

# CSE 421: Intro Algorithms

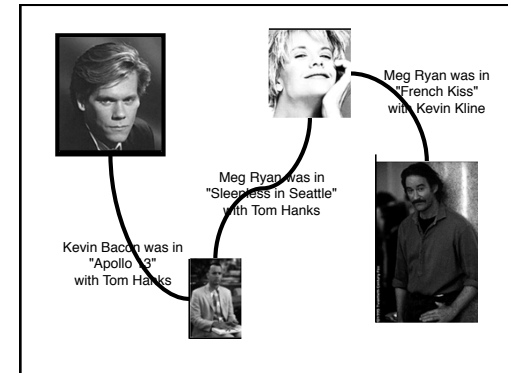
Fall 2011  
Graphs and Graph Algorithms  
Slides by Larry Ruzzo

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## Goals

Graphs: defs, examples, utility, terminology  
Representation: input, internal  
Traversal: Breadth- & Depth-first search  
Three Algorithms:  
Connected components  
Bipartiteness  
Topological sort

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## Objects & Relationships

The Kevin Bacon Game:  
Obj: Actors  
Rel: Two are related if they've been in a movie together

Exam Scheduling:  
Obj: Classes  
Rel: Two are related if they have students in common

Traveling Salesperson Problem:  
Obj: Cities  
Rel: Two are related if can travel *directly* between them

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## Graphs

An extremely important formalism for representing (binary) relationships

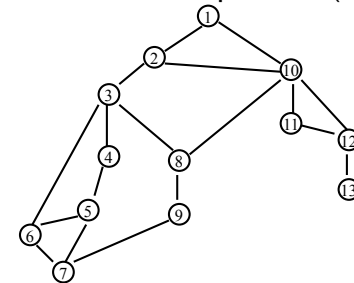
Objects: "vertices," aka "nodes"

Relationships between pairs: "edges," aka "arcs"

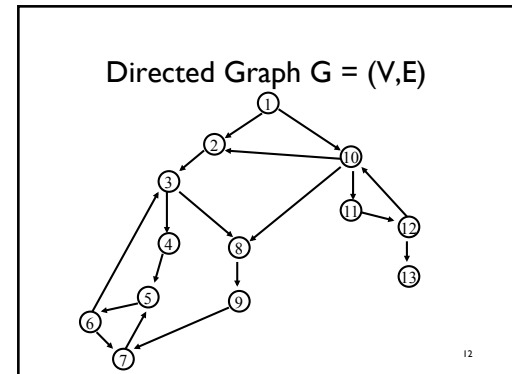
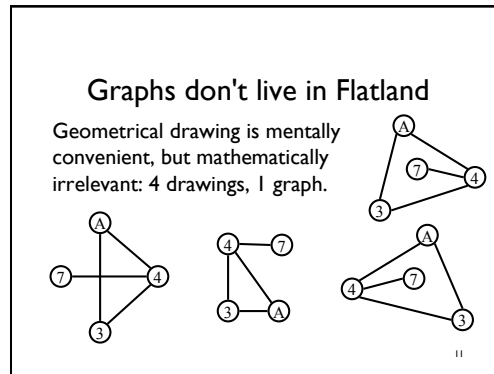
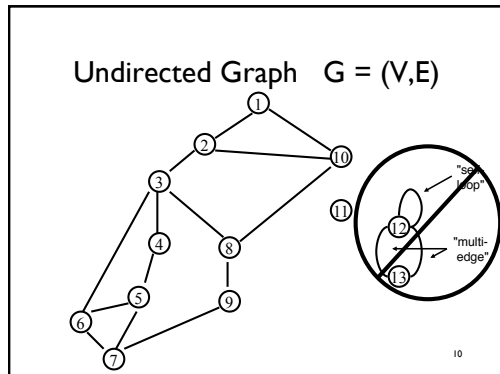
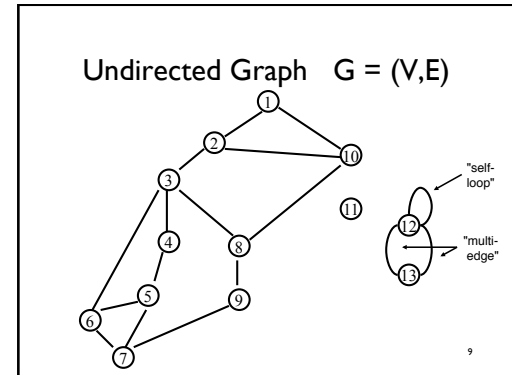
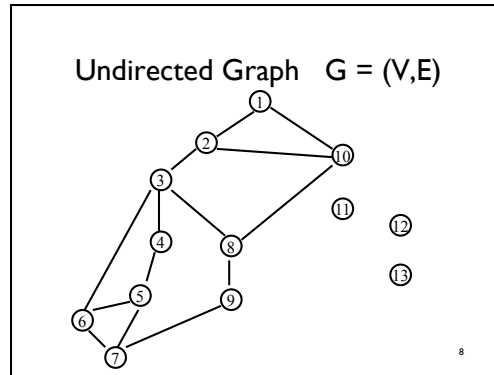
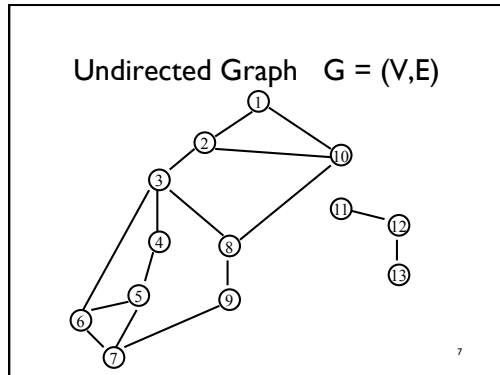
Formally, a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a pair of sets,  $V$  the vertices and  $E$  the edges

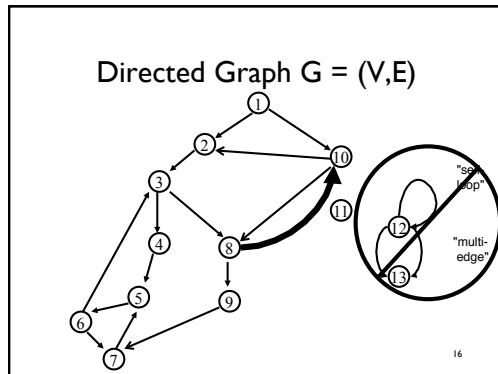
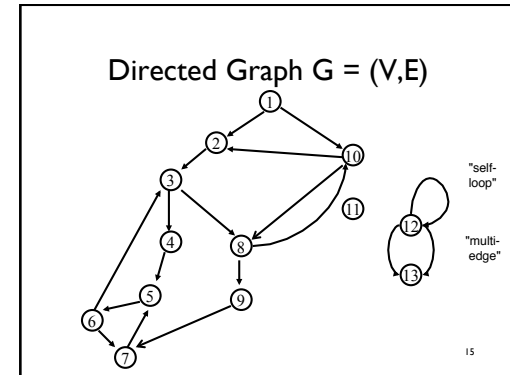
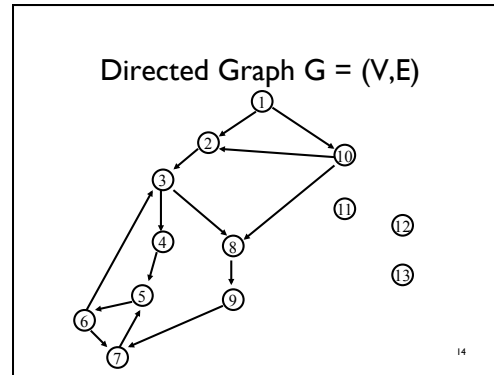
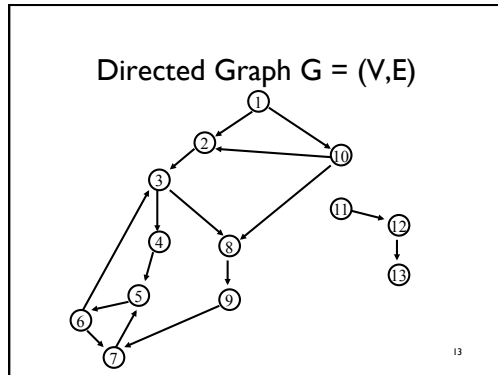
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## Undirected Graph $G = (V, E)$



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Specifying undirected graphs as input

What are the vertices?  
Explicitly list them:  
{"A", "7", "3", "4"}

What are the edges?  
Either, set of edges  
{(A,3), (7,4), (4,3), (4,A)}

Or, (symmetric) adjacency matrix:

	A	7	3	4
A	0	0	1	1
7	0	0	0	1
3	1	0	0	1
4	1	1	1	0

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Specifying directed graphs as input

What are the vertices?  
Explicitly list them:  
{"A", "7", "3", "4"}

What are the edges?  
Either, set of directed edges:  
{(A,4), (4,7), (4,3), (4,A), (A,3)}

Or, (nonsymmetric) adjacency matrix:

	A	7	3	4
A	0	0	1	1
7	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	1	1	1	0

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## # Vertices vs # Edges

Let  $G$  be an undirected graph with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges. How are  $n$  and  $m$  related?

