

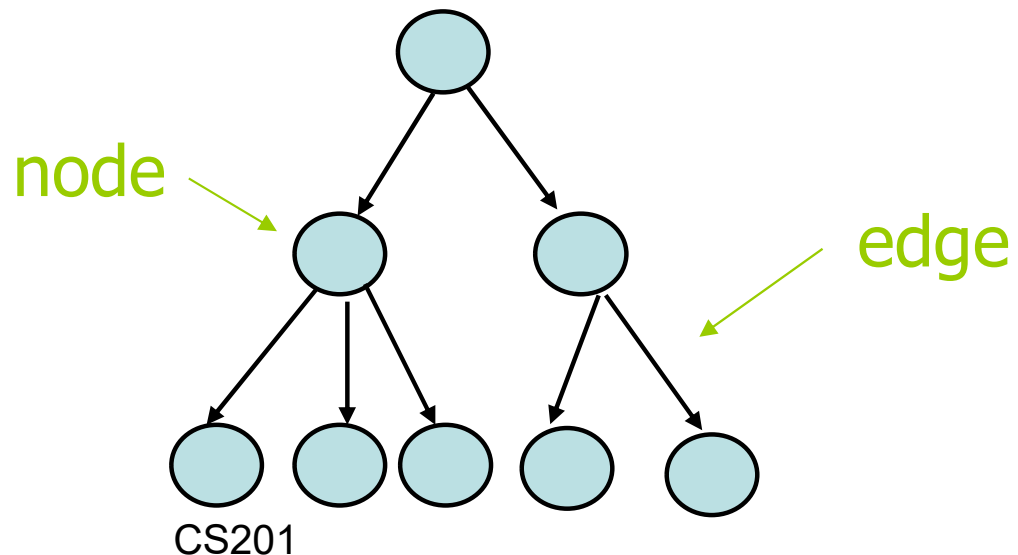
# Data Structures

Introduction to trees and graphs

# Trees

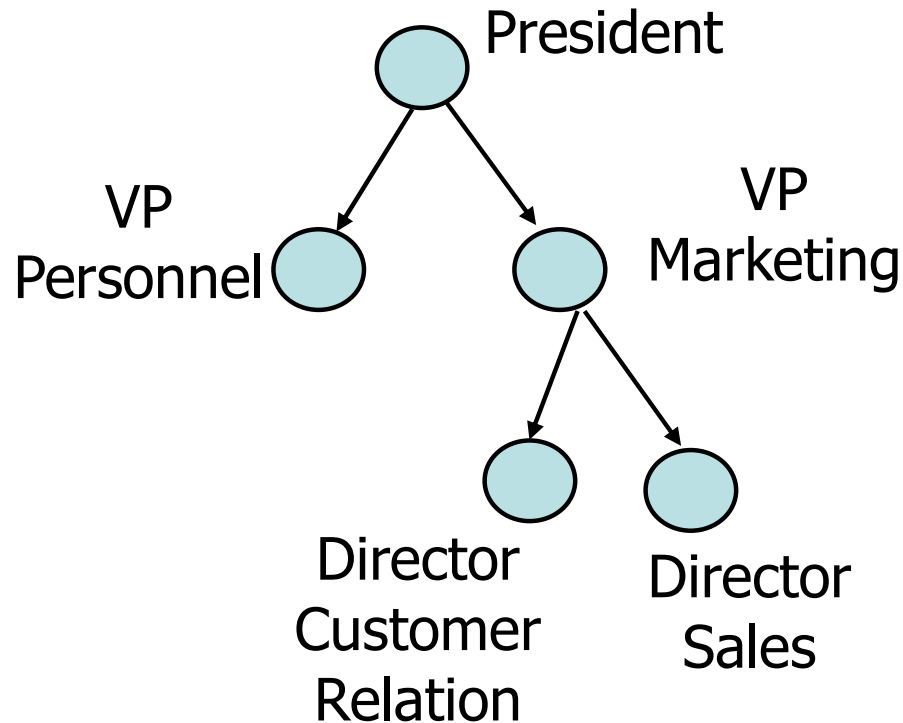
# What is a tree?

- Trees are structures used to represent hierarchical relationship
- Each tree consists of nodes and edges
- Each node represents an object
- Each edge represents the relationship between two nodes.

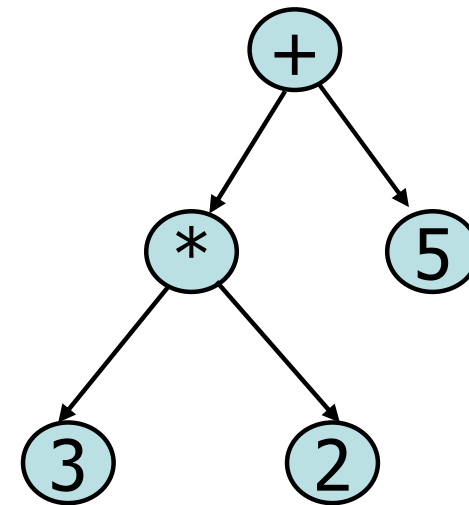


# Some applications of Trees

## Organization Chart

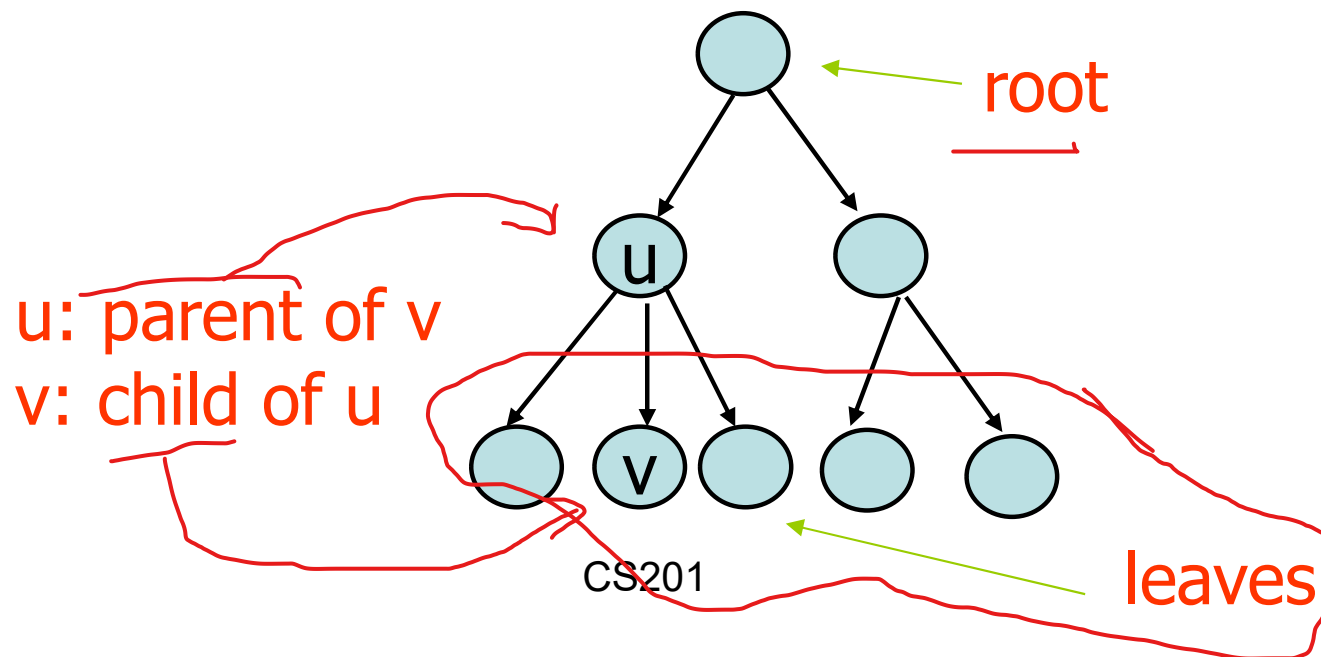


## Expression Tree



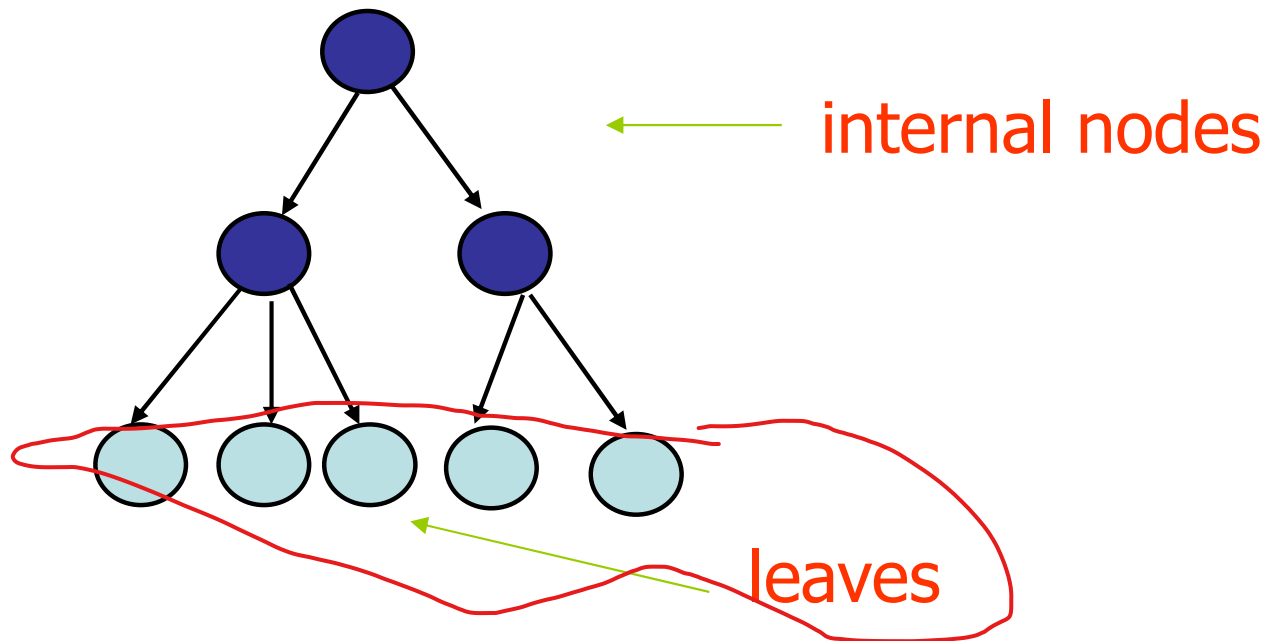
# Terminology I

- For any two nodes  $u$  and  $v$ , if there is an edge pointing from  $u$  to  $v$ ,  $u$  is called the **parent** of  $v$  while  $v$  is called the **child** of  $u$ . Such edge is denoted as  $(u, v)$ .
- In a tree, there is exactly one node without parent, which is called the **root**. The nodes without children are called **leaves**.



# Terminology II

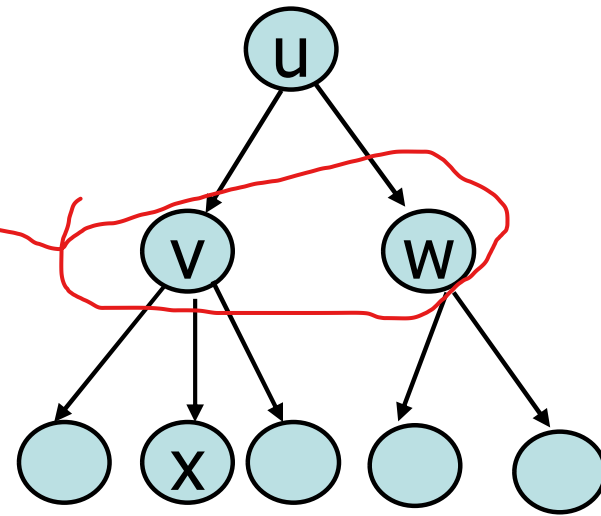
- In a tree, the nodes without children are called **leaves**. Otherwise, they are called **internal nodes**.



# Terminology III

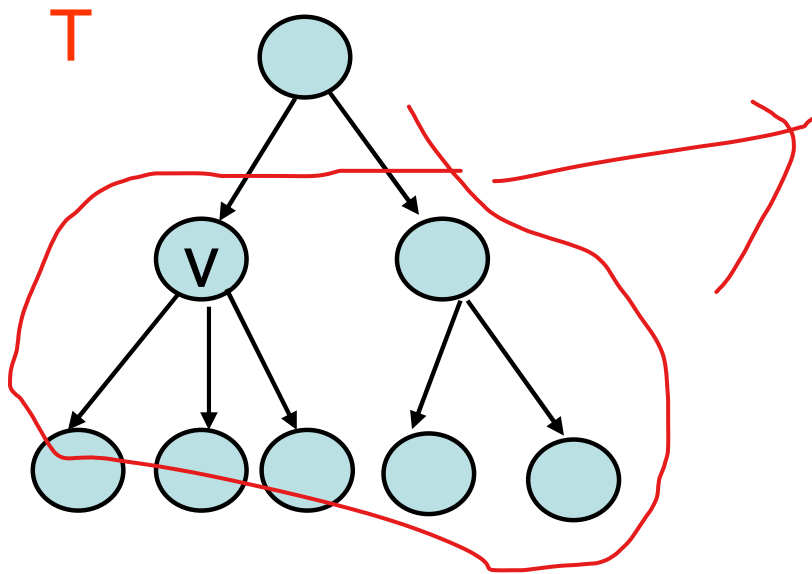
- If two nodes have the same parent, they are **siblings**.
- A node  $u$  is an **ancestor** of  $v$  if  $u$  is parent of  $v$  or parent of parent of  $v$  or ...
- A node  $v$  is a **descendent** of  $u$  if  $v$  is child of  $u$  or child of child of  $u$  or ...

$v$  and  $w$  are siblings  
 $u$  and  $v$  are ancestors of  $x$   
 $v$  and  $x$  are descendents of  $u$

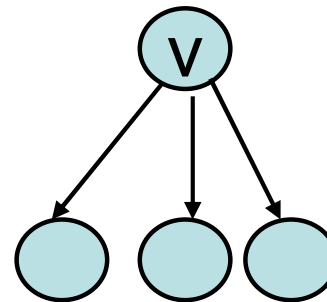


# Terminology IV

- A **subtree** is any node together with all its descendants.



