Elementary Graph Theory

Tao Hou

Outline

- Graphs: definitions (Review+New)
- Representations (Review)
- Topological sort
- DFS (mostly New)

$$G = (V, E)$$

- V is the set of vertices (also called nodes)
- *E* is the set of *edges*
 - an edge e = (u, v) from *E* is a pair of vertices where $u \in V$ and $v \in V$

$$G = (V, E)$$

- *V* is the set of *vertices* (also called *nodes*)
- *E* is the set of *edges*
 - an edge e = (u, v) from *E* is a pair of vertices where $u \in V$ and $v \in V$
- *directed* graph: an edge (*u*, *v*) is from *u* to *v* and has a direction
- *undirected* graph: no directions for the edges (so (u, v) = (v, u))

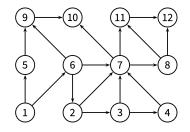
$$G = (V, E)$$

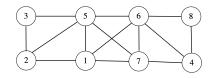
- V is the set of vertices (also called nodes)
- *E* is the set of *edges*
 - an edge e = (u, v) from *E* is a pair of vertices where $u \in V$ and $v \in V$
- *directed* graph: an edge (*u*, *v*) is from *u* to *v* and has a direction
- *undirected* graph: no directions for the edges (so (u, v) = (v, u))
- Sometimes given a graph *G*, we also let *V*(*G*) denote the vertex set and *E*(*G*) denote the edge set

$$G = (V, E)$$

- V is the set of vertices (also called nodes)
- *E* is the set of *edges*
 - an edge e = (u, v) from *E* is a pair of vertices where $u \in V$ and $v \in V$
- *directed* graph: an edge (*u*, *v*) is from *u* to *v* and has a direction
- *undirected* graph: no directions for the edges (so (u, v) = (v, u))
- Sometimes given a graph *G*, we also let *V*(*G*) denote the vertex set and *E*(*G*) denote the edge set
- In this course, unless otherwise noted, we assume graphs are *simple graphs*, i.e., no *self loops* or *parallel edges*.

Examples





Given a graph G = (V, E),

• We call G' = (V', E') a **subgraph** of G if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.

- We call G' = (V', E') a **subgraph** of G if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.
- For a subset of vertices $V' \subseteq V$, the subgraph G' = (V', E') *induced* by V' has an edge set consisting of all edges of G whose vertices are in V', i.e.,

$$E' = \{(u, v) \in E \mid u \in V' \text{ and } v \in V'\}$$

- We call G' = (V', E') a **subgraph** of G if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.
- For a subset of vertices $V' \subseteq V$, the subgraph G' = (V', E') *induced* by V' has an edge set consisting of all edges of G whose vertices are in V', i.e.,

$$E' = \{(u, v) \in E \mid u \in V' \text{ and } v \in V'\}$$

- A *path* in G is a sequence of vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k s.t. each (v_i, v_{i+1}) forms an edge in G
 - This applies to both directed and undirected graphs
 - Sometime a path also refers to the sequence of edges on the path

- We call G' = (V', E') a **subgraph** of G if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.
- For a subset of vertices $V' \subseteq V$, the subgraph G' = (V', E') **induced** by V' has an edge set consisting of all edges of G whose vertices are in V', i.e.,

$$E' = \{(u, v) \in E \mid u \in V' \text{ and } v \in V'\}$$

- A *path* in G is a sequence of vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k s.t. each (v_i, v_{i+1}) forms an edge in G
 - This applies to both directed and undirected graphs
 - Sometime a path also refers to the sequence of edges on the path
 - A path is called *simple* if there are no duplicate vertices on the path

- We call G' = (V', E') a **subgraph** of G if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.
- For a subset of vertices $V' \subseteq V$, the subgraph G' = (V', E') **induced** by V' has an edge set consisting of all edges of G whose vertices are in V', i.e.,

$$E' = \{(u, v) \in E \mid u \in V' \text{ and } v \in V'\}$$

- A *path* in G is a sequence of vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k s.t. each (v_i, v_{i+1}) forms an edge in G
 - This applies to both directed and undirected graphs
 - Sometime a path also refers to the sequence of edges on the path
 - A path is called *simple* if there are no duplicate vertices on the path
- A *cycle* is a path starting and ending at the same vertex
 - A cycle is called *simple* if there are no duplicate vertices on the cycle other than the starting and ending vertices

