# Graph Theory: <br> Basic Notions 

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## 1 Graphs

Definition 1.1. A directed graph $G(V, E)$, or digraph, is given by a nonempty set of nodes $V$ and a set of arcs (or edges) $E \subseteq V \times V$.

Notice that this allows loops (arcs $(i, i)$ with $i \in V)$ and that $(i, j) \neq(j, i)$. The maximum number of arcs of a directed graph is $n^{2}$ where $n=|V|$.

Definition 1.2. An (undirected) graph $G(V, E)$ is given by a nonempty set of vertices (or nodes) $V$ and a set of edges $E \subseteq\binom{V}{2}$ where $\binom{V}{2}=\{\{i, j\}: i \in V, j \in V, i \neq j\}$.

Notice that this does not allow loops and that $\{i, j\}=\{j, i\}$. The maximum number of edges of a graph is $\left|\binom{V}{2}\right|=\binom{n}{2}=n(n-1) / 2$ where $n=|V|$.
If $e=\{a, b\} \in E$ then $a$ and $b$ are adjacent or neighbors in $G$. The edge $e$ is incident to $a$ and $b ; a$ and $b$ are the endpoints of $e$. Two different edges $e, e^{\prime}$ are incident if they share an endpoint.

For a directed graph, if $e=(a, b) \in E$ then $a$ is the tail of $e$ and $b$ is the head of $e$.
Example 1.3. The complete graph (clique) $K_{n}$ on $n$ vertices has $|V|=n$ and $E=\binom{V}{2}$. It has $n(n-1) / 2$ edges. The graph $K_{3}$ is also called a triangle.

Definition 1.4. A graph is bipartite if there exist $V_{1}, V_{2} \subseteq V$ such that $V_{1} \cup V_{2}=V, V_{1} \cap V_{2}=\emptyset$, and no edge in $E$ has both endpoints in $V_{1}$ or both endpoints in $V_{2}$.

Example 1.5. The complete bipartite graph (bipartite clique) $K_{p, q}$ has $V=V_{1} \cup V_{2}, V_{1} \cap V_{2}=\emptyset$, $\left|V_{1}\right|=p,\left|V_{2}\right|=q, E=\left\{\{i, j\}: i \in V_{1}, j \in V_{2}\right\}$. It has $p q$ edges.

The degree of a vertex $v$ in $G$, denoted $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(v)$ or simply $\operatorname{deg}(v)$, is the number of edges incident to $v$. For a directed graph we have two quantities, the out-degree $\operatorname{deg}^{+}(v)$ and in-degree $\operatorname{deg}^{-}(v)$, which count the arcs leaving $v$ and entering $v$, respectively.

Lemma 1.1 (Handshaking lemma). $\sum_{v \in V} \operatorname{deg}(v)=2|E|$.
Proof. In the sum, every edge is counted exactly twice.

Very often, the letters $n$ and $m$ are used to denote the number of nodes and number of arcs of $G$, respectively. Any reasonable description of the graph should not use more than $O(n+m)$ words of memory (assuming that each node identifier fits in a single word, that is, the number of bits in a word is more than $\left.\log _{2} n\right)$.
Many interesting graphs are sparse, that is, they satisfy $m \ll n^{2}$. So it may be possible to represent a sparse graph with much fewer than $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ words.

## 2 Subgraphs

By "removing" nodes and/or edges from a graph we obtain a subgraph. If we only remove nodes (and edges incident to them, but nothing else) we obtain an induced subgraph. If we only remove edges, we obtain a spanning subgraph. The formal definitions follow.

Definition 2.1. Let $G(V, E)$ be a graph. For $V^{\prime} \subseteq V$, let $E \mid V^{\prime}=\left\{\{a, b\} \in E: a \in V^{\prime}, b \in V^{\prime}\right\}$.

- A graph of the form $G^{\prime}\left(V^{\prime}, E \mid V^{\prime}\right)$ is an induced subgraph of $G$ (it is induced by $V^{\prime}$ ).
- A graph of the form $G^{\prime}\left(V^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right)$ with $V^{\prime} \subseteq V, E^{\prime} \subseteq E \mid V^{\prime}$ is a subgraph of $G$.
- A graph of the form $G^{\prime}\left(V, E^{\prime}\right)$ with $E^{\prime} \subseteq E$ is a spanning subgraph of $G$.


## 3 Walks, paths and cycles

A walk on graph $G(V, E)$ is a sequence $x_{1}, e_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{p-1}, e_{p-1}, x_{p}$ (for some $p \geq 1$ ) with $x_{i} \in V$ for all $1 \leq i \leq p, e_{i}=\left\{x_{i}, x_{i+1}\right\} \in E$ for all $1 \leq i \leq p-1$.

- The endpoints of the walk are $x_{1}$ and $x_{p}$.
- The length of the walk is $p-1$.
- The walk is closed if $x_{p}=x_{1}$.

