

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.

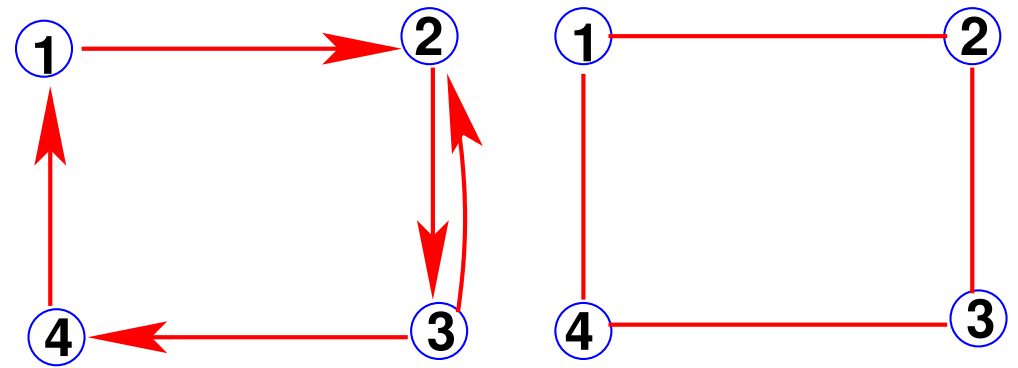
If R is a binary relation between elements in V then, we can represent it by a graph $G = (V, E)$ as follows:


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

Undirected graph \leftrightarrow symmetric relation

Left: (1 R 2); (4 R 1); (2 R 3); (3 R 2); (3 R 4)

Right: (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

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;
- ...

Basic Terminology & notation:

- If $(u, v) \in E$, then v is **adjacent** to u . The edge (u, v) is **incident** to u and v .
- If the graph is directed, then (u, v) is an **outgoing** edge from u and **incoming** edge to v
- $Adj(i) = \{j | j \text{ adjacent to } i\}$
- The **degree** of a vertex v is the number of edges incident to v . Can also define the **indegree** and **outdegree**. (Sometimes self-edge $i \rightarrow i$ omitted)
- $|S|$ is the cardinality of set S [so $|Adj(i)| == \text{deg}(i)$]
- A **subgraph** $G' = (V', E')$ of G is a graph with $V' \subset V$ and $E' \subset E$.

Representations of Graphs

- A graph is nothing but a collection of vertices (indices from 1 to n), each with a set of its adjacent vertices [in effect a 'sparse matrix without values']
- Therefore, can use any of the sparse matrix storage formats - omit the real values arrays.

Adjacency matrix Assume $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Then the **adjacency matrix** of $G = (V, E)$ is the $n \times n$ matrix, with entries:

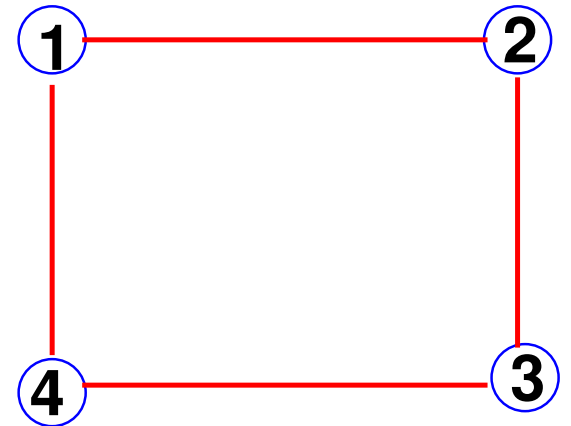
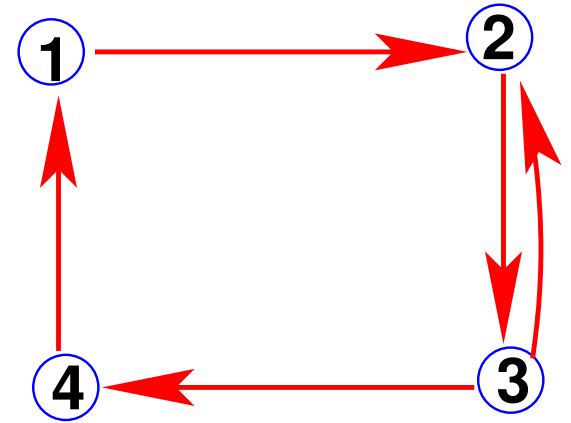
$$a_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i, j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Representations of Graphs (cont.)

