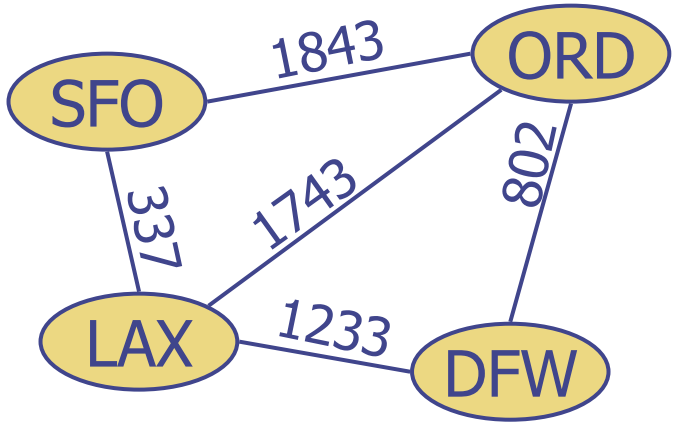
Graphs



Data structures and Algorithms

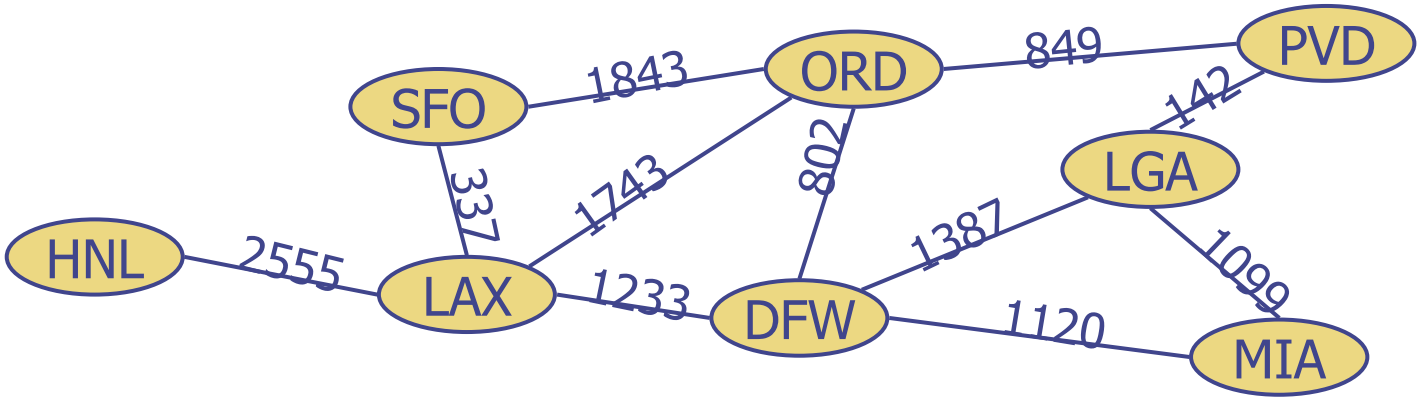
Acknowledgement:
These slides are adapted from slides provided with *Data Structures and Algorithms in C++*
Goodrich, Tamassia and Mount (Wiley, 2004)

Outline and Reading

- Data structures for graphs (§13.2)
- Graph traversal (§13.3)
  - Depth-first search
  - Breadth-first search
- Directed graphs (§13.4)
- Shortest paths (§13.6)
  - Dijkstra's Algorithm
- Minimum spanning trees (§13.7)
  - Kruskal's Algorithm
  - Prim-Jarnik Algorithm

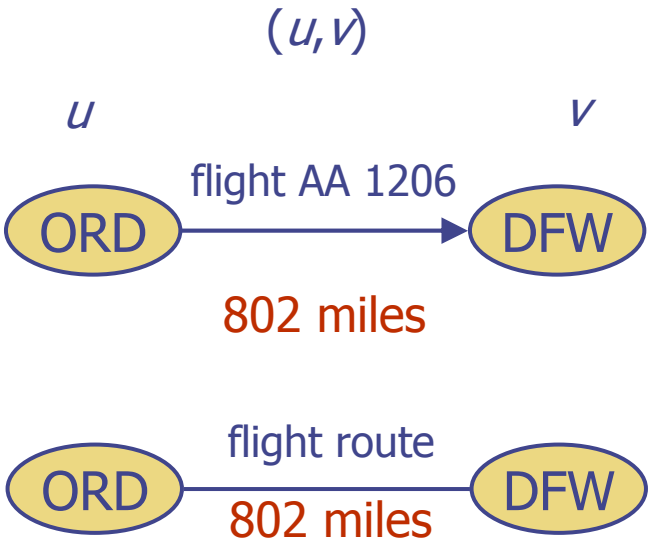
Graph

- A graph is a pair (V, E), where
  - V is a set of nodes, called vertices
  - E is a collection of pairs of vertices, called edges
  - Vertices and edges are positions and store elements
- Example:
  - A vertex represents an airport and stores the three-letter airport code
  - An edge represents a flight route between two airports and stores the mileage of the route



Edge Types

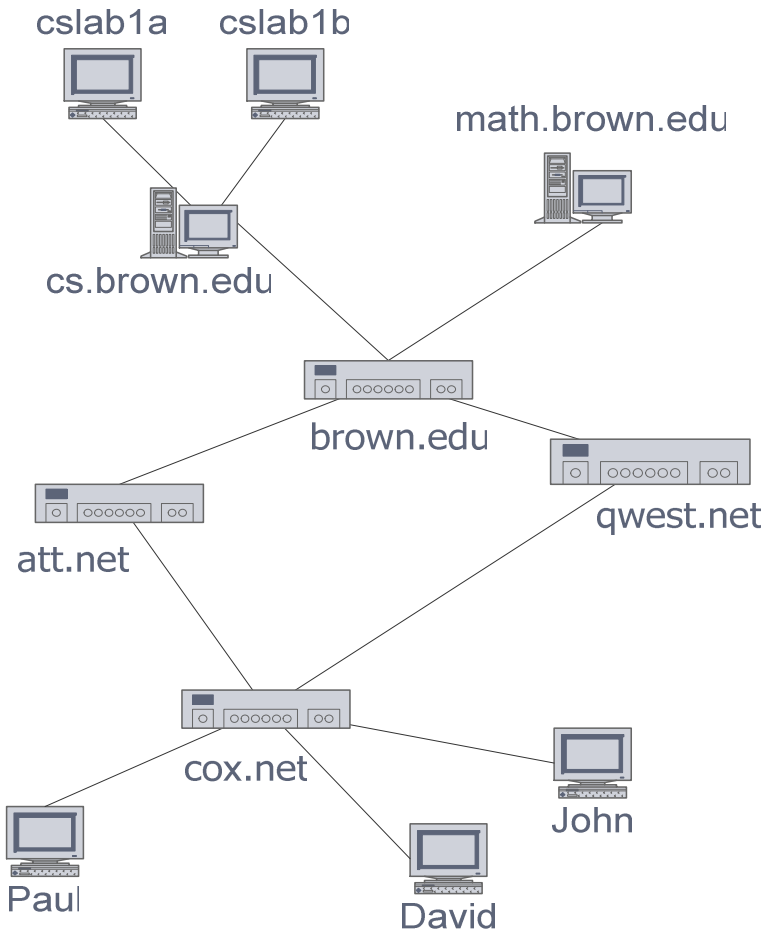
- Directed edge
  - ordered pair of vertices (u,v)
  - first vertex u is the **origin**
  - second vertex v is the **destination**
    - e.g., a flight
- Undirected edge
  - unordered pair of vertices (u,v)
    - e.g., a flight route
- Directed graph (Digraph)
  - all the edges are directed
    - e.g., flight network
- Undirected graph
  - all the edges are undirected
    - e.g., route network



- Weighted edge
- Weighted graph
  - all the edges are weighted

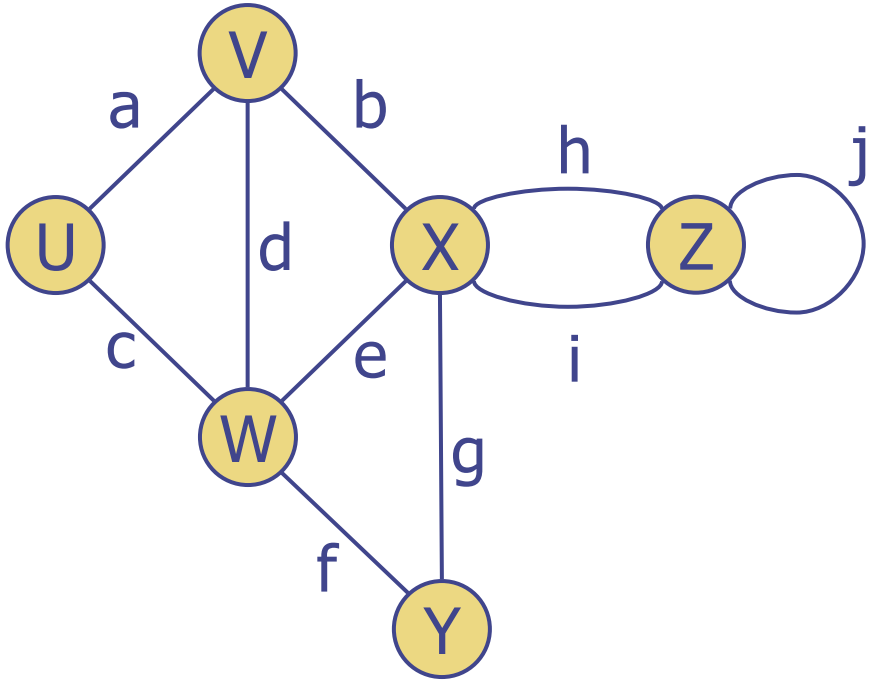
Applications

- Electronic circuits
  - Printed circuit board
  - Integrated circuit
- Transportation networks
  - Highway network
  - Flight network
- Computer networks
  - Local area network
  - Internet
  - Web
- Databases
  - Entity-relationship diagram

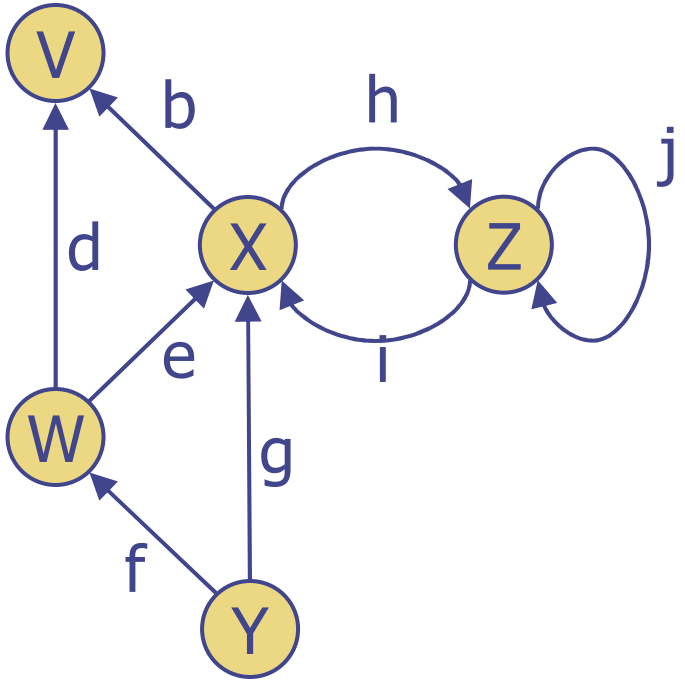


Terminology

- End vertices (or endpoints) of an edge
  - U and V are the *endpoints* of a
- Edges incident on a vertex
  - a, d, and b are *incident* on V
- Adjacent vertices
  - U and V are *adjacent*
- Degree of a vertex
  - X has *degree* 5
- Parallel edges
  - h and i are *parallel edges*
- Self-loop
  - j is a *self-loop*



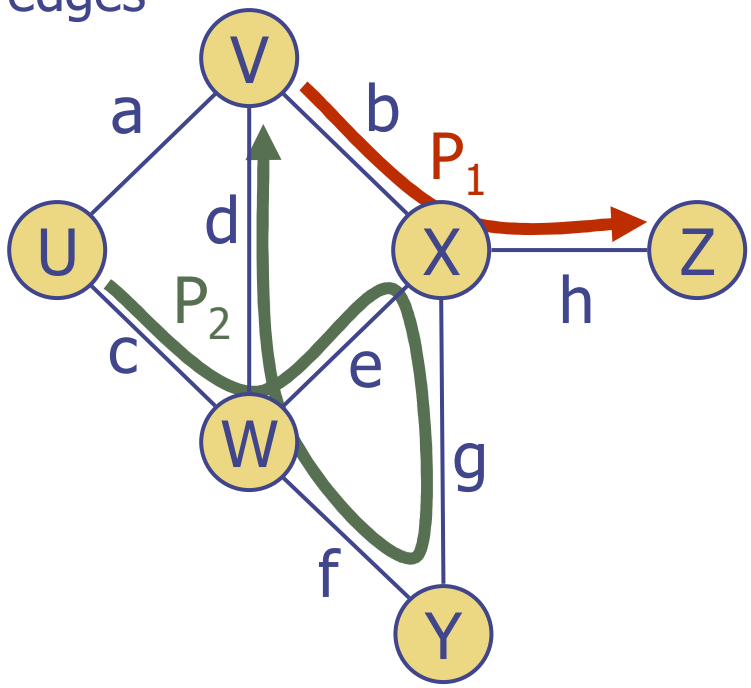
Terminology (cont.)



- Outgoing edges of a vertex
  - h and b are the *outgoing edges* of X
- Incoming edges of a vertex
  - e, g, and i are *incoming edges* of X
- In-degree of a vertex
  - X has *in-degree* 3
- Out-degree of a vertex
  - X has *out-degree* 2

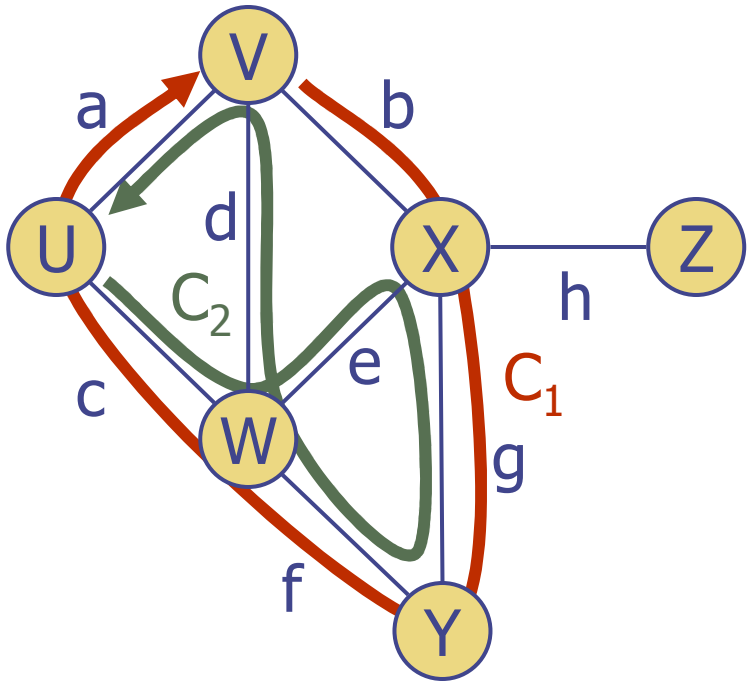
Terminology (cont.)

- Path
  - sequence of alternating vertices and edges
  - begins with a vertex
  - ends with a vertex
  - each edge is preceded and followed by its endpoints
- Simple path
  - path such that all its vertices and edges are distinct
- Examples
  - P_1=(V,b,X,h,Z) is a simple path
  - P_2=(U,c,W,e,X,g,Y,f,W,d,V) is a path that is not simple



Terminology (cont.)

- Cycle
  - circular sequence of alternating vertices and edges
  - each edge is preceded and followed by its endpoints
- Simple cycle
  - cycle such that all its vertices and edges are distinct
- Examples
  - C_1=(V,b,X,g,Y,f,W,c,U,a,↵) is a simple cycle
  - C_2=(U,c,W,e,X,g,Y,f,W,d,V,a,↵) is a cycle that is not simple



Properties of Undirected Graphs

Property 1 – Total degree

$\sum_v \deg(v) = 2m$

Proof: each edge is counted twice

Property 2 – Total number of edges

In an undirected graph with no self-loops and no multiple edges

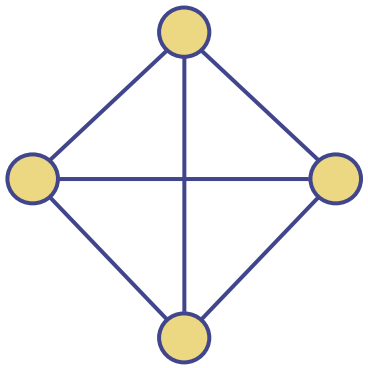
$m \leq n\,(n-1)/2$

Proof: each vertex has degree at most $(n-1)$

Notation

n	number of vertices
m	number of edges
$\deg(v)$	degree of vertex v

Example



- $n = 4$
- $m = 6$
- $\deg(v) = 3$

A graph with given number of vertices (4) and maximum number of edges

Properties of Directed Graphs

Property 1 – Total in-degree and out-degree

$$\sum_v \text{in-deg}(v) = m$$

$$\sum_v \text{out-deg}(v) = m$$

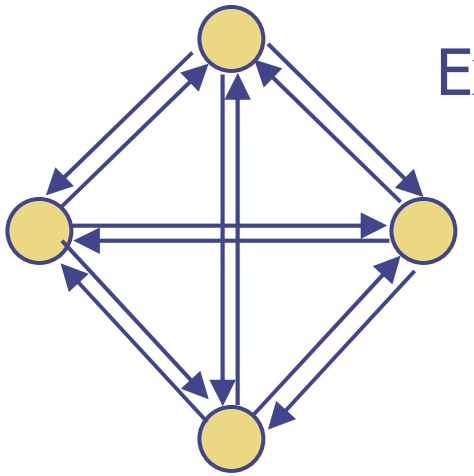
Property 2 – Total number of edges

In an directed graph with no self-loops and no multiple edges

$$m \leq n\,(n-1)$$

Notation

n	number of vertices
m	number of edges
$\deg(v)$	degree of vertex v



Example

- $n = 4$
- $m = 12$
- $\deg(v) = 6$

A graph with given number of vertices (4) and maximum number of edges

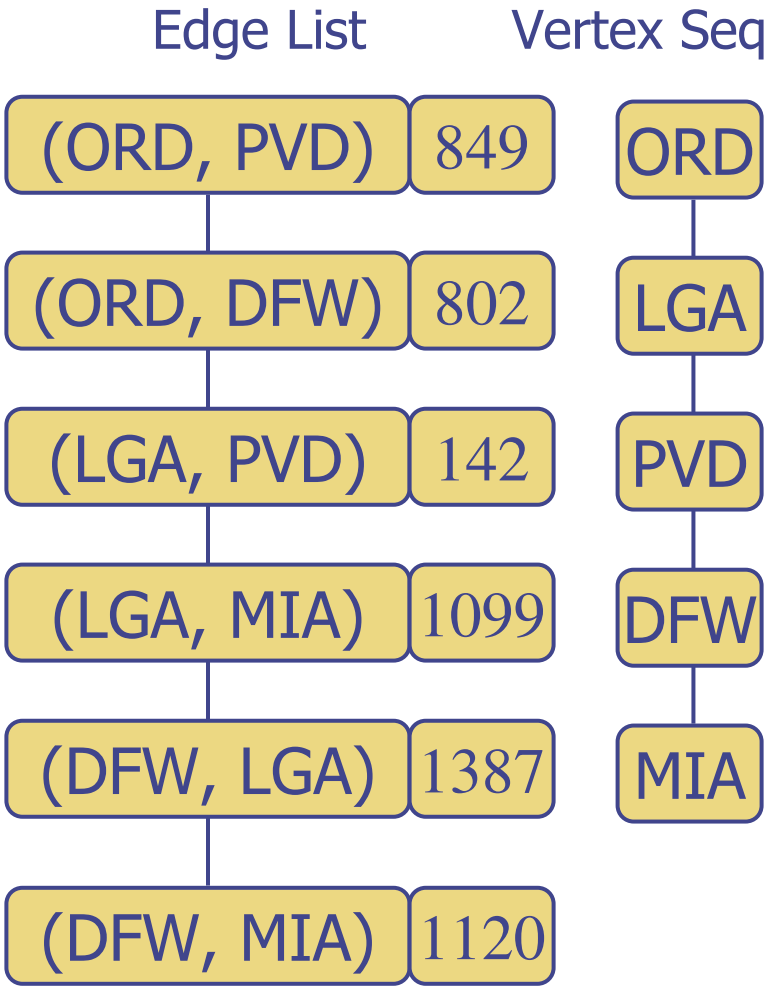
Main Methods of the Graph ADT

- Vertices and edges
  - are positions
  - store elements
- Accessor methods
  - endVertices(e): an array of the two end vertices of e
  - opposite(v, e): the vertex opposite of v on e
  - areAdjacent(v, w): true iff v and w are adjacent
  - replace(v, x): replace element at vertex v with x
  - replace(e, x): replace element at edge e with x
- Update methods
  - insertVertex(o): insert a vertex storing element o
  - insertEdge(v, w, o): insert an edge (v,w) storing element o
  - removeVertex(v): remove vertex v (and its incident edges)
  - removeEdge(e): remove edge e
- Iterator methods
  - incidentEdges(v): edges incident to v
  - vertices(): all vertices in the graph
  - edges(): all edges in the graph

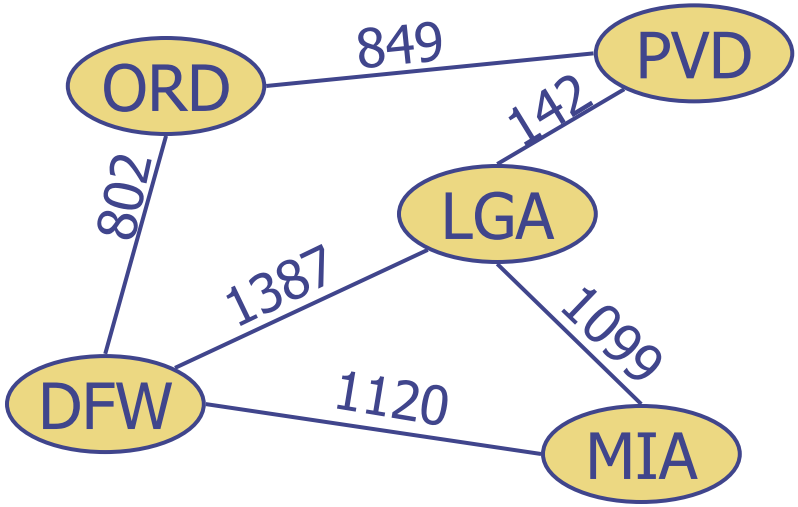
Data Structures for Graphs

- Edge list structures
- Adjacency list structures
- Adjacency matrix structures

Edge List Structure

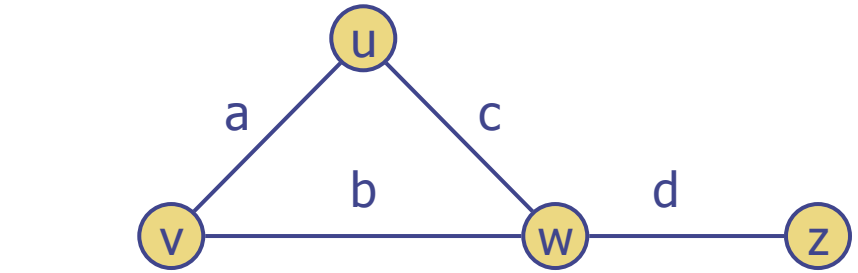


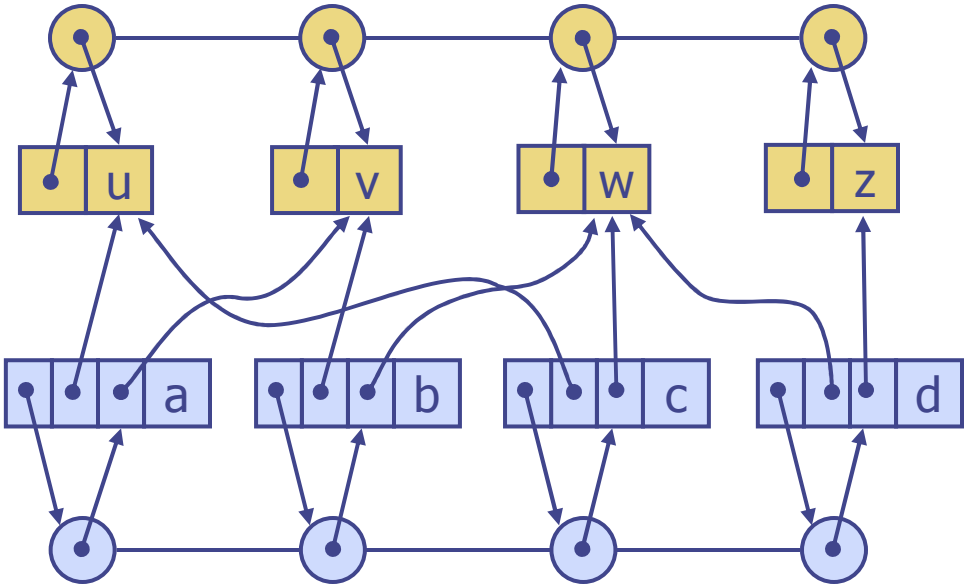
- An edge list can be stored in a sequence, a vector, a list or a dictionary such as a hash table



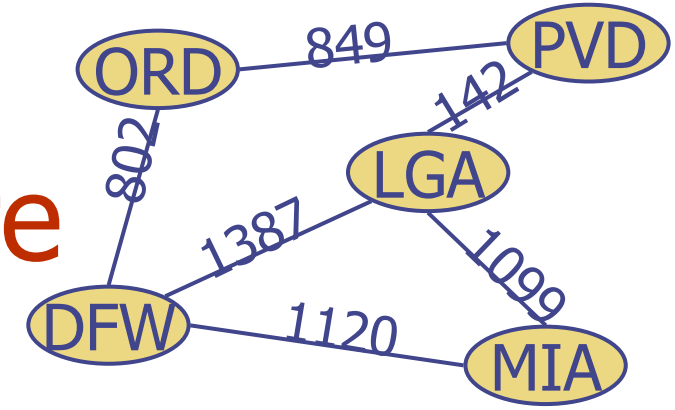
Edge List Structure

- Vertex object
  - element
  - reference to position in vertex sequence
- Edge object
  - element
  - origin vertex object
  - destination vertex object
  - reference to position in edge sequence
- Vertex sequence
  - sequence of vertex objects
- Edge sequence
  - sequence of edge objects





Adjacency List Structure



Edge List

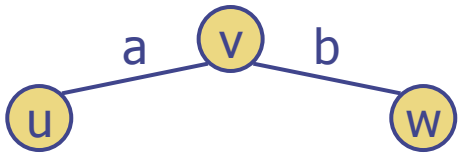
849	(ORD, PVD)
802	(ORD, DFW)
142	(LGA, PVD)
1099	(LGA, MIA)
1387	(DFW, LGA)
1120	(DFW, MIA)

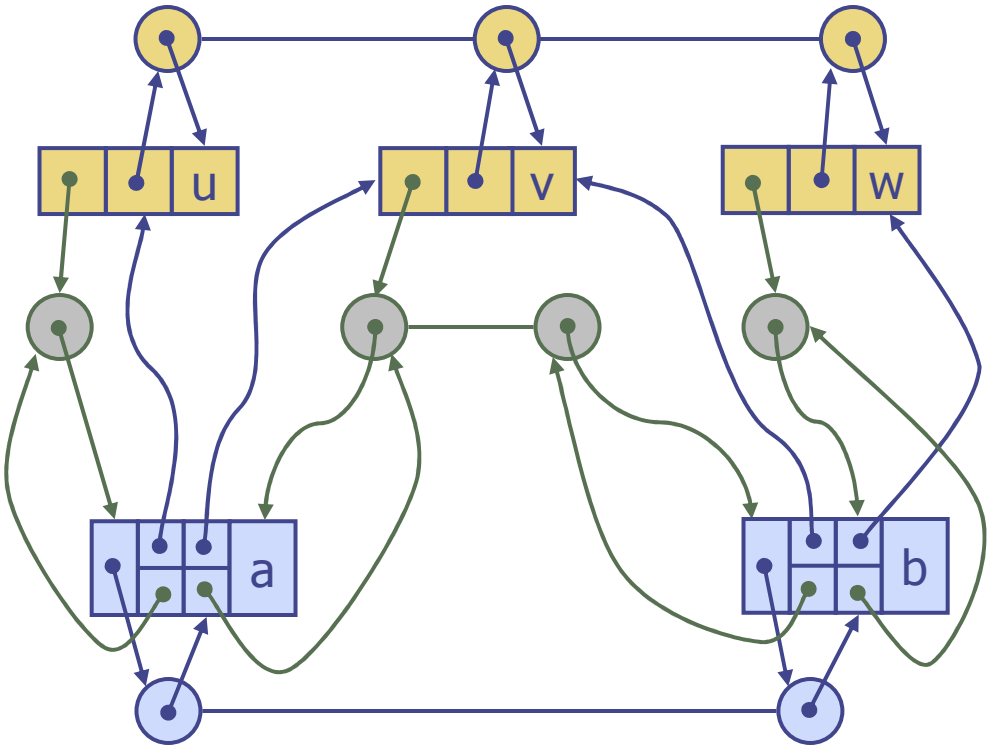
Adjacency List

ORD	(ORD, PVD)	(ORD, DFW)	
LGA	(LGA, PVD)	(LGA, MIA)	(LGA, DFW)
PVD	(PVD, ORD)	(PVD, LGA)	
DFW	(DFW, ORD)	(DFW, LGA)	(DFW, MIA)
MIA	(MIA, LGA)	(MIA, DFW)	

