

09 - DFS and BFS

[KOMS119602] & [KOMS120403]

Design and Analysis of Algorithm (2021/2022)

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A **graph traversal** algorithm is an algorithm that looks for a problem solution in a *graph data structure*, by visiting the nodes in the graph systematically (assuming that the graph is *connected*).

- Depth first search (DFS)
- Breadth first search (BFS)

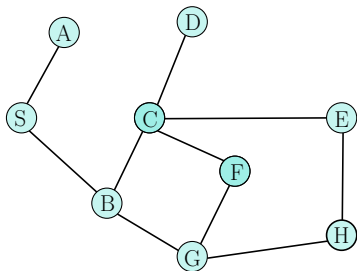
Adjacency matrix

An **adjacency matrix** is an $n \times n$ binary matrix in which value of $[i, j]$ -th cell is 1 if there exists an edge having endpoints the i -th vertex and the j -th vertex, otherwise the value is 0.

Adjacency list

An **adjacency list** is an array of separate lists. Each element of array is a list of corresponding neighbour (or directly connected) vertices. In other words, the i -th list of an adjacency list is a list of all those vertices which is directly connected to i -th vertex.

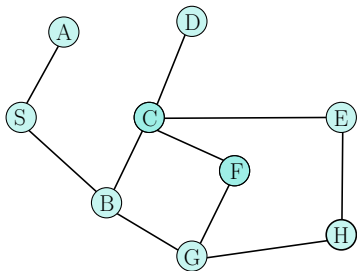
Graph data structure



	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	S
A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
B	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
C	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0
D	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
E	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
F	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
G	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0
H	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
S	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Figure: A graph and its adjacency matrix

Graph data structure



S: [A, B]
A: [S]
B: [S, C, G]
C: [B, D, E, F]
D: [C]
E: [C, H]
F: [C, G]
G: [B, F, H]

Adjacency list: [[A,B], [S], [S,C,G], [B,D,E,F], [C], [C,H], [C,G], [B,F,H]]

Figure: A graph and its adjacency list

Two approaches in the solution searching process

- 1 **Static graph**: the graph is constructed *before* the searching process. Graph is represented as a data structure.
 - Example: BFS, DFS
- 2 **Dynamic graph**: the graph is constructed along with the process of searching.

Depth-First Search (DFS)

DFS (1): Algorithm

DFS begins at a *root node* and inspects all the neighboring nodes.

- Visit the node v ;
- Visit node w that is adjacent to v ;
- Repeat DFS starting from node w ;
- When vertex u is reached so that all its neighbor are visited, the searching is “backtracked” to the last visited node that still has an unvisited neighbor.
- Keep going on like this.
- Searching is finished when there is no more node that can be reached from the visited node.

DFS (2): Pseudocode (recursive)

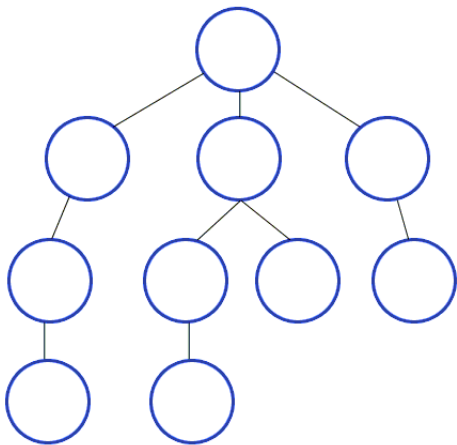
Algorithm 1 DFS in a graph

```
1: procedure DFS( $G$ )
2:   input: graph  $G = (V, E)$ 
3:   output: graph  $G$  with  $V(G)$  marked with consecutive integers indicating
      the DFS-order
4:   count  $\leftarrow 0$ 
5:   initialize array visited = [ ]
6:   for  $v \in V$  do
7:     visited[ $v$ ] = 0
8:   end for
9:   for  $v \in V$  do
10:    if visited[ $v$ ] = 0 then
11:      DFS( $v$ )
12:    end if
13:  end for
14:  return visited
15: end procedure
```

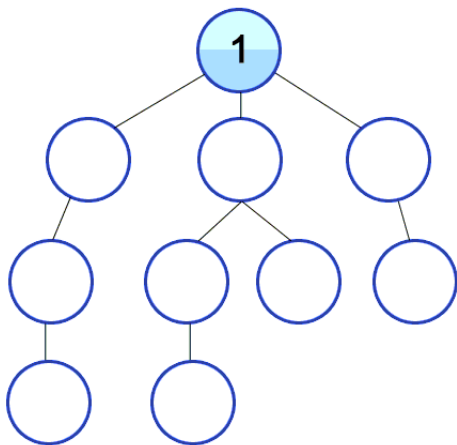
Algorithm 2 DFS a vertex

```
1: procedure DFS( $v$ )
2:    $\text{count} \leftarrow \text{count} + 1$ 
3:    $\text{visited}[v] = \text{count}$ 
4:   for  $w \in N(v)$  do
5:     if  $\text{visited}[w] = 0$  then
6:       DFS( $w$ )
7:     end if
8:   end for
9: end procedure
```

