

# **CSE 421: Introduction to Algorithms**

## **BFS**

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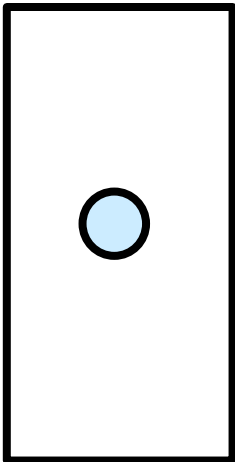
# Induction

Induction in 311:

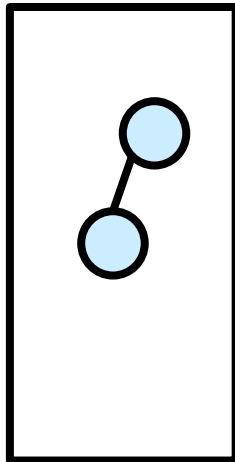
Prove  $1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n + 1)/2$

Induction in 421:

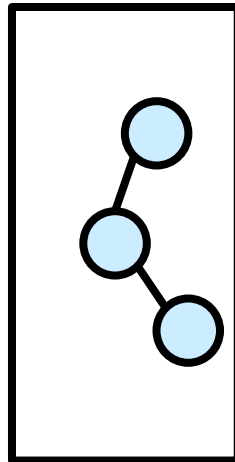
Prove all trees with  $n$  vertices have  $n - 1$  edges



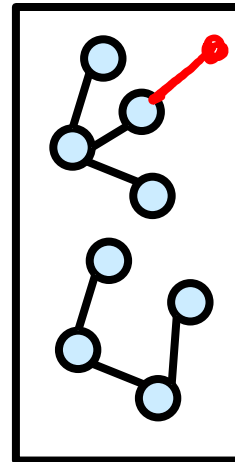
1



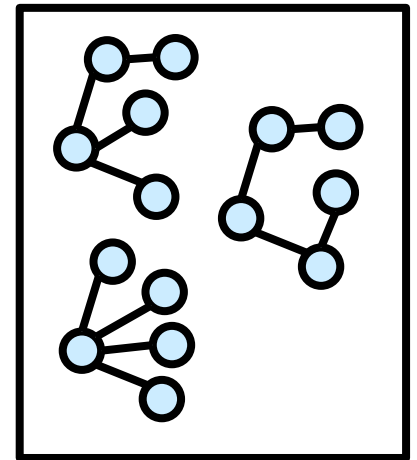
2



3



4



5

# #edges

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph with  $n = |V|$  vertices and  $m = |E|$  edges.

**Claim:**  $0 \leq m \leq \binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = O(n^2)$

**Pf:** Since every edge connects two distinct vertices (i.e.,  $G$  has no loops)

and no two edges connect the same pair of vertices (i.e.,  $G$  has no multi-edges)

It has at most  $\binom{n}{2}$  edges.

# Sparse Graphs

A graph is called **sparse** if  $m \ll n^2$  and it is called **dense** otherwise.

Sparse graphs are very common in practice

- Friendships in social network
- Planar graphs
- Web graph

Q: Which is a better running time  $O(n + m)$  vs  $O(n^2)$ ?

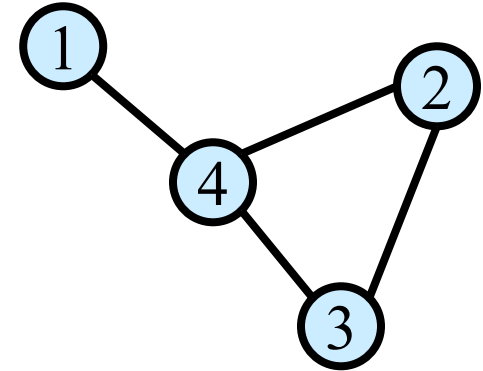
A:  $O(n + m) = O(n^2)$ , but  $O(n + m)$  is usually much better.

# Storing Graphs (Internally in ALG)

Vertex set  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ .

**Adjacency Matrix:**  $A$

- For all,  $i, j, A[i, j] = 1$  iff  $(v_i, v_j) \in E$
- Storage:  $n^2$  bits



	1	2	3	4
1	0	0	0	1
2	0	0	1	1
3	0	1	0	1
4	1	1	1	0

**Advantage:**

- $O(1)$  test for presence or absence of edges

**Disadvantage:**

- Inefficient for sparse graphs both in storage and edge-access

# Storing Graphs (Internally in ALG)

## Adjacency List:

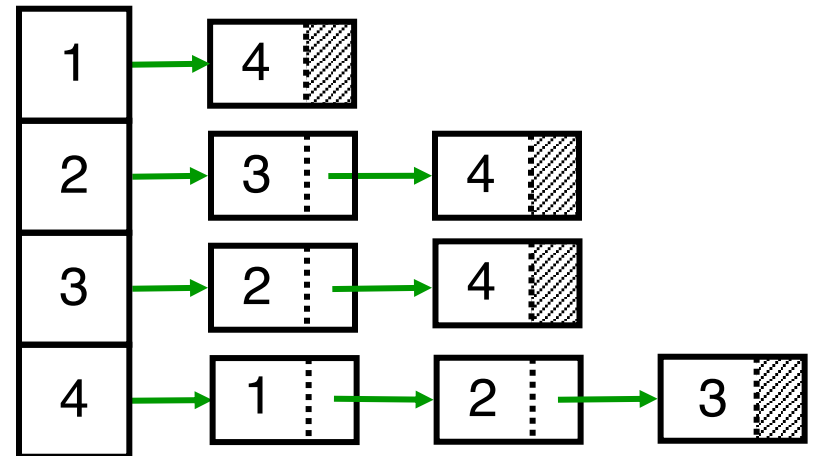
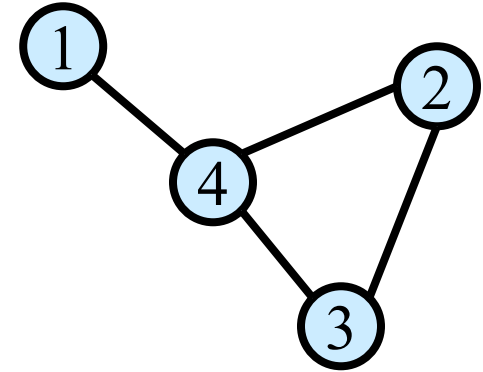
$O(n+m)$  words

