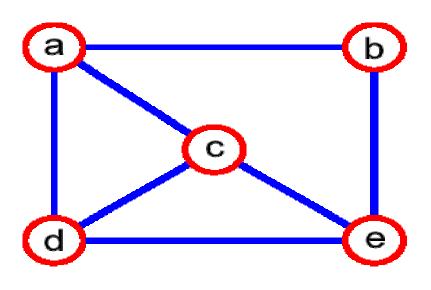
Next: Graph Algorithms

- Graphs Ch 22
- Graph representations
 - adjacency list
 - adjacency matrix
- Minimum Spanning Trees Ch 23
- Traversing graphs
 - Breadth-First Search
 - Depth-First Search

Graphs – Definition

- A graph G = (V,E) is composed of:
 - V: set of **vertices**
 - $E \subset V \times V$: set of edges connecting the vertices
- An edge e = (u,v) is a pair of vertices
- (u,v) is ordered, if G is a directed graph

 $\mathbf{V} = \{a,b,c,d,e\}$

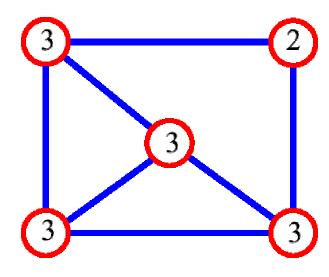


E= {(a,b),(a,c),(a,d), (b,e),(c,d),(c,e), (d,e)}

7/16/2013

Graph Terminology

- adjacent vertices: connected by an edge
- degree (of a vertex): # of adjacent vertices



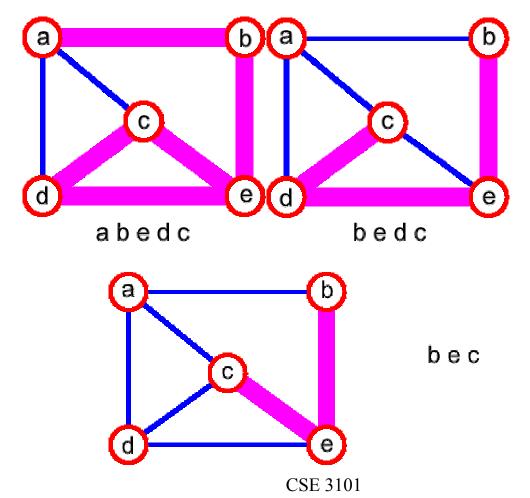
$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 2(\# \text{ of edges})$$

Since adjacent vertices each count the adjoining edge, it will be counted twice

path: sequence of vertices v₁, v₂, ... v_k such that consecutive vertices v_i and v_{i+1} are adjacent

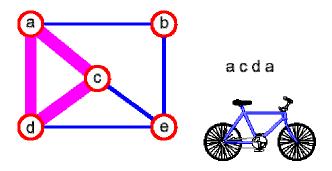
Graph Terminology (2)

• simple path: no repeated vertices

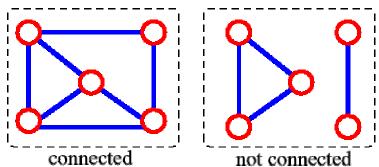


Graph Terminology (3)

• cycle: simple path, except that the last vertex is the same as the first vertex

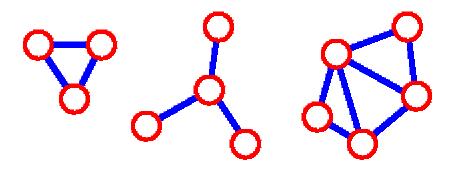


 connected graph: any two vertices are connected by some path



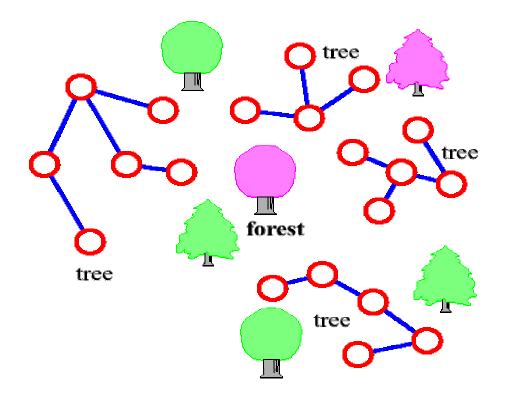
Graph Terminology (4)

- subgraph: subset of vertices and edges forming a graph
- connected component: maximal connected subgraph. E.g., the graph below has 3 connected components



