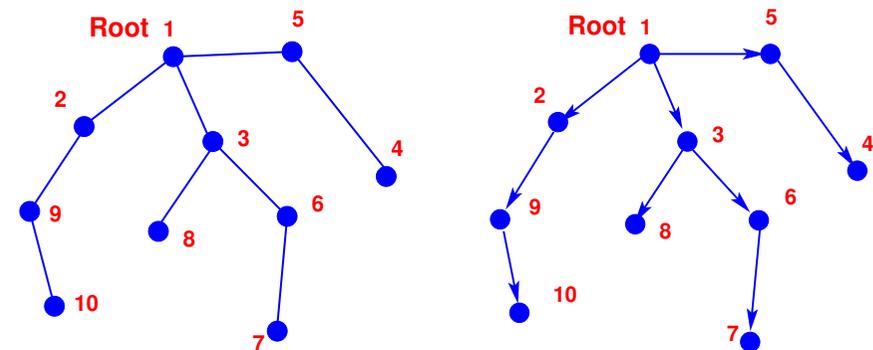
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- The **undirected form** of a directed graph the undirected graph obtained by removing the directions of all the edges.
- Another term used "symmetrized" form -
- A **directed** graph whose undirected form is connected is said to be **weakly connected** or **connected**.
- **Tree** = a graph whose undirected form, i.e., symmetrized form, is acyclic & connected
- Forest = a collection of trees
- In a **rooted tree** one specific vertex is designated as a root.
- Root determines orientation of the tree edges in parent-child relation

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- Parent-Child relation: immediate neighbors of root are children. Root is their parent. Recursively define children-parents
- In example: v_3 is parent of v_6, v_8 and v_6, v_8 are children of v_3 .
- Nodes that have no children are **leaves**. In example: v_{10}, v_7, v_8, v_4
- Descendent, ancestors, ...

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Tree traversals

- ▶ Tree traversal is a process of visiting all vertices in a tree. Typically traversal starts at root.
- ▶ Want: systematic traversals of all nodes of tree – moving from a node to a child or parent
- ▶ **Preorder traversal:** Visit parent before children [recursively]

In example: $v_1, v_2, v_9, v_{10}, v_3, v_8, v_6, v_7, v_5, v_4$

- ▶ **Postorder traversal:** Visit children before parent [recursively]

In example : $v_{10}, v_9, v_2, v_8, v_7, v_6, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_1$

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Graphs Traversals – Depth First Search

- ▶ Issue: systematic way of visiting all nodes of a **general** graph
- ▶ Two basic methods: Breadth First Search (to be seen later) and Depth-First Search
- ▶ Idea of DFS is recursive:

Algorithm $DFS(G, v)$ (DFS from v)

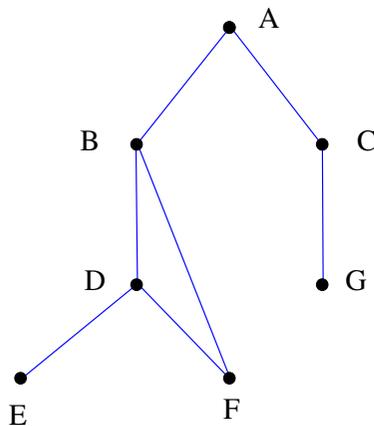
- Visit and Mark v ;
- for all edges (v, w) do
 - if w is not marked then $DFS(G, w)$

- ▶ If G is undirected and connected, all nodes will be visited
- ▶ If G is directed and strongly connected, all nodes will be visited

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Depth First Search – undirected graph example



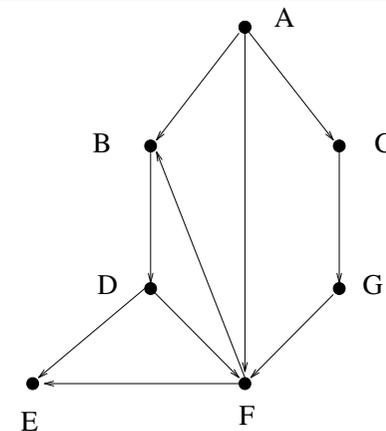
- ▶ Assume adjacent nodes are listed in alphabetical order.

 DFS traversal from A ?

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Depth First Search – directed graph example



- ▶ Assume adjacent nodes are listed in alphabetical order.

 DFS traversal from A?

