CSCI203 Algorithms and Data Structures

Graphs (II)

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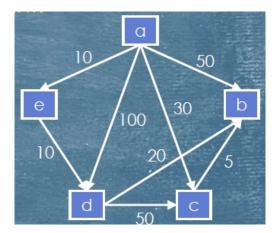
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Weighted Graphs

- Frequently, we find that travelling along an edge in a graph has some associated cost (or profit) associated with it:
 - The distance along the edge;
 - The cost of petrol;
 - The time of travel:
 - Etc.
- We call these Weighted Graphs.
- We call the edge values weights

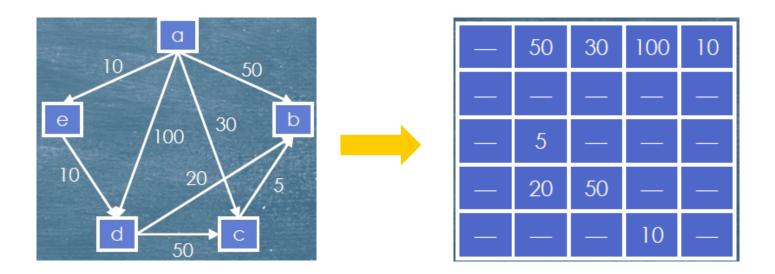
Definition

- We extend our previous graph definition as follows:
 - A weighted graph, G, consists of the ordered sequence, (V, E, W) where V and E are the vertices and edges and W are the edge weights.
- Consider the weighted graph shown to the right:
 - $V = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$
 - $E = \{(a,b), (a,c), (a,d), (a,e), (c,b), (d,b), (d,c), (e,d)\}$
- \blacktriangleright W is a function that maps edges to weights:
 - e.g W((a,b)) = 50.



Representation

We can extend our adjacency matrix representation of a graph by replacing the zero-one existence value with the edge weight.



Representation

- ▶ In this example, "—" indicates that no edge exists.
- The actual value will depend on the nature of the weights:
 - E.g. if all weights are non-zero use 0.
 - We often use ∞ to represent missing edges.
- We can also use the adjacency list representation:
 - We just need to pair each edge with its corresponding weight.

Shortest Path

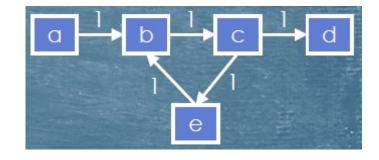
- A common problem associated with weighted graphs is finding the shortest path between vertices.
- There are several versions of this problem:
 - Single Source—All destinations;
 - Single Source—Single Destination;
 - All Sources—All Destinations;
 - All Sources—Single Destination.
- Each has applications in the real world.
- We will start by looking at the first of these types.

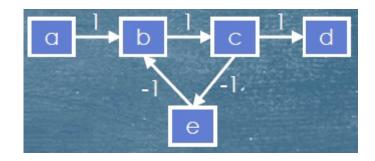
Single Source—All Destinations

- This problem is stated as follows:
- Starting at some source vertex, s, find the shortest path from s to each other reachable vertex in the graph.
- As we shall see later, the solution to this problem can be used as a basis for solving all of the other shortest path formulations.
- We will examine two algorithms for solving this problem:
 - Dijkstra;
 - Bellman Ford.
- Each has advantages in certain cases.

Negative Weights

- There is no a priori reason why the edge weights in a graph must be positive, but negative edge weights can cause problems.
- Consider the following graph:
 - Clearly the length of the shortest path from a to d is 3.
- But what if we change the weights?
 - Now what is the shortest path?
- The problem is that we now have a negative cost cycle.





What is a Path

- While it is obvious what a path is, we should define it formally.
- A path p from vertex v_1 to vertex v_k is an ordered sequence $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_{k-1}, v_k)$ where each edge $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$.
- The weight of path p, W(p) is the sum of the edge weights:
 - $W(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} W(v_i, v_{i+1})$

What doesn't work?

