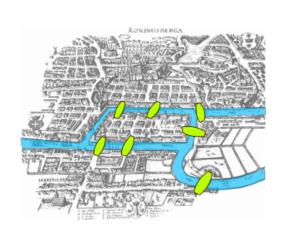
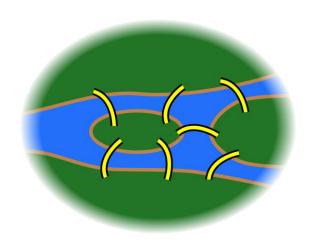
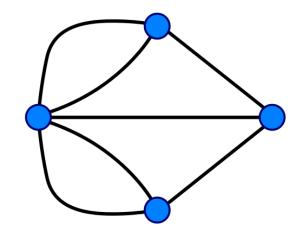
Lecture 9: Graph

Seven Bridges of Königsberg

City A was set on both sides of the River, and included two large islands which were connected to each other by seven bridges. The problem was to devise a walk through the city that would cross each of those bridges once and only once.







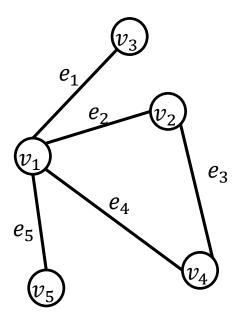
◆ Eulerian path (In Chinese: 一笔画问题)

Our Roadmap

- Graph Concepts
- Graph Traversal
 - Breath First Search (SSSP)
 - Depth First Search (DAG, topological sort)
- Shortest Path Algorithm (SP)
- Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)
- Strongly Connected Component (SCC)

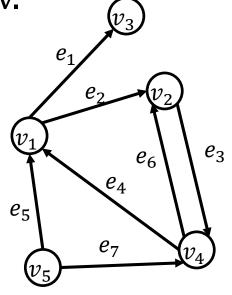
Undirected Graph

- An undirected graph is a pair of (V, E) where:
 - V is a set of elements, each of which called a node
 - E is a set of unordered pairs{u,v} such that u and v are nodes
- A node may also be called a vertex. We will refer to V as the vertex set or the node set of graph, and E the edge set.
- Example:
 - $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$
 - $\bullet E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5\}$



Directed Graph

- An directed graph is a pair of (V, E) where:
 - V is a set of elements, each of which called a node
 - E is a set of unordered pairs{u,v} where u and v are nodes, we say there is a directed edge from u to v.
- A directed edge (u,v) is said to be an outgoing edge of u, and incoming edge of v. Accordingly, v is an outneighbor of u, and u is in-neighbor of v.
- Note that every edge has a direction.
- Example:
 - $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$
 - $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6, e_7\}$
 - $\bullet e_3 = \{v_2, v_4\}$
 - $e_6 = \{v_4, v_2\}$

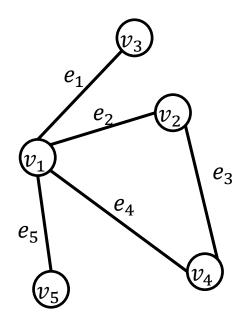


Definitions in Graph

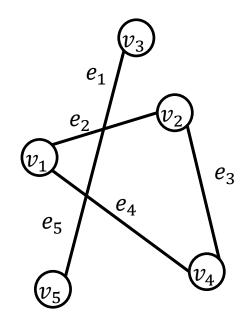
- Let G = (V, E) be a graph. A path in G is a sequence of nodes $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$ such that
 - ⋄ For every $i \in [1, k]$, there is an edge between v_i and v_{i+1} .
- * A cycle in G is a path $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$ such that $k \ge 4$ and $v_1 = v_k$.
- Example:
 - Cycle: (v_1, v_2, v_4, v_1) ; Path: (v_5, v_1, v_2, v_4)
- In an undirected graph, the degree of vertex u is the number of edges of u
- In a directed graph, the out-degree of a vertex u is the number of outgoing edges of u, and its in-degree is the number of its incoming edges

Connected Graph

An undirected graph G=(V,E) is connected if, for any two distinct vertices u and v, G has a path from u to v.



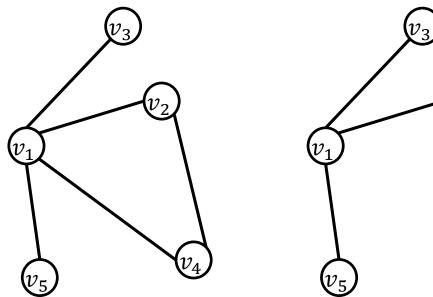
connected



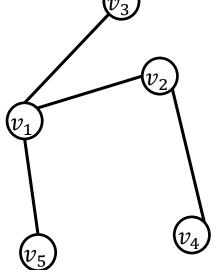
not connected

Graph vs. Tree vs. Forest

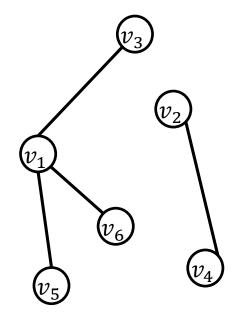
- A tree is a connected undirected graph contains no cycles.
- Forest is a set of disjoint trees.



Graph, not tree



Graph, tree



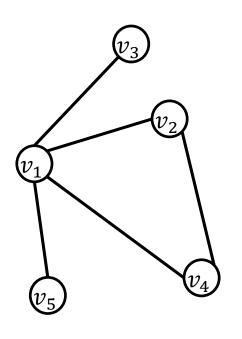
Graph, forest

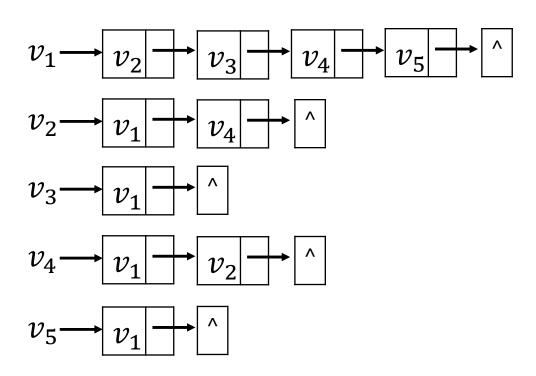
Graph Representation

- We discuss two common way to store a graph:
 - Adjacency list
 - Adjacency matrix
- In both cases, we represent each vertex in V using a unique id in 1, 2, ..., |V|

Adjacency List: Undirected G

 \bullet Each vertex $u \in V$ is associated with a linked list that enumerates all the vertices that are connected to u.

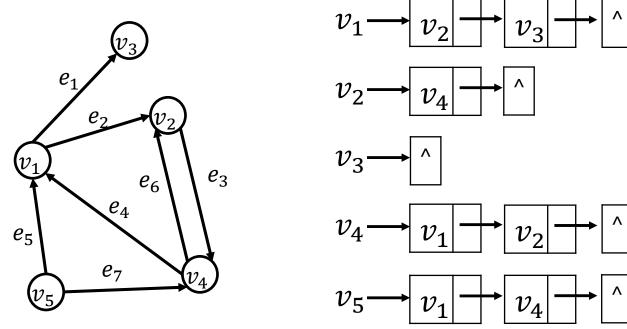




 \bullet Space = O(|V|+|E|)

Adjacency List: Directed G

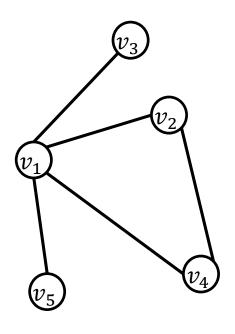
⋄ Each vertex u ∈ V is associated with a linked list that enumerates all the vertices v ∈ V that there is an edge from u to v.



 \bullet Space = O(|V| + |E|)

Adjacency Matrix: Undirected G

♦ A $|V|^*|V|$ matrix A where A[u,v] = 1 if (u, v) ∈ E, or 0 otherwise

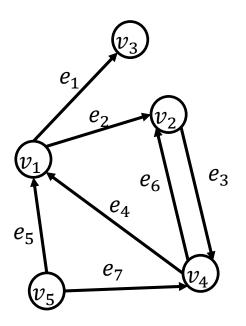


	v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5
v_1	0	1	1	1	1
v_2	1	0	0	1	0
v_3	1	0	0	0	0
v_4	1	1	0	0	0
v_5	1	0	0	0	0

- A must be symmetric
- \bullet Space = $O(|V|^2)$

Adjacency Matrix: Directed G

Defined in the same way as in the undirected graph



	v_1	v_2	v_3	v_4	v_5
v_1	0	1	1	0	0
v_2	0	0	0	1	0
v_3	0	0	0	0	0
v_4	1	1	0	0	0
v_5	1	0	0	1	0

- A may not be symmetric.
- Space = $O(|V|^2)$

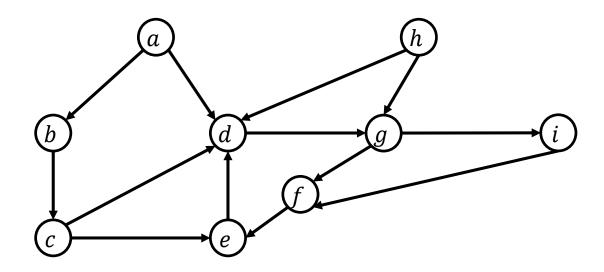
Our Roadmap

- Graph Concepts
- Graph Traversal
 - Breath First Search (SSSP)
 - Depth First Search (DAG, topological sort)
- Shortest Path Algorithms (SP)
- Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)
- Strongly Connected Component (SCC)

Shortest Path

- Let G = (V, E) be a directed graph. A path in G is a sequence of nodes $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$ such that
 - ⋄ For every $i \in [1, k]$, there is an edge between v_i and v_{i+1} .
 - \bullet E.g., (v_1, v_2) , (v_2, v_3) , ..., (v_{k-1}, v_k)
 - \diamond Sometimes, we also denote the path as $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_k$
- ♦ The path is said to be from v_1 to v_k , the length of the path is k-1.
- Given two vertices $u, v \in V$, a shortest path from u to v is a path from u to v that has the minimum length among all the paths from u to v.
- If there is no path from u to v, then v is said to be unreachable from u.

Shortest Path Example



- There are several path from a to g:
 - \diamond a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow g (length 4)
 - \diamond a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow e \rightarrow d \rightarrow g (length 5)
 - \diamond a \rightarrow d \rightarrow g (length 2)
- The last one is a shortest path. In this case, the shortest path is unique.
- Note that h is unreachable from a.

