Data Structures & Algorithms 2

Topic 7 – Graphs (part 2)

Lecturer: Dr. Hadi Tabatabaee

Materials: Dr. Phil Maguire & Dr. Hadi Tabatabaee

Maynooth University

Online at http://moodle.maynoothuniversity.ie

Aims

Overview

Introducing graph search approaches

Learning outcomes: You should be able to...

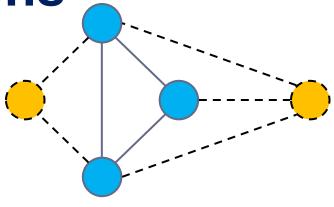
- Learn different graph search methods
- Learn to implement a depth-first search method

Subgraphs

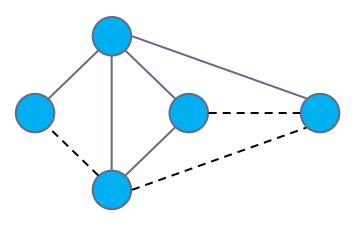
A subgraph S of a graph G is a graph such that:

- The vertices of S are a subset of the vertices of G.
- The edges of S are a subset of the edges of G.

A spanning subgraph of G is a subgraph that contains all the vertices of G.



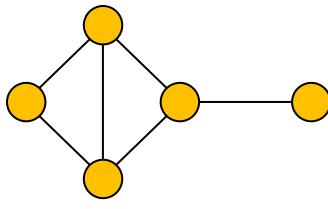
Subgraph



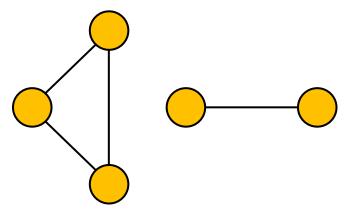
Spanning subgraph

Connectivity

- A graph is connected if there is a path between every pair of vertices.
- A connected component of a graph G is a maximal connected subgraph of G.



Connected graph

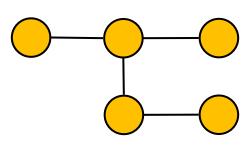


Non connected graph with two connected components

Trees and Forests

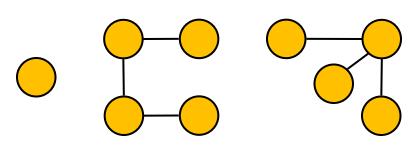
- A (free) tree is an undirected graph T such that:
 - T is connected
 - T has no cycles

This definition of a tree is different from the one of a rooted tree



Tree

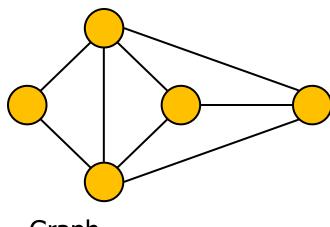
- A forest is an undirected graph without cycles.
- The connected components of a forest are trees.



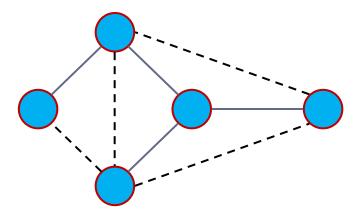
Forest

Spanning Trees and Forests

- A spanning tree of a connected graph is a spanning subgraph that is a tree.
- A spanning tree is not unique unless the graph is a tree.
- Spanning trees have applications in the design of communication networks.
- A spanning forest of a graph is a spanning subgraph that is a forest.