- We might be tempted to try using a technique we already know for traversing a graph, breadth first search, in our search for shortest paths.
- Unfortunately, this does not always work.
- The two definitions of shortest path:
 - Fewest edges;
 - Smallest weight;
- May not always coincide.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

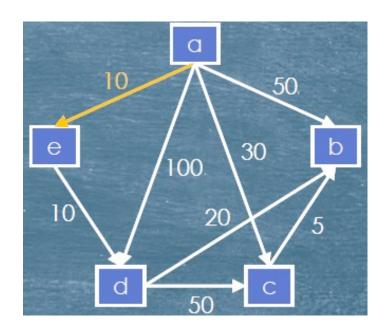
- This algorithm works by dividing the vertices into two sets, S and C.
- At each iteration, S contains the set of nodes that have already been chosen.
 - This is the selected set.
- At each iteration, C contains the set of nodes that have not yet been chosen:
 - This is the candidate set.
- At each step we move the node which is cheapest to reach from C to S.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

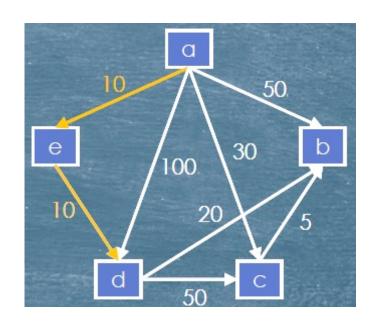
- We also need a function D such that $D(c_i)$ is the shortest distance we have so far found from vertex s to vertex c_i in the candidate set C.
- Initially:
 - The selected set, S, just contains the start vertex;
 - The candidate set, C, contains all the other vertices;
 - The distance function, D() has value 0 for vertex s and is infinite for all other vertices.
- We start by re-evaluating D for each vertex directly reachable from vertex s.

- Step 0:
- $S = \{a\}$
- $C = \{b, c, d, e\}$
- $D = \{50, 30, 100, 10\}$

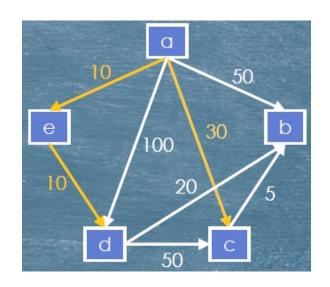
We now select the minimum value of D, D(e) = 10.



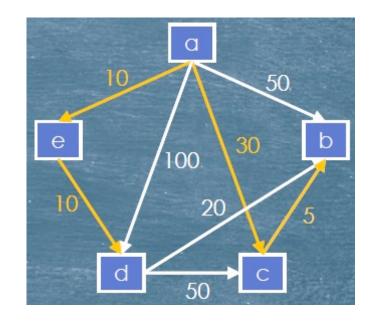
- Step 1: move vertex e from C to S.
- $S = \{a, e\}$
- $C = \{b, c, d\}$
- We now update D by looking at vertices we can reach from vertex e.
- $D = (50, 30, 100 \rightarrow 20)$
- We now select the minimum value of D, D(d) = 20.



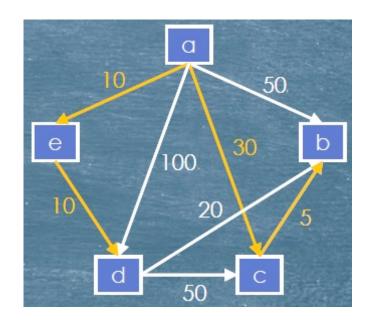
- Step 2: move vertex d from C to S.
- $S = \{a, e, d\}$
- $C = \{b, c\}$
- We now update D by looking at vertices we can reach from vertex d.
- $D = (50 \rightarrow 40, 30)$
- We now select the minimum value of D, D(c) = 30.



- Step 3: move vertex c from C to S.
- $S = \{a, e, d, c\}$
- $C = \{b\}$
- We now update D by looking at vertices we can reach from vertex c.
- $D = (40 \rightarrow 35)$
- We now select the minimum value of D, D(b) = 35.



- Step 4: move vertex b from C to S.
- $S = \{a, e, d, c, b\}$
- $C = \{\}$
- We now have no remaining candidate vertices; we have finished.
- W(a) = 0, W(e) = 10, W(d) = 20, W(c) = 30, W(b) = 35.