## Advantage

- Compact for sparse
- Easily see all edges

## Disadvantage

- No  $O(1)$  edge test
- More complex data structure



# Storing Graphs (Internally in ALG)

## Adjacency List:

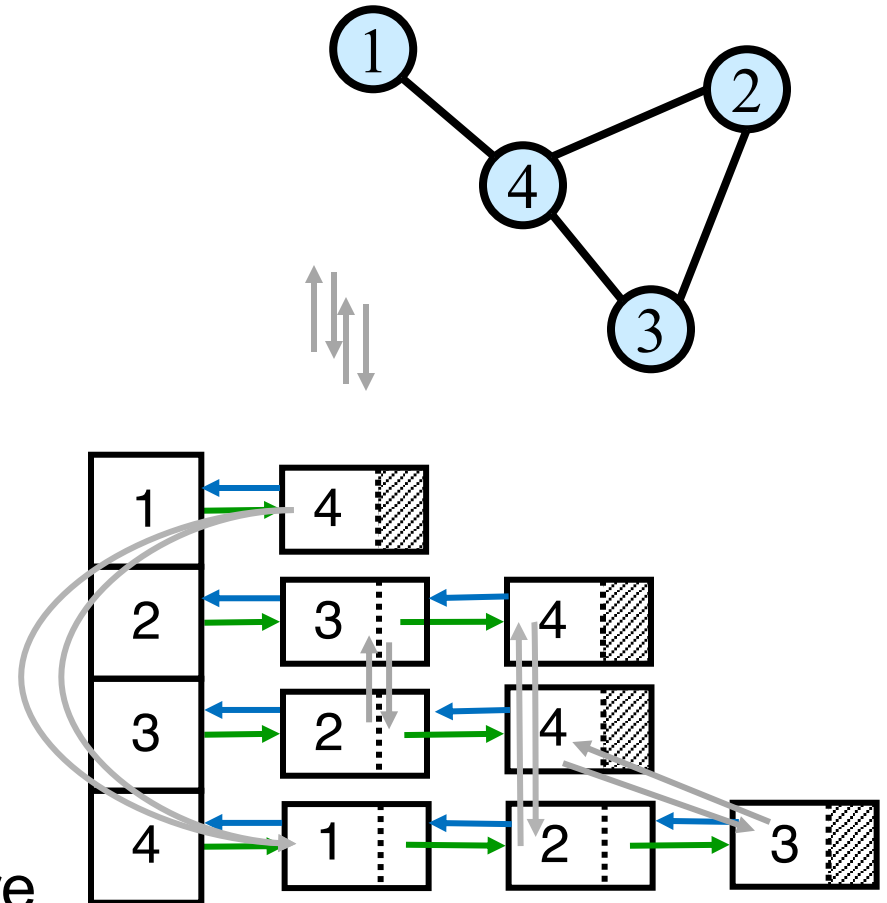
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# Graph Traversal

**Walk (via edges)** from a fixed starting vertex  $s$  to all vertices reachable from  $s$ .

- Breadth First Search (BFS): Order nodes in successive layers based on distance from  $s$
- Depth First Search (DFS): More natural approach for exploring a maze; many efficient algs build on it.

Applications:

- Finding Connected components of a graph
- Testing Bipartiteness
- Finding Articulation points



# Breadth First Search (BFS)

Completely **explore** the vertices in order of their distance from  $s$ .

Three states of vertices:

- Undiscovered
- **Discovered**
- **Fully-explored**

Naturally implemented using a queue

The queue will always have the list of Discovered vertices

# BFS implementation

**Global initialization:** mark all vertices "undiscovered"

BFS(s)

mark s "discovered"

queue = { s }

while queue not empty

    u = remove\_first(queue)

    for each edge {u,x}

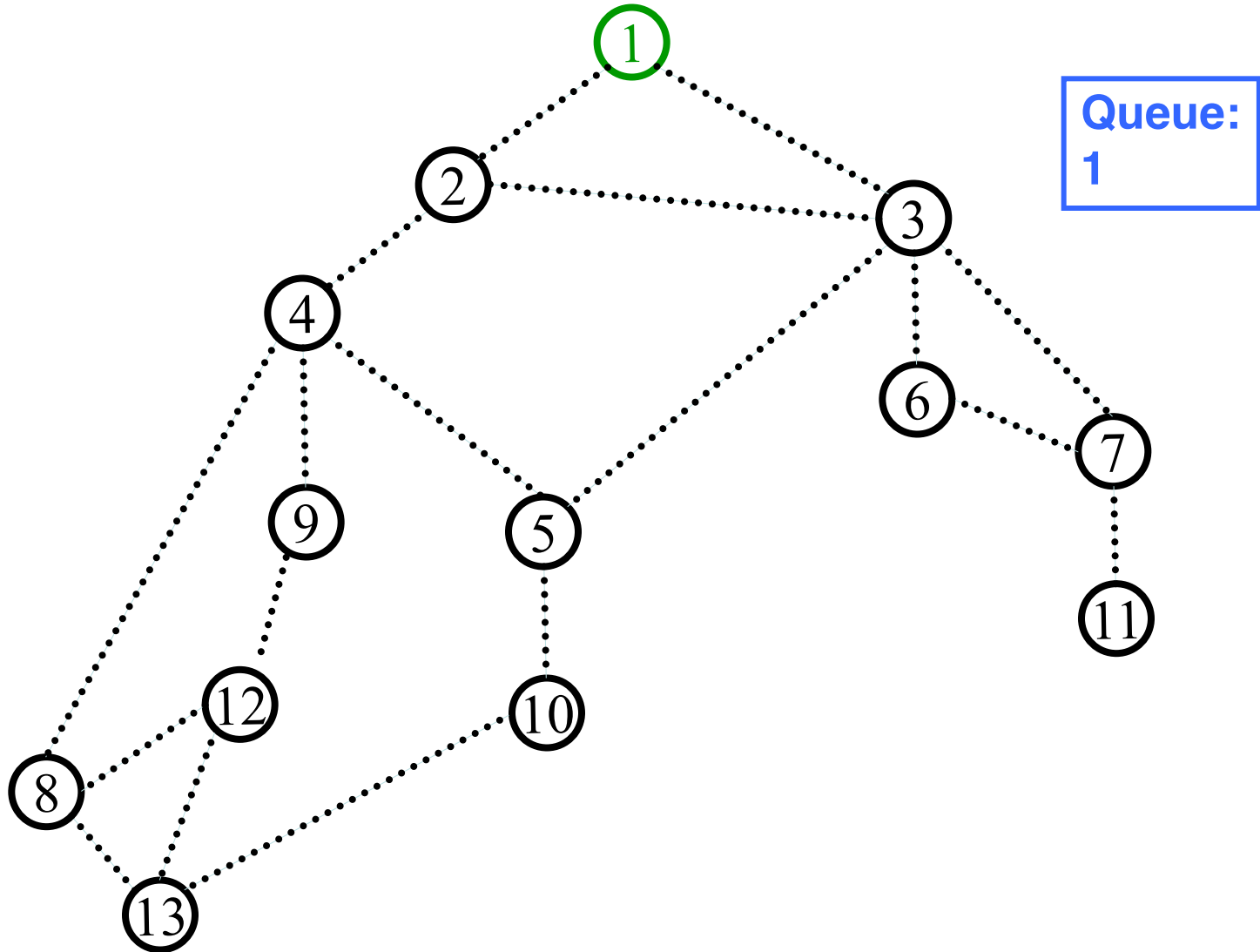
        if (x is undiscovered)