For a *directed* graph G = (V, E),

The *out-degree* of a vertex $x \in V$ is the number of edges starting with x, i.e,

$$out-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid u = x\}|$$

The *in-degree* of a vertex $x \in V$ is the number of edges ending with x, i.e,

$$in-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid v = x\}|$$

For a *directed* graph G = (V, E),

The *out-degree* of a vertex $x \in V$ is the number of edges starting with x, i.e,

$$out-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid u = x\}|$$

The *in-degree* of a vertex $x \in V$ is the number of edges ending with x, i.e,

$$in-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid v = x\}|$$

We have

$$\sum_{v \in V} \mathsf{out-deg}(v) = \sum_{v \in V} \mathsf{in-deg}(v) = |E|$$

For a *directed* graph G = (V, E),

■ The *out-degree* of a vertex *x* ∈ *V* is the number of edges starting with *x*, i.e,

$$out-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid u = x\}|$$

■ The *in-degree* of a vertex *x* ∈ *V* is the number of edges ending with *x*, i.e,

$$in-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid v = x\}|$$

We have

$$\sum_{v \in V} \mathsf{out-deg}(v) = \sum_{v \in V} \mathsf{in-deg}(v) = |E|$$

For an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),

■ The *degree* of a vertex *x* ∈ *V* is the number of edges having *x* as a vertex, i.e,

$$\deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid u = x \text{ or } v = x\}|$$

For a *directed* graph G = (V, E),

■ The *out-degree* of a vertex *x* ∈ *V* is the number of edges starting with *x*, i.e,

$$out-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid u = x\}|$$

■ The *in-degree* of a vertex *x* ∈ *V* is the number of edges ending with *x*, i.e,

$$in-deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid v = x\}|$$

We have

$$\sum_{v \in V} \mathsf{out-deg}(v) = \sum_{v \in V} \mathsf{in-deg}(v) = |E|$$

For an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),

■ The *degree* of a vertex *x* ∈ *V* is the number of edges having *x* as a vertex, i.e,

$$\deg(x) = |\{(u, v) \in E \mid u = x \text{ or } v = x\}|$$

We have

$$\sum_{\mathbf{v}\in\mathbf{V}}\deg(\mathbf{v})=2|\mathbf{E}|$$

Given an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),

■ Two vertices *u*, *v* are *connected* in *G* if there is a path from *u* to *v* in *G*

Given an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),

- Two vertices *u*, *v* are *connected* in *G* if there is a path from *u* to *v* in *G*
- A connected component U ⊆ V of G is a maximal set of vertices where each pair are connected by a path in G (maximal means you cannot add more vertices to U anymore)

- Given an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),
 - Two vertices *u*, *v* are *connected* in *G* if there is a path from *u* to *v* in *G*
 - A connected component U ⊆ V of G is a maximal set of vertices where each pair are connected by a path in G (maximal means you cannot add more vertices to U anymore)
 - Sometimes, a connected component also refers to the *subgraph induced by U*.

- Given an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),
 - Two vertices *u*, *v* are *connected* in *G* if there is a path from *u* to *v* in *G*
 - A connected component U ⊆ V of G is a maximal set of vertices where each pair are connected by a path in G (maximal means you cannot add more vertices to U anymore)
 - Sometimes, a connected component also refers to the *subgraph induced by U*.
 - *G* is called *connected* if it contains a single connected component (i.e., every two vertices are connected by a path)

- Given an *undirected* graph G = (V, E),
 - Two vertices *u*, *v* are *connected* in *G* if there is a path from *u* to *v* in *G*
 - A connected component U ⊆ V of G is a maximal set of vertices where each pair are connected by a path in G (maximal means you cannot add more vertices to U anymore)
 - Sometimes, a connected component also refers to the subgraph induced by U.
 - *G* is called *connected* if it contains a single connected component (i.e., every two vertices are connected by a path)

The version of 'connected components' for *directed* graphs are called *strongly connected components*, which we do not touch

 Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges

- Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges
- A forest is an acyclic, undirected graph

- Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges
- A forest is an acyclic, undirected graph
 - Each connected component is a tree (so a forest nothing but a disjoint-union of trees)

- Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges
- A forest is an acyclic, undirected graph
 - Each connected component is a tree (so a forest nothing but a disjoint-union of trees)
- A rooted tree is a directed graph derived from a tree (which is undirected) by choosing a root vertex first, and then directing edges s.t. each edge points from a parent to its child.

- Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges
- A *forest* is an *acyclic*, *undirected* graph
 - Each connected component is a tree (so a forest nothing but a disjoint-union of trees)
- A rooted tree is a directed graph derived from a tree (which is undirected) by choosing a root vertex first, and then directing edges s.t. each edge points from a parent to its child.
 - One way to understand the 'directing' process: perform a DFS on the tree starting from the root. The directed edges always point from a vertex visited *earlier* to a vertex visited *later*
 - Specifically, the root vertex is visited the earliest, so edges are always pointing from the root to other vertices

- Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges
- A *forest* is an *acyclic*, *undirected* graph
 - Each connected component is a tree (so a forest nothing but a disjoint-union of trees)
- A rooted tree is a directed graph derived from a tree (which is undirected) by choosing a root vertex first, and then directing edges s.t. each edge points from a parent to its child.
 - One way to understand the 'directing' process: perform a DFS on the tree starting from the root. The directed edges always point from a vertex visited *earlier* to a vertex visited *later*
 - Specifically, the root vertex is visited the earliest, so edges are always pointing from the root to other vertices
 - Most 'tree data structures' are indeed rooted trees, e.g., binary trees, heaps, B-tree

- Here 'acyclic' means having no *edge-disjoint* cycles, i.e., there is not a cycle containing distinct edges
- A *forest* is an *acyclic*, *undirected* graph
 - Each connected component is a tree (so a forest nothing but a disjoint-union of trees)
- A rooted tree is a directed graph derived from a tree (which is undirected) by choosing a root vertex first, and then directing edges s.t. each edge points from a parent to its child.
 - One way to understand the 'directing' process: perform a DFS on the tree starting from the root. The directed edges always point from a vertex visited *earlier* to a vertex visited *later*
 - Specifically, the root vertex is visited the earliest, so edges are always pointing from the root to other vertices
 - Most 'tree data structures' are indeed rooted trees, e.g., binary trees, heaps, B-tree
- More on rooted tree:
 - Each vertex has exactly one in-coming edge from its *parent* except the root, which has no in-coming edges.
 - If there is a path from *u* to *v*, then *u* is an *ancestor* of *v* and *v* is a *descendant* of *u*

Observation A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

Proof:

■ Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:
 - ► If the number of edges is < n 1, then the number of connected components cannot decrease to one (adding each edge decreases the number of connected component by at most one)

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:
 - ► If the number of edges is < n 1, then the number of connected components cannot decrease to one (adding each edge decreases the number of connected component by at most one)
- Number of edges cannot be > *n* − 1:

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:
 - ► If the number of edges is < n 1, then the number of connected components cannot decrease to one (adding each edge decreases the number of connected component by at most one)
- Number of edges cannot be > n 1:
 - If the number of edges is > n 1, consider adding the first n 1 edges.

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:
 - ► If the number of edges is < n 1, then the number of connected components cannot decrease to one (adding each edge decreases the number of connected component by at most one)
- Number of edges cannot be > *n* − 1:
 - If the number of edges is > n 1, consider adding the first n 1 edges.
 - Since the tree has no cycle, only situation (1) can happen.

Some facts about trees

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

Proof:

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:
 - ► If the number of edges is < n 1, then the number of connected components cannot decrease to one (adding each edge decreases the number of connected component by at most one)
- Number of edges cannot be > *n* − 1:
 - If the number of edges is > n 1, consider adding the first n 1 edges.
 - Since the tree has no cycle, only situation (1) can happen.
 - So after adding the n 1 edges, there is only one connected component.

Some facts about trees

Observation

A tree with *n* vertices has n - 1 edges.

Proof:

- Consider that initially we only have the *n* vertices of the tree, and we add each of the *n* − 1 edges one by one.
- When we add each edge, exactly one of the following two things can happen:
 - (1) Two connected components in the graph merge into one connected component (number of connected components decrease by 1);
 - (2) A cycle is created (number of connected components stays the same).
- Number of edges cannot be < *n* − 1:
 - ► If the number of edges is < n 1, then the number of connected components cannot decrease to one (adding each edge decreases the number of connected component by at most one)
- Number of edges cannot be > n 1:
 - If the number of edges is > n 1, consider adding the first n 1 edges.
 - Since the tree has no cycle, only situation (1) can happen.
 - So after adding the n 1 edges, there is only one connected component.
 - ► This means that when we add the *n*-th edge, it must create a cycle.

Some facts about trees

Fact

A connected, undirected graph with n vertices and n - 1 edges is a tree

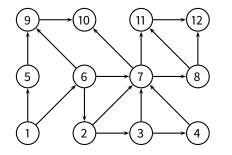
Graph Representation (Review)

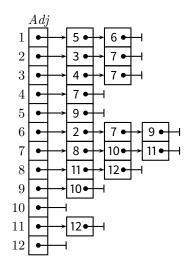
• How do we represent a graph G = (V, E) in a computer?

