

확장트리 / 최단경로



SPANNING TREES

Spanning Trees

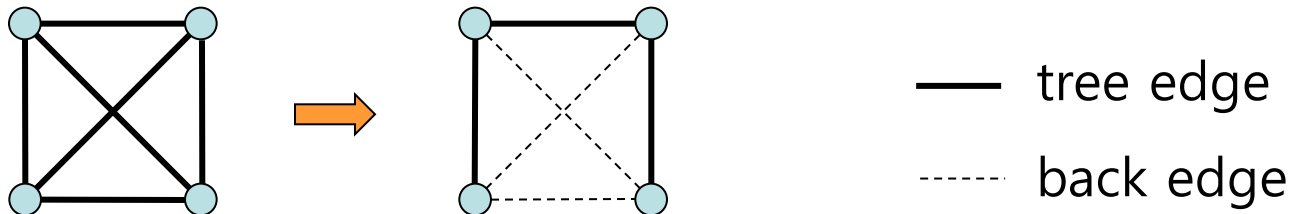
Depth First Spanning Trees

Bread First Spanning Trees

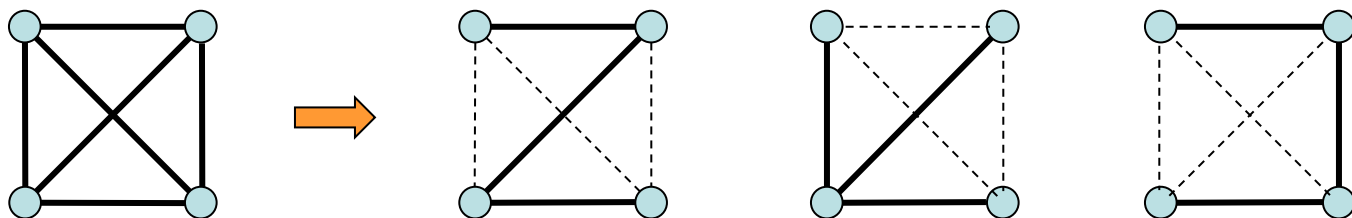
Minimum Cost Spanning Trees

Spanning Trees

- $G = (V, E)$: a connected graph.
- A **spanning tree** of G is a tree $G' = (V', E')$ such that $V' = V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.
- Let $T = E'$: **Tree edges**
 $B = E - E'$: **Back edges** (Non-tree edges)



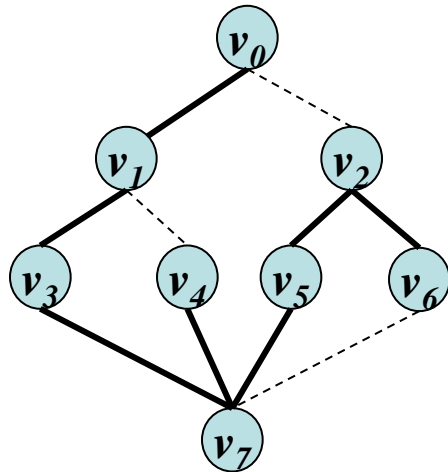
- Spanning trees are not unique.



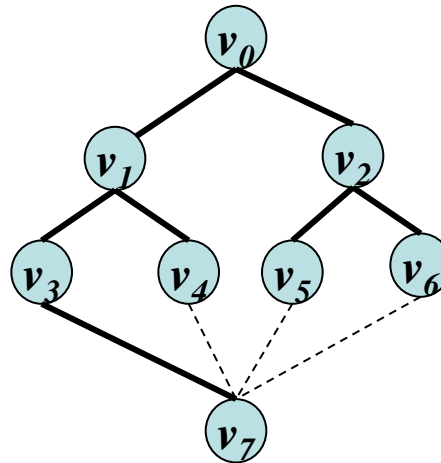
□ Depth First spanning trees and Breadth First spanning trees

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dfs(0) spanning tree



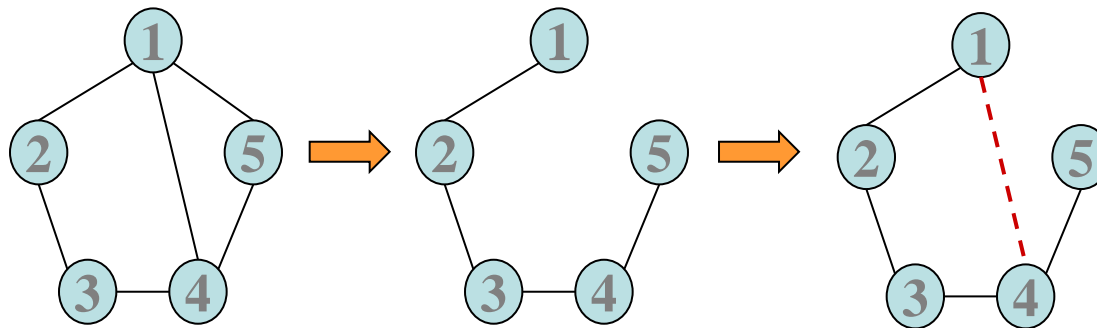
bfs(0) spanning tree



— tree edge
- - - back edge

How to determine Tree edges?