            mark x discovered

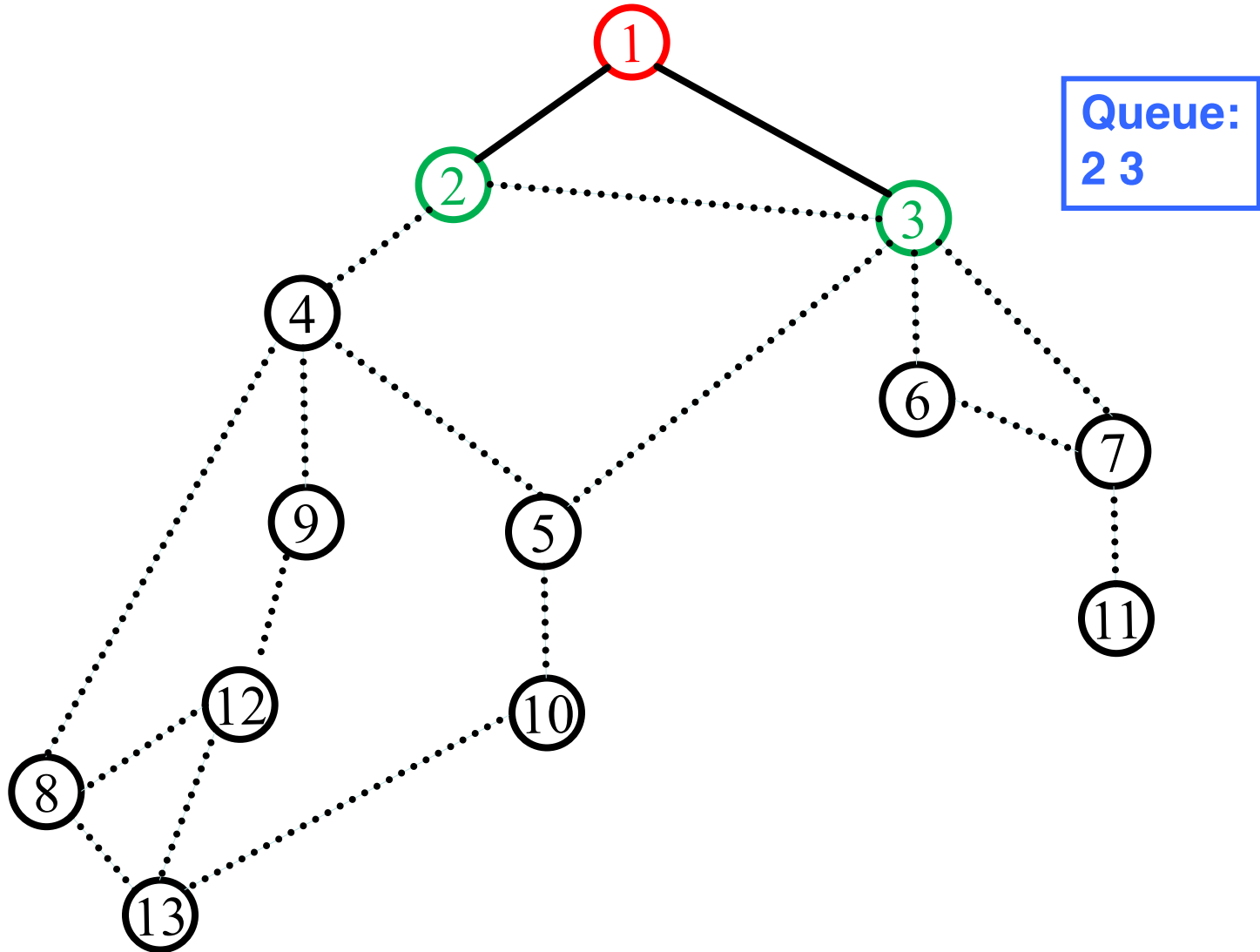
            append x on queue

    mark u fully-explored

