

1

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Graphs

- A graph is a pair (*V*, *E*), where
 - V is a set of nodes, called vertices
 - *E* is a collection of pairs of vertices, called edges
 - Vertices and edges are objects and store elements
- Example:
 - A vertex represents an airport and stores the three-letter airport code
 - An edge represents a flight route between two airports and stores the mileage of the route



Edge Types

- Directed edge
 - ordered pair of vertices (*u*,*v*)
 - first vertex *u* is the origin
 - second vertex v is the destination
 - e.g., a flight
- Undirected edge
 - unordered pair of vertices (*u*,*v*)
 - e.g., a flight route
- Directed graph (digraph)
 - all the edges are directed
 - e.g., flight network
- Undirected graph
 - all the edges are undirected
 - e.g., route network





Applications

- Electronic circuits
 - Printed circuit board
 - Integrated circuit
- Transportation networks
 - Highway network
 - Flight network
- Computer networks
 - Local area network
 - Internet
 - Web
- Databases
 - Entity-relationship diagram



Graphs

Terminology

- End vertices (or endpoints) of an edge
 - U and V are the endpoints of a
- Edges incident on a vertex
 - a, d, and b are incident on V
- Adjacent vertices
 - U and V are adjacent
- Degree of a vertex
 - X has degree 5
- Parallel edges
 - h and i are parallel edges
- Self-loop
 - j is a self-loop



Terminology: Directed Graphs

For directed graphs:

- Origin of an edge
- Destination of an edge
- Outgoing edge
- Incoming edge
- Out-degree of vertex v: number of outgoing edges of v
- In-degree of vertex v: number of incoming edges of v



Paths

Path

- sequence of alternating vertices and edges
- begins with a vertex
- ends with a vertex
- each edge is preceded and followed by its endpoints
- Path length
 - the total number of edges on the path
- Simple path
 - path such that all vertices are distinct (except that the first and last could be the same)
- Examples
 - P₁=(V,b,X,h,Z) is a simple path
 - P₂=(U,c,W,e,X,g,Y,f,W,d,V) is a path that is not simple



7

Cycles

- Cycle
 - circular sequence of alternating vertices and edges
 - each edge is preceded and followed by its endpoints
- Simple cycle
 - cycle such that all its vertices are distinct (except the first and the last)
- Examples
 - C₁=(V,b,X,g,Y,f,W,c,U,a,V) is a simple cycle
 - C₂=(U,c,W,e,X,g,Y,f,W,d,V,a,U) is a cycle that is not simple
- A directed graph is *acyclic* if it has no cycles ⇒ called DAG (directed acyclic graph)



Properties of Undirected Graphs

Property 1 Notation $\Sigma_{v} \deg(v) = 2E$ Vnumber of vertices Proof: each edge is counted twice number of edges E Property 2 degree of vertex v deg(v)Example In an undirected graph with no loops $\bigcirc V = 4$ $\mathbf{E} \leq \mathbf{V} \left(\mathbf{V} - 1 \right) / 2$ $\bigcirc E = 6$ Proof: each vertex has $\bigcirc \deg(v) = 3$ degree at most (V-1)What is the bound for a directed graph?

Connectivity – Undirected Graphs



connected not connected

 An undirected graph is *connected* if there is a path from every vertex to every other vertex.

Connectivity – Directed Graphs

- A directed graph is called *strongly connected* if there is a path from every vertex to every other vertex.
- If a directed graph is not strongly connected, but the corresponding undirected graph is connected, then the directed graph is said to be *weakly connected*.



GRAPH ADT AND DATA STRUCTURES

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Vertices and Edges

- A graph is a collection of vertices and edges.
- We model the abstraction as a combination of three data types: Vertex, Edge, and Graph.
- A vertex is a lightweight object that stores an arbitrary element provided by the user (e.g., an airport code)
 - We assume it supports a method, element(), to retrieve the stored element.
- An edge stores an associated object (e.g., a flight number, travel distance, cost), retrieved with the element() method.