- If (!visited[w]) {
 $T = T \cup \{ (v, w) \};$ /* Initially $T = \emptyset$ */
 }
- If any back edge is introduced in the spanning tree, then a cycle is formed.



- Path 1-2-3-4
- Back edge (4,1)
- A cycle 1-2-3-4-1

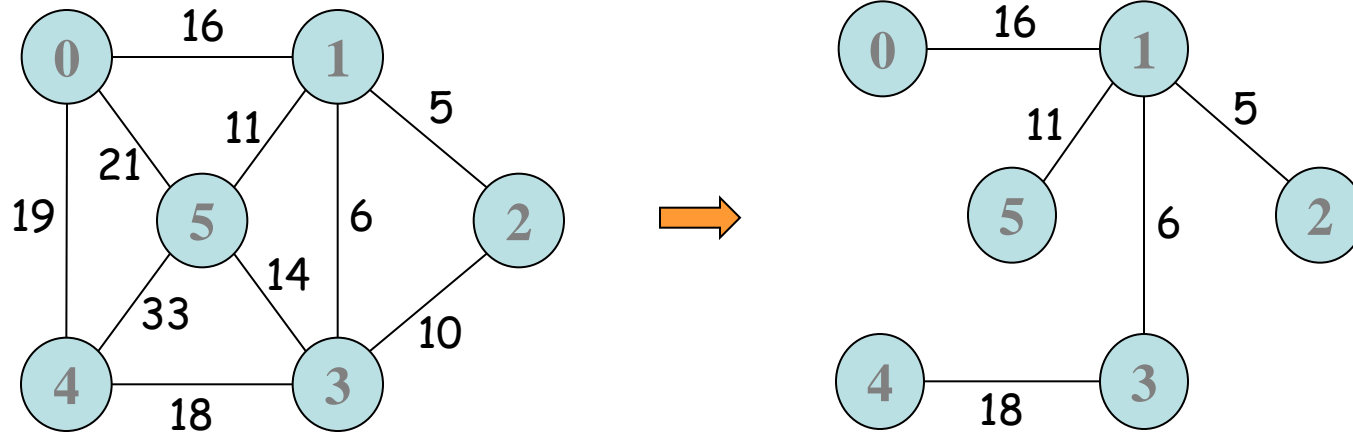
- Any connected graph with N vertices must have at least N-1 edges.
- Any connected graph with N vertices and N-1 edges is a (free) **tree**.

Minimum Cost Spanning Trees

□ Minimum Cost Spanning Trees ?

- The cost of a spanning tree
= the sum of the costs of the edges in that tree.
- A minimum cost spanning tree of a weighted graph G is a spanning tree which has the minimum cost among all the spanning trees of G .
- The problem is:
"How to find a minimum cost spanning tree?"
- Solutions:
 - Kruskal's Algorithm
 - Prim's Algorithm
 - Sollin's Algorithm

Example



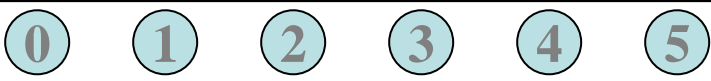
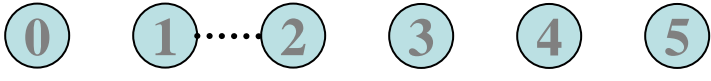
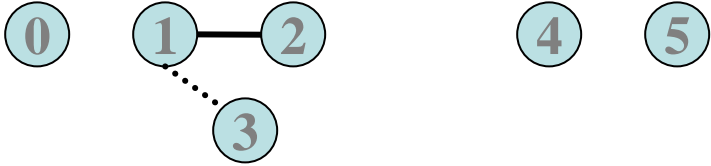
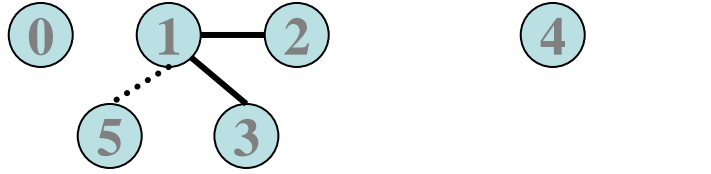

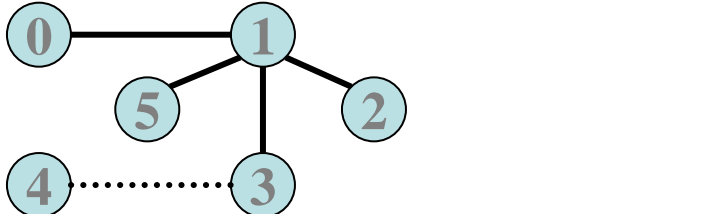
□ Kruskal's Algorithm

■ Notations

- T : the current set of tree edges.
- $|T|$: number of edges in T .
- n : the number of vertices of the given graph
- E : the set of edges of the given graph

■ Algorithm

1. $T = \emptyset$; /* T is the set of tree edges. */
2. while (($|T| < n-1$) && (E is not empty)) {
3. choose an edge (v,w) from E of the lowest cost ;
4. delete (v,w) from E ;
5. if ((v, w) does not create a cycle in T)
6. add (v,w) to T ;
7. else
8. discard (v,w) ;
9. }
10. if ($|T| < n-1$)
11. System.out.println("No spanning tree!") ;