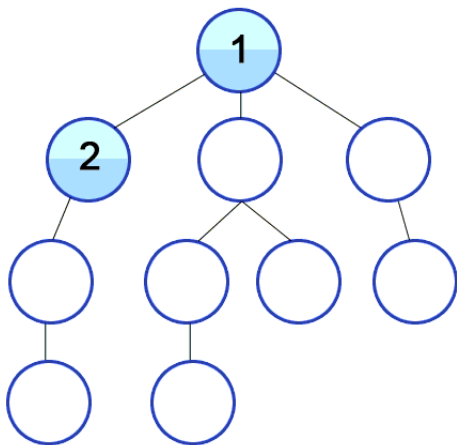
DFS (4): Example on a tree



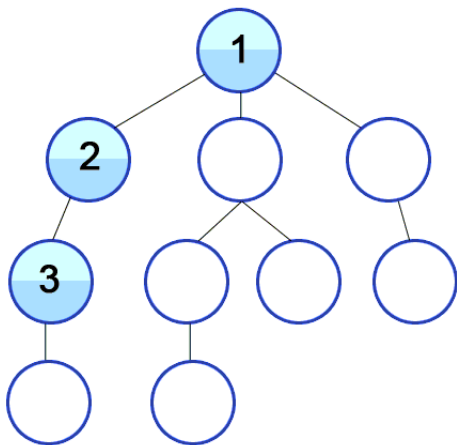
DFS (4): Example on a tree



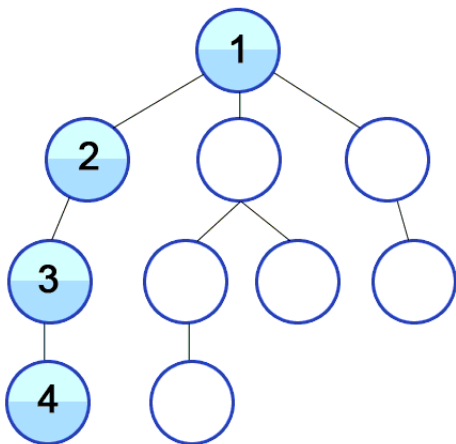
DFS (4): Example on a tree



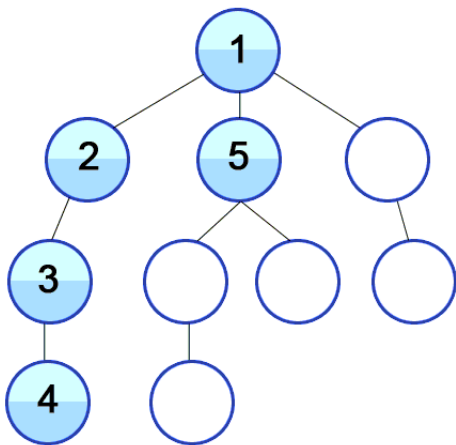
DFS (4): Example on a tree



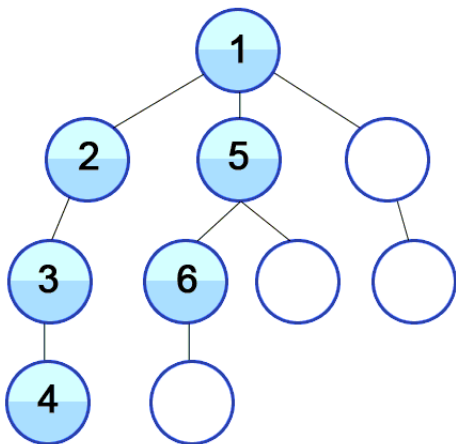
DFS (4): Example on a tree



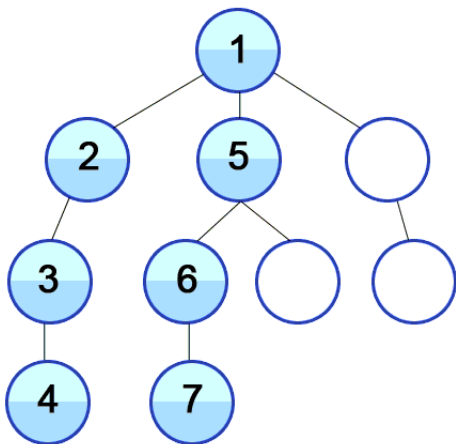
DFS (4): Example on a tree



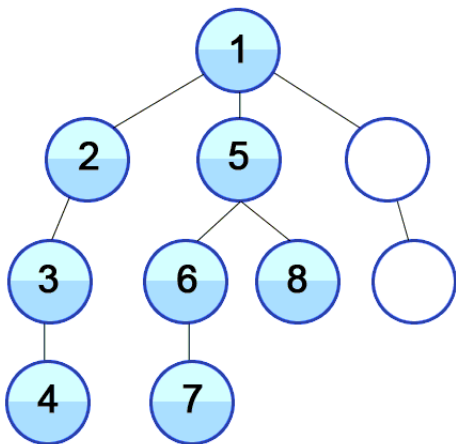
DFS (4): Example on a tree



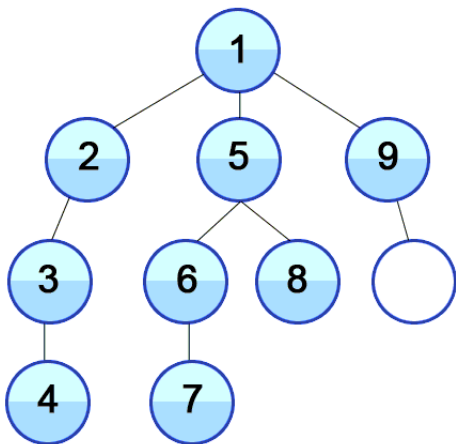
DFS (4): Example on a tree



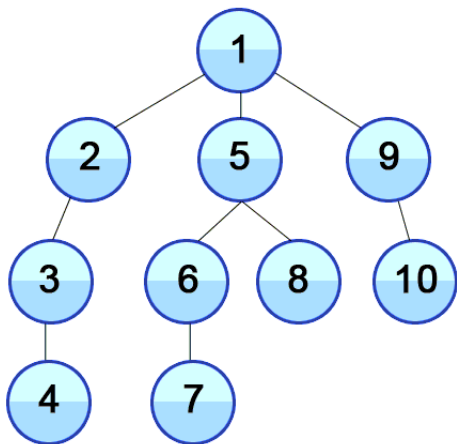
DFS (4): Example on a tree



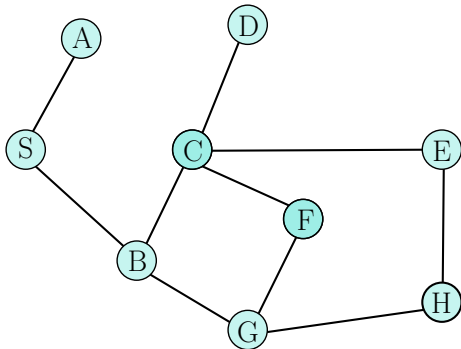
DFS (4): Example on a tree



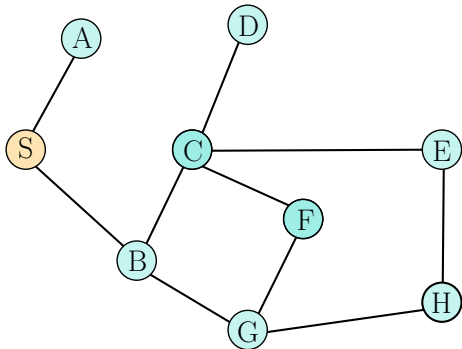
DFS (4): Example on a tree



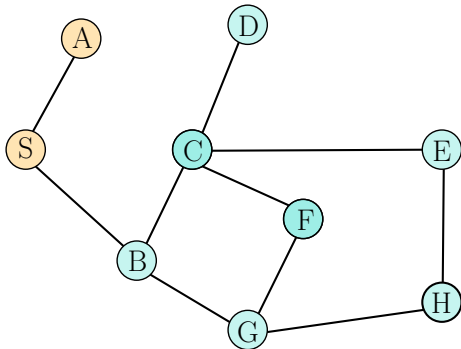
