#### **Lecture 4** Breadth- and depth-first search, topological sort

Chinmay Nirkhe | CSE 421 Spring 2025



### Graph search and traversal

- Used to discover the structure of a graph
- "Walk" from a fixed starting vertex s ("the source") to find all the vertices reachable from s

- Generic traversal algorithm.
  - Input: Graph G and vertex  $s \in V$
  - Find: set  $R \subseteq V$  reachable from s

**Reachable(** *s* **):**  

$$R \leftarrow \{s\}$$
  
While there exists a  $(u, v) \in R \times (V)$   
Add *v* to *R*:  $R \leftarrow R \cup \{v\}$ .  
return *R*



- Used to explore the vertices in R according to their distance from s.
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### Generic graph traver

- Claim: R is exactly the set of reachable vert
- - traversal algorithm: If we added v by edge  $(u, v) \in R \times (V \setminus R)$  then  $s \prec u \to v$ .
  - **Direction 2**. Assume (for  $\perp$ ), there is a vertex v that is reachable but not  $v \notin R$ .
    - Let p = the path  $s \sim v$  and let v' be the **first** vertex on p such that  $v' \notin R$ .
    - Then u, the predecessor of v', satisfies  $u \in R$  and  $(u, v') \in R \times (V \setminus R)$ .
    - Contradicts the definition of the generic graph traversal.

	Reachable(s):
Sa	$R \leftarrow \{s\}$ While there exists a $(u, v) \in R \times (V)$
ticos	Add $v$ to $R: R \leftarrow R \cup \{v\}$ . return $R$

• **Proof:** We show both directions. (1): every vertex in R is reachable. (2): every reachable is in R.

• Direction 1. For  $v \in R$ , there is a path  $s \sim v$ . Proved by induction on the generic graph





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#### **Connected components**

- For a undirected graph G, a connected component  $C \subseteq V$  is a maximal set such that
  - For all pairs  $u, v \in C$ , there exists a path  $u \sim v$
  - There are no edges between C and  $V \setminus C$ .
- Then,  $u \sim v$  iff u, v in the same connected component

#### **Connected components**

#### Algorithm for computing connected components:

- Idea: Let  $V = \{1, ..., n\}$ . Create an array A(u) = smallest numbered vertex connected to u. A canonical name for the connected component.
- Then *u* and *v* are connected iff *A*( Better than storing all pairs of pat

$$(u) = A(v).$$
Taster when all pairs are being compared.

#### **Connected components**

#### Algorithm for computing connected components:

- Initialize all vertex as not visited.
- For  $s \leftarrow 1$  till n,
  - by the BFS and mark each vertex as visited.
- Total runtime: O(n + m) because
  - each edge a constant number of times.
  - Could have run any generic graph traversal actually as long as it is efficient

• If s is not visited, then run subroutine BFS(s) and set  $A(u) \leftarrow s$  for every vertex visited

• Each vertex is visited once by outer routine and the BFS runs are disjoint and observes

### **Depth-first search**

- Breadth-first search visits all the neighbors before diving in deeper
- Depth-first search visits as deep as possible
- The trees formed by the visiting order look quite different!
- Generated by different data structures but similar algorithm!
  - BFS: Queue first in, first out
  - DFS: Stack first in, last out



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Visit order





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Visit order S ナ 0 28 12

# Spanning trees

- A spanning tree  $T \subseteq E$  is a tree (no cycles) for a connected component such that every vertex in the component touches T.
- BFS and DFS both generate spanning trees but they are different!





What do the edges not included in the spanning tree look like?



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Could this red edge exist in the graph?

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Could this red edge exist in the graph? No. When adding a we must have added the red edge.





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Such an edge is called a cruss edge.



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What about this purple edge?

What do the edges not included in the spanning tree look like?

**Def.** A <u>back edge</u> is an edge that connects a vertex to an ancestor that is not it's parent in the tree.



What about this purple edge? Yes. Edges can connect

# No cross edges in DFS (for undirected graphs)

- Claim: During DFS(*x*), every vertex marked "visited" is a descendant of *x* in the DFS tree *T*.
- Claim: For every edge  $(x, y) \in E$ , either (x, y) is an edge in *T*, or else *x* or *y* is an ancestor of the other in *T*.
- Proof:
  - DFS is called recursively as we explore. Wlog, assume DFS(*x*) is called before DFS(*y*).
  - Case 1: y was marked "not visited" when (x, y) edge is examined. Then  $(x, y) \in T$  (see figure).
  - Case 2: *y* was marked "visited" when (*x*, *y*) edge is examined. Was visited in some other branch of the DFS(*x*) call. So *y* is a descendant of *x*.