Edge	Cost	Action	Tree Edges	Pairwise disjoint sets
-	-	-		{0} {1} {2} {3} {4} {5}
(1,2)	5	Add		{0} {1,2} {3} {4} {5}
(1,3)	6	Add		{0} {1,2,3} {4} {5}
(2,3)	10	Discard		{0} {1,2,3} {4} {5}
(1,5)	11	Add		{0} {1,2,3,5} {4}
(3,5)	14	Discard		{0} {1,2,3,5} {4}
(0,1)	16	Add		{0,1,2,3,5} {4}
(3,4)	18	Add		{0,1,2,3,4,5}

□ Time Complexity of Kruskal's Algorithm

■ For line 3 and 4,

- Use a sorted list for E : $O(e \log e)$
- Use Heap: Construction of Initial Heap : $O(e)$
Each Action of $\text{deleteMin}()$: $O(\log e)$
 $\Rightarrow O(e) + e \cdot O(\log e) = O(e \log e)$

■ For line 5 and line 6,

- Use the Union-and-Find algorithm (See Chapter 5).

$$\Rightarrow O(e \alpha(e))$$

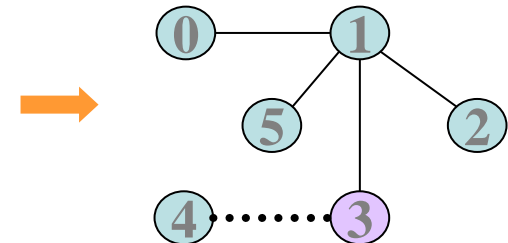
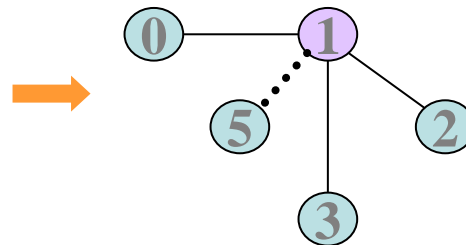
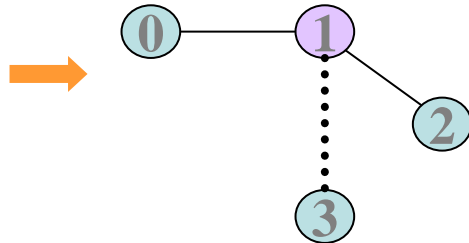
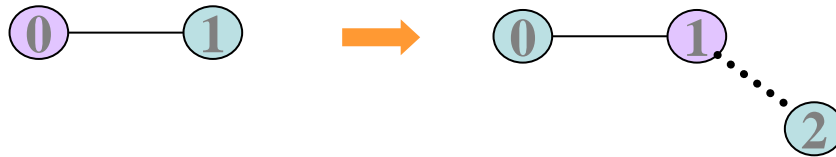
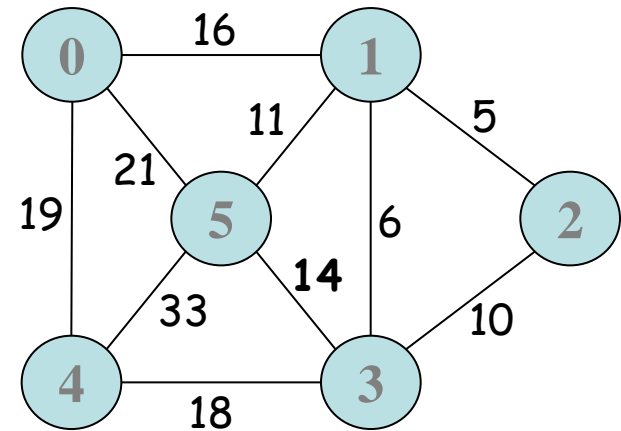
- ◆ Note that $O(\alpha(e)) < O(\log e)$ and
the function $\alpha(e)$ is a **very very slowly increasing** function.

In other words, $\alpha(e)$ is practically an almost constant function.

■ The computing time is determined by line 3 and 4.

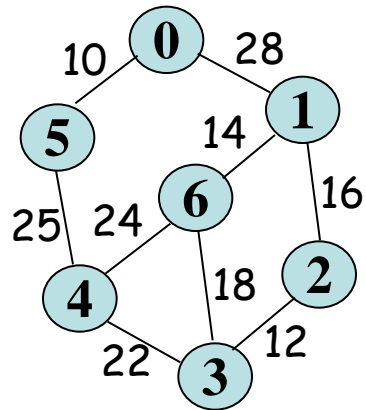
- Therefore, the complexity is $O(e \log e)$.