Adjacency-list representation:

- $V = \{1, 2, \dots, |V|\}$
- *G* consists of an array *Adj*
- A vertex $u \in V$ is represented by an element in the array Adj
- *Adj*[*u*] is the *adjacency list* of vertex *u*
 - the list of the vertices that are adjacent to u
 - i.e., the list of all v such that $(u, v) \in E$
 - Notice the difference between *directed* and *undirected* graphs

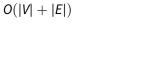
Example



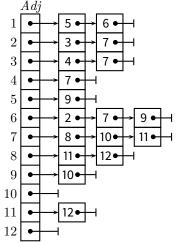


Using the Adjacency List (Review)

- Iteration through E?
 - okay (not optimal)
- Checking $(u, v) \in E$?
 - looks bad, but it depends



O(|V|)



Adjacency-Matrix Representation (Review)

Adjacency-matrix representation:

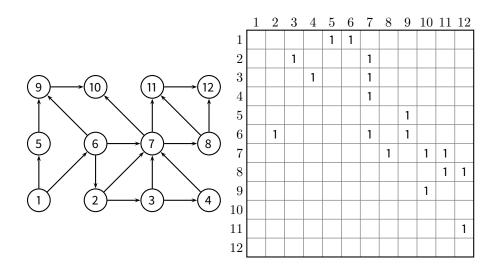
 $V = \{1, 2, \dots |V|\}$

• G consists of a $|V| \times |V|$ matrix A

• $A = (a_{ij})$ such that

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i,j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example

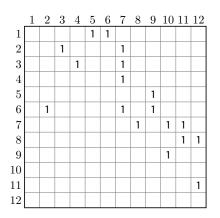


Using the Adjacency Matrix (Review)

- Iteration through *E*? $O(|V|^2)$
 - possibly very bad
- Checking $(u, v) \in E$?

O(1)

optimal



Space Complexity (Review)

Adjacency-list representation



optimal

Adjacency-matrix representation



possibly very bad

Choosing a Graph Representation (Review)

- Adjacency-list representation
 - generally good, especially for its optimal space complexity
 - bad for *dense* graphs and algorithms that require random access to edges
 - preferable for sparse graphs or graphs with low degree
- Adjacency-matrix representation
 - suffers from a bad space complexity
 - good for algorithms that require random access to edges
 - preferable for *dense* graphs
- Sparse vs. dense graph
 - ► *Sparse* graph: |*E*| = *O*(|*V*|)
 - **Dense** graph: $|\mathbf{E}| = \Theta(|\mathbf{V}|^2)$

Topological Sort

Problem: (topological sort)

Given a directed acyclic graph (DAG)

- find an ordering of vertices such that you only end up with *forward edges*
- ► in another word, if there is an edge (u, v), then u appears before v in the ordering (that's also the reason why we can do this *only* on DAG instead of general graphs)

Topological Sort

Problem: (topological sort)

Given a directed acyclic graph (DAG)

- find an ordering of vertices such that you only end up with *forward edges*
- ► in another word, if there is an edge (u, v), then u appears before v in the ordering (that's also the reason why we can do this *only* on DAG instead of general graphs)
- Note: The 'acyclic' here is for directed graphs and therefore means only 'no cycles' (we don't need to say 'no edge-disjoint cycles' here)

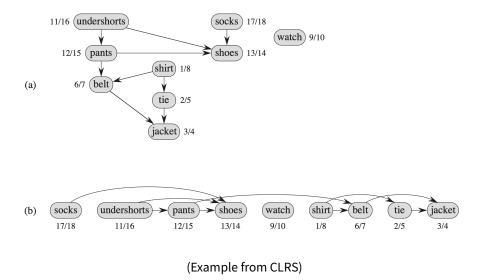
Topological Sort

Problem: (topological sort)

Given a directed acyclic graph (DAG)

- find an ordering of vertices such that you only end up with *forward edges*
- ► in another word, if there is an edge (u, v), then u appears before v in the ordering (that's also the reason why we can do this *only* on DAG instead of general graphs)
- Note: The 'acyclic' here is for directed graphs and therefore means only 'no cycles' (we don't need to say 'no edge-disjoint cycles' here)
- **Example:** dependencies in software packages
 - find an installation order for a set of software packages
 - such that every package is installed only after all the packages it depends on

Example



Topological Sort Algorithm

$\mathbf{TOPOLOGICAL}\textbf{-}\mathbf{SORt}(G)$

- 1 while $\exists v \in V$ s.t. in-deg(v) = 0
- 2 output v
- 3 remove *v* and all its out-going edges from *G*

Topological Sort Algorithm

```
TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)
```

- 1 while $\exists v \in V$ s.t. in-deg(v) = 0
- 2 output v
- 3 remove *v* and all its out-going edges from *G*

Argument of correctness:

- We remove an edge only when its starting vertex has been output in the order
- Thus, when a vertex v has in-degree 0, this means that all vertices pointing to v (if any) have been output, so that we can also safely output v

Topological Sort Algorithm

```
\textbf{TOPOLOGICAL-SORT}(G)
```

```
1 while \exists v \in V s.t. in-deg(v) = 0
```

2 output v

3 remove v and all its out-going edges from G

Argument of correctness:

- We remove an edge only when its starting vertex has been output in the order
- Thus, when a vertex v has in-degree 0, this means that all vertices pointing to v (if any) have been output, so that we can also safely output v

Question:

■ Why should there always be a vertex with 0 in-degree?