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## # Vertices vs # Edges

Let  $G$  be an undirected graph with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges. How are  $n$  and  $m$  related?

Since

every edge connects two different vertices (no loops),  
and no two edges connect the same two vertices (no multi-edges),

it must be true that:

$$0 \leq m \leq n(n-1)/2 = O(n^2)$$

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## More Cool Graph Lingo

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

Boundary is somewhat fuzzy;  $O(n)$  edges is certainly sparse,  $\Omega(n^2)$  edges is dense.

Sparse graphs are common in practice

E.g., all planar graphs are sparse ( $m \leq 3n-6$ , for  $n \geq 3$ )

Q: which is a better run time,  $O(n+m)$  or  $O(n^2)$ ?

A:  $O(n+m) = O(n^2)$ , but  $n+m$  usually way better!

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## Representing Graph $G = (V, E)$

internally, indep of input format

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

Adjacency Matrix  $A$

$A[i,j] = 1$  iff  $(v_i, v_j) \in E$

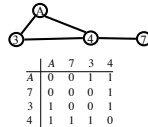
Space is  $n^2$  bits

Advantages:

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

Disadvantages: inefficient for sparse graphs, both in storage and access

$$m \ll n^2$$



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## Representing Graph $G=(V,E)$

$n$  vertices,  $m$  edges

Adjacency List:

$O(n+m)$  words

Advantages:

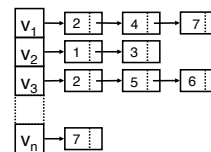
Compact for sparse graphs

Easily see all edges

Disadvantages

More complex data structure

no  $O(1)$  edge test



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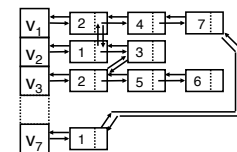
## Representing Graph $G=(V,E)$

$n$  vertices,  $m$  edges

Adjacency List:

$O(n+m)$  words

Back- and cross pointers more work to build, but allow easier traversal and deletion of edges, if needed, (don't bother if not)



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## Graph Traversal

Learn the basic structure of a graph  
"Walk," *via edges*, from a fixed starting vertex  $s$  to all vertices reachable from  $s$

Being *orderly* helps. Two common ways:

Breadth-First Search: order the nodes in successive layers based on distance from  $s$

Depth-First Search: more natural approach for exploring a maze; many efficient algs build on it. <sup>25</sup>

## Breadth-First Search

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

Naturally implemented using a queue

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## Graph Traversal: Implementation

Learn the basic structure of a graph  
"Walk," *via edges*, from a fixed starting vertex  $s$  to all vertices reachable from  $s$

Three states of vertices

*undiscovered*

*discovered*

*fully-explored*

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## BFS(s) 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)

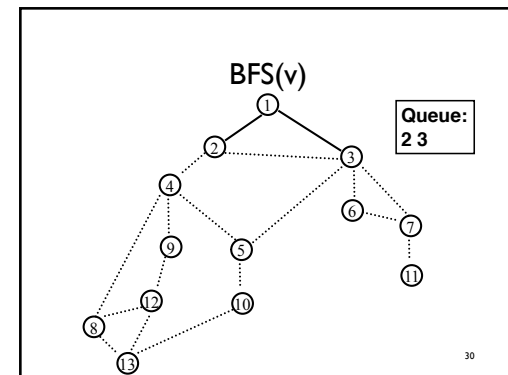
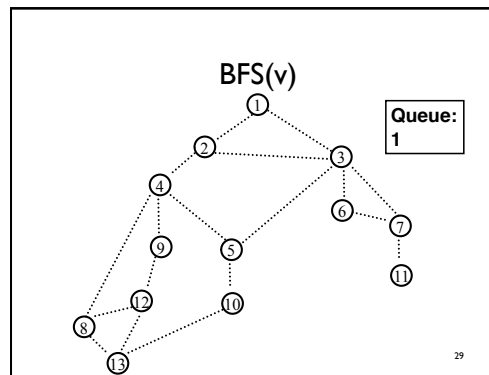
      mark  $x$  discovered

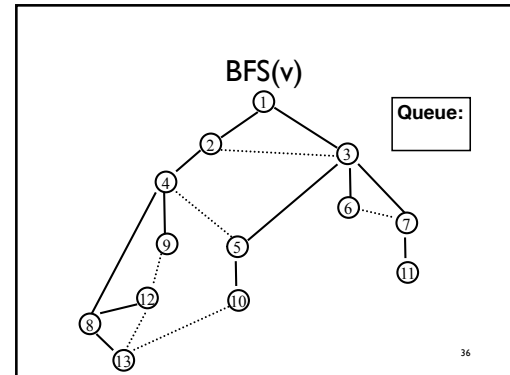
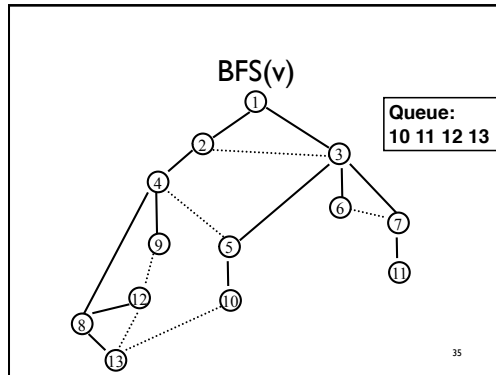
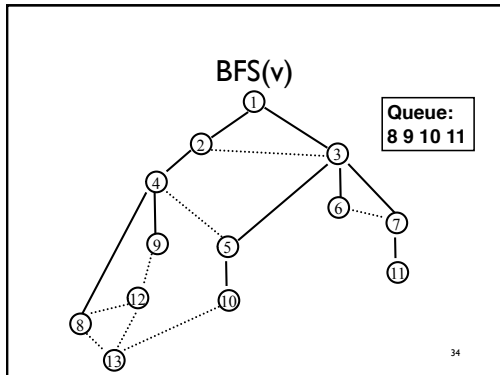
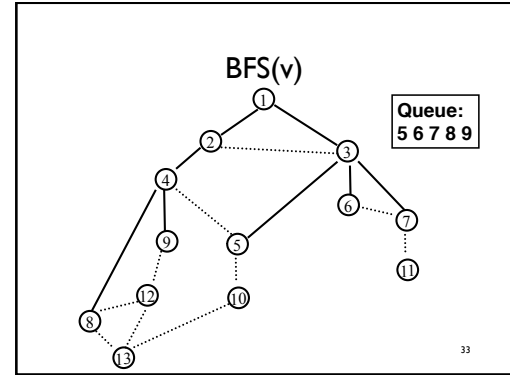
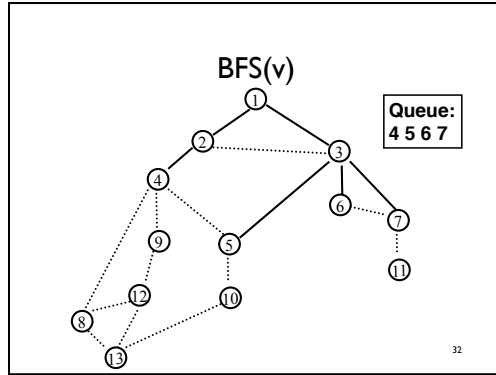
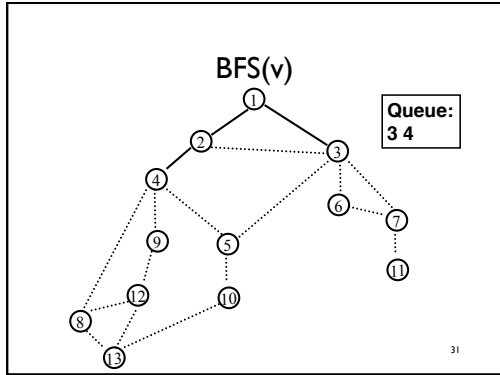
      append  $x$  on queue

  mark  $u$  fully explored

Exercise: modify code to number vertices & compute level numbers

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## BFS: Analysis, I

```

O(n) Global initialization: mark all vertices "undiscovered"
+
BFS(s)
O(1)  mark s "discovered"
+
O(n)  queue = { s }
x
O(n)  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
=
O(n^2)
  
```

Simple analysis:  
2 nested loops.  
Get worst-case  
number of  
iterations of  
each; multiply.