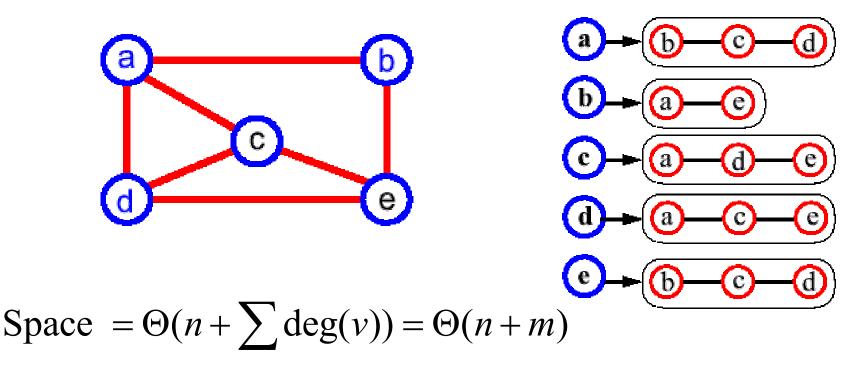
Graph Terminology (5)

- (free) tree connected graph without cycles
- forest collection of trees



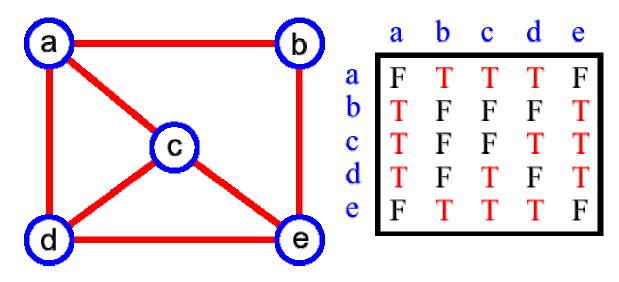
Data Structures for Graphs

- The Adjacency list of a vertex v: a sequence of vertices adjacent to v
- Represent the graph by the adjacency lists of all its vertices



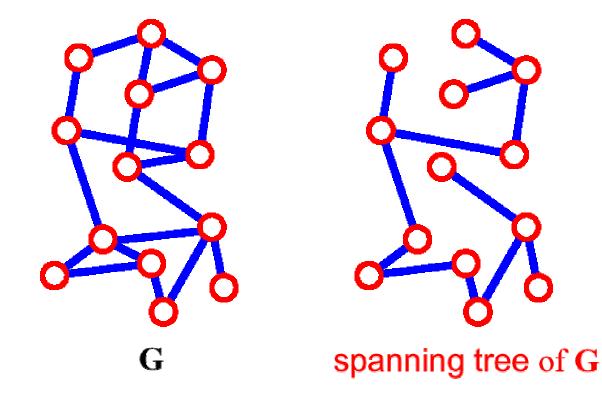
Data Structures for Graphs

- Adjacency matrix
- Matrix M with entries for all pairs of vertices
- M[i,j] = true there is an edge (i,j) in the graph
- M[i,j] = false there is no edge (i,j) in the graph
- Space = *O*(*n*²)



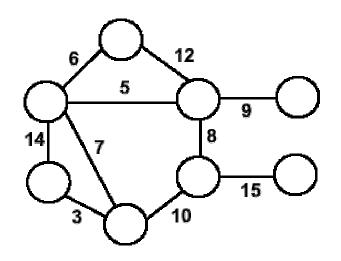
Spanning Tree

- A spanning tree of **G** is a subgraph which
 - is a tree
 - contains all vertices of G



Minimum Spanning Trees

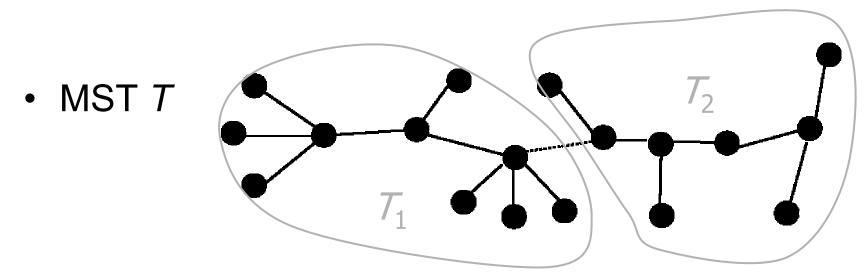
- Undirected, connected graph G = (V,E)
- Weight function W: E → R (assigning cost or length or other values to edges)



Spanning tree: tree that connects all vertices
Minimum spanning tree: tree that connects all the vertices and minimizes

$$w(T) = \sum_{(u,v)\in T} w(u,v)$$

Optimal Substructure



- Removing the edge (*u*,*v*) partitions *T* into *T*₁ and *T*₂ $w(T) = w(u,v) + w(T_1) + w(T_2)$
- We claim that T_1 is the MST of $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$, the subgraph of *G* induced by vertices in T_1
- Also, T_2 is the MST of G_2