A path is a walk for which the $e_{i}$ are distinct and the $x_{i}$ are distinct.
A cycle is a closed walk for which the $e_{i}$ are distinct and all the $x_{i}$ are distinct except for $x_{p}=x_{1}$.
The definitions can be easily extended to directed graphs by requiring that the direction of the walk is consistent with the direction of the arcs traversed by it.

A graph is acyclic if it contains no cycle; otherwise it is cyclic.
Whether a directed graph is acyclic or not can be determined in time $O(n+m)$, by running a complete postorder depth-first visit of the graph and marking nodes with the "time" they are visited. Say that node $u$ gets the index $t_{u}$. If there is an $\operatorname{arc}(u, v)$ with $t_{u}<t_{v}$, then the graph has a cycle. Otherwise, the timestamps give a topological order of the nodes: a mapping $t: V \rightarrow\{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that, if $t_{u}<t_{v}$, then there is no arc from $u$ to $v$. Topological orders are certificates of acyclicity and can be used to speed up algorithms for directed acyclic graphs.

Exercise 3.1. Show that if $G$ has a topological order, then it is acyclic.

## 4 Connectivity and distances

Node $u \in V$ is connected to node $v \in V$ (equivalently, $v$ is reachable from $u$ ) if there is a path from $u$ to $v$.

A (directed) graph is (strongly) connected if for every $u, v \in V, u$ is connected to $v$.
Note that in any connected graph, $m \geq n-1$ (why?) and so, for example, $O(n+m)$ can be shortened to $O(m)$ for connected graphs.

Whether a graph is connected or not can be determined in time $O(n+m)$, by performing a visit of the graph from an arbitrary node: if not all nodes are visited, the graph must be disconnected. For directed graphs, determining strong connectivity also costs $O(n+m)$ : from an arbitrary starting node, we perform both a "forward" visit (on the original graph) and a "backward" visit of the "reverse" graph, obtained by replacing each arc $(u, v)$ by $(v, u)$. The original graph is strongly connected if and only if all the nodes are touched by both visits.
A connected component of $G$ is an induced subgraph that is connected and maximal, that is, not properly contained in any connected induced subgraph of $G$.
The out-component of node $u$ in a digraph is the set of nodes reachable from $u$ (including $u$ ). Similarly, the in-component of node $v$ is the set of nodes from which $v$ can be reached (including $v$ ).

The strongly connected component of node $u$ is the intersection of the out-component of $u$ and the in-component of $u$ (why?).

The connected components of an undirected graph can be determined in linear time by an exhaustive visit of the graph. For directed graphs, there is also a linear time algorithm to determine the strongly connected components, but it is slightly more complicated and requires two distinct visits (Kosaraju's algorithm).

## Kosaraju's algorithm for finding strong components in digraphs

1. Given $G$, construct its reverse graph $G^{R}$ (each arc $(u, v)$ in $G$ becomes $(v, u)$ in $\left.G^{R}\right)$.
2. Construct the node ordering $\sigma$ given by a reverse post-order depth-first search of $G^{R}$.
3. Use the ordering $\sigma$ to perform a complete depth-first search of $G$. Each set of nodes visited in an outer DFS call is a strongly connected component of $G$.

Example 4.1. Consider the graph in the right part of the following figure.


The reversed graph is depicted on the left. The post-order sequence of nodes, after being reversed, is 1023411912106785 . The third step of the algorithm yields the strongly connected components: $\{1\},\{0,5,4,3,2\},\{11,12,9,10\},\{6\},\{7,8\}$.

A tree is an undirected graph that is connected and acyclic. A tree on $n$ nodes has $n-1$ edges.
A forest is an undirected graph that is acyclic. Each connected component of a forest is a tree.
If $u$ is connected to $v$, a shortest path from $u$ to $v$ is a path from $u$ to $v$ of minimum length.
The distance $d(u, v)$ from $u$ to $v$ is the length of a shortest path from $u$ to $v$.
The distance from $u$ to all other nodes of the graph can be computed in linear time with a single breadth-first search from $u$.

The diameter of a graph is

$$
D=\max _{u, v \in V: u \text { is connected to } v} d(u, v) .
$$

Determining exactly the diameter of a graph can be costly. After ensuring that the graph is connected, we can, by using $n$ breadth-first searches (one from every node) determine all distances between pairs of nodes (and therefore, the diameter) in $O(m n)$ time. However, if we only need a rough estimate of the diameter, we can run a breadth-first search visit from an arbitrary node $u$ : if the highest distance from $u$ to any other node is $B$, then $B \leq D \leq 2 B$. Therefore, approximating the diameter within a factor of two costs $O(n+m)$ time.

Exercise 4.1. Prove that in the special case when $G$ is a tree, the diameter can be computed in linear time.

Exercise 4.2 (Open research problem!). Find an efficient algorithm that computes a value $B$ such that $B \leq D \leq 1.1 B$. The algorithm should be asymptotically faster than $O(m n)$.