Dijkstra's Algorithm: Pseudocode

```
Procedure Dijkstra(G: array[1..n, 1..n]): array [2..n]
   D: array[2..n]
   C: set = \{2, 3, ..., n\}
   for i = 2 to n do
      D[i] = G[1, i]
   od
   repeat
       v = the index of the minimum D[v] not yet selected
       remove v from C // and implicitly add v to S
       for each u \in C do
          D[u] = \min(D[u], D[v] + G[v, u])
       rof
   until C contains no reachable nodes
   return D
end Dijkstra
```

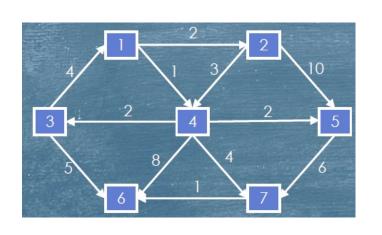
Recording Paths

- Like the basic DFS, Dijkstra's algorithm does not record the shortest path to each vertex, just its total weight.
- \blacktriangleright Also, like DFS, we can use a parent record, p, to keep track of how we reach each vertex.
- This entails a couple of minor changes to the algorithm...

Dijkstra's Algorithm: Path Recording

```
Procedure Dijkstra(G: array[1..n, 1..n]): array [2..n]
   D: array[2..n], P: array[2..n]
  C: set = \{2, 3, ..., n\}, S: set = \{\}
   for i = 2 to n do
       D[i] = G[1, i]
       P[i]=1
   od
   repeat
       v = the index of the minimum D[v] not yet selected
       move v from C to S
       for each u \in C do
          D[u] = \min(D[u], D[v] + G[v, u])
          v = [u]q
       rof
   until C contains no reachable nodes
   return D
end Dijkstra
```

A Larger Example



From

0	∞	4	∞	∞	∞	∞
2	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
8	∞	0	2	∞	∞	∞
1	3	∞	0	∞	∞	∞ ∞
8	10	∞	2	0	∞	∞
8	∞	5	8	∞	0	1
8	∞	∞	4	6	∞	0

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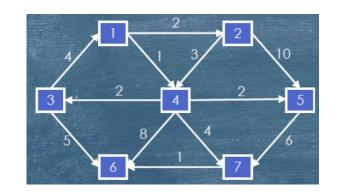
To

> At start

0	∞	4	∞	∞	∞	∞	P = D =	
2	0	∞	∞ -			- ∞-	2	2
∞	∞ ∞	0	2 -	-∞ -	-00-	- ∞-	4 - (3
1	3	∞	0	∞	∞ ∞	∞	1	
∞	10	∞	2 -	-0		<u></u> ∞-	4 (3
∞	∞	5	8 -	- ∞-	-0-	- 4 -	4 S	9
∞	∞	8	4 -	-6-	<u>~~</u>	-0-	4 - (5

$$C = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$$

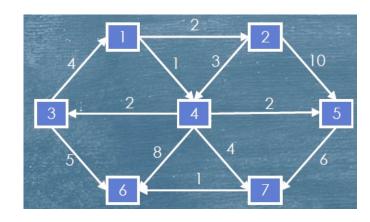
 $S = \{1\}$
 $v = 4$
 $D(v) = 1$



0	∞	4	∞	∞	∞	oo.	P :	=	·, [) =
2	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞		1		2
∞	∞ <u>-</u>	-0-	- 2 -	<u> </u>	∞ .	<u></u>		4 -		3
-1	3	∞	0	∞	∞	∞		1		1
∞	10-		-2-	-0-	_ ∞	- & -		4		3
∞	% -	_ 5 _	_8_	>>-	- 0 -	- 1 -		4		9
∞	∞-		-4-	-6-	- ∞-	- e -		-4-	+	5