# Applications of graph traversal

#### **Bipartiteness testing Application of graph traversal**

- between  $(x, y) \in X \times Y$ .
- such that each edge is between a red and a blue vertex.
- Input: Undirected graph G



• Recall, a graph is bipartite iff we can split  $V = X \sqcup Y$  such that every edge is

Equivalently, a graph is bipartite if we can color every vertex either red or blue

• Output: A coloring  $c: V \rightarrow \{red, blue\}$  if G is bipartite; else "not bipartite"



# Bipartite graph property

- Claim: A graph is bipartite iff it contains no odd cycles.
- Proof:
  - If it contains an odd cycle, we can't color the cycle let alone the rest of the graph.
  - If it contains no odd cycles, run BFS starting from some vertex s.
    - Color according to length from s in BFS tree with even = red, odd = blue.
    - If there exists an edge between colors, we found an odd cycle.





### **Bipartiteness testing**

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- Algorithm:
  - Start BFS from some vertex s. Instead of marking vertices as visited or not, marked them as "red", "blue", or "not visited". Mark s as red and add s to queue Q.
  - Pop vertex u from queue Q.
    - Check all neighbors v of u and make sure they are either "not visited" or the opposite color of *u*.
    - If not, abort and output "not bipartite".
    - If so, add the "not visited" neighbors v to the queue Q and color them with opposite color.
  - If queue Q is empty, output coloring generated.
- **Runtime:** Same as BFS, O(n + m).



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# **BFS edge property**

- The BFS algorithm generates a tree T starting from root s.
- Let layer  $L_i \subseteq V$  be the set of vertices distance *i* from *s* in *T*.
- Claim: The edges E only occur between adjacent layers or the same layer.
- **Proof**: If there is an edge  $(u, v) \in L_i \times L_{i+2}$ , then v should have been in  $L_{i+1}$  because it was added to the queue after u was analyzed.
- Therefore, "bad edges" for bipartite testing only occur within the same layer. This finds an odd cycle.



#### **Directed graphs**





### Depth-first search on directed graphs

- Same as DFS on undirected graphs except we only add neighbor v if an edge points from u → v.
- DFS starting from *s* will visit all vertices *u* reachable by a *directed* path *s* ∼ *u*.



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#### **Forward edge**

6---

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Connects vertex to its descendant in DFS tree

#### Back edge

Connects vertex to its ancestor in DFS tree

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Connects vertices across branches. Always high  $\rightarrow$  low in DFS tree



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# Strongly connected components

- Vertices *u* and *v* are strongly connected iff they are on a directed cycle. I.e. there is a directed path *u* → *v* and a directed path *v* → *u*.
- Every directed graph's vertices can be partitioned into strongly connected components where all pairs of vertices in the component are strongly connected
- Strongly connected components (SCCs) can be stored efficiently just like connected components
- SCCs can be found by extending DFS algorithm in O(n + m) time

### Strongly connected components



### Strongly connected components



### **Directed acyclic graphs**

- A directed graph G is *acyclic* iff it has no directed cycles
- Also referred to as a DAG
- the directed graph into a DAG

#### • If we shrink every strongly connected component to a vertex, this converts

# **Topological sorting of graphs**

- Input: a directed acyclic graph DAG G = (V, E)
- Output: An injective numbering N: V → {1,...,n} such that edges only go from lower numbered to higher numbered vertices.

i.e. for  $u \to v$ , we must have N(u) < N(v).

- Applications
  - Vertices represents tasks and edges represent prerequisites
  - Topological sorts gives a sequential ordering for how to solve the system
- For general graphs, generate DAG by shrinking SCCs and then process SCCs in the order given by topological sort.

### In-degree and out-degree





out degree 3

#### In-degree zero vertices

- Claim: Every DAG has at least one vertex of in-degree 0.
- Proof:
  - Assume every vertex has in-degree  $\geq 1$ .
  - Starting with any vertex v pick an in-edge  $u \rightarrow v$  and go in reverse to u. Repeat.
  - Since there are only *n* vertices, eventually a vertex will be repeated. This means there is a cycle, a contradiction.

# Algorithm for topological sort

- Any vertex  $v_1$  of in-degree 0 can be numbered as 1
- Can run DFS starting from  $v_1$
- Alternative simpler idea:
  - If we remove  $v_1$  and assign  $N(v_1) = 1$ , then the rest is still a DAG
  - Then, there is a new vertex  $v_2$  of in-degree 0
  - Repeat, until all vertices are exhausted







# ogical sort







on ... SO and

- slow.
- neighbors of  $v_i$  will decrease.

Issue is finding the next vertex that has in-degree 0. Can be algorithmically

• Observe that when we remove the vertex  $v_i$ , the in-degree of only the out-

#### **Algorithm:**

- Iterate through all vertices and set d(v) = in-degree of each vertex. Initialize queue Q with vertices such that d(v) = 0. Set  $j \leftarrow 1$ .
- While Q is non-empty, pop vertex u off queue
  - Set  $N(u) = j \cdot j \leftarrow j + 1$ .
  - Q.
- **Runtime:** Each edge is visited only once. So O(n + m) time.

• Decrease  $d(v) \leftarrow d(v) - 1$  for every neighbor v s.t.  $u \rightarrow v$ . If d(v) = 0, add v to