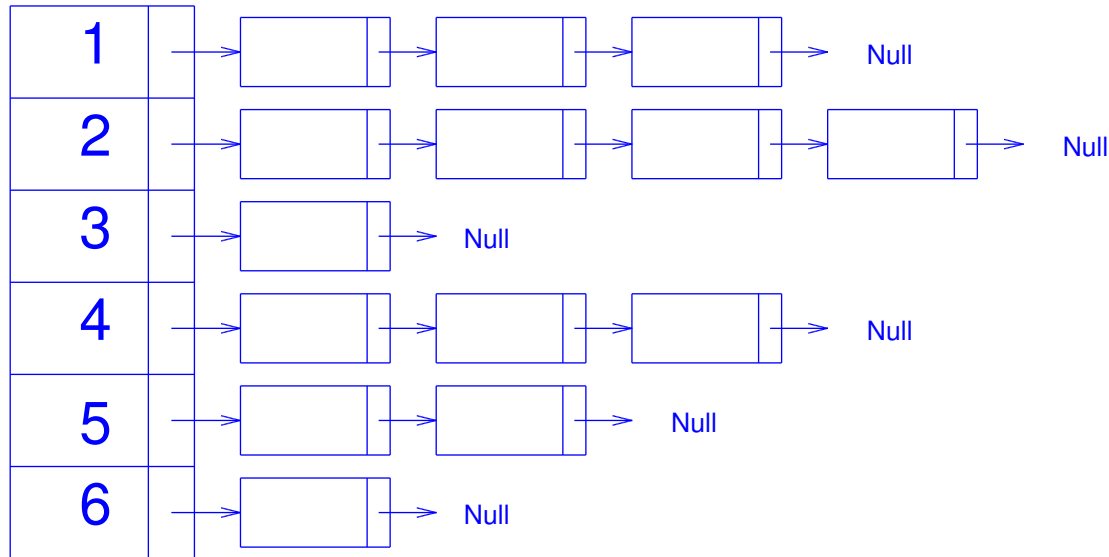
Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} & 1 & & \\ & & 1 & \\ 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} & 1 & & 1 \\ 1 & & 1 & \\ & 1 & & 1 \\ 1 & & 1 & \end{bmatrix}$$



Dynamic representation: Linked lists

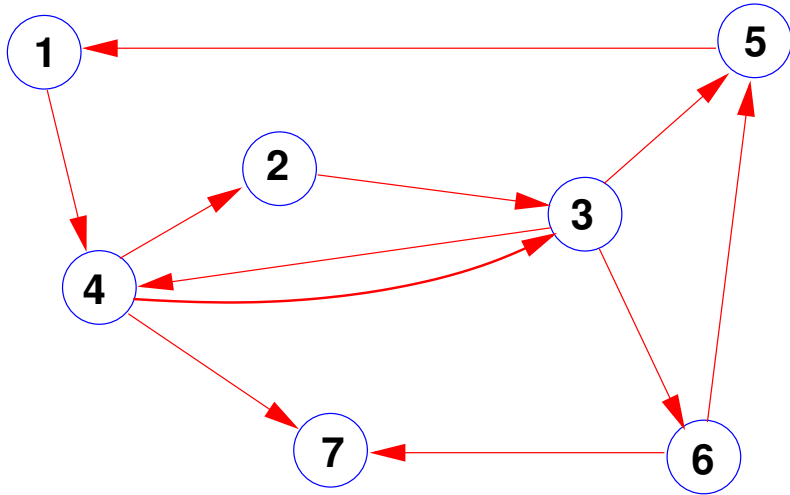


- An array of linked lists. A linked list associated with vertex i , contains all the vertices adjacent to vertex i .
- General and concise for 'sparse graphs' (the most practical situations) - but not economical for use in sparse matrix methods

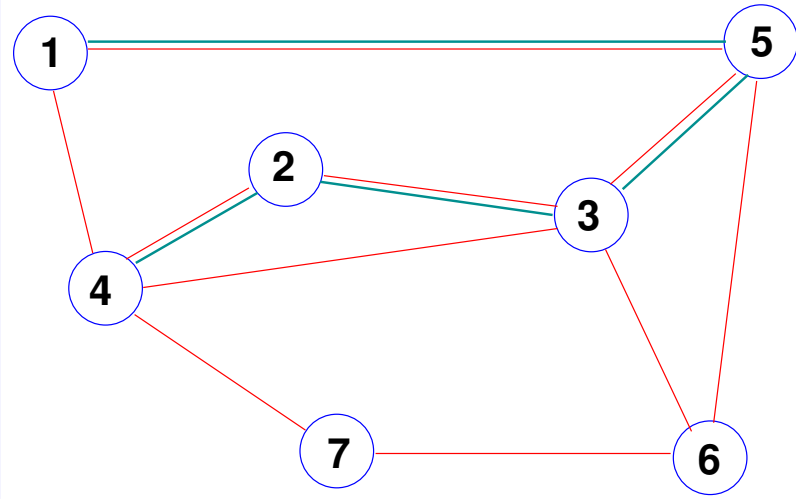
More terminology & notation

- 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.