□ Prim's Algorithm

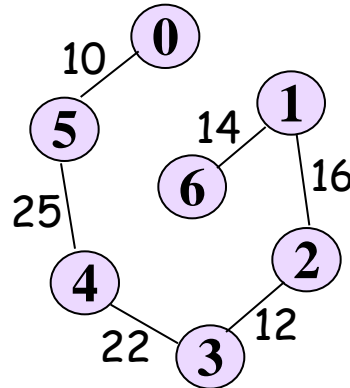


■ Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$

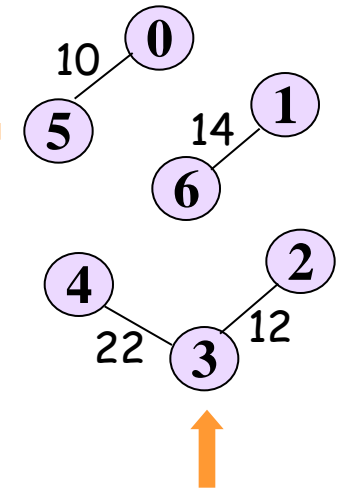
□ Sollin's Algorithm: Example 1



Tree(0) \rightarrow (5,4)
Tree(1) \rightarrow (1,2)
Tree(2) \rightarrow (2,1)

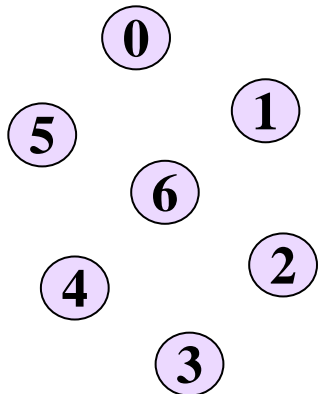


Tree(0) \rightarrow (5,4)
Tree(1) \rightarrow (1,2)



Add the edges to the spanning forest.

Initial spanning forest

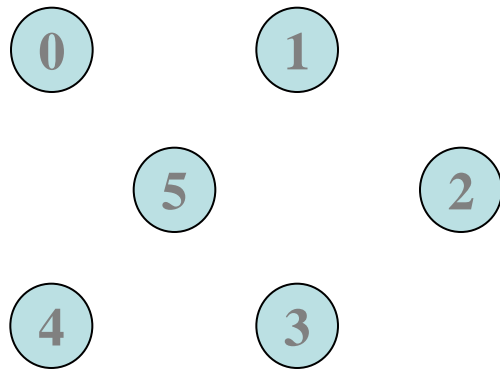


Tree(0) \rightarrow (0,5)
Tree(1) \rightarrow (1,6)
Tree(2) \rightarrow (2,3)
Tree(3) \rightarrow (3,2)
Tree(4) \rightarrow (4,3)
Tree(5) \rightarrow (5,0)
Tree(6) \rightarrow (6,1)

Tree(0) \rightarrow (0,5)
Tree(1) \rightarrow (1,6)
Tree(2) \rightarrow (2,3)
Tree(4) \rightarrow (4,3)

Remove duplicated edges.

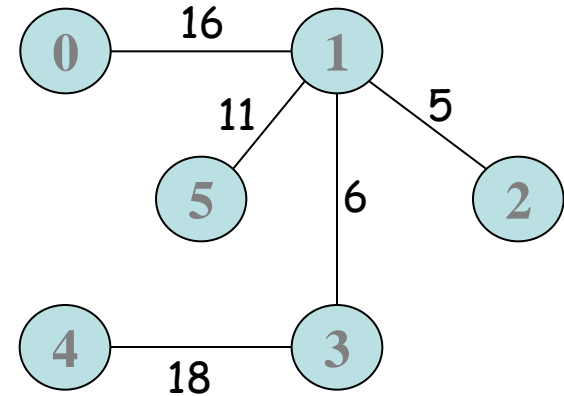
□ Sollin's Algorithm: Example 2



Tree(0) \rightarrow (0,1)
 Tree(1) \rightarrow (1,2)
 Tree(2) \rightarrow (2,1)
 Tree(3) \rightarrow (3,1)
 Tree(4) \rightarrow (4,3)
 Tree(5) \rightarrow (5,1)



Remove duplicated edges.
 \rightarrow No duplicated edges.



Add the edges to the
 spanning forest.

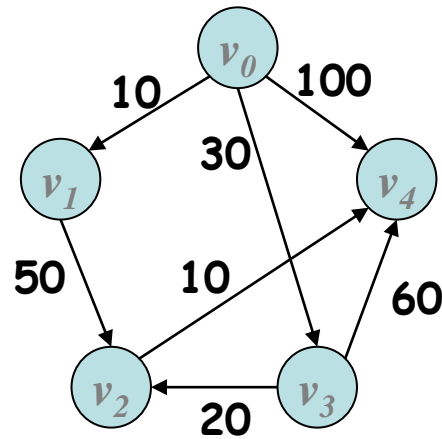


Shortest Paths

“Single Source All Destinations”
“All Pairs”