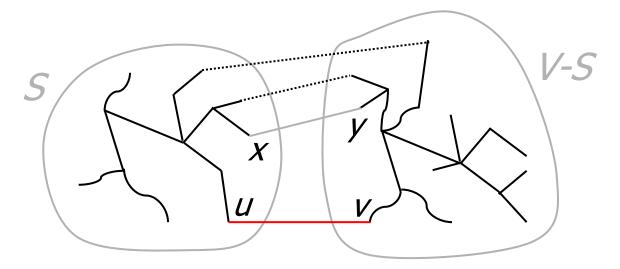
Greedy Choice

- Greedy choice property: locally optimal (greedy) choice yields a globally optimal solution
- Theorem
 - Let G=(V, E), and let $S \subseteq V$ and
 - let (u,v) be min-weight edge in *G* connecting *S* to V - S
 - Then $(u,v) \in T$ some MST of G

Greedy Choice (2)

Proof

- suppose $(u,v) \notin T$
- look at path from u to v in T
- swap (x, y) the first edge on path from u to v in T that crosses from S to V S
- this improves T contradiction (T supposed to be MST)



Generic MST Algorithm

Generic-MST(G, w)
1 A←Ø // Contains edges that belong to a MST
2 while A does not form a spanning tree do
3 Find an edge (u,v) that is safe for A
4 A←A∪{(u,v)}
5 return A

Safe edge – edge that does not destroy A's property

MoreSpecific-MST(G, W)

```
1 A \leftarrow \emptyset // Contains edges that belong to a MST

2 while A does not form a spanning tree do

3.1 Make a cut (S, V-S) of G that respects A

3.2 Take the min-weight edge (u,v) connecting S to V-S

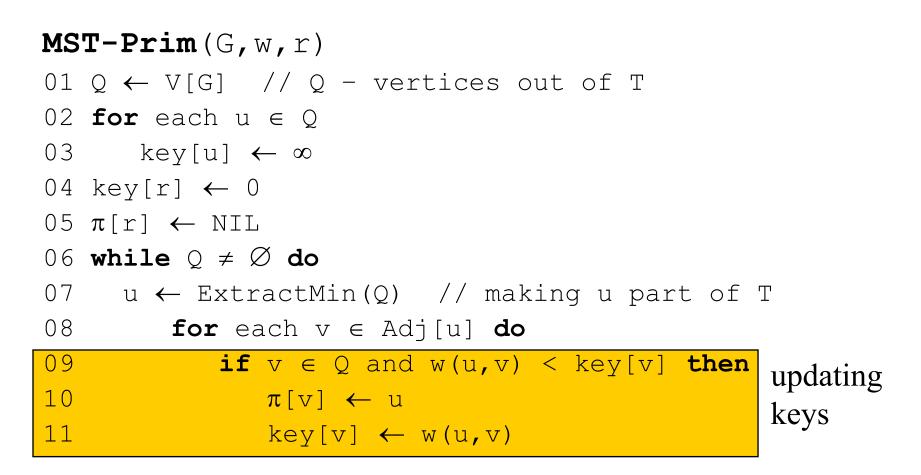
4 A \leftarrow A \cup \{(u,v)\}

5 return A
```

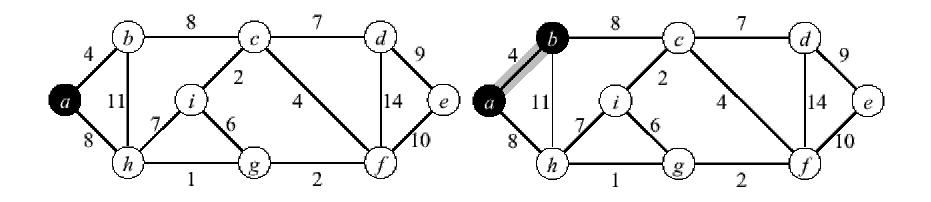
Prim's Algorithm

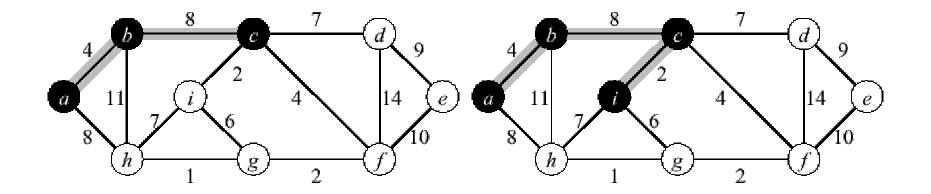
- Vertex based algorithm
- Grows one tree T, one vertex at a time
- A cloud covering the portion of T already computed
- Label the vertices v outside the cloud with key[v] – the minimum weight of an edge connecting v to a vertex in the cloud, key[v] = ∞, if no such edge exists