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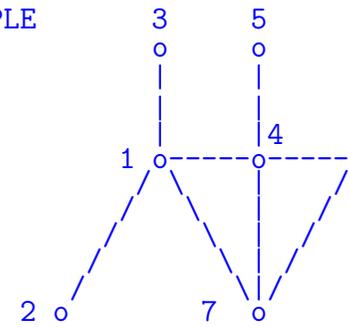
Depth-First-Search Tree: Consider the parent-child relation: v is a parent of u if u was visited from v in the depth first search algorithm. The (directed) graph resulting from this binary relation is a tree called the Depth-First-Search Tree. To describe tree: only need the parents list.

➤ To traverse all the graph we need a DFS(v,G) from each node v that has not been visited yet – so add another loop. Refer to this as

DFS(G)

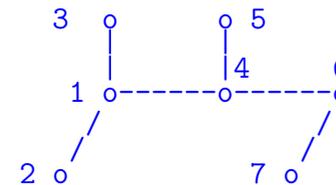
➤ When a new vertex is visited in DFS, some work is done. Example: we can build a stack of nodes visited to show order (reverse order: easier) in which the node is visited.

EXAMPLE



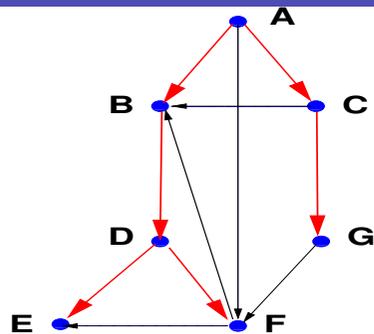
We assume adjacency list is in increasing order. [e.g: Adj(4)=(1,5,6,7)]

DFS traversal: 1 --> 2 --> 3 --> 4 --> 5 --> 6 --> 7
 Parents list: 1 1 1 1 4 4 4



←----- Depth First Search Tree

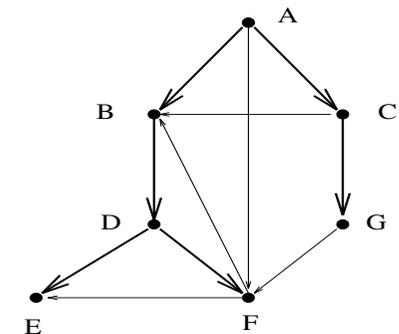
Back edges, forward edges, and cross edges



- Thick red lines: DFS traversal tree from A
- $A \rightarrow F$ is a Forward edge
- $F \rightarrow B$ is a Back edge
- $C \rightarrow B$ and $G \rightarrow F$ are Cross-edges.

Postorder traversal : (of tree) label the nodes so that children in tree labeled before root.

- Important for some algorithms
- $label(i) ==$ order of completion of visit of subtree rooted at node i



➤ Notice: In post-order labeling:

- Tree-edges / Forward edges : labels decrease in \rightarrow
- Cross edges : (!) labels in/de-crease in \rightarrow [depends on labeling]
- Back-edges : labels increase in \rightarrow

Properties of Depth First Search

- If G is a connected undirected (or strongly **directed connected**) graph, then each vertex will be visited once and each edge will be inspected at least once.
- Therefore, for a connected undirected graph, The cost of DFS is $O(|V| + |E|)$
- If the graph is undirected, then there are no cross-edges. (all non-tree edges are called 'back-edges')

Theorem: A directed graph is acyclic iff a DFS search of G yields no back-edges.

- Terminology: Directed Acyclic Graph or **DAG**

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Topological Sort

The Problem: Given a **Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)**, order the vertices from 1 to n such that, if (u, v) is an edge, then u appears before v in the ordering.

- Equivalently, label vertices from 1 to n so that in any (directed) path from a node labelled k , all vertices in the path have labels $> k$.
- Many Applications
- Prerequisite requirements in a program
- Scheduling of tasks for any project
- Parallel algorithms;
- ...

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Topological Sorting: A first algorithm

Property exploited: An acyclic Digraph must have at least one vertex with indegree = 0.

 Prove this

Algorithm:

- First label these vertices as 1, 2, ..., k ;
- Remove these vertices and all edges incident from them
- Resulting graph is again acyclic ... \exists nodes with indegree = 0. label these nodes as $k + 1, k + 2, \dots$,
- Repeat..

 Explore implementation aspects.

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Alternative methods: Topological sort from DFS

- Depth first search traversal of graph.
- Do a 'post-order traversal' of the DFS tree.