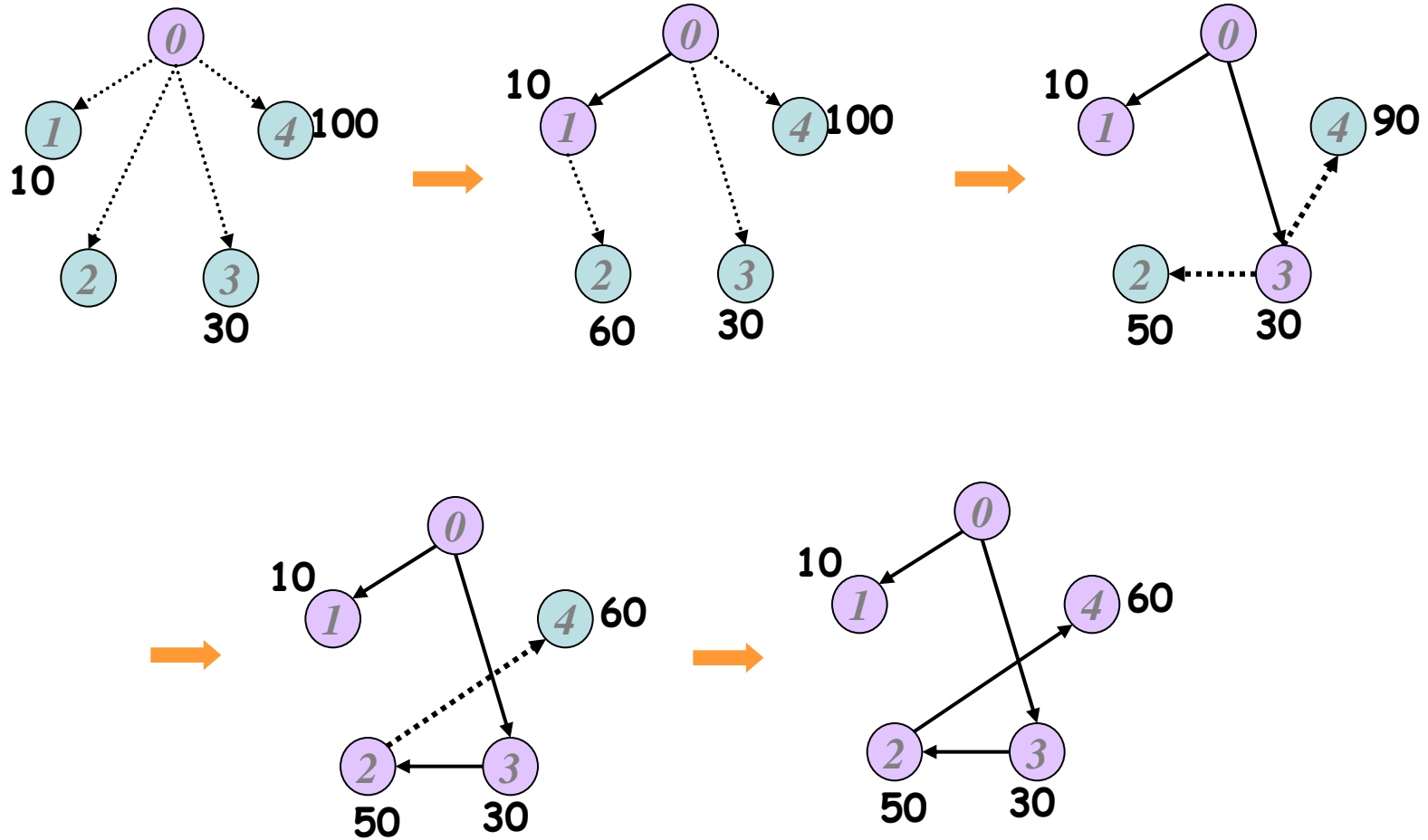
Single Source All Destinations

Dijkstra's Algorithm



Path	Length
$v_0 - v_1$	10
$v_0 - v_3$	30
$v_0 - v_3 - v_2$	50
$v_0 - v_3 - v_2 - v_4$	60

Iteration	S	u	distance[1]	distance[2]	distance[3]	distance[4]
초기화	{0}	-	10	∞	30	100
1	{0,1}	1	10	60	30	100
2	{0,1,3}	3	10	50	30	90
3	{0,1,3,2}	2	10	50	30	60
-	{0,1,3,2,4}	4	10	50	30	60



□ Proof Sketch of Dijkstra's Algorithm

- We attempt to devise an algorithm that generates the shortest paths in non-decreasing order of length.
- Notations
 - v_0 : source vertex
 - S : the set of vertices, including v_0 , whose shortest paths have been found.
 - $\text{distance}[w]$: the length of the shortest path starting from v_0 , going through vertices only in S , and ending in w .

■ Observations

- ① If the next shortest path is to u , then the path begins at v_0 , ends at u , and goes through only those vertices in S .

(Proof) Assume that there is a vertex on this path that is not in S and that w is the first such vertex not in S among the path.

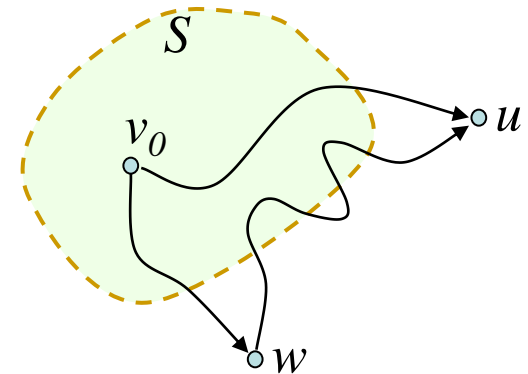
Then $v_0 \rightarrow w$ is shorter than $v_0 \rightarrow u$.

The algorithm should generate the paths in non-decreasing order.

So, w should be in S before u .

Contradiction!

No such w exist.



- ② Vertex u is chosen so that it has the minimum distance, $\text{distance}[u]$, among all the vertices not in S .