 2 Find cycles in this graph:

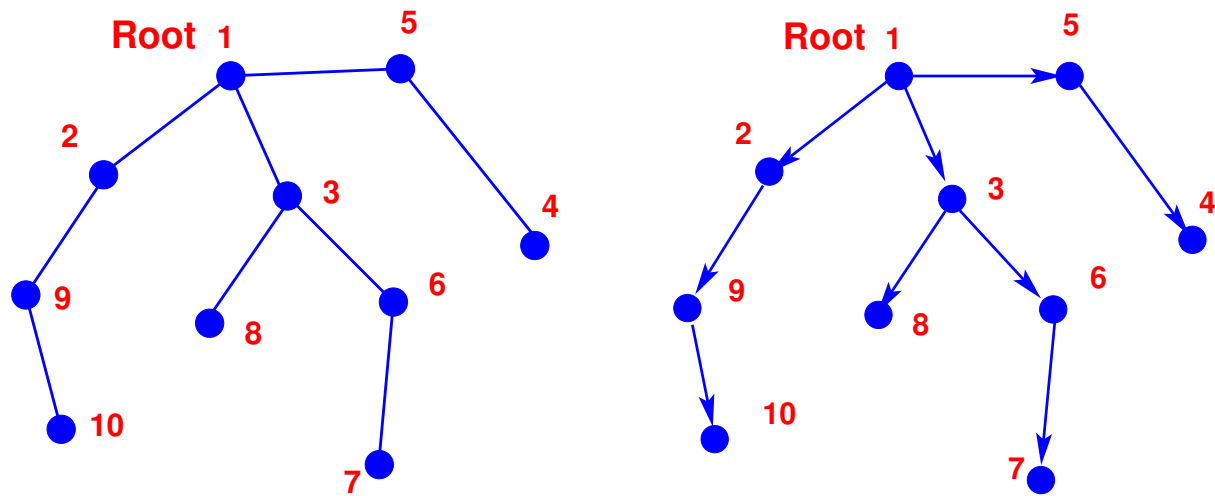


A path in an undirected graph



- 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**

- 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



- 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, ...

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

Graph Traversals – Depth First Search

- Issue: systematic way of visiting all nodes of a **general** graph
- Two basic methods: Breadth First Search (will see later) & ...

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

- Depth-First Search

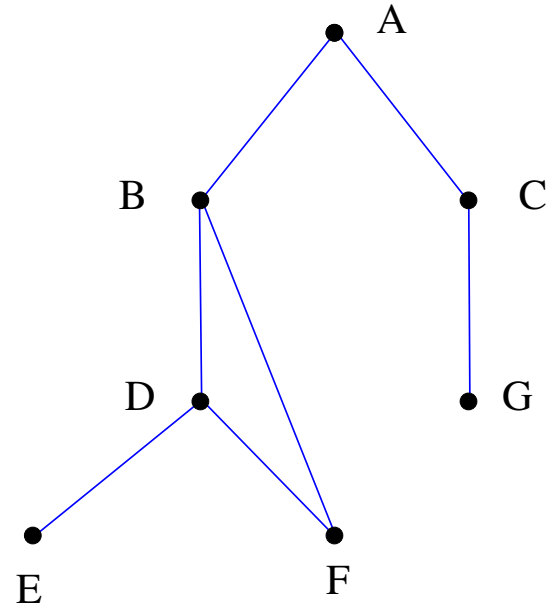
- Visit and Mark v ;
- for all edges (v, w) do
 - if w is not marked then $List = DFS(G, w)$
 - Add v to top of list produced above

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

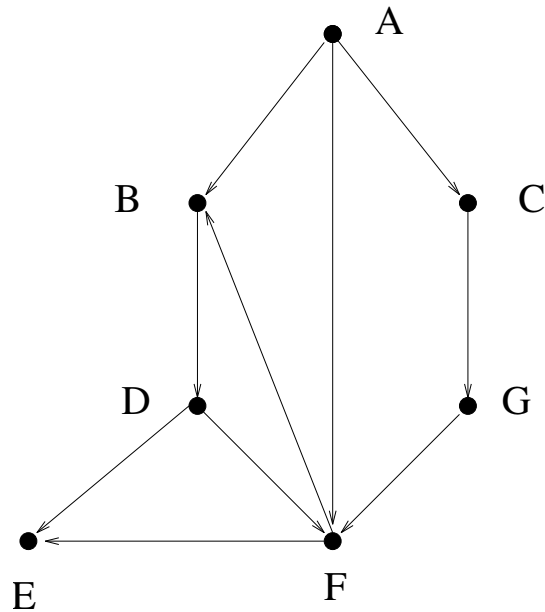
Depth First Search – undirected graph example

➤ Assume adjacent nodes are listed in alphabetical order.