Graph



Spanning tree

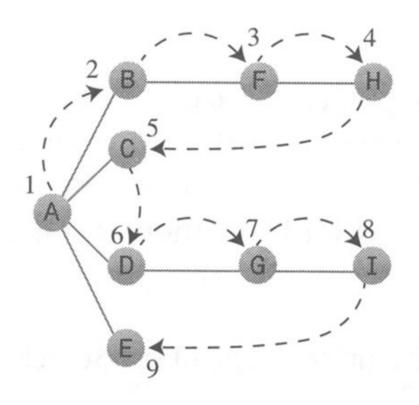
Searching

- One of the most useful operations you can perform on your graph is searching.
- For example, find all the towns that can be visited by rail, leaving Dublin.
- There are two very well-known approaches for searching a space
 - Depth-first search (DFS)
 - Breadth-first search (BFS)
- Depth-first search explores one possibility as far as it can and then backtracks when it meets a dead end.
- Breadth-first search explores all possibilities of the same depth at the same time and spreads itself equally.

Depth-First search

- The depth-first search uses a stack to remember where it should go when it reaches a dead end.
- Pick a starting point, then push this vertex onto the stack and mark it so that you won't revisit it.
- Next, visit any adjacent vertex and start doing the same thing.
- If there are no unvisited adjacent vertices, then just pop a vertex off the stack and try again (backtrack).

Depth-First search



Analogy

- Depth-first search is like the "ball and wool" approach of finding the exit to a maze.
- Any time you come up against a dead-end, you backtrack and mark the path you've been on, so you won't try it again
- Eventually, you will have explored every possible path without retracing your steps.
- Depth-first search is used when you are trying to solve a problem (like finding the exit to a maze!)



Depth-First Search

Depth-first search (DFS) is a general technique for traversing a graph

A DFS traversal of a graph G

- Visits all the vertices and edges of G
- Determines whether G is connected
- Computes the connected components of G
- Computes a spanning forest of G

DFS on a graph with n vertices and m edges takes O(n + m) time.

DFS can be further extended to solve other graph problems

- Find and report a path between two given vertices
- Find a cycle in the graph

Depth-first search is to graphs what Euler tour is to binary trees

DFS Algorithm from a Vertex

```
Algorithm DFS(G, u):
```

Input: A graph G and a vertex u of G

Output: A collection of vertices reachable from u, with their discovery edges

Mark vertex u as visited.

for each of *u*'s outgoing edges, e = (u, v) **do**

if vertex v has not been visited then

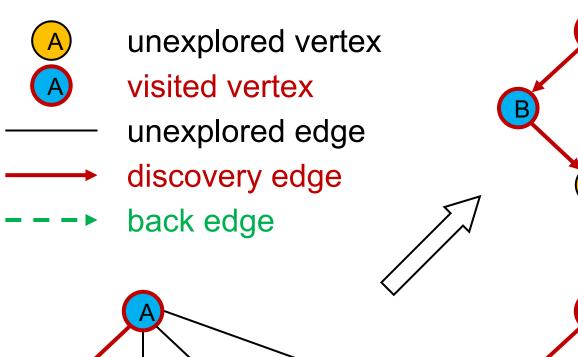
Record edge e as the discovery edge for vertex v.

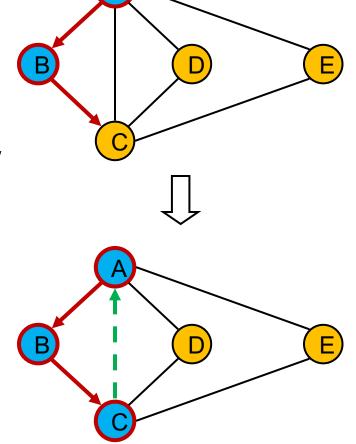
Recursively call DFS(G, v).