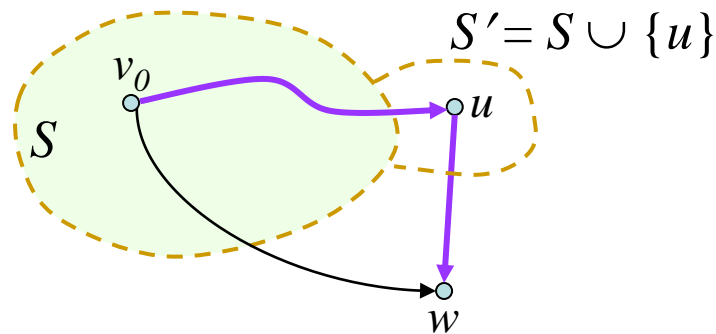
(This follows from the definition of $\text{distance}[]$ and observation ①.)

- ◆ Several vertices with the same $\text{distance}[]$?
 \Rightarrow any of them may be selected.

③ Adding the new vertex u into S .

- ◆ Once we have selected and generated the shortest path from v_0 to u , u becomes a member of S .
- ◆ If $\text{distance}[w]$ changes, then it must be due to a shorter path $v_0 \rightarrow u \rightarrow w$, where all intermediate vertices must be in S .
- ◆ The subpath $u \rightarrow w$ can be chosen so as to have no intermediate vertices.

if ((old distance[w]) > distance [u] + cost[u, w]) {
 (new distance[w]) = distance[u] + cost[u, w] ;
 }



□ Dijkstra's Algorithm

```

public void shortestPaths (int sourceVertex) {
    int i, u, w ;
    boolean[] found = new boolean[this._numOfVertices] ;
    for (i = 0; i < this._numOfVertices ; i++) {
        found[i] = false ;
        this._distance[i] = this._cost[sourceVertex][i] ;
    }
    found[sourceVertex] = true ;
    this._distance[sourceVertex] = 0 ;
    for (i=0; i < this._numOfVertices-2; i++) {
        u = choose(found);
        this._found[u] = true;
        for (w = 0; w < this._numOfVertices ; w++) {
            if ( !found[w] ) {
                if ( this._distance[w] > this._distance[u] + this._cost[u][w] )
                    this._distance[w] = this._distance[u] + this._cost[u][w];
            }
        }
    }
}

```

Time Complexity : $O(n^2)$

□ Generation of Vertex Sequences

- Use another array `path[]` of vertices.

`path[u]` \equiv the vertex immediately before `u` in the shortest path

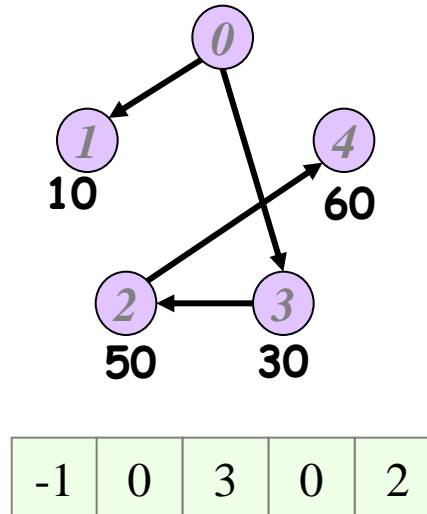
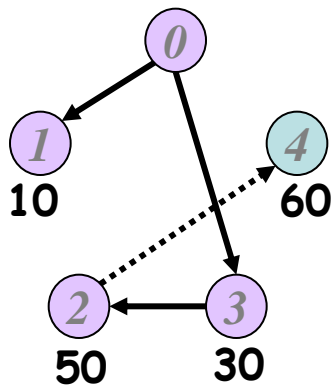
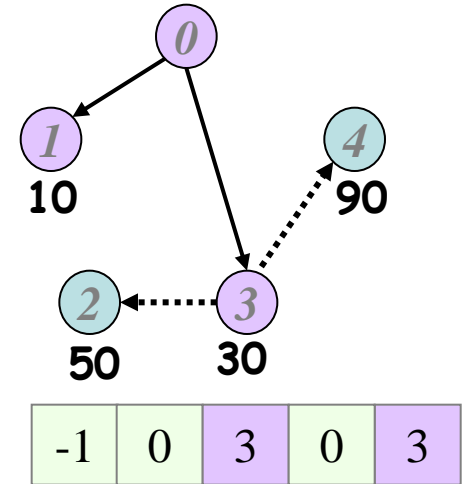
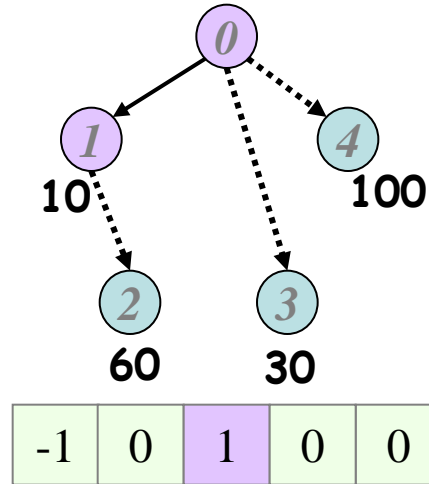
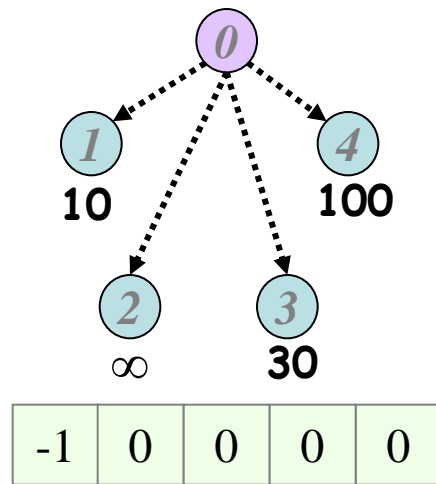
- Initialize `path[u] = v` for all `u \neq v` (`v` is the source) ;
`path[v] = -1 ;`

- And then,

```
If ( this._distance[w] > this._distance[u]+ this._cost[u][w] ) {
    this._distance[u] = this._distance[u]+ this._cost[u][w] ;
    this._path[w] = u ;
}
```

- Upon termination,
 the paths can be found **by tracking backward**.