 3 DFS traversal from A ?



Depth First Search – directed graph example



➤ Assume adjacent nodes are listed in alphabetical order.

 4 DFS traversal from A?

NOTE: We will now use a column-oriented graph representation:

$$j \rightarrow i \quad \text{if} \quad a_{ij} \neq 0$$


```

function [Lst, Mark] = dfs(u, A, Lst, Mark)
%% function [Lst, Mark] = dfs(u, A, Lst, Mark)
%% dfs from node u  -- Recursive
%%-----
[ii, jj, rr] = find(A(:,u));
Mark(u) = 1;
for k=1:length(ii)
    v = ii(k);
    if (~Mark(v))
        [Lst, Mark] = dfs(v, A, Lst, Mark);
    end
end
Lst = [u,Lst]

```

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.

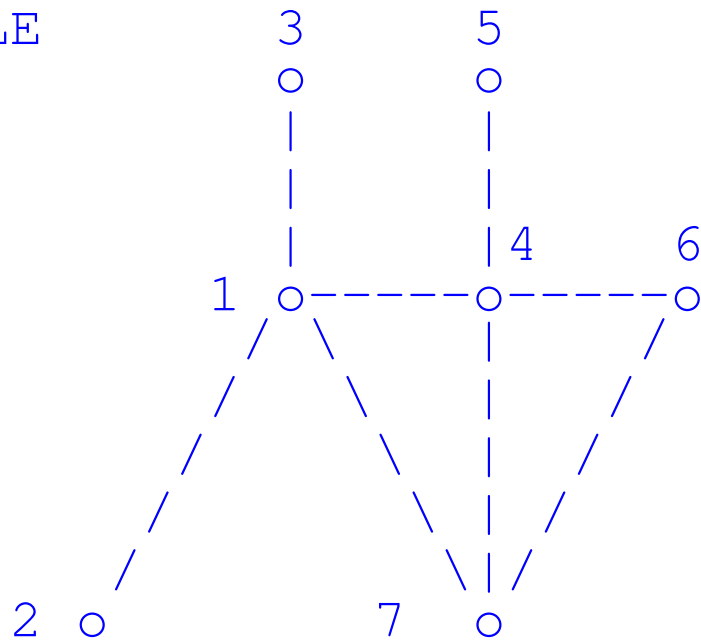
- To traverse all the graph we need a DFS(v, G) from each node v that has not been visited yet – so add another loop. Refer to this as

DFS(G)

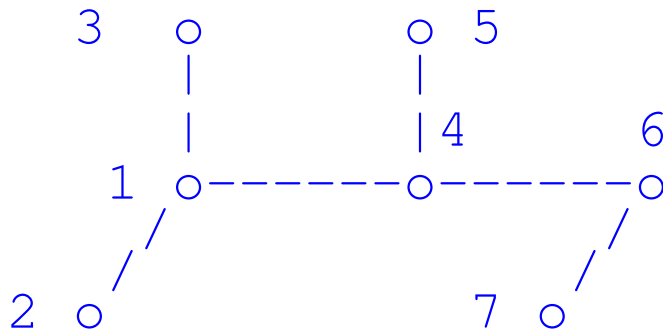
- When a new vertex is visited in DFS, some work is done. Example: we can build a stack of nodes visited to show order (reverse order: easier) in which the node is visited.