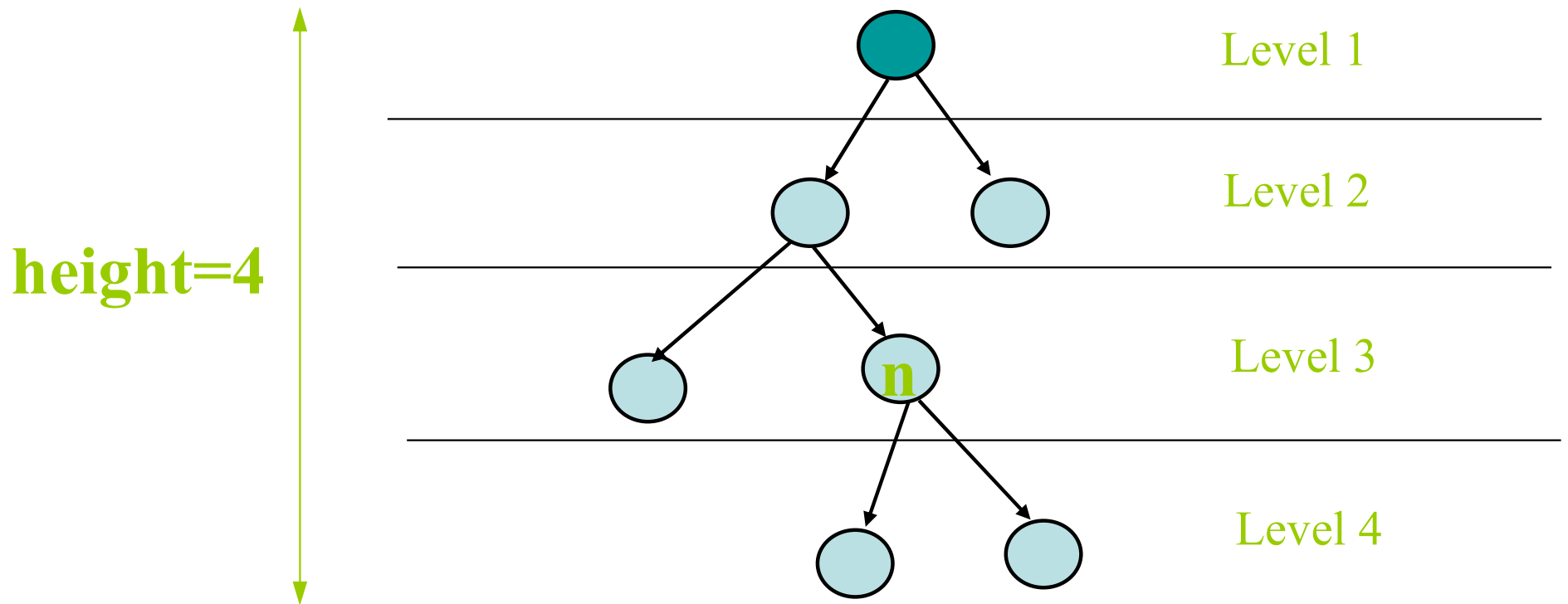
A subtree of T





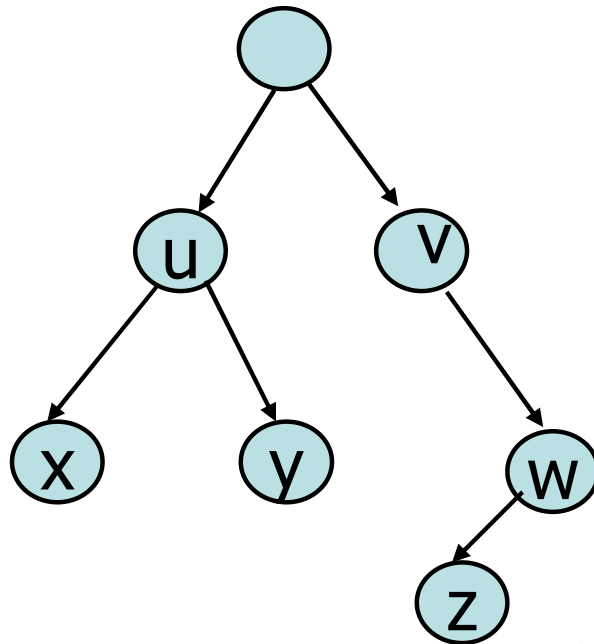
# Terminology V

- **Level of a node  $n$ :** number of nodes on the path from root to node  $n$
- **Height of a tree:** maximum level among all of its node



# Binary Tree

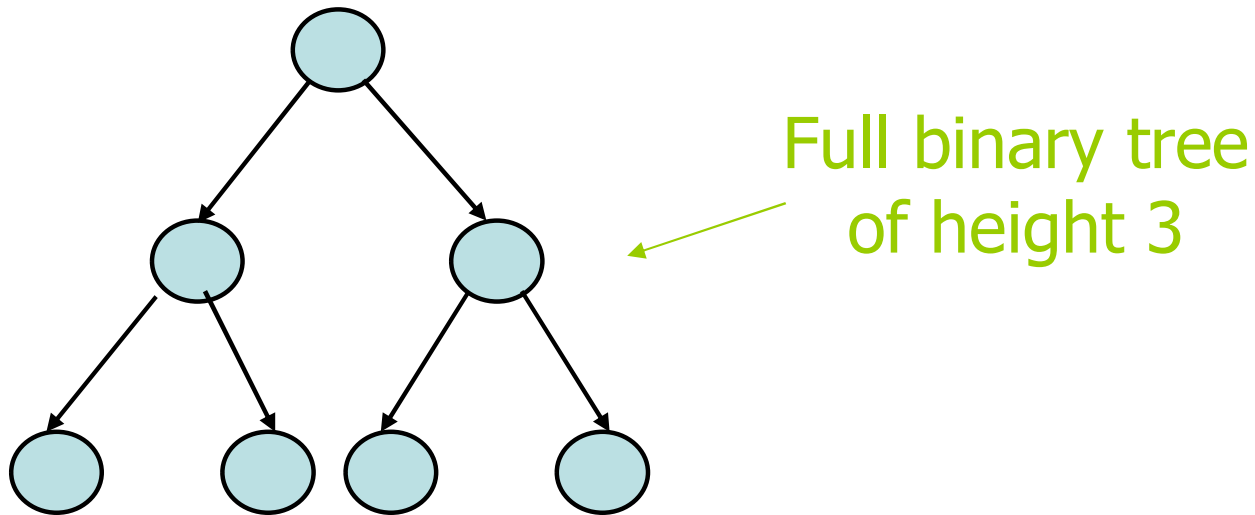
- Binary Tree: Tree in which every node has at most 2 children
- **Left child** of u: the child on the left of u
- **Right child** of u: the child on the right of u



x: left child of u  
y: right child of u  
w: right child of v  
z: left child of w

# Full binary tree

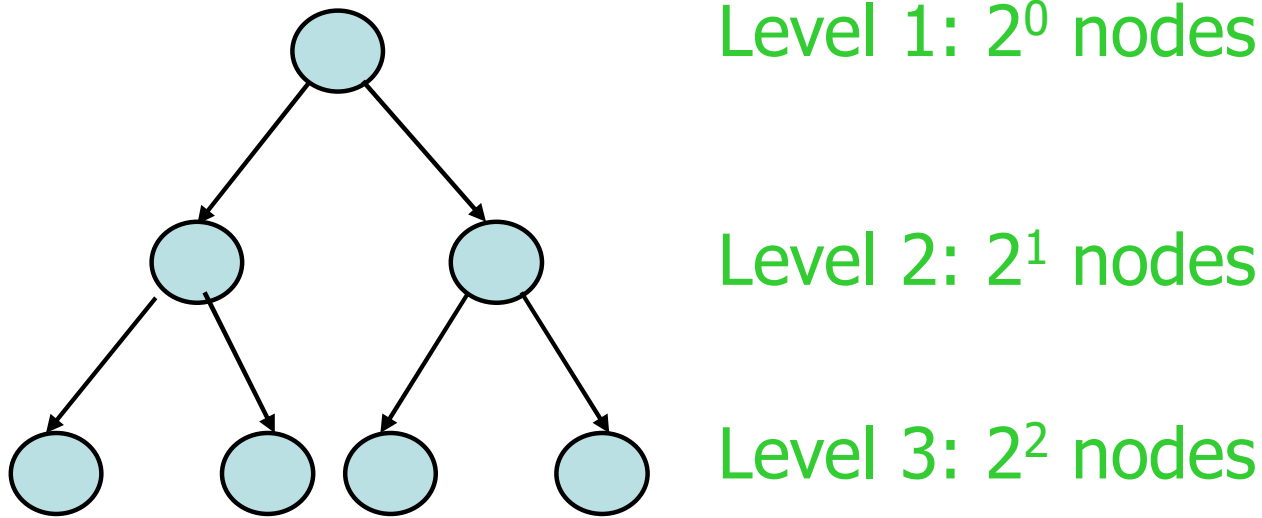
- If  $T$  is empty,  $T$  is a full binary tree of height 0.
- If  $T$  is not empty and of height  $h > 0$ ,  $T$  is a full binary tree if both subtrees of the root of  $T$  are full binary trees of height  $h-1$ .



# Property of binary tree (I)

- A full binary tree of height  $h$  has  $2^h - 1$  nodes

$$\begin{aligned}\text{No. of nodes} &= 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{(h-1)} \\ &= 2^h - 1\end{aligned}$$



# Property of binary tree (II)

- Consider a binary tree  $T$  of height  $h$ . The number of nodes of  $T \leq 2^h - 1$

Reason: you cannot have more nodes than a full binary tree of height  $h$ .

# Property of binary tree (III)

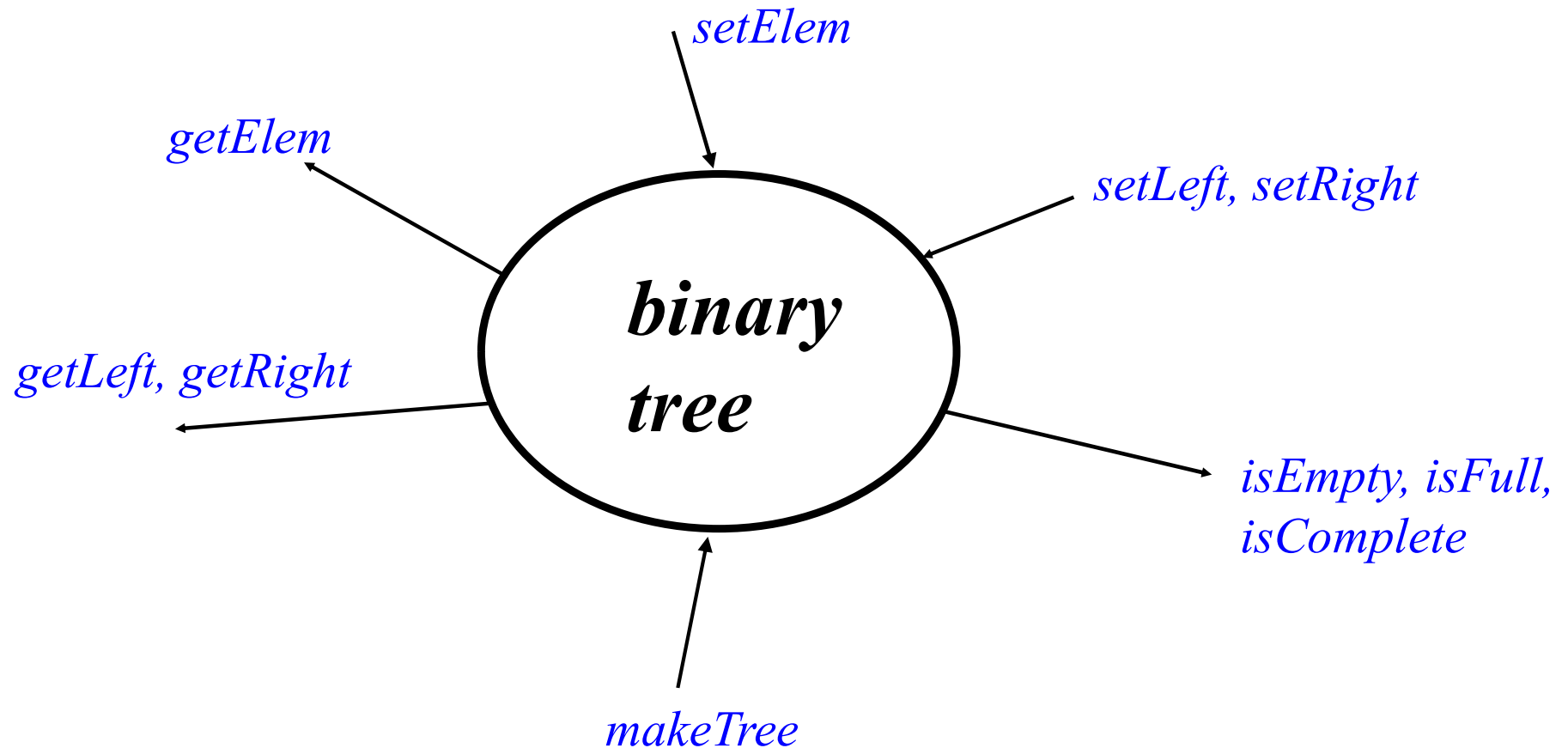
- The minimum height of a binary tree with  $n$  nodes is  $\log(n+1)$

By property (II),  $n \leq 2^h - 1$

Thus,  $2^h \geq n+1$

That is,  $h \geq \log_2 (n+1)$

# Binary Tree ADT



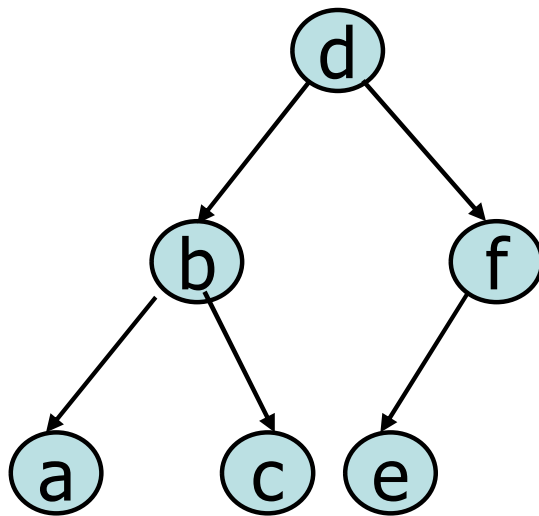
# Representation of a Binary Tree

- An array-based representation
- A reference-based representation



# An array-based representation

-1: empty tree



nodeNum	item	leftChild	rightChild
0	d	1	2
1	b	3	4
2	f	5	-1
3	a	-1	-1
4	c	-1	-1
5	e	-1	-1
6	?	?	?
7	?	?	?
8	?	?	?
9	?	?	?
...	.....	.....	.....

root

0

free

6

# Reference Based Representation

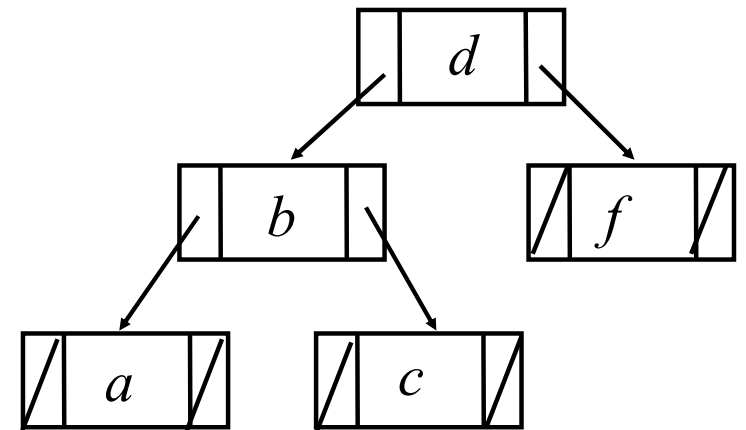
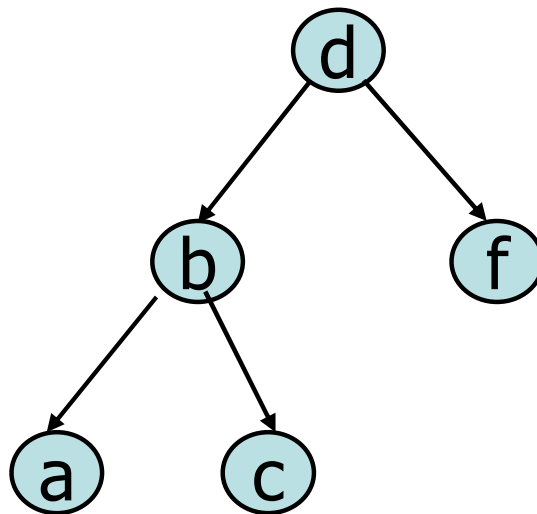
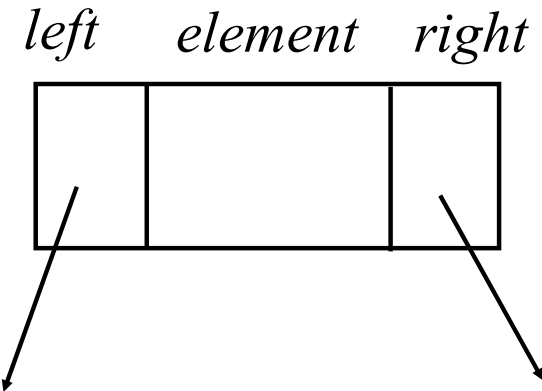
NULL: empty tree

You can code this with a class of three fields:

Object element;

BinaryNode left;

BinaryNode right;



# Tree Traversal

- Given a binary tree, we may like to do some operations on all nodes in a binary tree. For example, we may want to double the value in every node in a binary tree.
- To do this, we need a traversal algorithm which visits every node in the binary tree.

