

# Depth First Search

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Today, we will discuss the **depth first search** (DFS) algorithm, which is an elegant algorithm for solving many non-trivial problems. In this lecture, we will see one such problem: **cycle detection**. We will assume directed graphs because the extension to undirected graphs is straightforward.

## Paths and Cycles

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a directed graph.

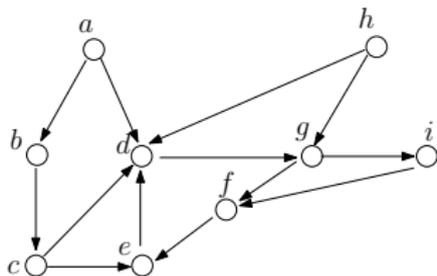
Recall:

A **path** in  $G$  is a sequence of edges  $(v_1, v_2), (v_2, v_3), \dots, (v_\ell, v_{\ell+1})$ , for some integer  $\ell \geq 1$ . We may also denote the path as  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v_{\ell+1}$ .

We now define:

A path  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v_{\ell+1}$  is called a **cycle** if  $v_{\ell+1} = v_1$ .

## Example



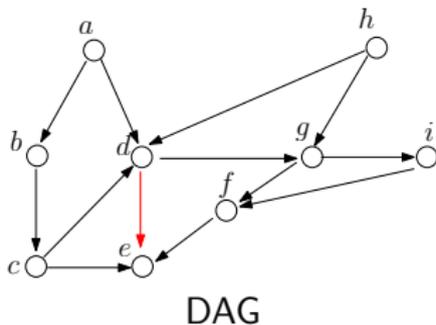
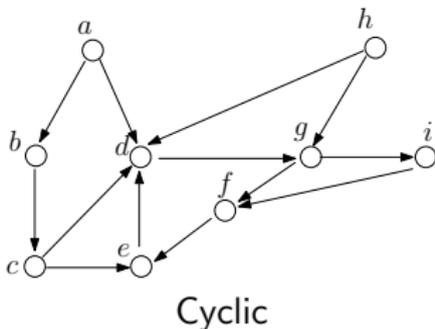
A cycle:  $d \rightarrow g \rightarrow f \rightarrow e \rightarrow d$ .

Another one:  $d \rightarrow g \rightarrow i \rightarrow f \rightarrow e \rightarrow d$ .

## Directed Acyclic/Cyclic Graphs

If a directed graph contains no cycles, we say that it is a **directed acyclic graph** (DAG). Otherwise,  $G$  is **cyclic**.

### Example



## The Cycle Detection Problem

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a directed graph. Determine whether it is a DAG.

Next, we will describe the **depth first search** (DFS) algorithm to solve the problem in  $O(|V| + |E|)$  time, which is optimal (because any algorithm must at least see every vertex and every edge once in the worst case).

DFS outputs a tree, called the **DFS-tree**, which allows us to decide whether the input graph is a DAG.

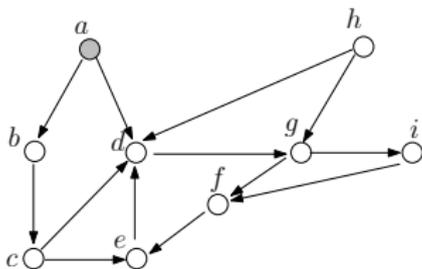
## DFS

At the beginning, color all vertices in the graph **white** and create an empty DFS tree  $T$ .

Create a stack  $S$ . Pick an arbitrary vertex  $v$ . Push  $v$  into  $S$ , and color it **gray** (which means “in the stack”). Make  $v$  the root of  $T$ .

## Example

Suppose that we start from  $a$ .



DFS tree  
 $a$

$S = (a)$ .

## DFS

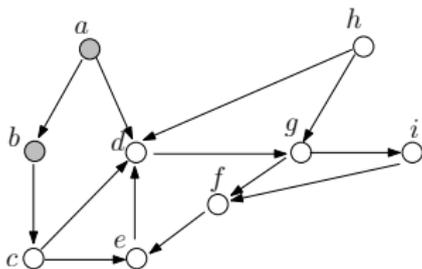
Repeat the following until  $S$  is empty.

- ① Let  $v$  be the vertex that currently tops the stack  $S$  (do not remove  $v$  from  $S$ ).
- ② Does  $v$  still have a white out-neighbor?
  - 2.1 If so, let it be  $u$ .
    - Push  $u$  into  $S$ , and color  $u$  **gray**.
    - Make  $u$  a child of  $v$  in the DFS-tree  $T$ .
  - 2.2 Otherwise, pop  $v$  from  $S$  and color it **black** (meaning  $v$  is done).

If there are still white vertices, repeat the above by **restarting** from an arbitrary white vertex  $v'$ , creating a new DFS-tree rooted at  $v'$ .

## Running Example

Top of stack:  $a$ , which has white out-neighbors  $b, d$ . Suppose we access  $b$  first. Push  $b$  into  $S$ .



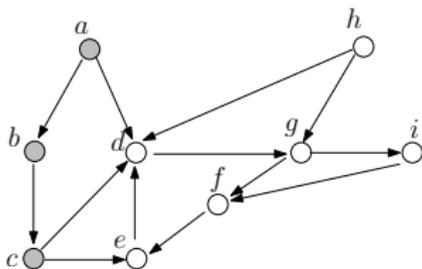
DFS tree

```
a
|
b
```

$S = (a, b)$ .

## Running Example

After pushing  $c$  into  $S$ :



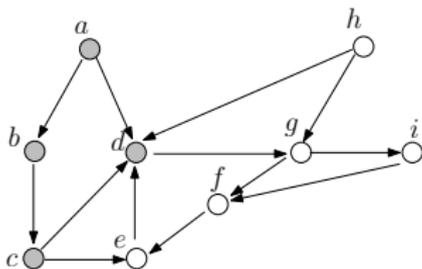
$S = (a, b, c)$ .

DFS tree

```
a
|
b
|
c
```

## Running Example

Now  $c$  tops the stack. It has white out-neighbors  $d$  and  $e$ . Suppose we visit  $d$  first. Push  $d$  into  $S$ .



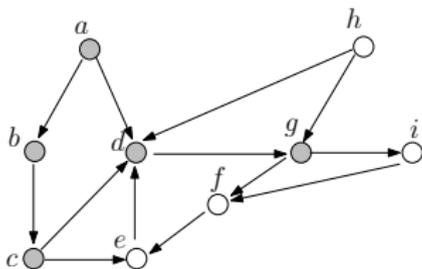
DFS tree

```
a
|
b
|
c
|
d
```

$S = (a, b, c, d)$ .

## Running Example

After pushing  $g$  into  $S$ :



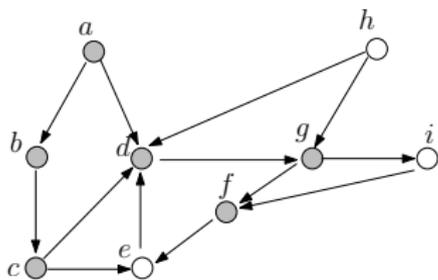
DFS tree

```
a
|
b
|
c
|
d
|
g
```

$S = (a, b, c, d, g)$ .

## Running Example

Suppose we visit the (white) out-neighbor  $f$  of  $g$  first. Push  $f$  into  $S$



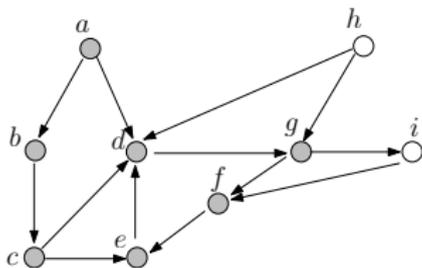
DFS tree



$S = (a, b, c, d, g, f)$ .

## Running Example

After pushing  $e$  into  $S$ :



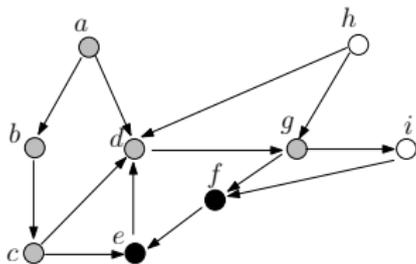
DFS tree

```
a
|
b
|
c
|
d
|
g
|
f
|
e
```

$S = (a, b, c, d, g, f, e)$ .

## Running Example

$e$  has no white out-neighbors. So pop it from  $S$  and color it black.  
Similarly,  $f$  has no white out-neighbors. Pop it from  $S$  and color it black.



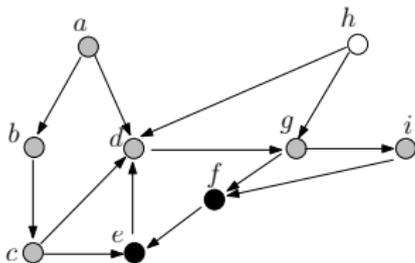
DFS tree

```
a
|
b
|
c
|
d
|
g
|
f
|
e
```

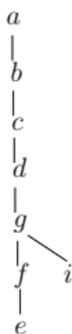
$S = (a, b, c, d, g)$ .

## Running Example

Now  $g$  tops the stack again. It still has a white out-neighbor  $i$ . So, push  $i$  into  $S$ .



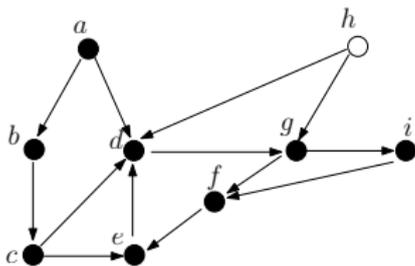
DFS tree



$S = (a, b, c, d, g, i)$ .

## Running Example

After popping  $i, g, d, c, b, a$ :



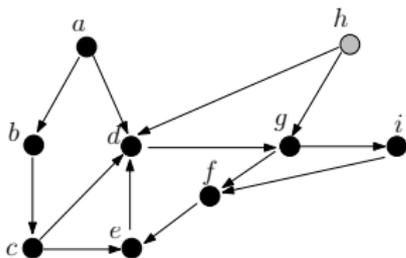
DFS tree



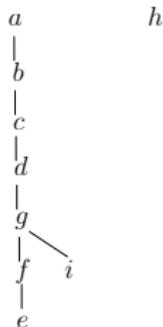
$S = ()$ .

## Running Example

Now there is still a white vertex  $h$ . So we perform another DFS starting from  $h$ .



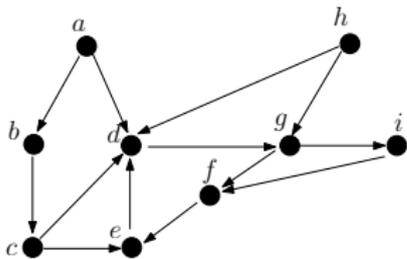
DFS forest



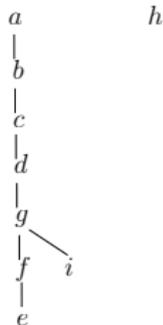
$$S = (h).$$

## Running Example

Pop  $h$ . The end.



DFS forest



$S = ()$ .

Note that we have created a **DFS-forest**, which consists of 2 DFS-trees.

The fact below follows directly from the way DFS runs:

**Lemma (the Ancestor-Descendent Lemma):** Let  $u$  and  $v$  be two distinct vertices in  $G$ . Then,  $u$  is an ancestor of  $v$  in the DFS-forest **if and only if** the following holds:  $u$  is already in the stack when  $v$  enters the stack.

## Time Analysis

DFS can be implemented efficiently as follows.

- Store  $G$  in the adjacency list format.
- For every vertex  $v$ , remember which is the next out-neighbor to explore.
- $O(|V| + |E|)$  stack operations.
- Use an array to remember the colors of all vertices.

The total running time is  $O(|V| + |E|)$ .

Next, we will see how to use the DFS forest to detect cycles.

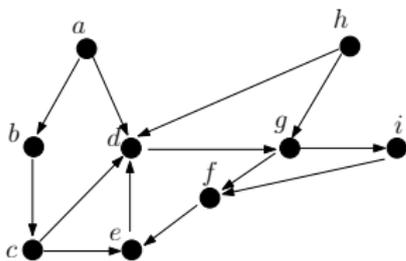
## Edge Classification

Suppose that we have already built a DFS-forest  $T$ .

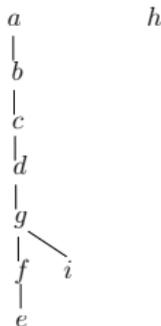
Let  $(u, v)$  be an edge in  $G$  (remember that the edge is directed from  $u$  to  $v$ ). It can be classified into

- 1 **forward edge** if  $u$  is a proper ancestor of  $v$  in a DFS-tree of  $T$ ;
- 2 **back edge** if  $u$  is a descendant of  $v$  in a DFS-tree of  $T$ ;
- 3 **cross edge** if neither of the above applies.

## Example



DFS forest



- Forward edges:  
 $(a, b), (a, d), (b, c), (c, d), (c, e), (d, g), (g, f), (g, i), (f, e)$ .
- Back edge:  $(e, d)$ .
- Cross edges:  $(i, f), (h, d), (h, g)$ .

## Cycle Theorem

**Theorem:** Let  $T$  be an **arbitrary** DFS-forest.  $G$  contains a cycle **if and only if** there is a back edge with respect to  $T$ .

The “if-direction” is obvious. Proving the “only-if direction” is more difficult and will be done later.

**Issue:** How to test the type of an edge?

We can do so in constant time. For this purpose, we need to slightly augment the DFS-forest by remembering when each vertex enters and leaves the stack.

## Augmenting DFS

Maintain a counter  $c$ , which is initially 0. Every time we perform a push or pop, increment  $c$  by 1.

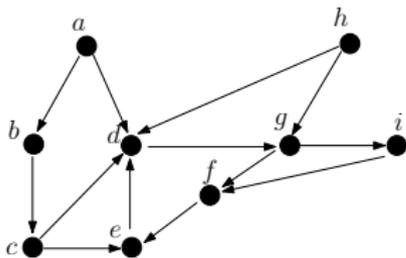
For every vertex  $v$ , define:

- its **discovery time**  $d\text{-tm}(v)$  as the value of  $c$  right after  $v$  is pushed into the stack;
- its **finish time**  $f\text{-tm}(v)$  as the value of  $c$  right after  $v$  is popped from the stack.

Define the **time interval** of  $v$  as  $I(v) = [d\text{-tm}(v), f\text{-tm}(v)]$ .

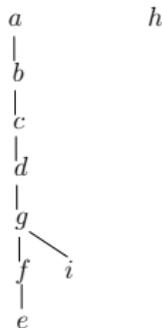
It is straightforward to obtain  $I(v)$  for all  $v \in V$  by paying  $O(|V|)$  extra time on top of DFS's running time. (**Think:** Why?)

## Example



- $l(a) = [1, 16]$
- $l(b) = [2, 15]$
- $l(c) = [3, 14]$
- $l(d) = [4, 13]$
- $l(g) = [5, 12]$
- $l(f) = [6, 9]$
- $l(e) = [7, 8]$
- $l(i) = [10, 11]$
- $l(h) = [17, 18]$

DFS forest



The fact below follows directly from the stack's first-in-last-out property:

**Lemma (the No-Partial-Overlap Lemma):** For any two vertices  $u$  and  $v$  in  $G$ , their time intervals must satisfy one of the following:

- $I(u)$  contains  $I(v)$ ;
- $I(v)$  contains  $I(u)$ ;
- they are disjoint.

Combining the ancestor-descendant lemma with the no-partial-overlap lemma gives:

**Theorem (the Parenthesis Theorem):** Let  $u$  and  $v$  be two distinct vertices in  $G$ . Then:

- $I(u)$  contains  $I(v)$  **if and only if**  $u$  is an ancestor of  $v$  in the DFS-forest.
- $I(v)$  contains  $I(u)$  **if and only if**  $v$  is an ancestor of  $u$  in the DFS-forest.
- $I(u)$  and  $I(v)$  are disjoint **if and only if** neither  $u$  nor  $v$  is an ancestor of the other.

## Cycle Detection

We can now detect whether  $G$  has a cycle:

```
for every edge  $(u, v)$  in  $G$  do  
    if  $I(v)$  contains  $I(u)$  then  
        return "cycle exists"  
return "no cycle"
```

Only  $O(|E|)$  extra time is needed.

We now conclude that the cycle detection problem can be solved in  $O(|V| + |E|)$  time.

It remains to prove the cycle theorem. In fact, it is a corollary of the **white path theorem**, another important theorem about DFS.

## White Path Theorem

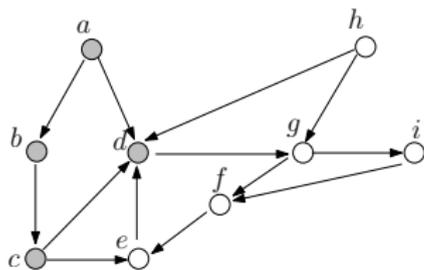
**Theorem:** Let  $u$  be a vertex in  $G$ . Consider the moment right before  $u$  enters the stack in the DFS algorithm. Then, a vertex  $v$  becomes a proper descendant of  $u$  in the DFS-forest **if and only** if the following is true at this moment:

- there is a path from  $u$  to  $v$  including only white vertices.

The proof will be left as an exercise and discussed in the tutorial.

## Example

Consider the moment in our previous example right before  $g$  just entered the stack.  $S = (a, b, c, d)$ .



DFS tree



We can see that  $g$  can reach  $f$ ,  $e$ , and  $i$  via white paths. Therefore,  $f$ ,  $e$ , and  $i$  are all proper descendants of  $g$  in the DFS-forest; and  $g$  has no other descendants.

## Proving the Only-If Direction of the Cycle Theorem

We will now prove that if  $G$  has a cycle, then there must be a back edge in the DFS-forest.

Suppose that the cycle is  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow v_\ell \rightarrow v_1$ .

Let  $v_i$ , for some  $i \in [1, \ell]$ , be the vertex in the cycle that is the first to enter the stack. Hence, at the moment right before  $v_i$  enters the stack,  $v_i$  can reach all the other vertices in the cycle via white paths. By the white path theorem, all the other vertices in the cycle must be proper descendants of  $v_i$  in the DFS-forest. Hence, the edge pointing to  $v_i$  in the cycle must be a back edge.  $\square$