DFS (5): Example on a graph



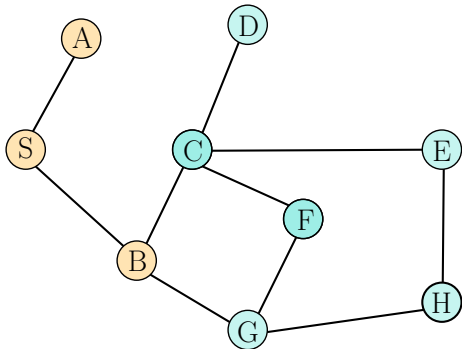
DFS (5): Example on a graph



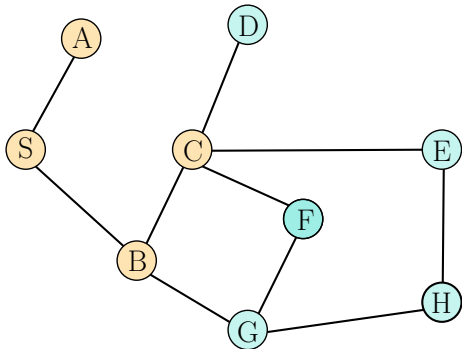
DFS (5): Example on a graph



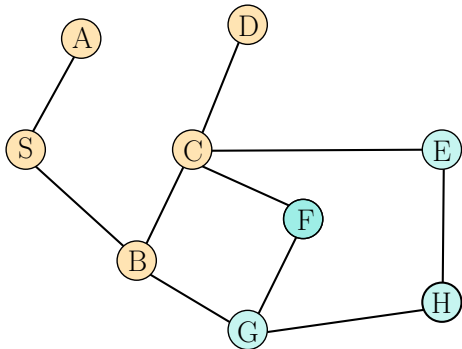
DFS (5): Example on a graph



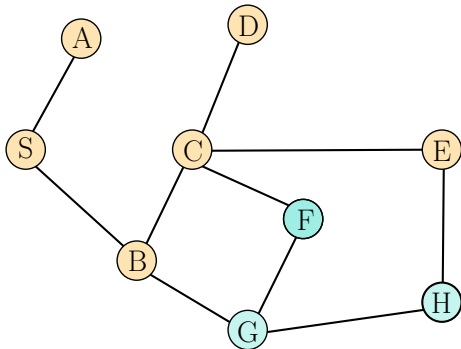
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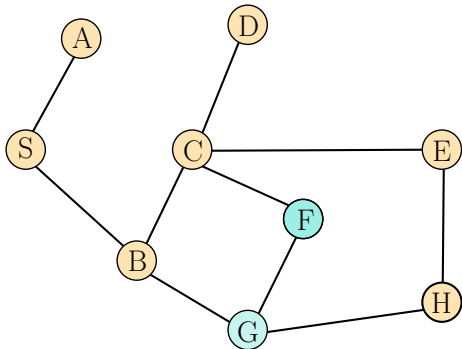
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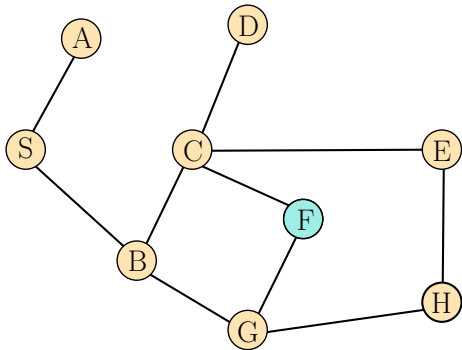
DFS (5): Example on a graph



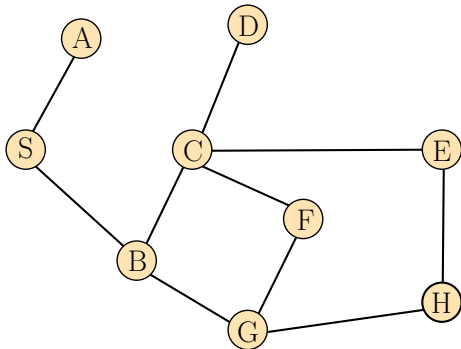
DFS (5): Example on a graph



DFS (5): Example on a graph



DFS (5): Example on a graph



DFS (6): DFS tree

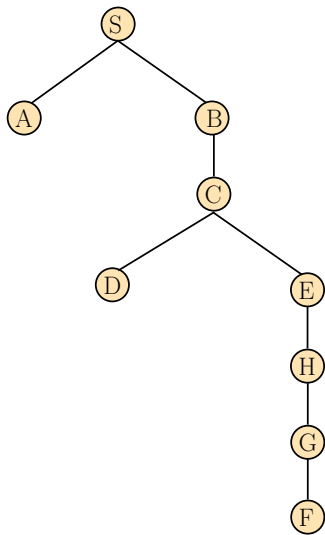


Figure: Tree after DFS run

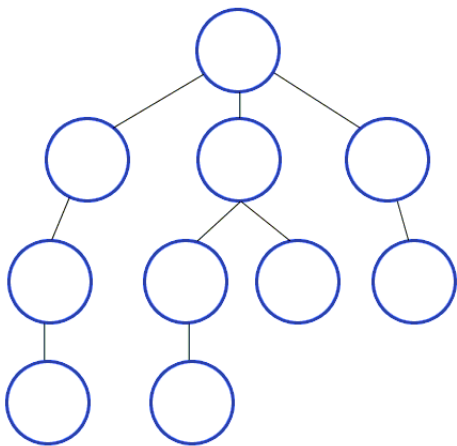
Breadth-First Search (BFS)