# Ways to traverse a tree

- There are three main ways to traverse a tree:
  - Pre-order:
    - (1) visit node, (2) recursively visit left subtree, (3) recursively visit right subtree
  - In-order:
    - (1) recursively visit left subtree, (2) visit node, (3) recursively right subtree
  - Post-order:
    - (1) recursively visit left subtree, (2) recursively visit right subtree, (3) visit node
  - Level-order:
    - Traverse the nodes level by level
- In different situations, we use different traversal algorithm.

# Examples for expression tree

- By pre-order, (prefix)

$+ * 2 3 / 8 4$

- By in-order, (infix)

$2 * 3 + 8 / 4$

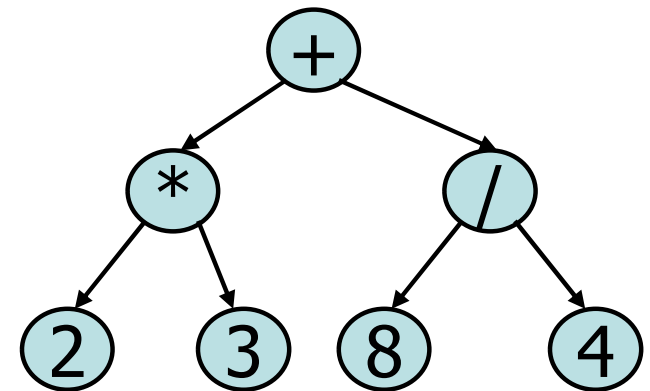
- By post-order, (postfix)

$2 3 * 8 4 / +$

- By level-order,

$+ * / 2 3 8 4$

- Note 1: Infix is what we read!
- Note 2: Postfix expression can be computed efficiently using stack

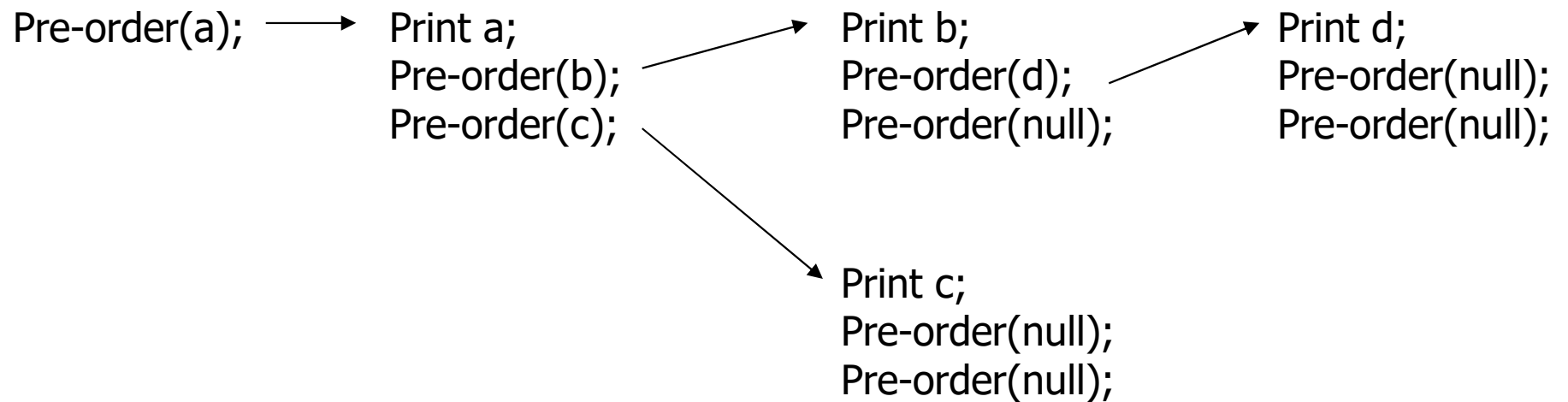


# Pre-order

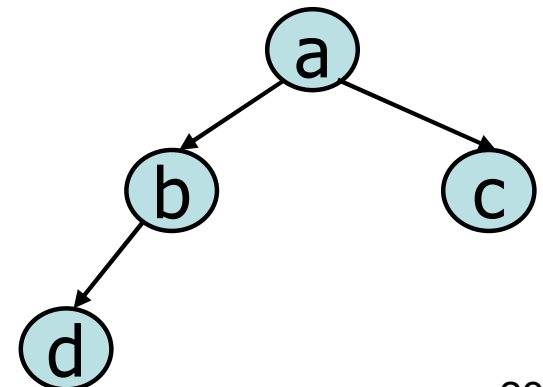
## Algorithm pre-order(BTree x)

```
If (x is not empty) {  
    print x.getItem();           // you can do other things!  
    pre-order(x.getLeftChild());  
    pre-order(x.getRightChild());  
}
```

# Pre-order example



a b d c



# Time complexity of Pre-order Traversal

- For every node  $x$ , we will call `pre-order(x)` one time, which performs  $O(1)$  operations.
- Thus, the total time =  $O(n)$ .



# In-order and post-order

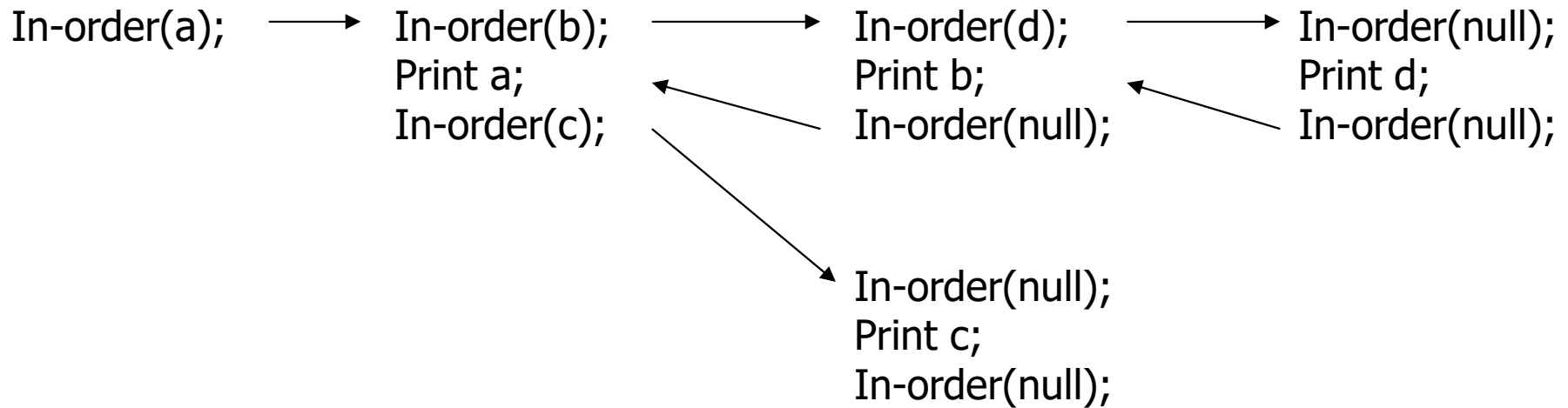
## Algorithm in-order(BTree x)

```
If (x is not empty) {  
    in-order(x.getLeftChild());  
    print x.getItem(); // you can do other things!  
    in-order(x.getRightChild());  
}
```

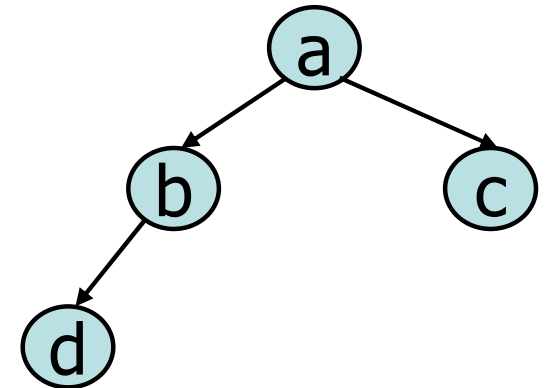
## Algorithm post-order(BTree x)

```
If (x is not empty) {  
    post-order(x.getLeftChild());  
    post-order(x.getRightChild());  
    print x.getItem(); // you can do other things!  
}
```

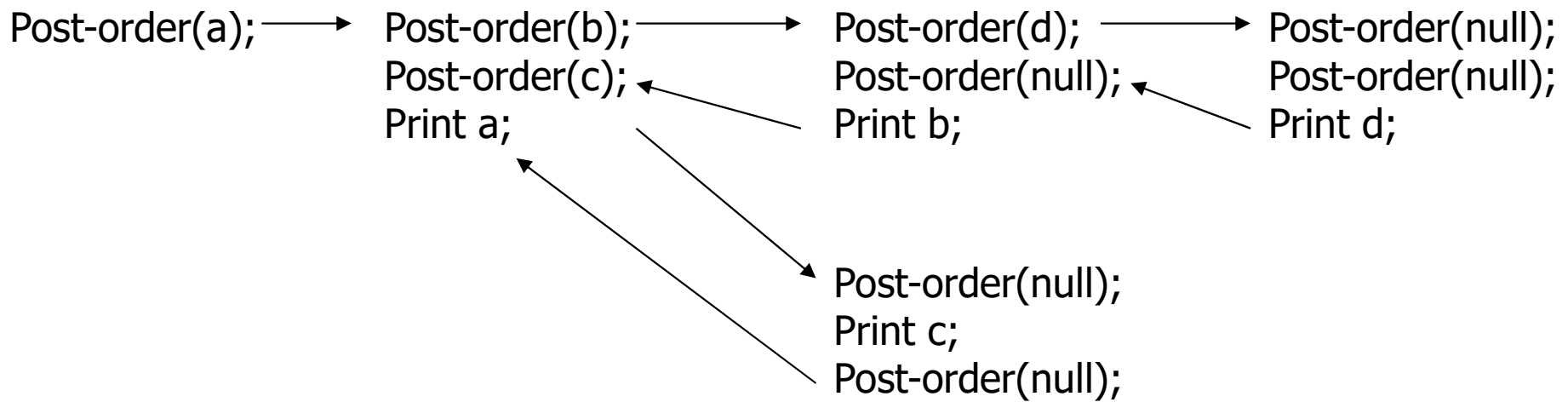
# In-order example



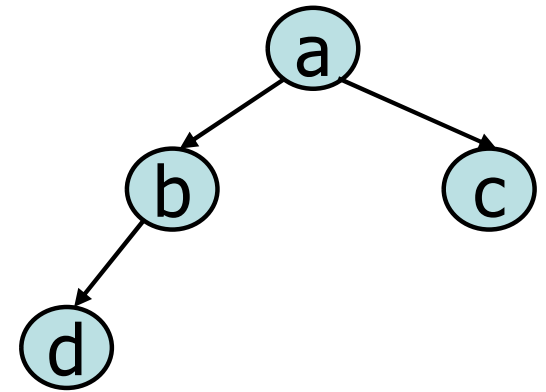
**d b a c**



# Post-order example



d b c a



# Time complexity for in-order and post-order

- Similar to pre-order traversal, the time complexity is  $O(n)$ .

# Level-order

- Level-order traversal requires a queue!

**Algorithm level-order(BTree t)**

Queue Q = new Queue();

BTree n;

Q.enqueue(t); *// insert pointer t into Q*

while (! Q.empty()){

  n = Q.dequeue(); *//remove next node from the front of Q*

  if (!n.isEmpty()){

    print n.getItem(); *// you can do other things*

    Q.enqueue(n.getLeft()); *// enqueue left subtree on rear of Q*

    Q.enqueue(n.getRight()); *// enqueue right subtree on rear of Q*

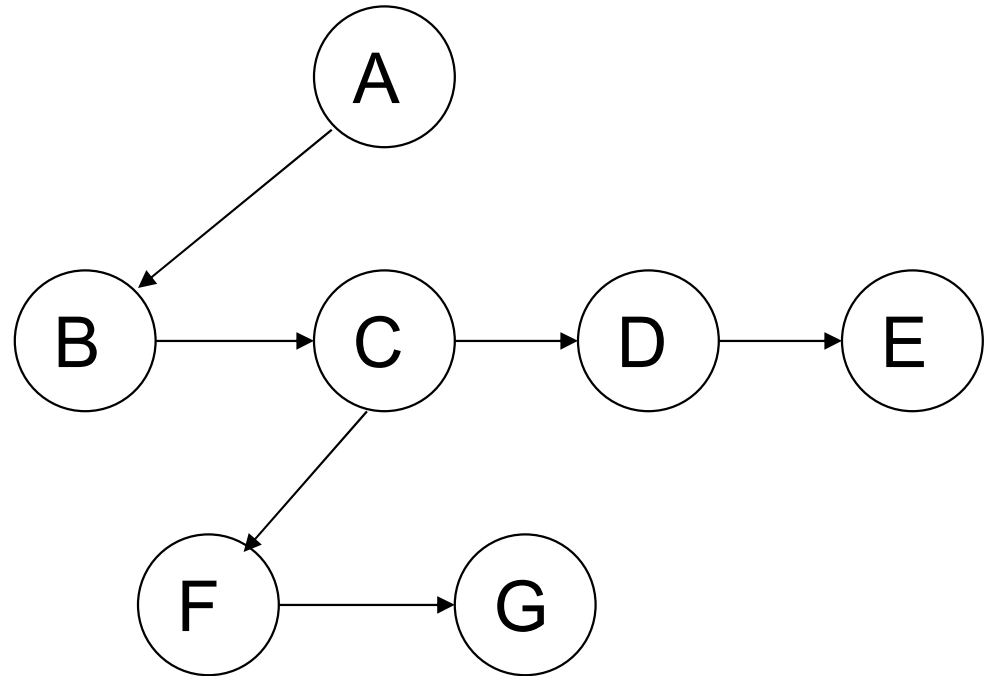
  };  
};

# Time complexity of Level-order traversal

- Each node will enqueue and dequeue one time.
- For each node dequeued, it only does one print operation!
- Thus, the time complexity is  $O(n)$ .

# General tree implementation

```
struct TreeNode
{
    Object      element
    TreeNode *firstChild
    TreeNode *nextsibling
}
```



because we do not know how many children a node has in advance.