Single Source Shortest Path

- ♦ Let G=(V,E) be a directed graph with unit weight in each edge, and s be a vertex in V. The goal of the single source shortest path (SSSP) problem is to find, the every other vertex $t \in V \setminus \{s\}$, a shortest path from s to t, unless t is unreachable from s.
- Next, we will describe the breadth first search (BFS) algorithm to solve the problem in O(|V|+|E|) time, which is clearly optimal (because any algorithm must at least see every vertex and every edge once in the worst case).

Single Source Shortest Path

- How do you solve it?
- At first glance, this may look surprising because the total length of all the shortest path may reach $\Omega(|V|^2)$ even when |E|=O(|V|)! So shouldn't the algorithm need $\Omega(|V|^2)$ time just to output all these shortest paths in the worst case?
- The answer, interestingly, is no. As will see, BFS encodes all the shortest paths in a BFS tree compactly, which uses only O(|V|) space, and can be output in O(|V|+|E|) time.

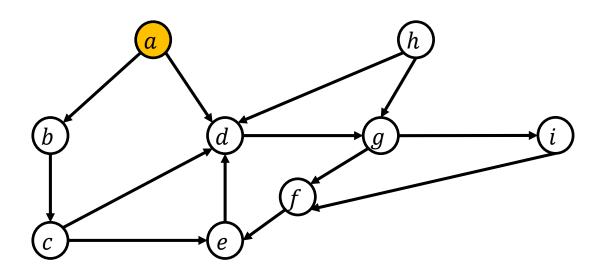
Breadth First Search

At the beginning, color all vertices in graph white. And create an empty BFS tree T.

 Create a queue Q. Insert the source vertex s into Q, and color it yellow (which means "in the queue")

Make s the root of T.

Suppose that source vertex is a.



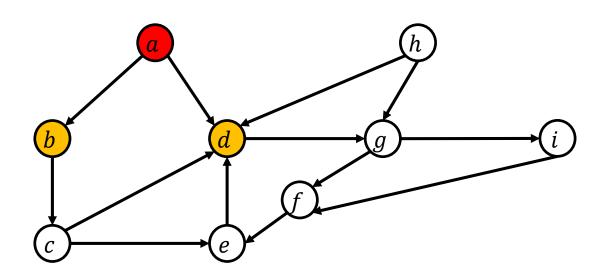
BFS tree

 \boldsymbol{a}

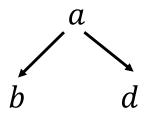
Q = (a)

- Repeat the following until Q is empty
 - De-queue from Q the first vertex v
 - For every out-neighbor u of v that is still white
 - 2.1 Enqueue u into Q, and color u yellow
 - 2.2 Make u a child of v in the BFS tree T.
 - Color v red (meaning v is visited)

After de-queuing a:

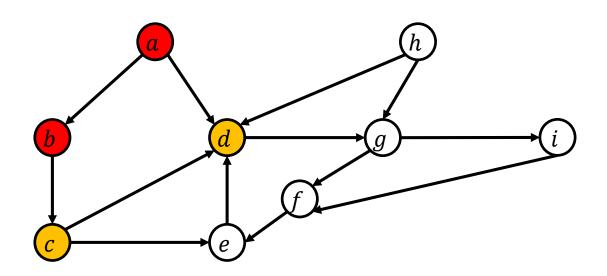


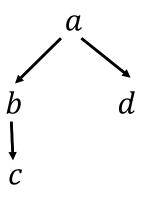
BFS tree



Q = (b, d)

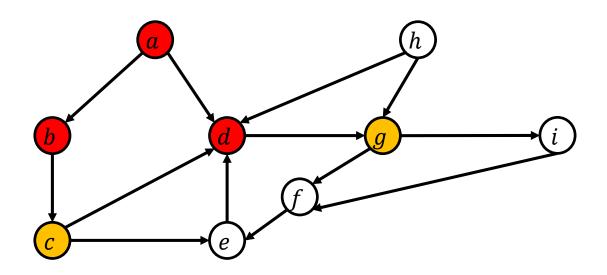
After dequeuing b:

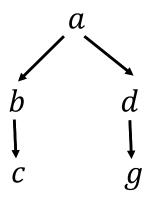




$$Q = (d, c)$$

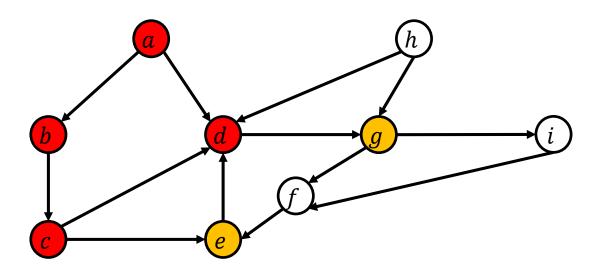
After dequeuing d:

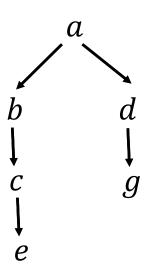




$$Q = (c, g)$$

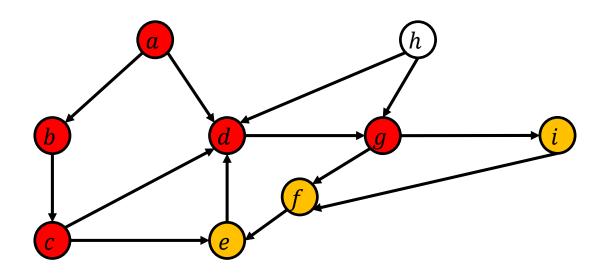
After dequeuing c:

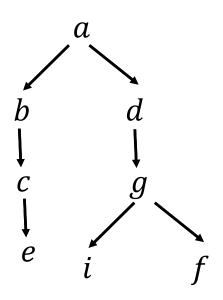




- Q = (g, e)
- d is not enqueue again as it is red now

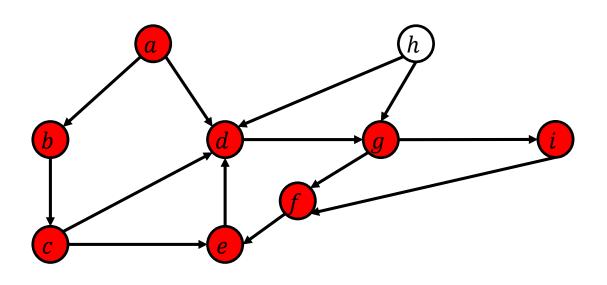
After dequeuing g:

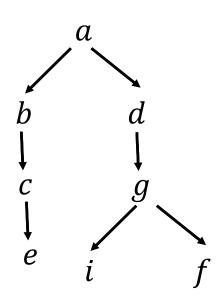




$$Q = (e, i, f)$$

After dequeuing e, i, f

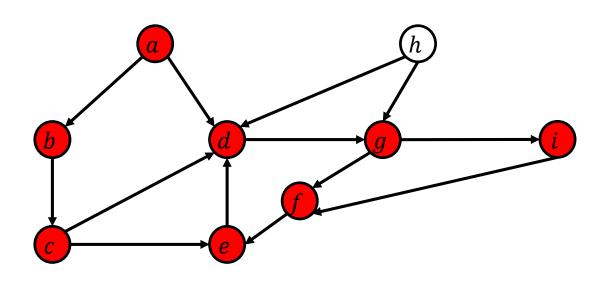


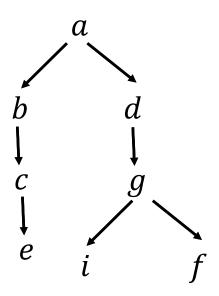


- Q = ()
- This is the end of BFS. Note that h remains white: we can conclude that it is not reachable from a.

SSSP solution

Where are the shortest paths?





- The shortest path from a to any vertex x is simply the path from a to node x in the BFS tree!.
 - Proof?

Complexity Analysis

• When a vertex v is dequeued, we spend $O(1+d^+(v))$ time processing it, where $d^+(v)$ is the out-degree of v.

Clearly, every vertex enters the queue at most once.

The total running time of BFS is therefore:

$$O\left(\sum_{v \in V} (1 + d^{+}(v))\right) = O(|V| + |E|)$$

Our Roadmap

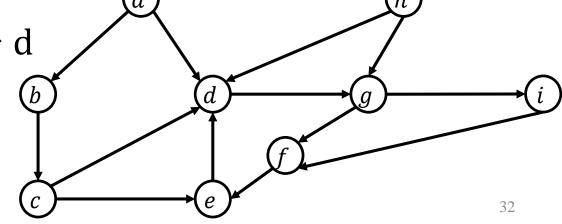
- Graph Concepts
- Graph Traversal
 - Breath First Search (SSSP)
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- Strongly Connected Component (SCC)

Depth First Search

- We have already learnt breadth first search (BFS). Today, we will discuss its "sister version": the depth first search (DFS) algorithm. Our discussion will once again focus on directed graphs, because the extension to undirected graphs is straight forward.
- DFS is surprisingly powerful algorithm, and solves several classic problem elegantly. In this lecture, we will see one such problem: detecting whether the input graph contains cycles.

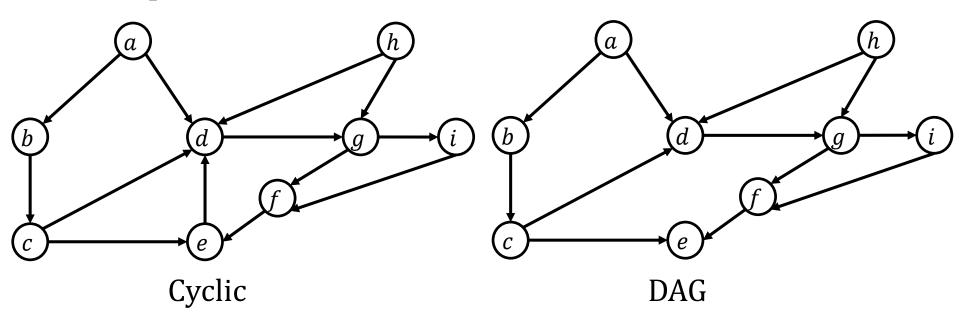
Path and Cycles

- Recall: let G = (V, E) be a directed graph. A path in G is a sequence of nodes $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$ such that
 - ⋄ For every $i \in [1, k]$, there is an edge between v_i and v_{i+1} .
 - \bullet E.g., (v_1, v_2) , (v_2, v_3) , ..., (v_{k-1}, v_k)
 - \diamond Sometimes, we also denote the path as $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_k$
- A cycle in G is a path $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$ such that $k \ge 4$ and $v_1 = v_k$.
- Example:
- \bullet d \rightarrow g \rightarrow i \rightarrow f \rightarrow e \rightarrow d
- \bullet d \rightarrow g \rightarrow f \rightarrow e \rightarrow d



Directed Acyclic/Cyclic Graph

- If a directed graph contains no cycles, we say that it is a directed acyclic graph (DAG). Otherwise, G is Cyclic.
- DAG is extremely important concept in Computer Science, e.g., spark, tensorflow
- 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 edge once in the worst case).
- Just like BFS, the DFS algorithm also outputs a tree, called the DFS-tree. This tree contains vital information about the input graph that allows us to decide whether the input graph is a DAG.

Depth First Search

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

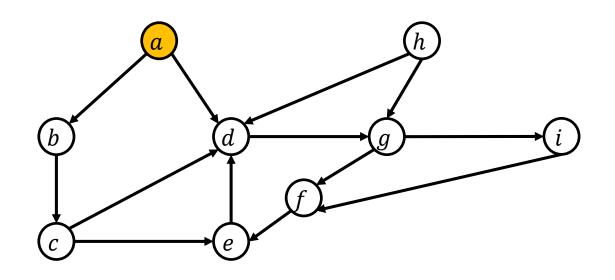
- Create a stack S. Pick an arbitrary vertex v. Push v into S, and color it yellow (which means "in the stack")
 - What is the difference between BFS and DFS underlying data structure?
 - \bullet BFS \rightarrow Queue, DFS \rightarrow Stack
- Make v the root of T

Depth First Search Example

Suppose we start from a.

DFS tree

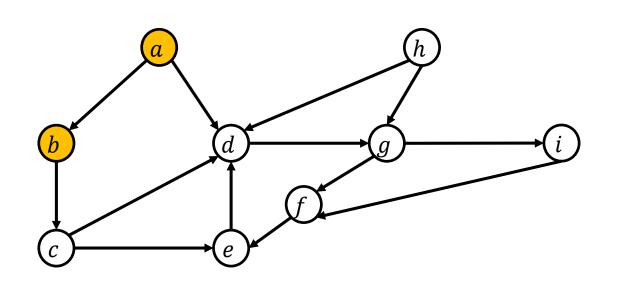
 \boldsymbol{a}



 \diamond S = (a)

- Repeat the following until S is empty
 - Let v be the vertex that currently tops the stack S (do not remove v from S)
 - Does v still have a white out-neighbor
 - 2.1 If yes: let it be u.
 - Push u into S, and color u yellow
 - Make u a child of v in the DFS-tree T
 - 2.2 If no, pop v from S, and color v red (meaning v is visited)
 - 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'.

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

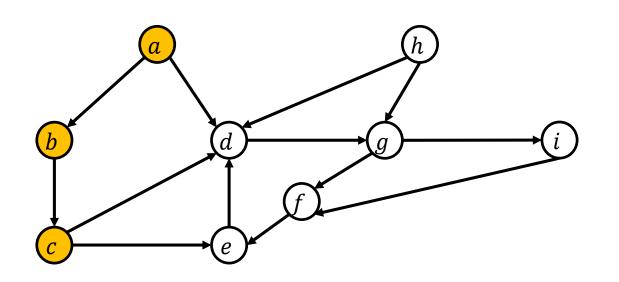


DFS tree

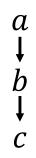
a ↓ *b*

$$\bullet$$
 S = (a, b).

Top of stack: b, which has white out-neighbors c. Push c into S

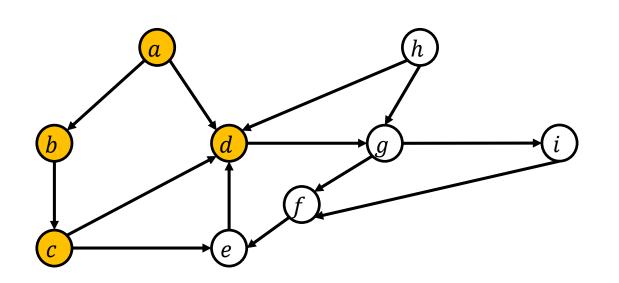


DFS tree



 \bullet S = (a, b, c).

Top of stack: c, which has white out-neighbors d and e. Suppose we access d first. Push d into S

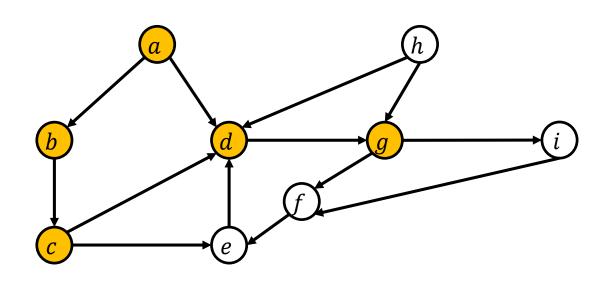


DFS tree

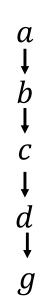


 \bullet S = (a, b, c, d).

Top of stack: d, which has white out-neighbors g. Push g into S

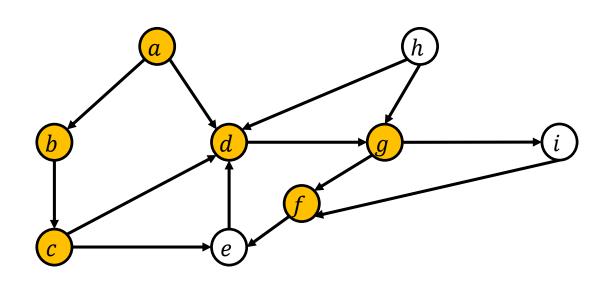


DFS tree

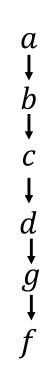


 \bullet S = (a, b, c, d, g).

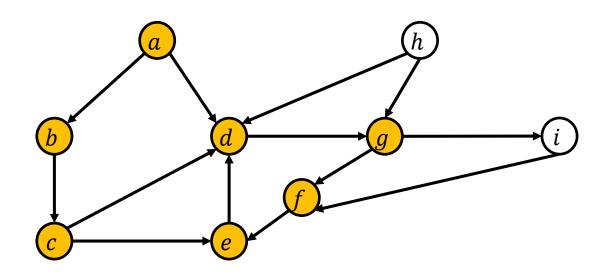
Top of stack: g, which has white out-neighbors f and i. Suppose we access f first. Push f into S



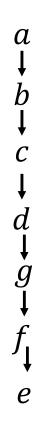
 \bullet S = (a, b, c, d, g, f).



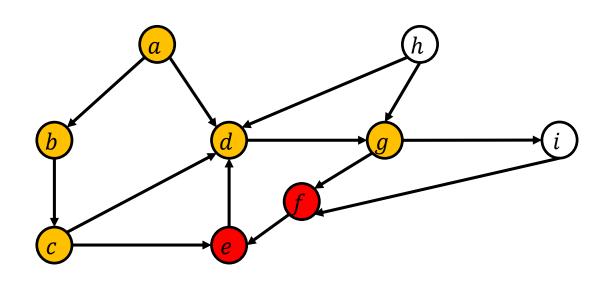
 Top of stack: f, which has white out-neighbors e. Push e into S



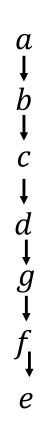
 \bullet S = (a, b, c, d, g, f, e).



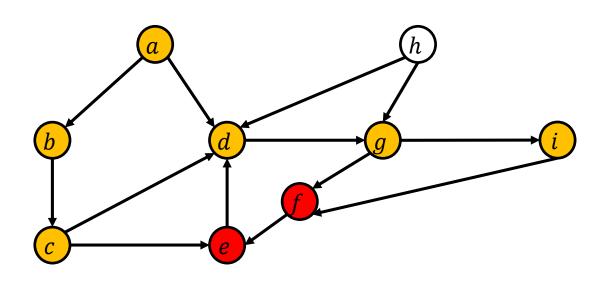
Top of stack: e, e has no white out-neighbors. So pop it from S, and color it red. Similarly for s.



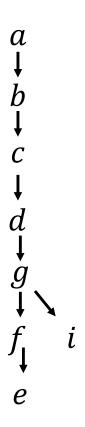
 \bullet S = (a, b, c, d, g).



Top of stack: g, which still has white out-neighbors i.
Push i into S

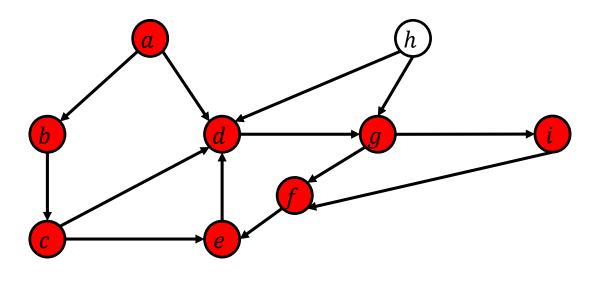


 \bullet S = (a, b, c, d, g, i).

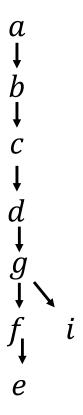


After popping i, g, d, c, b, a

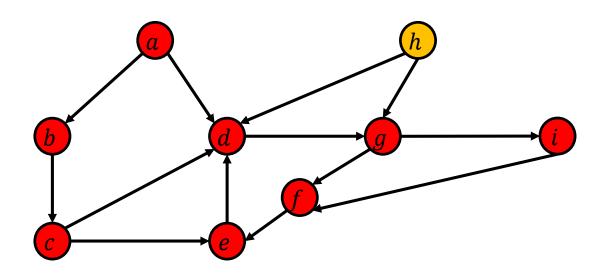
DFS tree



 \diamond S = ().

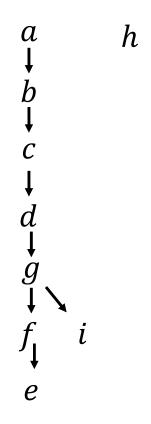


Now there is still a white vertex h. So we perform another DFS starting from h

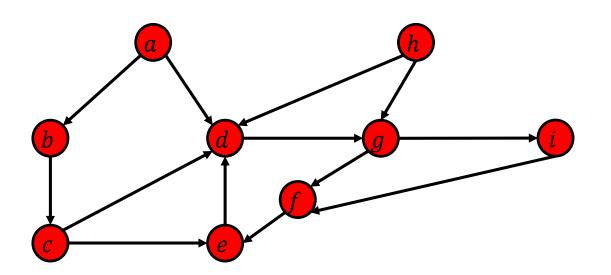


$$\bullet$$
 S = (h).

DFS forest

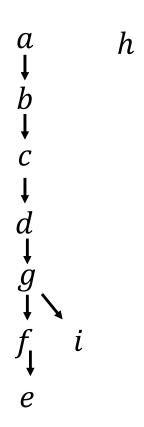


Pop h. The end.



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

DFS forest



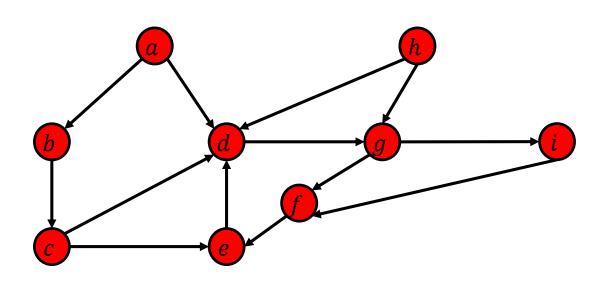
DFS Complexity Analysis

- DFS can be implemented efficiently as follows.
 - Store G in the adjacency list format
 - For every vertex v, remember the out-neighbor to explore next
 - \circ O(|V|+|E|) stack operations
 - Use an array to remember the colors of all vertices
- Hence, the total running time is O(|V|+|E|).

DFS Tree (Forest)

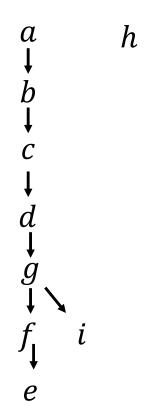
- Recall that we said earlier that the DFS-tree (well, perhaps a DFS forest) encodes information about the input graph. Next, we will make this point specific, and solve the edge detection problem.
- Edge Classification
 - Suppose we have already built a DFS-forest T.
 - Let (u,v) be an edge in G (remember that the edge is directed from u to v). It can be classified into:
 - Forward edge: u is a proper ancestor of v in a DFS-tree of T.
 - Backward edge: u is a descendant of v in a DFS-tree of T.
 - Cross edge: if neither of the above applies.

Edge Classification Example



- Forward edge:
 - (a,b),(a,d),(b,c),(c,d),(c,e),(d,g),(g,f),(g,i),(f,e)
- Backward edge: (e,d)
- Cross edge: (i,f),(h,d),(h,g)

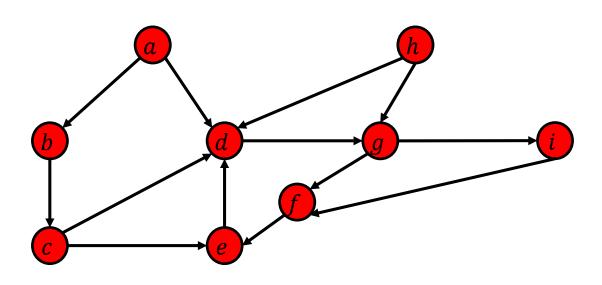
DFS Forest



Edge Classification Example

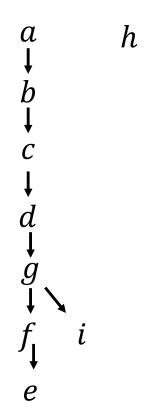
- How to determine type of each edge(u,v) by O(1) cost?
 - Augmenting DFS slightly!
- Maintain a counter c, which is initially 0. Every time a push or pop is performed on the stack, we increment c by 1.
- For every vertex v, define:
 - Its discovery time d-tm(v) to be the value of c right after v is pushed into the stack
 - Its finish time f-tm(v) to be the value of c right after v is popped from the stack
 - \bullet Define I(v) = [d-time(v), f-tm(v)]
- ♦ It is straight forward to obtain I(v) for all $v \in V$ by paying O(|V|) extra time on top of DFS's running time.

Augment DFS algorithm



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

DFS Forest



Theorems

- Parenthesis Theorem: all the following are true:
 - If u is a proper ancestor of v in DFS-tree of T, then I(u) contains I(v).
 - If u is a proper descendant of v in DFS-tree of T, then I(u) is contained in I(v).
 - Otherwise, I(u) and I(v) are disjoint.
- Proof: Follows directly from the first-in-last-out property of the stack.
- Cycle Theorem: let T be an arbitrary DFS-forest. G contains a cycle if and only if there is a backward edge with respect to T.
- Proof: will left as exercise.

Cycle Detection

- Equipped with the cycle theorem, we know that we can detect whether G has a cycle easily after having obtained a DFS-forest T:
 - For every edge (u,v), determine whether it is a backward edge in O(1) time.
- If no backward edges are found, decide G to be a DAG; otherwise, G has at least a cycle.
- Only O(|E|) extra time is needed
- \bullet We now conclude that the cycle detection problem can be solved in O(|V|+|E|) time.

Hint of Cycle Theorem Proof

- "if" direction, (e,d) is backward edge.
- "only-if" direction:
 - White Path Theorem: let u be a vertex in G. Consider the moment when u is pushed into the stack in the DFS algorithm. Then a vertex v becomes a proper descendant of u in the DFSforest if and only if the following is true:
 - We can go from u to v by travelling only on white vertices
- We will now prove that if G has a cycle, then there must be a backward edge in the DFS-forest.
 - Suppose the cycle is $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_k \rightarrow v_1$, let v_i is the first to enter the stack. Then, by white path theorem, all the other vertices in the cycle must be proper descendants of v_i in the DFS-forest. This means the edge pointing to v_i in the cycle is a backward edge.

Our Roadmap

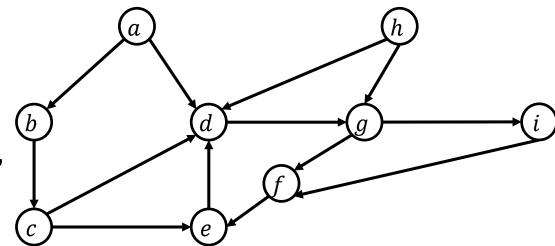
- Graph Concepts
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- Strongly Connected Component (SCC)

Topological Sort on a DAG

- As mentioned earlier, depth first search (DFS) algorithm is surprisingly powerful. Indeed, we have already used it to detect efficiently whether a directed graph contains any cycle.
- We will use it to settle another classic problem: topological sort, in linear time.
- This algorithm is very elegant, and simple enough.

Topological Order

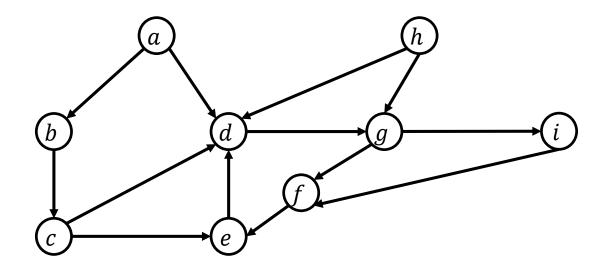
- Let G=(V,E) be a directed acyclic graph (DAG).
- A topological order of G is an ordering of the vertices in V such that, for any edge (u,v), it must hold that u precedes v in the ordering.
- Example: two possible topological orders:
 - h, a, b, c, d, g, i, f, e
 - a, h, b, c, d, g, i, f, e
- a, h, d, b, c, g, i, f, e
 is not topological order,
 because of edge (c,d).



The Topological Sort Problem

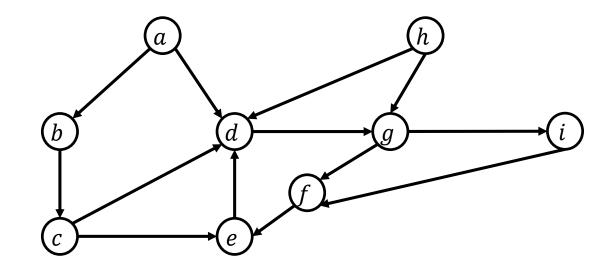
- Let G=(V,E) be a directed acyclic graph (DAG). The goal of topological sort is to produce a topological order of G.
- Topological Sort Algorithm
 - Create an empty list L
 - Run DFS on G, whenever a vertex v turns red (i.e., it is popped from the stack), append it to L.
 - Output the reverse order of L
- The total running time is clearly O(|V|+|E|)

The Topological Sort Example



- Suppose we run DFS starting from a. The following is one possible order by which the vertices turn red:
 - e, f, i, g, d, c, b, a, h
- Therefore, we output h, a, b, c, d, g, i, f, e as a topological order.

The Topological Sort Example



- Suppose we run DFS starting from d, then restarting from h, then from a. The following is one possible order by which the vertices turn red:
 - e, f, i, g, d, h, c, b, a
- Therefore, we output a, b, c, h, d, g, i, f, e as a topological order.

Hint: Correctness Analysis

- We now prove that the algorithm is correct.
- Proof. Take any edge (u,v). We will show that u turns red after v, which will complete the proof.
 - Consider the moment when u enters the stack, We argue that that currently v cannot be in the stack. Suppose that v was in the stack. As there must be a path chaining up all the vertices in the stack bottom up, we know that there is a path from v to u. Then, adding the edge (u,v) forms a cycle, contradicting the fact that G is a DAG.
 - v is red at this moment then obviously u will turn red after v.
 - v is white: then by the white path theorem of DFS, we know that v will become a proper descendant of u in the DFS-forest. Therefore, u will turn red after v.
- Every DAG has a topological order!

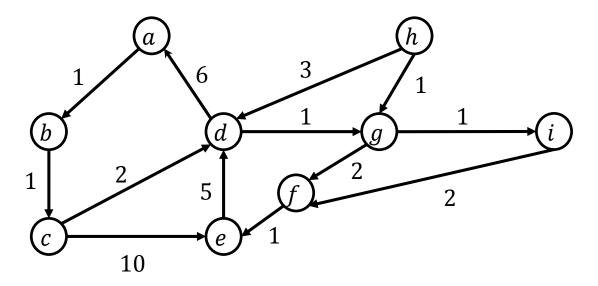
Our Roadmap

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Shortest Path

- Single source shortest path (SSSP)
 - BFS algorithm
 - All the edges have the same weight
- SSSP with arbitrary positive path (SP)
- Weight graph
 - ⋄ Let G=(V,E) be a directed graph. Let w be a function that maps each edge in E to a positive integer value. Specifically, for each e ∈ E, w(e) is a positive integer value, which we call the weight of e.
 - A directed weighted graph is defined as the pair (G,w).

Weighted Graph



The integer on each edge indicates its weight. For example, w(d,g)=1, w(g,f)=2, and w(c,e)=10

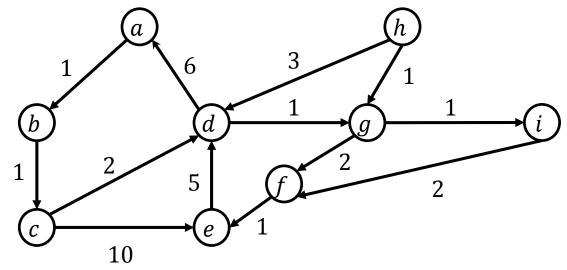
Shortest Path

- Consider a directed weighted graph defined by a directed graph G=(V,E) and function w.
- Consider a path in G: (v_1, v_2) , (v_2, v_3) , ..., (v_l, v_{l+1}) , for some integer $l \ge 1$. We define the length of the path as: $\sum_{i=1}^{l} w(v_i, v_{i+1})$.
- Recall that we may also denote the path as: $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_{l+1}$.
- ◈ Give two vertices $u, v \in V$, a shortest path from u to v is a path from u to v that has the minimum length among all the paths from u to v.
- ⋄ If v is unreachable from u, then the shortest path distance from u to v is ∞.

SSSP with Positive Weights

- Let (G,w) with G=(V, E) be a directed weighted graph, where w maps every edge of E to a positive value.
- ◈ Give a vertex s in V, the goal of the SSSP problem is to find, for every other vertex $t \in V \setminus \{s\}$, a shortest path from s to t, unless t is unreachable from s.
- A subsequence property
 - ⊗ Lemma: if $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_{l+1}$ is a shortest path from v_1 to v_{l+1} , then for every i, j satisfying $1 \leq i \leq j \leq l+1$, $v_i \rightarrow v_{i+1} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_j$ is shortest path from v_i to v_j .
 - ⋄ Proof: suppose that this is not true, then we can find a shorter path from v_i to v_j . Using that path to replace the original path from v_1 to v_{l+1} , which contradicts the fact that $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_{l+1}$ is a shortest path.

Shortest Path Example



- ⋄ The path $c \rightarrow e$ has length 10
- The path $c \to d \to g \to f \to e$ has length 6
- The second path is the shortest path from c to e
- We know that any subsequence of this path is also a shortest path. For example, $c \to d \to g \to f$ must be a shortest path from c to f.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

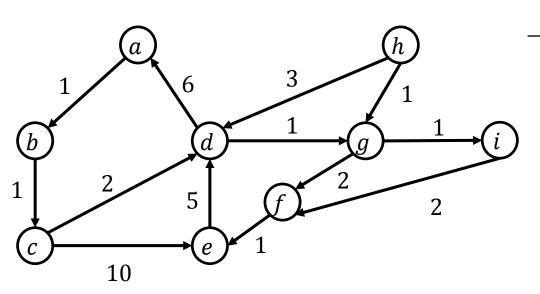
- We will first introduce the Dijkstra's algorithm for solving the SSSP with positive weights problem
- Utilizing the subsequence property, our algorithm will a shortest path tree that encodes all the shortest paths from the source vertex s.
- The edge relaxation idea
 - ⋄ For every vertex v ∈ V, we will maintain a value dist(v) that represents the length of the shortest path from s to v found so far.
 - At the end of the algorithm, we will ensure that every dist(v) equal to the precise shortest path from s to v
 - A core operation in our algorithm is called edge relaxation. Given an edge (u,v), we relax it as follows:
 - If dist(v) < dist(u) + w(u,v), do nothing
 - Otherwise, reduce dist(v) to dist(u) + w(u,v)

Dijkstra's Algorithm

- ⋄ Set parent(v) = nil for all vertices v ∈ V
- ♦ Set dist(s) =0 and dist(v)= ∞ for all other vertices $v \in V$
- \bullet Set S = V
- Repeat the following until S is empty
 - Remove from S the vertex u with the smallest dist(u).
 /* next we relax all the outgoing edges of u*/
 - For every outgoing edge (u,v) of u
 - \bullet If dist(v) > dist(u) + w(u,v) then
 - Set dist(v) = dist(u) + w(u,v), and parent (v)=u

Dijkstra's Algorithm Example

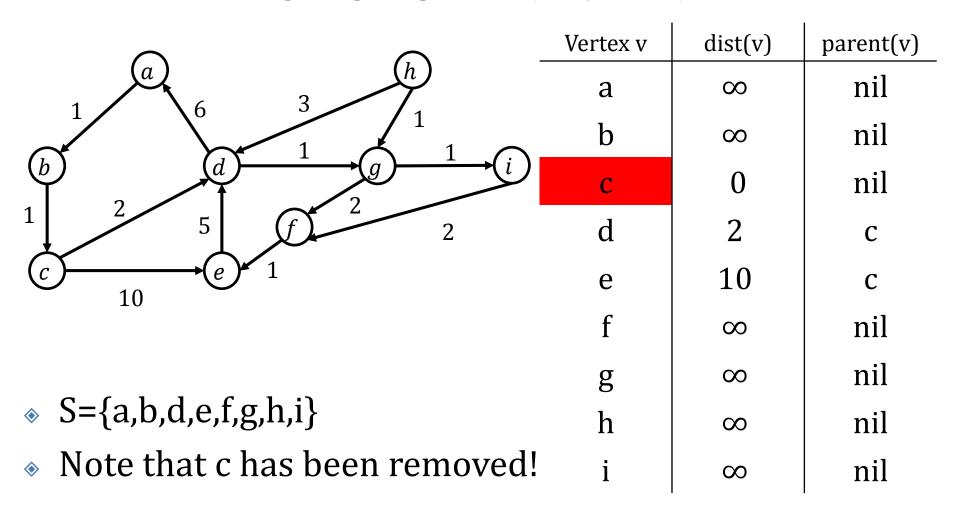
Suppose that the source is c.



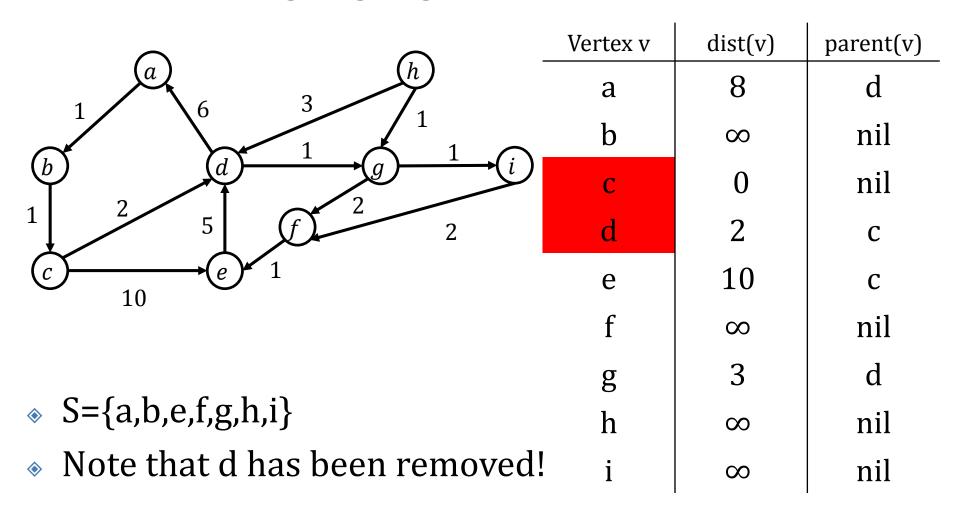
S={a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h,i	d,e,f,g,h,	b,c,d	{a,	S = -	
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Vertex v	dist(v)	parent(v)
a	8	nil
b	∞	nil
С	0	nil
d	∞	nil
e	∞	nil
f	∞	nil
g	∞	nil
h	∞	nil
i	∞	nil

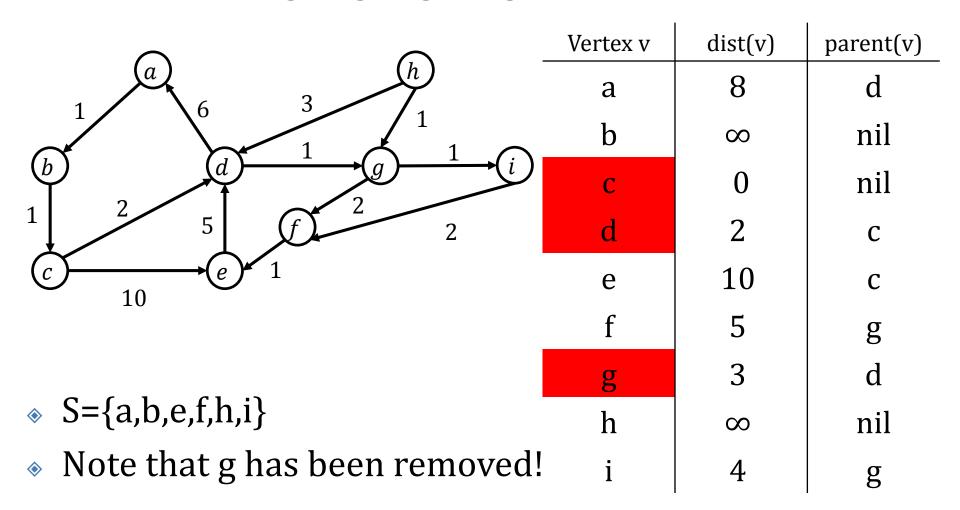
Relax the out-going edge of c (why is c?)



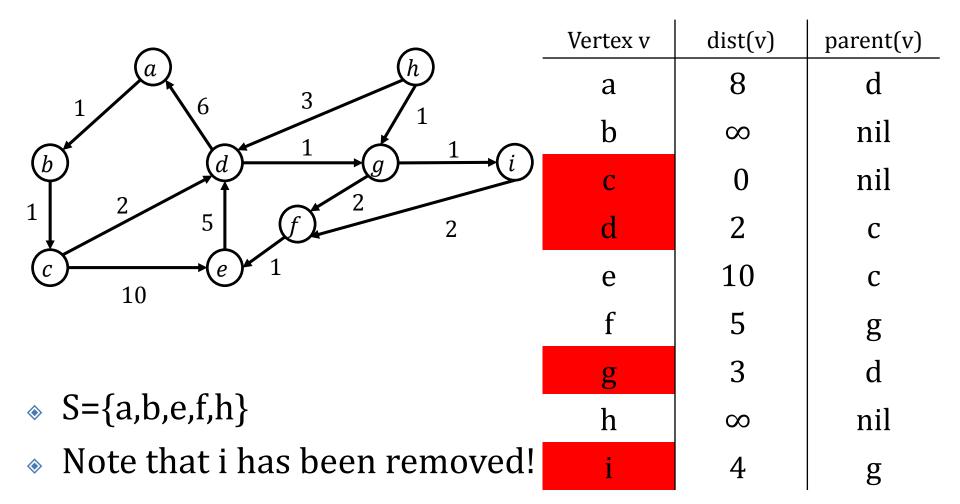
Relax the out-going edge of d



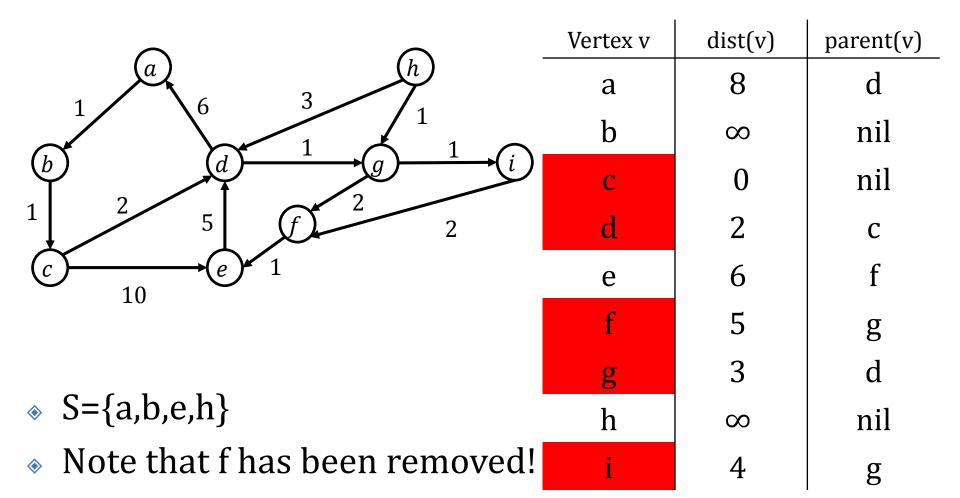
Relax the out-going edge of g



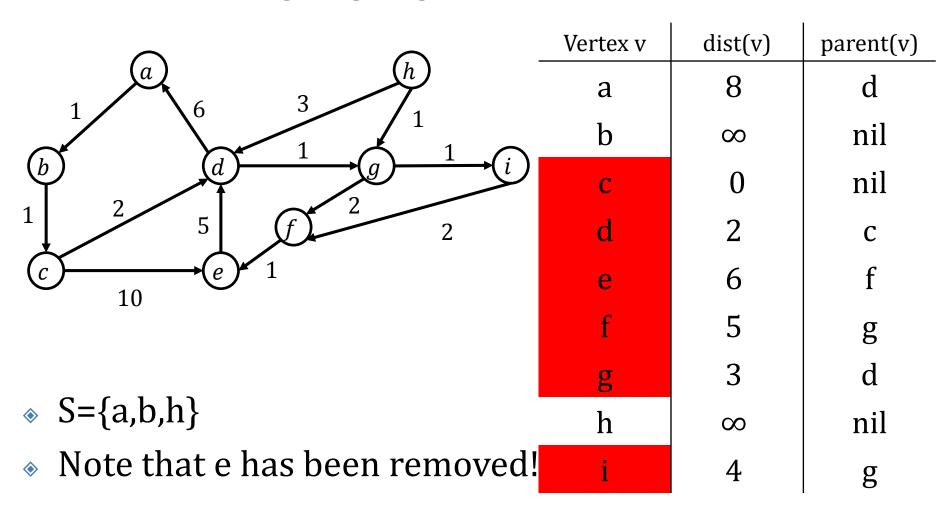
Relax the out-going edge of i



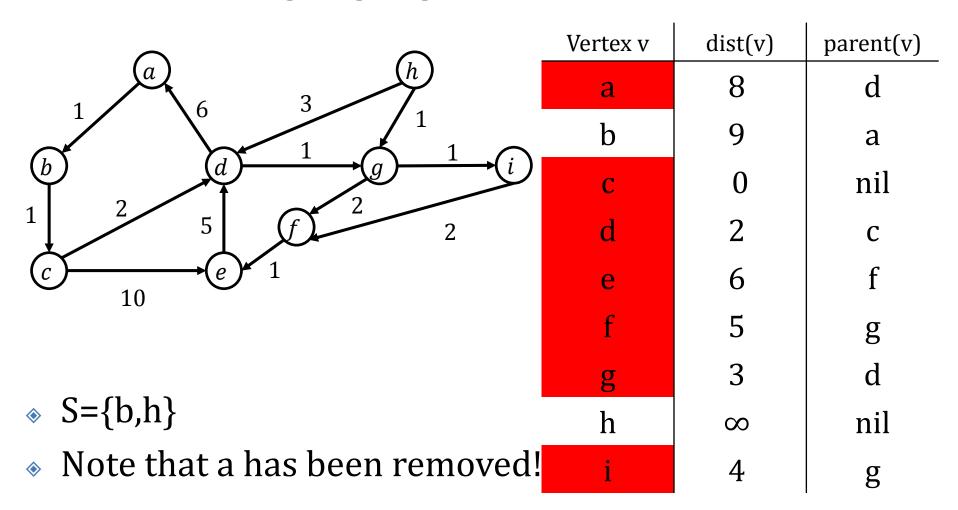
Relax the out-going edge of f



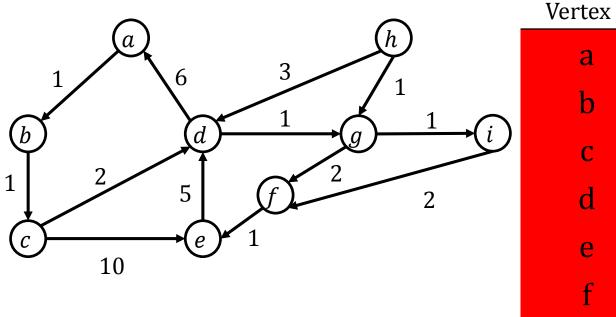
Relax the out-going edge of e



Relax the out-going edge of a



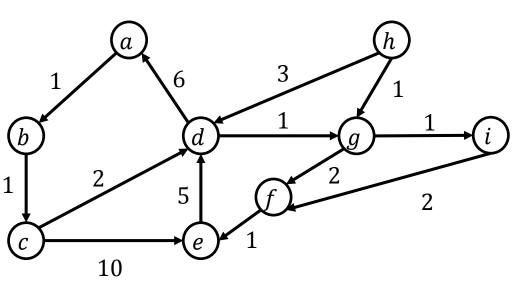
Relax the out-going edge of b



Vertex v	dist(v)	parent(v)
a	8	d
b	9	a
С	0	nil
d	2	С
e	6	f
f	5	g
g	3	d
h	∞	nil
i	4	g

- ♦ S={h}
- Note that b has been removed!

Relax the out-going edge of h

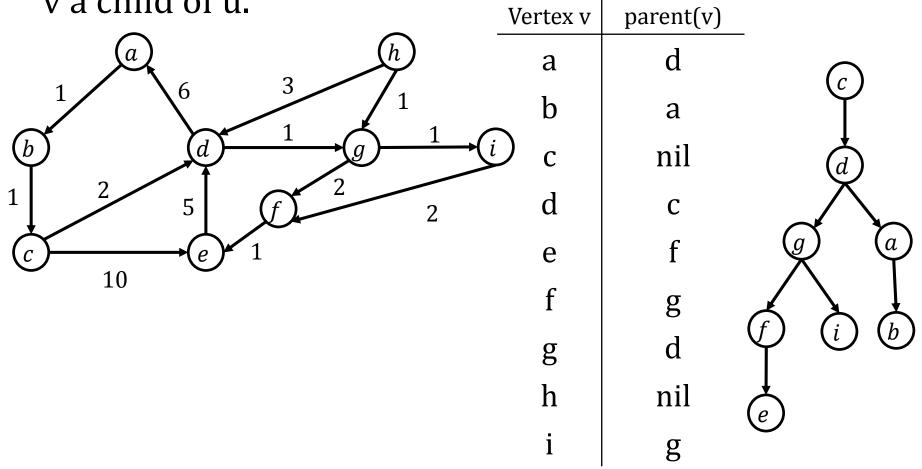


	Vertex v	dist(v)	parent(v)
	a	8	d
	b	9	a
)	С	0	nil
	d	2	С
	е	6	f
	f	5	g
	g	3	d
	h	∞	nil
!	i	4	g

- ♦ S={}
- Note that h has been removed!
- All the shortest path distance are now final.

Constructing the SP Tree

For every vertex v, if u = parent(v) is not nil, the make v a child of u.



Correctness and Running Time

It will be left as an exercise for you to prove that Dijkstra's algorithm is correct

Just as equally instructive is an exercise for you to implement Dijkstra's algorithm in O((|V|+|E|)*log|V|) time. Why?

You have already learned all the data structure for this purpose. Now it is time to practice using them.

Our Roadmap

- Graph Concepts
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- Shortest Path Algorithms (SP)
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Minimum Spanning Tree

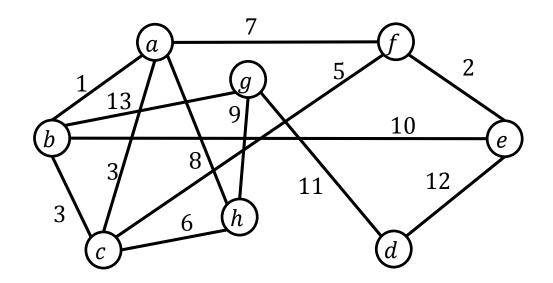
- We will study another classic problem: finding a minimum spanning tree of an undirected weighted graph.
- Interestingly, even though the problem appears rather different from SSSP (single source shortest path), it can be solved by an algorithm that is reminiscent of Dijkstra's algorithm

Undirected Weighted Graphs

- Let G=(V, E) be an undirected graph. Let w be a function that maps each edge of G to a positive integer value. Specifically, for each edge e, w(e) is a positive integer value, which we call the weight of e.
- An undirected weighted graph is defined as the pair (G,w)
- We will denote an edge between vertices u and v in G as {u,v}, instead of (u,v), to emphasize that the ordering of u, v does not matter
- We consider that G is connected, namely, there is a path between any two vertices in V.