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## BFS: Analysis, II

Above analysis correct, but pessimistic (can't have  $\Omega(n)$  edges incident to each of  $\Omega(n)$  distinct "u" vertices if G is sparse). Alt, more global analysis:

Each edge is explored once from each end-point, so *total* runtime of inner loop is  $O(m)$ .

Exercise: extend algorithm and analysis to non-connected graphs

Total  $O(n+m)$ ,  $n = \#$  nodes,  $m = \#$  edges

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## Properties of (Undirected) BFS(v)

BFS(v) visits x if and only if there is a path in G from v to x.

Edges into then-undiscovered vertices define a **tree** – the "breadth first spanning tree" of G

Level i in this tree are exactly those vertices u such that the shortest path (in G, not just the tree) from the root v is of length i.

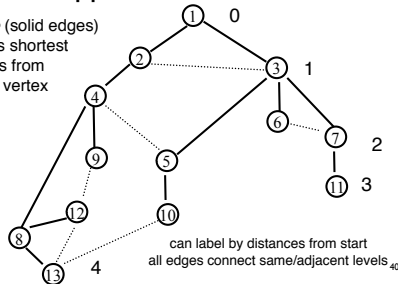
**All** non-tree edges join vertices on the same or adjacent levels

not true of every spanning tree!

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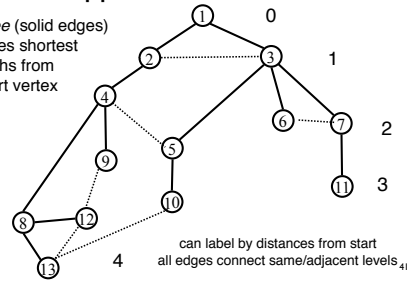
## BFS Application: Shortest Paths

Tree (solid edges) gives shortest paths from start vertex



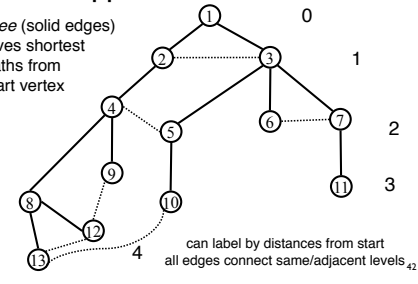
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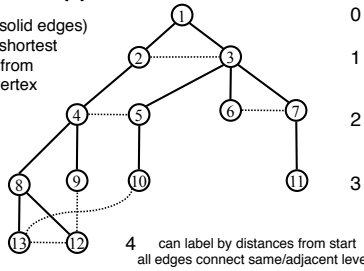
## BFS Application: Shortest Paths

Tree (solid edges) gives shortest paths from start vertex



### BFS Application: Shortest Paths

Tree (solid edges) gives shortest paths from start vertex



4 can label by distances from start all edges connect same/adjacent levels<sub>43</sub>

### Why fuss about trees?

Trees are simpler than graphs

Ditto for algorithms on trees vs algs on graphs

So, 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

E.g., BFS finds a tree s.t. level-jumps are minimized

DFS (below) finds a different tree, but it also has interesting structure...

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### Graph Search Application: Connected Components

Want to answer questions of the form:

given vertices  $u$  and  $v$ , is there a path from  $u$  to  $v$ ?

Set up one-time data structure to answer such questions efficiently.

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### Graph Search Application: Connected Components

Want to answer questions of the form:

given vertices  $u$  and  $v$ , is there a path from  $u$  to  $v$ ?

Idea: create array  $A$  such that

$A[u]$  = smallest numbered vertex that is connected to  $u$ . Question reduces to whether  $A[u]=A[v]$ ?

Q: Why not create 2-d array Path  $[u,v]$ ?

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### Graph Search Application: Connected Components

initial state: all  $v$  undiscovered

for  $v = 1$  to  $n$  do

if state( $v$ ) != fully-explored then

BFS( $v$ ): setting  $A[u] \leftarrow v$  for each  $u$  found (and marking  $u$  discovered/fully-explored)

endif

endfor

Total cost:  $O(n+m)$

each edge is touched a constant number of times (twice)

works also with DFS

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### 3.4 Testing Bipartiteness



### Bipartite Graphs

**Def.** An undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is *bipartite (2-colorable)* if the nodes can be colored red or blue such that no edge has both ends the same color.

**Applications.**  
 Stable marriage: men = red, women = blue  
 Scheduling: machines = red, jobs = blue

*"bi-partite" means "two parts." An equivalent definition: G is bipartite if you can partition the node set into 2 parts (say, blue/red or left/right) so that all edges join nodes in different parts/no edge has both ends in the same part.*

*a bipartite graph*

### Testing Bipartiteness

Testing bipartiteness. Given a graph  $G$ , is it bipartite? Many graph problems become: easier if the underlying graph is bipartite (matching) tractable if the underlying graph is bipartite (independent set) Before attempting to design an algorithm, we need to understand structure of bipartite graphs.

*a bipartite graph G*                      *another drawing of G*

### An Obstruction to Bipartiteness

**Lemma.** If a graph  $G$  is bipartite, it cannot contain an odd length cycle.

**Pf.** Impossible to 2-color the odd cycle, let alone  $G$ .

### Bipartite Graphs

**Lemma.** Let  $G$  be a connected graph, and let  $L_0, \dots, L_k$  be the layers produced by BFS starting at node  $s$ . 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).

*Case (i)*                      *Case (ii)*

### Bipartite Graphs

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**Pf. (i)** Suppose no edge joins two nodes in the same layer. By previous lemma, all edges join nodes on adjacent levels.

*Case (i)*

**Bipartition:**  
 red = nodes on odd levels,  
 blue = nodes on even levels.

### Bipartite Graphs

**Lemma.** Let  $G$  be a connected graph, and let  $L_0, \dots, L_k$  be the layers produced by BFS starting at node  $s$ . Exactly one of the following holds.

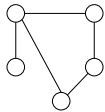
- (i) No edge of  $G$  joins two nodes of the same layer, and  $G$  is bipartite.
- (ii) An edge of  $G$  joins two nodes of the same layer, and  $G$  contains an odd-length cycle (and hence is not bipartite).

**Pf. (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.

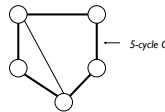
### Obstruction to Bipartiteness

Cor: A graph  $G$  is bipartite iff it contains no odd length cycle.

NB: the proof is algorithmic—it finds a coloring or odd cycle.



bipartite  
(2-colorable)



not bipartite  
(not 2-colorable)

### 3.6 DAGs and Topological Ordering

### Precedence Constraints

Precedence constraints. Edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  means task  $v_i$  must occur before  $v_j$ .

#### Applications

- Course prerequisites: course  $v_i$  must be taken before  $v_j$
- Compilation: must compile module  $v_i$  before  $v_j$
- Computing workflow: output of job  $v_i$  is input to job  $v_j$
- Manufacturing or assembly: sand it before you paint it...
- Spreadsheet evaluation order: if A7 is "=A6+A5+A4", evaluate them first

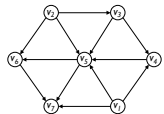
### Directed Acyclic Graphs

Def. A DAG is a directed acyclic graph, i.e., one that contains no directed cycles.