- Traversing a general tree is similar to traversing a binary tree

# Summary

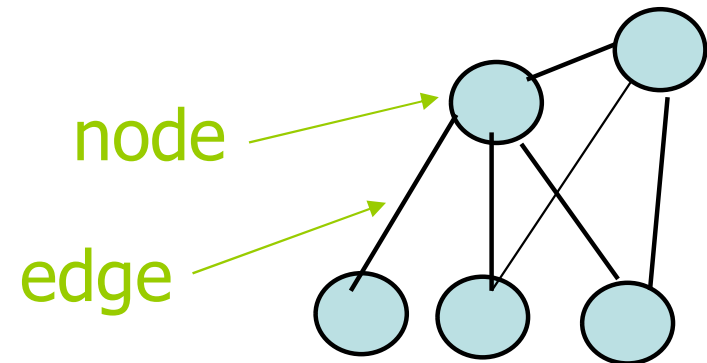
- We have discussed
  - the tree data-structure.
  - Binary tree vs general tree
  - Binary tree ADT
    - Can be implemented using arrays or references
  - Tree traversal
    - Pre-order, in-order, post-order, and level-order



# Graphs

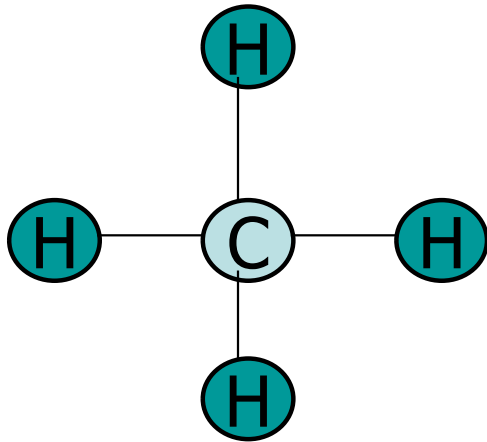
# What is a graph?

- Graphs represent the relationships among data items
- A graph  $G$  consists of
  - a set  $V$  of nodes (vertices)
  - a set  $E$  of edges: each edge connects two nodes
- Each node represents an item
- Each edge represents the relationship between two items

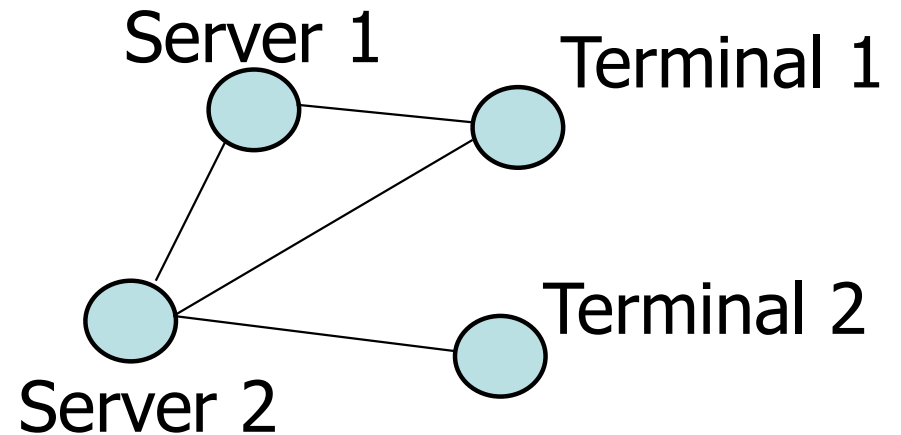


# Examples of graphs

## Molecular Structure



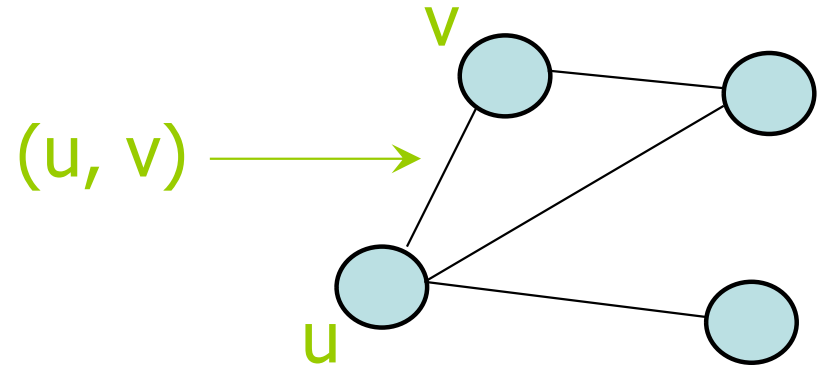
## Computer Network



Other examples: electrical and communication networks, airline routes, flow chart, graphs for planning projects

# Formal Definition of graph

- The set of nodes is denoted as  $V$
- For any nodes  $u$  and  $v$ , if  $u$  and  $v$  are connected by an edge, such edge is denoted as  $(u, v)$

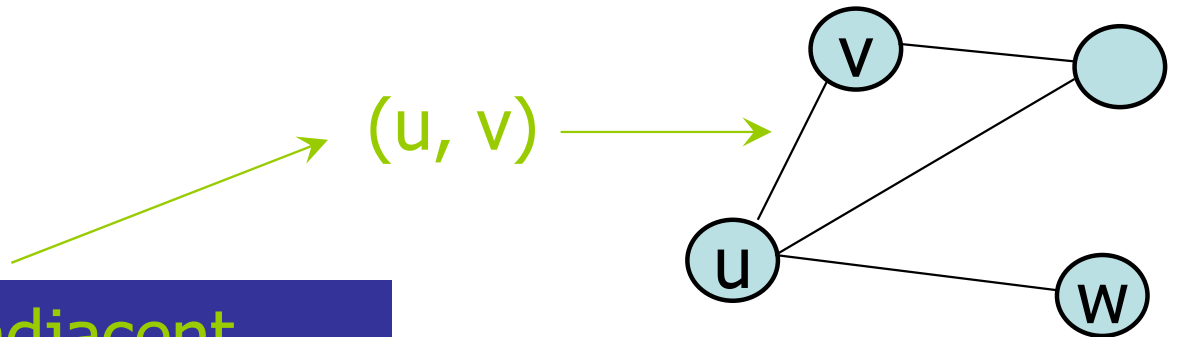


- The set of edges is denoted as  $E$
- A graph  $G$  is defined as a pair  $(V, E)$

# Adjacent

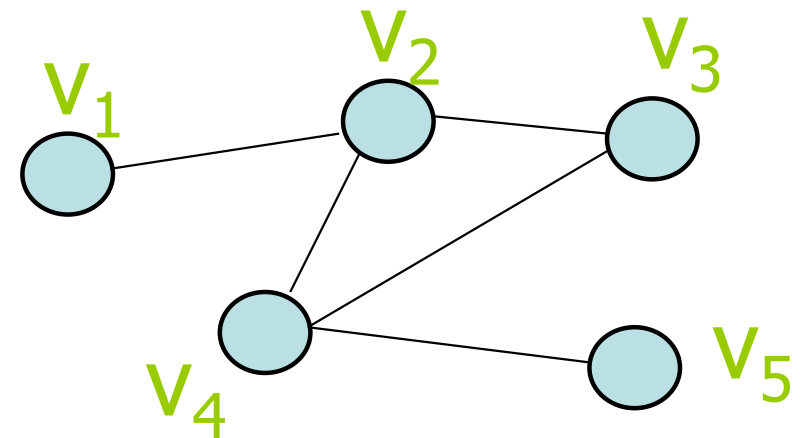
- Two nodes  $u$  and  $v$  are said to be **adjacent** if  $(u, v) \in E$

$u$  and  $v$  are adjacent  
 $v$  and  $w$  are not adjacent



# Path and simple path

- A **path** from  $v_1$  to  $v_k$  is a sequence of nodes  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  that are connected by edges  $(v_1, v_2), (v_2, v_3), \dots, (v_{k-1}, v_k)$
- A path is called a **simple path** if every node appears at most once.

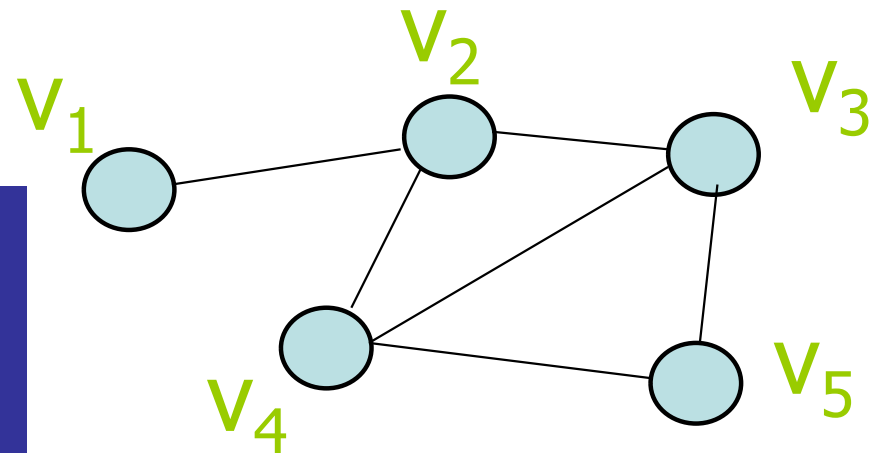


-  $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_2, v_1$  is a path  
-  $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5$  is a path, also it is a simple path

# Cycle and simple cycle

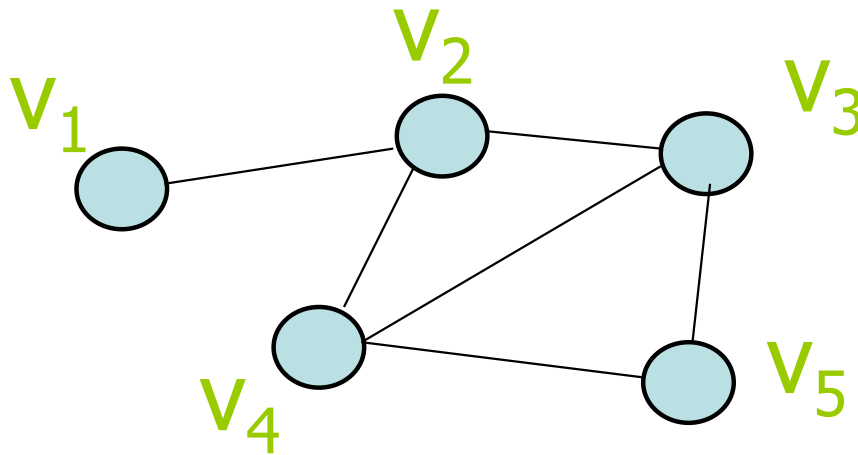
- A **cycle** is a path that begins and ends at the same node
- A **simple cycle** is a cycle if every node appears at most once, except for the first and the last nodes

-  $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5, v_3, v_2$  is a cycle  
-  $v_2, v_3, v_4, v_2$  is a cycle, it is also a simple cycle



# Connected graph

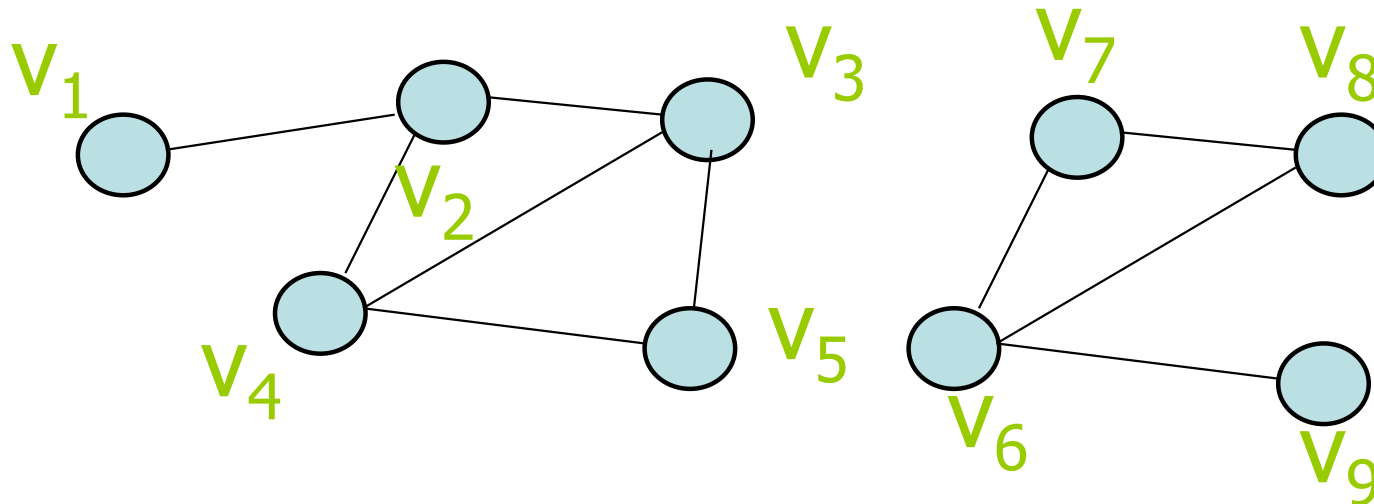
- A graph  $G$  is **connected** if there exists path between every pair of distinct nodes; otherwise, it is **disconnected**



This is a connected graph because there exists path between every pair of nodes



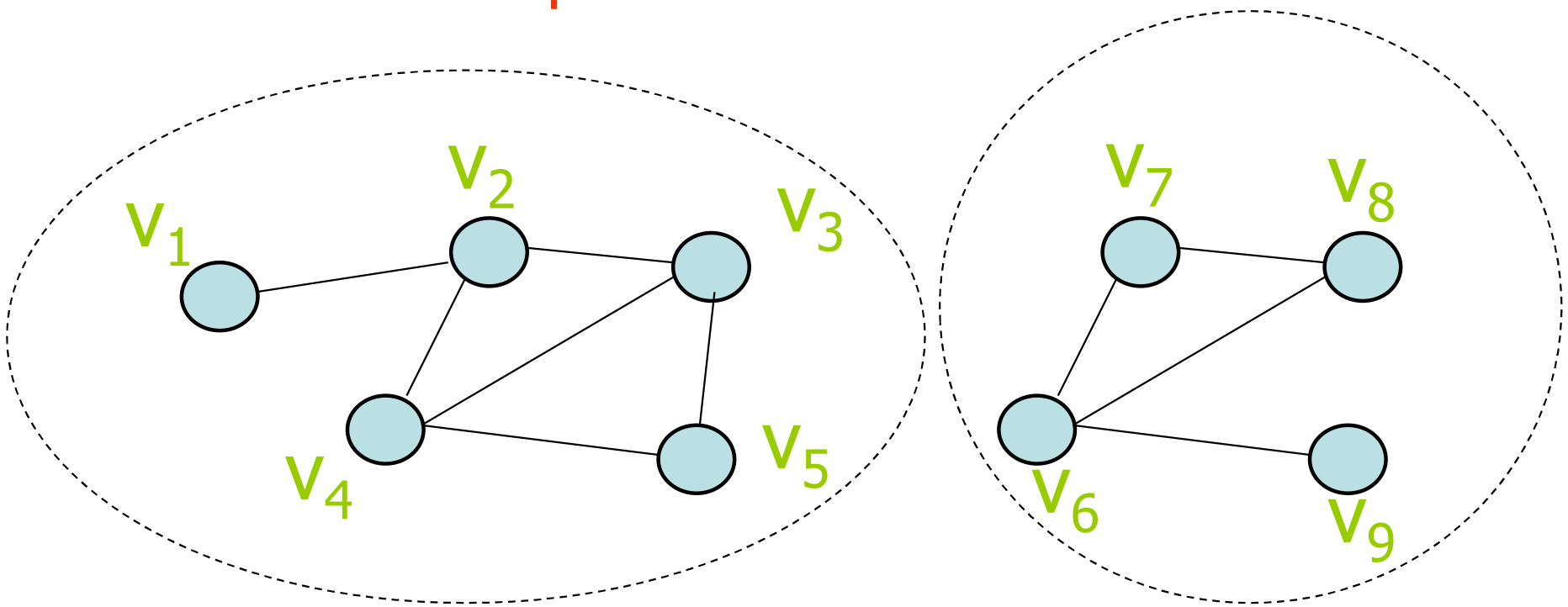
# Example of disconnected graph



This is a disconnected graph because there does not exist path between some pair of nodes, says,  $v_1$  and  $v_7$

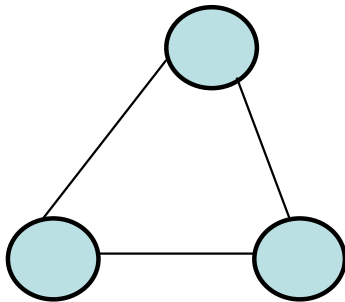
# Connected component

- If a graph is disconnect, it can be partitioned into a number of graphs such that each of them is connected. Each such graph is called a **connected component**.