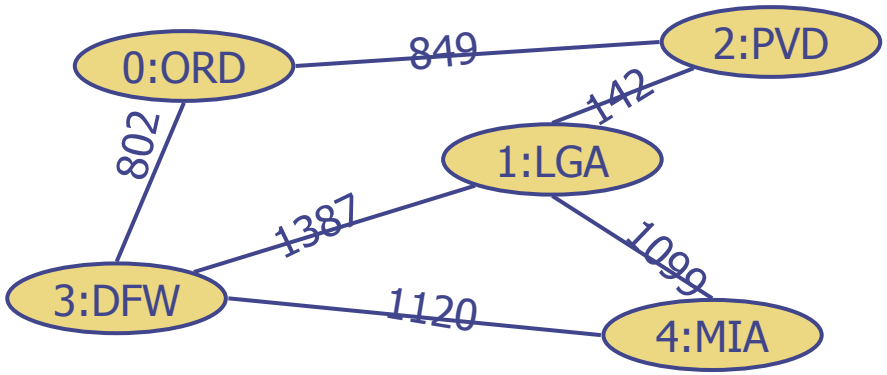
Adjacency List Structure

- Edge list structure
- Incidence sequence for each vertex
  - sequence of references to edge objects of incident edges
- Augmented edge objects
  - references to associated positions in incidence sequences of end vertices





Adjacency Matrix Structure



Edge List

849	(ORD, PVD)
802	(ORD, DFW)
142	(LGA, PVD)
1099	(LGA, MIA)
1387	(DFW, LGA)
1120	(DFW, MIA)

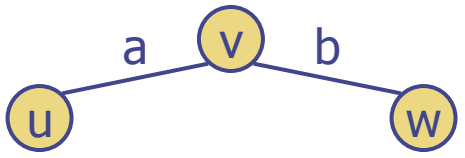
Vertex Sequence

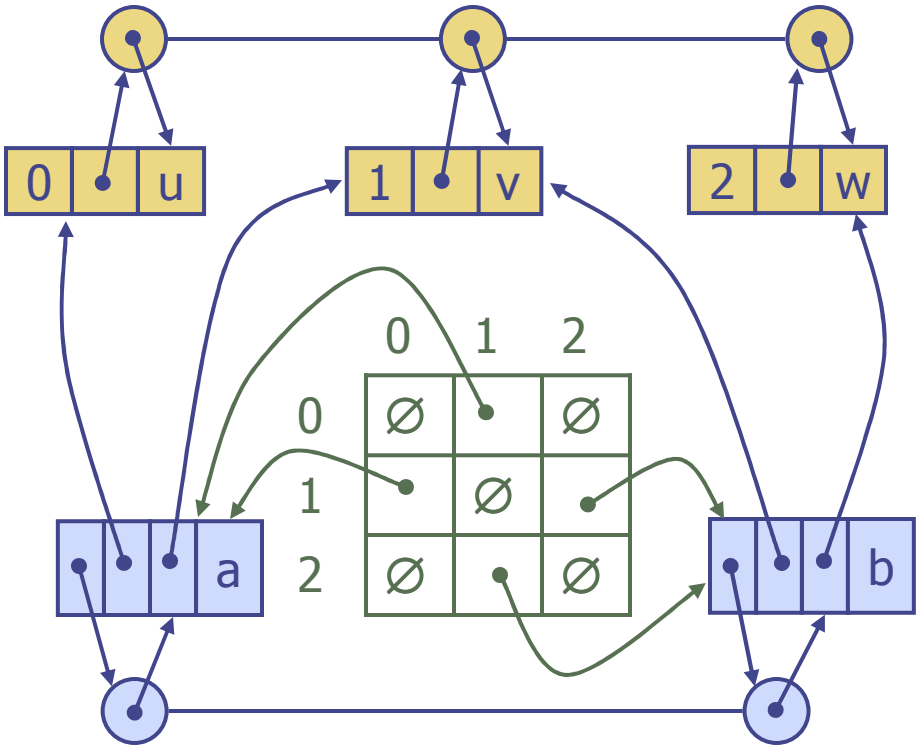
0	ORD
1	LGA
2	PVD
3	DFW
4	MIA

	0	1	2	3	4
0	**0**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**0**
1	**0**	**0**	**1**	**1**	**1**
2	**1**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**0**
3	**1**	**1**	**0**	**0**	**1**
4	**0**	**1**	**0**	**1**	**0**

Adjacency Matrix Structure

- Edge list structure
- Augmented vertex objects
  - Integer key (index) associated with vertex
- 2D-array adjacency array
  - Reference to edge object for adjacent vertices
  - Null for non nonadjacent vertices
- The "old fashioned" version just has 0 for no edge and 1 for edge





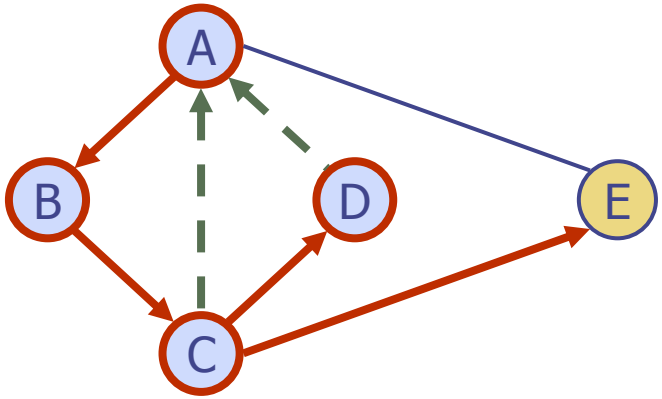
Asymptotic Performance

• n vertices, m edges • no parallel edges • no self-loops • Bounds are "big-Oh"	Edge List	Adjacency List	Adjacency Matrix
Space	$n + m$	$n + m$	n^2
incidentEdges(v) adjacentVertices(v)	m	$\deg(v)$	n
areAdjacent (v, w)	m	$\min(\deg(v), \deg(w))$	1
insertVertex(o)	1	1	n^2
insertEdge(v, w, o)	1	1	1
removeVertex(v)	m	$\deg(v)$	n^2
removeEdge(e)	1	1	1

Graph Traversal

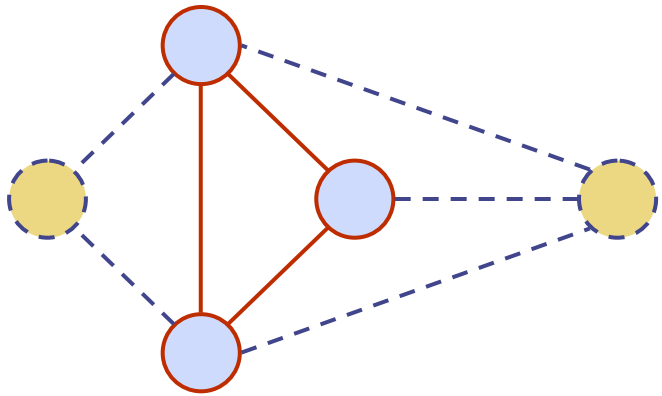
- Depth-First Search
- Bread-First Search
- Others…

Depth-First Search

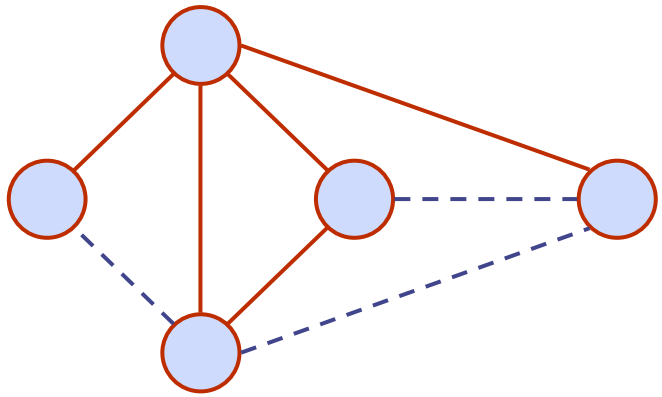


Subgraphs

- 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



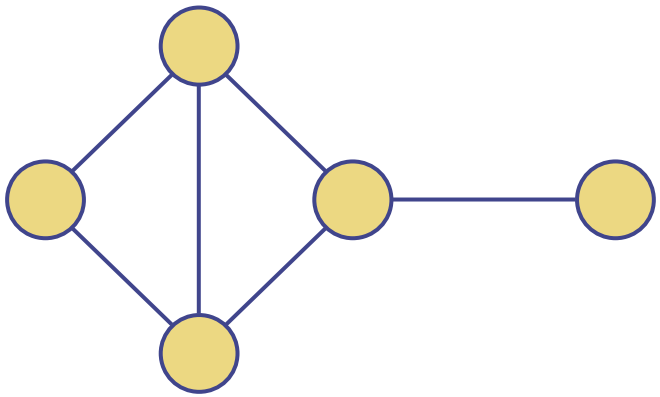
Subgraph



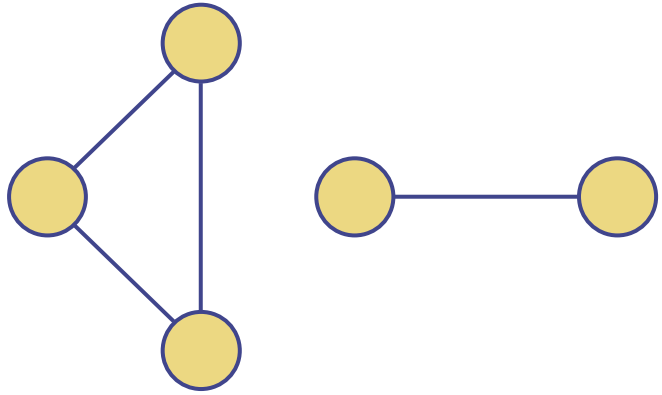
Spanning subgraph

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

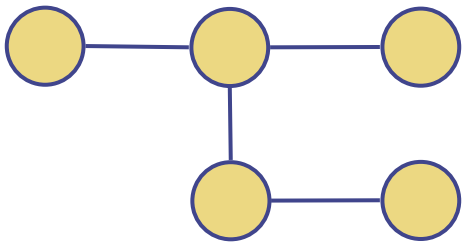


Non-connected graph with two connected components

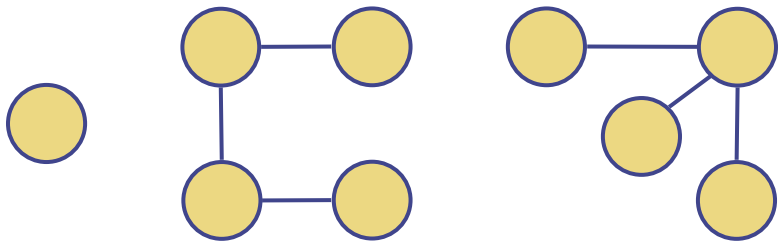
Trees and Forests

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

  This definition is different from that of a rooted tree
- A forest is an undirected graph without cycles
- The connected components of a forest are trees



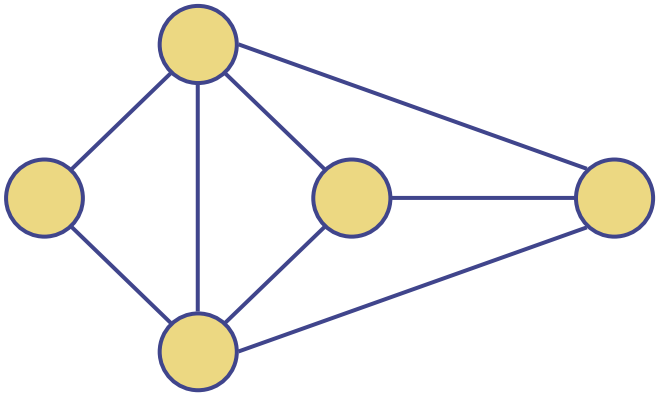
Tree



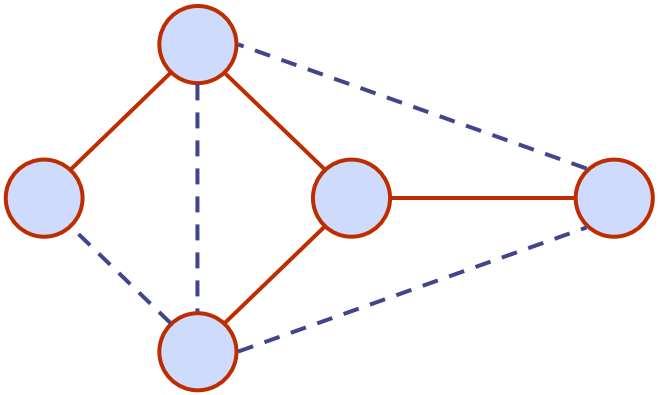
Forest

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 to the design of communication networks
- A spanning forest of a graph is a spanning subgraph that is a forest



Graph

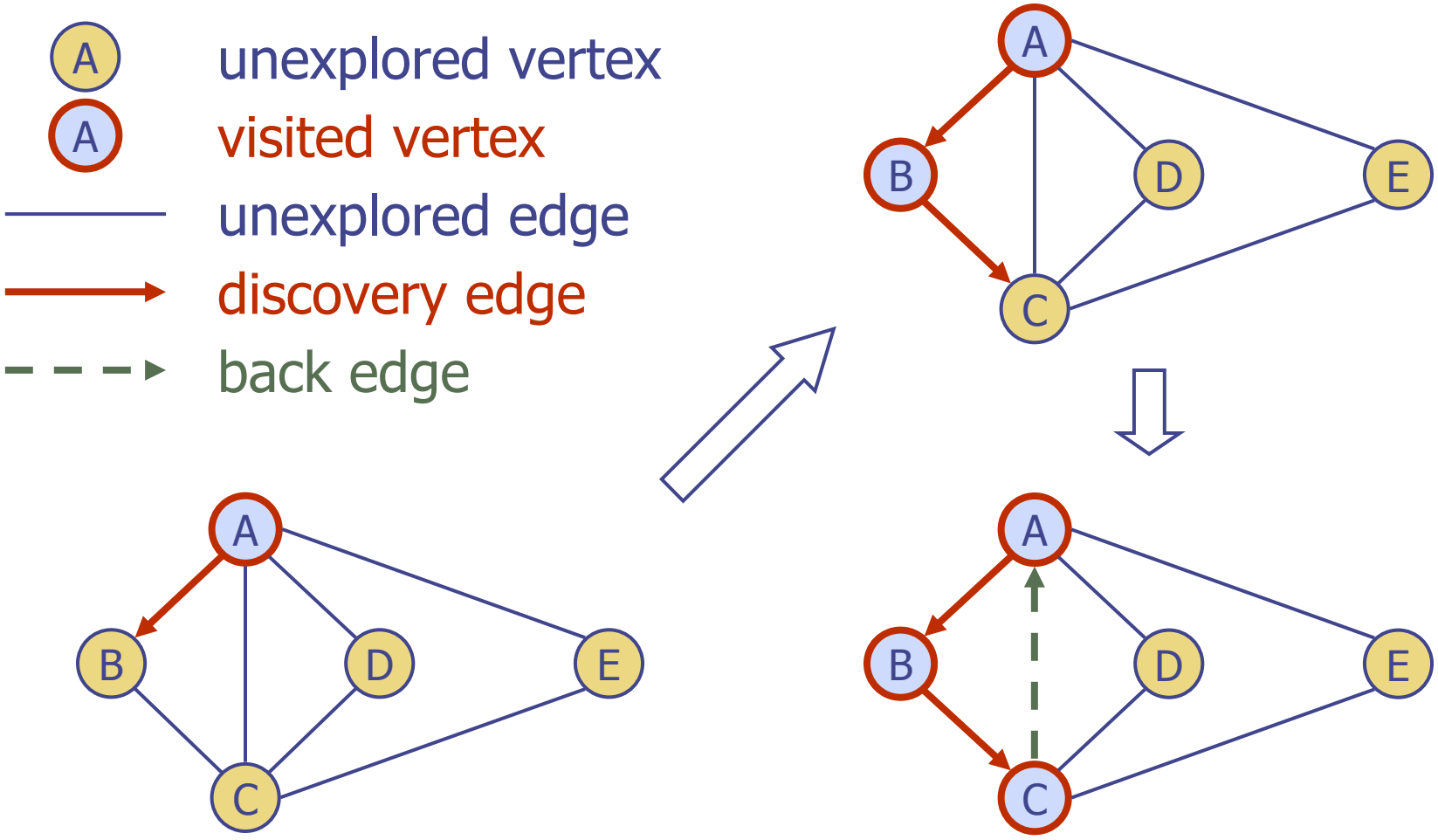


Spanning tree

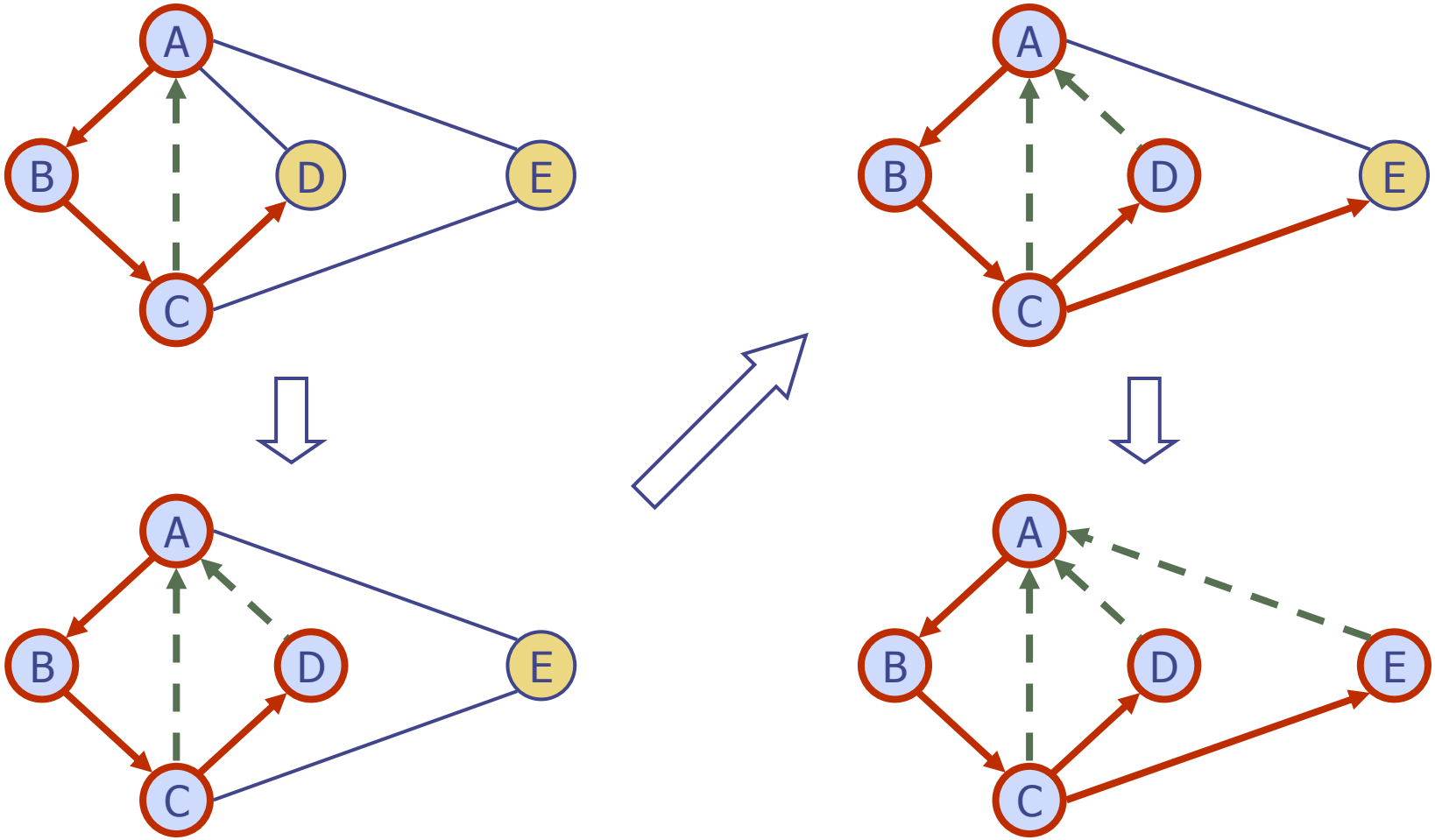
Depth-First Search

- 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

Example

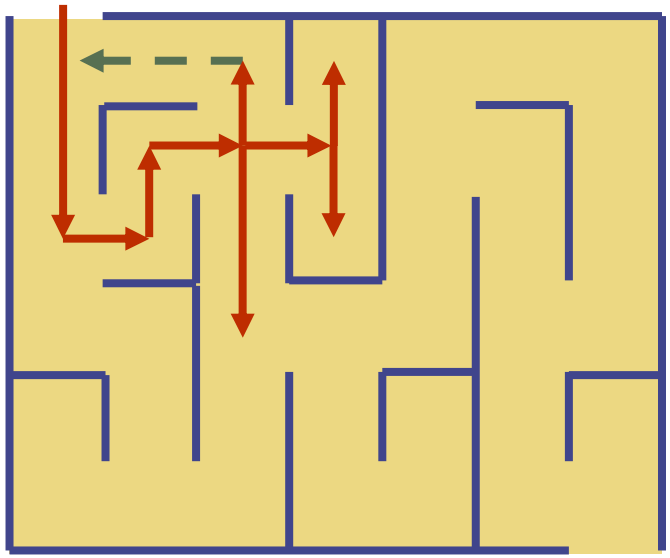

A
unexplored vertex
A
visited vertex
unexplored edge
discovery edge
back edge
A
B
D
E
C
A
B
D
E
C
A
B
D
E
C

Example (cont.)



DFS and Maze Traversal

- The DFS algorithm is similar to 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) by means of a rope (recursion stack)

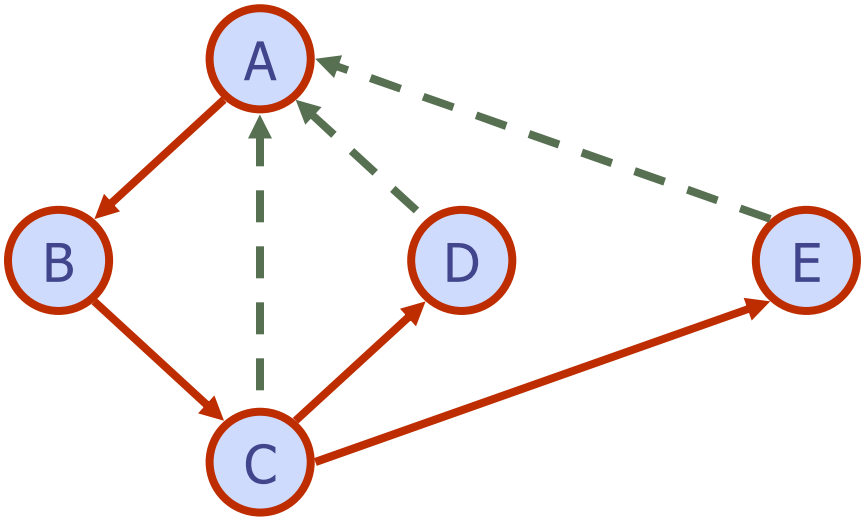
DFS Algorithm

- 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 ∈ G.vertices()
    setLabel(u, UNEXPLORED)
  for all e ∈ G.edges()
    setLabel(e, UNEXPLORED)
  for all v ∈ 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 ∈ G.incidentEdges(v)
    if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
      w ← opposite(v,e)
      if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
        setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
        DFS(G, w)
      else
        setLabel(e, BACK)
```

Properties of DFS



Property 1

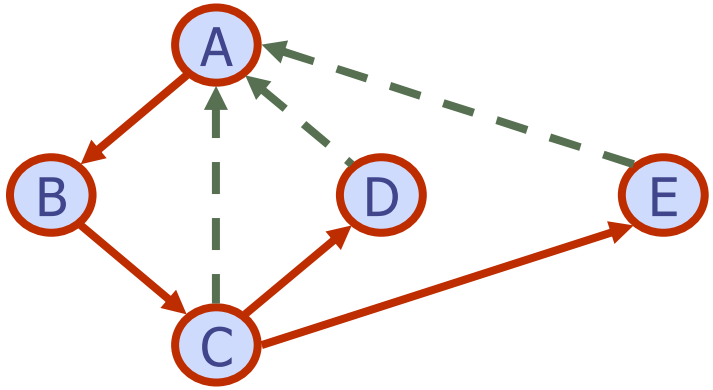
$DFS(G, v)$ visits all the vertices and edges in the connected component of v

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 $\sum_v \deg(v) = 2m$

Path Finding

- We can specialize the DFS algorithm to find a path between two given vertices u and z
- We call $DFS(G, u)$ with u 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

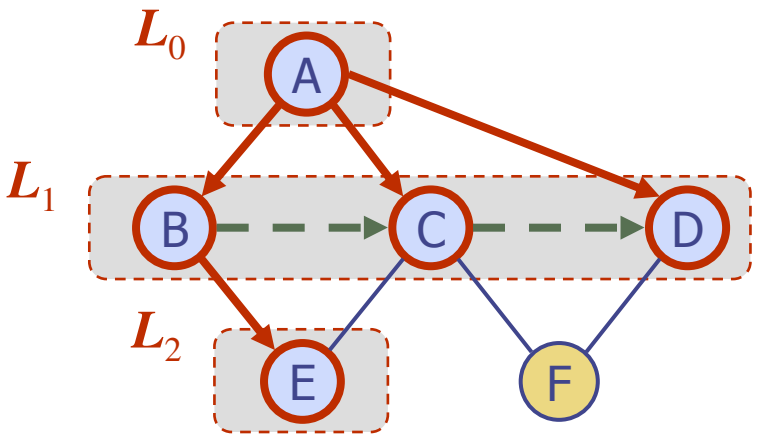
```
Algorithm pathDFS(G, v, z)
  setLabel(v, VISITED)
  S.push(v)
  if v = z
    return S.elements()
  for all e ∈ G.incidentEdges(v)
    if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
      w ← opposite(v,e)
      if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
        setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
        S.push(e)
        pathDFS(G, w, z)
  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