BFS (1): Algorithm

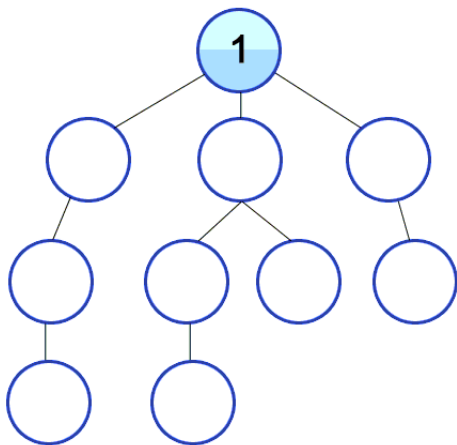
BFS begins at a *root node* and inspects all the neighboring nodes. Then for each of those neighbor nodes in turn, it inspects their neighbor nodes which were unvisited, and so on.

- Visit the node v ;
- Visit all nodes that are adjacent to v ;
- Visit all nodes not yet visited, and are adjacent to the nodes that just visited;
- Keep going on like this...

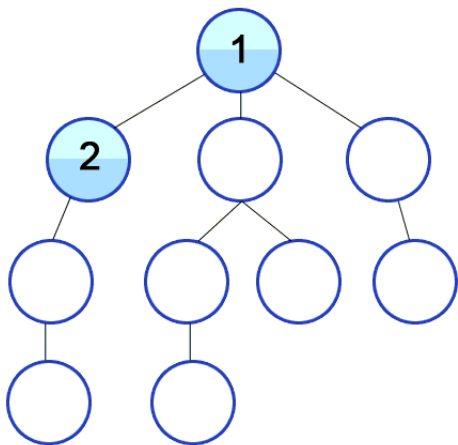
BFS (2): Example on a tree



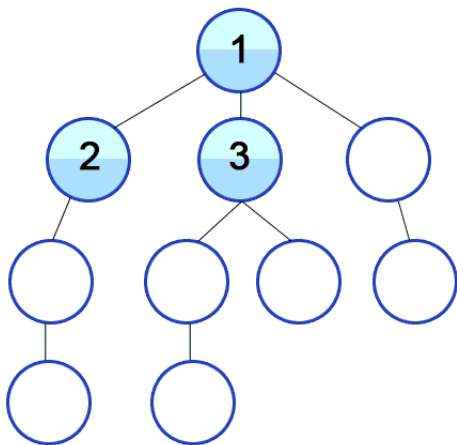
BFS (2): Example on a tree



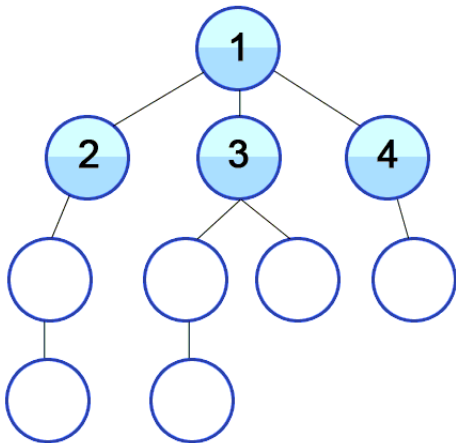
BFS (2): Example on a tree



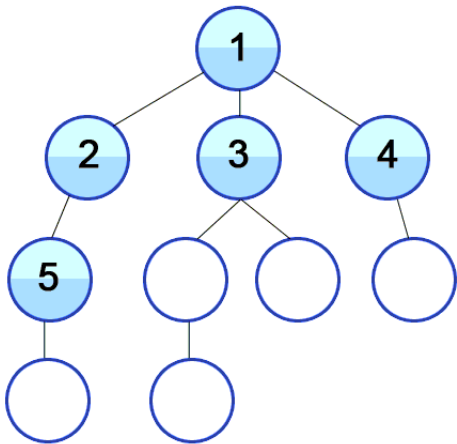
BFS (2): Example on a tree



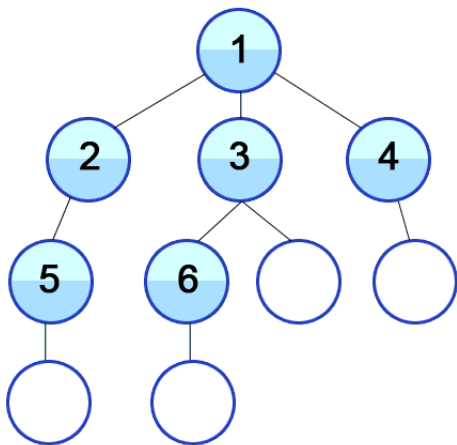
BFS (2): Example on a tree



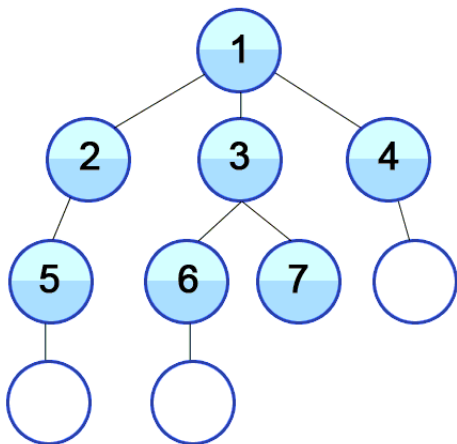
BFS (2): Example on a tree



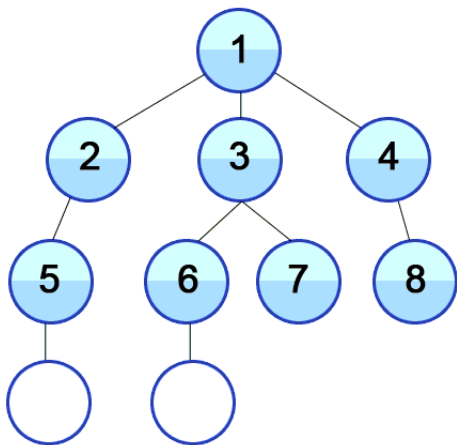
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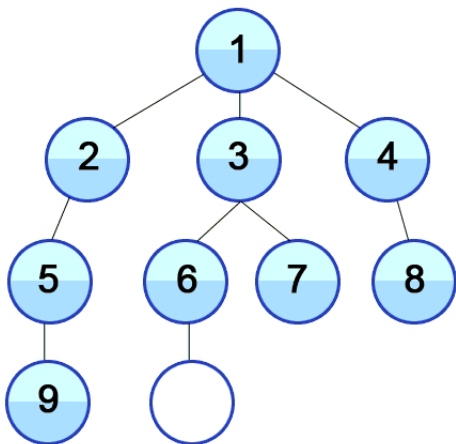
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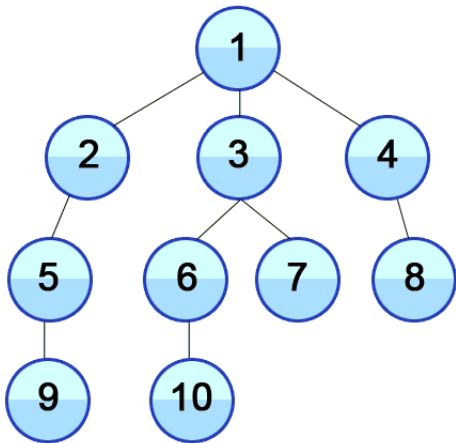
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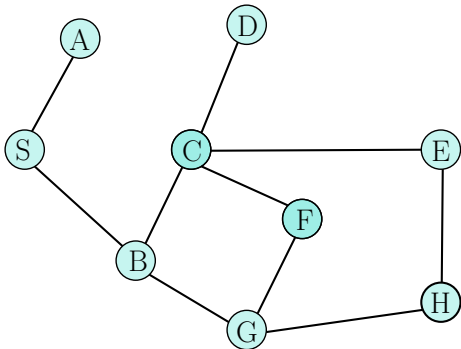
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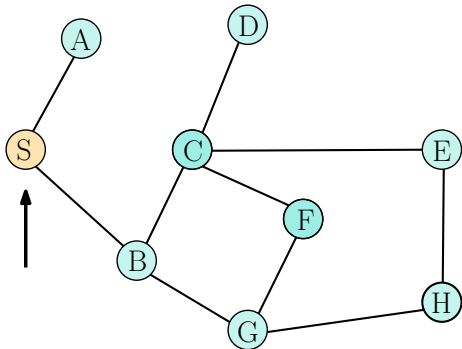
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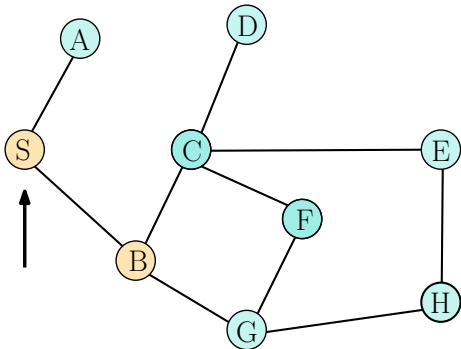
BFS (3): Example on a graph



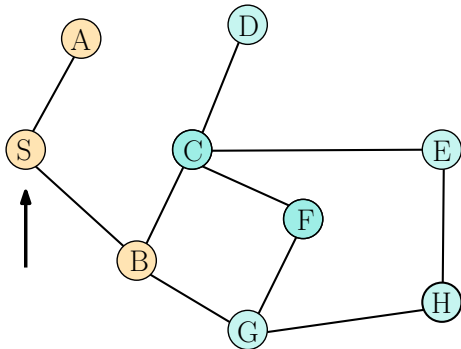
BFS (3): Example on a graph



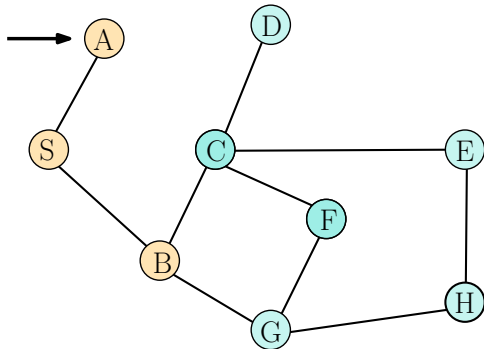
BFS (3): Example on a graph



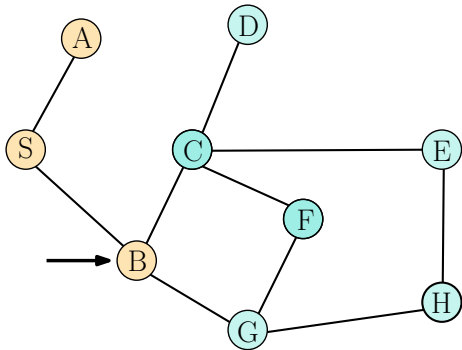
BFS (3): Example on a graph



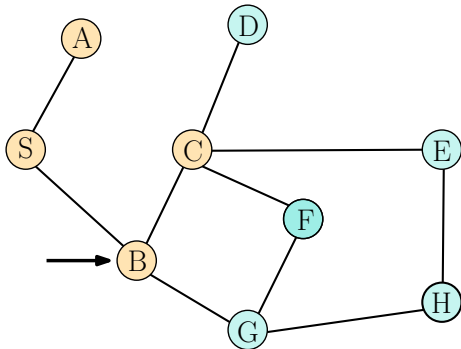
BFS (3): Example on a graph



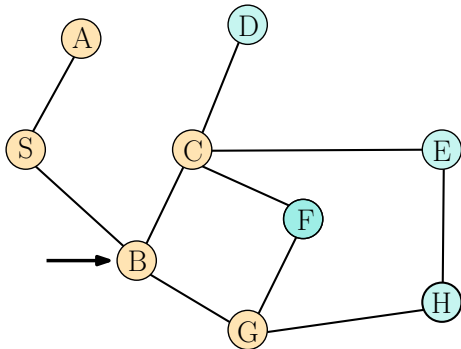
BFS (3): Example on a graph



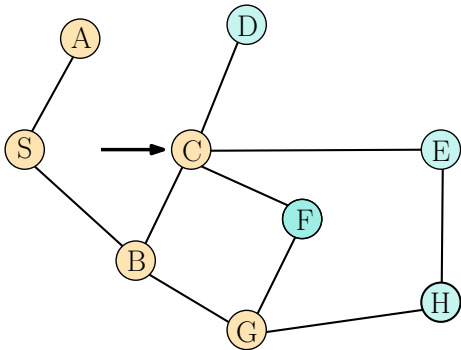
BFS (3): Example on a graph



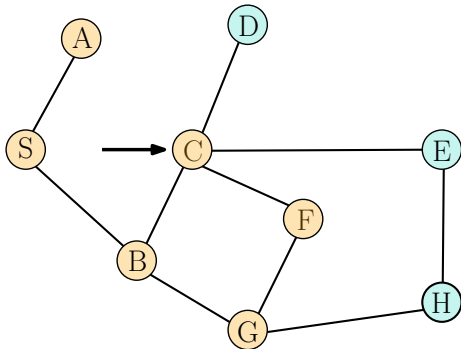
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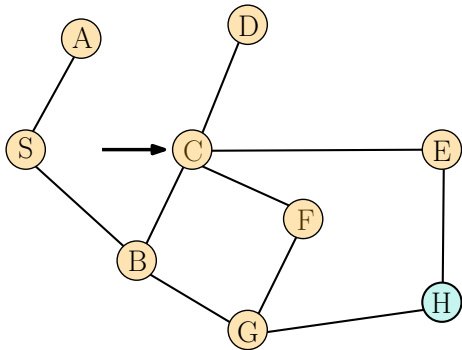
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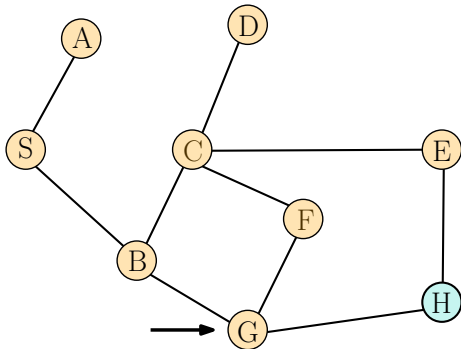
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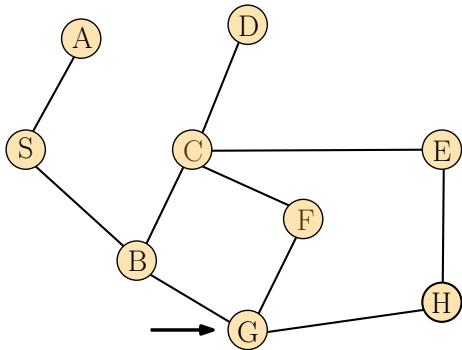
BFS (3): Example on a graph



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BFS (3): Example on a graph



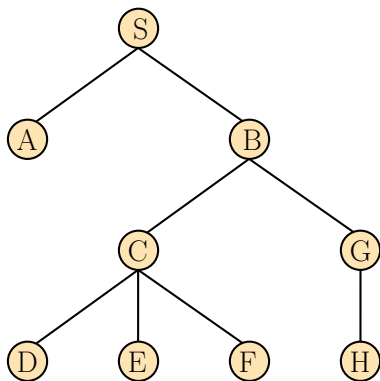


Figure: Tree after BFS run

BFS (5): Data structure

- 1 The adjacency matrix $A = [a_{ij}]$ of size $n \times n$,
 - $a_{ij} = 1$, if node i and node j are adjacent
 - $a_{ij} = 0$, if node i and node j are non-adjacent
- 2 Queue Q to store the visited nodes.
- 3 Boolean array, named “Visited”, of size $1 \times n$
 - $\text{visited}[i]$: *True* if node i has been visited
 - $\text{visited}[i]$: *False* if node i has not been visited
- 4 “Visited” can be also set as an integer array, indicating the order of the visited nodes after BFS procedure is implemented.

BFS (6): Pseudocode (recursive)

Algorithm 3 BFS in a graph

```
1: procedure BFS( $G$ )
2:   input: graph  $G = (V, E)$ 
3:   output: graph  $G$  with  $V(G)$  marked with consecutive integers indicating
      the BFS-order
4:   count  $\leftarrow 0$ 
5:   initialize array visited = [ ]
6:   for  $v \in V$  do
7:     visited[ $v$ ] = 0
8:   end for
9:   for  $v \in V$  do
10:    if visited[ $v$ ] = 0 then
11:      BFS( $v$ )
12:    end if
13:  end for
14:  return visited
15: end procedure
```

Algorithm 4 BFS a vertex

```
1: procedure BFS( $v$ )
2:   count  $\leftarrow$  count + 1
3:   visited[ $v$ ] = count
4:   initialize queue  $Q = [v]$ 
5:   while  $Q \neq []$  do
6:     for  $w \in N(Q[0])$  do
7:       if visited[ $w$ ] = 0 then
8:         count  $\leftarrow$  count + 1
9:         visited[ $w$ ] = count
10:        add  $w$  to  $Q$ 
11:       end if
12:     end for
13:     remove  $v$  from  $Q$ 
14:   end while
15: end procedure
```

▷ $Q[0]$ is the first element in the queue Q

Applications of DFS and BFS

Tugas: Buat rangkuman tentang satu aplikasi algoritma DFS atau BFS. Jelaskan apa permasalahannya, dan bagaimana algoritma DFS/BFS digunakan untuk menyelesaikan permasalahan tersebut!

Setiap mahasiswa diwajibkan memberikan contoh yang berbeda dengan mahasiswa lain!

Tugas diketik dalam Bahasa Indonesia ± 1 halaman.

Tulis topik pada list berikut . . .

Dynamic graph

Graph: $G(V, E)$, where V : set of vertices and E : set of edges.

Dynamic graph: $G = (G_1, G_2, \dots, G_t)$ where $G_t = (V_t, E_t)$ and is the current number of *snapshots*.

- In dynamic graph, new nodes can be formed and create links with the existing nodes; or nodes can disappear, thus terminating the existing links.

Why need dynamic graphs?

- Real-life situations that are modeled with graphs can be very complex. The graph is **not static** and can **evolve through time**.

Evolution of a social network

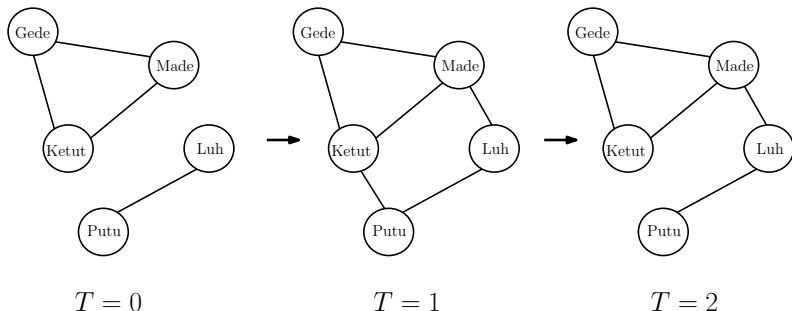


Figure: Evolution of a social network (source: towardsdatascience.com)

- The evolution shows 3 snapshots at 3 time-points
- Some new friendships being made and also some get broken
- There are new incoming nodes (people joining the network) and some outgoing nodes (people leaving the network)

Solution searching via DFS/BFS

Solution searching → creating **dynamic tree**

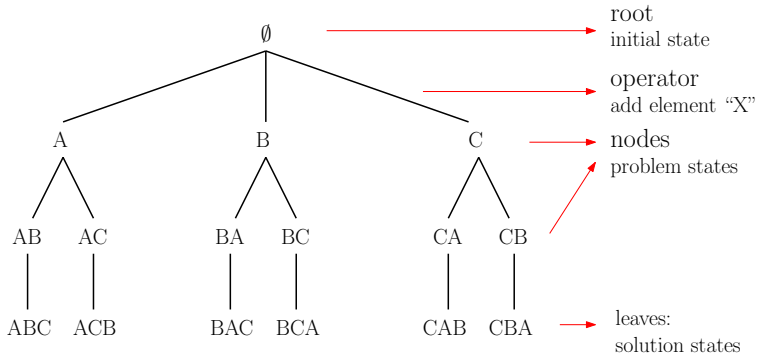
- Each node is checked, to see if the solution (goal) is obtained.
- If a node is a solution, the searching is finished (for one solution); or is continued to look for other solutions.

Representation of dynamic tree

- **State-space tree**: tree of problem's states
- Each node represents a problem state
 - **Root**: initial state
 - **Leaves**: solution/goal state
- **Branch**: operator/operation
- **State space**: set of all nodes
- **Solution space**: set of solution state

A problem solution in a dynamic tree is showed using a **path from the root to a solution state**.

State-space tree example: Permutation



Solution space: set of all solution states

State space: all nodes in dynamic tree

Figure: State space tree of "Permutation of A, B, C"

BFS for constructing state-space tree

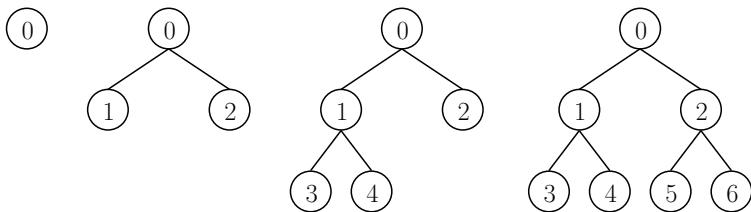
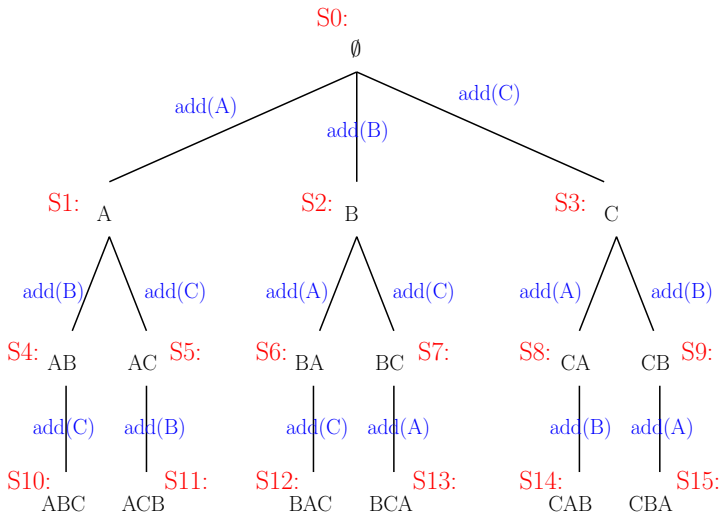


Figure: State space tree of “Permutation of A, B, C”

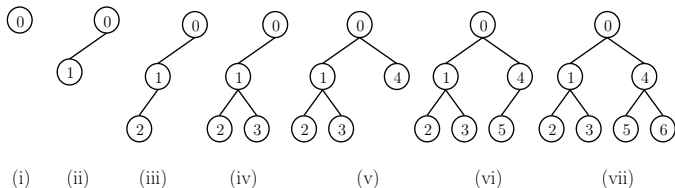
- Initialize the initial state as the root, add children nodes.
- All nodes at level d are constructed before constructing the nodes at level $d + 1$.