Prim's Algorithm (2)

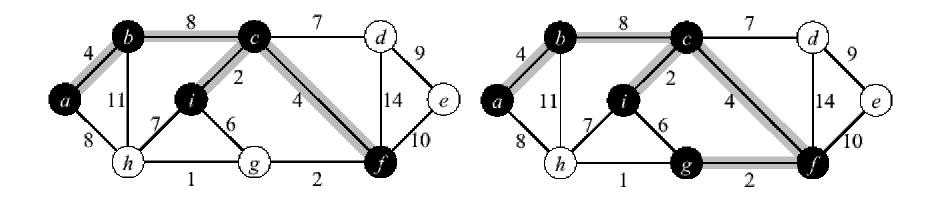


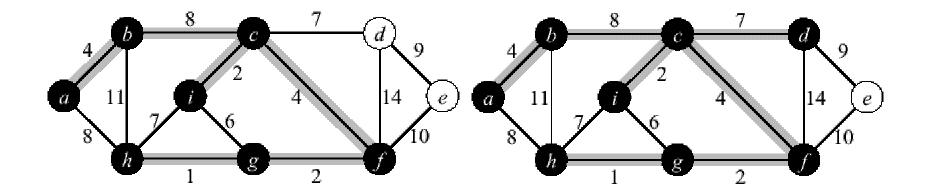
Prim Example



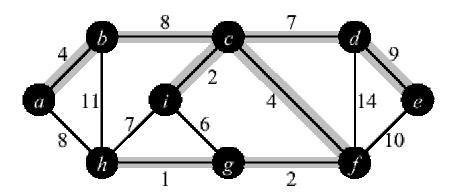


Prim Example (2)





Prim Example (3)



Priority Queues

- A priority queue is a data structure for maintaining a set S of elements, each with an associated value called key
- We need PQ to support the following operations
 - BuildPQ(S) initializes PQ to contain elements of S
 - ExtractMin(S) returns and removes the element of S with the smallest key
 - ModifyKey(S,x,newkey) changes the key of x in S
- A binary heap can be used to implement a PQ
 - BuildPQ O(n)
 - ExtractMin and ModifyKey O(lg n)

Prim's Running Time

- Time = |V|T(ExtractMin) + O(|E|)T(ModifyKey)
- Time = O(|V| |g|V| + |E| |g|V|) = O(|E| |g|V|)

Q	T(ExtractMin)	T(DecreaseKey)	Total
array	O(V)	O(1)	$O(V ^2)$
binary heap	O(lg <i>V</i>)	O(lg <i>V</i>)	O(<i>E</i> lg <i>V</i>)
Fibonacci heap	O(lg <i>V</i>)	O(1) amortized	O(V lg V + <i>E</i>)

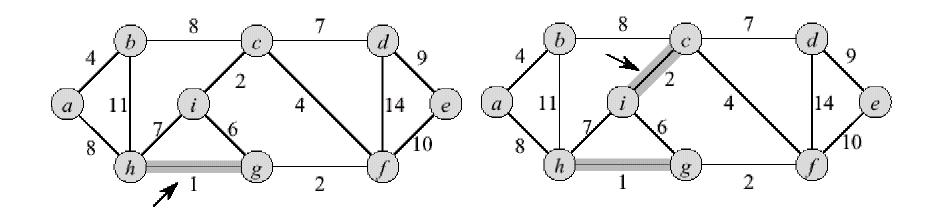
Kruskal's Algorithm

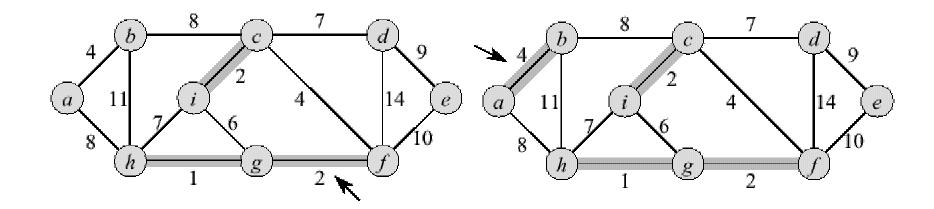
- Edge based algorithm
- Add the edges one at a time, in increasing weight order
- The algorithm maintains A a forest of trees.
 An edge is accepted it if connects vertices of distinct trees
- We need an ADT that maintains a partition, i.e., a collection of disjoint sets
 - MakeSet(S,x): $S \leftarrow S \cup \{\{x\}\}$
 - $\operatorname{Union}(S_i, S_j): S \leftarrow S \{S_i, S_j\} \cup \{S_i \cup S_j\}$
 - FindSet(S, x): returns unique $S_i \in S$, where $x \in S_i$