$$C = \{2, 3, 5, 6, 7\}$$

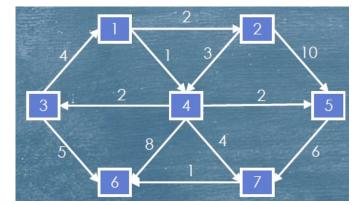
 $S = \{1,4\}$
 $v = 2$
 $D(v) = 2$



0	∞	4	∞	oo	∞	∞	Р	=) =
2	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞		1	2
∞	∞	0	2	∞	∞ ∞	∞		4	3
1	3	∞	0	∞	∞	∞		1	-11
~	10	∞-	- 2 -	-0	<u>∞</u>	- - ∞-		- 4 -	 3
∞	∞	5 -	-8-		-0-			3	 8
∞	~	∞ -	-4-	-6-		- 0 -		- 4 -	 5*

$$C = \{3, 5, 6, 7\}$$

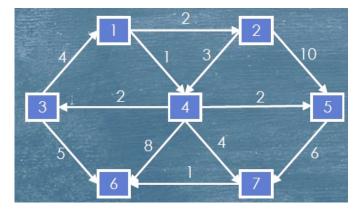
 $S = \{1,4,2\}$
 $v = 3$
 $D(v) = 3$



0	~	4	∞	∞	∞	∞	Р	=	D =
2	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞		1	2
∞	8	0	2	∞	∞	∞		4	3
1	3	∞	0	∞	∞	∞		1	1
∞	10	∞	2	0	8	∞		4	31
∞	~	5	8	∞ -	_0_	- 4 -		- 3 -	 8
∞	∞	∞	4	6 -	>-	- 0 -		- 4 -	 5

$$C = \{5, 6, 7\}$$

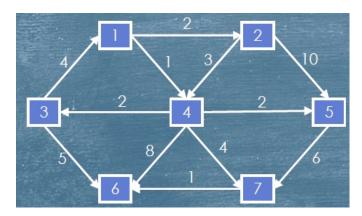
 $S = \{1,4,2,3\}$
 $v = 5$
 $D(v) = 3$



0	∞	4	∞	∞	∞	∞	P=	D =
2	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞	. 1	2
~	8	0	2	∞	∞	∞	4	3
1	3	∞	0	∞	∞	∞	1	1
8	10	∞	2	0	∞	∞	4	3
∞	~	5	8	~	0	1-	7	 → 6 <u></u>
∞	∞	∞	4	6	~	0	4	5 ¹

$$C = \{6, 7\}$$

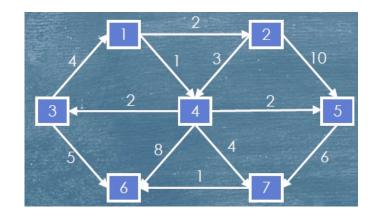
 $S = \{1,4,2,3,5\}$
 $v = 7$
 $D(v) = 5$



0	∞	4	∞	∞	∞	∞	Р	=	[) =
2	0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞		1		2
∞	∞	0	2	∞	∞	00		4		3
1	3	∞	0	∞	∞	∞		1		1
∞	10	∞	2	0	∞	00		4		3
∞	∞	5	8	00	0	1		7		6
∞	∞	∞	4	6	∞	0		4		5

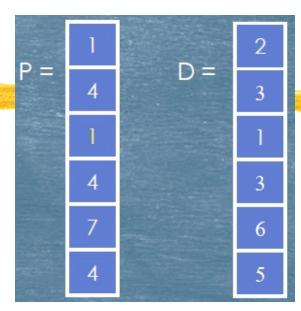
$$C = \{6\}$$

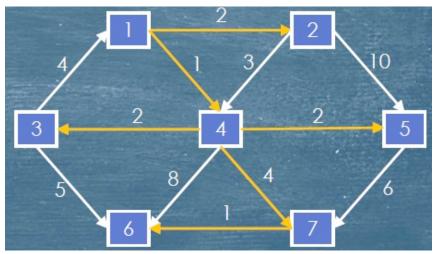
 $S = \{1,4,2,3,5,7\}$
 $v = 6$
 $D(v) = 6$



Paths from vertex 1:

- To vertex 2
 - \circ Path = (1, 2); W = 2
- To vertex 3
 - \circ Path = (1, 4, 3); W=3
- To vertex 4
 - o Path = (1, 4); W=1
- To vertex 5
 - Path = (1, 4, 5); W=3
- To vertex 6
 - \circ Path = (1, 4, 7, 6); W = 6
- To vertex 7
 - \circ Path = (1, 4, 7); W = 5