# BFS(1)

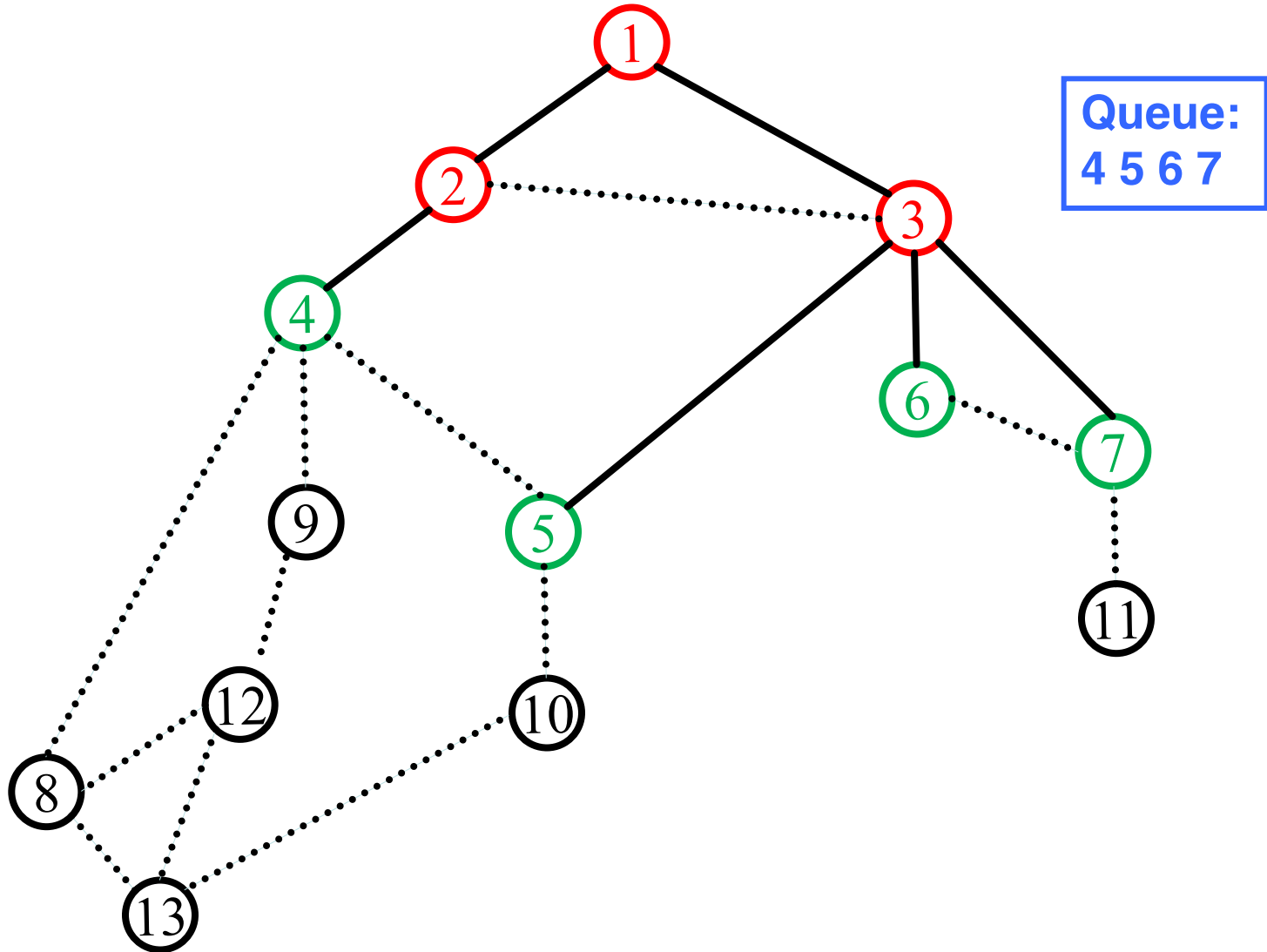


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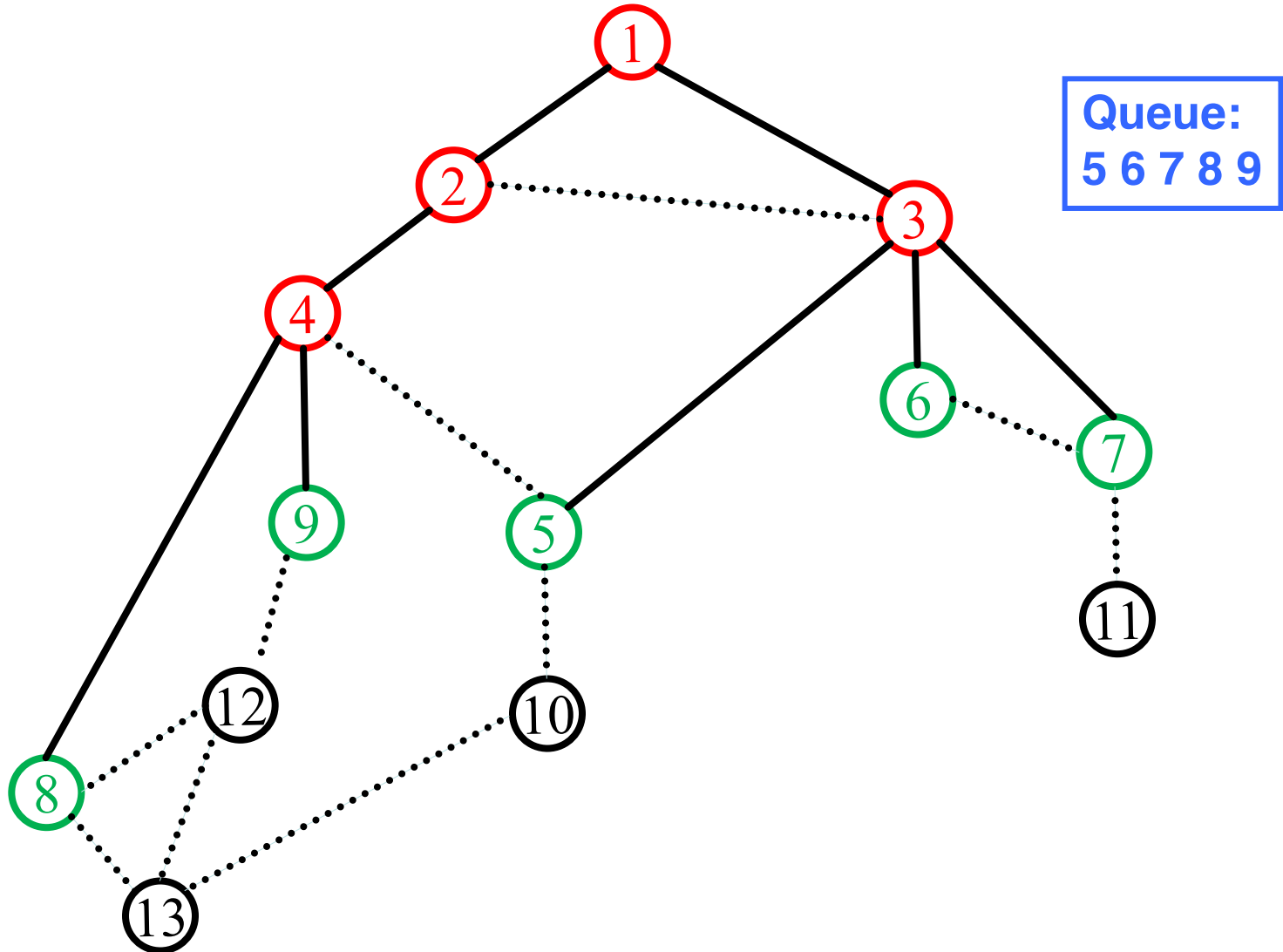




