CSE 421: Introduction to Algorithms

Application of BFS

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Bipartite Graphs

Definition: An undirected graph G = (V, E) is bipartite if you can partition the vertex set into 2 parts (say, blue/red or left/right) so that all edges join vertices in different parts i.e., no edge has both ends in the same part.

Application:

- Scheduling: machine=red, jobs=blue
- Stable Matching: men=blue, woman=red



a bipartite graph

Testing Bipartiteness

Problem: Given a graph *G*, is it bipartite?

Many graph problems become:

 Easier/Tractable if the underlying graph is bipartite (matching)
Before attempting to design an algorithm, we need to understand structure of bipartite graphs.



An Obstruction to Bipartiteness

Lemma: If *G* is bipartite, then it does not contain an odd length cycle.

Proof: We cannot 2-color an odd cycle, let alone *G*.



bipartite (2-colorable)



not bipartite (not 2-colorable)

A Characterization of Bipartite Graphs

Lemma: Let *G* be a connected graph, and let $L_0, ..., L_k$ be the layers produced by BFS(*s*). Exactly one of the following holds.

- (i) No edge of *G* joins two nodes of the same layer, and *G* is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of *G* joins two nodes of the same layer, and *G* contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).







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G contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).

Proof. (i)

Suppose no edge joins two nodes in the same layer.

By previous lemma, all edges join nodes on adjacent levels.



Bipartition:

blue = nodes on odd levels,

red = nodes on even levels.

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Proof. (ii)

Suppose $\{x, y\}$ is an edge & x, y in same level L_j .

Let z = their lowest common ancestor in BFS tree.

Let L_i be level containing z.

Consider cycle that takes edge from x to y, then tree from y to z, then tree from z to x.

Its length is 1 + (j - i) + (j - i), which is odd. Layer $L_j(x)$

z = lca(x, y)

Layer L_i

 \mathcal{Z}

Obstruction to Bipartiteness

Corollary: A graph *G* is bipartite if and only if it contains no odd length cycles.

Furthermore, one can test bipartiteness using BFS.



bipartite (2-colorable)



not bipartite (not 2-colorable)

Summary

- **BFS**(*s*) implemented using queue.
- 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 layers of the tree
- Applications:
 - Shortest Path
 - Connected component
 - Test bipartiteness / 2-coloring



Depth First Search

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Depth First Search

Follow the first path you find as far as you can go; back up to last unexplored edge when you reach a dead end, then go as far you can



Naturally implemented using recursive calls or a stack



DFS(s) – Recursive version

Initialization: mark all vertices undiscovered

DFS(v) Mark v discovered for each edge {v, x} if (x is undiscovered) Mark x discovered $x \rightarrow parent = u$ DFS(x)

Mark v fully-discovered



Non-Tree Edges in DFS

BFS tree \neq DFS tree, but, as with BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple" in some way.

All non-tree edges join a vertex and one of its descendants/ancestors in the DFS tree


































































Properties of (undirected) DFS

Like BFS(s):

- DFS(s) visits x iff there is a path in G from s to x
 So, we can use DFS to find connected components
- Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a tree the "depth first spanning tree" of G

Unlike the BFS tree:

- The DF spanning tree isn't minimum depth
- Its levels don't reflect min distance from the root
- Non-tree edges never join vertices on the same or adjacent levels

Non-Tree Edges in DFS

Lemma: For every **undirected** edge $\{x, y\}$, then one of x or y is an ancestor of the other in the tree.

Proof:

Suppose that *x* is visited first.

Therefore DFS(x) was called before DFS(y)

Since $\{x, y\}$ is not in DFS tree, y was visited when the edge $\{x, y\}$ was examined during DFS(x)

Therefore y was visited during the call to DFS(x) so y is a descendant of x.

Non-Tree Edges (Directed Graph)

Lemma: For every **directed** edge (x, y), then either

- *y* is visited first or
- *y* is a descendant of *x*





Applications of DFS Topological sort

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Precedence Constraints

In a directed graph, an edge (i, j) means task *i* must occur before task *j*.

Applications

• Course prerequisite:

course *i* must be taken before *j*

• Compilation:

must compile module *i* before *j*

• Computing overflow:

output of job i is part of input to job j

 Manufacturing or assembly: sand it before paint it



Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAG)

Def: A directed acyclic graph (DAG) is a graph that contains no directed cycles.

Def: A topological order of a directed graph G = (V, E) is an ordering of its nodes as v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n so that for every edge (v_i, v_j) we have i < j.



DAGs: A Sufficient Condition

Lemma: If *G* has a topological order, then *G* is a DAG.

Proof. (by contradiction)

Suppose that G has a topological order 1, 2, ..., n and that G also has a directed cycle C.

Let *i* be the lowest-indexed node in *C*, and let *j* be the node just before *i*; thus (j, i) is an (directed) edge.

By our choice of i, we have i < j.

On the other hand, since (j, i) is an edge and 1, 2, ..., n is a topological order, we must have j < i, a contradiction

the directed cycle C

DAGs: A Sufficient Condition

G has a topological order



G is a DAG

Every DAG has a source node

Lemma: If *G* is a DAG, then *G* has a node with no incoming edges (i.e., a source).

The proof is similar to "tree has n - 1 edges".

Proof. (by contradiction)

Suppose that *G* is a DAG and it has no source

Pick any node v, and begin following edges backward from v. Since v has at least one incoming edge (u, v) we can walk backward to u.

Then, since u has at least one incoming edge (x, u), we can walk backward to x.

Repeat until we visit a node, say w, twice.

Let C be the sequence of nodes encountered between successive visits to w. C is a cycle.



DAG => Topological Order

Lemma: If G is a DAG, then G has a topological order

Proof. (by induction on n)

Base case: true if n = 1.

Hypothesis: Every DAG with n - 1 vertices has a topological ordering.

Inductive Step: Given DAG with n > 1 nodes, find a source node v.

 $G - \{v\}$ is a DAG, since deleting v cannot create cycles.

Reminder: Always remove vertices/edges to use IH

By hypothesis, $G - \{v\}$ has a topological ordering.

Place v first in topological ordering; then append nodes of $G - \{v\}$

in topological order. This is valid since v has no incoming edges.

A Characterization of DAGs

G has a topological order



G is a DAG

Quiz

How to find topological ordering in polynomial time?

Algorithm (n^2 time): Function $\pi = Order(G)$

- Find a vertex v in G with no incoming edge (Time: n)
- Return $(v, Order(G \{v\}))$. (Total Time: m)

How to improve the runtime?

• Maintain the set of vertices with no incoming edge.

Alternatively, you can solve this problem by DFS.

Example



Example



Topological order: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7

Summary for last few classes

- Terminology: vertices, edges, paths, connected component, tree, bipartite...
- Vertices vs Edges: $m = O(n^2)$ in general, m = n 1 for trees
- BFS: Layers, queue, shortest paths, all edges go to same or adjacent layer
- DFS: recursion/stack; all edges ancestor/descendant
- Algorithms: Connected Comp, bipartiteness, topological sort
- Techniques: Induction on vertices/layers