Cycle Finding

- We can specialize the DFS algorithm to find a simple cycle
- 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)
    setLabel(v, VISITED)
    S.push(v)
    for all e ∈ G.incidentEdges(v)
        if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
            w ← opposite(v,e)
            S.push(e)
            if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
                setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
                cycleDFS(G, w)
                S.pop(e)
            else
                T ← new empty stack
                repeat
                    o ← S.pop()
                    T.push(o)
                until o = w
                return T.elements()
    S.pop(v)
```

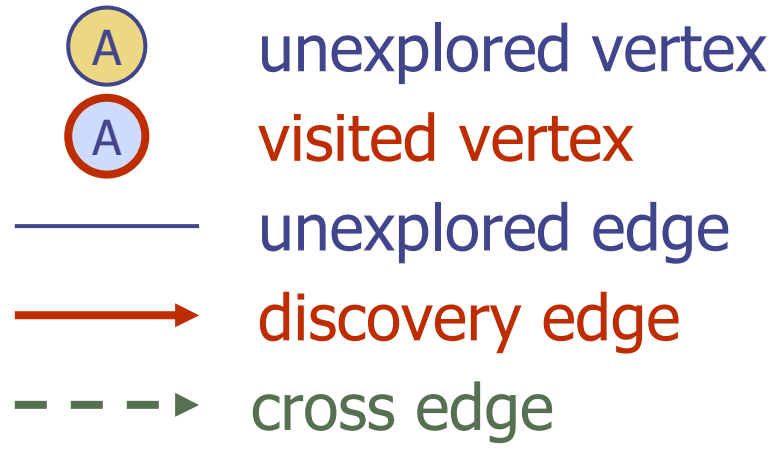
Breadth-First Search

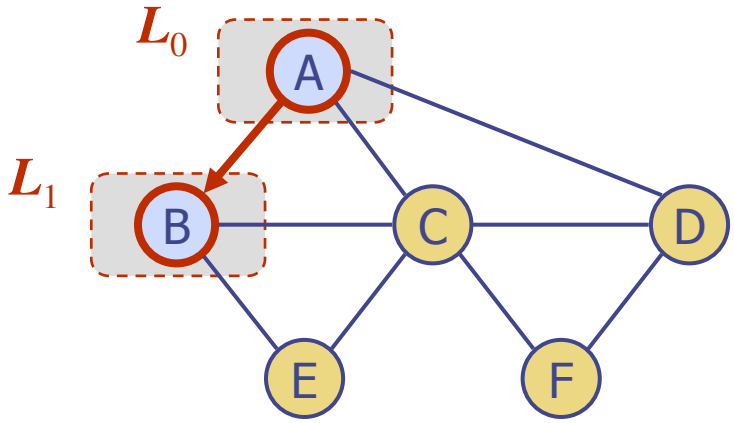


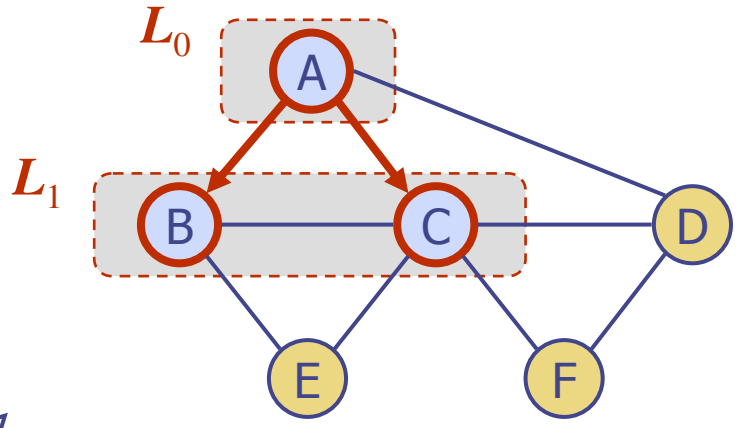
Breadth-First Search

- Breadth-first search (BFS) is a general technique for traversing a graph
- A BFS 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
- BFS on a graph with n vertices and m edges takes $O(n + m)$ time
- BFS can be further extended to solve other graph problems
  - Find and report a path with the minimum number of edges between two given vertices
  - Find a simple cycle, if there is one

Example


A
unexplored vertex
A
visited vertex
unexplored edge
discovery edge
cross edge


L_0
A
L_1
B
C
D
E
F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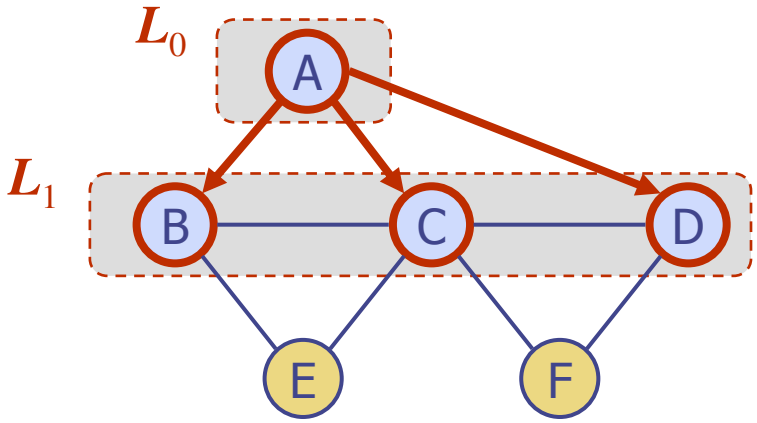
L_0
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L_1
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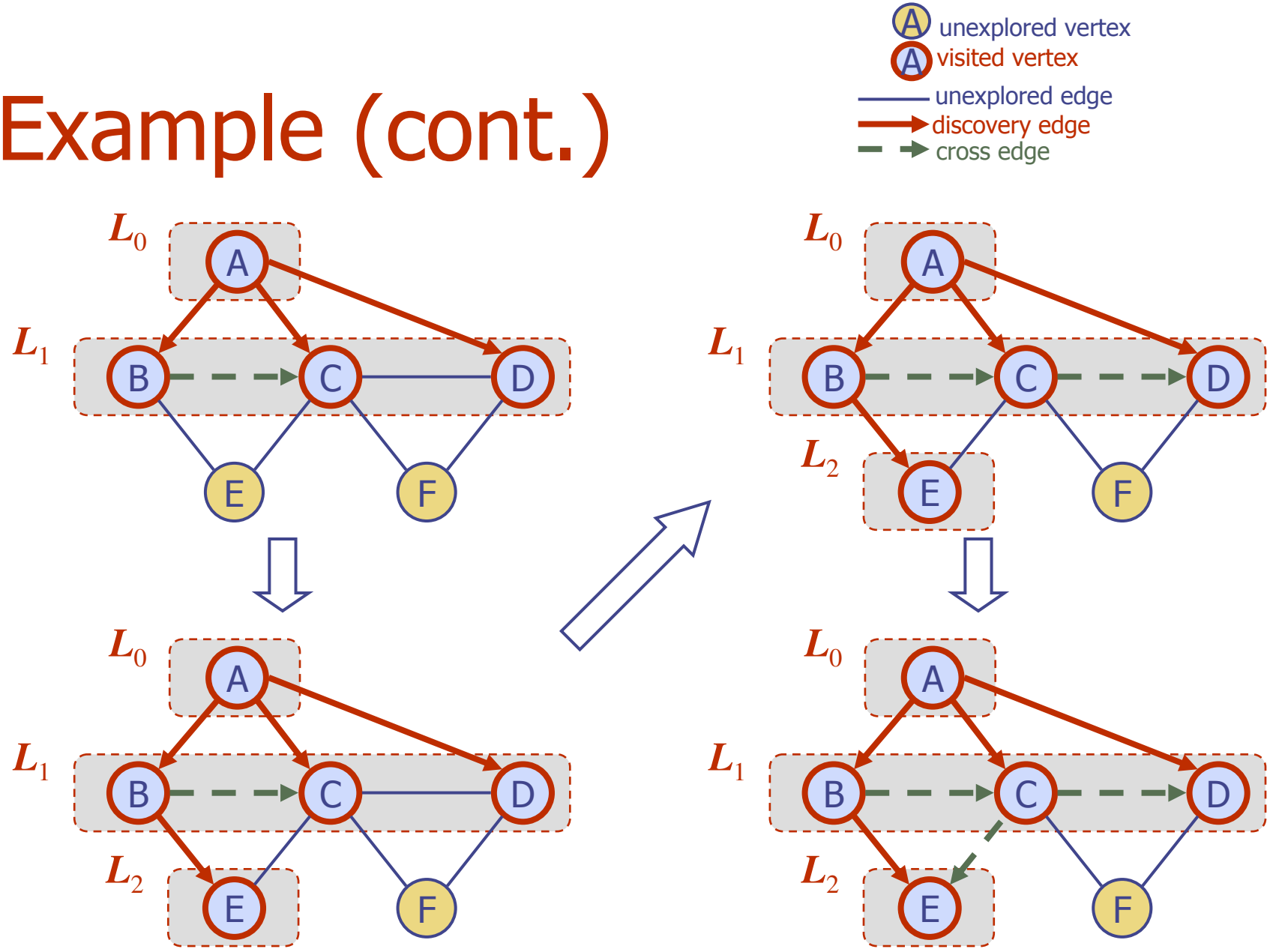
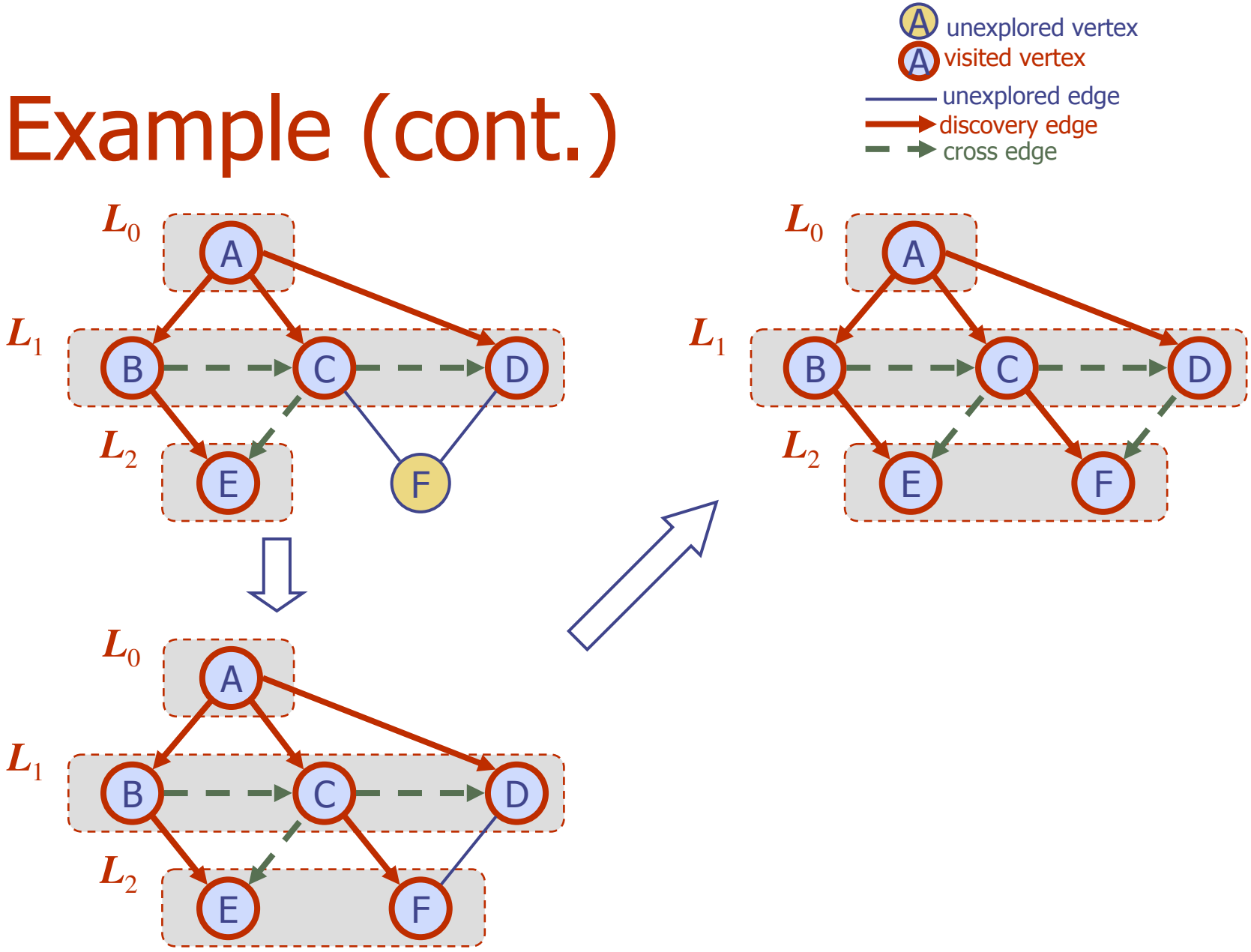
Example (cont.)



Example (cont.)



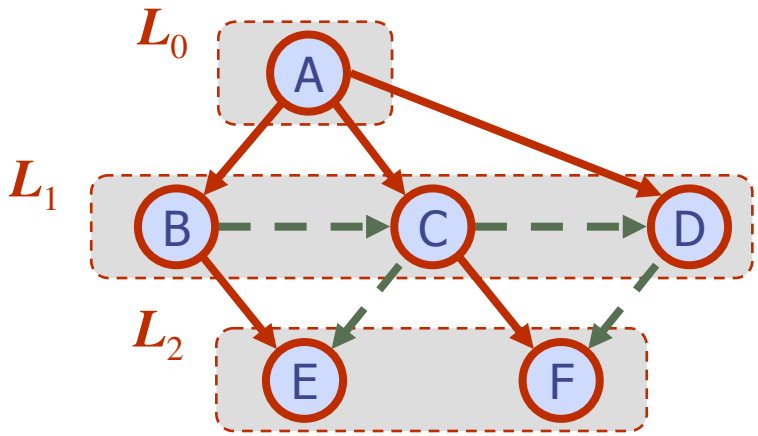
BFS Algorithm

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

```
Algorithm BFS(G)
    Input graph G
    Output labeling of the edges
           and partition of the
           vertices  of G
  for all u ∈ G.vertices()
    setLabel(u, UNEXPLORED)
  for all e ∈ G.edges()
    setLabel(e, UNEXPLORED)
  for all v ∈ G.vertices()
    if getLabel(v) = UNEXPLORED
      BFS(G, v)
```

```
Algorithm BFS(G, s)
  L0 ← new empty sequence
  L0.insertLast(s)
  setLabel(s, VISITED)
  i ← 0
  while ¬Li.isEmpty()
    Li+1 ← new empty sequence
    for all v ∈ Li.elements()
      for all e ∈ G.incidentEdges(v)
        if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
          w ← opposite(v,e)
          if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
            setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
            setLabel(w, VISITED)
            Li+1.insertLast(w)
          else
            setLabel(e, CROSS)
    i ← i +1
```

Properties



Notation

G_s: connected component of s

Property 1

$BFS(G, s)$ visits all the vertices and edges of G_s

Property 2

The discovery edges labeled by $BFS(G, s)$ form a spanning tree T_s of G_s

Property 3

For each vertex v in L_i

- The path of T_s from s to v has i edges
- Every path from s to v in G_s has at least i edges

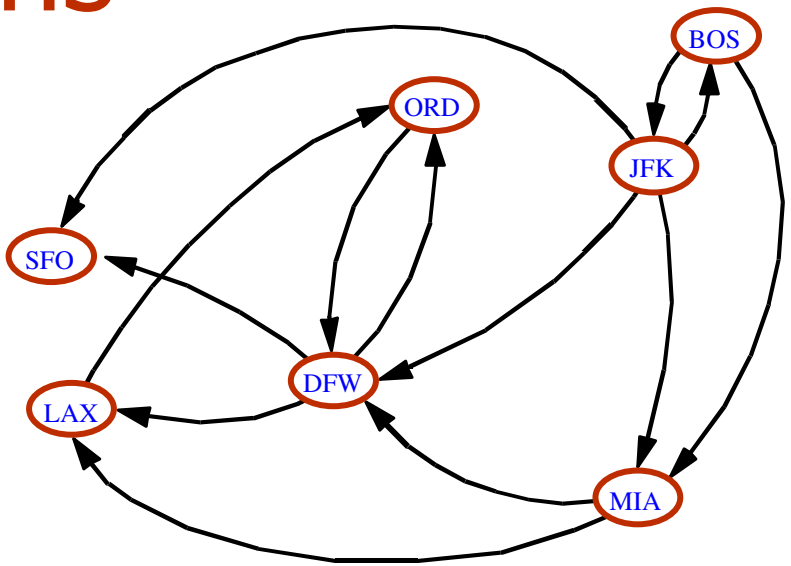
Analysis

- 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 CROSS
- Each vertex is inserted once into a sequence L_i
- Method incidentEdges() is called once for each vertex
- BFS runs in $O(n + m)$ time provided the graph is represented by the adjacency list structure
  - Recall that $\sum_v \deg(v) = 2m$

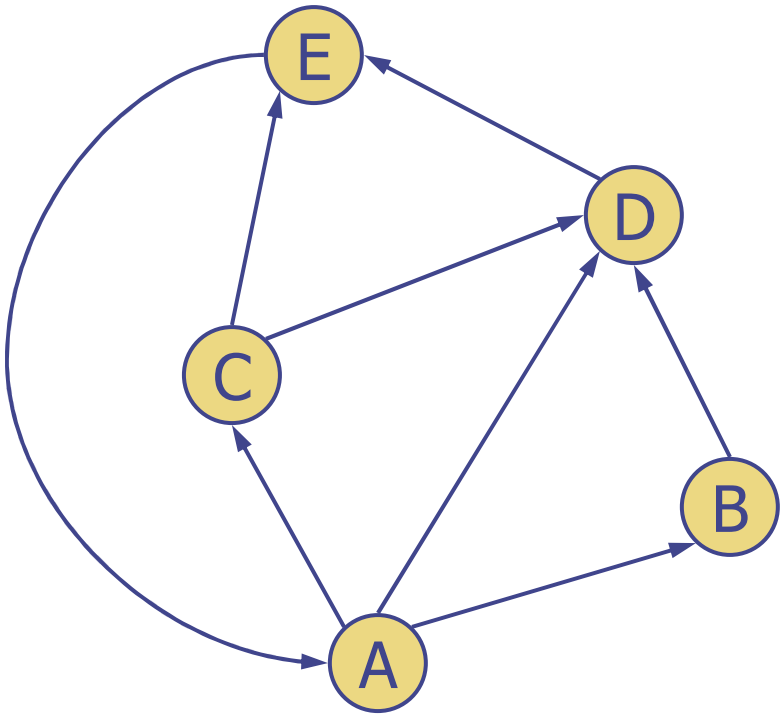
Applications

- Using the template method pattern, we can specialize the BFS traversal of a graph G to solve the following problems in $O(n + m)$ time
  - Compute the connected components of G
  - Compute a spanning forest of G
  - Find a simple cycle in G, or report that G is a forest
  - Given two vertices of G, find a path in G between them with the minimum number of edges, or report that no such path exists

Directed Graphs



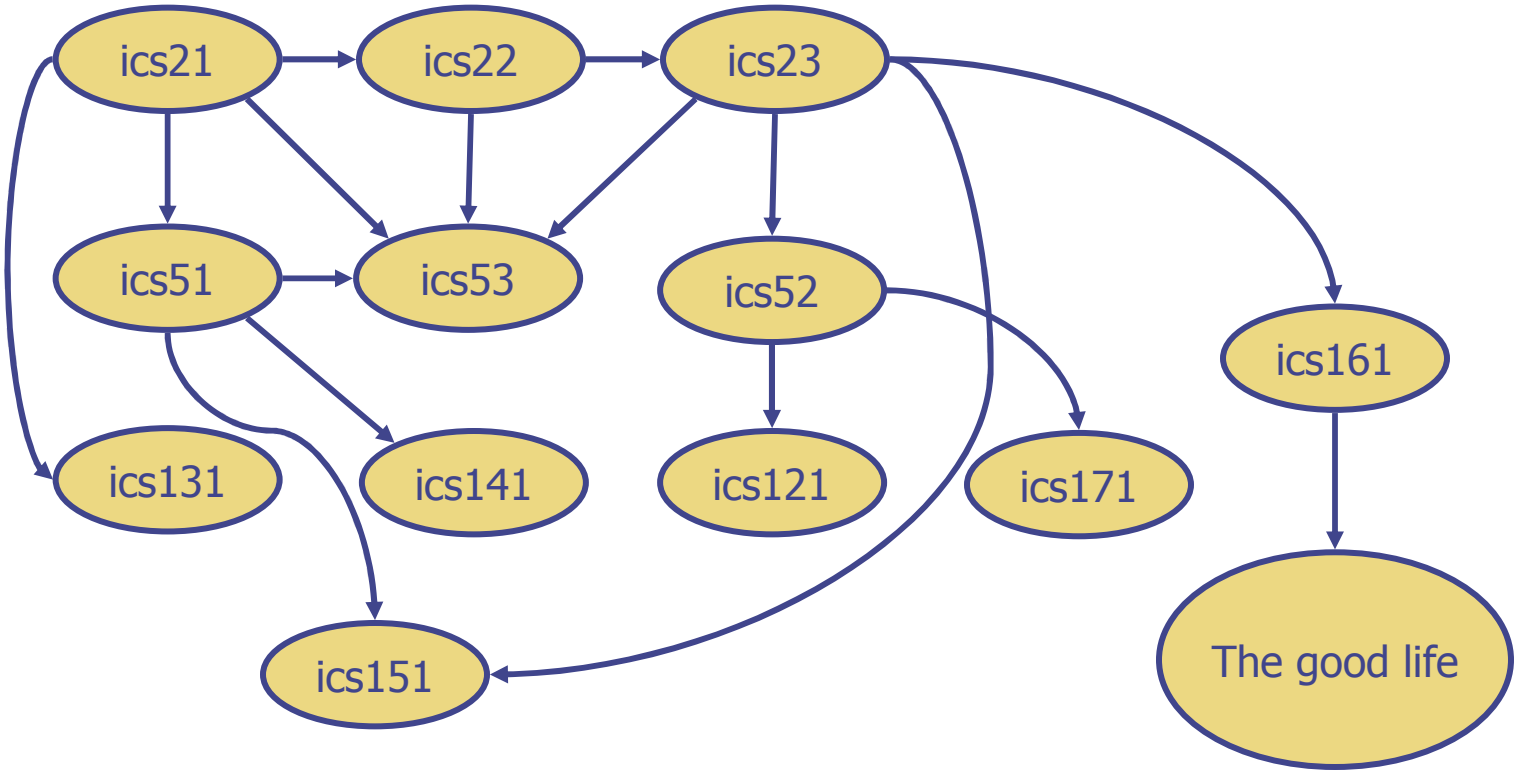
Digraphs



- A **digraph** is a graph whose edges are all directed
  - Short for "directed graph"
- Applications
  - one-way streets
  - flights
  - task scheduling
- A graph G=(V,E) such that
  - Each edge goes in one direction:
    - Edge (a,b) goes from a to b, but not b to a.
- If G is simple, $m \leq n*(n-1)$.

Digraph Application

- Scheduling: edge (a,b) means task a must be completed before b can be started



DAGs and Topological Ordering

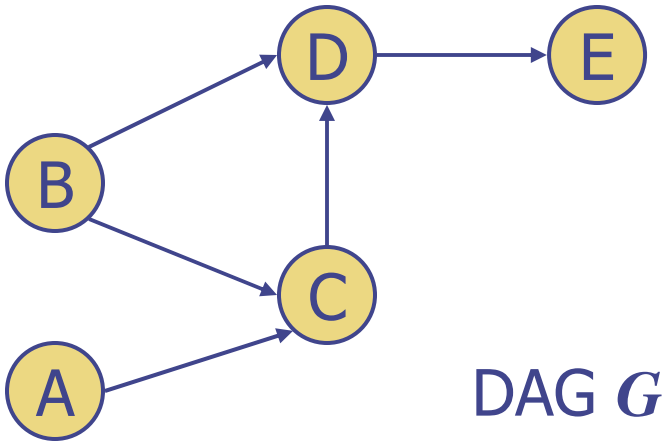
- A directed acyclic graph (DAG) is a digraph that has no directed cycles
- A topological ordering of a digraph is a numbering

  $v_1, \ldots, v_n$

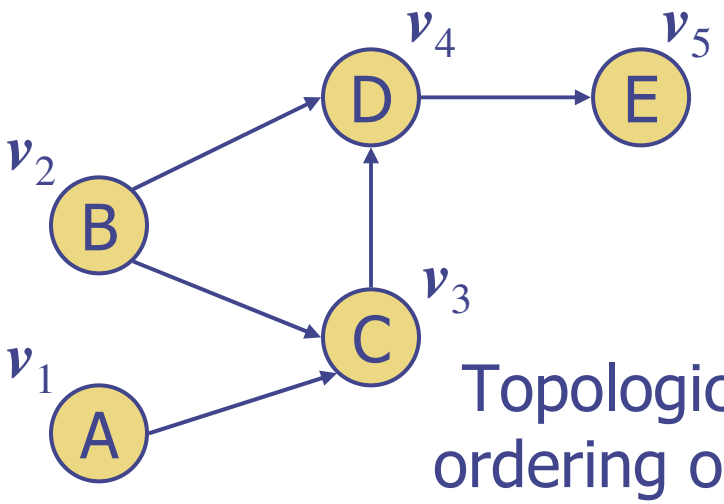
  of the vertices such that for every edge (v_i, v_j), we have $i < j$
- Example: in a task scheduling digraph, a topological ordering a task sequence that satisfies the precedence constraints

Theorem

A digraph admits a topological ordering if and only if it is a DAG

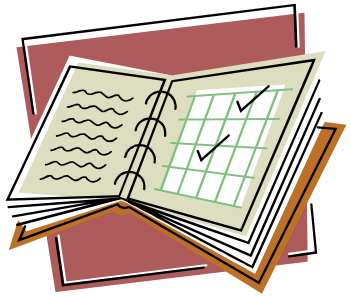


DAG G

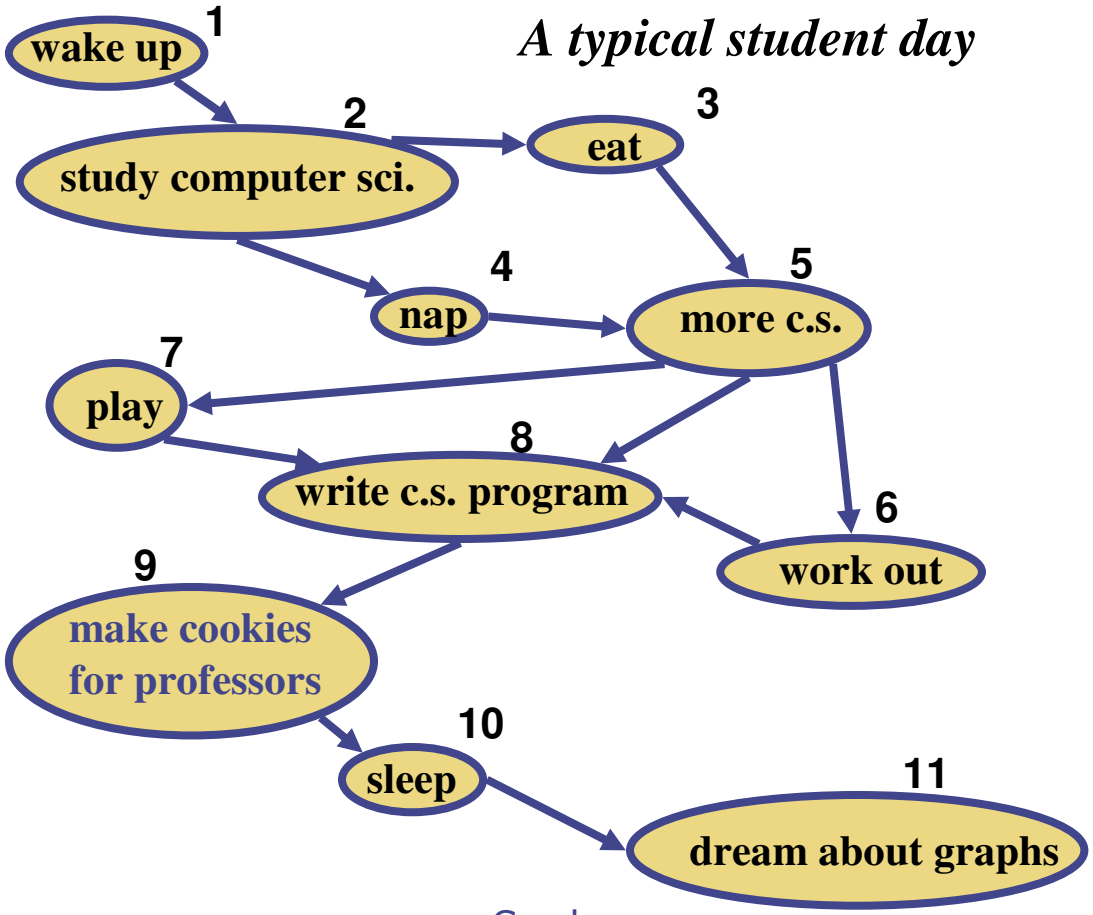


Topological ordering of G

Topological Sorting



- Number vertices, so that (u,v) in E implies u < v



Algorithm for Topological Sorting