Topological Sort: Alternative Algorithm

$\mathbf{TOPOLOGICAL}\textbf{-}\mathbf{SORT}(G)$

- 1 **DFS**(G)
- 2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

Topological Sort: Alternative Algorithm

```
\textbf{TOPOLOGICAL-SORT}(G)
```

- $\mathbf{DFS}(G)$
- 2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

We will see why this algorithm works later on.

Some comments:

- The first algorithm is mainly of theoretical value (helps you to understand the whole procedure)
- In practice, you should utilize DFS to compute topological sorting for DAGs because it's much simpler (you don't need to bother to delete the edges)
- So topological sort can be done in O(|V| + |E|) time

- Input: G = (V, E), which can be *directed* or *undirected*
- Explores the graph starting from *s*, touching all vertices that are reachable from *s*

- Input: G = (V, E), which can be *directed* or *undirected*
- Explores the graph starting from *s*, touching all vertices that are reachable from *s*
 - We also enumerate *all possible* seeds and traverse the entire graph eventually

- Input: G = (V, E), which can be *directed* or *undirected*
- Explores the graph starting from *s*, touching all vertices that are reachable from *s*
 - We also enumerate *all possible* seeds and traverse the entire graph eventually
- Visiting of vertices is done in *recursive* fashion:
 - ► When we visit a vertex *u*, we immediately visit an adjacent vertex *v* of *u* without finishing the visiting of *u*
 - We finish visiting u when all adjacent vertices has been visited (hence the finishing of the visiting is defined recursively)
 - We backtrack when we finish visiting a vertex (done automatically by recursion)

- Input: G = (V, E), which can be *directed* or *undirected*
- Explores the graph starting from *s*, touching all vertices that are reachable from *s*
 - We also enumerate *all possible* seeds and traverse the entire graph eventually
- Visiting of vertices is done in *recursive* fashion:
 - ► When we visit a vertex *u*, we immediately visit an adjacent vertex *v* of *u* without finishing the visiting of *u*
 - We finish visiting u when all adjacent vertices has been visited (hence the finishing of the visiting is defined recursively)
 - We backtrack when we finish visiting a vertex (done automatically by recursion)
- Produces a *DFS forest*, consisting of all the *DFS trees* rooted at the seeds

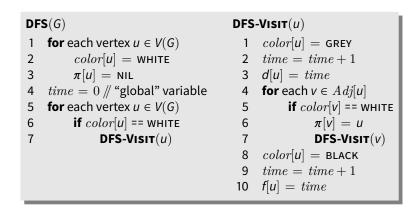
- Input: G = (V, E), which can be *directed* or *undirected*
- Explores the graph starting from *s*, touching all vertices that are reachable from *s*
 - We also enumerate *all possible* seeds and traverse the entire graph eventually
- Visiting of vertices is done in *recursive* fashion:
 - ► When we visit a vertex *u*, we immediately visit an adjacent vertex *v* of *u* without finishing the visiting of *u*
 - We finish visiting u when all adjacent vertices has been visited (hence the finishing of the visiting is defined recursively)
 - We backtrack when we finish visiting a vertex (done automatically by recursion)
- Produces a DFS forest, consisting of all the DFS trees rooted at the seeds
- Coloring for vertices:
 - white: not yet visited
 - grey: being visited, but haven't finished visiting
 - black: finished visiting

- Input: G = (V, E), which can be *directed* or *undirected*
- Explores the graph starting from *s*, touching all vertices that are reachable from *s*
 - We also enumerate *all possible* seeds and traverse the entire graph eventually
- Visiting of vertices is done in *recursive* fashion:
 - ► When we visit a vertex *u*, we immediately visit an adjacent vertex *v* of *u* without finishing the visiting of *u*
 - We finish visiting u when all adjacent vertices has been visited (hence the finishing of the visiting is defined recursively)
 - We backtrack when we finish visiting a vertex (done automatically by recursion)
- Produces a DFS forest, consisting of all the DFS trees rooted at the seeds
- Coloring for vertices:
 - white: not yet visited
 - grey: being visited, but haven't finished visiting
 - black: finished visiting
- Associates two time-stamps to each vertex
 - ► *d*[*u*] records when DFS starts visiting *u* (turns *grey*)
 - f[u] records when DFS finishes visiting u and therefore backtracks from u (turns black)