Analysis

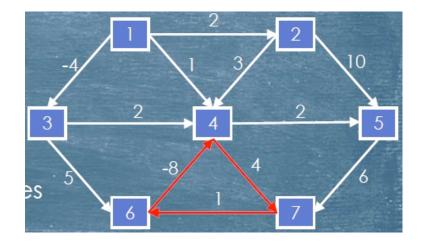
- The complexity of Dijkstra's Algorithm is $\Theta(V * \log V + E)$
 - How?
- \blacktriangleright Usually, E > V, in fact, in the worst case...
 - ... $E \in \Theta(V^2)$ —for a complete graph.
- There is one disadvantage:
 - The algorithm only works if all edge weights are nonnegative.
- If we have negative edge weights, and especially negative edge cycles, we need a different algorithm.

The Bellman-Ford Algorithm

- Independently invented by both Bellman and Ford.
- Works with graphs that have negative edge weights.
- Identifies negative cycles and vertices with a negative cycle on their path.
- Finds correct path and path length for all other vertices.
- Let us look at an example graph...

A Graph with a negative cycle

- Consider the graph shown:
- Because the edges between vertices 4, 7 and 6 form a cycle whose total weight is -3, we can reduce the cost of any vertex with a path through any of these vertices as much as we like.
- Note that some vertices, namely 2 and 3, still have well defined minimum costs of 2 and -4 respectively.
- All other vertices have undefined minimum cost

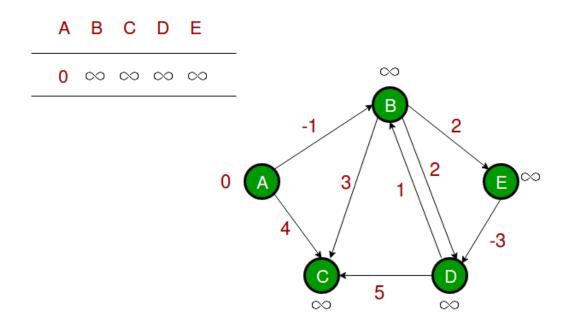


The Algorithm

- ▶ Input: Graph G = (V, E, W) and a source vertex s
- ullet Output: Shortest distance to all vertices from s. If there is a negative weight cycle, then shortest distances are not calculated, negative weight cycle is reported.
 - 1. Initialization $D[v] = \infty, v \in V, except V[s] = 0$
 - 2. Calculates shortest distances. Do following |V|-1 times
 - Do following for each edge u-v in E
 - If D[v] > D[u] + W((u,v)), then update D[v]D[v] = D[u] + W((u,v))
 - 3. Reports if there is a negative weight cycle in graph. Do following for each edge u-v in E
 - If D[v] > D[u] + W((u,v)), then "Graph contains negative weight cycle"

An Example

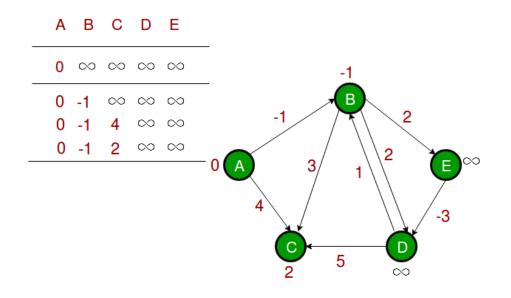
Initialization



- Let all edges are processed in the following order:
 - (B, E), (D, B), (B, D), (A, B), (A, C), (D, C), (B, C), (E, D).

An Example

Step 1 - Iteration #1

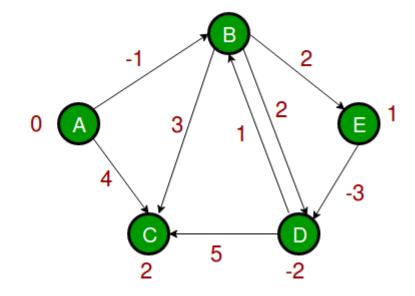


- (B,E): D(E) > D(B) + W(B,E)? (D,B): D(B) > D(D) + W(D,B)? (B,D): D(D) > D(B) + W(B,D)? (A,B): D(B) > D(A) + W(A,B)? Yes D(B) = D(A) + W(A,B) = -1
- (A,C): D(C) > D(A) + W(A,C)? Yes D(C) = D(A) + W(A,C) = 4
- (D,C): D(C) > D(D) + W(D,C)? (B,C): D(C) > D(B) + W(B,C)? yes D(C) = D(B) + W(B,C) = 2 (E,D): D(D) > D(E) + W(E,D)?
- Let all edges are processed in the following order:
 - (B, E), (D, B), (B, D), (A, B), (A, C), (D, C), (B, C), (E, D).