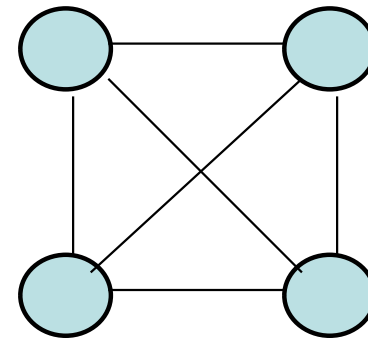


# Complete graph

- A graph is **complete** if each pair of distinct nodes has an edge



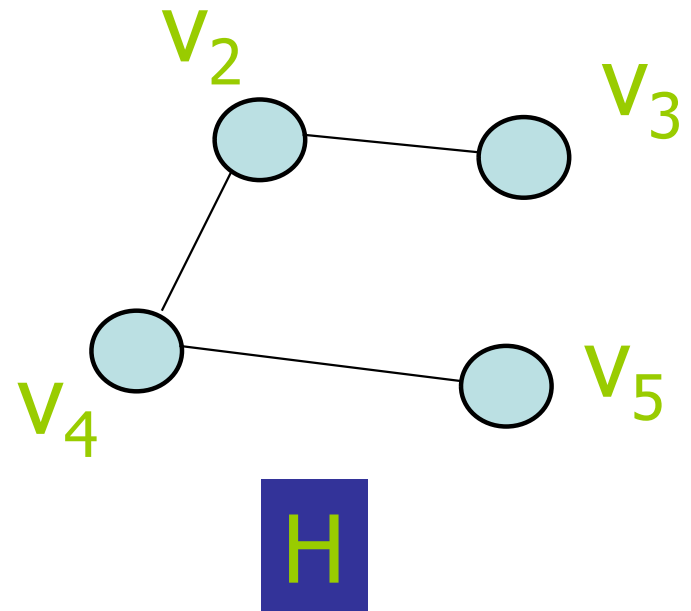
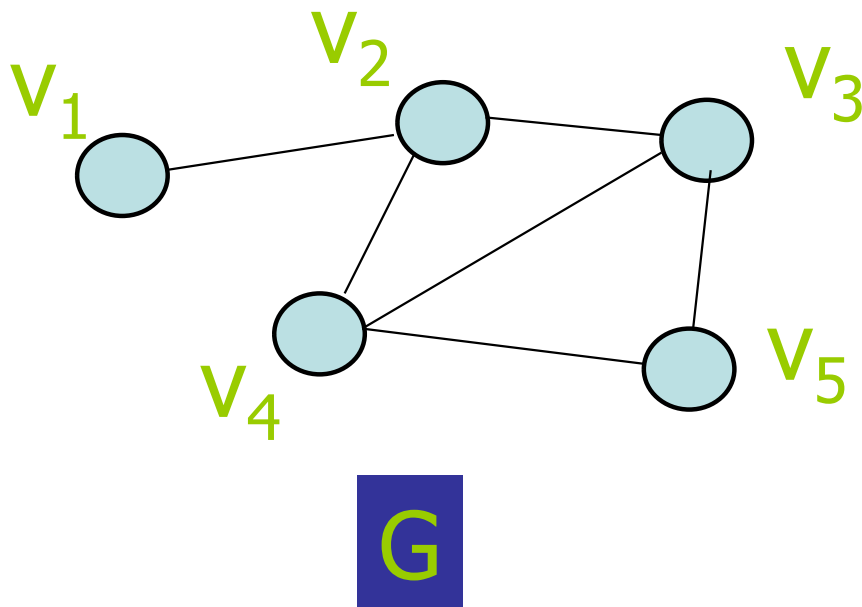
Complete graph  
with 3 nodes



Complete graph  
with 4 nodes

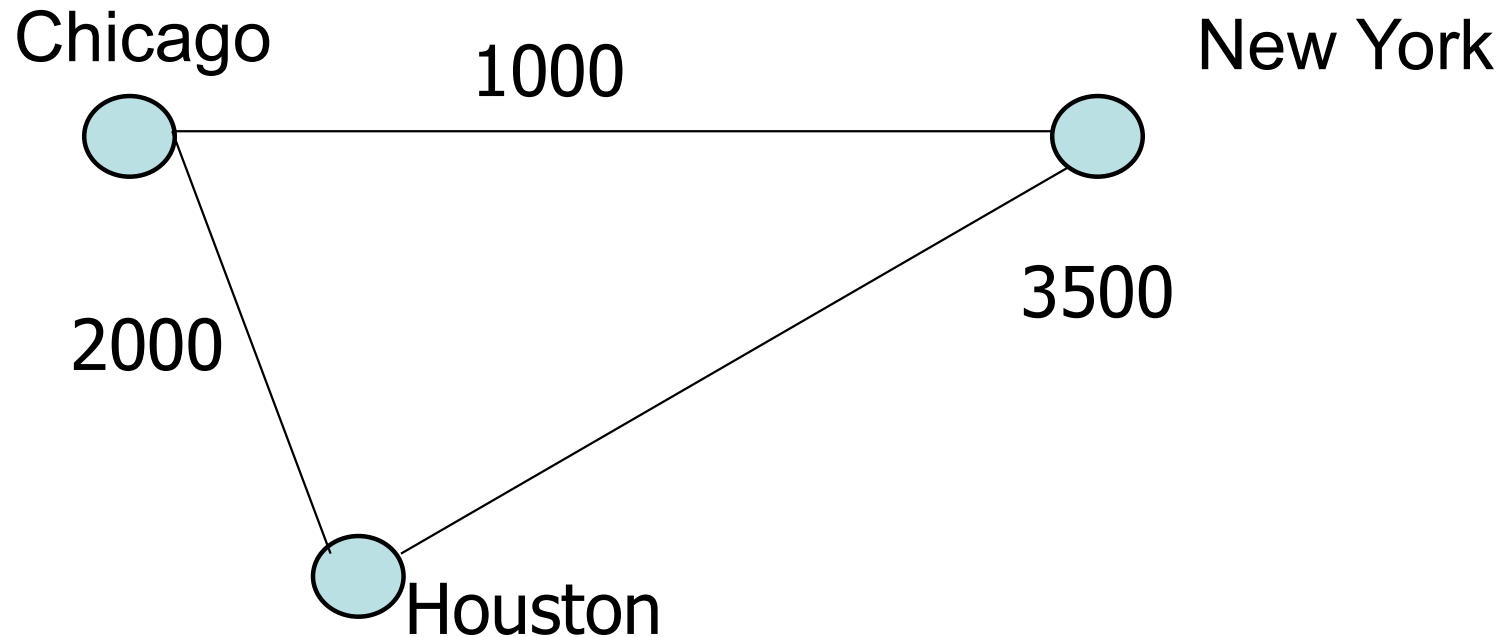
# Subgraph

- A **subgraph** of a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a graph  $H = (U, F)$  such that  $U \subseteq V$  and  $F \subseteq E$ .



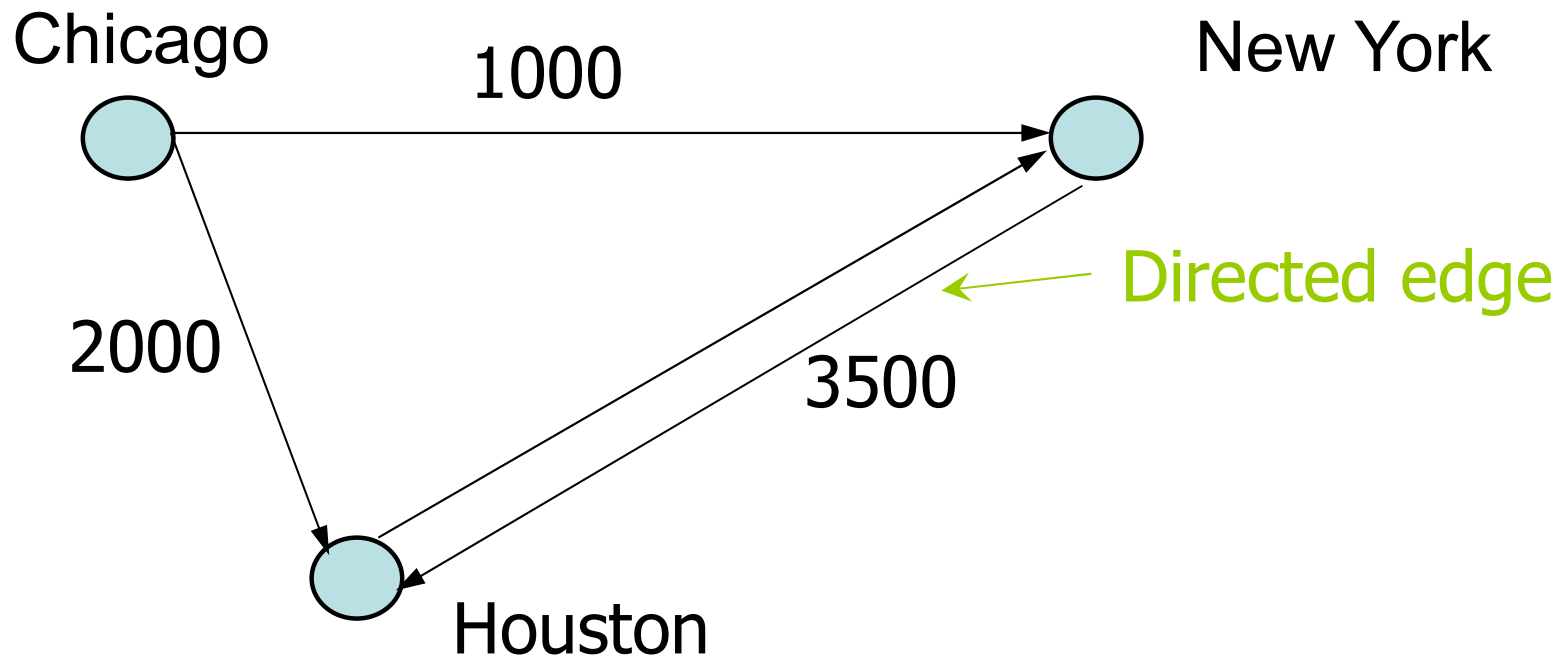
# Weighted graph

- If each edge in  $G$  is assigned a weight, it is called a **weighted graph**

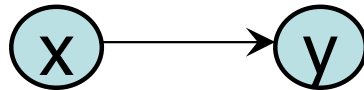


# Directed graph (digraph)

- All previous graphs are **undirected graph**
- If each edge in  $E$  has a direction, it is called a **directed edge**
- A directed graph is a graph where every edges is a **directed edge**



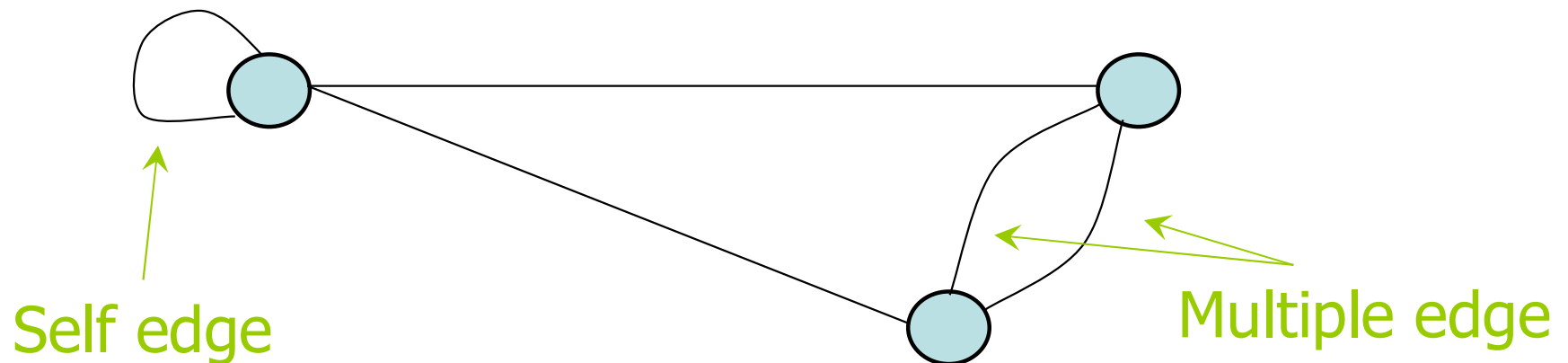
# More on directed graph



- If  $(x, y)$  is a directed edge, we say
  - y is **adjacent** to x
  - y is **successor** of x
  - x is **predecessor** of y
- In a directed graph, **directed path**, **directed cycle** can be defined similarly

# Multigraph

- A graph cannot have duplicate edges.
- Multigraph allows **multiple edges** and **self edge** (or **loop**).





# Property of graph

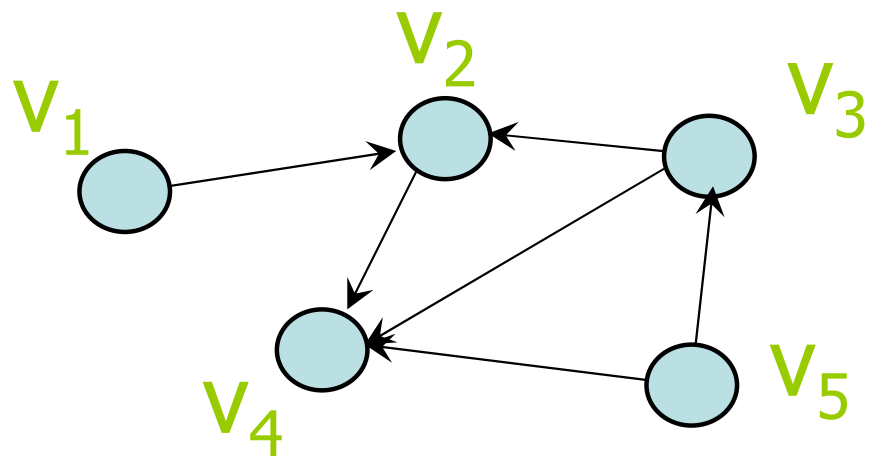
- A undirected graph that is connected and has no cycle is a tree.
- A tree with  $n$  nodes have exactly  $n-1$  edges.
- A connected undirected graph with  $n$  nodes must have at least  $n-1$  edges.