		Graphs	14
Graph ADT	numVertices():	Returns the number of vertices of	f the graph.
Giapit ADT	vertices():	Returns an iteration of all the ver	tices of the graph.
	numEdges():	Returns the number of edges of t	he graph.
	edges():	Returns an iteration of all the edg	ges of the graph.
	getEdge(u, v):	Returns the edge from vertex u otherwise return null. For an und difference between getEdge(u , v	to vertex v , if one exists; lirected graph, there is no) and getEdge(v , u).
	endVertices(e):	Returns an array containing the edge <i>e</i> . If the graph is directed, the and the second is the destination.	two endpoint vertices of ne first vertex is the origin
	opposite(v, e):	For edge e incident to vertex v , r the edge; an error occurs if e is n	eturns the other vertex of ot incident to <i>v</i> .
	outDegree(v):	Returns the number of outgoing of	edges from vertex v.
	inDegree(v):	Returns the number of incoming an undirected graph, this returns outDegree(v).	g edges to vertex v. For s the same value as does
	outgoingEdges(v):	Returns an iteration of all outgoin	ng edges from vertex v.
	incomingEdges(v):	Returns an iteration of all incomis an undirected graph, this return does $outgoingEdges(v)$.	ing edges to vertex v. For is the same collection as
	insertVertex(x):	Creates and returns a new Vertex	storing element <i>x</i> .
	insertEdge (u, v, x) :	Creates and returns a new Edge x storing element x ; an error occurs edge from u to v .	from vertex u to vertex v , s if there already exists an
	removeVertex (v) :	Removes vertex v and all its incid	lent edges from the graph.
	removeEdge (e) :	Removes edge e from the graph.	

Representation of Graphs

- Two popular computer representations of a graph: Both represent the vertex set and the edge set, but in different ways.
 - Adjacency Matrices
 Use a 2D matrix to represent the graph
 - 2. Adjacency Lists Use a set of linked lists, one list per vertex

Adjacency Matrix Representation

- 2D array of size n x n where n is the number of vertices in the graph
- A[i][j]=1 if there is an edge connecting vertices i and j; otherwise, A[i][j]=0



d

e

Adjacency Matrix Example



	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	1
2	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
3	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
7	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
8	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
9	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0

Adjacency Matrix Structure

- Augmented vertex objects
 - Integer key (index) associated with vertex
- 2D-array adjacency array
 - Reference to edge object for adjacent vertices
 - Null for non-adjacent vertices
- The "old fashioned" version just has 0 for no edge and 1 for edge







h

Adjacency Matrices: Analysis

- The storage requirement is $\Theta(V^2)$.
 - not efficient if the graph has few edges.
 - appropriate if the graph is dense; that is $E = \Theta(V^2)$
- If the graph is undirected, the matrix is symmetric. There exist methods to store a symmetric matrix using only half of the space.

• Note: the space requirement is still $\Theta(V^2)$.

- We can detect in O(1) time whether two vertices are connected.
 - areAdjacent (v, w): returns true if v and w are adjacent, and false otherwise.

Adjacency Lists

- If the graph is sparse, a better solution is an adjacency list representation.
- For each vertex v in the graph, we keep a list of vertices adjacent to v.



Adjacency List Example



0	8			
1	2	3	7	9
2	1	4	8	
3	 1	4	5	
4	 2	3		
5	 3	6		
6	 5	7		
7	 1	6		
8	 0	2	9	
9	 1	8		



 Testing whether u is adjacency to v takes time O(deg(v)) or O(deg(u)).

Adjacency List Structure

- Incidence sequence for each vertex
 - sequence of references to edge objects of incident edges
- Augmented edge objects
 - references to associated positions in incidence sequences of end vertices



Adjacency List Structure Implementation

- Incidence sequence for each vertex
 - sequence of references to edge objects of incident edges
- Augmented edge objects
 - references to associated positions in incidence sequences of end vertices



Adjacency Lists vs. Adjacency Matrices

- An adjacency list takes $\Theta(V + E)$.
 - If $E = O(V^2)$ (dense graph), both use $\Theta(V^2)$ space.
 - If E = O(V) (sparse graph), adjacency lists are more space efficient.
- Adjacency lists
 - More compact than adjacency matrices if graph has few edges
 - Requires more time to find if an edge exists
- Adjacency matrices
 - Always require $\Theta(V^2)$ space
 - This can waste lots of space if the number of edges is small
 - Can quickly find if an edge exists

Homework

- Prove the big-Oh running time of the graph methods shown in the next slide.
- incidentEdges(v): returns the edges incident on v.
- areAdjacent (v, w): returns true if v and w are adjacent, and false otherwise.

Running Time of Graph Methods

 <i>n</i> vertices, <i>m</i> edges no parallel edges no self-loops bounds are "big-Oh" 	Edge List	Adjacency List	Adjacency Matrix
Space	n + m	n + m	n ²
incidentEdges(v)	m	deg(v)	п
areAdjacent (v, w)	m	$\min(\deg(v), \deg(w))$	1
insertVertex(o)	1	1	n ²
insertEdge(v, w, o)	1	1	1
removeVertex(v)	т	deg(v)	n ²
removeEdge(e)	1	1	1

BREADTH FIRST SEARCH

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Graph Traversal (14.3)

- Application example
 - Given a graph representation and a vertex s in the graph, find all paths from s to the other vertices.

29

- Two common graph traversal algorithms:
 - Breadth-First Search (BFS)
 - · Idea is similar to level-order traversal for trees.
 - Implementation uses a queue.
 - Gives shortest path from a vertex to another.
 - Depth-First Search (DFS)
 - Idea is similar to preorder traversal for trees (visit a node then visit its children recursively).
 - Implementation uses a stack (implicitly via recursion).

BFS and Shortest Path Problem

- Given any source vertex s, BFS visits the other vertices at increasing distances away from s. In doing so, BFS discovers shortest paths from s to the other vertices.
- What do we mean by "distance"? The number of edges on a path from s (unweighted graph).



Example

Consider s=vertex 1

Nodes at distance 1? 2, 3, 7, 9

Nodes at distance 2? 8, 6, 5, 4

Nodes at distance 3?

How Does BSF Work?

- Similarly to level-order traversal for trees.
- The BFS code we will discuss works for both directed and undirected graphs.

Skeleton of BFS Algorithm

Algorithm BFS(s)Input: s is the source vertex Output: Mark all vertices that can be visited from s. Q = empty queue; enqueue(Q,s); while Q is not empty do v := dequeue(Q); output v; for each w adjacent to v enqueue(Q,w)

BFS Algorithm

Algorithm BFS(s)

Input: *s* is the source vertex

Output: Mark all vertices that can be visited from s.

- for each vertex v 1
- 2.
- 3. Q = empty queue;
- 4. flag[s] := true;
- 5. enqueue(Q, s);
- 6. while Q is not empty

7. **do**
$$v := dequeue(Q)$$
; output v ;

8. for each w adjacent to v

9. **do if**
$$flag[w] = false$$

- then flag[w] := true;10.
- enqueue(Q, w)11.

do flag[v] := false; flag[]: visited or not

BFS Example



Adjacency List



Visited Table (T/F)

_	-
0	F
1	F
2	F
3	F
4	F
5	F
6	F
7	F
8	F
9	F

Initialize "visited" table (all False)

 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ \}$

Initialize **Q** to be empty





Visited Table (T/F)

0	F
1	F
2	Т
3	F
4	F
5	F
6	F
7	F
8	F
9	F

Flag that 2 has been visited

Q = { 2 }

Place source 2 on the queue



as visited 1, 4, 8

 $Q = \{2\} \rightarrow \{8, 1, 4\}$

Dequeue 2. Place all unvisited neighbors of 2 on the queue 36


neighbors 0, 9

$\mathbf{Q} = \{ 8, 1, 4 \} \rightarrow \{ 1, 4, 0, 9 \}$

Dequeue 8.

-- Place all unvisited neighbors of 8 on the queue.

-- Notice that 2 is not placed on the queue again, it has been visited!



neighbors 3, 7

$\mathbf{Q} = \{ 1, 4, 0, 9 \} \rightarrow \{ 4, 0, 9, 3, 7 \}$

Dequeue 1.

- -- Place all unvisited neighbors of 1 on the queue.
- -- Only nodes 3 and 7 haven't been visited yet.



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ 4, 0, 9, 3, 7 \} \rightarrow \{ 0, 9, 3, 7 \}$

Dequeue 4.

-- 4 has no unvisited neighbors!



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ \, 0, \, 9, \, 3, \, 7 \, \} \rightarrow \{ \, 9, \, 3, \, 7 \, \}$

Dequeue 0.

-- 0 has no unvisited neighbors!



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ 9, 3, 7 \} \rightarrow \{ 3, 7 \}$

Dequeue 9.

-- 9 has no unvisited neighbors!



Vertex 5

$$Q = \{3, 7\} \rightarrow \{7, 5\}$$

Dequeue 3.

-- place neighbor 5 on the queue.



Vertex 6

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{ \, 7, \, 5 \, \} \rightarrow \{ \, 5, \, 6 \, \}$$

Dequeue 7.

-- place neighbor 6 on the queue



 $\mathbf{Q} = \left\{ \, 5, \, 6 \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \, 6 \, \right\}$

Dequeue 5.

-- no unvisited neighbors of 5



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ 6 \} \rightarrow \{ \}$

Dequeue 6. -- no unvisited neighbors of 6



Q = { } **STOP!!! Q** is empty!!!

Adjacency List Visited Table (T/F) т т т т Т Т Т т

What did we discover?

Look at "visited" tables.

There exists a path from source vertex 2 to all vertices in the graph

Running Time of BFS

- Assume adjacency list
 - V = number of vertices; E = number of edges

Algorithm BFS(s)

Input: *s* is the source vertex

Output: Mark all vertices that can be visited from *s*.

- 1. for each vertex v
- 2. **do** flag[v] := false;
- 3. Q = empty queue;
- 4. flag[s] := true;
- 5. enqueue(Q, s);
- 6. while Q is not empty
- 7. **do** v := dequeue(Q);
- 8. for each w adjacent to v
- 9. do if flag[w] = false10. then flag[w] := true;
- 11. enqueue(Q, w)

Each vertex will enter Q at most once. dequeue is O(1).

The for loop takes time proportional to deg(v).

Running Time of BFS (2)

Recall: Given a graph with E edges

$$\Sigma_{vertex v} deg(v) = 2E$$

• The total running time of the while loop is:

O(
$$\Sigma_{vertex v}$$
 (1 + deg(v))) = O(V+E)

- This is the sum over all the iterations of the while loop!
- Homework: What is the running time of BFS if we use an adjacency matrix?

BFS and Unconnected Graphs



Recall the BFS Algorithm ...

```
Algorithm BFS(s)
```

Input: *s* is the source vertex

Output: Mark all vertices that can be visited from s.

- 1. for each vertex v
- 2. **do** flag[v] := false;
- 3. Q = empty queue;

4.
$$flag[s] := true;$$

- 5. enqueue(Q, s);
- 6. while Q is not empty
- 7. **do** v := dequeue(Q); output (v);
- 8. for each w adjacent to v
- 9. **do if** flag[w] = false
- 10. then flag[w] := true;
- 11. enqueue(Q, w)

Enhanced BFS Algorithm

A graph with 3 components



• We can re-use the previous *BFS*(*s*) method to compute the connected components of a graph *G*.

BFSearch(G) {
 i = 1; // component number
 for every vertex v
 flag[v] = false;
 for every vertex v
 if (flag[v] == false) {
 print ("Component " + i++);
 BFS(v);
 }
}

Applications of BFS

What can we do with the BFS code we just discussed?

- Is there a path from source s to a vertex v?
 - Check flag[v].
- Is an undirected graph connected?
 - Scan array flag[].
 - If there exists *flag*[*u*] = false then ...
- To output the contents (e.g., the vertices) of a connected graph
 - What if the graph is not connected? Slide 24
- To output the contents of a strongly connected graph
 - What if the graph is not connected or weakly connected? Slide 24

Other Applications of BFS

- To find the shortest path from a vertex s to a vertex v in an unweighted graph
- To find the length of such a path
- To find out if a graph contains cycles
- To find the connected components of a graph that is not connected
- To construct a BSF tree/forest from a graph

APPLICATIONS OF BFS

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Applications of BFS

- To find the shortest path from a vertex s to a vertex v in an unweighted graph
- To find the length of such a path
- To find out if a strongly connected directed graph contains cycles
- To find out if an undirected graph contains cycles
- To construct a BSF tree/forest from a graph

FINDING SHORTEST PATHS USING BFS

Finding Shortest Paths

- The BFS code we have seen
 - find outs if there exists a path from a vertex s to a vertex v
 - prints the vertices of a graph (connected/strongly connected).
- What if we want to find
 - the shortest path from s to a vertex v (or to every other vertex)?
 - the length of the shortest path from s to a vertex v?
- In addition to array *flag*[], use an array named *prev*[], one element per vertex.
 - *prev*[*w*] = *v* means that vertex *w* was visited right after *v*

Example



Adjacency List Visited Table (T/F) Т T. Т -Т Т Т Т T. T. Т prev[]

prev[] now can be traced backward
to report the path!

BFS and Finding Shortest Path



Example





(T/F)F F F. F. F F F F. F. F

prev[]

Initialize visited table (all false)

Initialize prev[] to -1

Q ={ } Initialize **Q** to be empty



Flag that 2 has been visited.



Place source 2 on the queue.



Mark neighbors as visited.

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{2\} \rightarrow \{ 8, 1, 4 \}$$

Dequeue 2. Place all unvisited neighbors of 2 on the queue Record in prev that we came from 2.





Dequeue 8.

- -- Place all unvisited neighbors of 8 on the queue.
- -- Notice that 2 is not placed on the queue again, it has been visited!

Record in prev that we came from 8.

Neighbors.



Mark new visited Neighbors.

64

Record in prev that we came from 1.

$\mathbf{Q} = \{ 1, 4, 0, 9 \} \rightarrow \{ 4, 0, 9, 3, 7 \}$

Dequeue 1.

- -- Place all unvisited neighbors of 1 on the queue.
- -- Only nodes 3 and 7 haven't been visited yet.



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ 4, 0, 9, 3, 7 \} \rightarrow \{ 0, 9, 3, 7 \}$

Dequeue 4.

-- 4 has no unvisited neighbors!



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ \, 0, \, 9, \, 3, \, 7 \, \} \rightarrow \{ \, 9, \, 3, \, 7 \, \}$

Dequeue 0.

-- 0 has no unvisited neighbors!



 $\mathbf{Q} = \{ 9, 3, 7 \} \rightarrow \{ 3, 7 \}$

Dequeue 9.

-- 9 has no unvisited neighbors!





Record in prev that we came from 3.

$$\mathbf{Q} = \left\{ \ 3, \ 7 \ \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \ 7, \ 5 \ \right\}$$

Dequeue 3.

-- place neighbor 5 on the queue.

68

8

2

-

1

2

3

1

2



Mark new visited Vertex 6.

Record in prev that we came from 7.

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{ 7, 5 \} \rightarrow \{ 5, 6 \}$$

Dequeue 7.

-- place neighbor 6 on the queue.



 $\mathbf{Q} = \left\{ \ 5, \ 6 \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \ 6 \ \right\}$

Dequeue 5.

-- no unvisited neighbors of 5.



 $\mathbf{Q} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} 6 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right\}$

Dequeue 6. -- no unvisited neighbors of 6.

BFS Finished



Adjacency List Visited Table (T/F) Т T. Т Т Т Т Т Т Т T. prev[]

Q = { } STOP!!! Q is empty!!!

prev[] now can be traced backward
to report the path!
Finding the Shortest Path

 To print the shortest path from s to a vertex u, start with prev[u] and backtrack until reaching the source s (path reporting).

Running time of backtracking = ?

Example of Path Reporting



Try some examples; report path from s to v: Path(2-0) \Rightarrow Path(2-6) \Rightarrow Path(2-1) \Rightarrow

Path Reporting

- Given a vertex w, report the shortest path from s to w currentV = w;
 while (prev[currentV] ≠ -1) {
 output currentV; // or add to a list
 currentV = prev[currentV];
 }
 output s; // or add to a list
- The above code prints the path in reverse order.

Path Reporting (2)

• To output the path in the right order,

- Print the above list in reverse order.
- Use a stack instead of a list.

```
currentV = w;
while ( prev[currentV] ≠ -1 )
S.push( currentV );
currentV = prev[currentV];
}
while ( !S.isEmpty() )
print( S.pop() );
print( s );
```

Path Reporting (3)

- To output the path in the right order,
 - Print the list in reverse order.
 - Use a stack instead of a list.
 - Use a recursive method (implicit use of a stack).

```
printPath (w) {
  if (prev[w] ≠ -1)
      printPath (prev[w]);
  output w;
}
```

Finding Shortest Path Length

 To find the length of the shortest path from s to u, start with prev[u], backtrack and increment a counter until reaching the source s.

• Running time of backtracking = ?

- Following is a faster way to find the length of the shortest path from s to u (at the cost of using more space)
 - Allocate an array *d*[], one element per vertex.
 - When BSF algorithm ends, *d*[*u*] records the length of the shortest path from *s* to *u*.
 - Running time of finding path length = ?

Recording the Shortest Distance

Algorithm BFS(s)

for each vertex v 1. 2. do flag(v) := false; $pred[v] := -1; d[v] = \infty;$ 3. 4. Q = empty queue;5. flag[s] := true; d[s] = 0;6. enqueue(Q, s);7. while Q is not empty d[v] stores shortest do v := dequeue(Q);8. distance from s to v 9. for each w adjacent to vdo if flag[w] = false10. then flag[w] := true;11. pred[w] := v; d[w] = d[v] + 1;12. enqueue(Q, w)13.

FINDING CYCLES

Finding Cycles in Undirected Graphs

- To detect/find cycles in an *undirected* graph, we need to classify the edges into 3 categories during program execution:
 - unexplored edge: never visited.
 - *discovery* edge: visited for the very **first** time.
 - cross edge: edge that forms a cycle.
- When the BFS algorithm terminates, the discovery edges form a spanning tree.
- If there exists a cross edge, the undirected graph contains a cycle.

BFS Algorithm (in textbook)

 The algorithm uses a mechanism for setting and getting "labels" of vertices and edges

Algorithm **BFS(G)**

Input graph G Output labeling of the edges and partition of the vertices of G for all $u \in G.vertices()$ setLabel(u, UNEXPLORED)for all $e \in G.edges()$ setLabel(e, UNEXPLORED)for all $v \in G.vertices()$ if getLabel(v) = UNEXPLOREDBFS(G, v) Algorithm **BFS**(**G**, s) $L_0 \leftarrow$ new empty sequence L_0 .insertLast(s) setLabel(s, VISITED) $i \leftarrow 0$ while $\neg L_{i}$. *isEmpty*() $L_{i+1} \leftarrow$ new empty sequence for all $v \in L_i$.elements() for all $e \in G.incidentEdges(v)$ if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED $w \leftarrow opposite(v,e)$ if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED setLabel(e, DISCOVERY) setLabel(w, VISITED) L_{i+1} .insertLast(w) else setLabel(e, CROSS) $i \leftarrow i + 1$

Example



Example (2)



Example (3)



DEPTH FIRST SEARCH

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Depth First Search (DFS)

- DFS is another popular graph search strategy
 Idea is similar to pre-order traversal (visit node, then visit children recursively)
- DFS will continue to visit neighbors in a recursive pattern
 - Whenever we visit v from u, we recursively visit all unvisited neighbors of v. Then we backtrack (return) to u.

DFS Traversal Example



Adjacency List







Initialize visited table (all False)

Initialize Pred to -1

DFS Algorithm Idea

- Similar to BFS algorithm, except that we use a stack instead of a queue for backtracking.
- In practice, we use recursion instead of an explicit stack.

BFS Algorithm

Algorithm BFS(s)**Input:** *s* is the source vertex **Output:** Mark all vertices that can be visited from s. for each vertex v 1 2. do flag[v] := false;3. Q = empty queue; **T = empty stack;** 4. flag[s] := true;5. enqueue(Q, s);T.push(s); while Q is not empty 6. do v := dequeue(Q); v = T.pop();7. 8. for each w adjacent to vdo if flag[w] = false9. then flag[w] := true;10. enqueue(Q, w) **T.push(w)**; 11.

DFS Algorithm

Algorithm DFS(s)

1. for each vertex v

2. **do** flag[v] := false;

3. RDFS(s);

Flag all vertices as not visited

Algorithm RDFS(v)

1.
$$flag[v] := true;$$
 print v;
2. for each neighbor w of v
3. do if $flag[w] = false$
4. then $RDFS(w);$

Flag v as visited; *print v*;

For unvisited neighbors, call *RDFS*(*w*) recursively

We can also record the paths using *prev*[]. Where do we insert the code for *prev*[]?

Example





Initialize visited table (all False)

Initialize Pred to -1



Mark 2 as visited





Mark 8 as visited

Recursive RDFS(2) calls RDFS(8)

mark Pred[8]

2 is already visited, so visit RDFS(0)



to call RDFS(8)



Recursive RDFS(2) calls RDFS(8) Now visit 9 -> RDFS(9)



RDFS(8) RDFS(9) -> visit 1, RDFS(1)





















RDFS(3) -> Stop



Visited Table (T/F)






Recursive RDFS(8) calls RDFS(9) -> Stop



RDFS(2) calls RDFS(8) -> Stop

Example Finished





RDFS(2) -> Stop

Recursive calls finished.

2 0

Time Complexity of DFS

- We never visited a vertex more than once.
- We had to examine the adjacency lists of all vertices.
 Σ_{vertex ν} degree(v) = 2E
- So, the running time of DFS is proportional to the number of edges and number of vertices (same as BFS)
 O(V + E)
- What is the running time of DFS if we use an adjacency matrix?

Enhanced DFS Algorithm

- What if a graph is not connected (strongly connected)?
 - Use an enhanced version of DFS, which is similar to the enhanced BFS algorithm.

DFSearch(G) {
 i = 1; // component number
 for every vertex v
 flag[v] = false;
 for every vertex v
 if (flag[v] == false) {
 print ("Component " + i++);
 RDFS(v);
 }
}

Applications of DFS

- Is there a path from source s to a vertex v?
- Is an undirected graph connected?
- To output the contents of a graph
- To find the connected components of a graph
- To find out if a graph contains cycles and report cycles.
- To construct a DSF tree/forest from a graph

APPLICATIONS OF DFS

EECS 2011

Applications of DFS

- Is there a path from source s to a vertex v?
 - Check array flag[]
- Is an undirected graph connected?
 - Check array flag[]
- To output the contents (e.g., the vertices) of a graph
 - Call RDFS() if graph is connected
 - Call DFSearch() if the "connected" property is not known
- To find the connected components of a graph
 - Call DFSearch()
- To find out if a graph contains cycles and report cycles.
- To construct a DSF tree/forest from a graph

DFS Path Tracking



Adjacency List



Visited Table (T/F)



DFS finds out path too.

.

Try some examples. Path(0) -> Path(6) -> Path(7) ->

Finding Cycles Using DFS

Similar to using BFS.

- For undirected graphs, classify the edges into 3 categories during program execution: *unvisited* edge, *discovery* edge, and *back* edge (equivalent to cross edge in BFS).
 - If there exists a *back* edge, the undirected graph contains a cycle.

DFS Algorithm

 The algorithm uses a mechanism for setting and getting "labels" of vertices and edges

Algorithm *DFS***(***G*)

Input graph G Output labeling of the edges of G as discovery edges and back edges for all $u \in G.vertices()$ setLabel(u, UNEXPLORED)for all $e \in G.edges()$ setLabel(e, UNEXPLORED)

for all v ∈ G.vertices()
if getLabel(v) = UNEXPLORED
DFS(G, v)

Algorithm DFS(G, v)Input graph G and a start vertex v of GOutput labeling of the edges of Gin the connected component of vas discovery edges and back edgessetLabel(v, VISITED)for all $e \in G.incidentEdges(v)$ if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED $w \leftarrow opposite(v,e)$ if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLOREDsetLabel(e, DISCOVERY)DFS(G, w)else

setLabel(e, BACK)

Example



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Depth-First Search



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Depth-First Search

Applications – DFS vs. BFS

- What can BFS do and DFS can't?
 - Finding shortest paths (in unweighted graphs)
- What can DFS do and BFS can't?
 - Finding out if a connected undirected graph is *biconnected*
 - A connected undirected graph is biconnected if there are no vertices whose removal disconnects the rest of the graph.
 - Application in computer networks: ensuring that a network is still connected when a router/link fails.

A graph that is not biconnected



DFS vs. BFS

Applications	DFS	BFS
Spanning forest, connected components, paths, cycles	\checkmark	\checkmark
Shortest paths		\checkmark
Biconnected components	\checkmark	