Algorithm $Lst = Tsort(G)$ (post-order DFS from v)

```
Mark = zeros(n,1);  Lst =  $\emptyset$ 
for v=1:n do
    if (Mark(v)== 0)
        [Lst, Mark] = dfs(v, G, Lst, Mark);
    end
end
```

- $dfs(v, G, Lst, Mark)$ is the DFS(G, v) which adds v to the top of Lst after finishing the traversal from v

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Lst = DFS(G,v)

- Visit and Mark v ;
 - for all edges (v, w) do
 - if w is not marked then $Lst = DFS(G, w)$
 - $Lst = [v, Lst]$
- Topological order given by the final Lst array of Tsort

 Explore implementation issue

 Implement in matlab

 Show correctness [i.e.: is this indeed a topol. order? hint: no back-edges in a DAG]

GRAPH MODELS FOR SPARSE MATRICES

- See Chap. 3 of text
- Sparse matrices and graphs.
- Bipartite model, hypergraphs
- Application: Paths in graphs, Markov chains

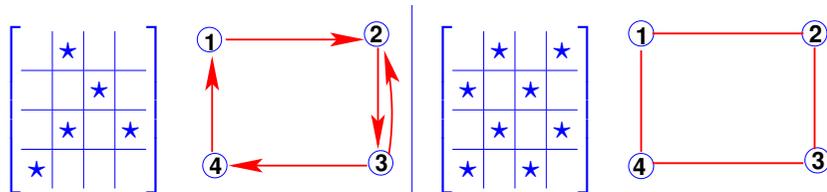
Graph Representations of Sparse Matrices. Recall:

Adjacency Graph $G = (V, E)$ of an $n \times n$ matrix A :

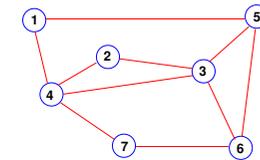
$$V = \{1, 2, \dots, N\} \quad E = \{(i, j) | a_{ij} \neq 0\}$$

- G == undirected if A has a symmetric pattern

Example:



-  Show the matrix pattern for the graph on the right and give an interpretation of the path v_4, v_2, v_3, v_5, v_1 on the matrix



- A separator is a set Y of vertices such that the graph G_{X-Y} is disconnected.

Example: $Y = \{v_3, v_4, v_5\}$ is a separator in the above figure

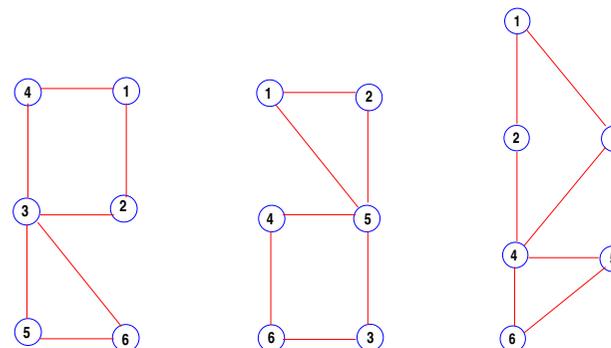
Example: Adjacency graph of:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} & * & & * & & & \\ * & & * & & & & \\ & * & & * & * & * & \\ * & & * & & & & \\ & & * & & & & * \\ & & * & & * & & \\ & & * & & & * & \end{bmatrix}.$$

Example: For any adjacency matrix A , what is the graph of A^2 ? [interpret in terms of paths in the graph of A]

➤ Two graphs are **isomorphic** if there is a mapping between the vertices of the two graphs that preserves adjacency.

📐 Are the following 3 graphs isomorphic? If yes find the mappings between them.



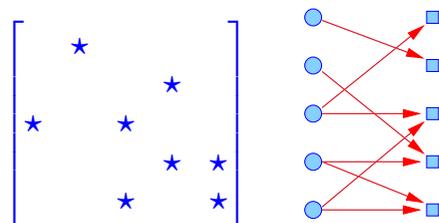
➤ Graphs are identical – labels are different

Bipartite graph representation

➤ Each row is represented by a vertex; Each column is represented by a vertex.

➤ Relations only between rows and columns: Row i is connected to column j if $a_{ij} \neq 0$

Example:



➤ Bipartite models used only for specific cases [e.g. rectangular matrices, ...] - By default we use the standard definition of graphs.

Interpretation of graphs of matrices

📐 In which of the following cases is the underlying physical mesh the same as the graph of A (in the sense that edges are the same):

- Finite difference mesh [consider the simple case of 5-pt and 7-pt FD problems - then 9-point meshes.]
- Finite element mesh with linear elements (e.g. triangles)?
- Finite element mesh with other types of elements? [to answer this question you would have to know more about higher order elements]

📐 What is the graph of $A + B$ (for two $n \times n$ matrices)?

📐 What is the graph of A^T ?

📐 What is the graph of $A \cdot B$?