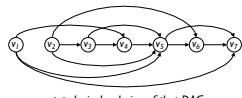
Ex. Precedence constraints: edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  means  $v_i$  must precede  $v_j$ .

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  $i < j$ .

E.g.,  $\forall$  edge  $(v_i, v_j)$ , finish  $v_i$  before starting  $v_j$



a DAG



a topological ordering of that DAG—  
all edges left-to-right

### Directed Acyclic Graphs

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

if all edges go L→R,  
you can't loop back  
to close a cycle

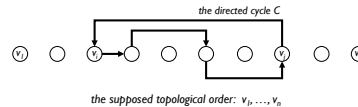
Pf. (by contradiction)

Suppose that  $G$  has a topological order  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  and that  $G$  also has a directed cycle  $C$ .

Let  $v_i$  be the lowest-indexed node in  $C$ , and let  $v_j$  be the node just before  $v_i$ ; thus  $(v_j, v_i)$  is an edge.

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

On the other hand, since  $(v_i, v_j)$  is an edge and  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  is a topological order, we must have  $j < i$ , a contradiction.



the directed cycle  $C$   
the supposed topological order:  $v_1, \dots, v_n$

### Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma.

If  $G$  has a topological order, then  $G$  is a DAG.

Q. Does every DAG have a topological ordering?

Q. If so, how do we compute one?

### Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If  $G$  is a DAG, then  $G$  has a node with no incoming edges.

Pf. (by contradiction)

Suppose that  $G$  is a DAG and every node has at least one incoming edge. Let's see what happens.

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  $u$ .

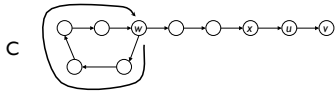
Then, since  $u$  has at least one incoming edge  $(x, u)$ , we can walk backward to  $x$ .

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.

Why must this happen?



### Directed Acyclic Graphs

Lemma. If  $G$  is a DAG, then  $G$  has a topological ordering.

Pf. (by induction on  $n$ )

Base case: true if  $n = 1$ .

Given DAG on  $n > 1$  nodes, find a node  $v$  with no incoming edges.

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

By inductive 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.

To compute a topological ordering of  $G$ :

Find a node  $v$  with no incoming edges and order it first

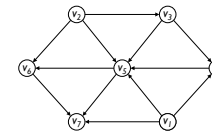
Delete  $v$  from  $G$

Recursively compute a topological ordering of  $G - \{v\}$

and append this order after  $v$

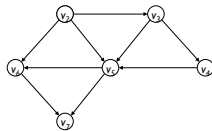


### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



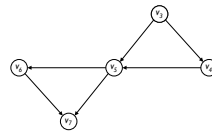
Topological order:

### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



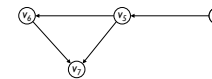
Topological order:  $v_1$

### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



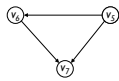
Topological order:  $v_1, v_2$

### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3$

### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4$

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### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$

62

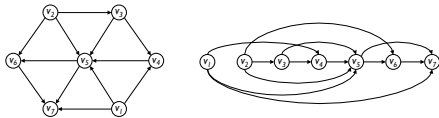
### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6$

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### Topological Ordering Algorithm: Example



Topological order:  $v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_6, v_7$

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### Topological Sorting Algorithm

Maintain the following:  
 $count[w]$  = (remaining) number of incoming edges to node  $w$   
 $S$  = set of (remaining) nodes with no incoming edges

Initialization:  
 $count[w] = 0$  for all  $w$   
 $count[w]++$  for all edges  $(v,w)$   
 $S = S \cup \{w\}$  for all  $w$  with  $count[w]=0$  }  $O(m + n)$

Main loop:  
 while  $S$  not empty  
   remove some  $v$  from  $S$   
   make  $v$  next in topo order  
   for all edges from  $v$  to some  $w$   
     decrement  $count[w]$   
   add  $w$  to  $S$  if  $count[w]$  hits 0 }  $O(1)$  per node  
    $O(1)$  per edge

Correctness: clear, I hope  
 Time:  $O(m + n)$  (assuming edge-list representation of graph)

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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 as you can

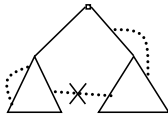
Naturally implemented using recursive calls or a stack

72

## Non-tree edges

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

No cross edges!



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## DFS(v) – Recursive version

Global Initialization:  
for all nodes  $v$ ,  $v.dfs\# = -1$  // mark  $v$  "undiscovered"  
 $dfscounter = 0$

```
DFS(v)
  v.dfs# = dfscounter++ // v "discovered", number it
  for each edge (v,x)
    if (x.dfs# = -1) // tree edge (x previously undiscovered)
      DFS(x)
    else ... // code for back-, fwd-, parent,
              // edges, if needed
              // mark v "completed," if needed,
```

## Why fuss about trees (again)?

BFS tree  $\neq$  DFS tree, but, as with BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple" – only descendant/ancestor

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## DFS(v) - explicit stack

Exercise: modify to compute vertex numbering

Global Initialization: mark all vertices "undiscovered"

DFS(v)

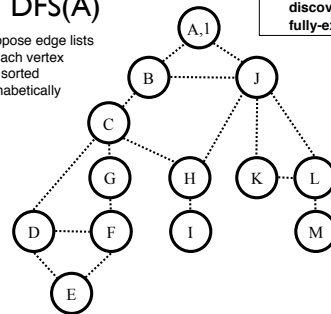
```
mark v "discovered"
push (v,1) onto empty stack
while stack not empty
  (u,i) = pop(stack)
  for ( ; i ≤ # of neighbors of u; i++)
    x = ith edge on u's edge list
    if (x is undiscovered)
      mark x "discovered"
      push (u,i+1) // save info to resume with u's next edge,
                  // after exploring from x,
                  // (starting with its first edge)
    u = x
    i = 1
mark u completed
```

Idea: stack of unfinished vertices, plus pointers into their edge lists to say what work remains to finish.

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## DFS(A)

Suppose edge lists at each vertex are sorted alphabetically



Color code:  
undiscovered  
discovered  
fully-explored

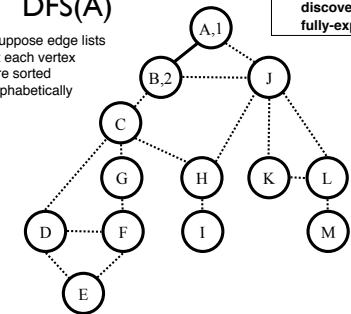
Call Stack  
(Edge list):

A (B,J)