■ Finding Vertex Sequences of Paths:



The shortest paths in reverse vertex order

- 1-0
- 2-3-0
- 3-0
- 4-2-3-0

□ All Pairs Shortest Paths

- Apply the Dijkstra's Algorithm n times : $O(n^3)$
- A simpler algorithm using **Cost Adjacency Matrix**.

$$\text{cost}[i][i] = 0$$

$$\text{cost}[i][j] = \text{cost of edge } \langle i, j \rangle \in E$$

$$\text{cost}[i][j] = \infty \text{ if } \langle i, j \rangle \notin E$$

- Define $A^k[i][j]$ to be the cost of the shortest path from i to j going through **no intermediate vertex of index greater than k** .
- Then $A^{n-1}[i][j]$ will be the cost of the shortest path from i to j in G .
- $A^{-1}[i][j]$ is just $\text{cost}[i][j]$.

■ Basic Idea

- Successively generate the matrices A^0, A^1, \dots, A^{n-1} starting from A^{-1} .

- Assume we have already generated A^{k-1} .

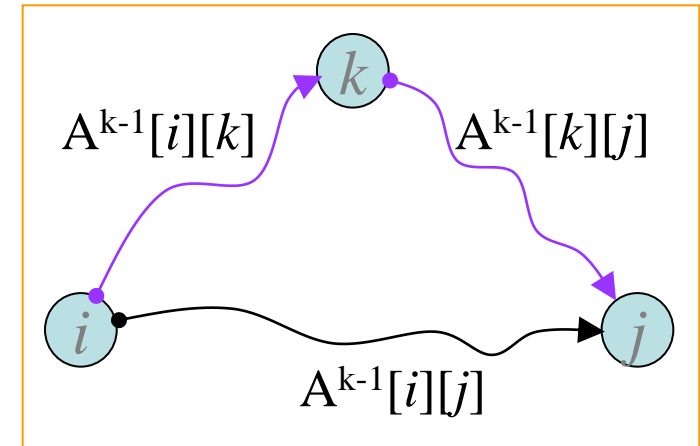
Then we may generate A^k as follows:

For any pair of vertices i and j , either

(a) the shortest path from i to j does not go through k ,
 \Rightarrow its cost is $A^{k-1}[i][j]$

or

(b) the path goes through k .
 \Rightarrow its cost is $A^{k-1}[i][k] + A^{k-1}[k][j]$



- Thus,

$$A^k[i][j] = \min\{A^{k-1}[i][j], A^{k-1}[i][k] + A^{k-1}[k][j]\}, \quad k \geq 0, \text{ and}$$

$$A^{-1}[i][j] = \text{cost}[i][j]$$

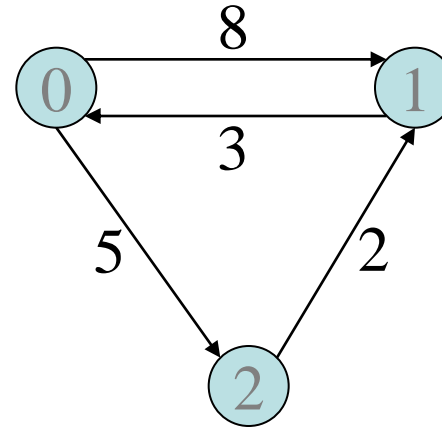
□ Floyd's Algorithm

```
private void allcosts ( int[][] cost, int[][] distance, int n)
{
    int i, j, k ;
    for ( i=0 ; i<n ; i++ )
        for ( j=0 ; j<n ; j++ )
            distance[i][j] = cost[i][j] ;
    for ( k=0 ; k<n ; k++ )
        for ( i=0 ; i<n ; i++ )
            for ( j=0 ; j<n ; j++ )
                if (distance[i][j] > distance[i][k] + distance[k][j])
                    distance[i][j] = distance[i][k] + distance[k][j];
}
```

Time Complexity : $O(n^3)$

Example of Floyd's Algorithm

$$\text{cost} [] = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 8 & 5 \\ 3 & 0 & \infty \\ \infty & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



A^{-1}	0	1	2
0	0	8	5
1	3	0	∞
2	∞	2	0

■ Example of Floyd's Algorithm (Cont'd)

A^0	0	1	2
0	0	8	5
1	3	0	8
2	∞	2	0

$$A^0[1][2] = \min\{\infty, 3+5\} = 8$$

$$A^0[2][1] = \min\{2, \infty+8\} = 2$$

A^1	0	1	2
0	0	8	5
1	3	0	8
2	5	2	0

$$A^1[0][2] = \min\{5, 8+8\} = 5$$

$$A^1[2][0] = \min\{\infty, 2+3\} = 5$$

A^2	0	1	2
0	0	7	5
1	3	0	8
2	5	2	0

$$A^2[0][1] = \min\{8, 5+2\} = 7$$

$$A^2[1][0] = \min\{3, 8+5\} = 3$$

□ Recovering the Paths

- `path[i][j]` means that the shortest path from i to j goes through `path[i][j]`.