EXAMPLE

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

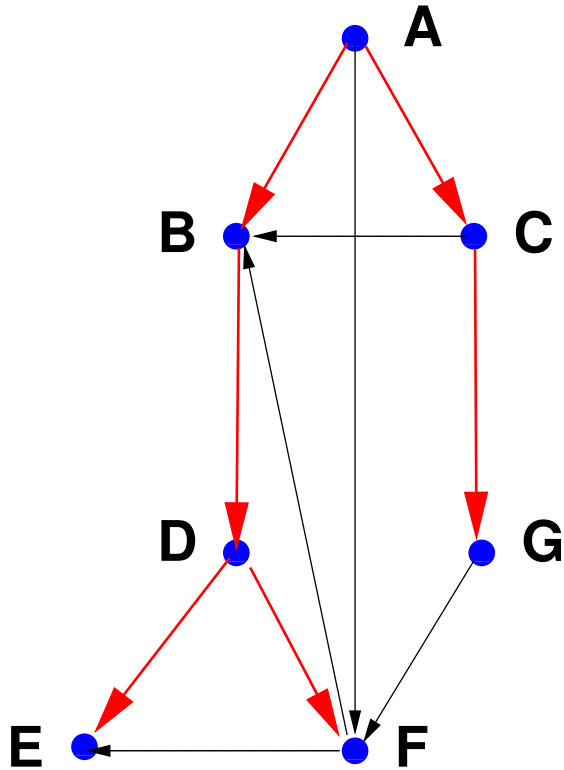


DFS traversal: 1 --> 2 --> 3 --> 4 --> 5 --> 6 --> 7
Parents list: 1 1 1 1 4 4 6



<----- Depth First Search Tree

Back edges, forward edges, and cross edges



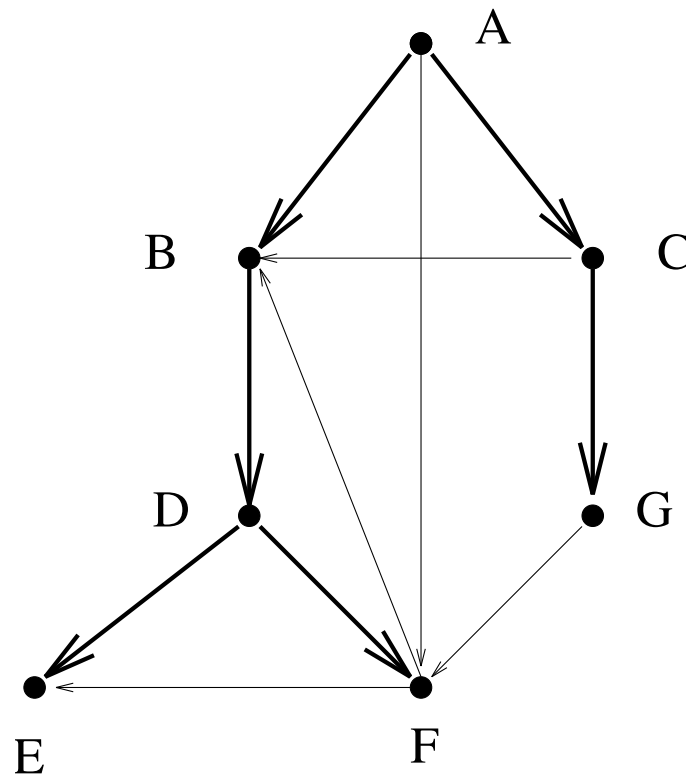
- Thick red lines: DFS traversal tree from A
- $A \rightarrow F$ is a Forward edge
- $F \rightarrow B$ is a Back edge
- $C \rightarrow B$ and $G \rightarrow F$ are Cross-edges.

➤ Consider the 'List' produced by DFS.

Lst=[A, C, G, B, D, F, E]

➤ Order in list is important for some algorithms

➤ Notice: Label nodes in List from 1 to n . Then:



● Tree-edges / Forward edges : labels increase in \rightarrow

● Cross edges : labels in/de-crease in \rightarrow [depends on labeling]

● Back-edges : labels decrease in \rightarrow

Properties of Depth First Search

- If G is a connected undirected (or strongly 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**

Topological Sort

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;
- ...

Topological Sorting: A first algorithm

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

 5 Prove this

- First label these vertices as $1, 2, \dots, k$;
- 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..

Algorithm:

 6 Explore implementation aspects.

Alternative method: 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

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**

7 Explore implementation issue

8 Implement in matlab

9 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: back propagation*

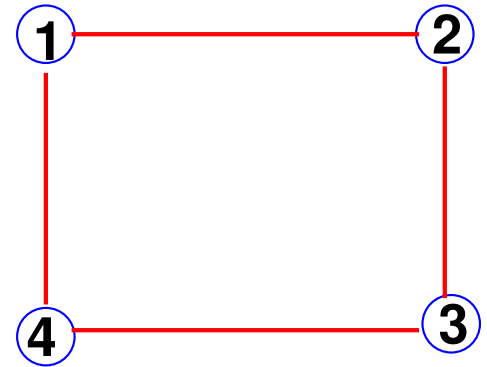
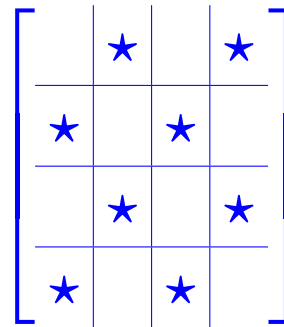
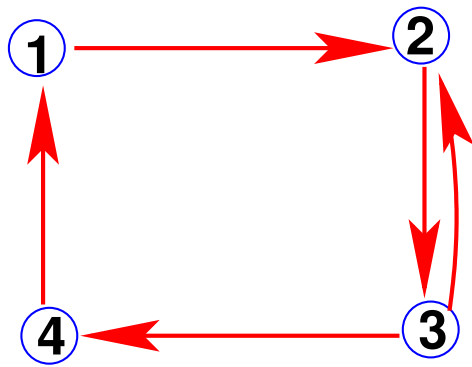
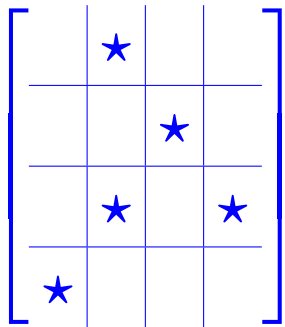
Graph Representations of Sparse Matrices. Recall:

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

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

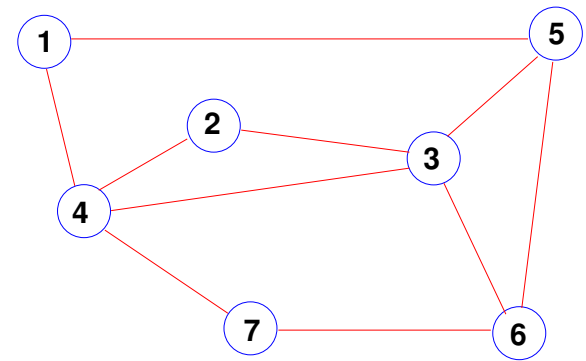
➤ $G \Rightarrow$ undirected if A has a symmetric pattern

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

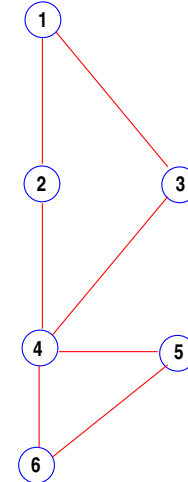
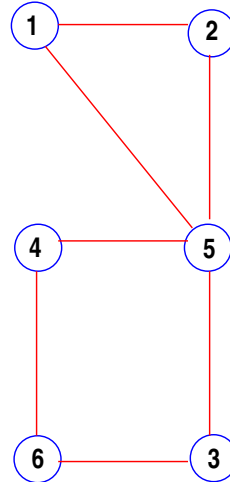
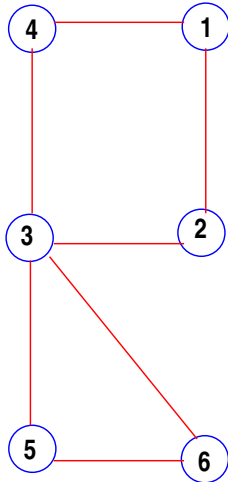
Example: Adjacency graph of:

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

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.

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



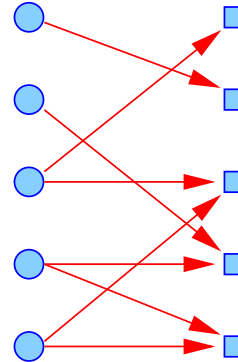
- Graphs are identical – labels are different
- Determining graph isomorphism is a **hard** problem

Bipartite graph representation

- Rows and columns are (both) represented by vertices;
- Relations only between rows and columns: Row i is connected to column j if $a_{ij} \neq 0$


Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} & \star & & & \\ & & & \star & \\ \star & & \star & & \\ & & & \star & \star \\ & & \star & & \star \end{bmatrix}$$