77

## DFS(A)

Suppose edge lists at each vertex are sorted alphabetically

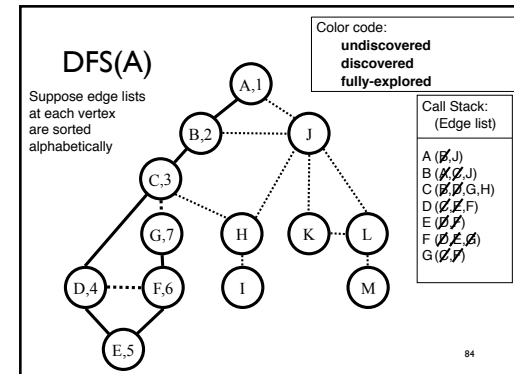
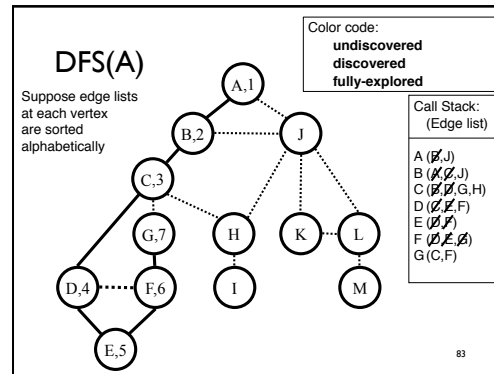
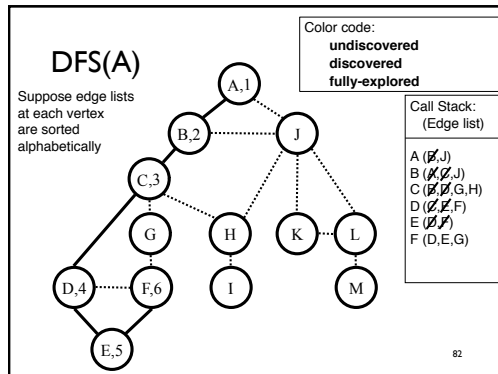
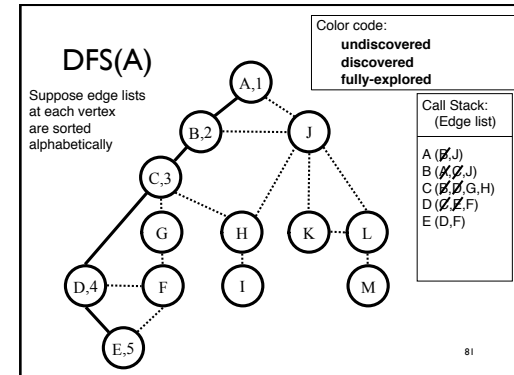
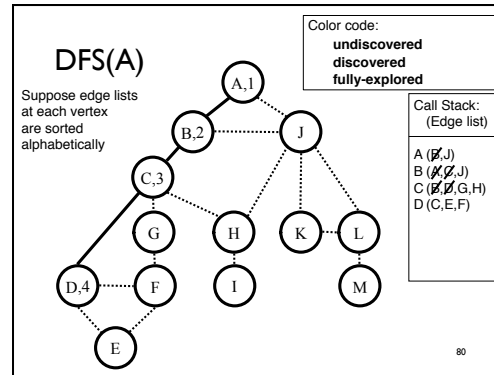
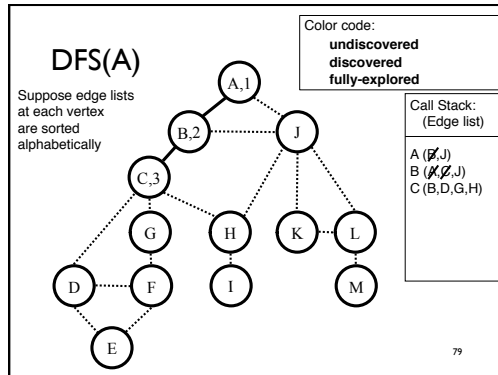


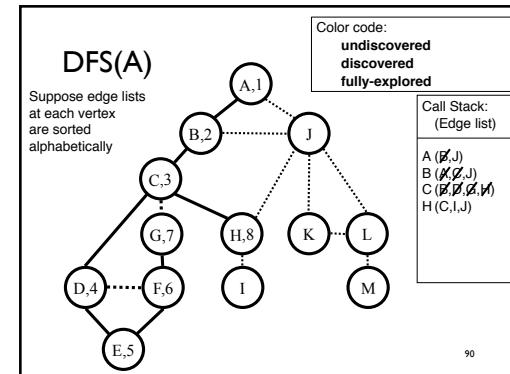
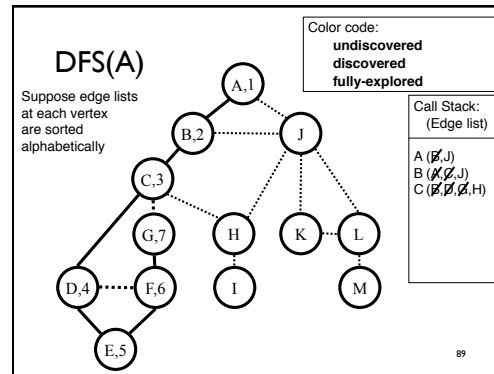
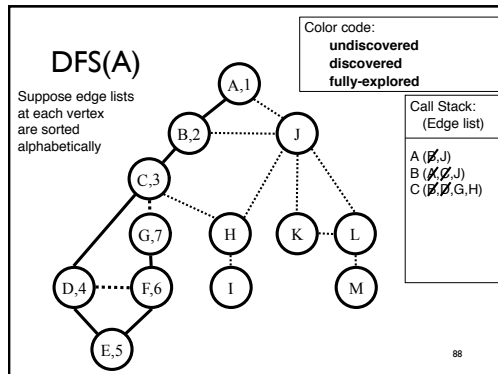
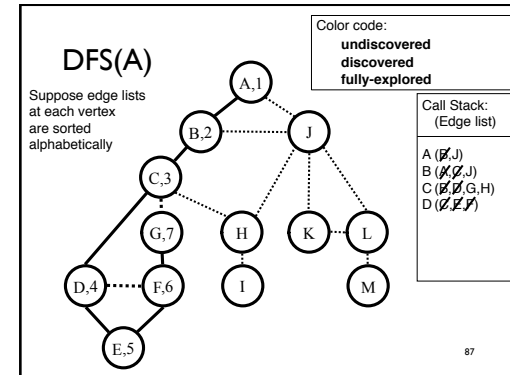
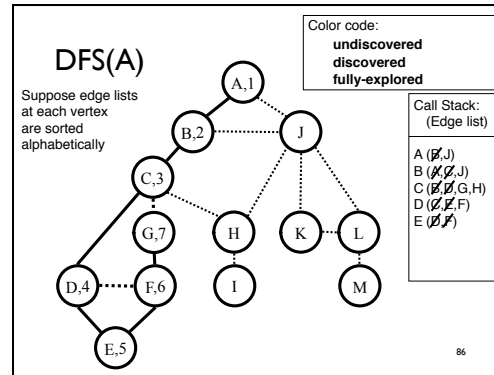
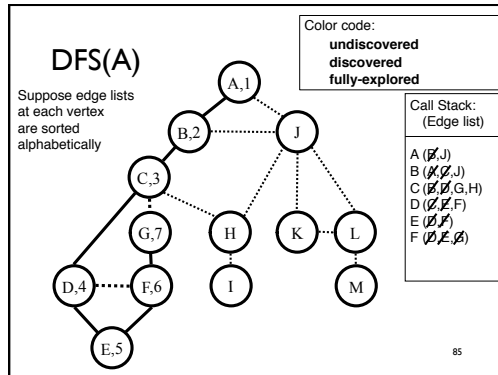
Color code:  
undiscovered  
discovered  
fully-explored