Kruskal's Algorithm

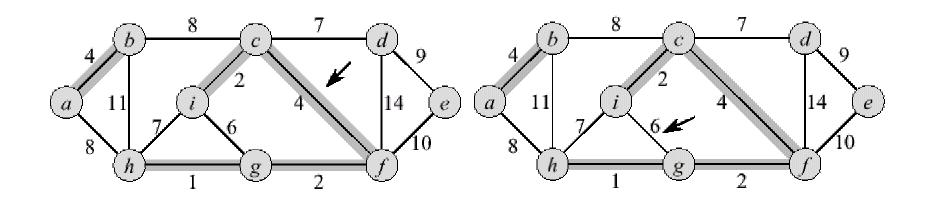
 The algorithm keeps adding the cheapest edge that connects two trees of the forest

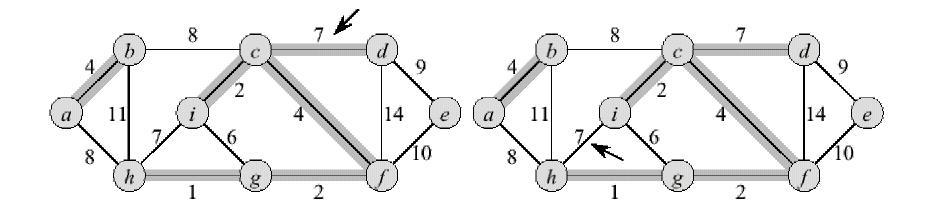
Kruskal's Algorithm: example



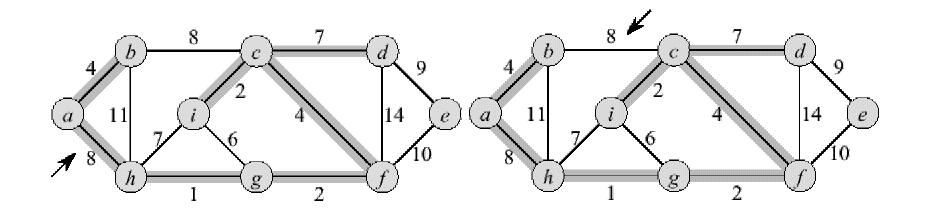


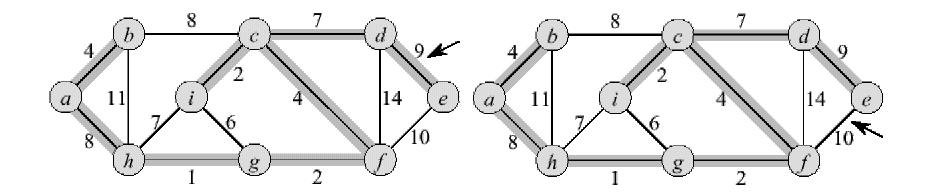
Kruskal's Algorithm: example (2)



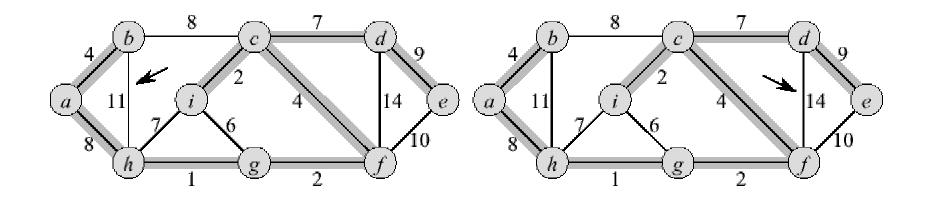


Kruskal's Algorithm: example (3)





Kruskal's Algorithm: example (4)



Kruskal running time

- Initialization O(|V|) time
- Sorting the edges Θ(|E| Ig |E|) = Θ(|E| Ig |V|) (why?)
- O(|E|) calls to FindSet
- Union costs
 - Let t(v) the number of times v is moved to a new cluster
 - Each time a vertex is moved to a new cluster the size of the cluster containing the vertex at least doubles: $t(v) \le \log |V|$

- Total time spent doing Union $\sum t(v) \le |V| \log |V|$

Total time: O(|E| lg |V|)

 $v \in V$

Next: Graph Algorithms

- Graphs
- Graph representations
 - adjacency list
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Graph Searching Algorithms

- Systematic search of every edge and vertex of the graph
- Graph G = (V,E) is either directed or undirected
- Today's algorithms assume an adjacency list representation
- Applications
 - Compilers
 - Graphics
 - Maze-solving
 - Mapping
 - Networks: routing, searching, clustering, etc.