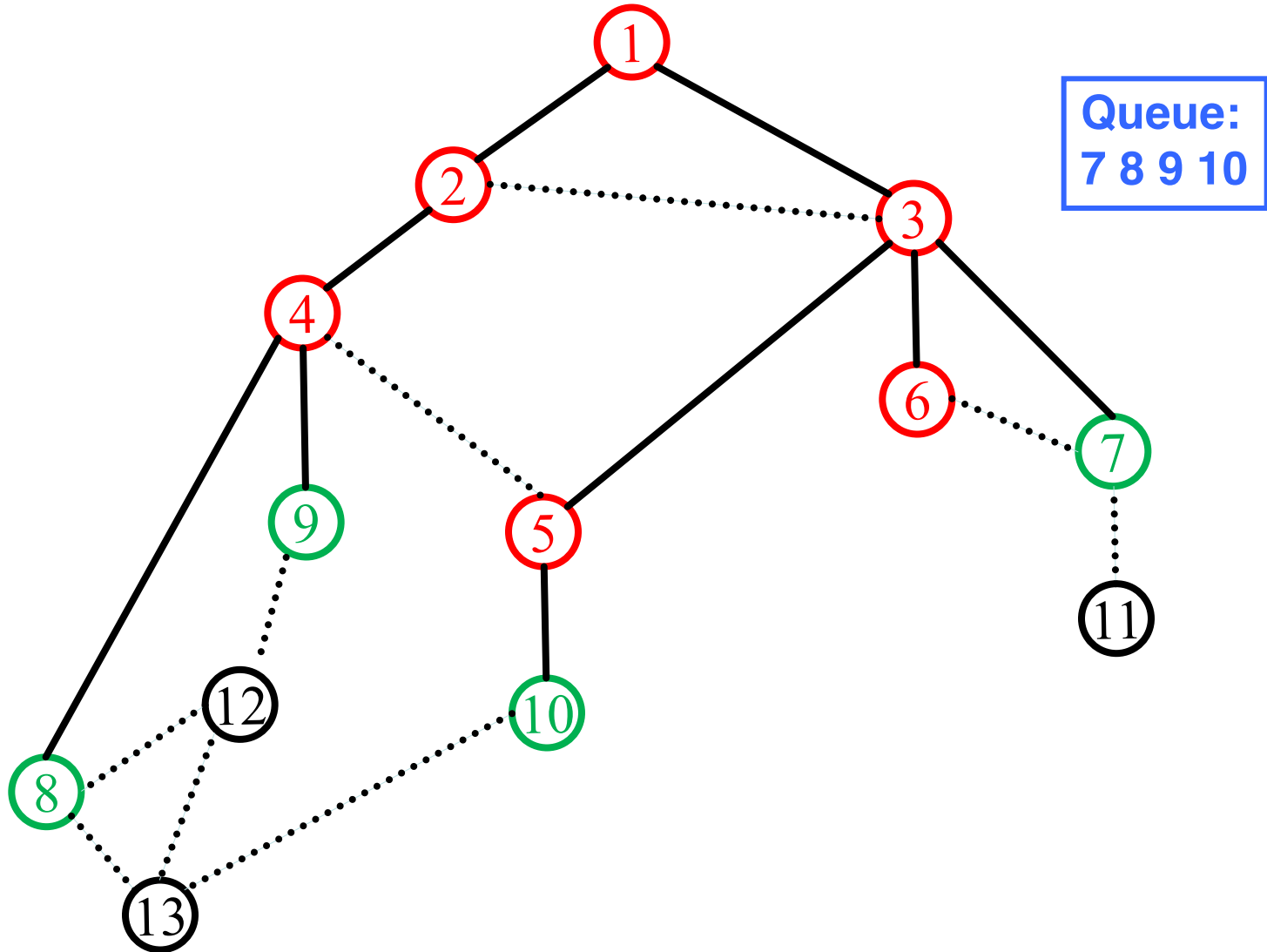
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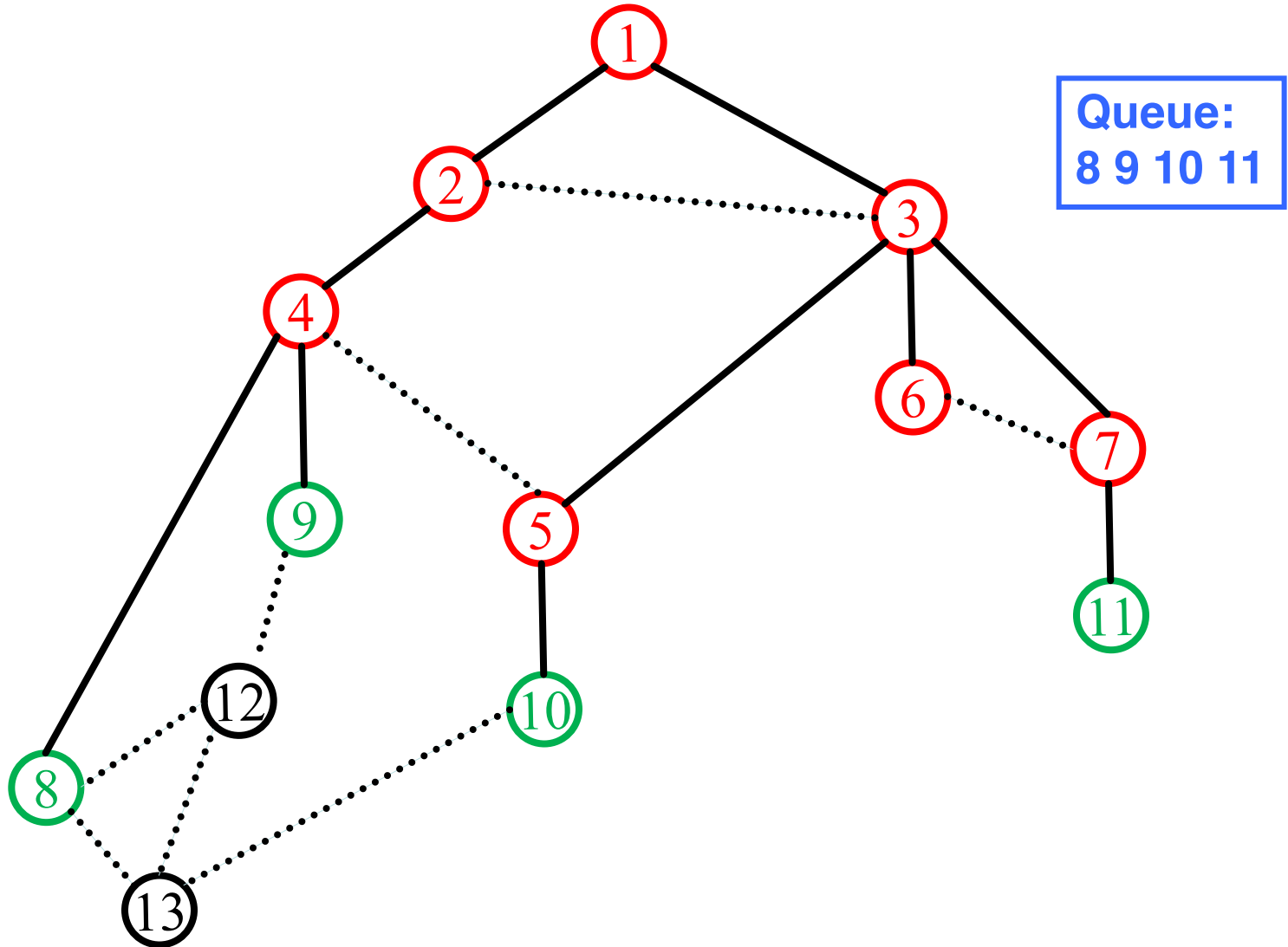