# Implementing Graph

- Adjacency matrix
  - Represent a graph using a two-dimensional array
- Adjacency list
  - Represent a graph using  $n$  linked lists where  $n$  is the number of vertices

# Adjacency matrix for directed graph

$\text{Matrix}[i][j] = 1$  if  $(v_i, v_j) \in E$   
 $0$  if  $(v_i, v_j) \notin E$

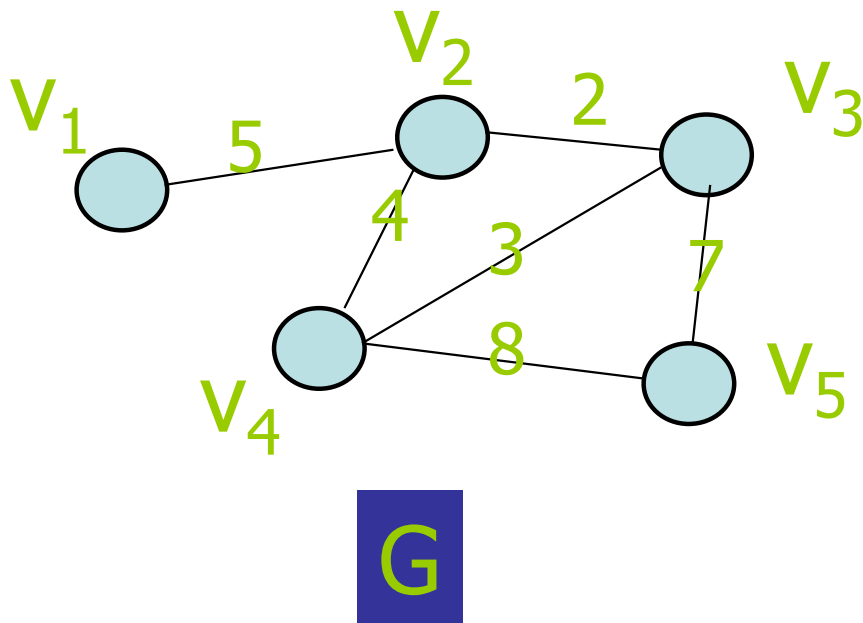


**G**

		1	2	3	4	5
		$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$	$v_5$
1	$v_1$	0	1	0	0	0
2	$v_2$	0	0	0	1	0
3	$v_3$	0	1	0	1	0
4	$v_4$	0	0	0	0	0
5	$v_5$	0	0	1	1	0

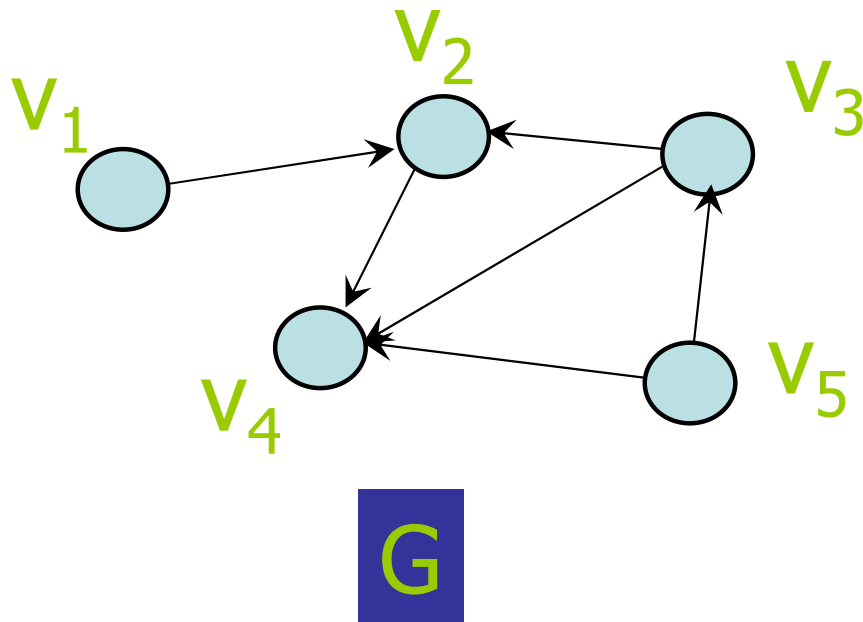
# Adjacency matrix for weighted undirected graph

$\text{Matrix}[i][j] = w(v_i, v_j)$  if  $(v_i, v_j) \in E$  or  $(v_j, v_i) \in E$   
 $\infty$  otherwise



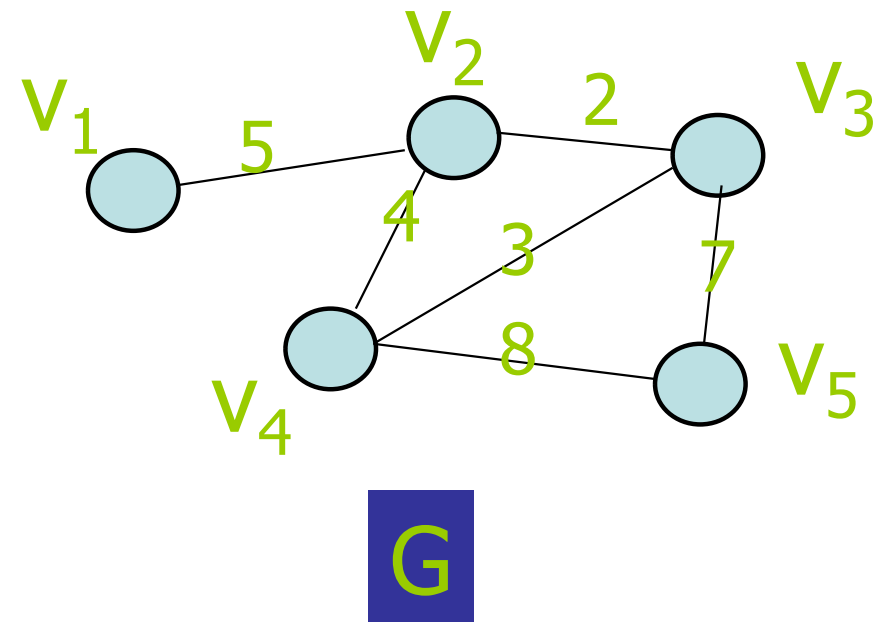
		1	2	3	4	5
		$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$	$v_5$
1	$v_1$	$\infty$	5	$\infty$	$\infty$	$\infty$
2	$v_2$	5	$\infty$	2	4	$\infty$
3	$v_3$	0	2	$\infty$	3	7
4	$v_4$	$\infty$	4	3	$\infty$	8
5	$v_5$	$\infty$	$\infty$	7	8	$\infty$

# Adjacency list for directed graph



1	$v_1$	$\rightarrow$	$v_2$
2	$v_2$	$\rightarrow$	$v_4$
3	$v_3$	$\rightarrow$	$v_2 \rightarrow v_4$
4	$v_4$		
5	$v_5$	$\rightarrow$	$v_3 \rightarrow v_4$

# Adjacency list for weighted undirected graph



1	$v_1$	$\rightarrow v_2(5)$		
2	$v_2$	$\rightarrow v_1(5) \rightarrow v_3(2) \rightarrow v_4(4)$		
3	$v_3$	$\rightarrow v_2(2) \rightarrow v_4(3) \rightarrow v_5(7)$		
4	$v_4$	$\rightarrow v_2(4) \rightarrow v_3(3) \rightarrow v_5(8)$		
5	$v_5$	$\rightarrow v_3(7) \rightarrow v_4(8)$		

# Pros and Cons

- Adjacency matrix
  - Allows us to determine whether there is an edge from node  $i$  to node  $j$  in  $O(1)$  time
- Adjacency list
  - Allows us to find all nodes adjacent to a given node  $j$  efficiently
  - If the graph is sparse, adjacency list requires less space

# Problems related to Graph

- Graph Traversal
- Topological Sort
- Spanning Tree
- Minimum Spanning Tree
- Shortest Path



# Graph Traversal Algorithm

- To traverse a tree, we use tree traversal algorithms like pre-order, in-order, and post-order to visit all the nodes in a tree
- Similarly, **graph traversal algorithm** tries to visit all the nodes it can reach.
- If a graph is disconnected, a graph traversal that begins at a node  $v$  will visit only a subset of nodes, that is, the **connected component** containing  $v$ .

# Two basic traversal algorithms

- Two basic graph traversal algorithms:
  - Depth-first-search (DFS)
    - After visit node  $v$ , DFS strategy proceeds along a path from  $v$  as deeply into the graph as possible before backing up
  - Breadth-first-search (BFS)
    - After visit node  $v$ , BFS strategy visits every node adjacent to  $v$  before visiting any other nodes

# Depth-first search (DFS)

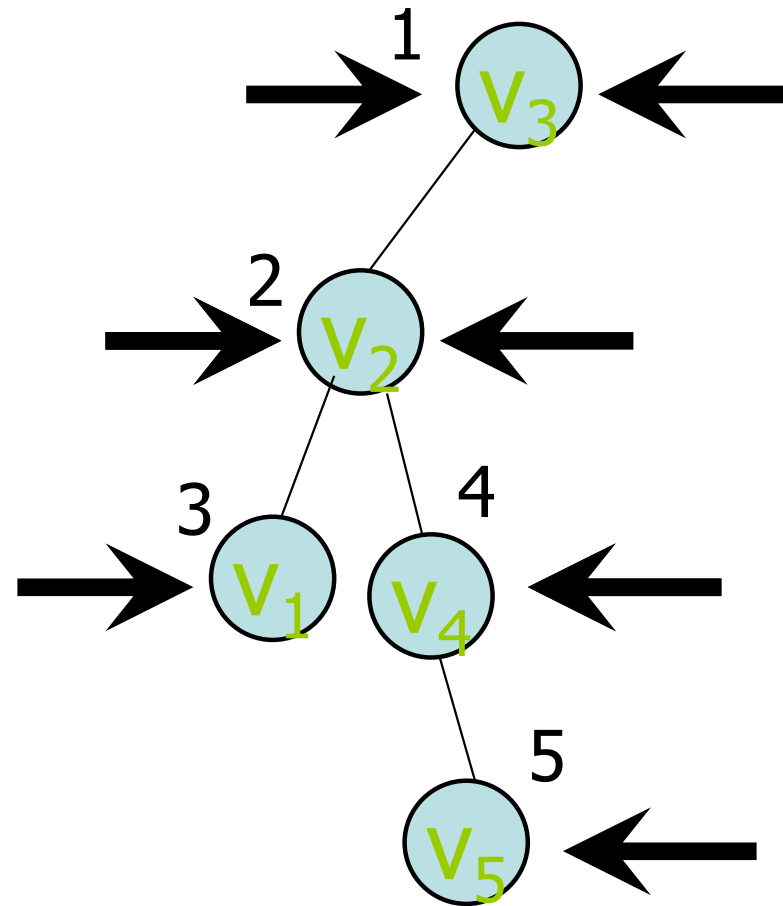
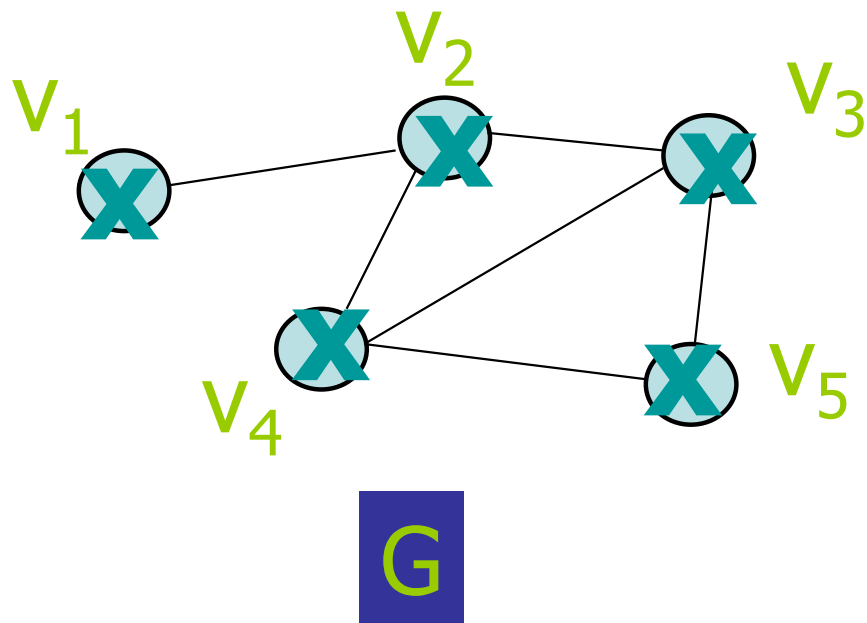
- DFS strategy looks similar to pre-order. From a given node  $v$ , it first visits itself. Then, recursively visit its unvisited neighbours one by one.
- DFS can be defined recursively as follows.

## **Algorithm dfs( $v$ )**

```
print v; // you can do other things!  
mark v as visited;  
for (each unvisited node u adjacent to v)  
    dfs(u);
```

# DFS example

- Start from  $v_3$



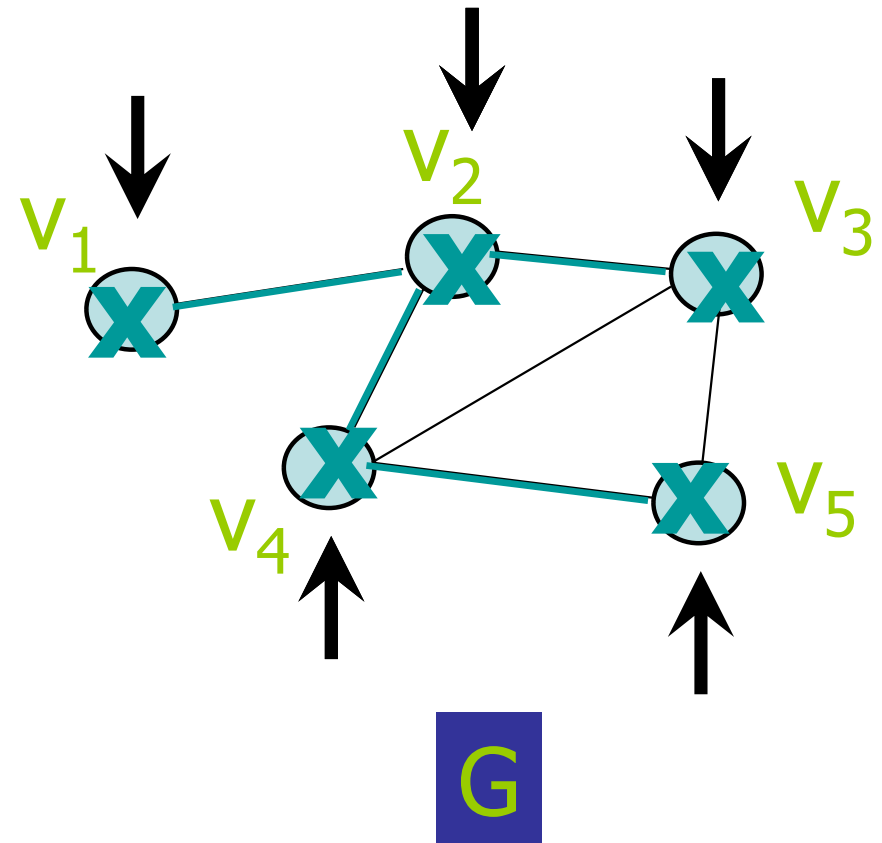
# Non-recursive version of DFS algorithm

## Algorithm dfs(v)

```
s.createStack();
s.push(v);
mark v as visited;
while (!s.isEmpty()) {
    let x be the node on the top of the stack s;
    if (no unvisited nodes are adjacent to x)
        s.pop(); // backtrack
    else {
        select an unvisited node u adjacent to x;
        s.push(u);
        mark u as visited;
    }
}
```

# Non-recursive DFS example

	visit	stack
→	$V_3$	$V_3$
→	$V_2$	$V_3, V_2$
→	$V_1$	$V_3, V_2, V_1$
→	backtrack	$V_3, V_2$
→	$V_4$	$V_3, V_2, V_4$
→	$V_5$	$V_3, V_2, V_4, V_5$
→	backtrack	$V_3, V_2, V_4$
→	backtrack	$V_3, V_2$
→	backtrack	$V_3$
→	backtrack	empty



# Breadth-first search (BFS)

- BFS strategy looks similar to level-order. From a given node  $v$ , it first visits itself. Then, it visits every node adjacent to  $v$  before visiting any other nodes.
  - 1. Visit  $v$
  - 2. Visit all  $v$ 's neighbours
  - 3. Visit all  $v$ 's neighbours' neighbours
  - ...
- Similar to level-order, BFS is based on a queue.