Undirected Weighted Graphs

Example

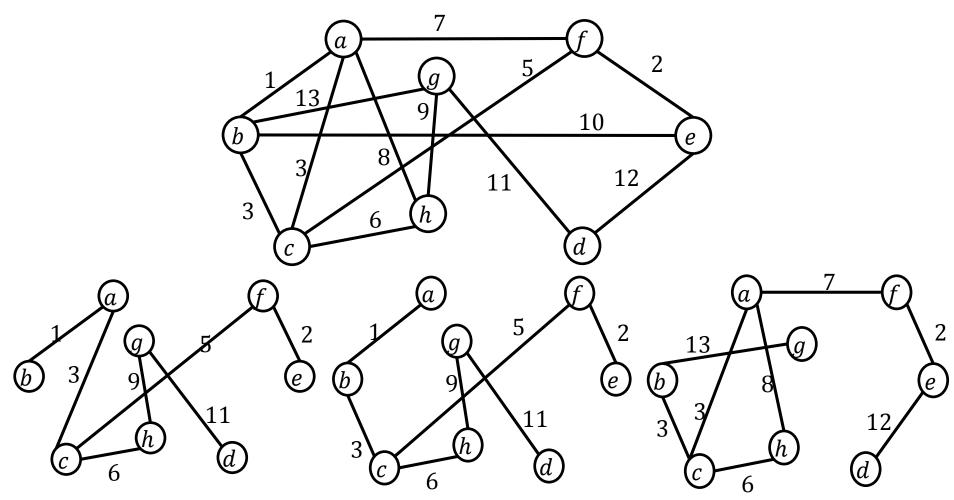


- The integer on each edge indicates its weight.
- For example, the weight of {g,h}=9,
- and that of {d,h} is 11

Spanning Trees

- Remember that a tree is defined as a connected undirected graph with no cycles.
- Given a connected undirected weighted graph (G,w) with G=(V,E), a spanning tree T is a tree satisfying the following conditions:
 - The vertex set of T is V.
 - Every edge of T is an edge of G.
- The cost of T is defined as the sum of the weights of all the edges in T (note that T must have |V|-1 edges)

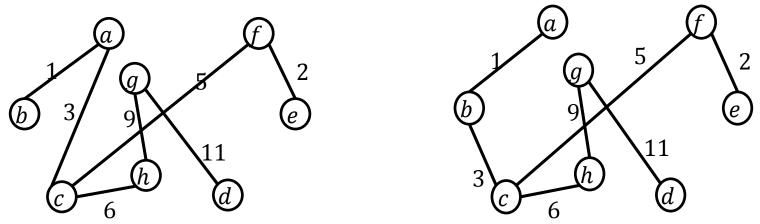
Spanning Trees Examples



The second row shows three spanning trees. What are the costs?

Minimum Spanning Tree

- The minimum spanning tree problem
- Given a connected undirected weighted graph (G,w) with G=(V,E), the goal of the minimum spanning tree (MST) problem is to find a spanning tree of the smallest cost.
- Such a tree is called an MST of (G, w)



Both trees are MSTs. This means that MSTs may not be unique.
90

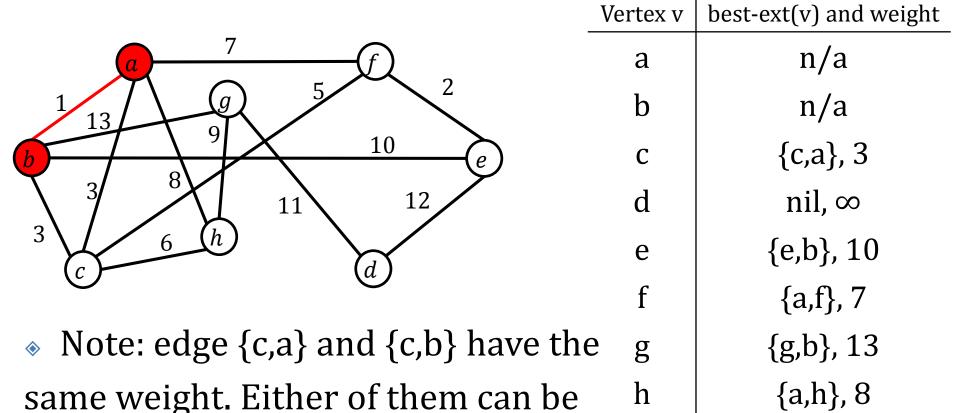
- Next, we will discuss an algorithm, called Prim's algorithm, for solving the MST problem.
- We assume that G is stored in the adjacency list format. Recall that an edge {u,v} is represented twice: once by placing u in the adjacency list of v, and another time by placing v in the adjacency of u. The weight of {u,v} is stored in both places.

- The algorithm grows a tree T_{mst} by including one vertex at a time, at any moment, it divides the vertex set V into two parts:
 - ightharpoonup The set S of vertices that are already in T_{mst}
 - ⋄ The set of other vertices: V \ S
- at the end of the algorithm, S = V
- \bullet If an edge connects a vertex in S and a vertex in V \ S, we call it an extension edge.
- At all times, the algorithm enforces the following lightest extension principle:
 - ♦ For every vertex $v \in V \setminus S$, it remembers which extension edge of v has the smallest weight, referred to as the lightest extension edge of v, and denoted as best-ext(v).

- 1. Let {u,v} be an edge with the smallest weight among all edges
- 2. Set $S=\{u,v\}$. Initialize a tree T_{mst} with only one edge $\{u,v\}$.
- 3. Enforce the lightest extension principle:
 - ♦ For every vertex z of V \ S
 - If z is a neighbor of u, but not of v
 - \diamond best-ext(z) = edge {z, u}
 - If z is a neighbor of v, but not of u
 - \diamond best-ext(z) = edge {z, v}
 - If z is a neighbor of both u and v
 - \diamond best-ext(z) = the lighter edge between {z, u} and {z, v}

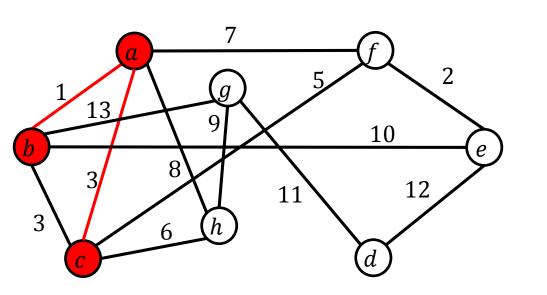
- 4. Repeat the following until S = V:
 - § 5. Get an extension edge of {u, v} with the smallest weight
 /* Without loss of generality, suppose u ∈ S, and */
 - \bullet 6. Add v to S, and add edge {u, v} into T_{mst} /* Next, we restore the lightest extension principle. */
 - For every edge {v, z} of v:
 - If z ∉ S then
 - If best-ext(z) is heavier than edge {v, z} then
 - Set best-ext(z) = edge {v, z}

Edge {a,b} is the lightest of all. So, at the beginning S = {a, b}. The MST we are growing now has one edge {a,b}



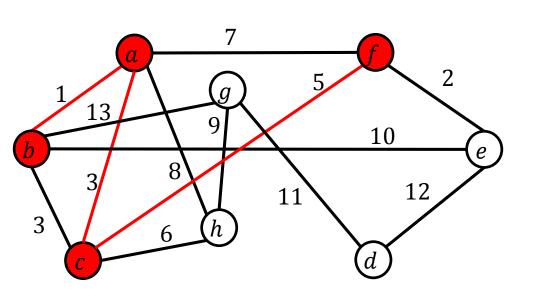
best-ext(c).

Edge {c,a} is the lightest extension edge. So, we add c to S, which now S = {a,b,c}, add edge {c,a} into MST



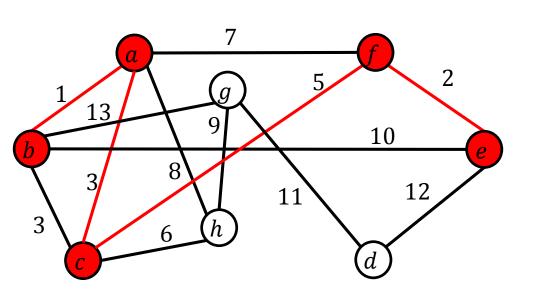
Vertex v	best-ext(v) and weight
a	n/a
b	n/a
С	n/a
d	nil, ∞
e	{e,b}, 10
f	{c,f}, 5
g	{g,b}, 13
h	{c,h}, 6

Edge {c,f} is the lightest extension edge. So, we add f to S, which now S = {a,b,c,f}, add edge {c,f} into MST



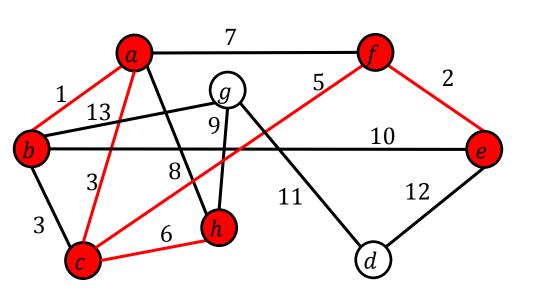
Vertex v	best-ext(v) and weight
a	n/a
b	n/a
C	n/a
d	nil, ∞
e	{e,f}, 2
f	n/a
g	{g,b}, 13
h	{c,h}, 6

Edge {e,f} is the lightest extension edge. So, we add e to S, which now S = {a,b,c,f,e}, add edge {e,f} into MST



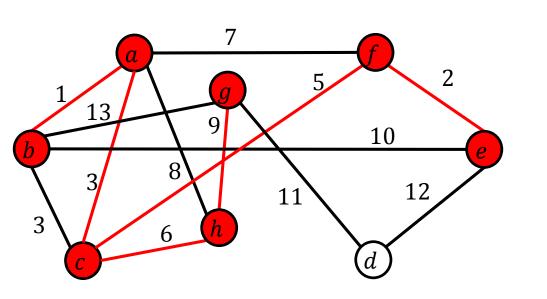
Vertex v	best-ext(v) and weight
a	n/a
b	n/a
C	n/a
d	(e,d), 12
e	n/a
f	n/a
g	{g,b}, 13
h	{c,h}, 6