An Example

Step 1 - Iteration #2

Α	В	С	D	Е	
0	∞	∞	∞	∞	_
0	-1	∞	∞	∞	
0	-1	4	∞	∞	
0	-1	2	∞	∞	_
0	-1	2	∞	1	
0	-1	2	1	1	
0	-1	2	-2	1	



- Let all edges are processed in the following order:
 - (B, E), (D, B), (B, D), (A, B), (A, C), (D, C), (B, C), (E, D).

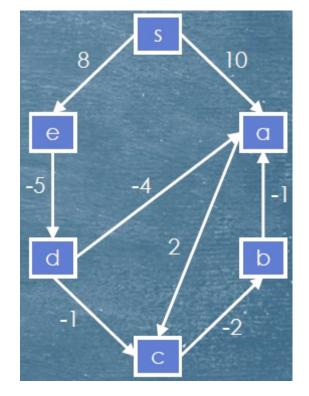
Different from Dijkstra's

Unlike Dijkstra's algorithm, in which we update only the most promising (next lowest cost) vertex at each iteration, Bellman-Ford updates every vertex at each iteration.

This means that each iteration of Bellman-Ford involves more work than the corresponding iteration of Dijkstra

Another Example

- Consider the following graph:
- It has 6 vertices so we will run through the main loop 5 times.

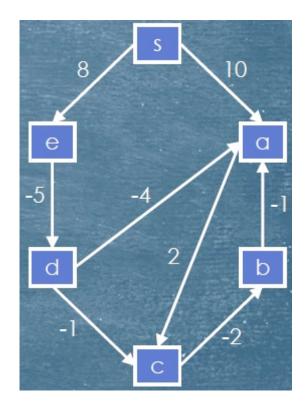


- Order of edges
 - u, v, u = s, a, b, c, d, e

Initialization

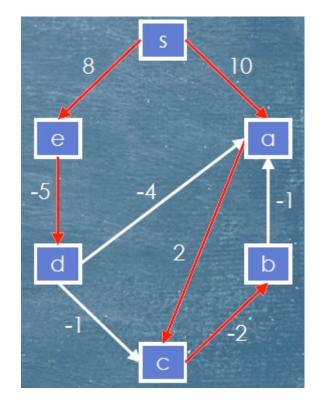
Set initial values of D

S	a	Ь	С	d	e
0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞



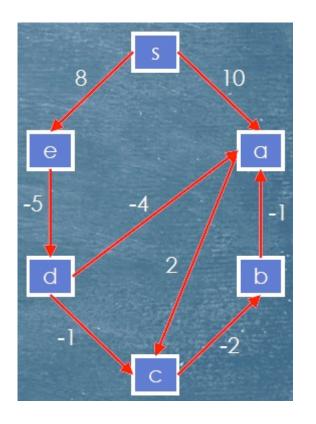
```
(s,a),(s,e) - update D[a],D[e]
(a,c) - update D[c]
(b,a) - no update
(c,b) - update D[b]
(d,a),(d,c) - no update
(e,d) - update D[d]
```

S	a	b	С	d	e
0	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
S	α	Ь	С	d	e



```
(s,a),(s,e) - no update
(a,c) - no update
(b,a) - no update
(c,b) - no update
(d,a),(d,c) - update D[a],D[c]
(e,d) - no update
```