- 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

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

 13 What is the graph of A^T ?

 14 What is the graph of $A.B$?

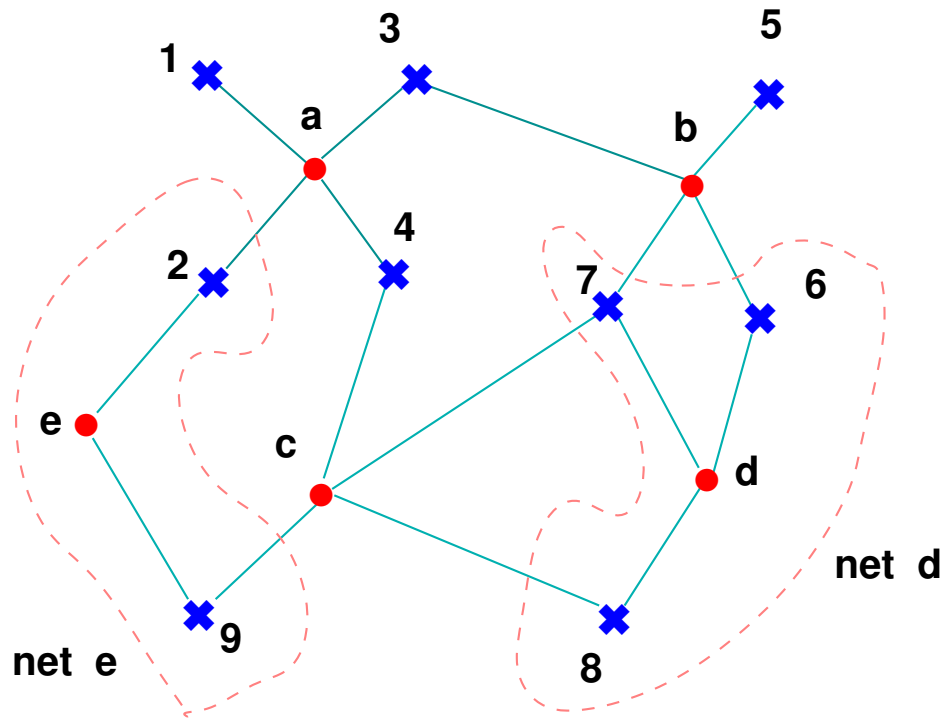
A few words on hypergraphs

- 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 $e = \{2, 9\}$

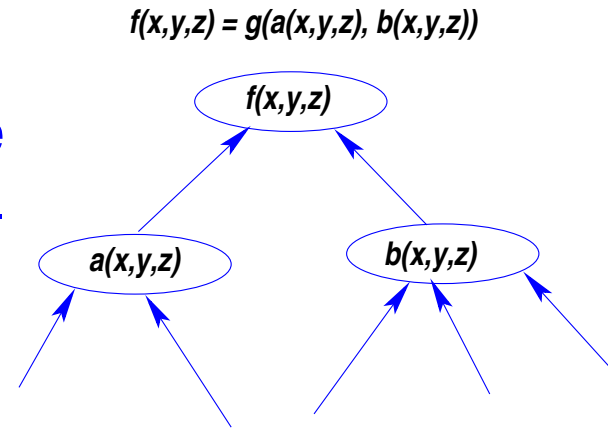


Boolean matrix:

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

A few words on computational graphs

➤ Computational graphs: graphs where nodes represent computations whose evaluation depend on other (incoming) nodes.



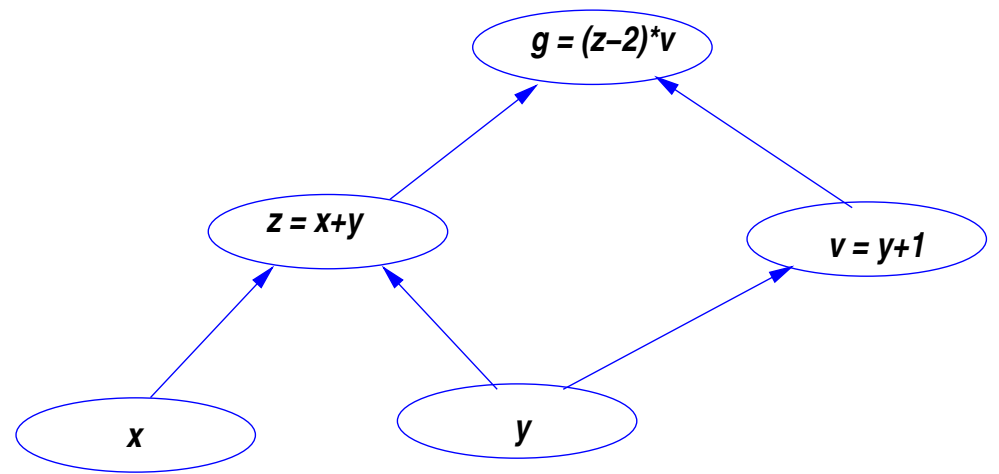
➤ Consider the following expression:

$$g(x, y) = (x + y - 2) * (y + 1)$$

We can decompose this as

$$\begin{cases} z = x + y \\ v = y + 1 \\ g = (z - 2) * v \end{cases}$$

- Computational graph →
- Given x, y we want:
 - Evaluate the nodes and
 - derivatives w.r.t x, y



(a) is trivial - just follow the graph up - starting from the leaves (that contain x and y)

(b): Use the chain rule – here shown for x only using previous setting

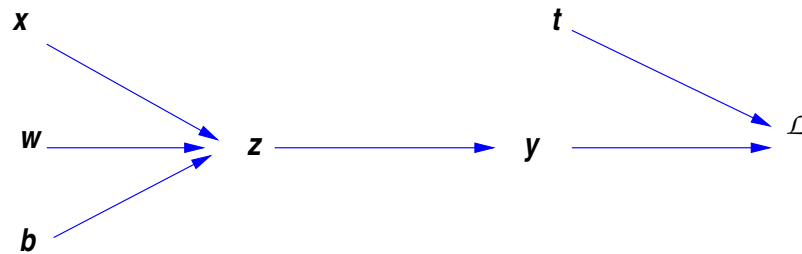
$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial g}{\partial a} \frac{da}{dx} + \frac{\partial g}{\partial b} \frac{db}{dx}$$