Edge {c,h} is the lightest extension edge. So, we add h to S, which now S = {a,b,c,f,e,h}, add edge {c,h} into MST



Vertex v	best-ext(v) and weight
a	n/a
b	n/a
C	n/a
d	(e,d), 12
e	n/a
f	n/a
g	{g,h}, 9
h	n/a

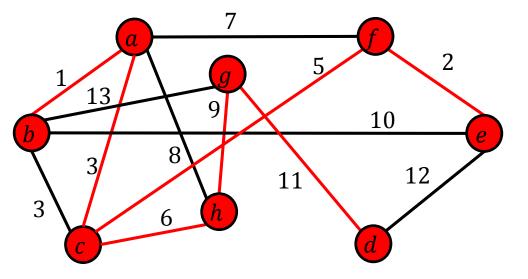
Edge {g,h} is the lightest extension edge. So, we add h to S, which now S = {a,b,c,f,e,h,g}, add edge {g,h} into MST



	_
Vertex v	best-ext(v) and weight
a	n/a
b	n/a
С	n/a
d	(g,d), 11
e	n/a
f	n/a
g	n/a
h	n/a

Finally, edge {d,g} is the lightest extension edge. So, we add d to S, which now S = {a,b,c,f,e,h,g,d}, add edge {d,g}

into MST



, , , ,	, 0,
Vertex v	best-ext(v) and weight
a	n/a
b	n/a
С	n/a
d	n/a
e	n/a
f	n/a
g	n/a
h	n/a

We have obtained our final MST.

Time Complexity Analysis

- A priority queue Q (min-heap) was employed in Prim's algorithm, what is the key of node in Q?
- Line 1 & 2: O(1)
- Line 3: O(|E|)
- ♦ Line 4: O(|V|)
- Line 5: O(|V| log |V|)
- Line 6: O(|V|)
- Line 7: O(|E| log |V|), Total: O((|V|+|E|) log |V|)
- Remark: Using the Fibonacci Heap, will not cover in this course, we can improve the running time to O(|V| log |V| + |E|)

Hint: Correctness Proof

- **Claim:** For any i ∈ [1, |V|-1], there must be an MST containing all the first i edges chosen by the algorithm
- \bullet Then the algorithm's correctness follows from the above claim at i = |V|-1
- We prove it by induction the sequence of the edges added to the tree
- Base case: i=1, let {u,v} be the edge with the smallest weight in the graph, the edge must exist in some MST
- ♦ Inductive case: the claim holds for i<=k-1</p>
- We prove it also hold for i=k

Our Roadmap

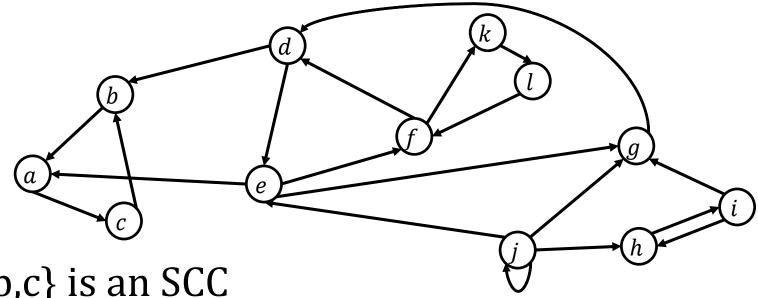
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Strongly Connected Components

- Let G=(V,E) be a directed graph.
- A strongly connected component (SCC) of G is a subset S of V such that:
 - \bullet For any two vertices u, $v \in S$, it must hold that:
 - There is a path from u to v
 - There is a path from v to u
 - S is maximal in the sense that we cannot put any more vertex into S without violating the above property
- It seems to be rather difficult at first glance, the algorithm is once again very simple, run DFS only twice.

SCC Example

Consider the following graph:



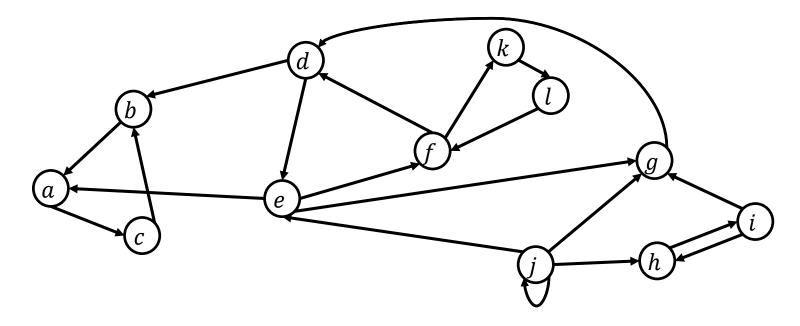
- {a,b,c} is an SCC
- {a,b,c,d} is not an SCC
- {d,e,f,k,l} is not an SCC (why?)
- {e,d,f,k,l,g} is an SCC

SCCs are Disjoint

- ♦ Theorem: Suppose that S_1 and S_2 are both SCCs of G, Then $S_1 \cap S_2 = \emptyset$
- ♦ Proof: Assume that there is a vertex v in both S_1 and S_2 . Then, for any vertex $u_1 ∈ S_1$ and any vertex $u_2 ∈ S_2$:
 - \diamond There is a path from u_1 to u_2 : we can first go from u_1 to v within S_1 , and then from v to u_2 within S_2 .

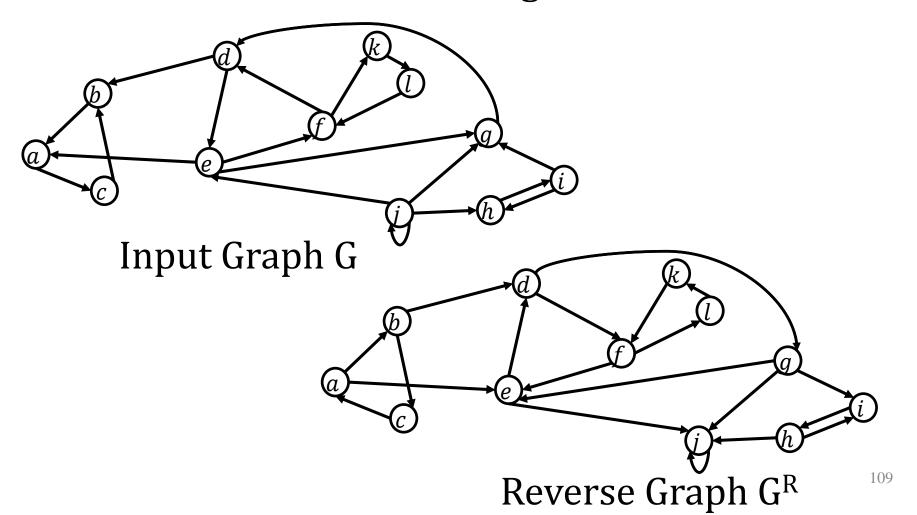
Finding SCCs

• Given a directed graph G = (V,E), the goal of the finding strongly connected components problem is to divide V into disjoint subsets, each of which is an SCC.



The goal is to output the following 4 SCCs: {a,b,c}, {d,e,f,g,k,l}, {h,i}, and {j}

Step 1: obtain the reverse graph G^R by reversing the directions of all the edges in G.



- Step 2: Perform DFS on G^R, and obtain the sequence L^R that the vertices in G^R turn red (i.e., whenever a vertex is popped out of the stack, append it to L^R)
- Obtain L as the reverse order of L^R
- We may perform DFS starting from any vertex. The following is a possible order that the vertices are discovered: f,l,k,e,j,d,g,i,h,a,b,c
- The corresponding turn-red sequence is
- $L^R = \{k,l,j,h,i,g,d,e,f,c,b,a\}$
- Hence $L = \{a,b,c,f,e,d,g,i,h,j,l,k\}$

- Step 3: Perform DFS on the original graph G by obeying the following rules:
 - Rule 1: start the DFS at the first vertex of L
 - Rule 2: whenever a restart is needed, start from the first vertex of L that is still white.
- Output the vertices in each DFS-tree as an SCC

From the last step, we have L = {a,b,c,f,e,d,g,i,h,j,l,k}

The original graph G:
C

- Starting DFS from a, which discovered {a,b,c}
- Restart from f, which discovered {f,k,l,d,e,g}
- Restart from i, which discovered {i,h}
- Restart from j, which discovered {j}
- The DFS returns 4 DFS-tree, whose vertex sets are as above, Each vertex set constitutes an SCC.

Running Time Analysis

- Steps 1 and 2 obviously require only O(|V|+|E|) time.
- \bullet Regarding Step 3, the DFS itself takes O(|V|+|E|), but how about the cost of implement Rule 2.
- Namely, whenever, DFS needs a restart, how do we find the first white vertex in L efficiently?
- \bullet It can be done in O(|V|) total time.
- Hence, the overall execution time is O(|V|+|E|)

Hint: Correctness Proof

- Let G be the input directed graph, with SCCs S_1 , S_2 , ..., S_t for some $t \ge 1$
- Let us define a SCC graph G^{SCC} as follows:
 - Each vertex in G^{SCC} is a distinct SCC in G.
 - $\,\,$ Consider two vertices S_i and S_j , G^{SCC} has an edge from S_i to S_j if and only if:
 - i !=j
 - There is a path in G from a vertex in S_i to a vertex in S_j
- G^{SCC} is a DAG, define an SCC as a sink SCC if it has no outgoing edge in G^{SCC}
- Lemma: There must be at least one sink SCC in GSCC

Hint: Correctness Proof

- Let S be a sink SCC in G^{SCC}. Suppose that we perform a DFS starting from any vertex in S. Then the first DFStree output must include all and only the vertex in S.
- Finding SCC: The strategy
 - 1. Performing DFS from any vertex in a sink SCC S
 - 2. Delete all vertices of S from G, as well as their edges
 - 3. Accordingly, delete S from G^{SCC}, as well as its edges.
 - 4. Repeat from Step 1, until G is empty.
- ♦ Lemma: Let S_1 , S_2 be SCCs such that there is a path from S_1 to S_2 in G^{SCC} . In the ordering of L, the earliest vertex in S_2 must come before the earliest vertex in S_1

Thank You!