- Initially,

`path[i][j] = -1;`

- In the innermost loop,

```
if (distance[i][j] > distance[i][k] + distance[k][j]) {
    distance[i][j] = distance[i][k] + distance[k][j];
    path[i][j] = k;
}
```

- In order to print out the shortest path from i to j :

```
private void showPath (int i, int j)
{
    int k;
    k = path[i][j];
    if (k >= 0) {
        showPath (i, k);
        System.out.print (k);
        showPath (k, j);
    }
}
```


Example: Recovering the paths

path ⁻¹	0	1	2	path ⁰	0	1	2	path ¹	0	1	2	path ²	0	1	2
0	-1	-1	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	0	-1	2	-1
1	-1	-1	-1	1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	-1	0
2	-1	-1	-1	2	-1	-1	-1	2	1	-1	-1	2	1	-1	-1

$$A^0[1][2] = \min\{\infty, \underline{3}+5\} = 8$$

$$\text{path}^0[1][2] = \mathbf{0}$$

$$A^0[2][1] = \min\{\underline{2}, \infty+8\} = 2$$

$$\text{path}^0[2][1]: \text{No change}$$

$$A^1[0][2] = \min\{\underline{5}, 8+8\} = 5$$

$$\text{path}^1[0][2]: \text{No change}$$

$$A^1[2][0] = \min\{\infty, \underline{2}+3\} = 5$$

$$\text{path}^1[2][0] = \mathbf{1}$$

$$A^2[0][1] = \min\{8, \underline{5}+2\} = 7$$

$$\text{path}^2[0][1] = \mathbf{2}$$

$$A^2[1][0] = \min\{\underline{3}, 8+5\} = 3$$

$$\text{path}^2[1][0]: \text{No change}$$

$$\text{path}[0][1] = \mathbf{2}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{path}[0][\mathbf{2}] = -1 \\ \text{path}[\mathbf{2}][1] = -1 \end{array} \right\} 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{2} \rightarrow 1$$

$$\text{path}[1][2] = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{path}[1][\mathbf{0}] = -1 \\ \text{path}[\mathbf{0}][2] = -1 \end{array} \right\} 1 \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \rightarrow 2$$

$$\text{path}[2][0] = \mathbf{1}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{path}[2][\mathbf{1}] = -1 \\ \text{path}[\mathbf{1}][0] = -1 \end{array} \right\} 2 \rightarrow \mathbf{1} \rightarrow 0$$

Transitive Closures



□ Transitive Closures

■ The existence problem of a path $i \rightarrow j$.

■ Transitive closure : A^+

- All path lengths are required to be positive.

$$A^+[i][j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if there is a path } i \rightarrow j \text{ of length } > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

■ Reflexive transitive closure : A^*

- Path lengths are to be nonnegative.

$$A^*[i][j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if there is a path } i \rightarrow j \text{ of length } \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

■ The only difference between A^+ and A^* :

- the terms on the diagonal.
 - ◆ $A^+[i][i] = 1$ iff there is a cycle of length > 1 containing vertex i .
 - ◆ $A^*[i][i] = 1$ always.

□ Use Floyd's Algorithm for A^+ or A^*

$$\text{Let } \text{Cost}[i][j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \langle i, j \rangle \in E \\ \infty & \text{if } \langle i, j \rangle \notin E \end{cases}$$

Then, the final matrix becomes A^+ by letting

$$A^+[i][j] = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A[i][j] < +\infty \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

A^* can be obtained from A^+ by setting

$$A^*[i][i] = 1 \text{ for all } i = 1, \dots, n$$

■ Simple Modification using Boolean Matrix for A^+ :

Let

$$\text{Cost}[i][j] = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } \langle i, j \rangle \in E \\ \text{false} & \text{if } \langle i, j \rangle \notin E \end{cases}$$

Then

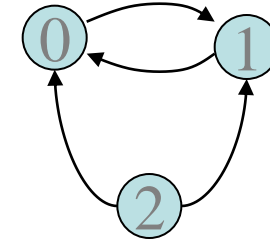
$$A^k[i][j] = A^{k-1}[i][j] \text{ || } (A^{k-1}[i][k] \text{ \&\& } A^{k-1}[k][j]) ;$$

Example for A^+ and A^*

Using Cost Adjacency Matrix

$$\text{Cost} = \begin{pmatrix} \infty & 1 & \infty \\ 1 & \infty & \infty \\ 1 & 1 & \infty \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & \infty \\ 1 & 2 & \infty \\ 2 & 1 & \infty \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow A^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow A^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix}$$



Using Boolean Matrix

$$\text{Cost} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow A = A^+ = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \longrightarrow A^* = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & \mathbf{1} \end{pmatrix}$$

End of Spanning Trees & Shortest Paths