```
Method TopologicalSort(G)
    H ← G          // Temporary copy of G
    n ← G.numVertices()
    while H is not empty do
        Let v be a vertex with no outgoing edges
        Label v ← n
        n ← n - 1
        Remove v from H
```

- Running time: O(n + m). How…?

Topological Sorting Algorithm using DFS

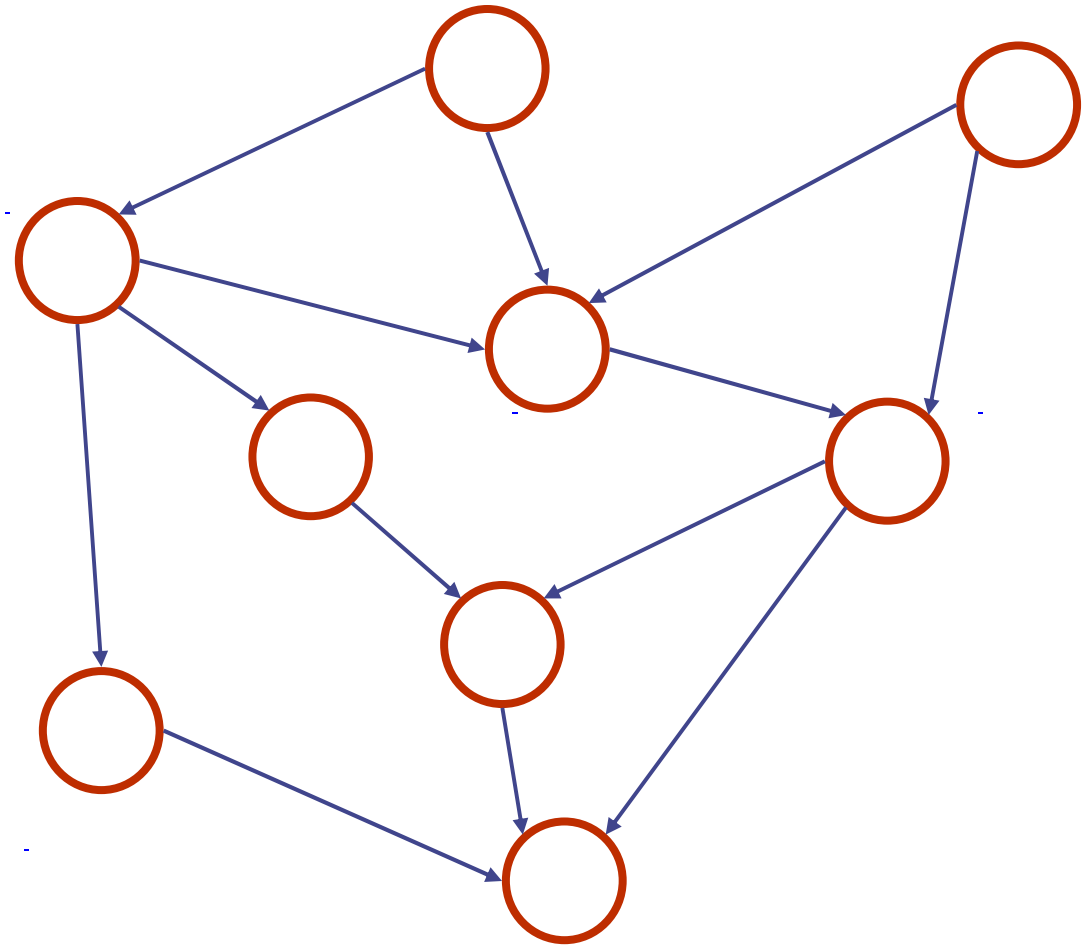
- Simulate the algorithm by using depth-first search

```
Algorithm topologicalDFS(G)
    Input dag G
    Output topological ordering of G
  n ← G.numVertices()
  for all u ∈ G.vertices()
      setLabel(u, UNEXPLORED)
  for all e ∈ G.edges()
      setLabel(e, UNEXPLORED)
  for all v ∈ G.vertices()
    if getLabel(v) = UNEXPLORED
        topologicalDFS(G, v)
```

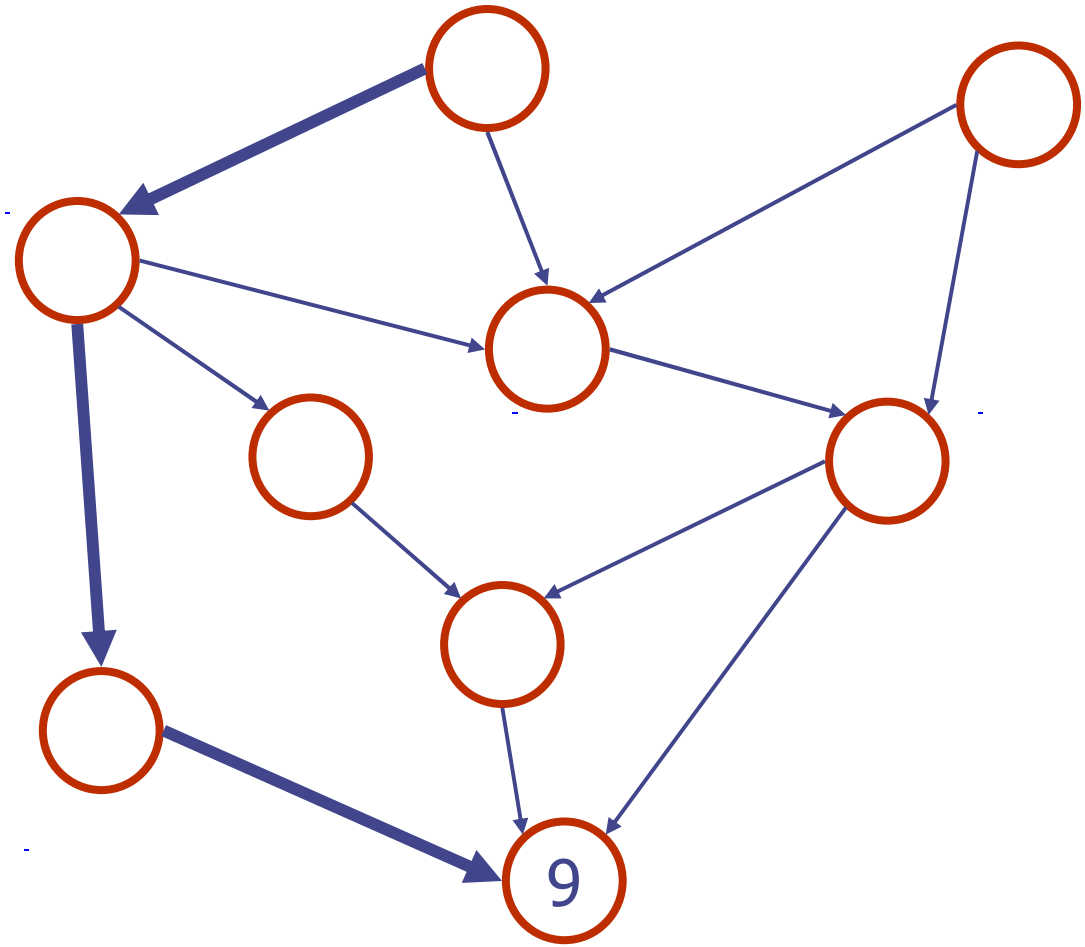
- O(n+m) time.

```
Algorithm topologicalDFS(G, v)
  Input graph G and a start vertex v of G
  Output labeling of the vertices of G
    in the connected component of v
  setLabel(v, VISITED)
  for all e ∈ G.incidentEdges(v)
    if getLabel(e) = UNEXPLORED
      w ← opposite(v,e)
      if getLabel(w) = UNEXPLORED
        setLabel(e, DISCOVERY)
        topologicalDFS(G, w)
      else
        {e is a forward or cross edge}
  Label v with topological number n
  n ← n - 1
```

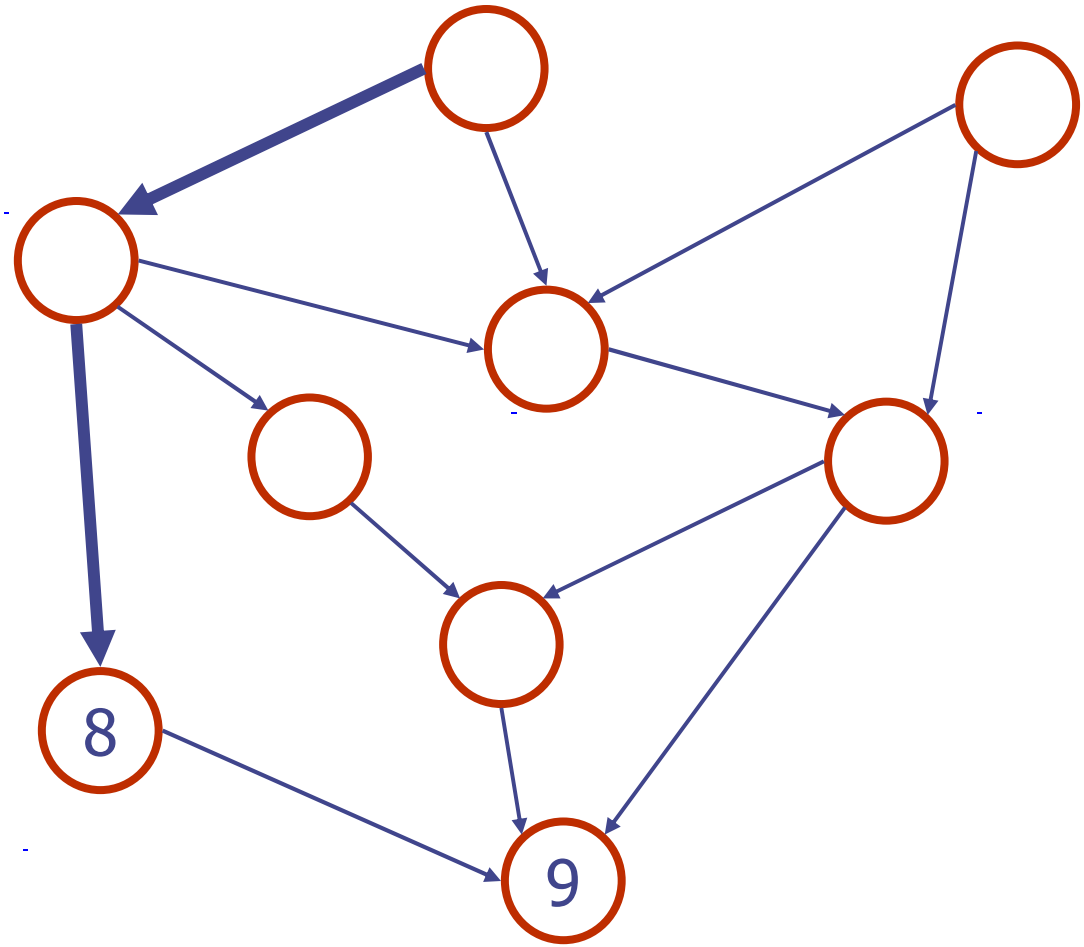
Topological Sorting Example



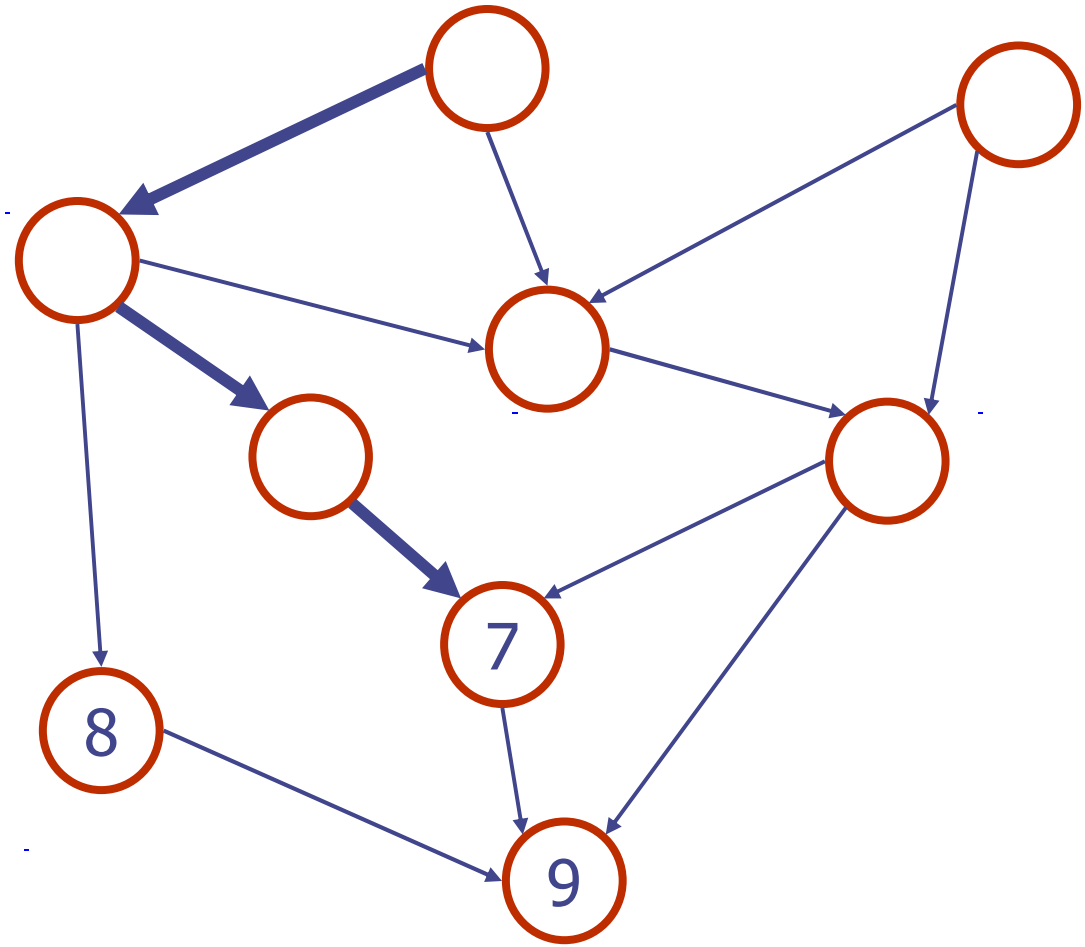
Topological Sorting Example



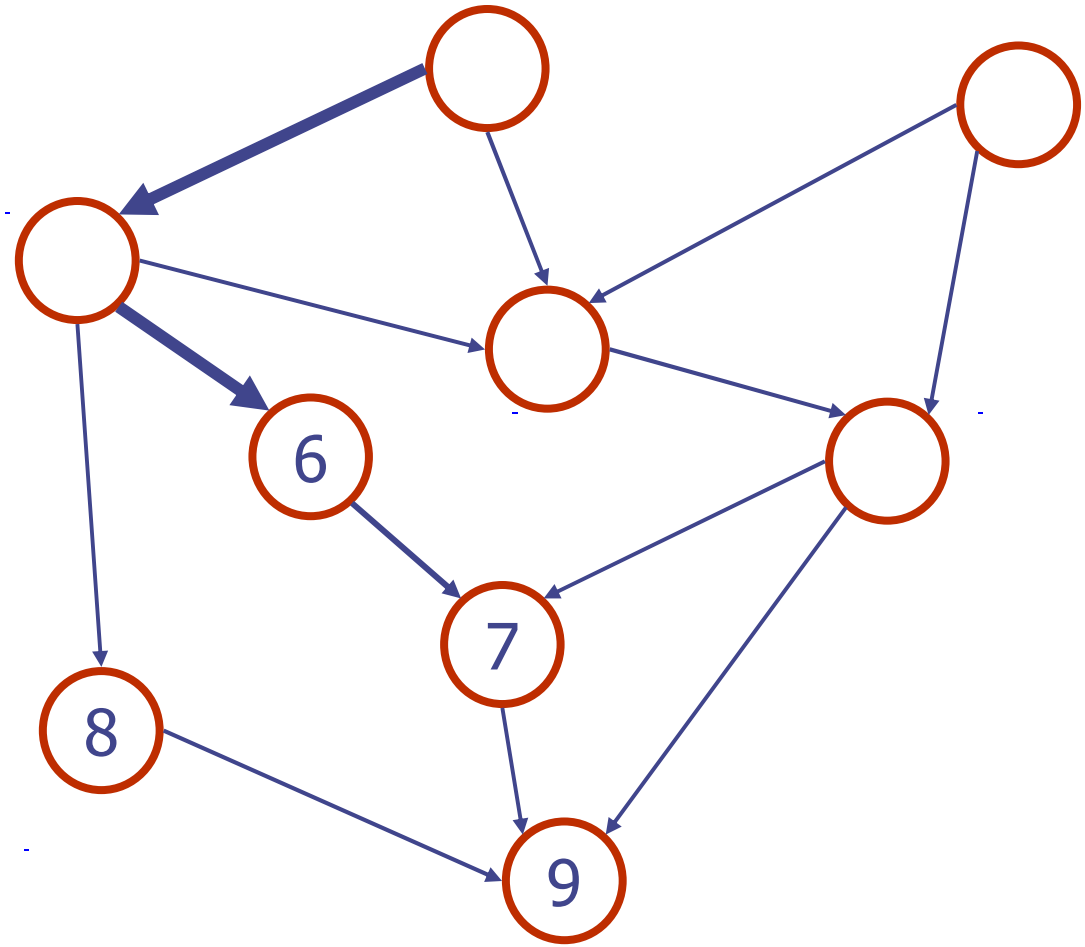
Topological Sorting Example



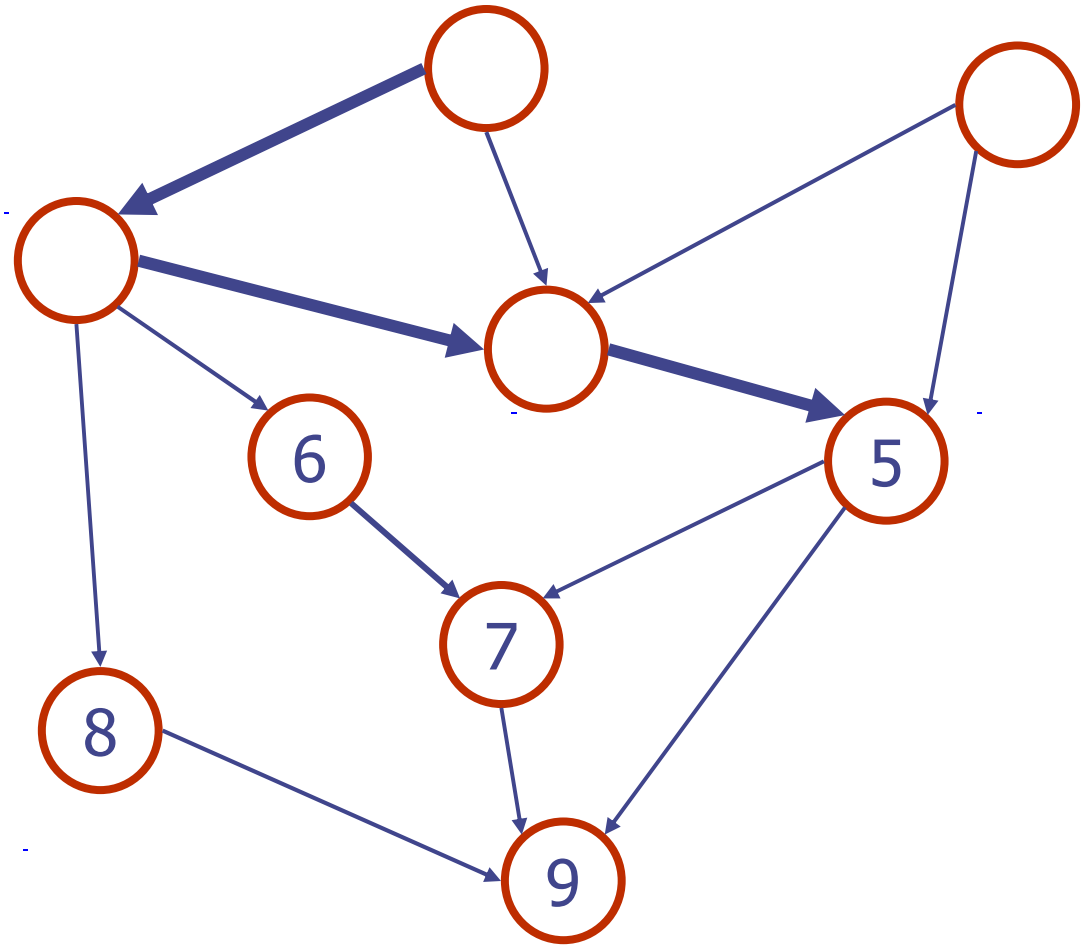
Topological Sorting Example



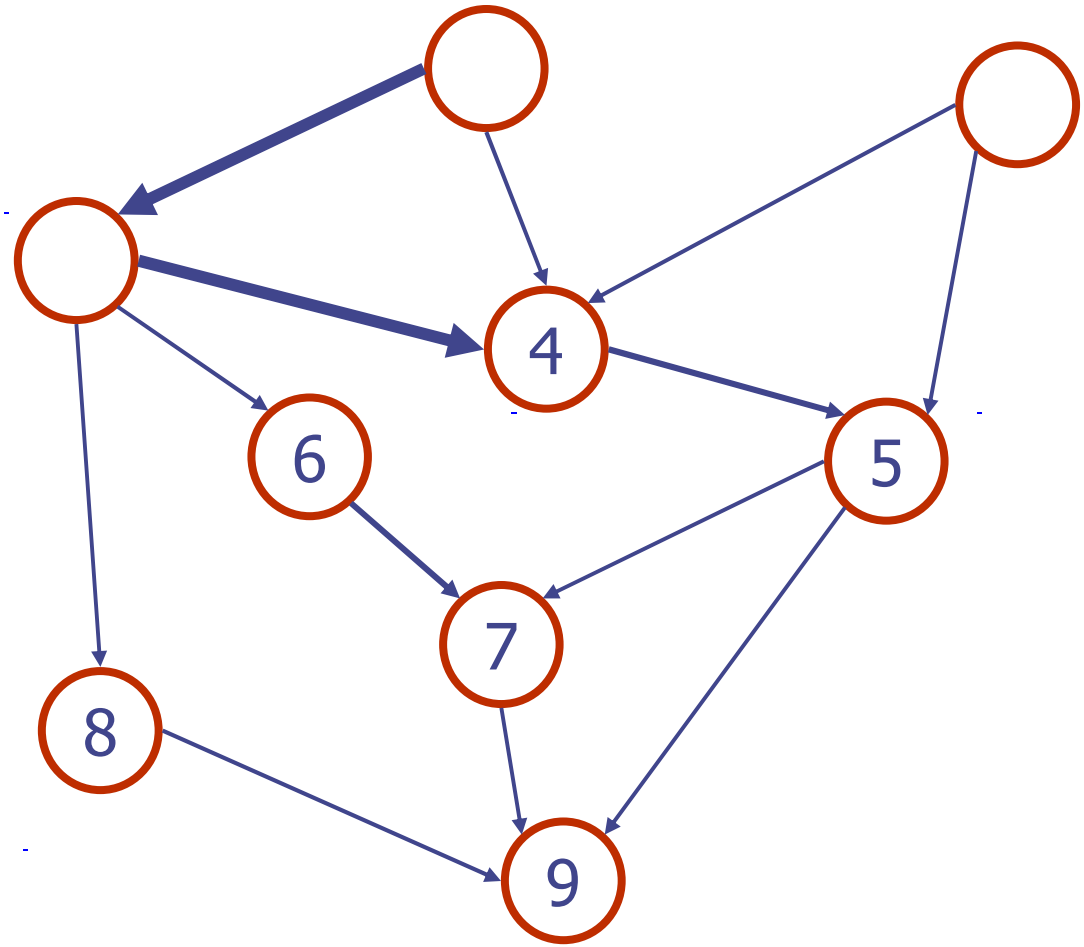
Topological Sorting Example



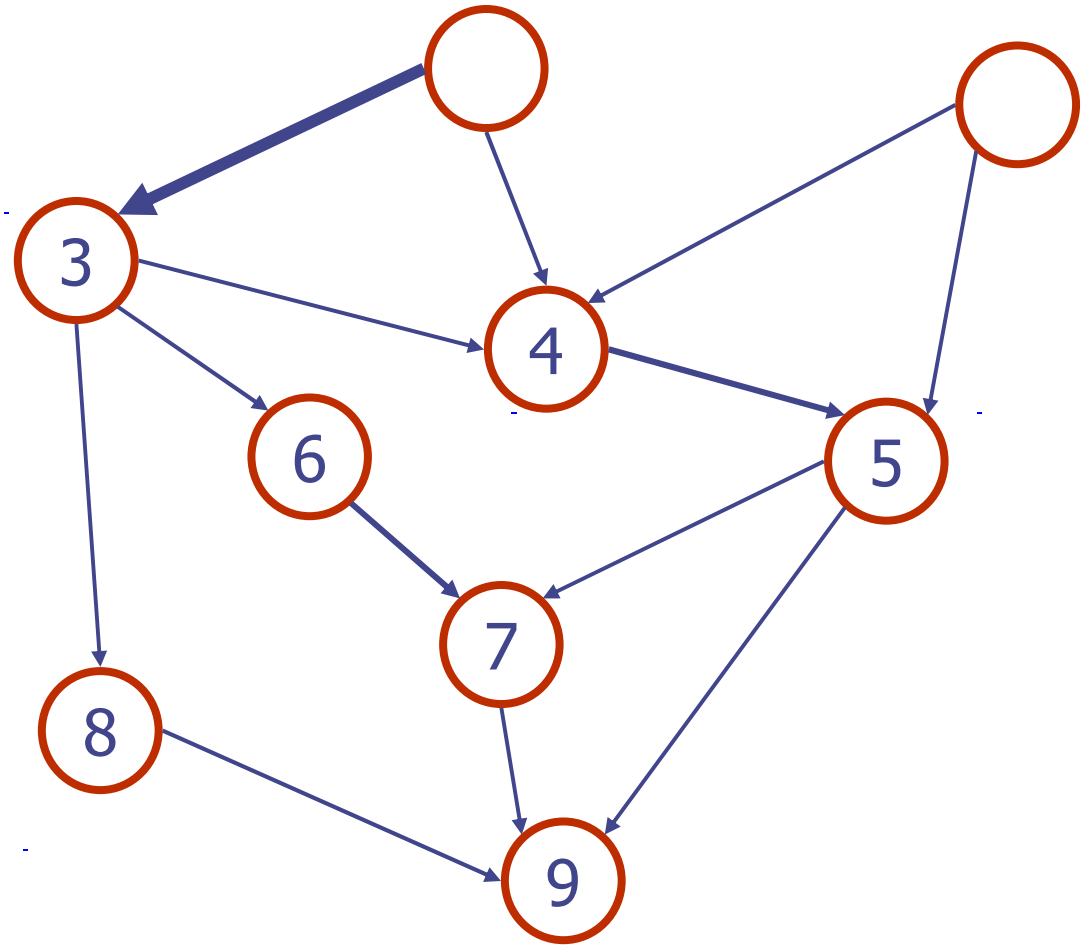
Topological Sorting Example



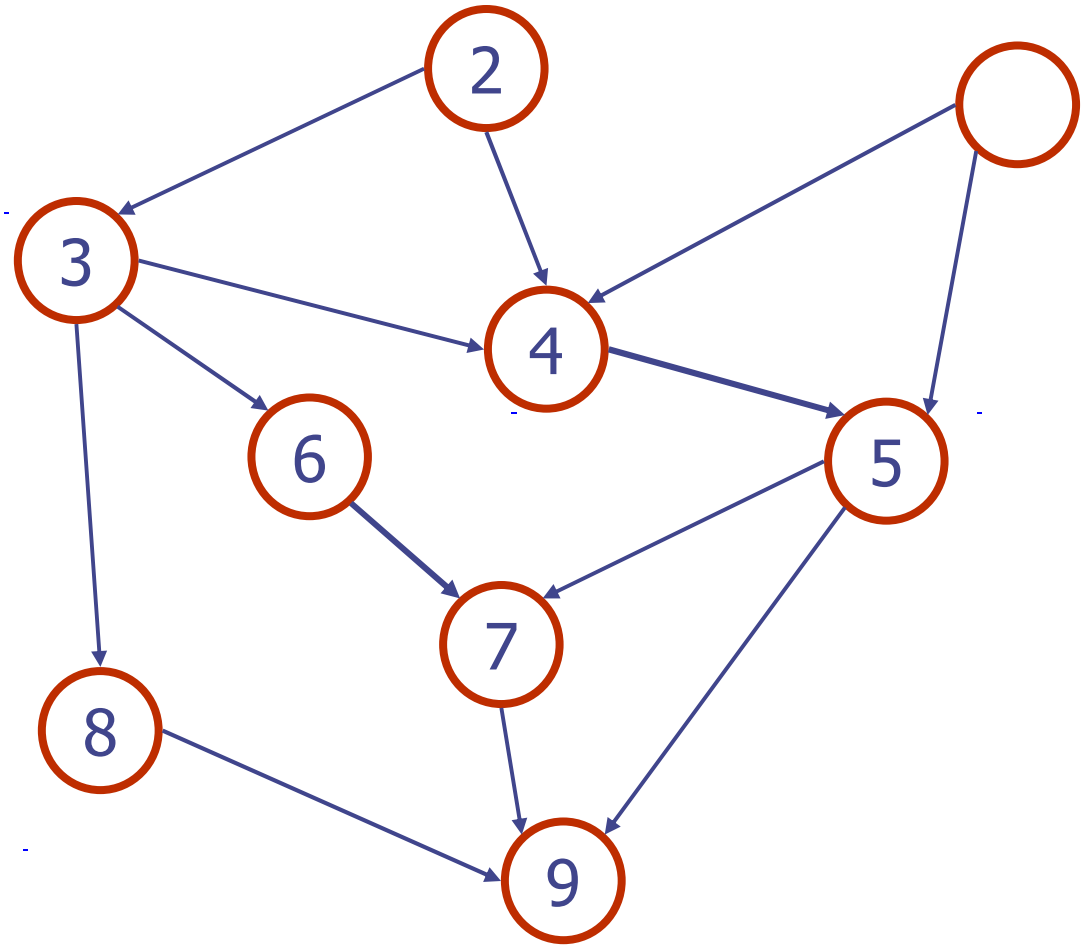
Topological Sorting Example



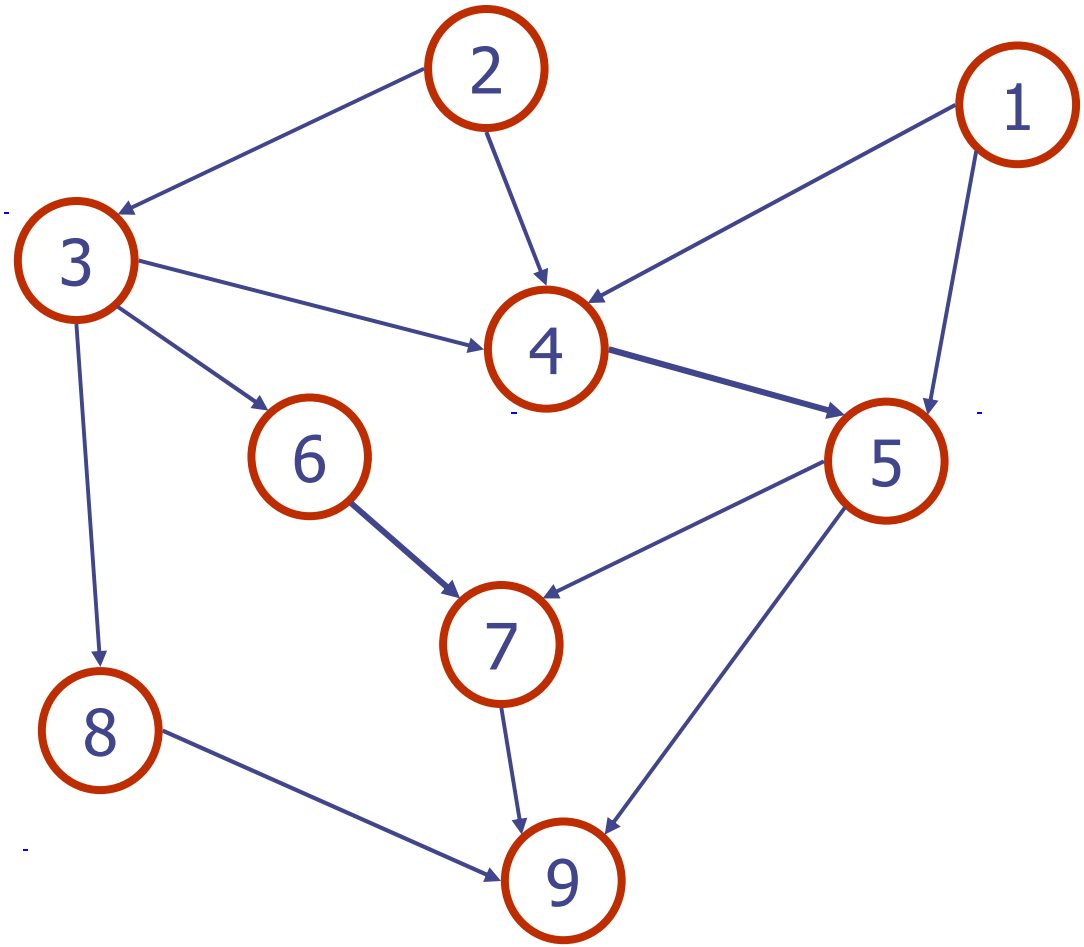
Topological Sorting Example



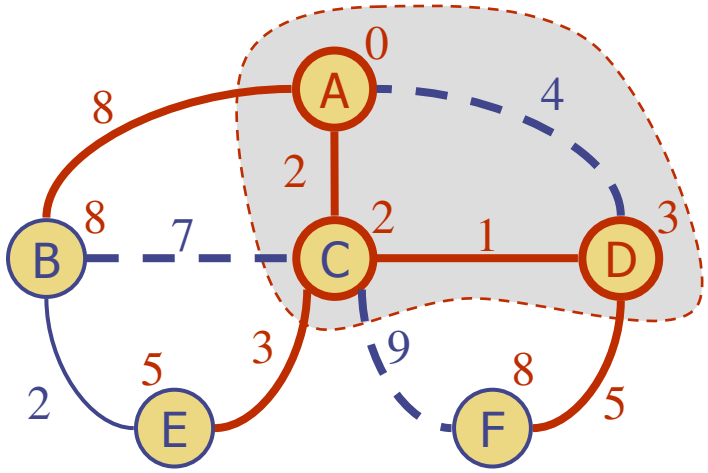
Topological Sorting Example



Topological Sorting Example

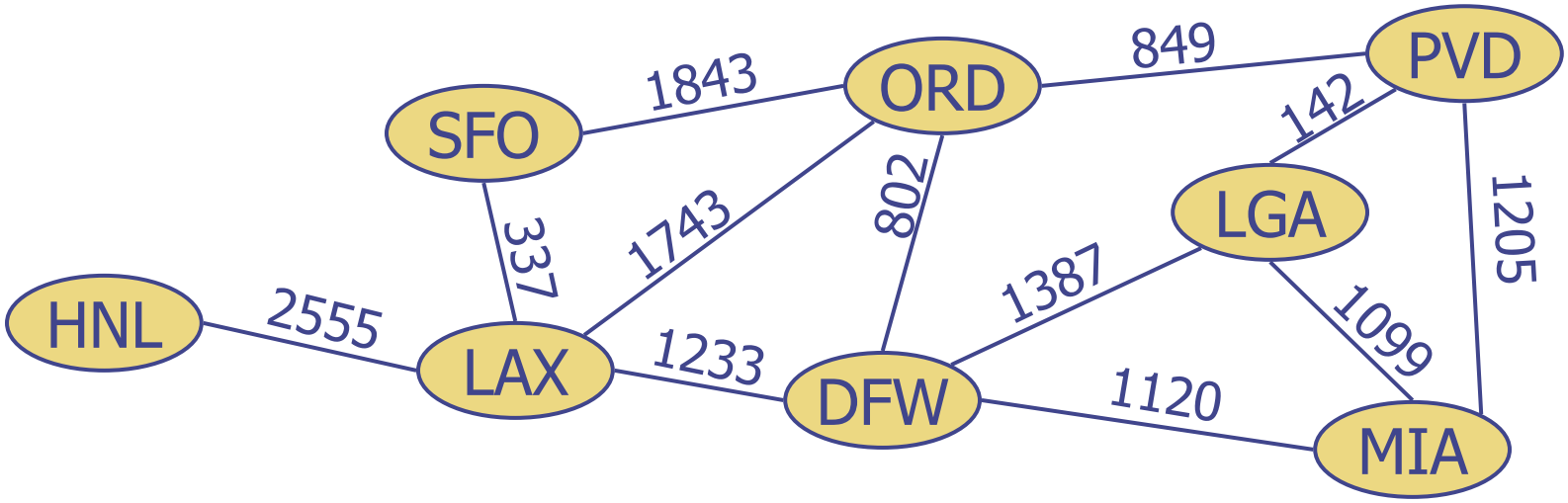


Shortest Paths



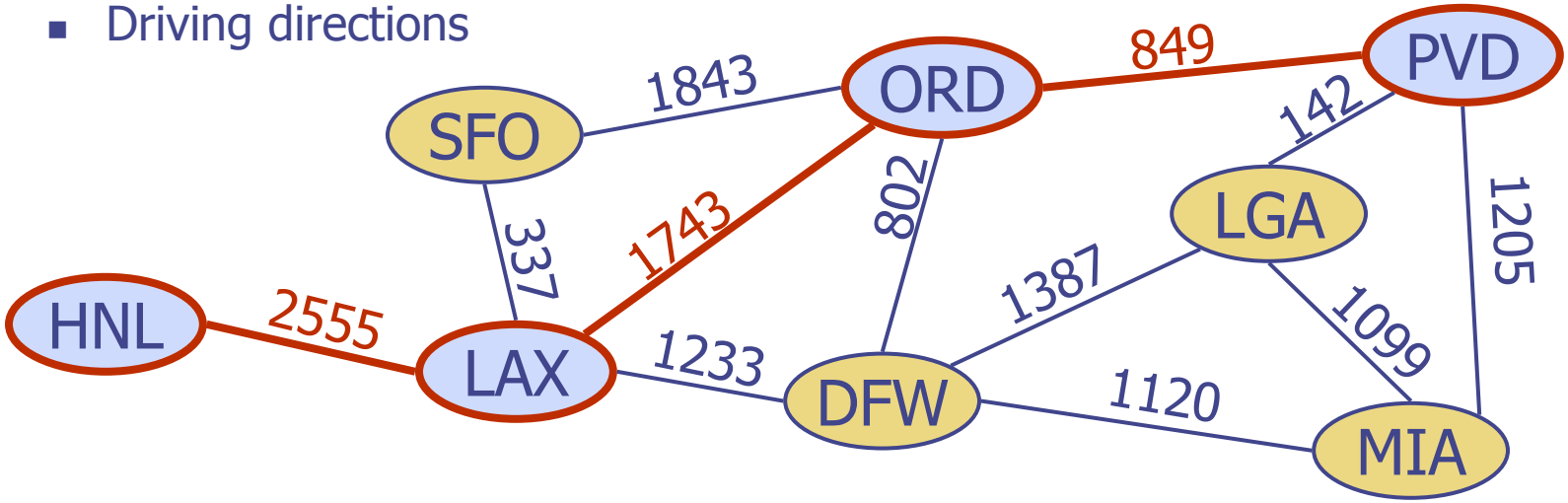
Weighted Graphs

- In a weighted graph, each edge has an associated numerical value, called the weight of the edge
- Edge weights may represent distances, costs, etc.
- Example:
  - In a flight route graph, the weight of an edge represents the distance in miles between the endpoint airports



Shortest Paths

- Given a weighted graph and two vertices u and v, we want to find a path of minimum total weight between u and v.
  - Length of a path is the sum of the weights of its edges.
- Example:
  - Shortest path between Providence and Honolulu
- Applications
  - Internet packet routing
  - Flight reservations
  - Driving directions



Shortest Path Properties

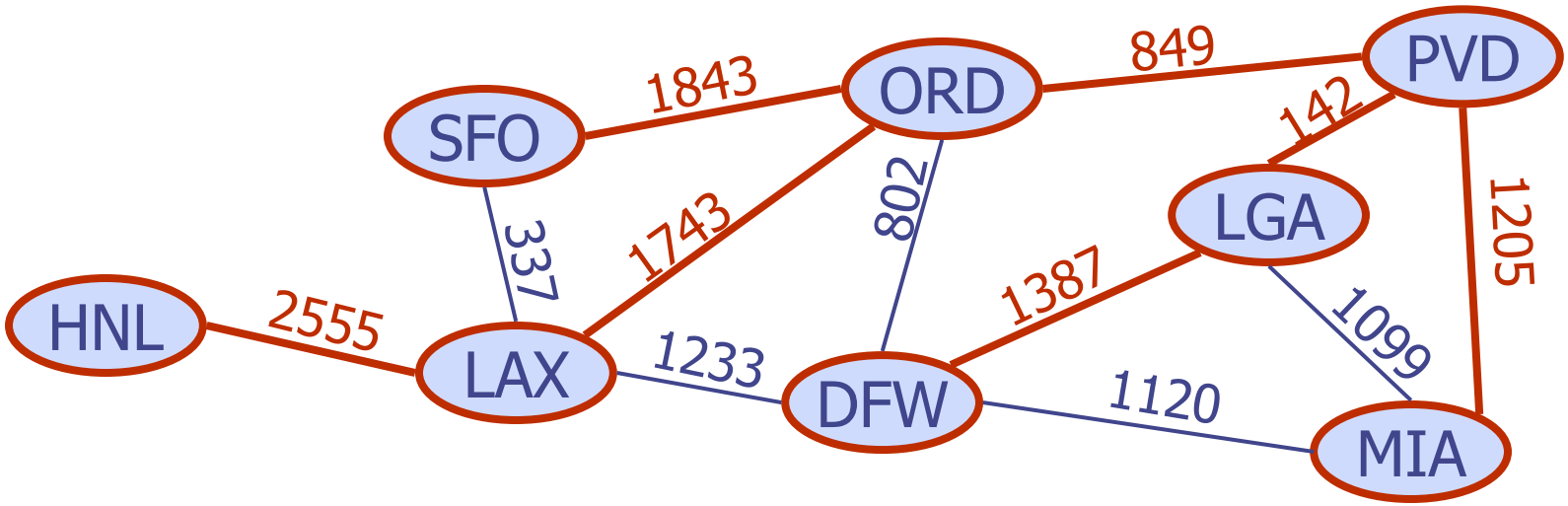
Property 1:

A subpath of a shortest path is itself a shortest path

Property 2:

There is a tree of shortest paths from a start vertex to all the other vertices

Example: Tree of shortest paths from Providence



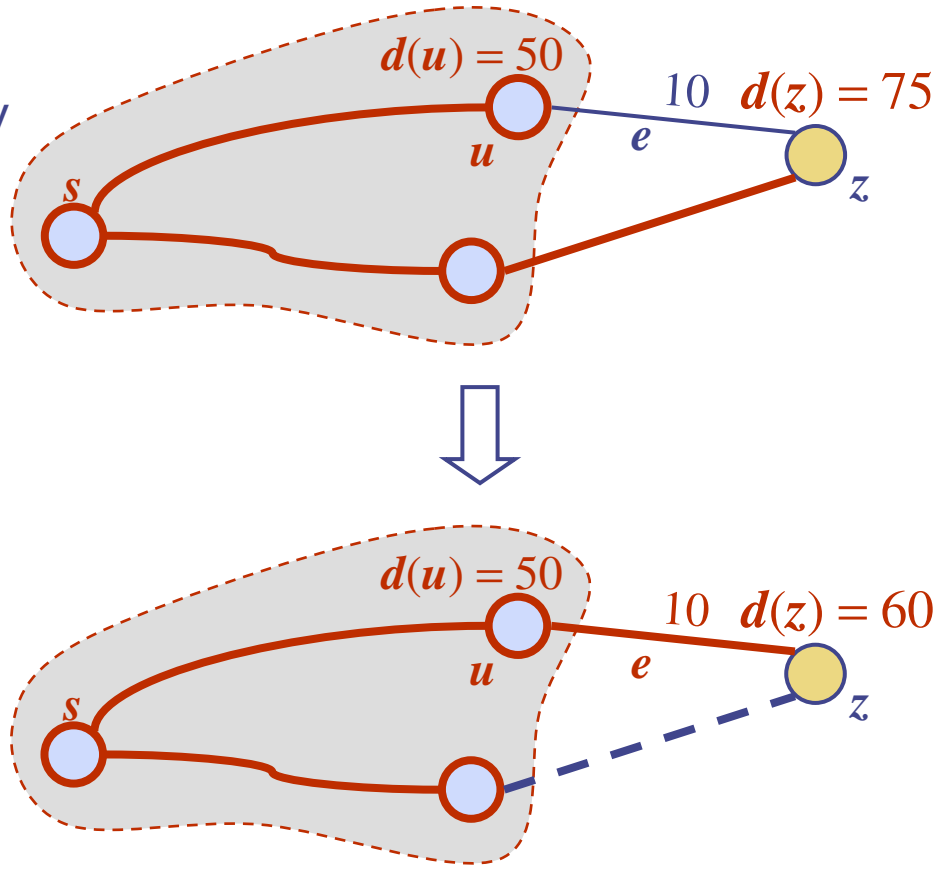
Dijkstra's Algorithm

- The distance of a vertex v from a vertex s is the length of a shortest path between s and v
- Dijkstra's algorithm computes the distances of all the vertices from a given start vertex s
- Assumptions:
  - the graph is connected
  - the edges are undirected
  - the edge weights are nonnegative
- We grow a "**cloud**" of vertices, beginning with s and eventually covering all the vertices
- We store with each vertex v a label $d(v)$ representing the distance of v from s in the subgraph consisting of the cloud and its adjacent vertices
- At each step
  - We add to the cloud the vertex u outside the cloud with the smallest distance label, $d(u)$
  - We update the labels of the vertices adjacent to u

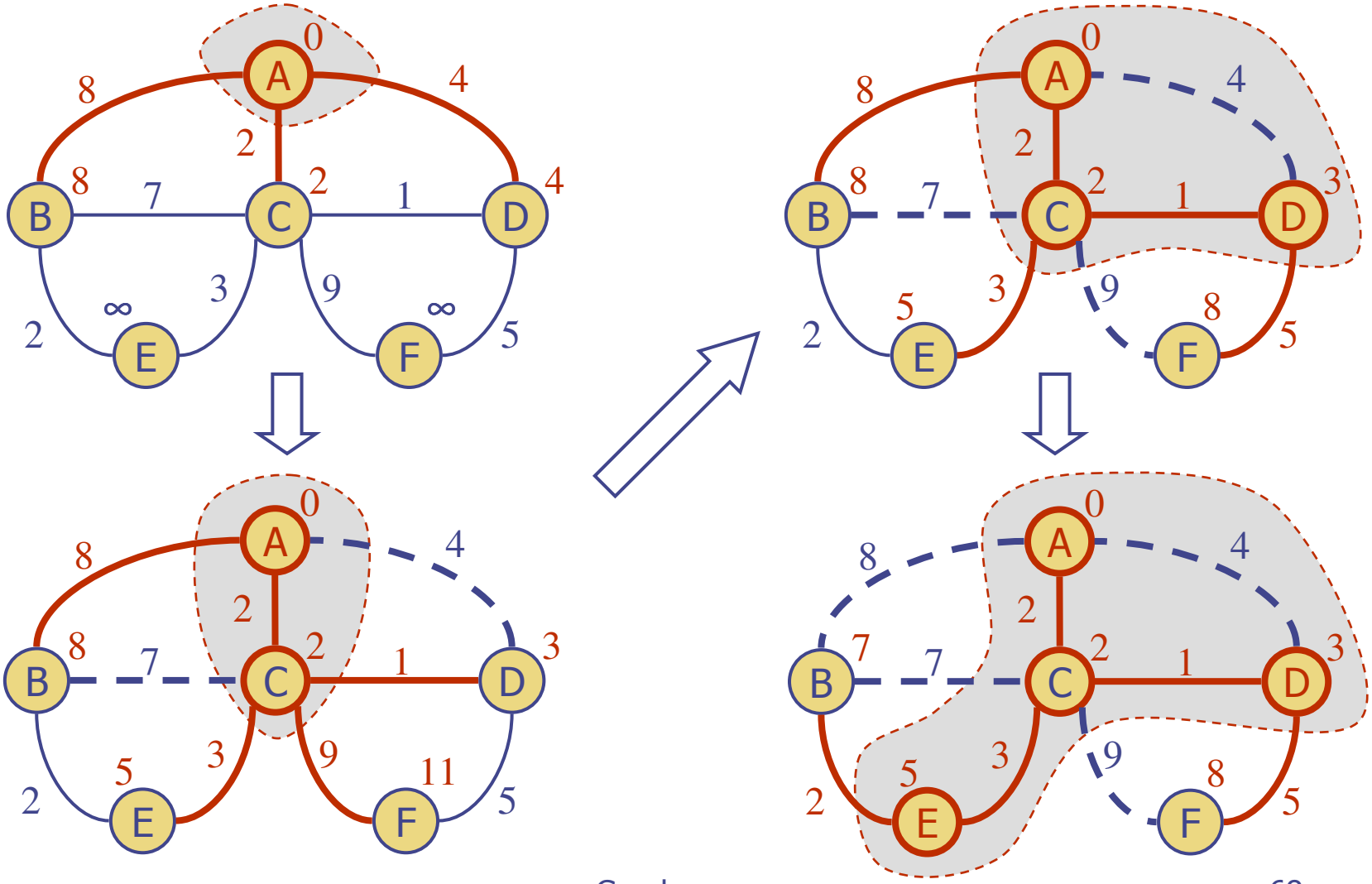
Edge Relaxation

- Consider an edge $e = (u,z)$ such that
  - u is the vertex most recently added to the cloud
  - z is not in the cloud
- The relaxation of edge e updates distance $d(z)$ as follows:

$$d(z) \leftarrow \min\{d(z), d(u) + weight(e)\}$$



Example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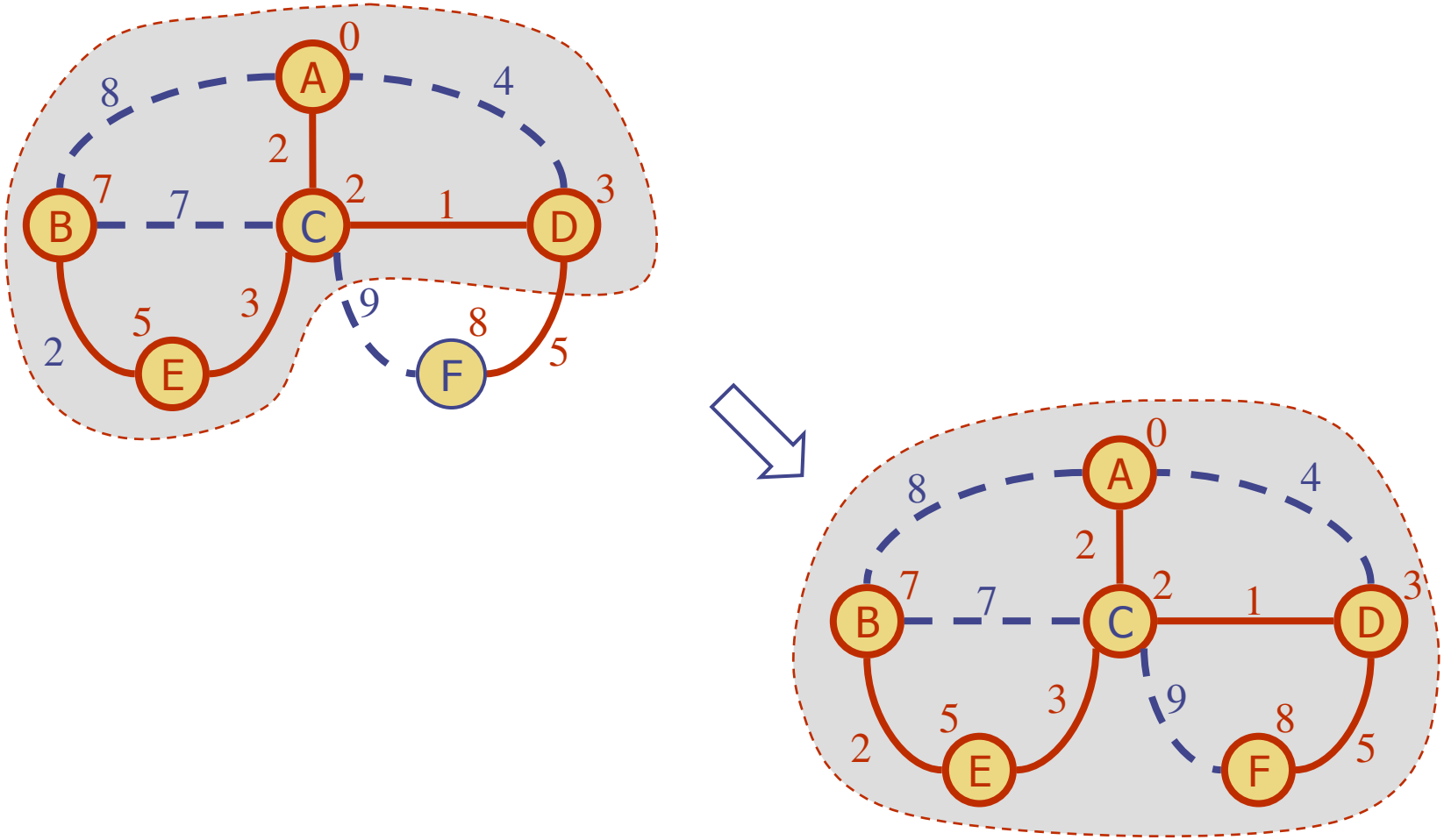
Example (cont.)



Dijkstra's Algorithm

- A priority queue stores the vertices outside the cloud
  - Key: distance
  - Element: vertex
- Locator-based methods
  - *insert*(*k*,*e*) returns a locator
  - *replaceKey*(*l*,*k*) changes the key of an item
- We store two labels with each vertex:
  - Distance (d(v) label)
  - locator in priority queue

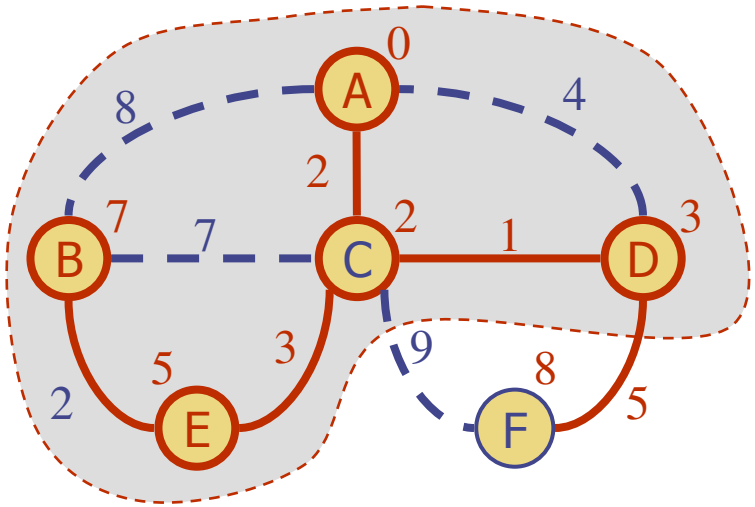
```
Algorithm DijkstraDistances(G, s)
    Q ← new heap-based priority queue
    for all v ∈ G.vertices()
        if v = s
            setDistance(v, 0)
        else
            setDistance(v, ∞)
        l ← Q.insert(getDistance(v), v)
        setLocator(v,l)
    while ¬Q.isEmpty()
        u ← Q.removeMin()
        for all e ∈ G.incidentEdges(u)
            { relax edge e }
            z ← G.opposite(u,e)
            r ← getDistance(u) + weight(e)
            if r < getDistance(z)
                setDistance(z,r)
                Q.replaceKey(getLocator(z),r)
```

Analysis of Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Graph operations
  - Method incidentEdges is called once for each vertex
- Label operations
  - We set/get the distance and locator labels of vertex z $O(\deg(z))$ times
  - Setting/getting a label takes $O(1)$ time
- Priority queue operations
  - Each vertex is inserted once into and removed once from the priority queue, where each insertion or removal takes $O(\log n)$ time
  - The key of a vertex in the priority queue is modified at most $\deg(w)$ times, where each key change takes $O(\log n)$ time
- Dijkstra's algorithm runs in $O((n + m) \log n)$ time provided the graph is represented by the adjacency list structure
  - Recall that $\sum_v \deg(v) = 2m$
- The running time can also be expressed as $O(m \log n)$ since the graph is connected

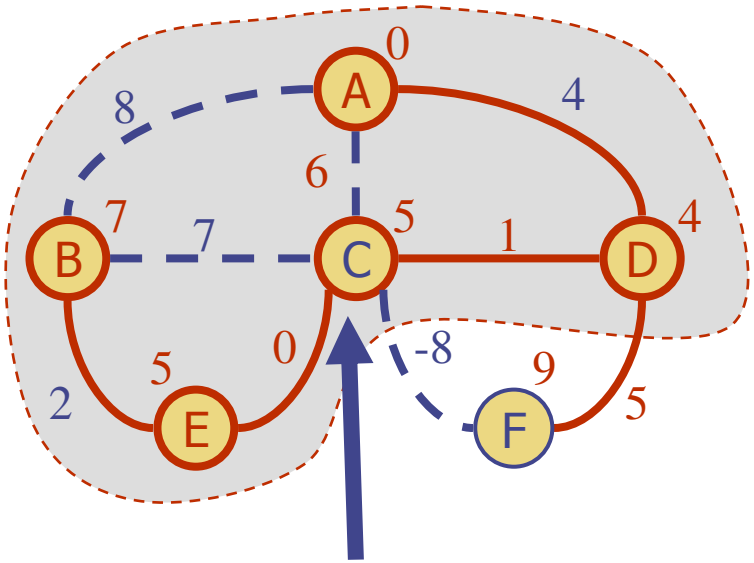
Why Dijkstra's Algorithm Works

- Dijkstra's algorithm is based on the greedy method. It adds vertices by increasing distance.
  - Suppose it didn't find all shortest distances. Let F be the first wrong vertex the algorithm processed.
  - When the previous node, D, on the true shortest path was considered, its distance was correct.
  - But the edge (D,F) was **relaxed** at that time!
  - Thus, so long as d(F)≥d(D), F's distance cannot be wrong. That is, there is no wrong vertex.



Why It Doesn't Work for Negative-Weight Edges

- Dijkstra's algorithm is based on the greedy method. It adds vertices by increasing distance.
  - If a node with a negative incident edge were to be added late to the cloud, it could mess up distances for vertices already in the cloud.



C's true distance is 1, but it is already in the cloud with d(C)=5!

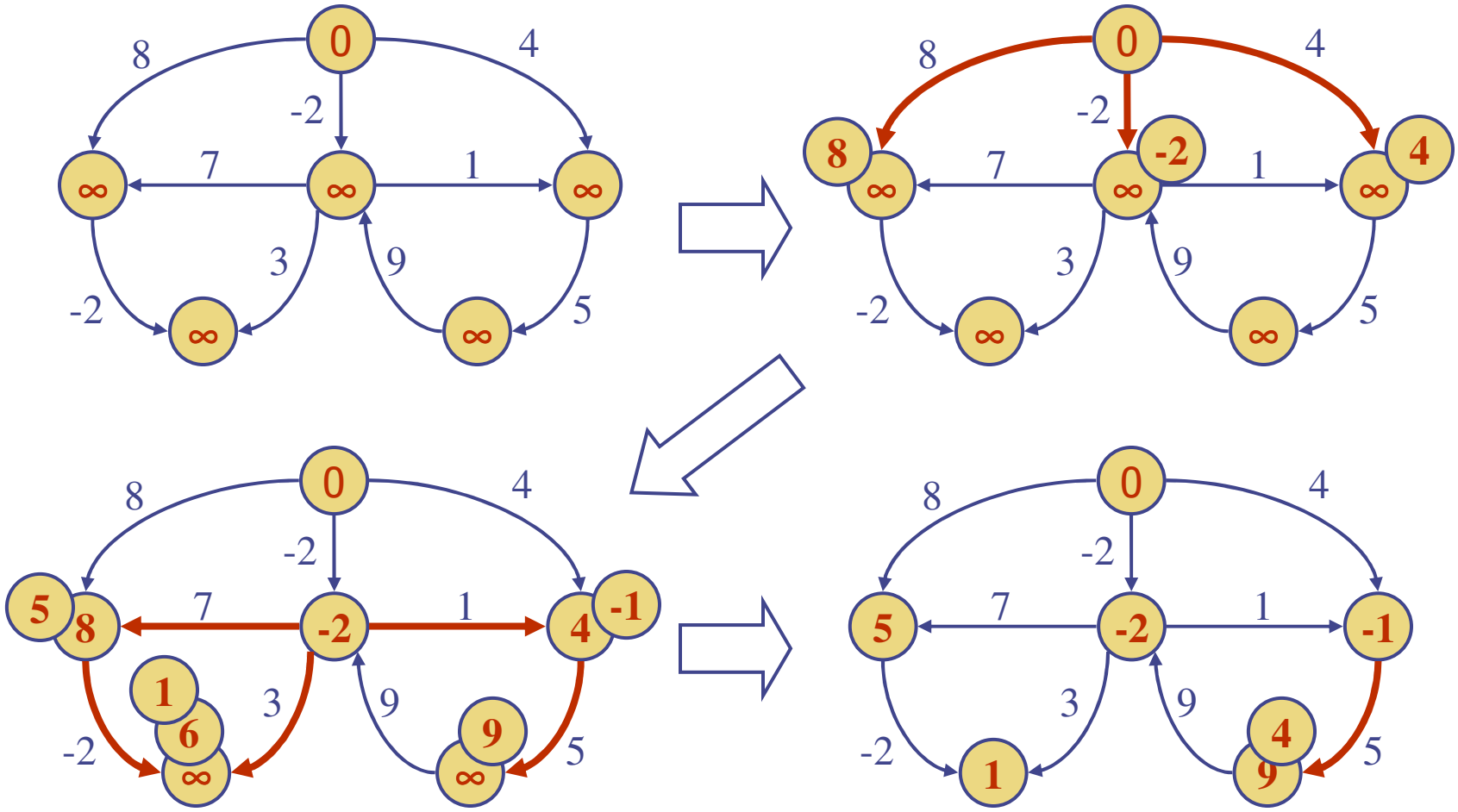
Bellman-Ford Algorithm

- Works even with negative-weight edges
- Must assume directed edges (for otherwise we would have negative-weight cycles)
- Iteration i finds all shortest paths that use i edges.
- Running time: $O(n\,m)$.
- Can be extended to detect a negative-weight cycle if it exists
  - How?