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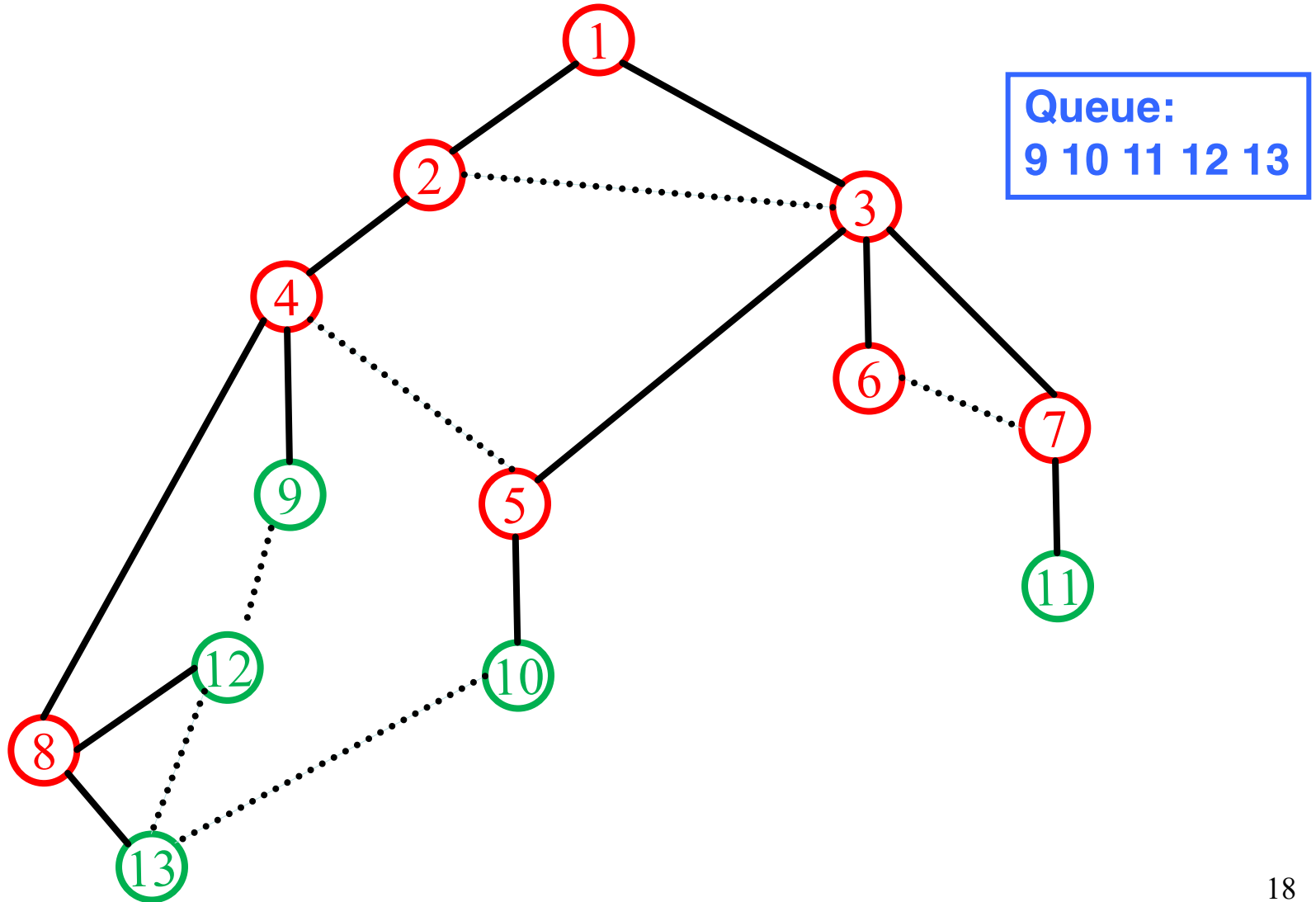