 15 For the above example compute values and derivatives at all nodes when $x = -1, y = 2$.

Back-Propagation

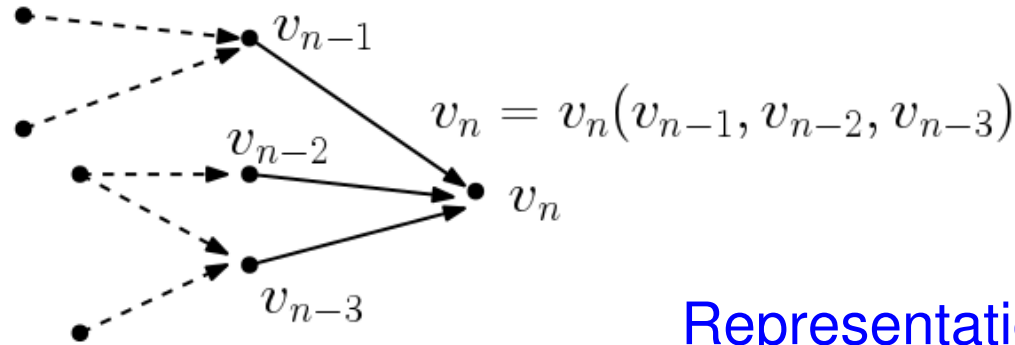
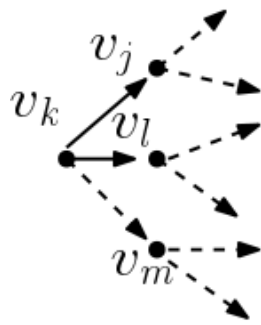
- Often we want to compute the gradient of the function at the root, once the nodes have been evaluated
- The derivatives can be calculated by going backward (or down the tree)
- Here is a very simple example from Neural Networks

$$\begin{cases} L = \frac{1}{2}(y - t)^2 \\ y = \sigma(z) \\ z = wx + b \end{cases}$$



- Note that t (desired output) and x (input) are constant.

Back-Propagation: General computational graphs



Representation: **a DAG**

- Last node (v_n) is the target function. Let us rename it f .
- Nodes $v_i, i = 1, \dots, e$ with indegree 0 are the variables
- Want to compute $\partial f / \partial v_1, \partial f / \partial v_2, \dots, \partial f / \partial v_e$

- Use the chain rule.

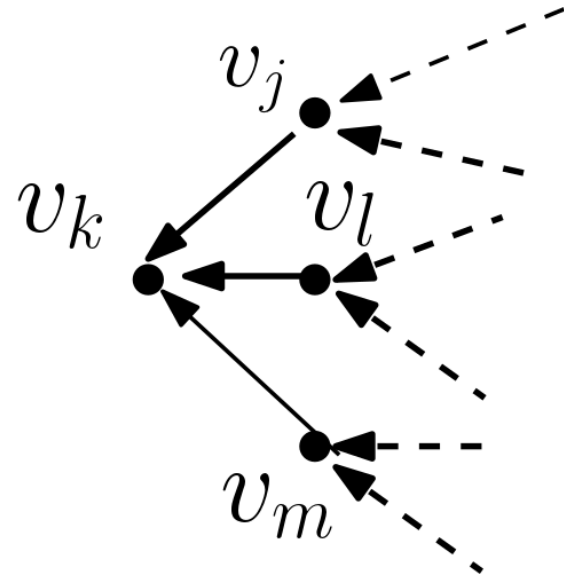
→

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_k} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_j} \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_k} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_l} \frac{\partial v_l}{\partial v_k} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_m} \frac{\partial v_m}{\partial v_k}$$

- Let $\delta_k = \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_k}$ (called ‘errors’). Then

$$\delta_k = \delta_j \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_k} + \delta_l \frac{\partial v_l}{\partial v_k} + \delta_m \frac{\partial v_m}{\partial v_k}$$

- To compute the δ_k ’s once the v_j ’s have been computed (in a ‘forward’ propagation) – proceed backward.
- $\delta_j, \delta_l, \delta_m$ available and $\partial v_i / \partial v_k$ computable. Note $\delta_n \equiv 1$.



- However: cannot just do this in any order. Must follow a **topological order** in order to obey dependencies.

Example:

