

## CS 362, Lecture 18

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## Today's Outline

- Breadth First and Depth First Search
- Single Source Shortest Path

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## Traversing a Graph

- Suppose we want to visit every node in a connected graph (represented either explicitly or implicitly)
- The simplest way to do this is an algorithm called *depth-first search*
- We can write this algorithm recursively or iteratively - it's the same both ways, the iterative version just makes the stack explicit
- Both versions of the algorithm are initially passed a *source* vertex  $v$

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## Recursive DFS

```
RecursiveDFS(v){  
  if (v is unmarked){  
    mark v;  
    for each edge (v,w){  
      RecursiveDFS(w);  
    }  
  }  
}
```

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## Iterative DFS

```
IterativeDFS(s){
  Push(s);
  while (stack not empty){
    v = Pop();
    if (v is unmarked){
      mark v;
      for each edge (v,w){
        Push(w);
      }
    }
  }
}
```

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## Generic Traverse

- DFS is one instance of a general family of graph traversal algorithms
- This generic graph traversal algorithm stores a set of candidate edges in a data structure we'll call a "bag"
- A "bag" is just something we can put stuff into and later take stuff out of - stacks, queues and heaps are all examples of bags.

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## Generic Traverse

```
Traverse(s){
  put (nil,s) in bag;
  while (the bag is not empty){
    take some edge (p,v) from the bag
    if (v is unmarked)
      mark v;
      parent(v) = p;
      for each edge (v,w) incident to v{
        put (v,w) into the bag;
      }
    }
  }
}
```

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## Analysis

- Notice that we're keeping *edges* in the bag instead of vertices
- This is because we want to remember when we visit vertex  $v$  for the first time, which previously-visited vertex  $p$  put  $v$  into the bag
- This vertex  $p$  is called the *parent* of  $v$

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## Lemma

- $\text{Traverse}(s)$  marks each vertex in a connected graph exactly once, and the set of edges  $(v, \text{parent}(v))$ , with  $\text{parent}(v)$  not nil, form a spanning tree of the graph.

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## Proof

- It's obvious that no node is marked more than once
- We next show that each vertex is marked at least once.
- Let  $v \neq s$  be a vertex and let  $s \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow u \rightarrow v$  be the path from  $s$  to  $v$  with the minimum number of edges. (Since the graph is connected such a path always exists)
- If the algorithm marks  $u$ , then it must put  $(u, v)$  in the bag, so it must later take  $(u, v)$  out of the bag, at which point  $v$  must be marked
- Thus by induction on the shortest-path distance from  $s$ , the algorithm marks every vertex in the graph

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## Proof

- Call an edge  $(v, \text{parent}(v))$  with  $\text{parent}(v) \neq \text{nil}$  a *parent edge*.
- Note that since every node is marked, every node has a parent edge except for  $s$ .
- It now remains to be shown that the parent edges form a spanning tree of the graph

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## Proof

- For any node  $v \neq s$ , the path of parent edges  $v \rightarrow \text{parent}(v) \rightarrow \text{parent}(\text{parent}(v)) \rightarrow \dots$  eventually leads back to  $s$ , so the set of parent edges form a connected graph.
- Since every node except  $s$  has a unique parent edge, the total number of parent edges is exactly one less than the total number of vertices. (i.e. if there are  $n$  nodes, then there are  $n - 1$  edges)
- Thus the parent edges form a spanning tree (we'll show this in the in-class exercise)

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## In Class Exercise

- Consider a connected graph  $G = (V, E)$  that has  $n$  vertices and  $n - 1$  edges where  $n > 1$ . First we will prove that  $G$  has at least one vertex with degree 1
- Q: What is

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v)$$

- Q: Is it possible for each vertex to have degree  $\geq 2$ ? Why or why not?
- Q: Now show that there must be at least one vertex that has degree 1

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## In Class Exercise

Now we will prove by induction that any connected graph with  $n$  vertices and  $n - 1$  edges is a tree.

- Q: What is the base case?
- Q: What is the inductive hypothesis?
- Q: Now show the inductive step. Hint: Use the fact proved in the last slide.

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## DFS and BFS

- If we implement the “bag” by using a stack, we have *Depth First Search*
- If we implement the “bag” by using a queue, we have *Breadth First Search*

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## Analysis

- Note that if we use adjacency lists for the graph, the overhead for the “for” loop is only a constant per edge (no matter how we implement the bag)
- If we implement the bag using either stacks or queues, each operation on the bag takes constant time
- Hence the overall runtime is  $O(|V| + |E|) = O(|E|)$

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## DFS vs BFS

- Note that DFS trees tend to be long and skinny while BFS trees are short and fat
- In addition, the BFS tree contains *shortest paths* from the start vertex  $s$  to every other vertex in its connected component. (here we define the length of a path to be the number of edges in the path)

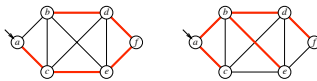
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## Final Note

- Now assume the edges are weighted
- If we implement the “bag” using a *priority queue*, always extracting the minimum weight edge from the bag, then we have a version of Prim’s algorithm
- Each extraction from the “bag” now takes  $O(|E|)$  time so the total running time is  $O(|V| + |E| \log |E|)$

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## Example



A depth-first spanning tree and a breadth-first spanning tree of one component of the example graph, with start vertex  $a$ .

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## Searching Disconnected Graphs

If the graph is disconnected, then `Traverse` only visits nodes in the connected component of the start vertex  $s$ . If we want to visit all vertices, we can use the following “wrapper” around `Traverse`

```
TraverseAll(){
  for all vertices v{
    if (v is unmarked){
      Traverse(v);
    }
  }
}
```

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## DFS and BFS

- Note that we can do DFS and BFS equally well on undirected and directed graphs
- If the graph is undirected, there are two types of edges in  $G$ : edges that are in the DFS or BFS tree and edges that are not in this tree
- If the graph is directed, there are several types of edges

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## DFS in Directed Graphs

- *Tree edges* are edges that are in the tree itself
- *Back edges* are those edges  $(u, v)$  connecting a vertex  $u$  to an ancestor  $v$  in the DFS tree
- *Forward edges* are nontree edges  $(u, v)$  that connect a vertex  $u$  to a descendant in a DFS tree
- *Cross edges* are all other edges. They go between two vertices where neither vertex is a descendant of the other

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## Acyclic graphs

- Useful Fact: A directed graph  $G$  is acyclic if and only if a DFS of  $G$  yields no back edges
- Challenge: Try to prove this fact.

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## Take Away

- BFS and DFS are two useful algorithms for exploring graphs
- Each of these algorithms is an instantiation of the Traverse algorithm. BFS uses a queue to hold the edges and DFS uses a stack
- Each of these algorithms constructs a spanning tree of all the nodes which are reachable from the start node  $s$

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## Shortest Paths Problem

- Another interesting problem for graphs is that of finding shortest paths
- Assume we are given a weighted *directed* graph  $G = (V, E)$  with two special vertices, a source  $s$  and a target  $t$
- We want to find the shortest directed path from  $s$  to  $t$
- In other words, we want to find the path  $p$  starting at  $s$  and ending at  $t$  minimizing the function

$$w(p) = \sum_{e \in p} w(e)$$

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## Example

- Imagine we want to find the fastest way to drive from Albuquerque, NM to Seattle, WA
- We might use a graph whose vertices are cities, edges are roads, weights are driving times,  $s$  is Albuquerque and  $t$  is Seattle
- The graph is directed since driving times along the same road might be different in different directions (e.g. because of construction, speed traps, etc)

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## SSSP

- Every algorithm known for solving this problem actually solves the following more general *single source shortest paths* or SSSP problem:
- Find the shortest path from the source vertex  $s$  to *every* other vertex in the graph
- This problem is usually solved by finding a *shortest path tree* rooted at  $s$  that contains all the desired shortest paths

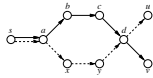
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## Shortest Path Tree

- It's not hard to see that if the shortest paths are unique, then they form a tree
- To prove this, we need only observe that the sub-paths of shortest paths are themselves shortest paths
- If there are multiple shortest paths to the same vertex, we can always choose just one of them, so that the union of the paths is a tree
- If there are shortest paths to two vertices  $u$  and  $v$  which diverge, then meet, then diverge again, we can modify one of the paths so that the two paths diverge once only.

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## Example



If  $s \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow v$  and  $s \rightarrow a \rightarrow x \rightarrow y \rightarrow d \rightarrow u$  are both shortest paths,  
then  $s \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow u$  is also a shortest path.

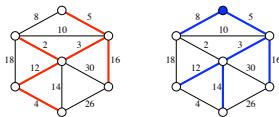
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## MST vs SPT

- Note that the minimum spanning tree and shortest path tree can be different
- For one thing there may be only one MST but there can be multiple shortest path trees (one for every source vertex)

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## Example



A minimum spanning tree (left) and a shortest path tree rooted at the topmost vertex (right).

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