```
Algorithm BellmanFord(G, s)
  for all v ∈ G.vertices()
    if v = s
      setDistance(v, 0)
    else
      setDistance(v, ∞)
  for i ← 1 to n-1 do
    for each e ∈ G.edges()
      { relax edge e }
      u ← G.origin(e)
      z ← G.opposite(u,e)
      r ← getDistance(u) + weight(e)
      if r < getDistance(z)
        setDistance(z,r)
```

Bellman-Ford Example

Nodes are labeled with their d(v) values



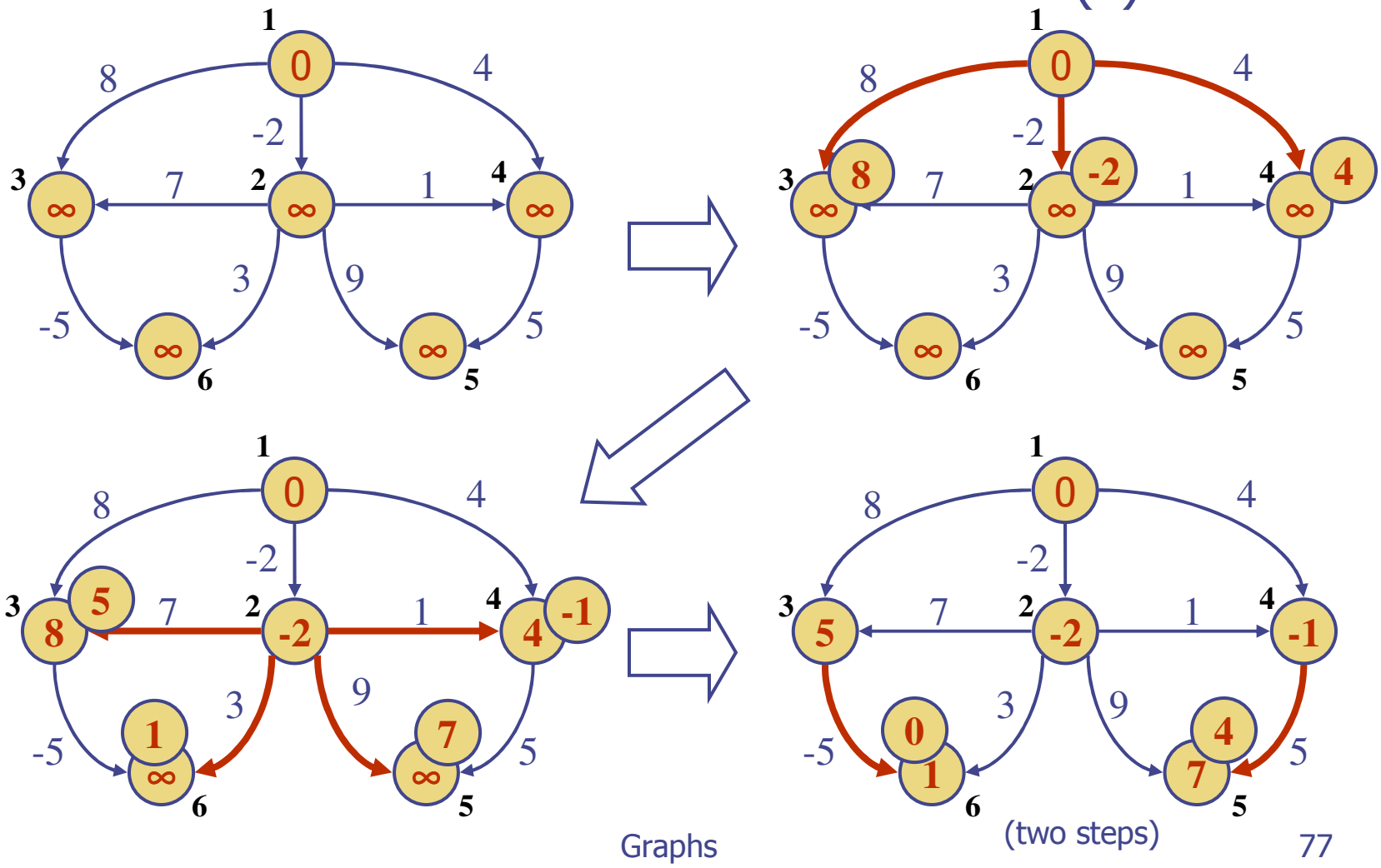
DAG-based Algorithm

- Works even with negative-weight edges
- Uses topological order
- Doesn't use any fancy data structures
- Is much faster than Dijkstra's algorithm
- Running time: O(n+m).

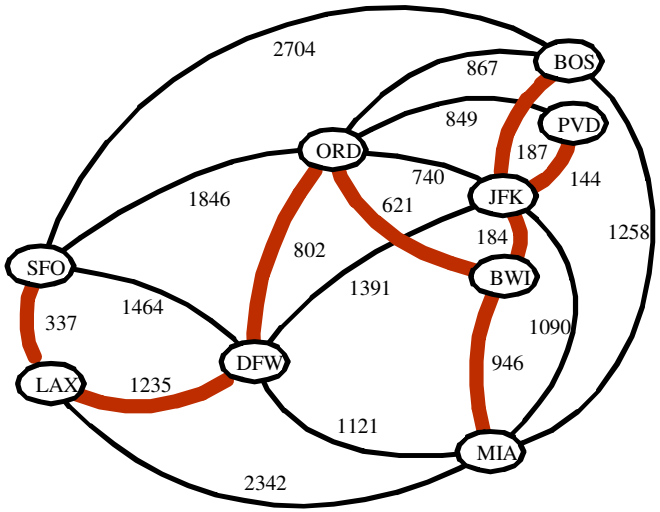
```
Algorithm DagDistances(G, s)
  for all v ∈ G.vertices()
    if v = s
      setDistance(v, 0)
    else
      setDistance(v, ∞)
  Perform a topological sort of the vertices
  for u ← 1 to n do    {in topological order}
    for each e ∈ G.outEdges(u)
      { relax edge e }
      z ← G.opposite(u,e)
      r ← getDistance(u) + weight(e)
      if r < getDistance(z)
        setDistance(z,r)
```

DAG Example

Nodes are labeled with their d(v) values



Minimum Spanning Trees



Minimum Spanning Trees

Spanning subgraph

- Subgraph of a graph G containing all the vertices of G

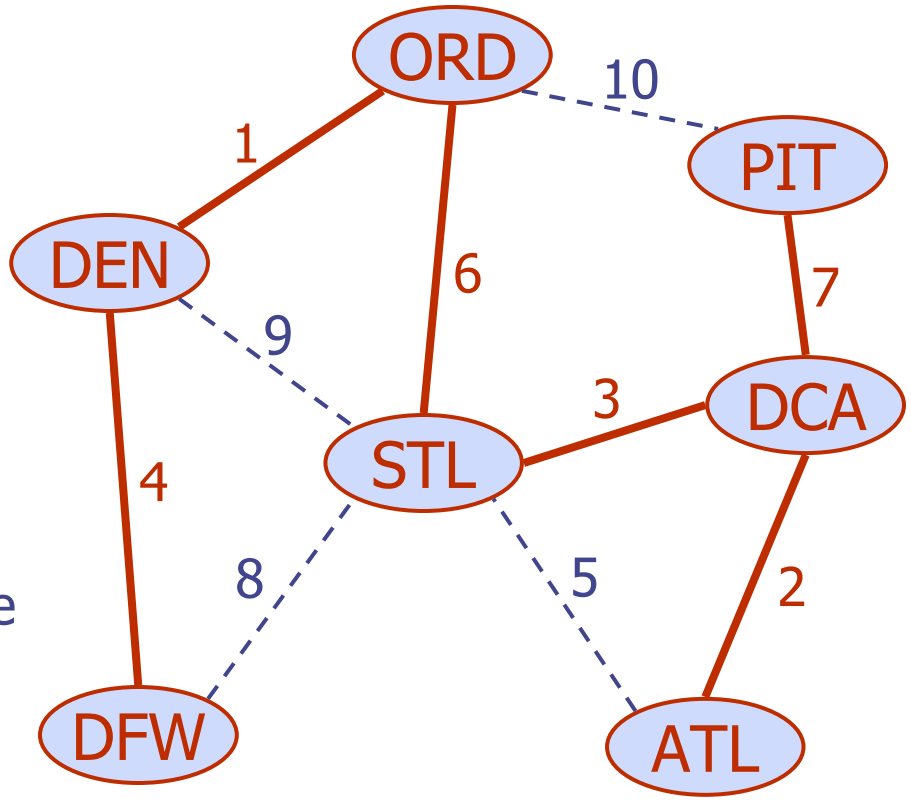
Spanning tree

- Spanning subgraph that is itself a (free) tree

Minimum spanning tree (MST)

- Spanning tree of a weighted graph with minimum total edge weight

- Applications
  - Communications networks
  - Transportation networks



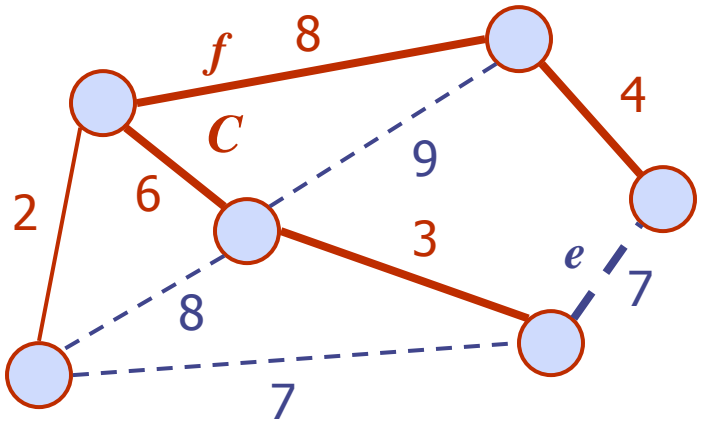
Cycle Property

Cycle Property:

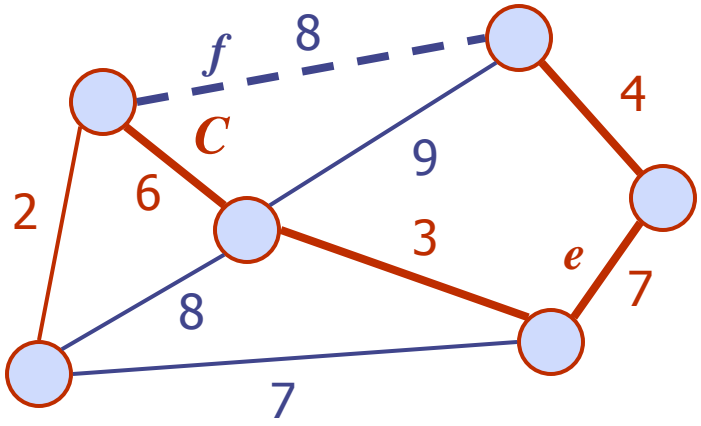
- Let T be a minimum spanning tree of a weighted graph G
- Let e be an edge of G that is not in T and C let be the cycle formed by e with T
- For every edge f of C, $weight(f) \leq weight(e)$

Proof:

- By contradiction
- If $weight(f) > weight(e)$ we can get a spanning tree of smaller weight by replacing e with f



Replacing f with e yields a better spanning tree



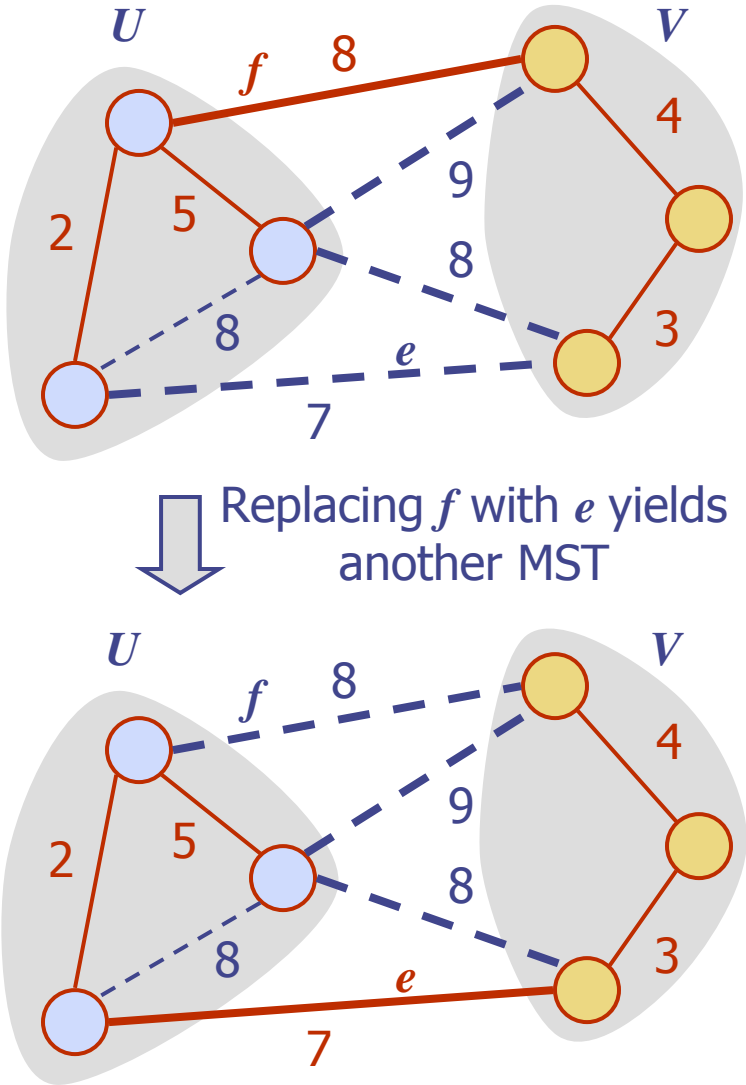
Partition Property

Partition Property:

- Consider a partition of the vertices of G into subsets U and V
- Let e be an edge of minimum weight across the partition
- There is a minimum spanning tree of G containing edge e

Proof:

- Let T be an MST of G
- If T does not contain e, consider the cycle C formed by e with T and let f be an edge of C across the partition
- By the cycle property,
$$weight(f) \leq weight(e)$$
- Thus, $weight(f) = weight(e)$
- We obtain another MST by replacing f with e



Kruskal's Algorithm

- A priority queue stores the edges outside the cloud
  - Key: weight
  - Element: edge
- At the end of the algorithm
  - We are left with one cloud that encompasses the MST
  - A tree T which is our MST

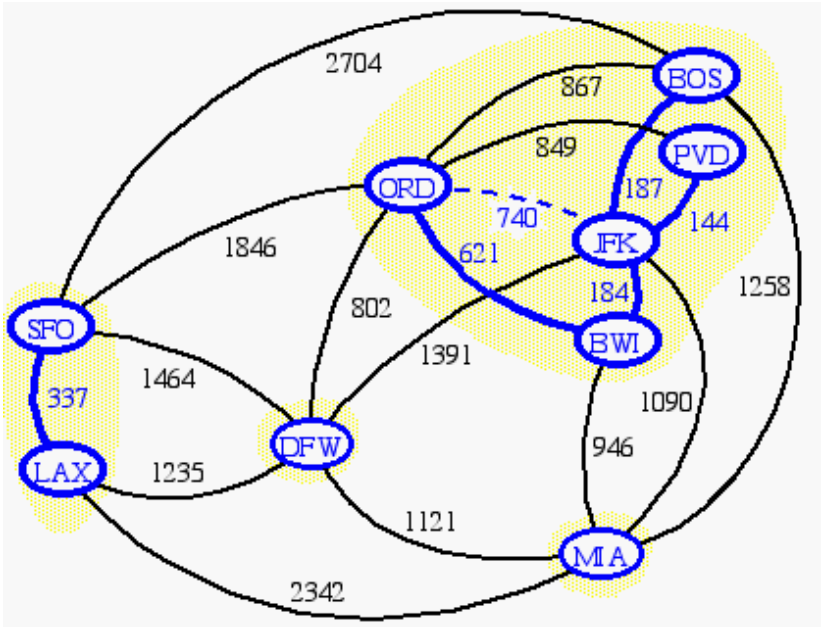
Algorithm *KruskalMST(G)*
  for each vertex v in G **do**
    define a *Cloud(v)* of $\leftarrow \{v\}$
  let Q be a priority queue.
  Insert all edges into Q using their weights as the key
  $T \leftarrow \emptyset$
  while T has fewer than n-1 edges **do**
    edge e = *Q.removeMin()*
    Let u, v be the endpoints of e
    if *Cloud(v)* $\neq$ *Cloud(u)* **then**
      Add edge e to T
      Merge *Cloud(v)* and *Cloud(u)*
  return T

Data Structure for Kruskal Algorithm

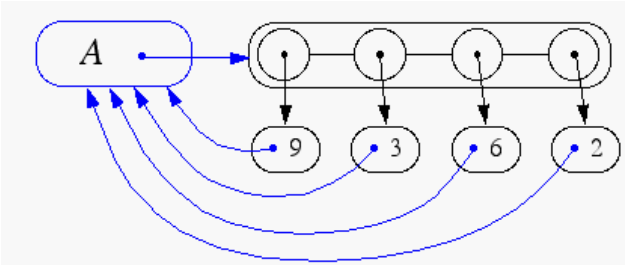
- The algorithm maintains a forest of trees
- An edge is accepted it if connects distinct trees
- We need a data structure that maintains a **partition**, i.e., a collection of disjoint sets, with the operations:

  -**find**(u): return the set storing u

  -**union**(u,v): replace the sets storing u and v with their union



Representation of a Partition



- Each set is stored in a sequence
- Each element has a reference back to the set
  - operation find(u) takes O(1) time, and returns the set of which u is a member.
  - in operation union(u,v), we move the elements of the smaller set to the sequence of the larger set and update their references
  - the time for operation union(u,v) is $\min(n_u,n_v)$, where n_u and n_v are the sizes of the sets storing u and v
- Whenever an element is processed, it goes into a set of size at least double, hence each element is processed at most log n times

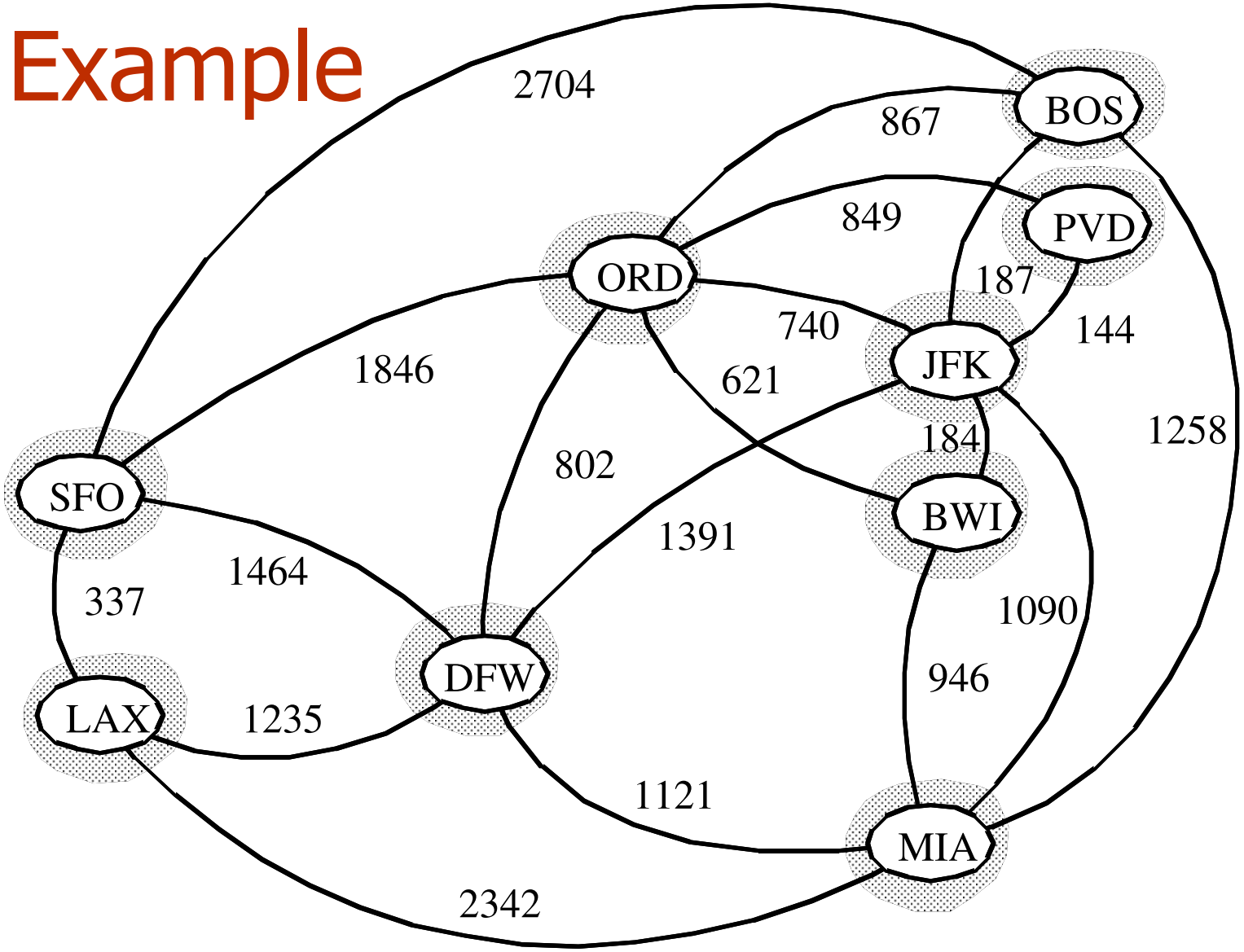
Partition-Based Implementation

- A partition-based version of Kruskal's Algorithm performs cloud merges as unions and tests as finds.

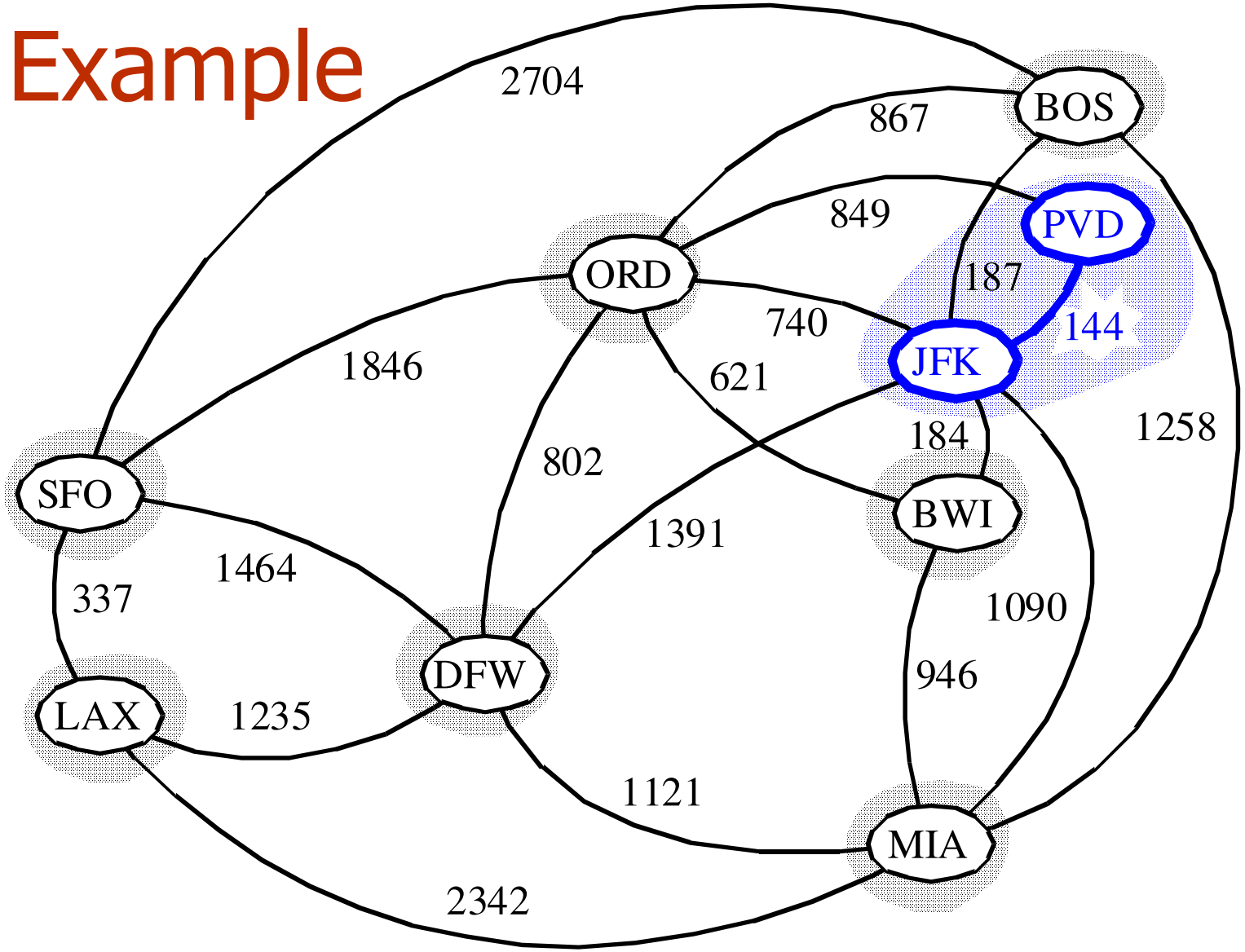
Algorithm **Kruskal**(***G***):
  Input: A weighted graph ***G***.
  Output: An MST ***T*** for ***G***.
Let ***P*** be a partition of the vertices of ***G***, where each vertex forms a separate set.
Let ***Q*** be a priority queue storing the edges of ***G***, sorted by their weights
Let ***T*** be an initially-empty tree
while ***Q*** is not empty **do**
  (***u***,***v***) ← ***Q***.removeMinElement()
  if ***P***.find(***u***) != ***P***.find(***v***) **then**
    Add (***u***,***v***) to ***T***
    P.union(***u***,***v***)
return ***T***

Running time:
O((n+m)log n)

Kruskal Example



Example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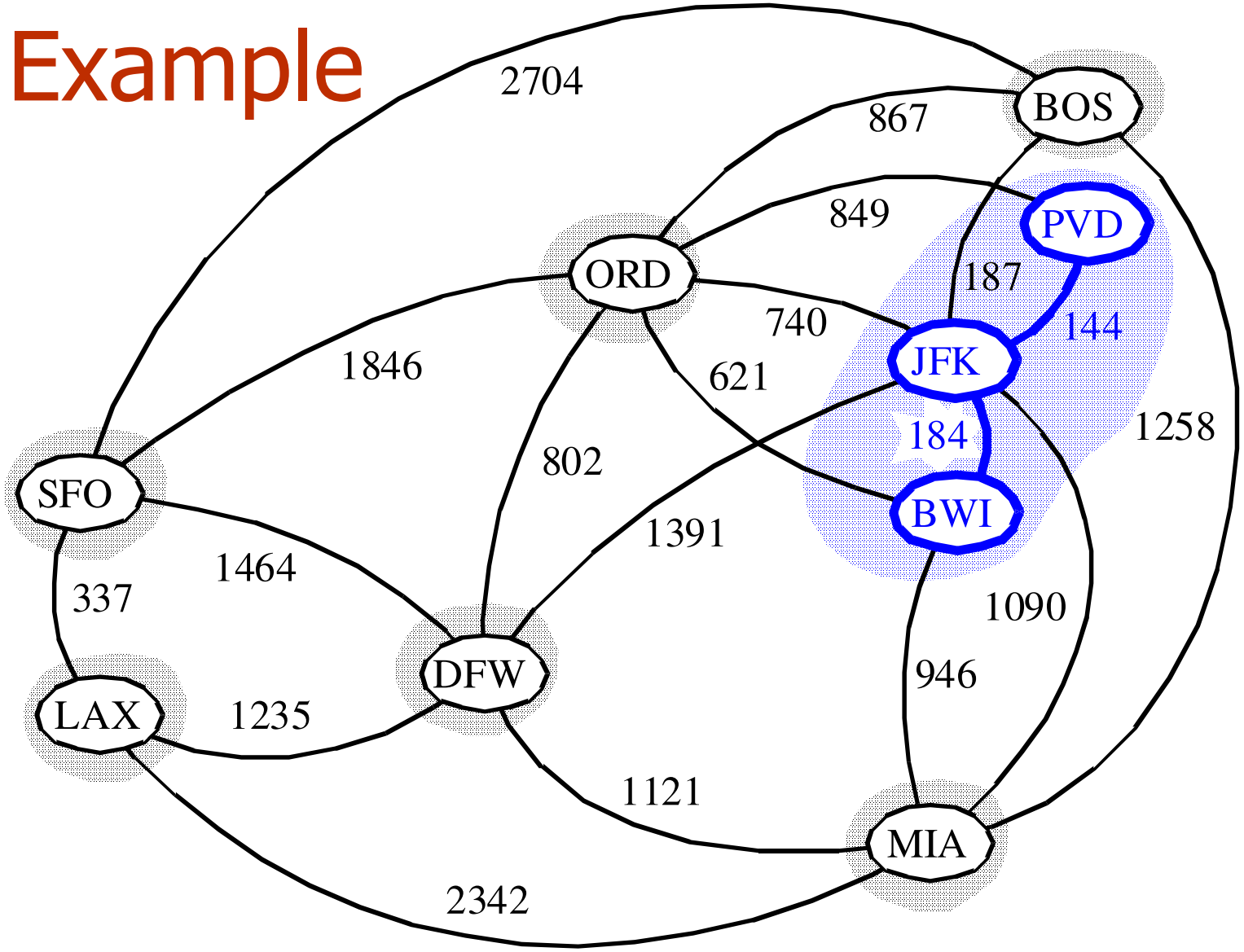
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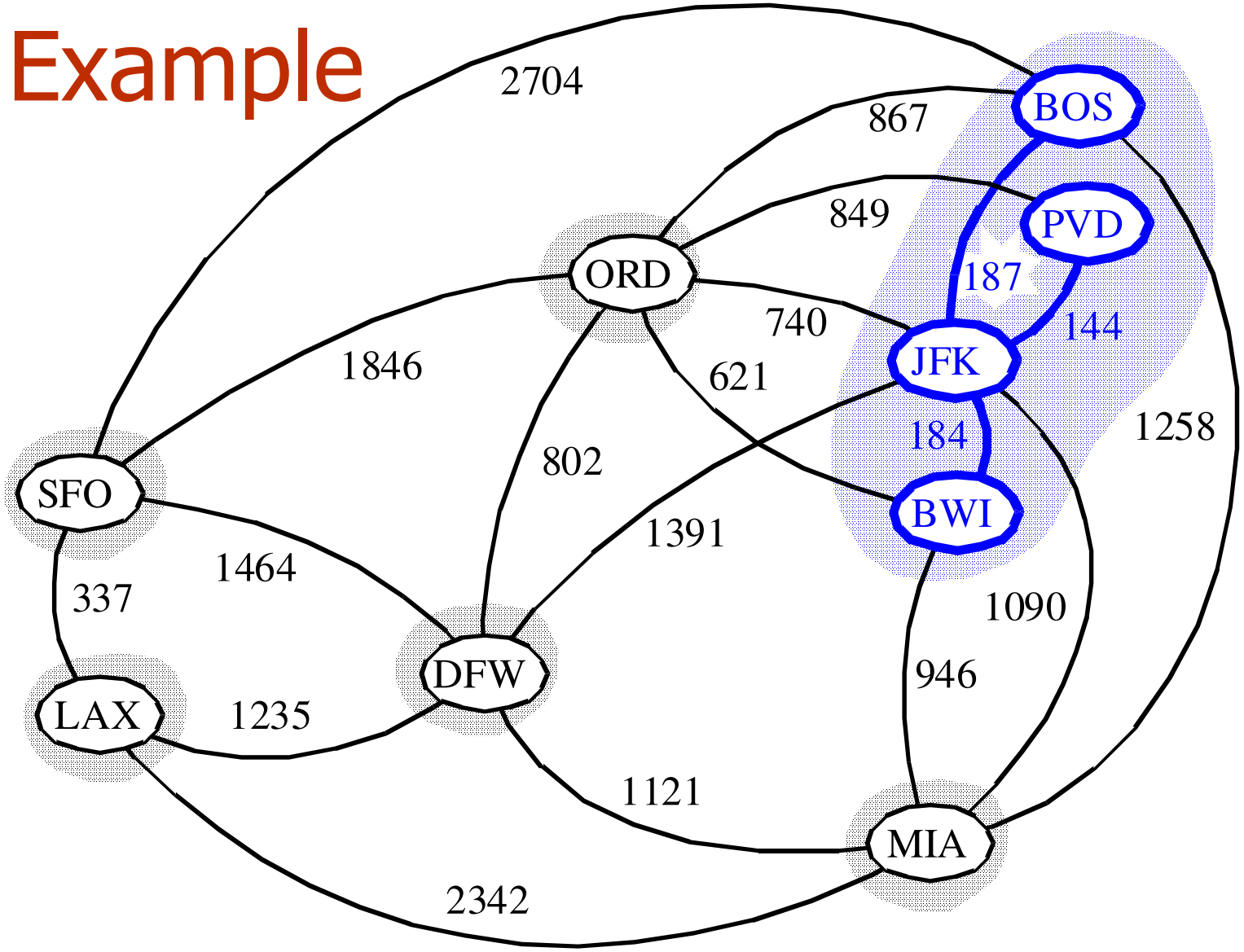
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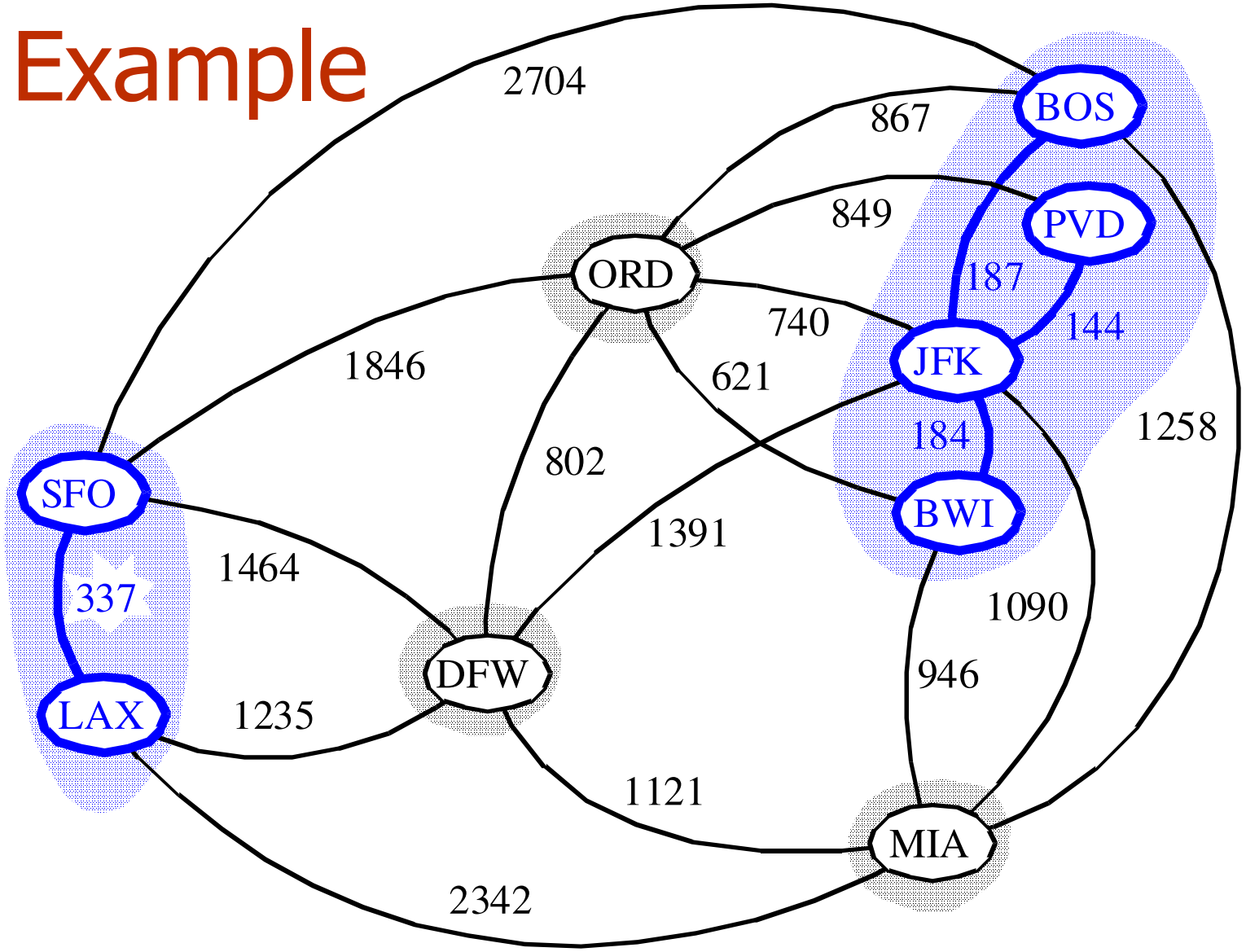
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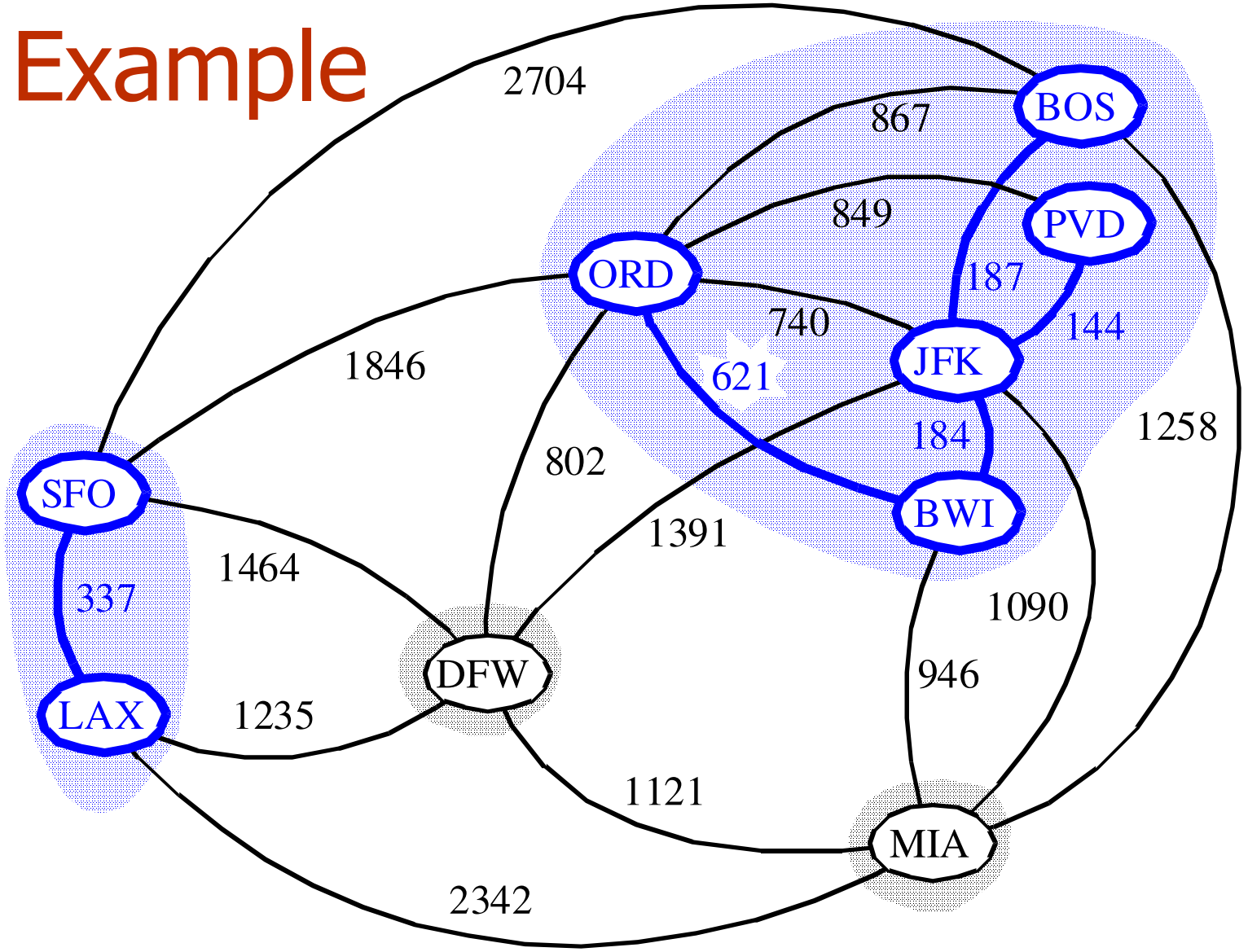
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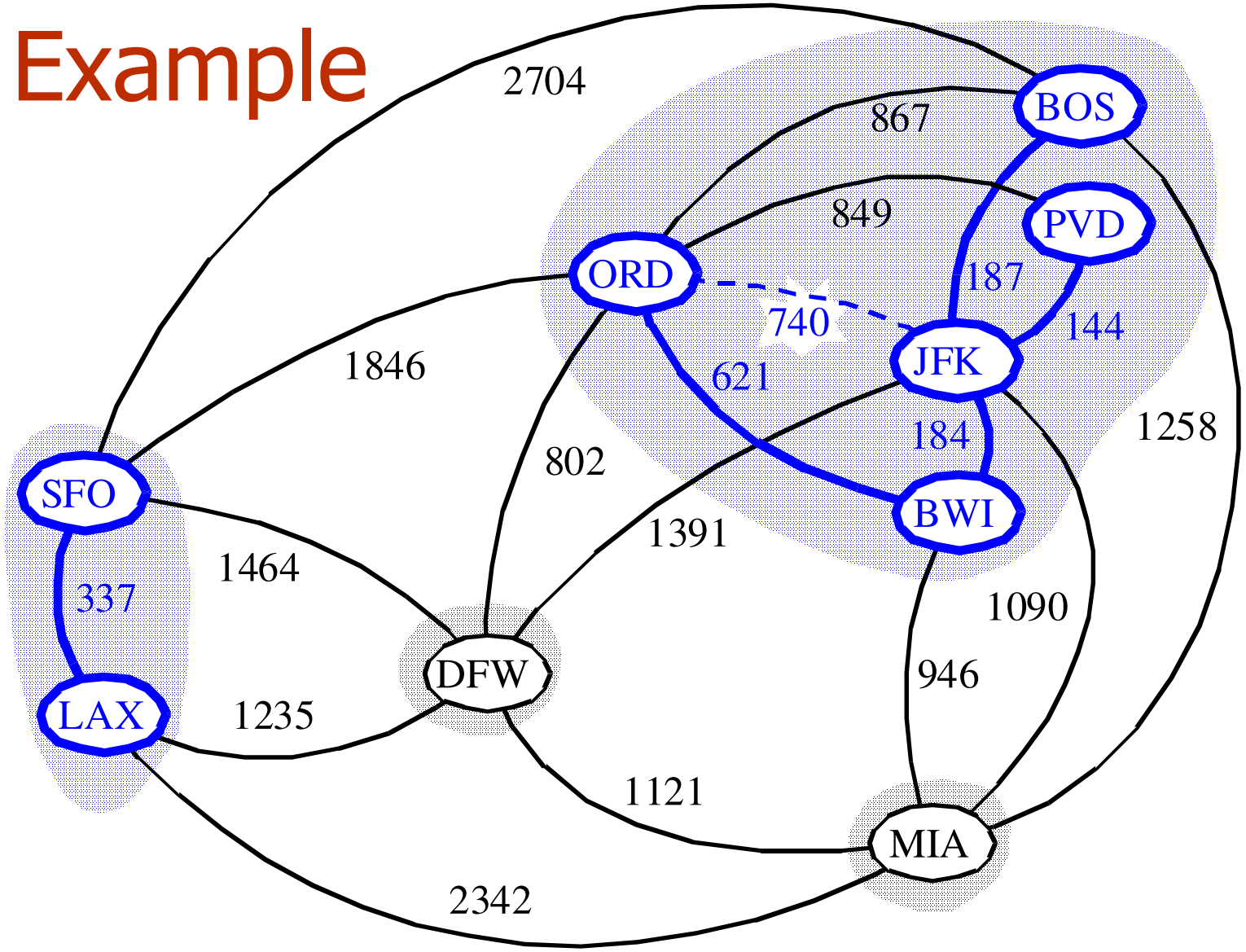
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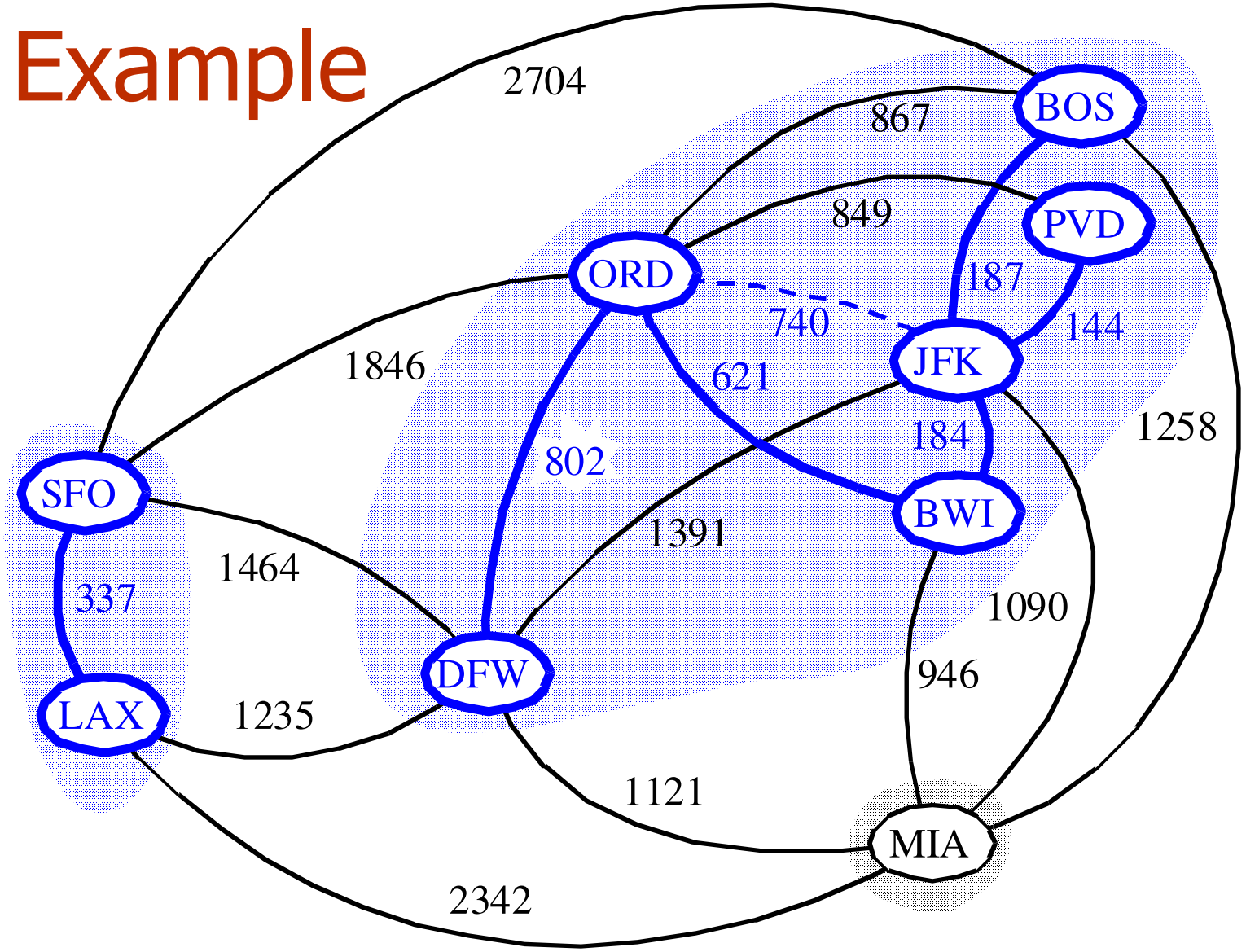
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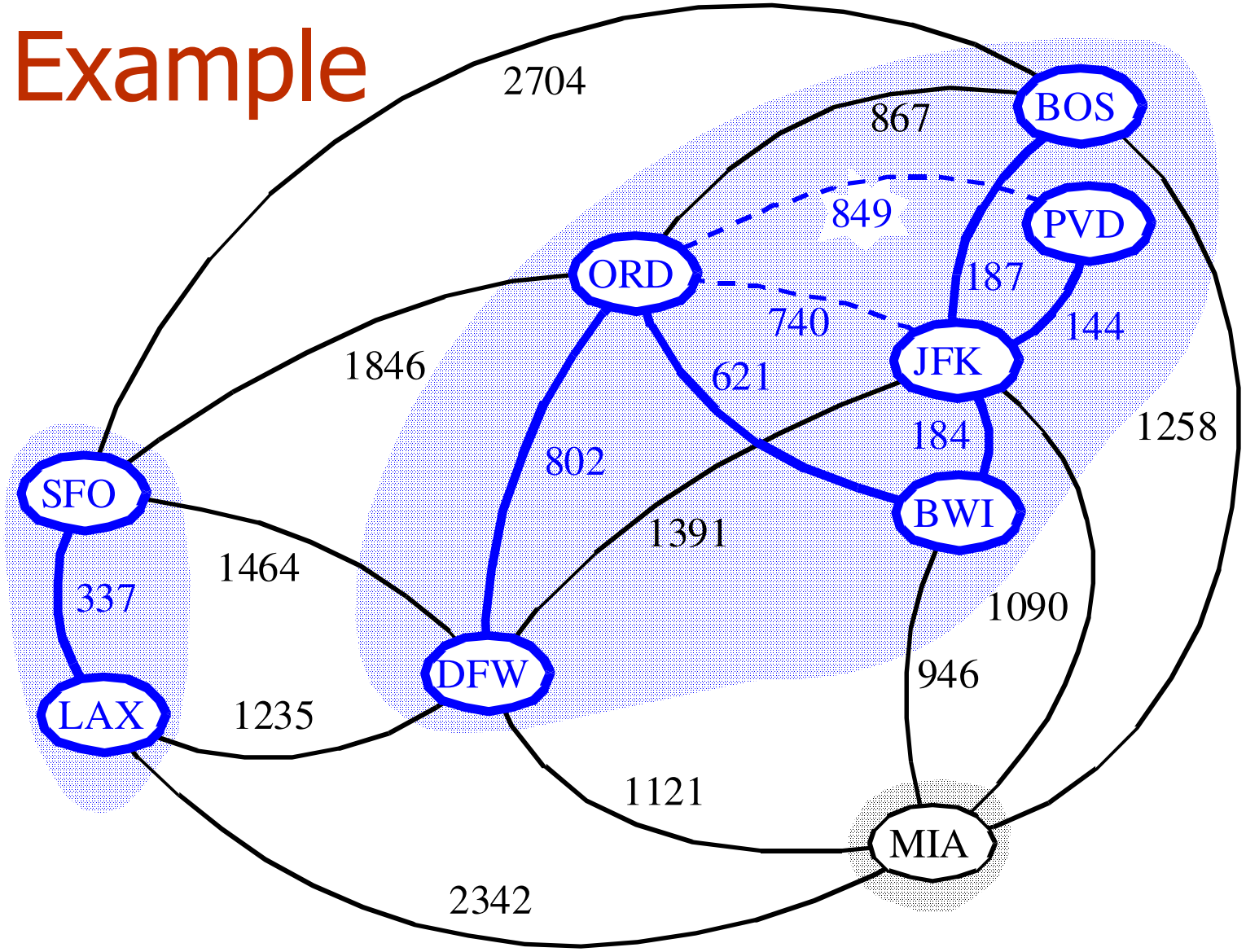
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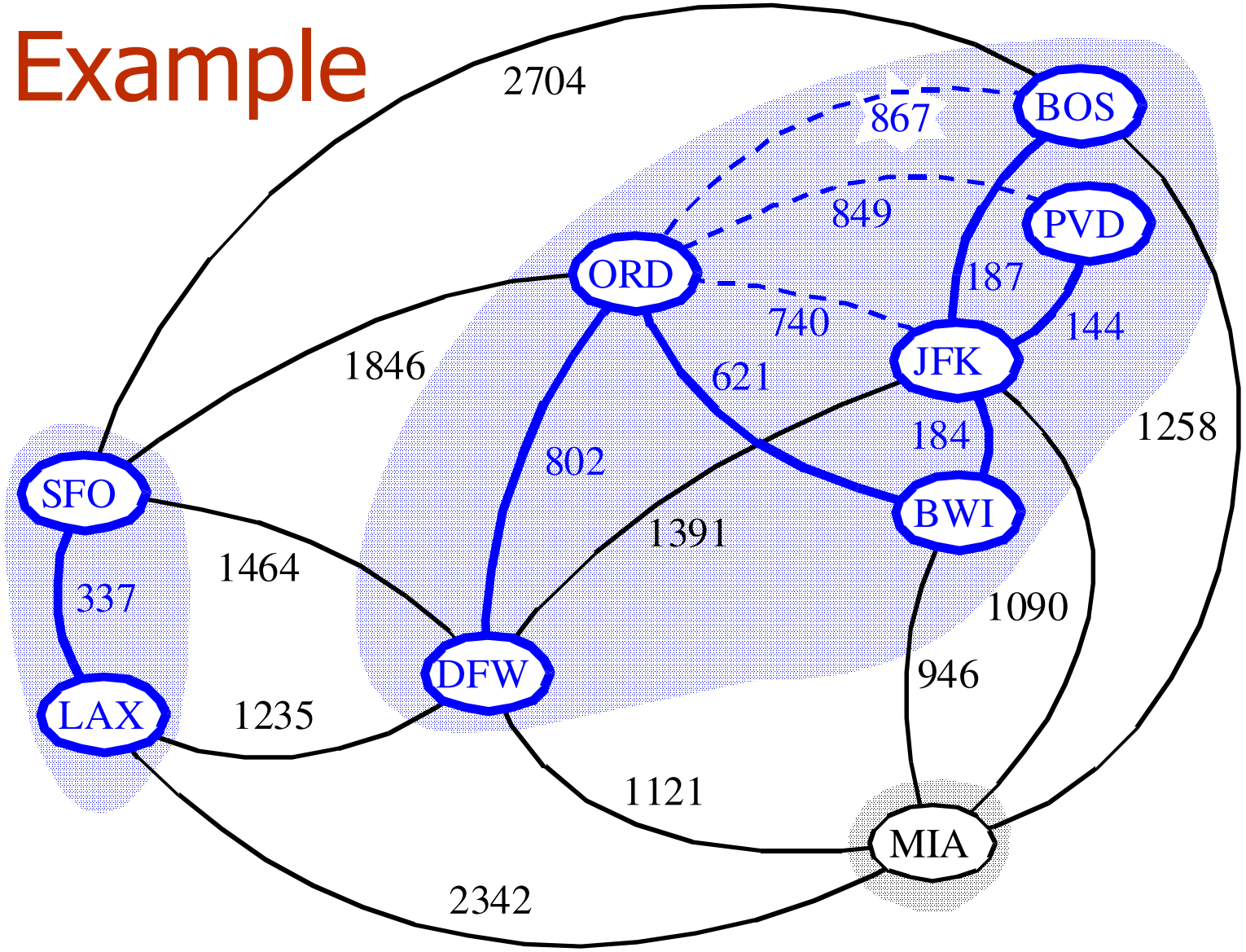
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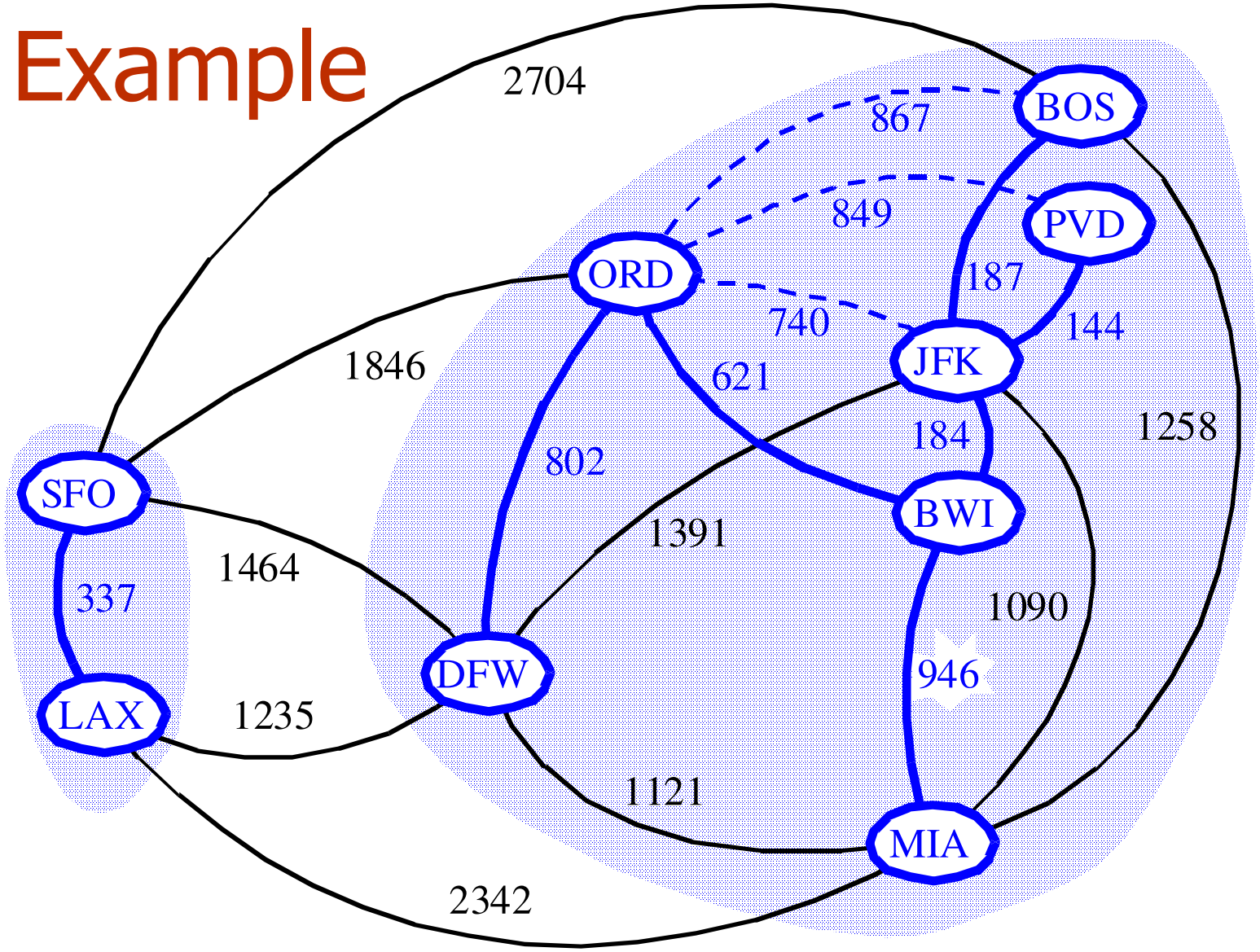
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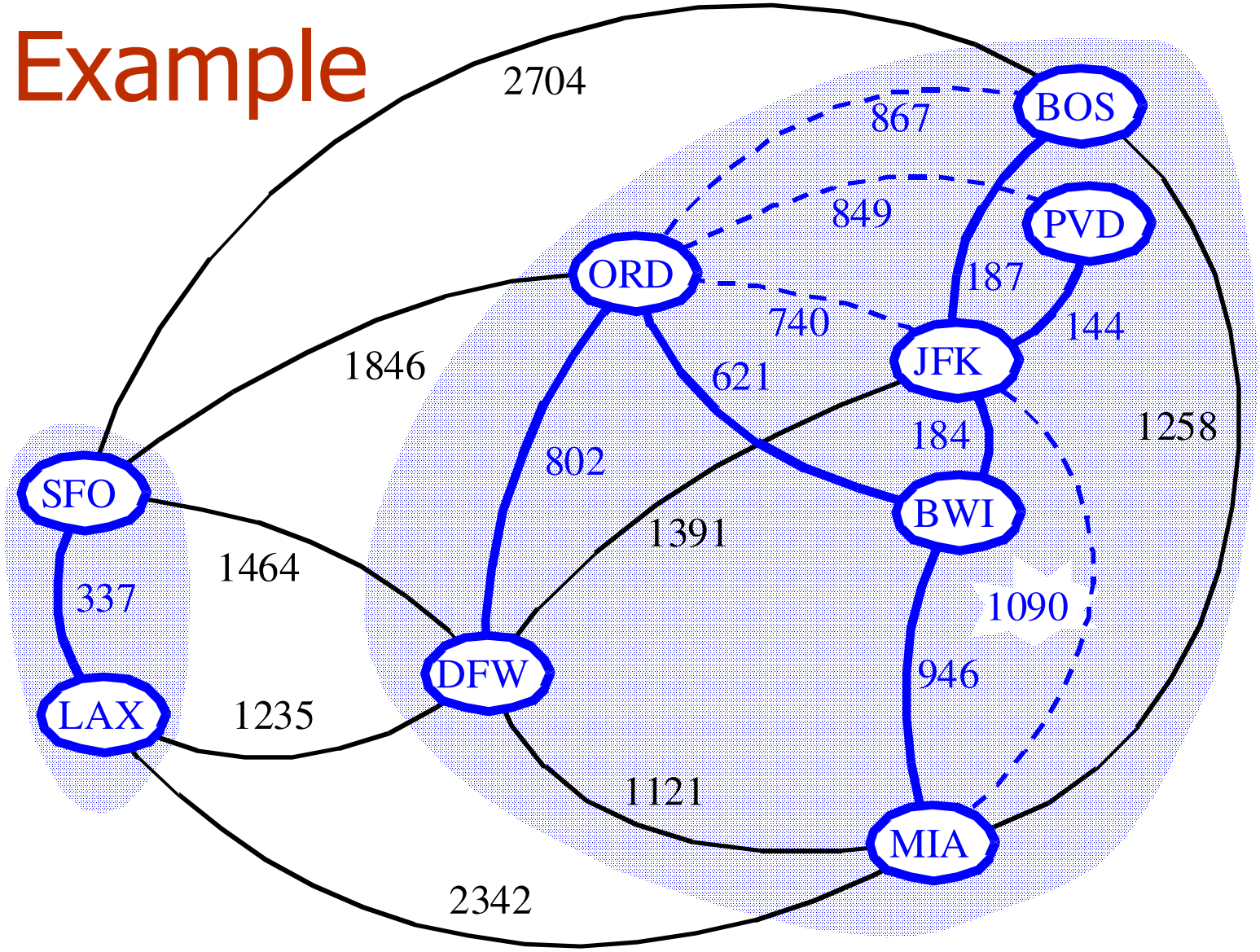
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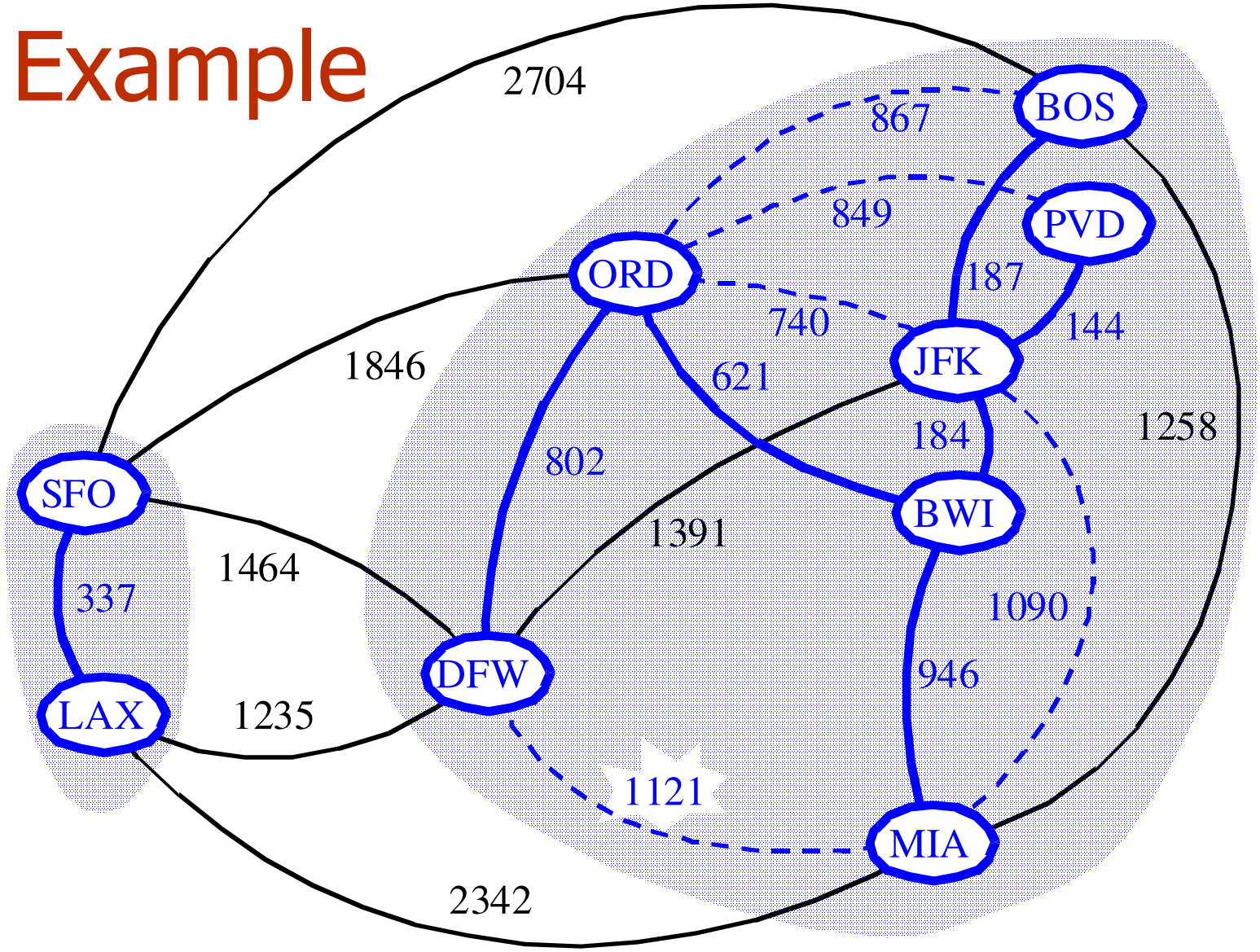
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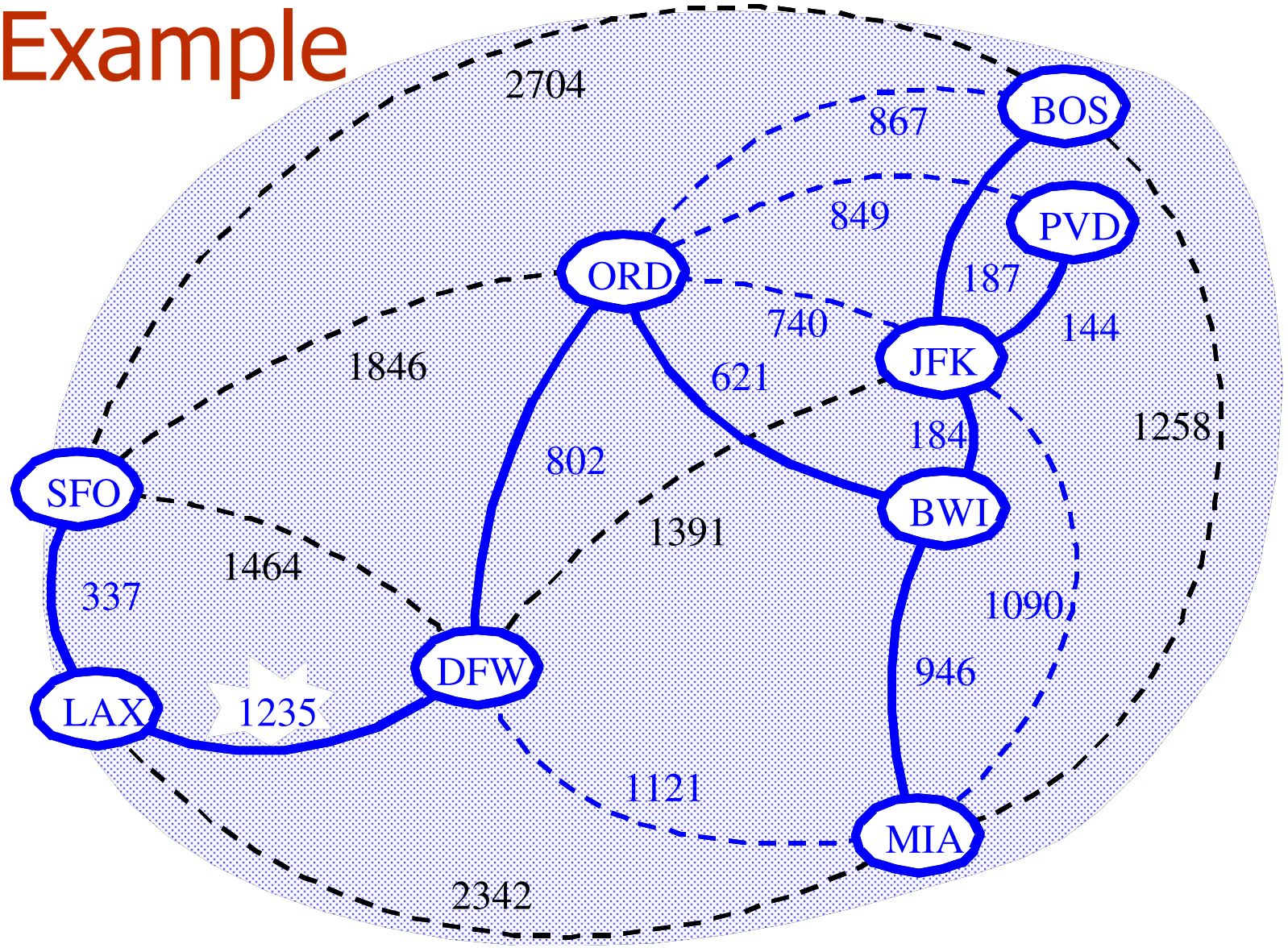
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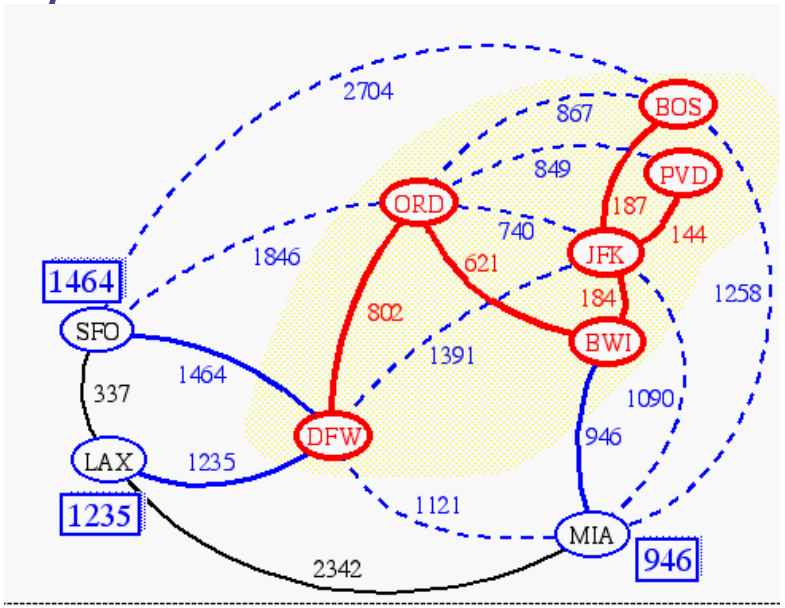
Prim-Jarnik's Algorithm

- Similar to Dijkstra's algorithm (for a connected graph)
- We pick an arbitrary vertex s and we grow the MST as a cloud of vertices, starting from s
- We store with each vertex v a label $d(v)$ = the smallest weight of an edge connecting v to a vertex in the cloud
- At each step:
  - We add to the cloud the vertex u outside the cloud with the smallest distance label
  - We update the labels of the vertices adjacent to u

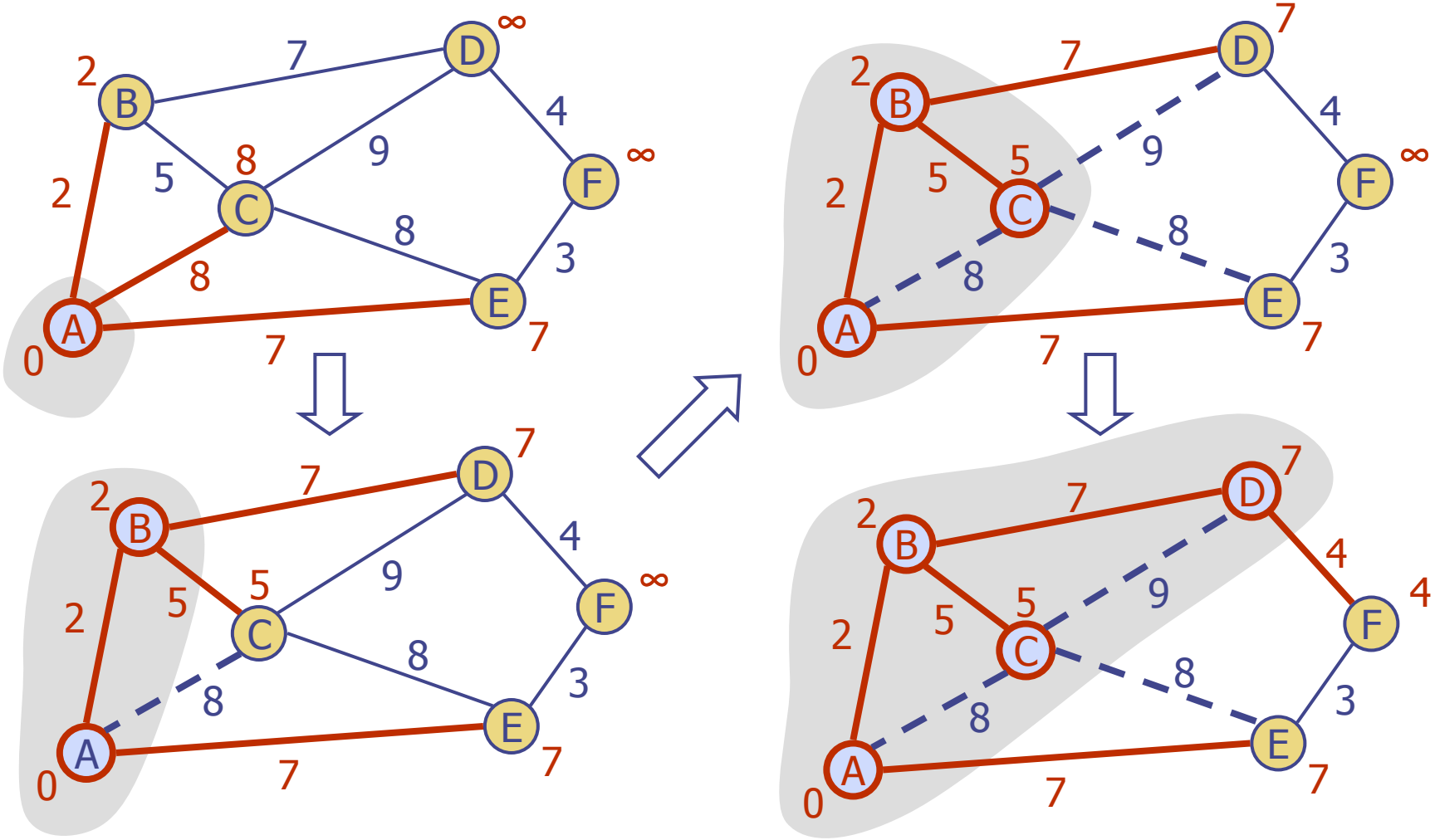


Prim-Jarnik's Algorithm (cont.)

- A priority queue stores the vertices outside the cloud
  - Key: distance
  - Element: vertex
- Locator-based methods
  - *insert*(*k*,*e*) returns a locator
  - *replaceKey*(*l*,*k*) changes the key of an item
- We store three labels with each vertex:
  - Distance
  - Parent edge in MST
  - Locator in priority queue