Java Implementation

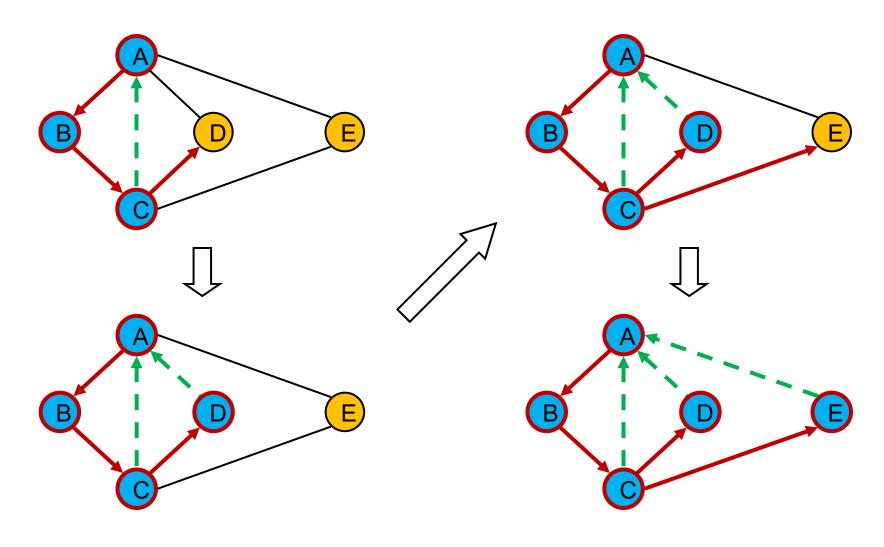
First, we maintain a set, named known, containing vertices that have already been visited. Second, we keep a map, named forest, that associates, with a vertex v, the edge e of the graph that is used to discover v (if any).

Example





Example (cont.)

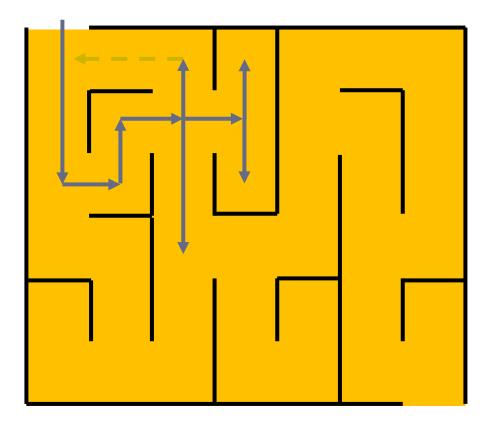


DFS and Maze Traversal



The DFS algorithm is like a classic strategy for exploring a maze

- We mark each intersection, corner, and dead-end (vertex) visited.
- We mark each corridor (edge) traversed.
- We keep track of the path back to the entrance (start vertex) using a rope (recursion stack).



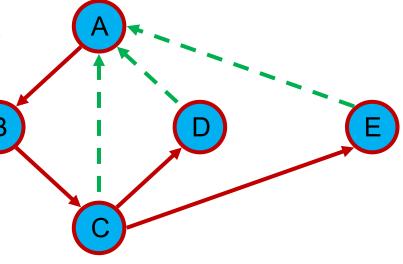
Properties of DFS

Property 1

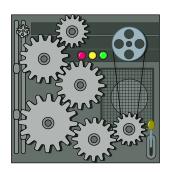
DFS(**G**, **v**) visits all the vertices and edges in the connected component of **v**

Property 2

The discovery edges labeled by **DFS**(**G**, **v**) form a spanning tree of the connected component of **v**



Analysis of DFS



- Setting/getting a vertex/edge label takes O(1) time
- Each vertex is labeled twice.
 - once as UNEXPLORED
 - once as VISITED
- Each edge is labeled twice
 - once as UNEXPLORED
 - once as DISCOVERY or BACK
- Method incidentEdges is called once for each vertex.
- DFS runs in O(n + m) time, provided the graph is represented by the adjacency list structure.
 - Recall that $\mathbf{S}_{v} \operatorname{deg}(\mathbf{v}) = 2\mathbf{m}$

Implementing DFS

- The key to DFS is to be able to find the vertices that are unvisited and adjacent to a specified vertex
- Consult the adjacency matrix for this
- Go to the row for the specified vertex and you can pick out all the columns containing a one
- Check these adjacent vertices to see if they have been visited or not
- Use a stack structure to track the path you've followed so far and flag the vertices that have already been visited so you can avoid them
- Pop off the stack to backtrack