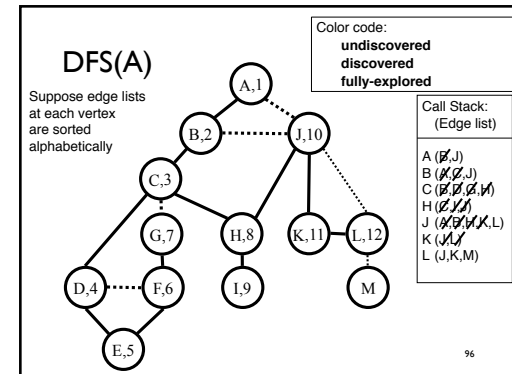
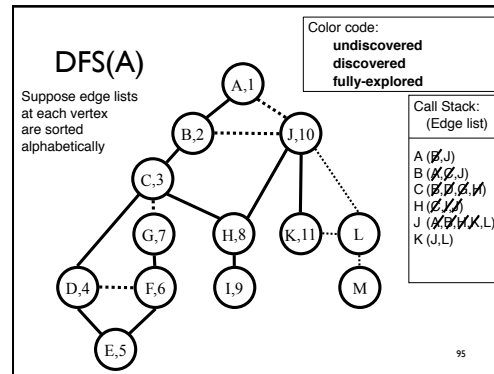
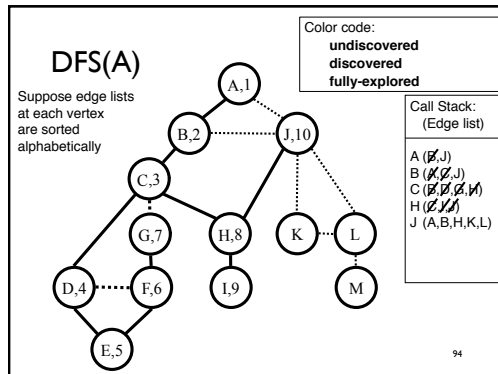
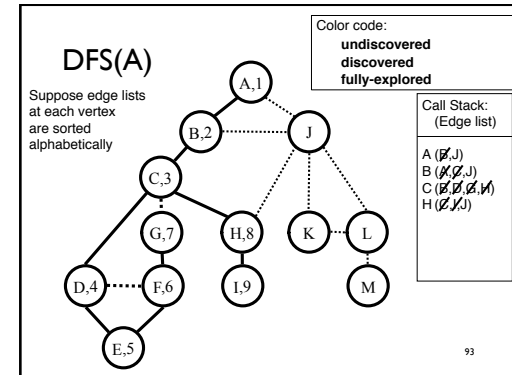
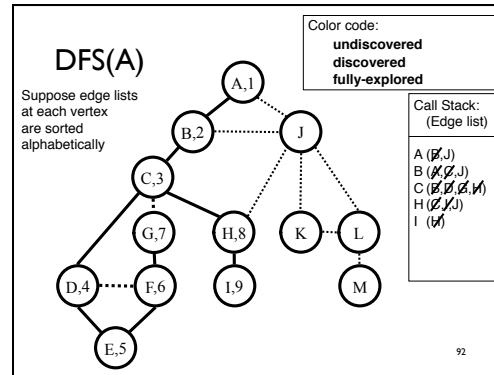
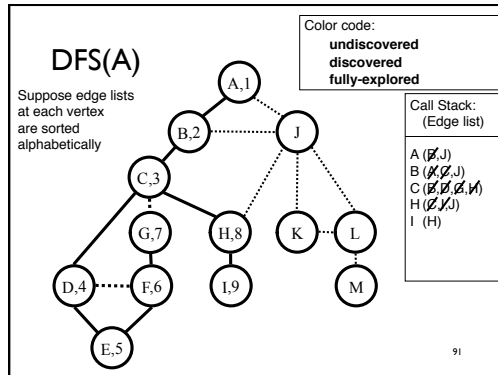
Call Stack:  
(Edge list)

A (J)  
B (A,C,J)

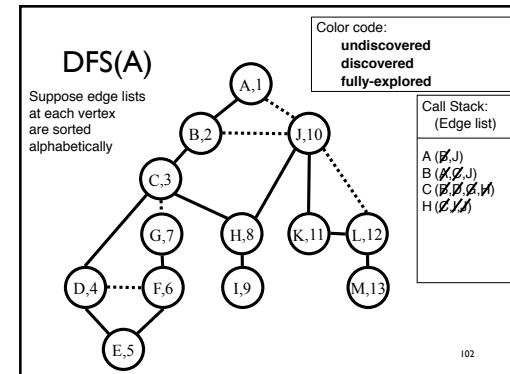
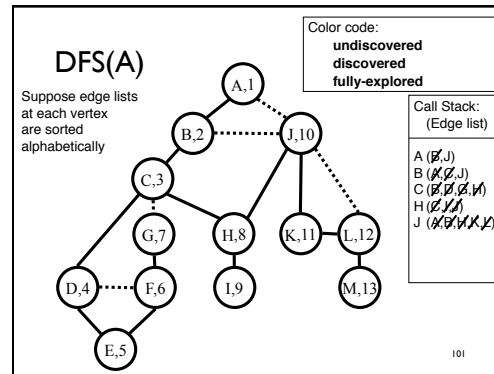
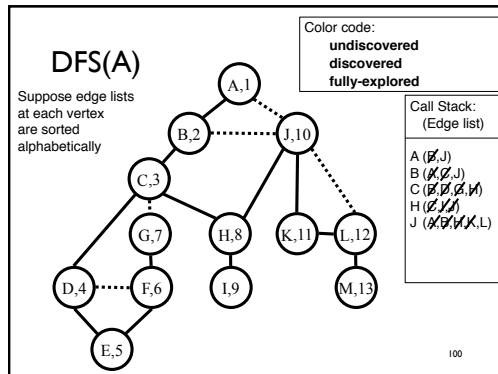
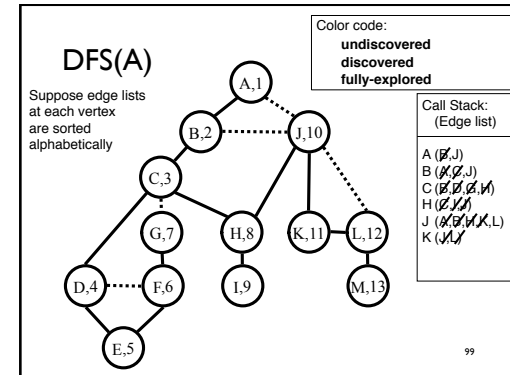
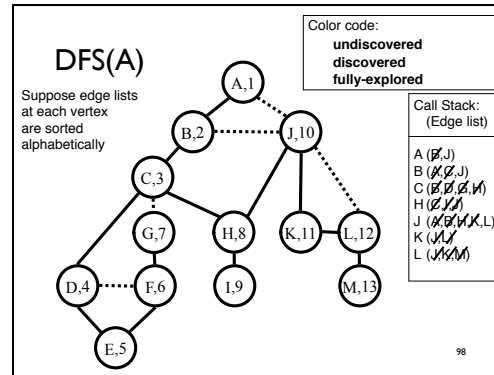
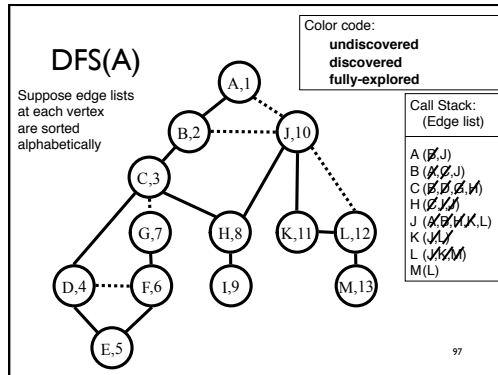
78

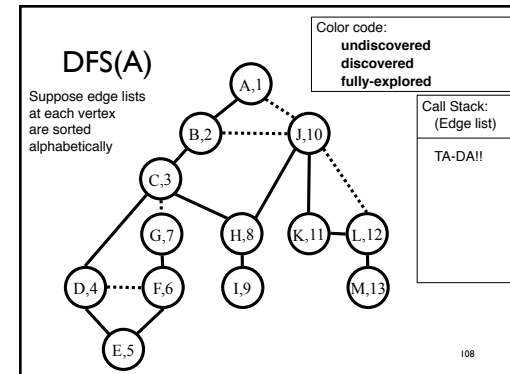
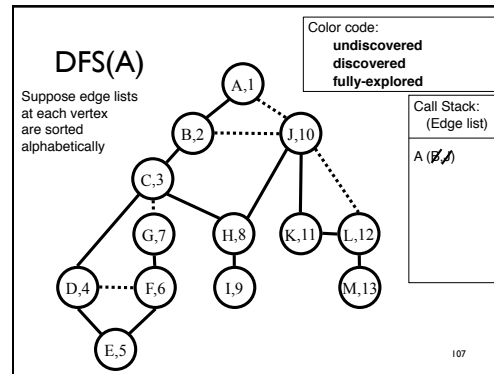
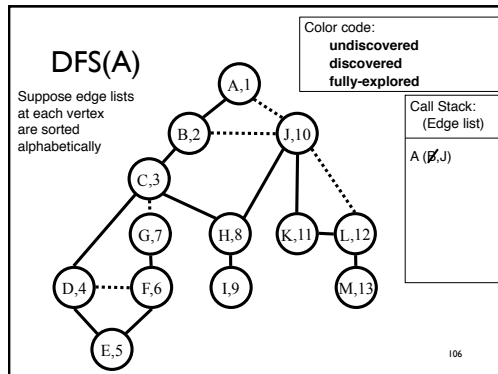
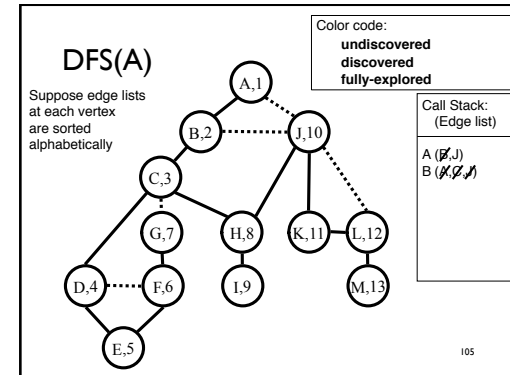
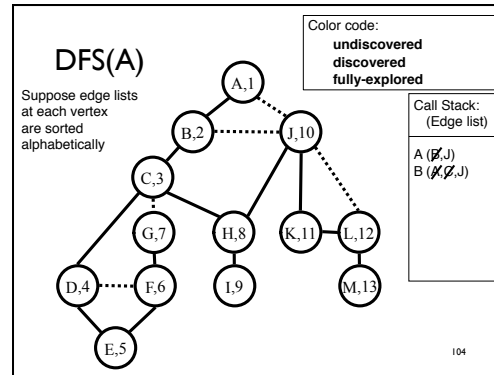
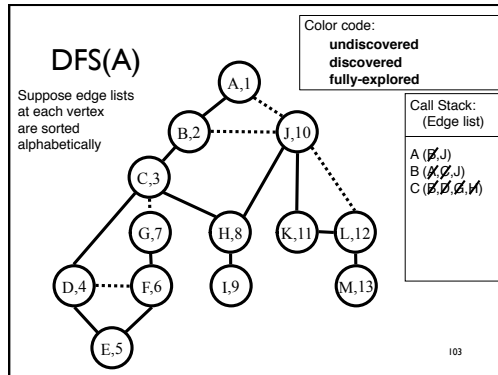