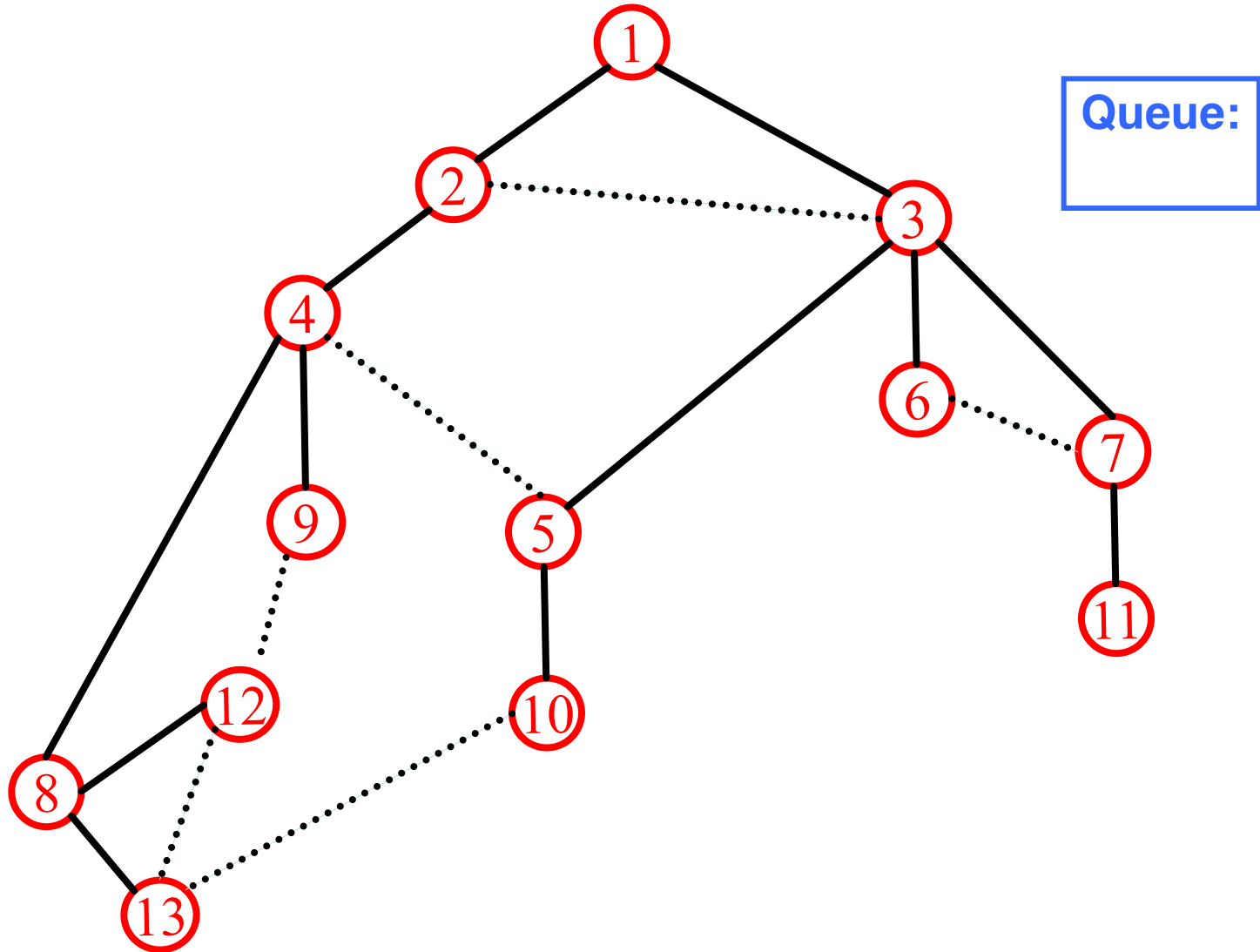
# BFS(1)



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# BFS Analysis

**Global initialization:** mark all vertices "undiscovered"

BFS(s)

mark s discovered

queue = { s }

**O(n) times: Once from every vertex if G is connected**

while queue not empty

u = remove\_first(queue)

**deg(u) ≤ O(n) times**

for each edge {u,x}

if (x is undiscovered)

mark x discovered

append x on queue

mark u fully-explored

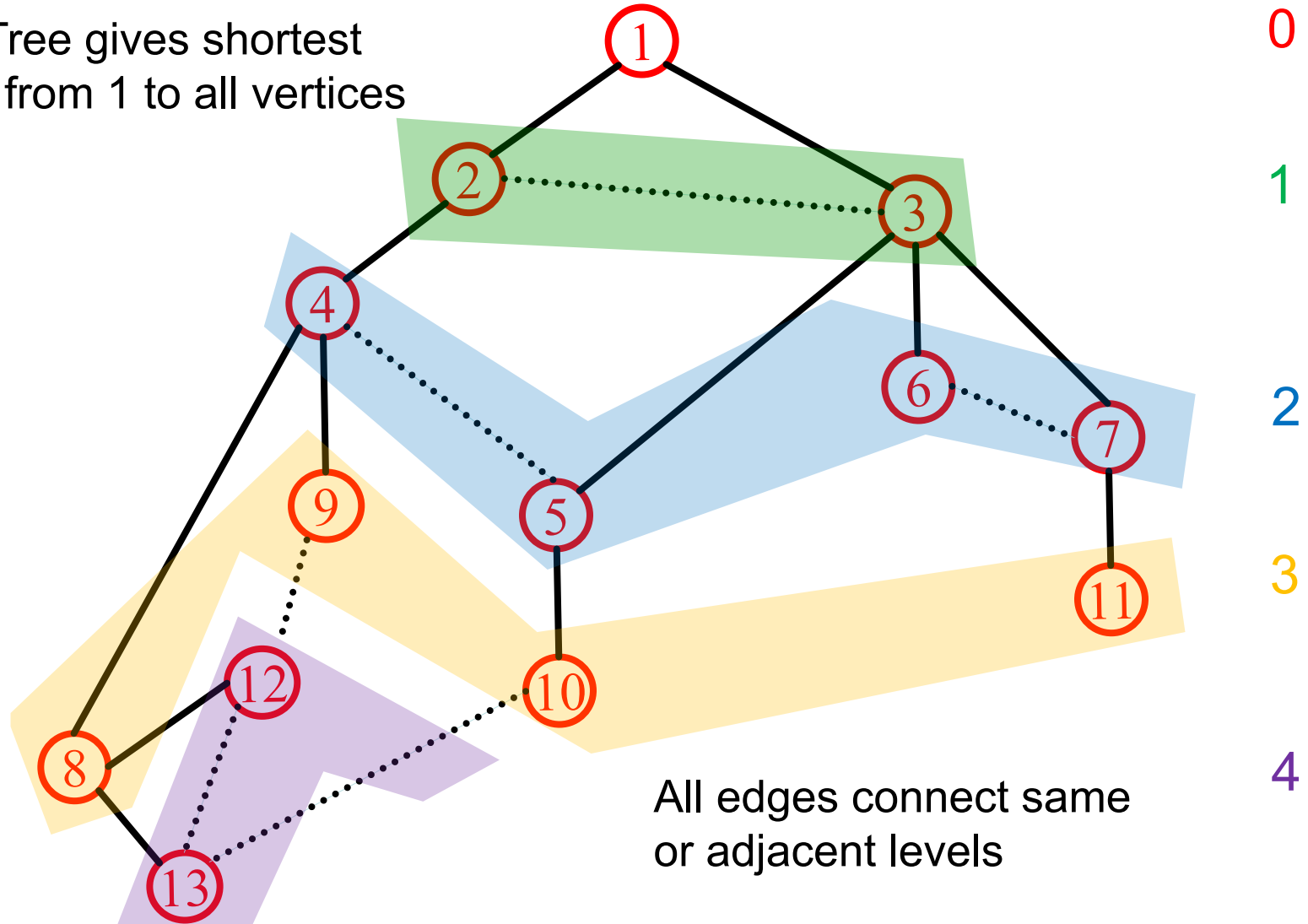
If we use adjacency list:  $O(n) + O(\sum_v \deg(v)) = O(m + n)$  20