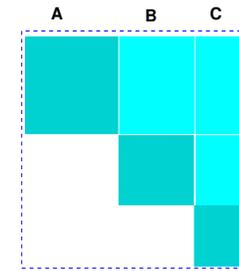
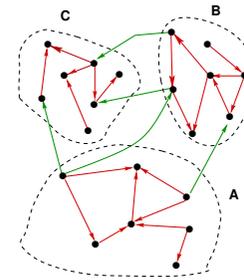
Paths in graphs

What is the graph of A^k ?

Theorem Let A be the adjacency matrix of a graph $G = (V, E)$. Then for $k \geq 0$ and vertices u and v of G , the number of paths of length k starting at u and ending at v is equal to $(A^k)_{u,v}$.

Proof: Proof is by induction. ■

- Recall (definition): A matrix is *reducible* if it can be permuted into a block upper triangular matrix.
- Note: A matrix is reducible iff its adjacency graph is not (strongly) connected, i.e., iff it has more than one connected component.



- No edges from A to B or C . No edges from B to C .

Theorem: Perron-Frobenius An irreducible, nonnegative $n \times n$ matrix A has a real, positive eigenvalue λ_1 such that:

- λ_1 is a simple eigenvalue of A ;
- λ_1 admits a positive eigenvector u_1 ; and
- $|\lambda_i| \leq \lambda_1$ for all other eigenvalues λ_i where $i > 1$.

- The spectral radius is equal to the eigenvalue λ_1

- Definition : a graph is d regular if each vertex has the same degree d .

Proposition: The spectral radius of a d regular graph is equal to d .

Proof: The vector e of all ones is an eigenvector of A associated with the eigenvalue $\lambda = d$. In addition this eigenvalue is the largest possible (consider the infinity norm of A). Therefore e is the Perron-Frobenius vector u_1 . ■

Application: Markov Chains

- Read about Markov Chains in Sect. 10.9 of: https://www-users.cs.umn.edu/~saad/eig_book_2ndEd.pdf
- The stationary probability satisfies the equation:

$$\pi P = \pi$$

Where π is a row vector.

- P is the probability transition matrix and it is 'stochastic':

A matrix P is said to be *stochastic* if :

- $p_{ij} \geq 0$ for all i, j
- $\sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij} = 1$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$
- No column of P is a zero column.

- Spectral radius is ≤ 1 [Why?]
- Assume P is irreducible. Then:
- Perron Frobenius $\rightarrow \rho(P) = 1$ is an eigenvalue and associated eigenvector has positive entries.
- Probabilities are obtained by scaling π by its sum.
- Example: One of the 2 models used for page rank.

Example: A college Fraternity has 50 students at various stages of college (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior). There are 6 potential stages for the following year: Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior, graduated, or left-without degree. Following table gives probability of transitions from one stage to next

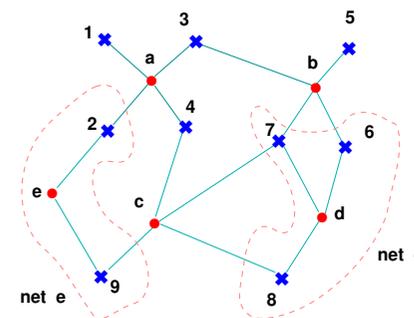
To From	Fr	So.	Ju.	Sr.	Grad	lwd
Fr.	.2	0	0	0	0	0
So.	.6	.1	0	0	0	0
Ju.	0	.7	.1	0	0	0
Sr.	0	0	.8	.1	0	0
Grad	0	0	0	.75	1	0
lwd	.2	.2	.1	.15	0	1

 What is P ? Assume initial population is $x_0 = [10, 16, 12, 12, 0, 0]$ and do a follow the population for a few years. What is the probability that a student will graduate? What is the probability that he leave without a degree?

A few words about hypergraphs

- Hypergraphs are very general.. Ideas borrowed from VLSI work
- Main motivation: to better represent communication volumes when partitioning a graph. Standard models face many limitations
- Hypergraphs can better express complex graph partitioning problems and provide better solutions.
- Example: completely nonsymmetric patterns ...
- .. Even rectangular matrices. Best illustration: Hypergraphs are ideal for **text data**

Example: $V = \{1, \dots, 9\}$ and $E = \{a, \dots, e\}$ with $a = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $b = \{3, 5, 6, 7\}$, $c = \{4, 7, 8, 9\}$, $d = \{6, 7, 8\}$, and $e = \{2, 9\}$



Boolean matrix:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
a	1	1	1	1						
b			1		1	1	1			
c				1			1	1	1	
d						1	1	1		
e	1									1