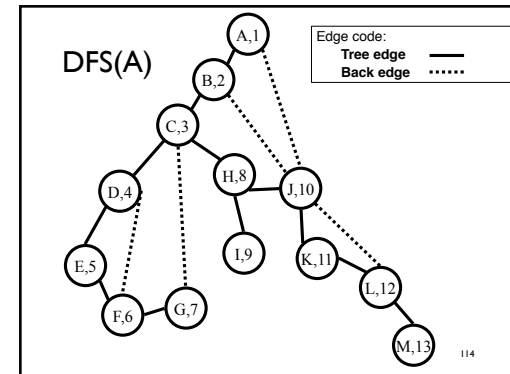
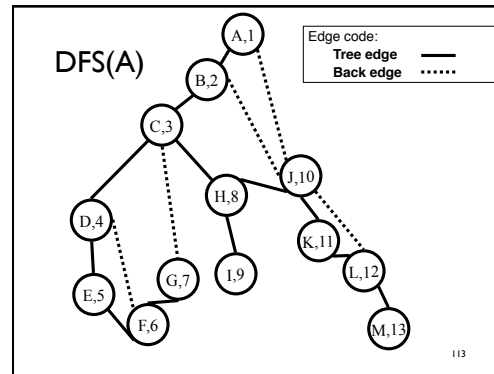
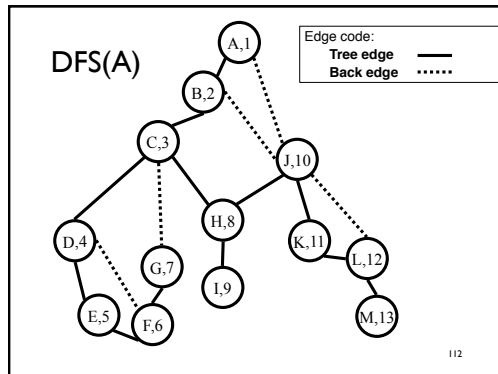
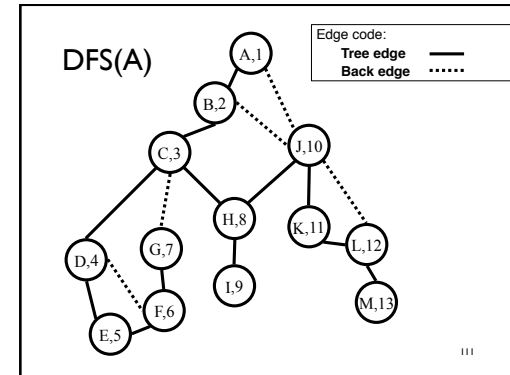
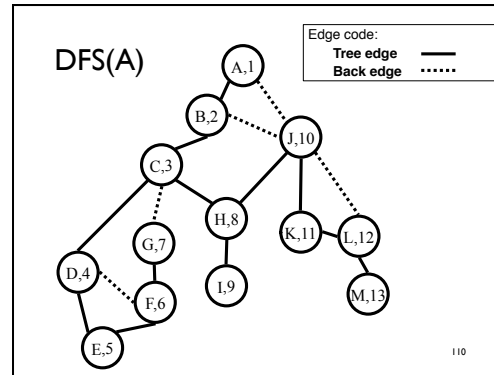
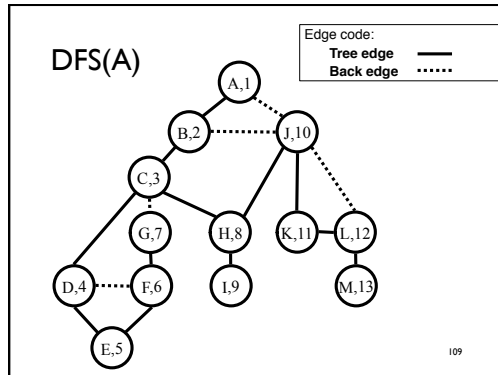


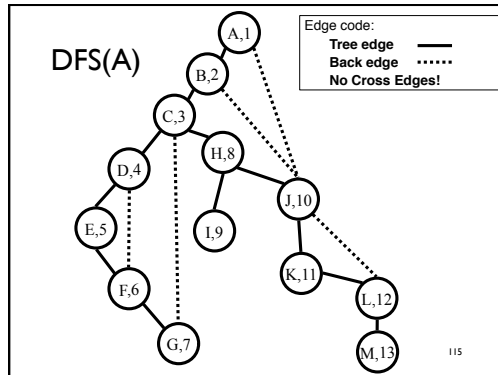












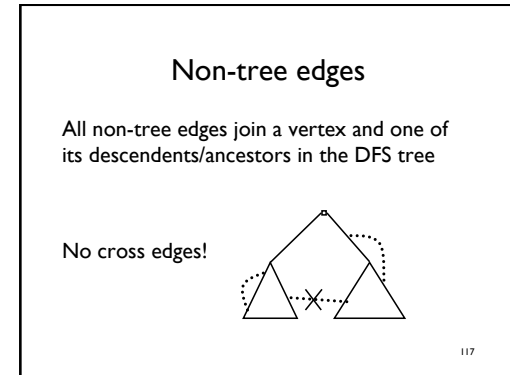
### Properties of (Undirected) DFS(v)

Like BFS(v):  
 DFS(v) visits x if and only if there is a path in G from v to x (through previously unvisited vertices)  
 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

BUT ...

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### DFS(v) – Recursive version

Global Initialization:  
 for all nodes v, v.dfs# = -1 // mark v "undiscovered"  
 dfscounter = 0

DFS(v)  
 v.dfs# = dfscounter++ // v "discovered", number it  
 for each edge (v,x)  
 if (x.dfs# = -1) // tree edge (x previously undiscovered)  
 DFS(x)  
 else ... // code for back-, fwd-, parent, // edges, if needed  
 // mark v "completed," if needed

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### Why fuss about trees (again)?

As with BFS, DFS has found a tree in the graph s.t. non-tree edges are "simple" -- only descendant/ancestor

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### A simple problem on trees

Given: tree T, a value L(v) defined for every vertex v in T  
 Goal: find M(v), the min value of L(v) anywhere in the subtree rooted at v (including v itself).  
 How?

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## A simple problem on trees

Given: tree  $T$ , a value  $L(v)$  defined for every vertex  $v$  in  $T$

Goal: find  $M(v)$ , the min value of  $L(v)$  anywhere in the subtree rooted at  $v$  (including  $v$  itself).