DFS Algorithm

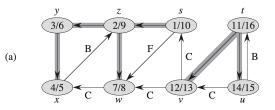
$\mathbf{DFS}(G)$ **DFS-VISIT**(u)**for** each vertex $u \in V(G)$ 1 color[u] = GREY2 time = time + 1color[u] = WHITE2 3 3 d[u] = time $\pi[u] = \text{NIL}$ time = 0 // "global" variable 4 **for** each $v \in A dj[u]$ 4 5 **if** co 6 7 5 **for** each vertex $u \in V(G)$ if color[v] == WHITE **if** color[u] == WHITE $\pi[v] = u$ 6 7 **DFS-Visit**(u)**DFS-Visit**(*v*) 8 color[u] = black9 time = time + 110 f[u] = time

DFS Algorithm



A first very silly question: Can DFS ever end?

DFS: Example



(Example from CLRS)

Complexity of DFS

Complexity of DFS

- The loop in **DFS-VISIT**(u) (lines 4–7) executes for O(out-deg(u)) times
- We call **DFS-VISIT**(*u*) once for each vertex *u*
 - either in **DFS**, or recursively in **DFS-VISIT**
 - because we call it only if color[u] = WHITE, but then we immediately set color[u] = GREY
- So, the overall complexity is $\Theta(|V| + |E|)$

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

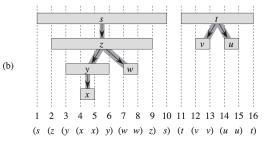
- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

Example (from CLRS):



Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

proof:

• Without loss of generality, assume d[u] < d[v]

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

proof:

- Without loss of generality, assume d[u] < d[v]
- Then, by comparing d[v] with f[u], we have two case: (1) d[v] < f[u]; (2) d[v] > f[u]

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

proof:

- Without loss of generality, assume d[u] < d[v]
- Then, by comparing d[v] with f[u], we have two case: (1) d[v] < f[u]; (2) d[v] > f[u]
- First consider d[v] < f[u] (aka. d[u] < d[v] < f[u])

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

- Without loss of generality, assume d[u] < d[v]
- Then, by comparing d[v] with f[u], we have two case: (1) d[v] < f[u]; (2) d[v] > f[u]
- First consider d[v] < f[u] (aka. d[u] < d[v] < f[u])
- Observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

- Without loss of generality, assume d[u] < d[v]
- Then, by comparing d[v] with f[u], we have two case: (1) d[v] < f[u]; (2) d[v] > f[u]
- First consider d[v] < f[u] (aka. d[u] < d[v] < f[u])
- Observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations
- This means that *v* is a descendant of *u* in the DFS forest

Parenthesis Theorem

In a DFS on a (directed or undirected) graph *G*, for any two vertices *u* and *v*, exactly one of the following two holds:

- 1. The intervals [d[u], f[u]] and [d[v], f[v]] are entirely disjoint, and neither one is a descendant of the other in the DFS forest
- 2. One interval is entirely contained in the other interval, and the vertex is a descendant of another (e.g., $[d[v], f[v]] \subseteq [d[u], f[u]]$ and v is a descendant of u)

- Without loss of generality, assume d[u] < d[v]
- Then, by comparing d[v] with f[u], we have two case: (1) d[v] < f[u]; (2) d[v] > f[u]
- First consider d[v] < f[u] (aka. d[u] < d[v] < f[u])
- Observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations
- This means that *v* is a descendant of *u* in the DFS forest
- Also, the visiting of *u* cannot finish before we finish visiting *u* (this is how recursive calls work), so f[v] < f[u] (aka. d[u] < d[v] < f[v] < f[u])

- Now consider d[v] > f[u]
- Obviously, d[u] < f[u] < d[v] < f[v], so the two intervals are disjoint

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v on G consisting of *only* white vertices

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v on G consisting of only white vertices

- " \Rightarrow ": let *w* be any descendant of *u* in the DFS tree
- By the previous Parenthesis Theorem, we have that d[u] < d[w], so we *u* is discovered, *w* is still white
- Notice that on the path from *u* to *v* in the DFS tree, all vertices are descendants of *v*, so all of them are white at time *d*[*u*]

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v consisting of only white vertices

proof (continue):

■ "←": Use proof by contradiction, suppose that there is a "white path" from *u* to *v* at time *d*[*u*], but *v* is not a descendant of *u* in the DFS tree

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v consisting of only white vertices

- "←": Use proof by contradiction, suppose that there is a "white path" from *u* to *v* at time *d*[*u*], but *v* is not a descendant of *u* in the DFS tree
- Let *x* be the first vertex on the path that is not a descendant of *u* (why such an *x* exists?)