# Properties of BFS

- **BFS(s)** visits a vertex  $v$  if and only if there is a path from  $s$  to  $v$
- Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a tree – the “Breadth First spanning tree” of  $G$
- Level  $i$  in the tree are exactly all vertices  $v$  s.t., the shortest path (in  $G$ ) from the root  $s$  to  $v$  is of length  $i$
- **All nontree edges** join vertices on the same or adjacent levels of the tree

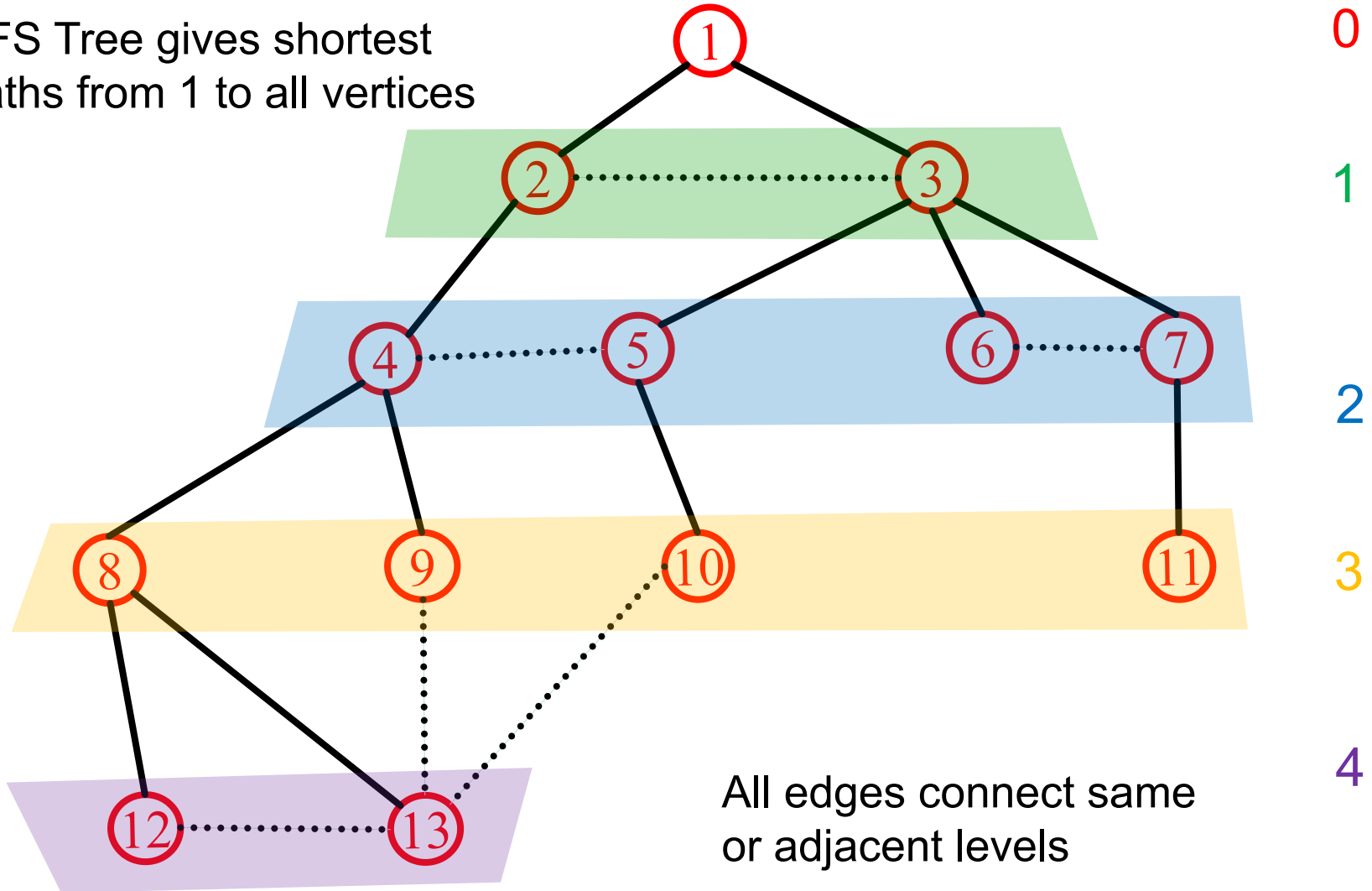
# BFS Application: Shortest Paths

BFS Tree gives shortest paths from 1 to all vertices



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# Properties of BFS

**Claim:** All nontree edges join vertices on the same or adjacent levels of the tree

**Pf:** Consider an edge  $\{x,y\}$

Say  $x$  is first discovered and it is added to level  $i$ .

We show  $y$  will be at level  $i$  or  $i + 1$

This is because when vertices incident to  $x$  are considered in the loop, if  $y$  is still undiscovered, it will be discovered and added to level  $i + 1$ .



# Properties of BFS

**Lemma:** All vertices at level  $i$  of BFS( $s$ ) have shortest path distance  $i$  to  $s$ .

**Claim:** If  $L(v) = i$  then shortest path  $\leq i$

**Pf:** Because there is a path of length  $i$  from  $s$  to  $v$  in the BFS tree

**Claim:** If shortest path =  $i$  then  $L(v) \leq i$

**Pf:** If shortest path =  $i$ , then say  $s = v_0, v_1, \dots, v_i = v$  is the shortest path to  $v$ .

By previous claim,

$$\begin{aligned}L(v_1) &\leq L(v_0) + 1 \\L(v_2) &\leq L(v_1) + 1\end{aligned}$$

$$L(v_i) \leq \overset{\dots}{L(v_{i-1})} + 1$$

So,  $L(v_i) \leq i$ .

This proves the lemma.

# Why Trees?

Trees are simpler than graphs

Many statements can be proved on trees by induction

So, computational problems on trees are simpler than general graphs

This is often a good way to approach a graph problem:

- Find a "nice" tree in the graph, i.e., one such that non-tree edges have some simplifying structure
- Solve the problem on the tree
- Use the solution on the tree to find a "good" solution on the graph