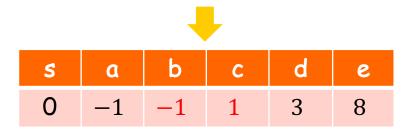
S	a	b	С	d	e
0	10	10	12	3	8
S	a	b	С	d	e

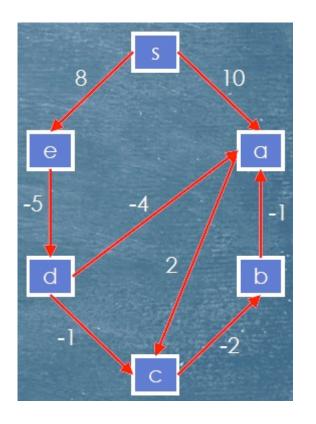


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```
(s,a),(s,e) - no update
(a,c) - update D[c]
(b,a) - no update
(c,b) - update D[b]
(d,a),(d,c) - no update
(e,d) - no update
```

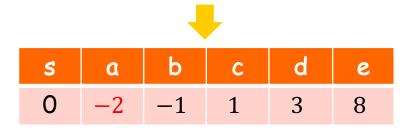
S	а	Ь	С	d	e
0	-1	10	2	3	8

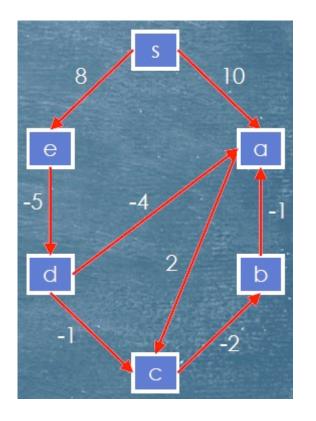




```
(s,a),(s,e) - no update
(a,c) - no update
(b,a) - update D[a]
(c,b) - no update
(d,a),(d,c) - no update
(e,d) - no update
```

S	a	Ь	С	d	e
0	-1	-1	1	3	8

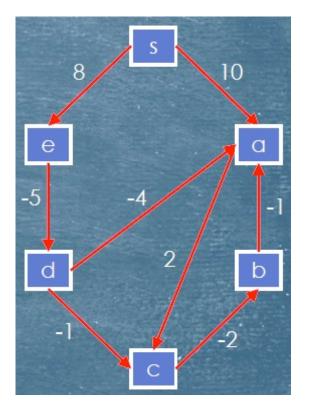




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```
(s,a),(s,e) - no update
(a,c) - update D[c]
(b,a) - no update
(c,b) - update D[b]
(d,a),(d,c) - no update
(e,d) - no update
```

S	a	Ь	С	d	e		
0	-2	-1	1	3	8		
-							
S	a	Ь	С	d	e		
_	-2	-2	0	3	8		

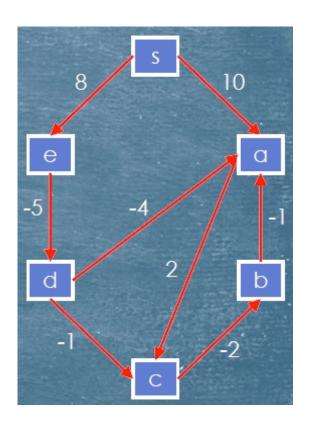


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Step 3 - Check Negative Weight Cycle

The graph contains a negative cost cycle that involves vertex a.

S	a	Ь	С	d	e
0	-2	-2	0	3	8



Analysis

- ▶ Bellman-Ford performs the major loop |V 1| times.
- ▶ Inside this loop it checks every edge; |E| operations.
- Finally, it does another |E| checks for potential cycles.
- ▶ Overall, Bellman-Ford has $\Theta(|V| \times |E|)$ complexity.

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Notes on Bellman-Ford Algorithm

- Bellman-Ford algorithm can handle directed and undirected graphs with non-negative weights.
- However, it can only handle directed graphs with negative weights, as long as we don't have negative cycles.
- When the graph has a negative cycle, Bellman-Ford algorithm can detect the cycle, but won't be able to find the shortest paths in this case.

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Related References

- Introduction to the Design and Analysis of Algorithms, A. Levitin, 3rd Ed., Pearson 2011.
 - Chapters 9.3
- Introduction to Algorithms, T. H. Cormen, 3rd Ed, MIT Press 2009.
 - Chapters 24.1 and 24.3