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v consisting of only white vertices

- "←": Use proof by contradiction, suppose that there is a "white path" from *u* to *v* at time *d*[*u*], but *v* is not a descendant of *u* in the DFS tree
- Let *x* be the first vertex on the path that is not a descendant of *u* (why such an *x* exists?)
- Let *w* be the predecessor of *x* on the path (so that *w* is a descendant of *u*; notice that *w* could be *u* itself)

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v consisting of only white vertices

- "⇐": Use proof by contradiction, suppose that there is a "white path" from *u* to *v* at time *d*[*u*], but *v* is not a descendant of *u* in the DFS tree
- Let *x* be the first vertex on the path that is not a descendant of *u* (why such an *x* exists?)
- Let *w* be the predecessor of *x* on the path (so that *w* is a descendant of *u*; notice that *w* could be *u* itself)
- Since *d*[*u*] < *d*[*x*], by the Parenthesis Theorem, we must have *d*[*u*] < *f*[*u*] < *d*[*x*] (because *x* is not descendant of *u*)

White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v consisting of only white vertices

- "⇐": Use proof by contradiction, suppose that there is a "white path" from *u* to *v* at time *d*[*u*], but *v* is not a descendant of *u* in the DFS tree
- Let *x* be the first vertex on the path that is not a descendant of *u* (why such an *x* exists?)
- Let *w* be the predecessor of *x* on the path (so that *w* is a descendant of *u*; notice that *w* could be *u* itself)
- Since *d*[*u*] < *d*[*x*], by the Parenthesis Theorem, we must have *d*[*u*] < *f*[*u*] < *d*[*x*] (because *x* is not descendant of *u*)
- Consider the time the search visits *w*, we must have that *x* is white during the whole process (because if you haven't finish visiting *w*, you definitely haven't finished visiting *u*)

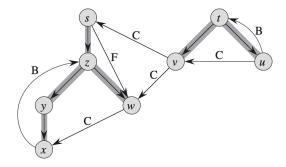
White-Path Theorem

In a DFS forest of a (directed or undirected) graph G, a vertex v is a descendant of a vertex u if and only if at time d[u], there is a path from u to v consisting of only white vertices

- "⇐": Use proof by contradiction, suppose that there is a "white path" from *u* to *v* at time *d*[*u*], but *v* is not a descendant of *u* in the DFS tree
- Let *x* be the first vertex on the path that is not a descendant of *u* (why such an *x* exists?)
- Let *w* be the predecessor of *x* on the path (so that *w* is a descendant of *u*; notice that *w* could be *u* itself)
- Since *d*[*u*] < *d*[*x*], by the Parenthesis Theorem, we must have *d*[*u*] < *f*[*u*] < *d*[*x*] (because *x* is not descendant of *u*)
- Consider the time the search visits w, we must have that x is white during the whole process (because if you haven't finish visiting w, you definitely haven't finished visiting u)
- But if this is true, then x must be a descendant of w and in turn a descendant of u (a contradiction)

Four Types of Edges in DFS on Undirected Graphs

- *Tree edge*: Edges on the DFS forest
- Back edge: Connecting a vertex to its ancestor in the DFS forest
- **Forward edge**: Non-tree edges connecting a vertex to its *descendant* in the DFS forest
- Cross edge: all other edges



(Example from CLRS)

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

proof:

∎ "⇐": easy

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"
- Suppose that *G* contains a cycle *c*

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"
- Suppose that *G* contains a cycle *c*
- Without loss of generality, assume *c* is a simple cycle

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"
- Suppose that *G* contains a cycle *c*
- Without loss of generality, assume *c* is a simple cycle
- Let *v* be the first vertex on *c* discovered by DFS , and let *u* be the vertex pointing to *v* on *c*

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"
- Suppose that *G* contains a cycle *c*
- Without loss of generality, assume *c* is a simple cycle
- Let *v* be the first vertex on *c* discovered by DFS , and let *u* be the vertex pointing to *v* on *c*
- When *v* is discovered, we have that all vertices on path from *v* to *u* (on *c*) are white (undiscovered)

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"
- Suppose that *G* contains a cycle *c*
- Without loss of generality, assume *c* is a simple cycle
- Let *v* be the first vertex on *c* discovered by DFS , and let *u* be the vertex pointing to *v* on *c*
- When *v* is discovered, we have that all vertices on path from *v* to *u* (on *c*) are white (undiscovered)
- By the White-Path Theorem, *u* must be a descendant of *v* in the depth-first forest

Lemma

A directed graph G has a cycle if and only if a depth-first search on G yields a back edge