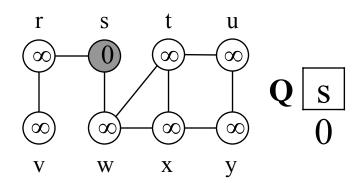
Breadth First Search

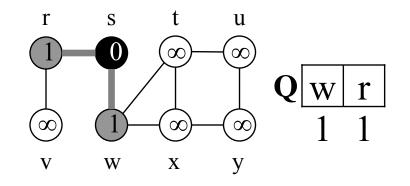
- A Breadth-First Search (BFS) traverses a connected component of a graph, and in doing so defines a spanning tree with several useful properties
- BFS in an **undirected** graph G is like wandering in a labyrinth with a string.
- The starting vertex *s*, it is assigned a distance 0.
- In the first round, the string is unrolled the length of one edge, and all of the edges that are only one edge away from the anchor are visited (discovered), and assigned distances of 1

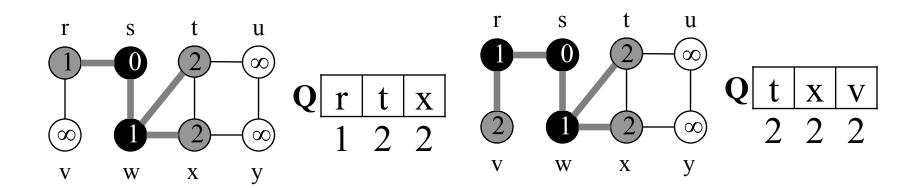
Breadth First Search (2)

- In the second round, all the new edges that can be reached by unrolling the string 2 edges are visited and assigned a distance of 2
- This continues until every vertex has been assigned a level
- The label of any vertex v corresponds to the length of the shortest path (in terms of edges) from s to v

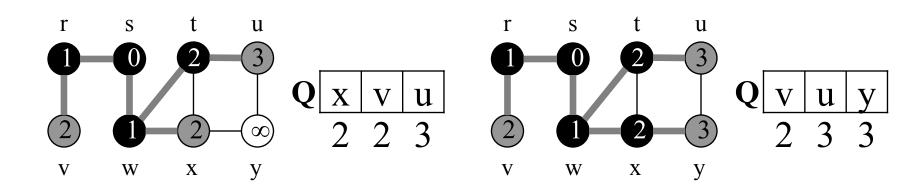
Breadth First Search: example

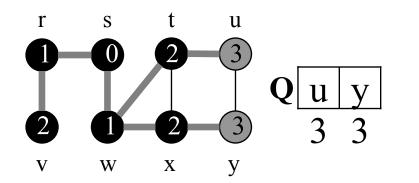


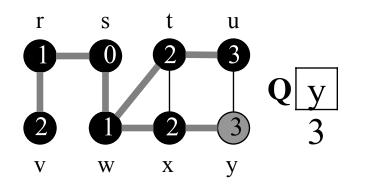




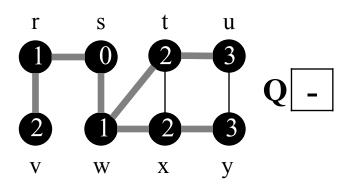
Breadth First Search: example







Breadth First Search: example



BFS Algorithm

```
BFS(G,s)
```

01 for each vertex $u \in V[G] - \{s\}$	
02 color[u] ← white	Trait all
03 d[u] $\leftarrow \infty$	Init all
$04 \pi[u] \leftarrow \text{NIL}$	vertice
05 color[s] ← gray	
06 d[s] ← 0	Init BF
$07 \pi[u] \leftarrow \text{NIL}$	
08 Q ← {s}	with <i>s</i>
09 while $Q \neq \emptyset$ do	
10 u ← head[Q]	Handle
11 for each $v \in Adj[u]$ do	
12 if color[v] = white then	childre
13 $color[v] \leftarrow gray$	before
$14 d[v] \leftarrow d[u] + 1$	
15 $\pi[v] \leftarrow u$	handlir
16 Enqueue (Q, v)	childre
17 Dequeue (Q)	
18 color[u] ← black	childre

tices it BFS th s ndle all us ildren fore ndling any ildren of ildren

BFS Algorithm: running time

- Given a graph G = (V,E)
 - Vertices are enqueued if there color is white
 - Assuming that en- and dequeuing takes O(1) time the total cost of this operation is O(|V|)
 - Adjacency list of a vertex is scanned when the vertex is dequeued (and only then...)
 - The sum of the lengths of all lists is O(|E|).
 Consequently, O(|E|) time is spent on scanning them
 - Initializing the algorithm takes O(|V|)
- Total running time O(|V|+|E|) (linear in the size of the adjacency list representation of G)