# Algorithm for BFS

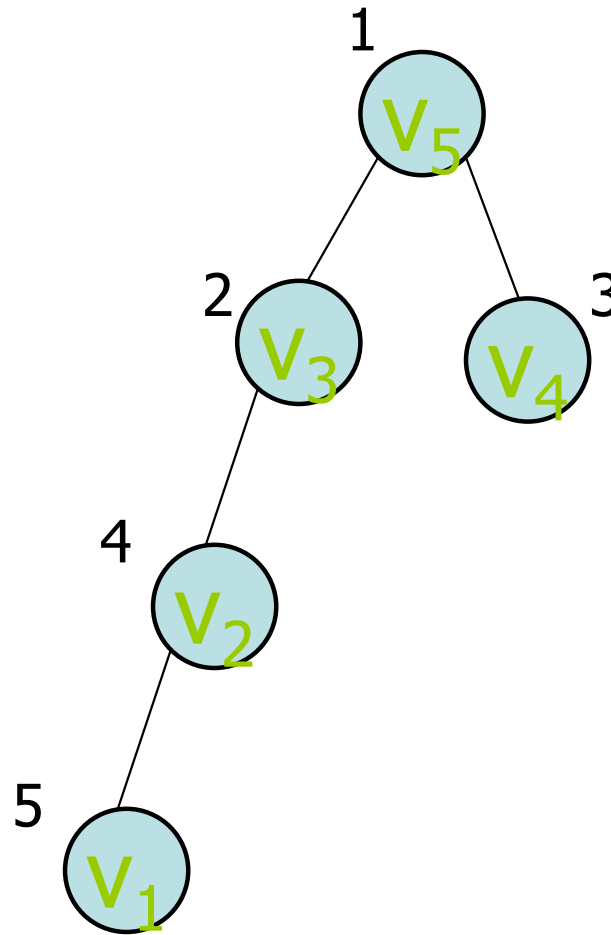
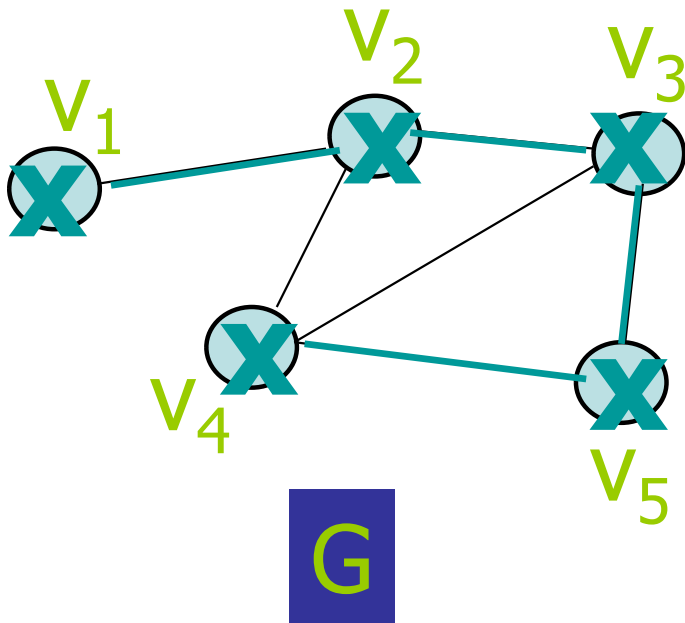
## **Algorithm bfs(v)**

```
q.createQueue();
q.enqueue(v);
mark v as visited;
while(!q.isEmpty()) {
    w = q.dequeue();
    for (each unvisited node u adjacent to w) {
        q.enqueue(u);
        mark u as visited;
    }
}
```



# BFS example

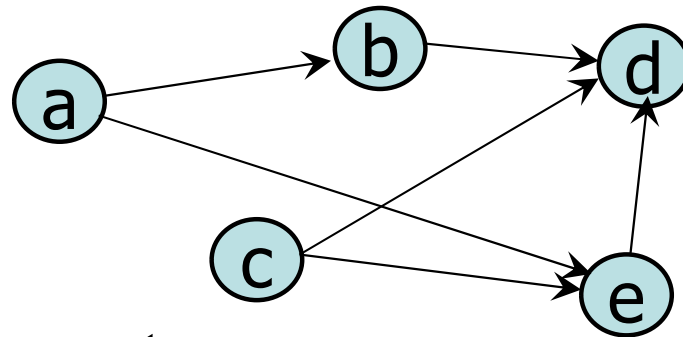
- Start from  $v_5$



Visit	Queue (front to back)
$v_5$	$v_5$
	empty
$v_3$	$v_3$
$v_4$	$v_3, v_4$
	$v_4$
$v_2$	$v_4, v_2$
	$v_2$
	empty
$v_1$	$v_1$
	empty

# Topological order

- Consider the prerequisite structure for courses:



- Each node  $x$  represents a course  $x$
- $(x, y)$  represents that course  $x$  is a prerequisite to course  $y$
- Note that this graph should be a directed graph without cycles (called **a directed acyclic graph**).
- A linear order to take all 5 courses while satisfying all prerequisites is called a **topological order**.
- E.g.
  - $a, c, b, e, d$
  - $c, a, b, e, d$

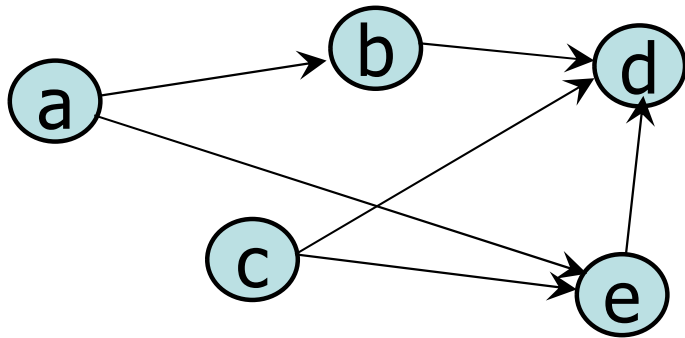
# Topological sort

- Arranging all nodes in the graph in a topological order

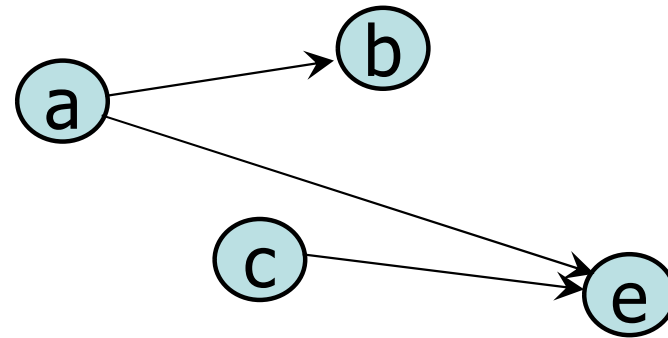
## Algorithm topSort

```
n = |V|;  
for i = 1 to n {  
    select a node v that has no successor;  
    aList.add(1, v);  
    delete node v and its edges from the graph;  
}  
return aList;
```

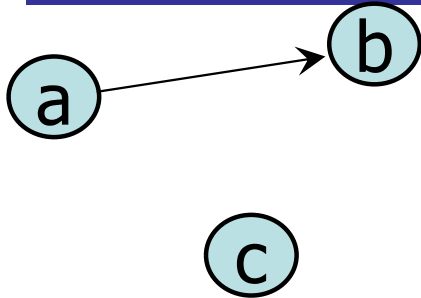
# Example



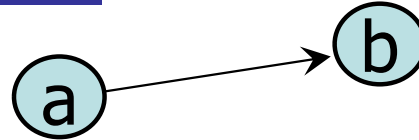
1. d has no successor!  
Choose d!



2. Both b and e have no successor!  
Choose e!



3. Both b and c have no successor!  
Choose c!



4. Only b has no successor!  
Choose b!



5. Choose a!  
The topological order is **a,b,c,e,d**

# Topological sort algorithm 2

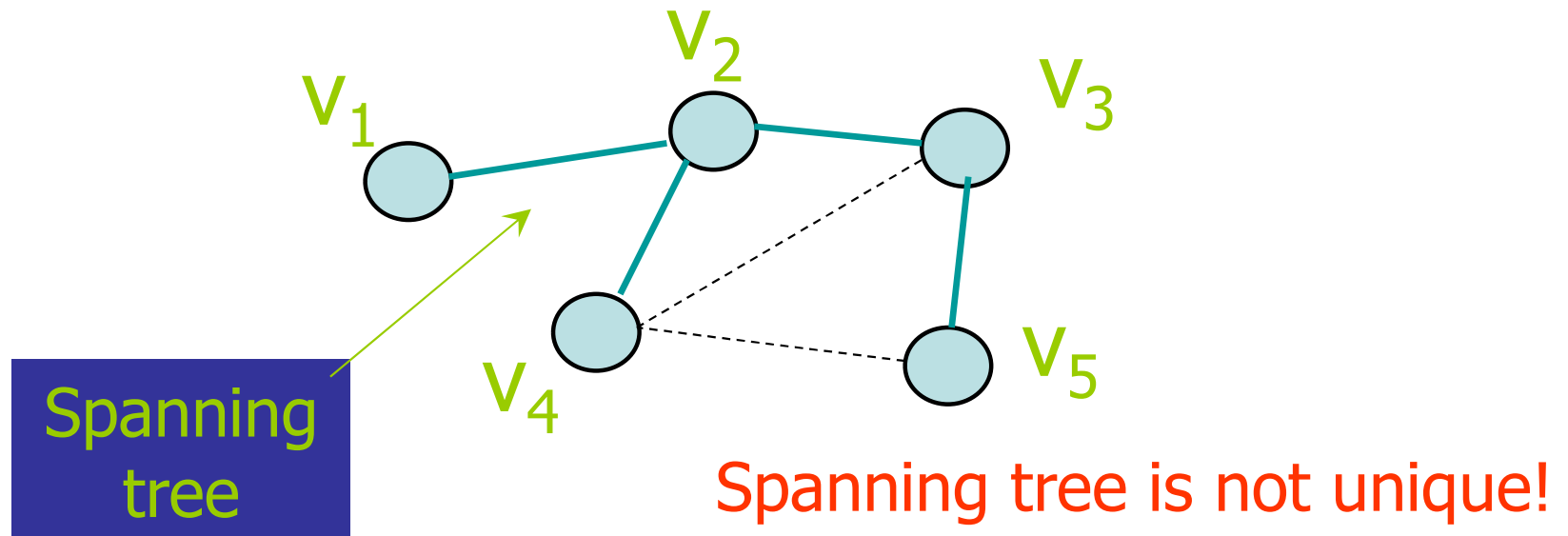
- This algorithm is based on DFS

## Algorithm topSort2

```
s.createStack();
for (all nodes v in the graph) {
    if (v has no predecessors) {
        s.push(v);
        mark v as visited;
    }
}
while (!s.isEmpty()) {
    let x be the node on the top of the stack s;
    if (no unvisited nodes are adjacent to x) { // i.e. x has no unvisited successor
        aList.add(1, x);
        s.pop(); // backtrack
    } else {
        select an unvisited node u adjacent to x;
        s.push(u);
        mark u as visited;
    }
}
return aList;
```

# Spanning Tree

- Given a connected undirected graph  $G$ , a **spanning tree** of  $G$  is a subgraph of  $G$  that contains all of  $G$ 's nodes and enough of its edges to form a tree.



# DFS spanning tree

- Generate the spanning tree edge during the DFS traversal.

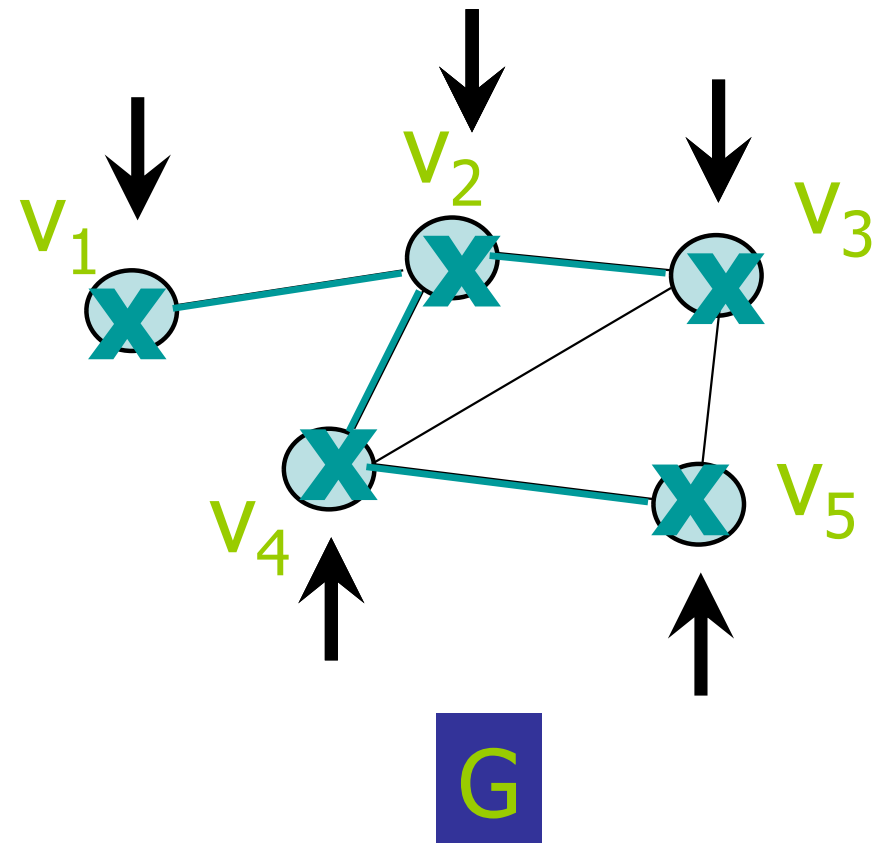
## Algorithm dfsSpanningTree(v)

```
mark v as visited;  
for (each unvisited node u adjacent to v) {  
    mark the edge from u to v;  
    dfsSpanningTree(u);  
}
```

- Similar to DFS, the spanning tree edges can be generated based on BFS traversal.