- ∎ "⇐": easy
- Now we try to show the forward direction "⇒"
- Suppose that *G* contains a cycle *c*
- Without loss of generality, assume *c* is a simple cycle
- Let *v* be the first vertex on *c* discovered by DFS , and let *u* be the vertex pointing to *v* on *c*
- When *v* is discovered, we have that all vertices on path from *v* to *u* (on *c*) are white (undiscovered)
- By the White-Path Theorem, *u* must be a descendant of *v* in the depth-first forest
- Therefore, (u, v) is a back edge

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

1 **DFS**(G)

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

1 **DFS**(G)

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

Proof of correctness:

■ It suffices to show that for any edge $(u, v) \in G$, f[v] < f[u]

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

 $\mathbf{DFS}(G)$

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

- It suffices to show that for any edge $(u, v) \in G$, f[v] < f[u]
- First observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

 $\mathbf{DFS}(G)$

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

- It suffices to show that for any edge $(u, v) \in G$, f[v] < f[u]
- First observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations
- When we are visiting *u* and exploring the edge (*u*, *v*) in DFS, we have that *v* cannot be grey because otherwise (*u*, *v*) would be a back edge (notice that *u* must be at the stack top when we are exploring (*u*, *v*)), contradicting the previous Lemma saying that DFS on DAG yields no back edges

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

 $\mathbf{DFS}(G)$

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

- It suffices to show that for any edge $(u, v) \in G$, f[v] < f[u]
- First observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations
- When we are visiting *u* and exploring the edge (*u*, *v*) in DFS, we have that *v* cannot be grey because otherwise (*u*, *v*) would be a back edge (notice that *u* must be at the stack top when we are exploring (*u*, *v*)), contradicting the previous Lemma saying that DFS on DAG yields no back edges
- Then v must be white or black

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

 $\mathbf{DFS}(G)$

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

- It suffices to show that for any edge $(u, v) \in G$, f[v] < f[u]
- First observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations
- When we are visiting *u* and exploring the edge (*u*, *v*) in DFS, we have that *v* cannot be grey because otherwise (*u*, *v*) would be a back edge (notice that *u* must be at the stack top when we are exploring (*u*, *v*)), contradicting the previous Lemma saying that DFS on DAG yields no back edges
- Then *v* must be white or black
- If *v* is white, then we shall visit *v* as a result of exploring the edge (*u*, *v*). By DFS, we cannot finish visiting *u* before finishing visiting *v*. So *f*[*v*] < *f*[*u*].

TOPOLOGICAL-SORT(G)

 $\mathbf{DFS}(G)$

2 output *V* sorted in reverse order of $f[\cdot]$

- It suffices to show that for any edge $(u, v) \in G$, f[v] < f[u]
- First observe: the grey vertices in DFS always form a linear chain of descendants (in the DFS tree) corresponding to the stack of active DFS-VISIT invocations
- When we are visiting *u* and exploring the edge (*u*, *v*) in DFS, we have that *v* cannot be grey because otherwise (*u*, *v*) would be a back edge (notice that *u* must be at the stack top when we are exploring (*u*, *v*)), contradicting the previous Lemma saying that DFS on DAG yields no back edges
- Then *v* must be white or black
- If *v* is white, then we shall visit *v* as a result of exploring the edge (*u*, *v*). By DFS, we cannot finish visiting *u* before finishing visiting *v*. So *f*[*v*] < *f*[*u*].
- If v is black, we have already finished visiting v. But the visiting of u is not finished. So we obviously have f[v] < f[u].

Observation

Observation

If there is a path from a vertex *u* to a vertex *v* in an *undirected* graph *G* (aka. *u*, *v* are in the same connected component), then *u*, *v* must be in the same DFS tree after performing a depth-first search on *G*.

Observation

Observation

If there is a path from a vertex *u* to a vertex *v* in an *undirected* graph *G* (aka. *u*, *v* are in the same connected component), then *u*, *v* must be in the same DFS tree after performing a depth-first search on *G*.

Comment: The opposite is also true. Think about what these observations implies

Observation

Observation

If there is a path from a vertex *u* to a vertex *v* in an *undirected* graph *G* (aka. *u*, *v* are in the same connected component), then *u*, *v* must be in the same DFS tree after performing a depth-first search on *G*.

Comment: The opposite is also true. Think about what these observations implies

Proof:

- Consider a path *P* connecting *u*, *v* in *G*
- Let x be the first vertex on P visited by DFS. Apparently, we can reach u and v from x
- By the description of DFS, the DFS visit on *x* will touch all vertices that are reachable from *x*. So we will reach *u* and *v* from visiting *x*.
- Therefore, *u*, *v*, *x* are all in the same DFS tree.