How? Depth first search, using:

$$M(v) = \begin{cases} L(v) & \text{if } v \text{ is a leaf} \\ \min(L(v), \min_{w \text{ a child of } v} M(w)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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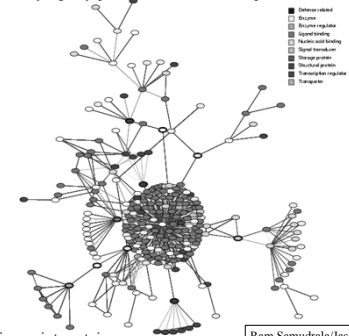
## Application: Articulation Points

A node in an undirected graph is an **articulation point** iff removing it disconnects the graph

articulation points represent vulnerabilities in a network – single points whose failure would split the network into 2 or more disconnected components

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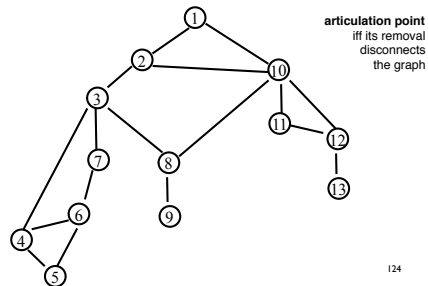
## Identifying key proteins on the anthrax predicted network



Articulation point proteins

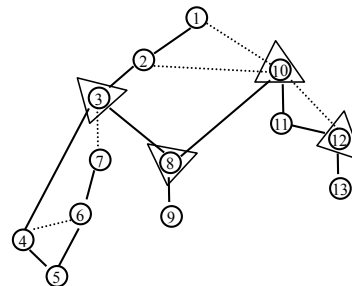
Ram Samudrala/Jason McDermott

## Articulation Points



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## Articulation Points



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## Brainstorming

draw a graph, ~ 10 nodes, A-J  
redraw as via DFS, starting at "E"  
add dfs/ tree/back edges (solid/dashed)  
find cycles  
give alg to find cycles via dfs; does G have any?

find articulation points  
what do cycles have to do with articulation points?  
alg to find articulation points via DFS???

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### Simple Case: Artic. Pts in a tree

Leaves – never articulation points  
 Internal nodes – always articulation points  
 Root – articulation point if and only if two or more children

Non-tree: extra edges remove some articulation points (which ones?)

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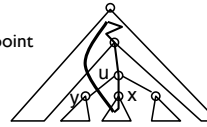
### Articulation Points from DFS

Root node is an articulation point iff it has more than one child  
 Leaf is never an articulation point

non-leaf, non-root node  $u$  is an articulation point



$\exists$  some child  $y$  of  $u$  s.t. no non-tree edge goes above  $u$  from  $y$  or below



If removal of  $u$  does NOT separate  $x$ , there must be an exit from  $x$ 's subtree. How? Via back edge.

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### Articulation Points: the "LOW" function

Definition:  $LOW(v)$  is the lowest dfs# of any vertex that is either in the dfs subtree rooted at  $v$  (including  $v$  itself) or connected to a vertex in that subtree by a back edge.

$$LOW(v) = \min ( \{dfs\#(v)\} \cup \{LOW(w) \mid w \text{ a child of } v\} \cup \{dfs\#(x) \mid \{v,x\} \text{ is a back edge from } v\} )$$

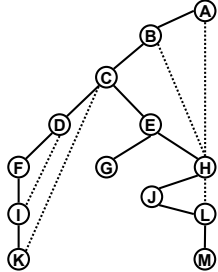
$v$  articulation point iff...

trivial

critical

129

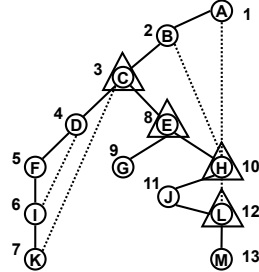
### Articulation Point



Vertex	DFS #	Low
A		
B		
C		
D		
E		
F		
G		
H		
I		
J		
K		
L		
M		

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### Articulation Points



Vertex	DFS #	Low
A	1	1
B	2	1
C	3	1
D	4	3
E	8	1
F	5	3
G	9	9
H	10	1
I	6	3
J	11	10
K	7	3
L	12	10
M	13	13

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### DFS(v) for Finding Articulation Points

```

Global initialization: v.dfs# = -1 for all v.
DFS(v)
v.dfs# = dfscounter++
v.low = v.dfs# // initialization
for each edge {v,x}
  if (x.dfs# == -1) // x is undiscovered
    DFS(x)
    v.low = min(v.low, x.low)
  if (x.low >= v.dfs#)
    print "v is art. pt., separating x"
  else if (x is not v's parent)
    v.low = min(v.low, x.dfs#)
    
```

Except for root. Why?

Equip: "if ({v,x} is a back edge)" Why?

## Summary

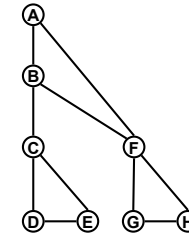
Graphs – abstract relationships among pairs of objects  
 Terminology – node/vertex/vertices, edges, paths, multi-edges, self-loops, connected  
 Representation – edge list, adjacency matrix  
 Nodes vs Edges –  $m = O(n^2)$ , often less  
 BFS – Layers, queue, shortest paths, all edges go to same or adjacent layer  
 DFS – recursion/stack; all edges ancestor/descendant  
 Algorithms – connected components, bipartiteness, topological sort, articulation points

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## 3' UTR

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## Articulation Points

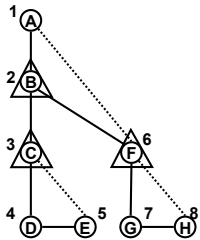


Vertex	DFS #	Low
A		
B		
C		
D		
E		
F		
G		
H		

**AP's:**  
 1)  
 2)  
 3)  
 4)

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## Articulation Points

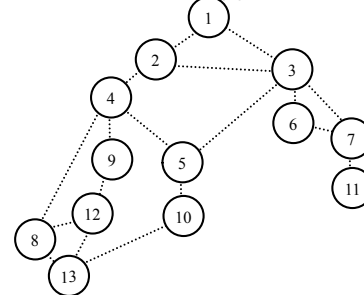


Vertex	DFS #	Low
A	1	1
B	2	1
C	3	3
D	4	3
E	5	3
F	6	1
G	7	6
H	8	6

**AP's:** C, B, F  
**BCC's:**  
 1) C–D, D–E, E–C  
 2) B–C  
 3) A–B, B–F, F–A  
 4) F–G, G–H, H–F

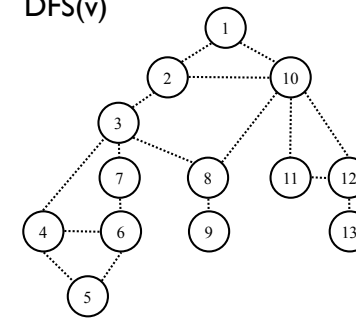
136

## BFS(v)



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## DFS(v)



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## Articulation Points from DFS

Every interior vertex of a tree is an articulation point

Non-tree edges eliminate articulation points

Leaves are never articulation points

Root node is an articulation point iff it has more than one child

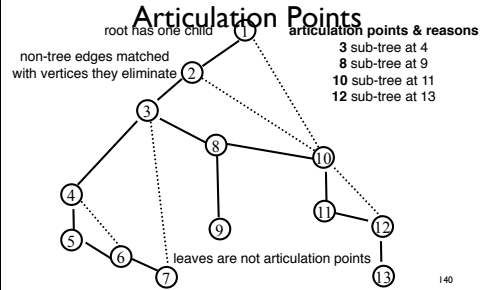
non-leaf, non-root node  $u$  is an articulation point



no non-tree edge goes above  $u$  from a sub-tree below some child of  $u$

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## DFS Application: Articulation Points



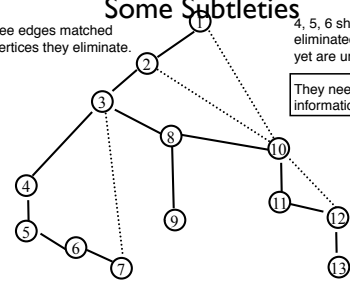
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## Articulation Points: Some Subtleties

non-tree edges matched with vertices they eliminate.

4, 5, 6 should be eliminated, yet are unmatched.

They need to **inherit** information from child 7



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## DFS Vertex Numbering

If  $u$  is an ancestor of  $v$  in the DFS tree, then  $dfs\#(u) < dfs\#(v)$ .

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