BFS Algorithm: properties

- Given a graph G = (V,E), BFS discovers all vertices reachable from a source vertex s
- It computes the shortest distance to all reachable vertices
- It computes a **breadth-first tree** that contains all such reachable vertices
- For any vertex v reachable from s, the path in the breadth first tree from s to v, corresponds to a shortest path in G

BFS Tree

• Predecessor subgraph of G

$$\begin{split} G_{\pi} &= (V_{\pi}, E_{\pi}) \\ V_{\pi} &= \left\{ v \in V : \pi[v] \neq NIL \right\} \cup \left\{ s \right\} \\ E_{\pi} &= \left\{ (\pi[v], v) \in E : v \in V_{\pi} - \{s\} \right\} \end{split}$$

- G_p is a breadth-first tree
 - $-V_p$ consists of the vertices reachable from s, and
 - for all $v \in V_p$, there is a unique simple path from s to v in G_p that is also a shortest path from s to v in G
- The edges in G_p are called tree edges

Depth-first search (DFS)

- A depth-first search (DFS) in an undirected graph G is like wandering in a labyrinth with a string and a can of paint
 - We start at vertex s, tying the end of our string to the point and painting s "visited (discovered)".
 Next we label s as our current vertex called u
 - Now, we travel along an arbitrary edge (u,v).
 - If edge (*u*,*v*) leads us to an already visited vertex *v* we return to *u*
 - If vertex v is unvisited, we unroll our string, move to v, paint v "visited", set v as our current vertex, and repeat the previous steps

Depth-first search (2)

- Eventually, we will get to a point where all incident edges on u lead to visited vertices
- We then **backtrack** by unrolling our string to a previously visited vertex *v*. Then *v* becomes our current vertex and we repeat the previous steps
- Then, if all incident edges on v lead to visited vertices, we backtrack as we did before. We continue to backtrack along the path we have traveled, finding and exploring unexplored edges, and repeating the procedure

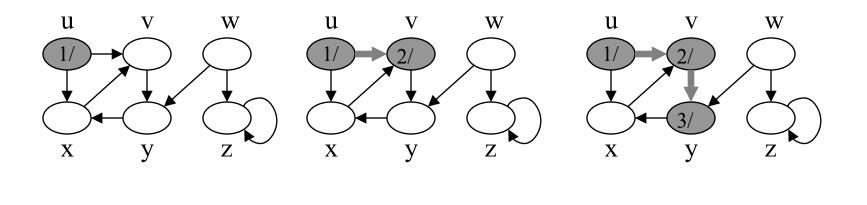
Depth-first search algorithm

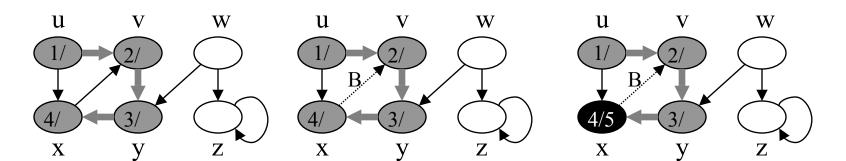
- Initialize color all vertices white
- Visit each and every white vertex using DFS-Visit
- Each call to DFS-Visit(u) roots a new tree of the depth-first forest at vertex u
- A vertex is **white** if it is undiscovered
- A vertex is **gray** if it has been discovered but not all of its edges have been discovered
- A vertex is **black** after all of its adjacent vertices have been discovered (the adj. list was examined completely)

Depth-first search algorithm (2)

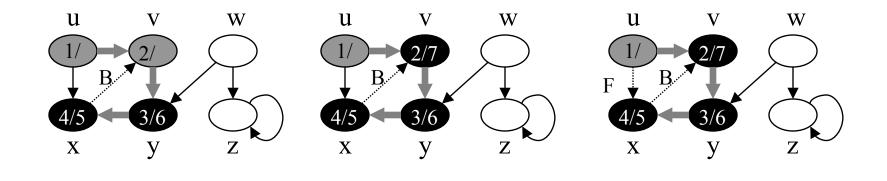
DFS(G)1 for each vertex $u \in V[G]$ Init all 2 do $color[u] \leftarrow WHITE$ vertices $3 time \leftarrow 0$ 4 for each vertex $u \in V[G]$ do if color[u] = WHITE5 then DFS-VISIT(u)6 DFS-VISIT(u) $1 \ color[u] \leftarrow GRAY$ \triangleright White vertex *u* discovered. $2 d[u] \leftarrow time$ \triangleright Mark with discovery time. $3 time \leftarrow time + 1$ \triangleright Tick global time. Visit all 4 for each $v \in Adj[u]$ \triangleright Explore all edges (u, v). children 5 do if color[v] = WHITEthen DFS-VISIT(v)recursively 6 $7 \ color[u] \leftarrow \text{BLACK}$ \triangleright Blacken u; it is finished. \triangleright Mark with finishing time. $8 f[u] \leftarrow time$ 9 time \leftarrow time + 1 \triangleright Tick global time.