# Example of generating spanning tree based on DFS

	stack
$V_3$	$V_3$
$V_2$	$V_3, V_2$
$V_1$	$V_3, V_2, V_1$
backtrack	$V_3, V_2$
$V_4$	$V_3, V_2, V_4$
$V_5$	$V_3, V_2, V_4, V_5$
backtrack	$V_3, V_2, V_4$
backtrack	$V_3, V_2$
backtrack	$V_3$
backtrack	empty



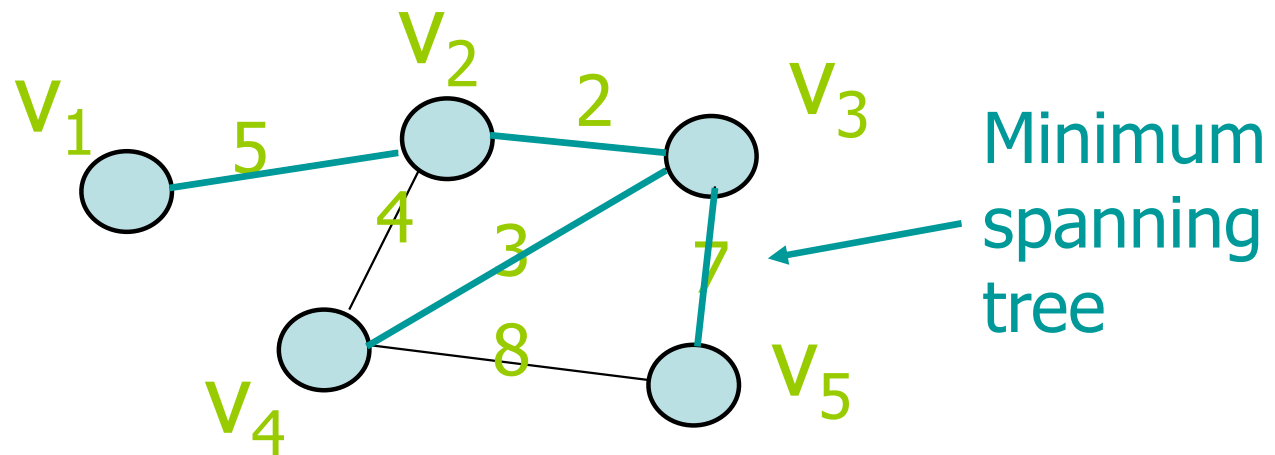


# Minimum Spanning Tree

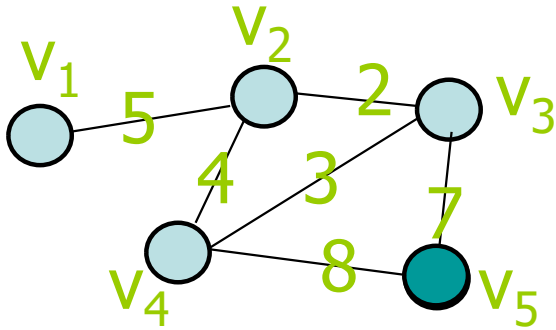
- Consider a connected undirected graph where
  - Each node  $x$  represents a country  $x$
  - Each edge  $(x, y)$  has a number which measures the cost of placing telephone line between country  $x$  and country  $y$
- **Problem:** connecting all countries while minimizing the total cost
- **Solution:** find a spanning tree with minimum total weight, that is, **minimum spanning tree**

# Formal definition of minimum spanning tree

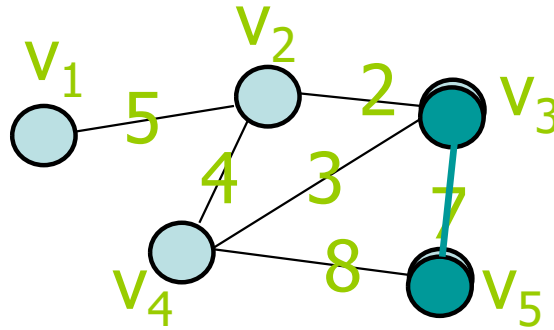
- Given a connected undirected graph  $G$ .
- Let  $T$  be a spanning tree of  $G$ .
- $\text{cost}(T) = \sum_{e \in T} \text{weight}(e)$
- The minimum spanning tree is a spanning tree  $T$  which minimizes  $\text{cost}(T)$



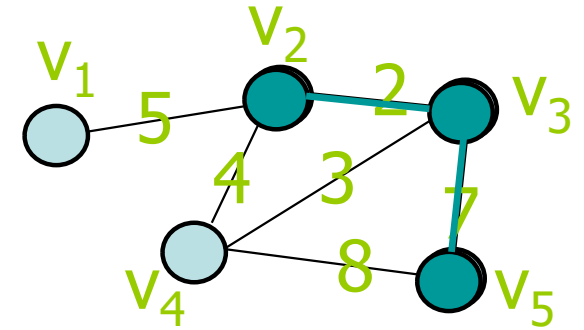
# Prim's algorithm (I)



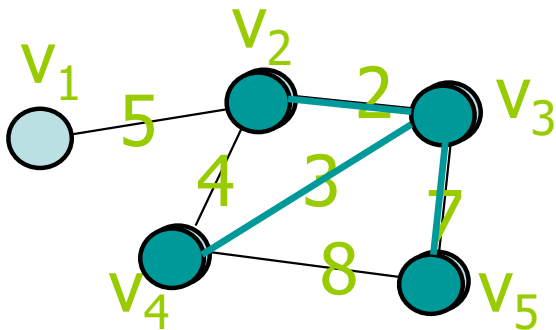
Start from  $v_5$ , find the minimum edge attach to  $v_5$



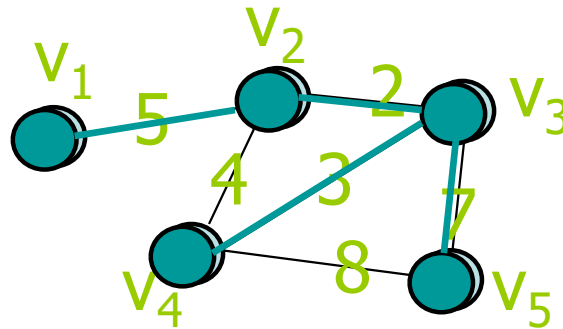
Find the minimum edge attach to  $v_3$  and  $v_5$



Find the minimum edge attach to  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$  and  $v_5$



Find the minimum edge attach to  $v_2$ ,  $v_3$ ,  $v_4$  and  $v_5$



# Prim's algorithm (II)

## Algorithm PrimAlgorithm( $v$ )

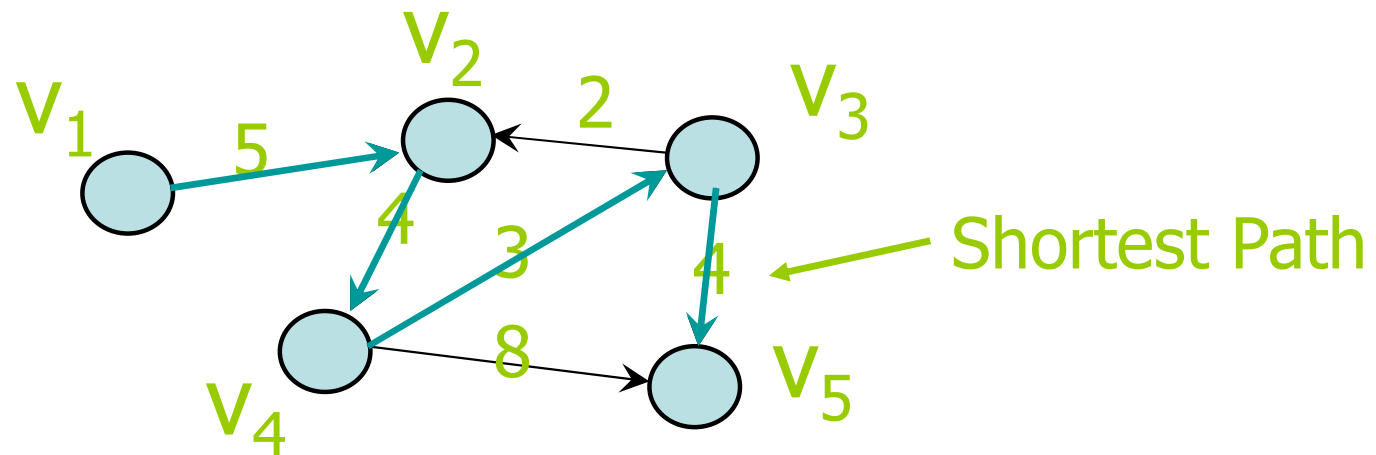
- Mark node  $v$  as visited and include it in the minimum spanning tree;
- while (there are unvisited nodes) {
  - find the minimum edge  $(v, u)$  between a visited node  $v$  and an unvisited node  $u$ ;
  - mark  $u$  as visited;
  - add both  $v$  and  $(v, u)$  to the minimum spanning tree;}

# Shortest path

- Consider a weighted directed graph
  - Each node  $x$  represents a city  $x$
  - Each edge  $(x, y)$  has a number which represent the cost of traveling from city  $x$  to city  $y$
- **Problem**: find the minimum cost to travel from city  $x$  to city  $y$
- **Solution**: find the **shortest path** from  $x$  to  $y$

# Formal definition of shortest path

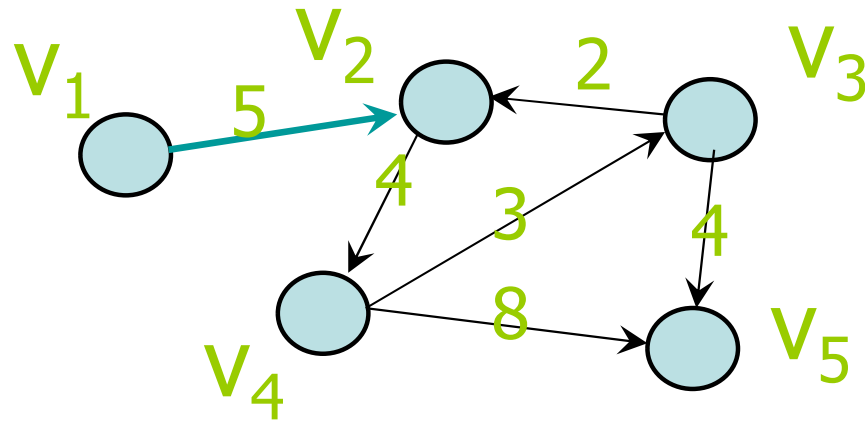
- Given a weighted directed graph  $G$ .
- Let  $P$  be a path of  $G$  from  $x$  to  $y$ .
- $\text{cost}(P) = \sum_{e \in P} \text{weight}(e)$
- The shortest path is a path  $P$  which minimizes  $\text{cost}(P)$



# Dijkstra's algorithm

- Consider a graph  $G$ , each edge  $(u, v)$  has a weight  $w(u, v) > 0$ .
- Suppose we want to find the shortest path starting from  $v_1$  to any node  $v_i$
- Let  $VS$  be a subset of nodes in  $G$
- Let  $\text{cost}[v_i]$  be the weight of the shortest path from  $v_1$  to  $v_i$  that passes through nodes in  $VS$  only.

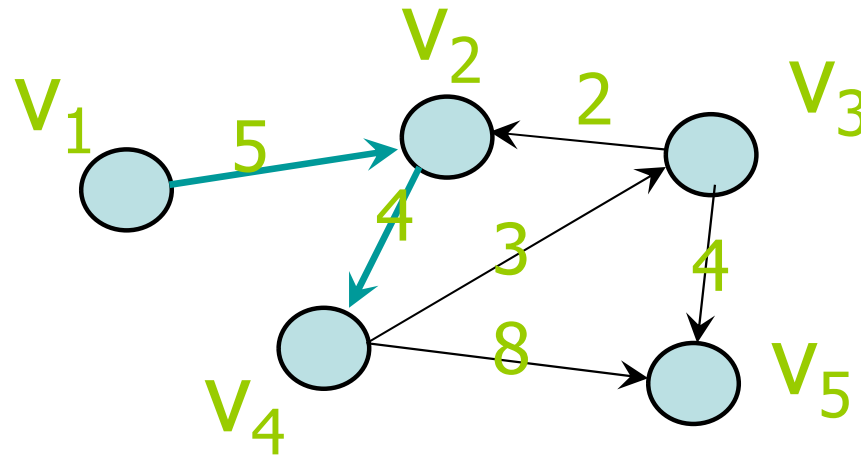
# Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



	v	VS	cost[v <sub>1</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>2</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>3</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>4</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>5</sub> ]
1		[v <sub>1</sub> ]	0	5	∞	∞	∞

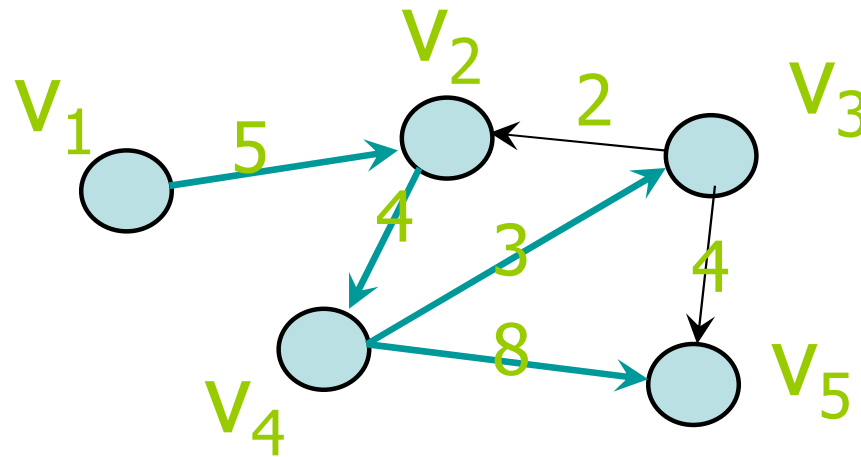


# Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



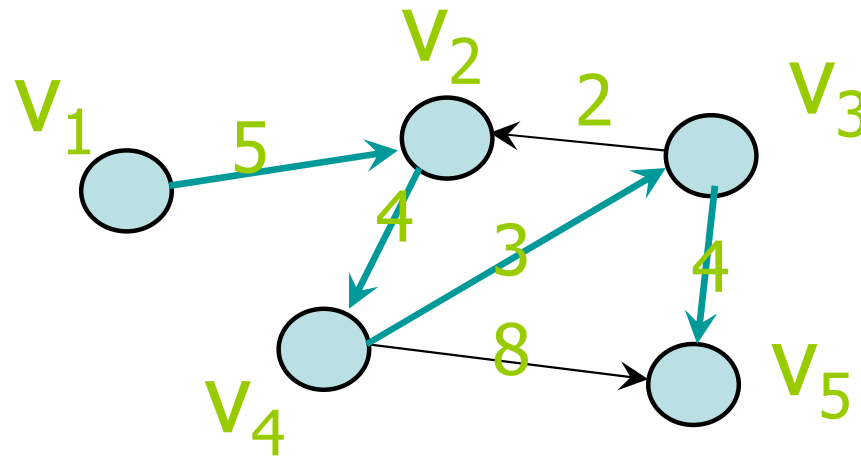
	v	VS	cost[v <sub>1</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>2</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>3</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>4</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>5</sub> ]
1		[v <sub>1</sub> ]	0	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v <sub>2</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> ]	0	5	∞	9	∞

# Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



	v	VS	cost[v <sub>1</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>2</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>3</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>4</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>5</sub> ]
1		[v <sub>1</sub> ]	0	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v <sub>2</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> ]	0	5	∞	9	∞
3	v <sub>4</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> , v <sub>4</sub> ]	0	5	12	9	17

# Example for Dijkstra's algorithm



	v	VS	cost[v <sub>1</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>2</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>3</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>4</sub> ]	cost[v <sub>5</sub> ]
1		[v <sub>1</sub> ]	0	5	∞	∞	∞
2	v <sub>2</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> ]	0	5	∞	9	∞
3	v <sub>4</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> , v <sub>4</sub> ]	0	5	12	9	17
4	v <sub>3</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> , v <sub>4</sub> , v <sub>3</sub> ]	0	5	12	9	16
5	v <sub>5</sub>	[v <sub>1</sub> , v <sub>2</sub> , v <sub>4</sub> , v <sub>3</sub> , v <sub>5</sub> ]	0	5	12	9	16

# Dijkstra's algorithm

## Algorithm shortestPath()

```
n = number of nodes in the graph;
for i = 1 to n
    cost[vi] = w(v1, vi);
VS = { v1 };
for step = 2 to n {
    find the smallest cost[vi] s.t. vi is not in VS;
    include vi to VS;
    for (all nodes vj not in VS) {
        if (cost[vj] > cost[vi] + w(vi, vj))
            cost[vj] = cost[vi] + w(vi, vj);
    }
}
```

# Summary

- Graphs can be used to represent many real-life problems.
- There are numerous important graph algorithms.
- We have studied some basic concepts and algorithms.
  - Graph Traversal
  - Topological Sort
  - Spanning Tree
  - Minimum Spanning Tree
  - Shortest Path