20

Path Finding

- Using the template method pattern, we can specialize the DFS algorithm to find a path between two given vertices u and z.
- We call pathDFS(G, v,z)
 with v as the start vertex.
- We use a stack S to keep track of the path between the start vertex and the current vertex.
- As soon as destination vertex z is encountered, we return the path as the contents of the stack.

```
Algorithm pathDFS(G, v, z)
  setLabel(v, VISITED)
  S.push(v)
  if v = z
    return S.elements()
  for all e \in G.incidentEdges(v)
    if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
       w \leftarrow opposite(v,e)
      if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
         setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
         S.push(e)
         pathDFS(G, w, z)
         S.pop(e)
       else
         setLabel(e, BACK)
  S.pop(v)
```

Path Finding in Java

To reconstruct the path, we begin at the *end* of the path, examining the forest of discovery edges to determine what edge was used to reach vertex v. We then determine the opposite vertex of that edge and repeat the process to determine what edge was used to discover it. By continuing this process until reaching u, we can construct the entire path.

```
/** Returns an ordered list of edges comprising the directed path from u to v. */
    public static <V,E> PositionalList<Edge<E>>
    constructPath(Graph<V,E> g, Vertex<V> u, Vertex<V> v,
                 Map<Vertex<V>,Edge<E>> forest) {
4
5
     PositionalList<Edge<E>> path = new LinkedPositionalList<>();
     if (forest.get(v) != null) {
                               // v was discovered during the search
6
       Vertex < V > walk = v:
                                    // we construct the path from back to front
       while (walk != u) {
         Edge < E > edge = forest.get(walk);
         path.addFirst(edge);
                              // add edge to *front* of path
10
11
         walk = g.opposite(walk, edge); // repeat with opposite endpoint
12
13
14
     return path;
15
```



Cycle Finding

- We can specialize the DFS algorithm to find a simple cycle using the template method pattern.
- We use a stack S to keep track of the path between the start vertex and the current vertex.
- As soon as a back edge (*v*, *w*)
 is encountered, we return the
 cycle as the portion of the stack
 from the top to vertex *w*.

```
Algorithm cycleDFS(G, v, z)
  setLabel(v, VISITED)
  S.push(v)
  for all e \in G.incidentEdges(v)
     if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
        w \leftarrow opposite(v,e)
        S.push(e)
        if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
           setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
           pathDFS(G, w, z)
           S.pop(e)
        else
           T \leftarrow new empty stack
           repeat
             o \leftarrow S.pop()
              T.push(o)
           until o = w
           return T.elements()
  S.pop(v)
```

DFS for an Entire Graph

The algorithm uses a mechanism for setting and getting "labels" of vertices and edges.

```
Algorithm DFS(G)
   Input graph G
   Output labeling of the edges of G
      as discovery edges and
      back edges
  for all u \in G.vertices()
   setLabel(u, UNEXPLORED)
  for all e \in G.edges()
   setLabel(e, UNEXPLORED)
  for all v \in G.vertices()
   if getLabel(v) = UNEXPLORED
      DFS(G, v)
```

```
Algorithm DFS(G, v)
  Input graph G and a start vertex v of G
  Output labeling of the edges of G
    in the connected component of v
    as discovery edges and back edges
  setLabel(v, VISITED)
  for all e \in G.incidentEdges(v)
    if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
      w \leftarrow opposite(v,e)
      if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
         setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
         DFS(G, w)
      else
         setLabel(e, BACK)
```

All Connected Components

- When a graph is not connected, the next goal we may have is to identify all
 of the connected components of an undirected graph.
- If an initial call to DFS fails to reach all vertices of a graph, we can restart a
 new call to DFS at one of those unvisited vertices.
- It returns a map that represents a **DFS forest** for the entire graph. We say this is a forest rather than a tree, because the graph may not be connected.

Loop over all vertices, doing a DFS from each unvisited one.

Questions