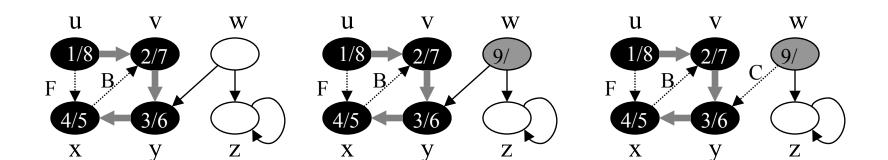
Depth-first search example



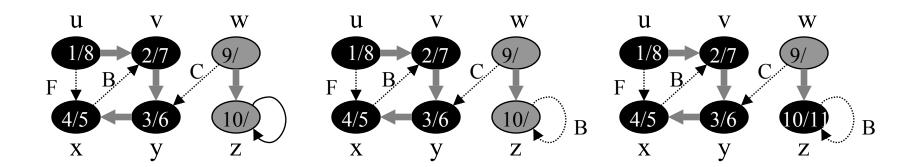


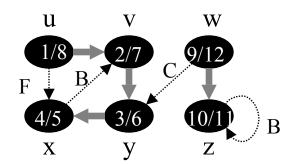
Depth-first search example (2)





Depth-first search example (3)





Depth-first search example (4)

- When DFS returns, every vertex u is assigned
 - a discovery time d[u], and a finishing time f[u]
- Running time
 - the loops in DFS take time $\Theta(\mathrm{V})$ each, excluding the time to execute DFS-Visit
 - DFS-Visit is called once for every vertex
 - its only invoked on white vertices, and
 - paints the vertex gray immediately
 - for each DFS-visit a loop interates over all Adj[v]
 - the total cost for DFS-Visit is $\Theta(E)$

$$\sum_{v \in V} \left| A dj[v] \right| = \Theta(E)$$

– the running time of DFS is $\Theta(V+E)$

Predecessor Subgraph

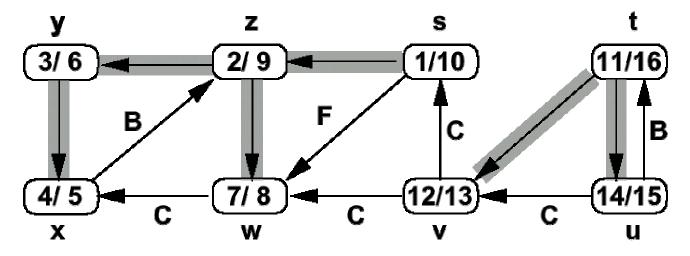
• Defined slightly different from BFS

$$G_{\pi} = (V, E_{\pi})$$
$$E_{\pi} = \left\{ (\pi[v], v) \in E : v \in V \text{ and } \pi[v] \neq \text{NIL} \right\}$$

- The PD subgraph of a depth-first search forms a depth-first forest composed of several depth-first trees
- The edges in G_p are called tree edges

DFS Timestamping

- The DFS algorithm maintains a monotonically increasing global clock
 – discovery time d[u] and finishing time f[u]
- For every vertex u, the inequality d[u] < f[u] must hold



CSE 3101

DFS Timestamping

- Vertex *u* is
 - white before time d[u]
 - gray between time d[u] and time f[u], and
 - black thereafter
- Notice the structure througout the algorithm.
 - gray vertices form a linear chain
 - correponds to a stack of vertices that have not been exhaustively explored (DFS-Visit started but not yet finished)

DFS Parenthesis Theorem

- Discovery and finish times have parenthesis structure
 - represent discovery of *u* with left parenthesis "(u"
 - represent finishin of *u* with right parenthesis "u)"
 - history of discoveries and finishings makes a wellformed expression (parenthesis are properly nested)
- Intuition for proof: any two intervals are either disjoint or enclosed
 - Overlaping intervals would mean finishing ancestor, before finishing descendant or starting descendant without starting ancestor