```
Algorithm PrimJarnikMST(G)
    Q ← new heap-based priority queue
    s ← a vertex of G
    for all v ∈ G.vertices()
        if v = s :      setDistance(v, 0)
        else :          setDistance(v, ∞)
        setParent(v, ∅)
        l ← Q.insert(getDistance(v), v)
        setLocator(v,l)
    while ¬Q.isEmpty()
        u ← Q.removeMin()
        for all e ∈ G.incidentEdges(u)
            z ← G.opposite(u,e)
            r ← weight(e)
            if r < getDistance(z)
                setDistance(z,r)
                setParent(z,e)
                Q.replaceKey(getLocator(z),r)
```

Example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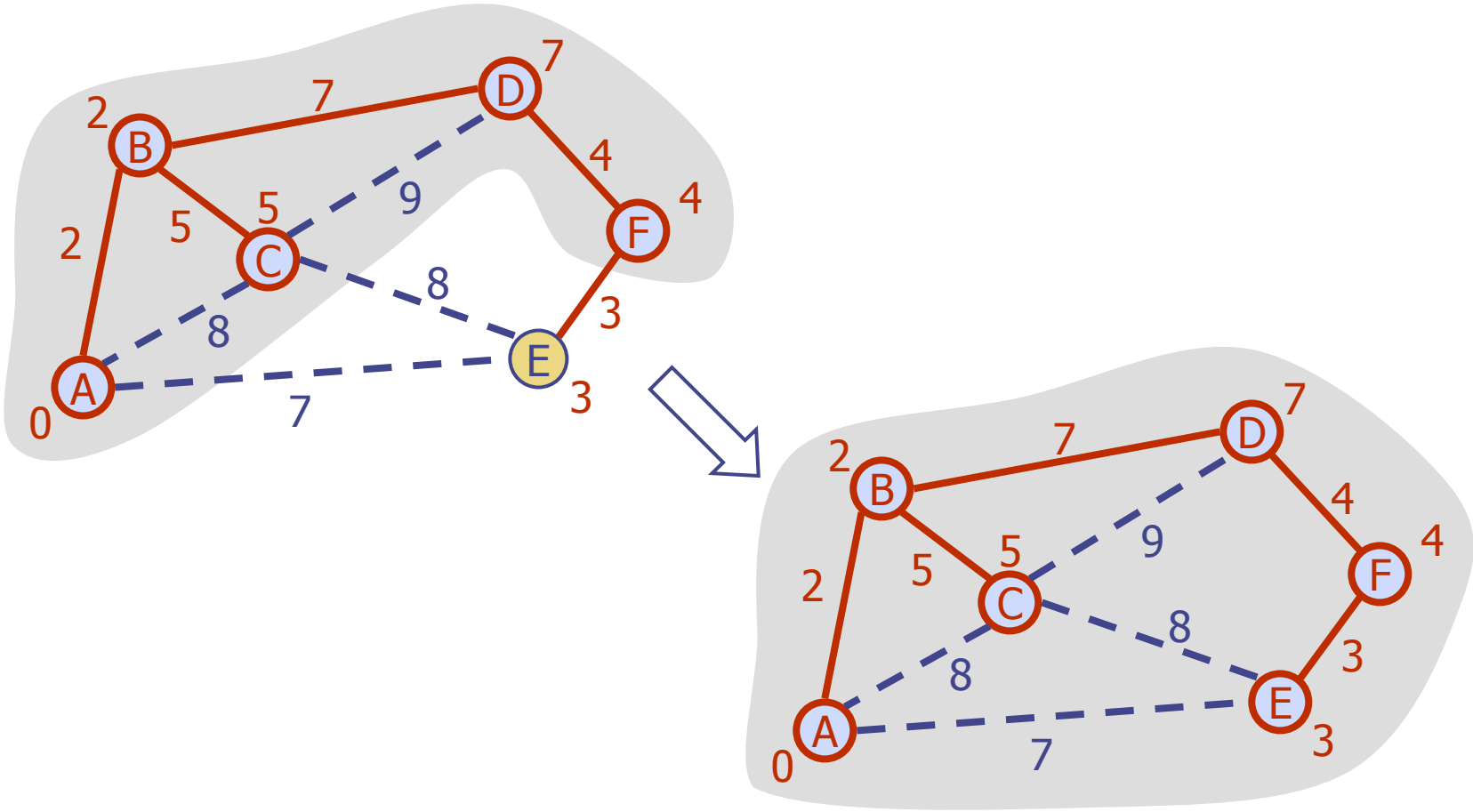
Example (contd.)



Analysis

- Graph operations
  - Method incidentEdges is called once for each vertex
- Label operations
  - We set/get the distance, parent and locator labels of vertex z $O(\deg(z))$ times
  - Setting/getting a label takes $O(1)$ time
- Priority queue operations
  - Each vertex is inserted once into and removed once from the priority queue, where each insertion or removal takes $O(\log n)$ time
  - The key of a vertex w in the priority queue is modified at most $\deg(w)$ times, where each key change takes $O(\log n)$ time
- Prim-Jarnik's algorithm runs in $O((n + m) \log n)$ time provided the graph is represented by the adjacency list structure
  - Recall that $\sum_v \deg(v) = 2m$
- The running time is $O(m \log n)$ since the graph is connected