DFS for constructing state-space tree



DFS for constructing state-space tree

DFS



BFS

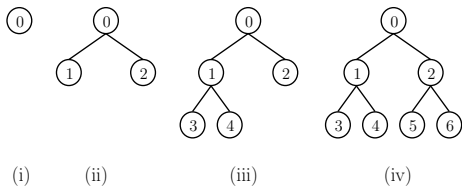
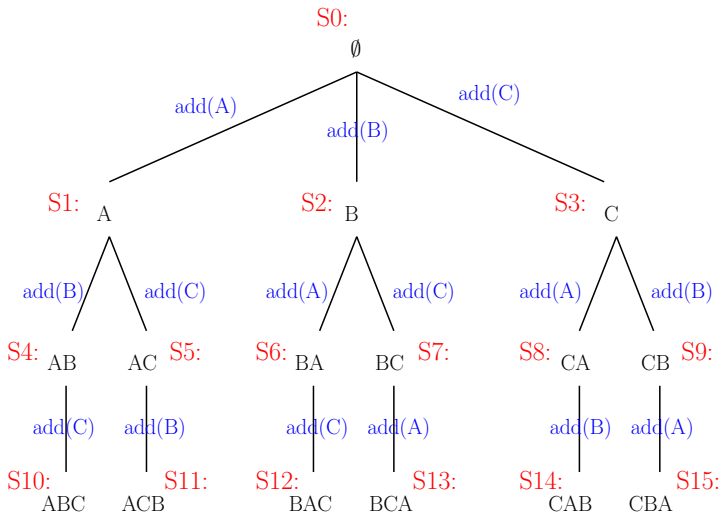
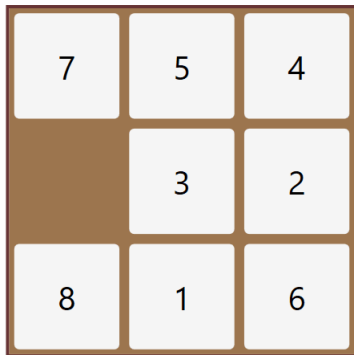


Figure: State space tree construction - DFS vs BFS

BFS for constructing state-space tree



8-puzzle game



Designing DFS/BFS for 8-puzzle

2	8	3
1	6	4
7		5

initial state

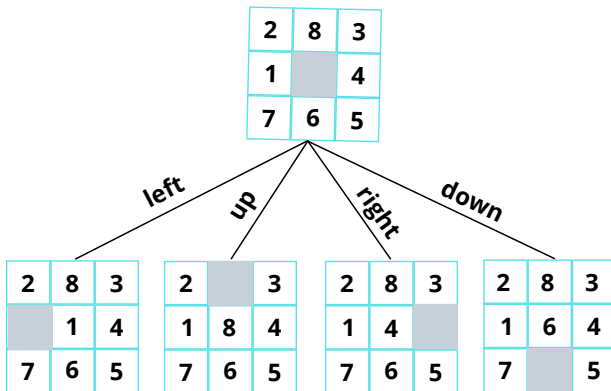
1	2	3
8		4
7	6	5

goal state

- **State:** the states are defined based on the *empty box*

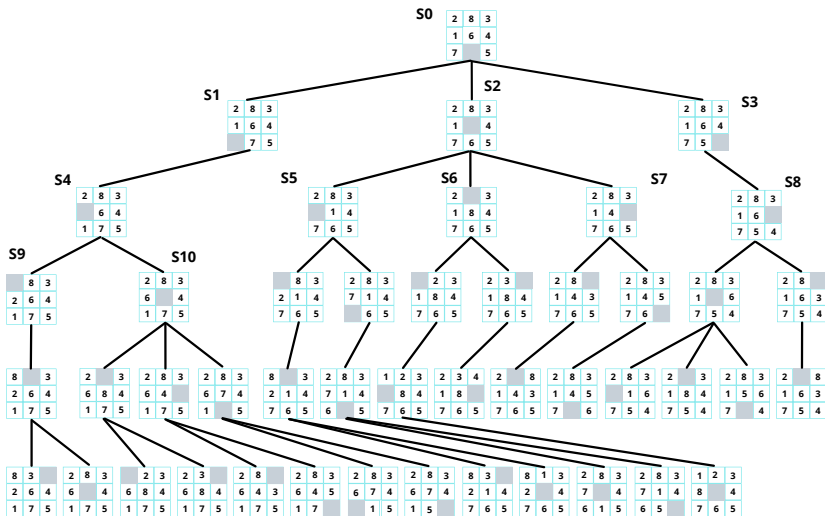
Designing DFS/BFS for 8-puzzle

- **Operator:** up, down, left, right

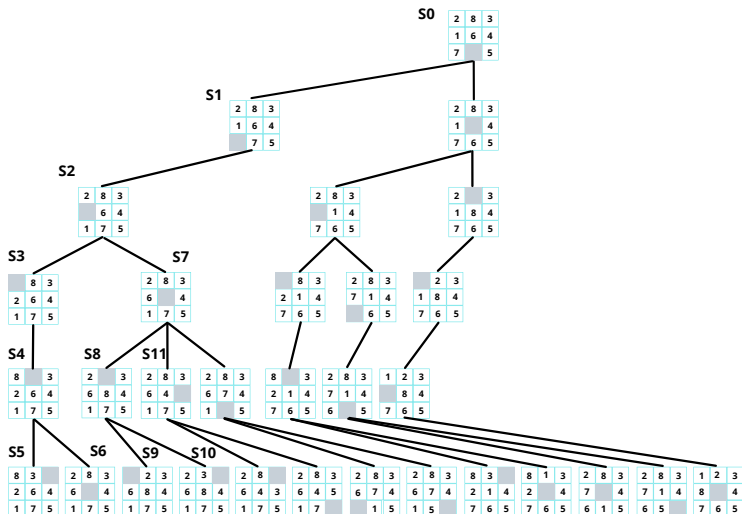


Remark: when creating the state-space tree, the order of the operator must be consistent

BFS state-space tree for 8-puzzle game



DFS state-space tree for 8-puzzle game



Efficiency of DFS and BFS

- **Completeness:** if the solution exists, does the algorithm guarantees that an optimal solution is found?
- **Optimality:** does the algorithm guarantees that the solution obtained is optimal (eg: *the solution path has the lowest cost*)
- **Time & space complexities**

The time and space complexities are measured based on the following factors:

- b (*branching factor*): the maximum number of possible branches from a node
- d (*depth*): the depth of the best solution (the lowest-cost path)
- m : the maximum depth of the state space (can be ∞)

- **Completeness:** yes as long as b is bounded (finite)
- **Optimality:** yes if the cost is determined by *the number of steps*
- **Time complexity:** $1 + b + b^2 + b^3 + \dots + b^d = \mathcal{O}(b^d)$
- **Space complexity:** $\mathcal{O}(b^d)$, because we have to store all states at each depth.

- **Completeness:** yes as long as b is bounded (finite), and the “redundant paths” and “repeated paths” are handled.
- **Optimality:** not always, because we might end up traversing many states before reaching the solution
- **Time complexity:** $\mathcal{O}(b^m)$, because we have to generate the states based on the depth
- **Space complexity:** $\mathcal{O}(bm)$, because we only store the states that lead to a solution