## Chapter 3

## Breadth First Search, Dijkstra's Algorithm for Shortest Paths

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### 3.1 Breadth First Search

### 3.1.0.1 Breadth First Search (BFS)

Overview
(A) BFS is obtained from BasicSearch by processing edges using a data structure called a queue.
(B) It processes the vertices in the graph in the order of their shortest distance from the vertex $s$ (the start vertex).

As such...
(A) DFS good for exploring graph structure
(B) BFS good for exploring distances

### 3.1.0.2 Queue Data Structure

## Queues

A queue is a list of elements which supports the operations:
(A) enqueue: Adds an element to the end of the list
(B) dequeue: Removes an element from the front of the list

Elements are extracted in first-in first-out (FIFO) order, i.e., elements are picked in the order in which they were inserted.


### 3.1.0.3 BFS Algorithm

Given (undirected or directed) graph $G=(V, E)$ and node $s \in V$

```
BFS(s)
    Mark all vertices as unvisited
    Initialize search tree T to be empty
    Mark vertex s as visited
    set Q to be the empty queue
    enq(s)
    while Q is nonempty do
        u=\operatorname{deq}(Q)
        for each vertex v\in\operatorname{Adj}(u)
            if v}\mathrm{ is not visited then
                        add edge (u,v) to T
                        Mark v as visited and enq(v)
```

Proposition 3.1.1. BFS(s) runs in $O(n+m)$ time.
3.1.0.4 BFS: An Example in Undirected Graphs


BFS tree is the set of black edges.

### 3.1.0.5 BFS: An Example in Directed Graphs



### 3.1.0.6 BFS with Distance

```
BFS(s)
    Mark all vertices as unvisited and for each v set dist(v)=\infty
    Initialize search tree T to be empty
    Mark vertex s as visited and set dist(s)=0
    set Q to be the empty queue
    enq(s)
    while Q is nonempty do
        u=\operatorname{deq}(Q)
        for each vertex v\in\operatorname{Adj}(u) do
            if v}\mathrm{ is not visited do
                add edge (u,v) to T
                Mark v}\mathrm{ as visited, enq(v)
                and set dist(v)=\operatorname{dist}(u)+1
```


### 3.1.0.7 Properties of BFS: Undirected Graphs

Proposition 3.1.2. The following properties hold upon termination of BFS(s)
(A) The search tree contains exactly the set of vertices in the connected component of $s$.
(B) If $\operatorname{dist}(u)<\operatorname{dist}(v)$ then $u$ is visited before $v$.
(C) For every vertex $u$, $\operatorname{dist}(u)$ is indeed the length of shortest path from $s$ to $u$.
(D) If $u, v$ are in connected component of $s$ and $e=\{u, v\}$ is an edge of $G$, then either $e$ is an edge in the search tree, or $|\operatorname{dist}(u)-\operatorname{dist}(v)| \leq 1$.

Proof: Exercise.

### 3.1.0.8 Properties of BFS: Directed Graphs

Proposition 3.1.3. The following properties hold upon termination of BFS(s):
(A) The search tree contains exactly the set of vertices reachable from s
(B) If $\operatorname{dist}(u)<\operatorname{dist}(v)$ then $u$ is visited before $v$
(C) For every vertex $u$, $\operatorname{dist}(u)$ is indeed the length of shortest path from s to $u$
(D) If $u$ is reachable from $s$ and $e=(u, v)$ is an edge of $G$, then either $e$ is an edge in the search tree, or $\operatorname{dist}(v)-\operatorname{dist}(u) \leq 1$. Not necessarily the case that $\operatorname{dist}(u)-$ $\operatorname{dist}(v) \leq 1$.

Proof: Exercise.

### 3.1.0.9 BFS with Layers

```
BFSLayers(s):
    Mark all vertices as unvisited and initialize T to be empty
    Mark s as visited and set L}\mp@subsup{L}{0}{}={s
    i=0
    while }\mp@subsup{L}{i}{}\mathrm{ is not empty do
            initialize Li+1 to be an empty list
            for each u in Li do
                for each edge (u,v) \in Adj(u) do
            if v is not visited
                    mark v as visited
                    add (u,v) to tree T
                    add v}\mathrm{ to }\mp@subsup{L}{i+1}{
            i=i+1
```

Running time: $O(n+m)$

### 3.1.0.10 Example




### 3.1.0.11 BFS with Layers: Properties

Proposition 3.1.4. The following properties hold on termination of BFSLayers $(s)$.
(A) BFSLayers(s) outputs a BFS tree
(B) $L_{i}$ is the set of vertices at distance exactly $i$ from $s$
(C) If $G$ is undirected, each edge $e=\{u, v\}$ is one of three types:
(A) tree edge between two consecutive layers
(B) non-tree forward/backward edge between two consecutive layers
(C) non-tree cross-edge with both $u, v$ in same layer
$(D) \Longrightarrow$ Every edge in the graph is either between two vertices that are either (i) in the same layer, or (ii) in two consecutive layers.

### 3.1.0.12 Example

### 3.1.1 BFS with Layers: Properties

### 3.1.1.1 For directed graphs

Proposition 3.1.5. The following properties hold on termination of BFSLayers(s), if $G$ is directed.

For each edge $e=(u, v)$ is one of four types:
(A) a tree edge between consecutive layers, $u \in L_{i}, v \in L_{i+1}$ for some $i \geq 0$
(B) a non-tree forward edge between consecutive layers
(C) a non-tree backward edge
(D) a cross-edge with both $u, v$ in same layer

### 3.2 Bipartite Graphs and an application of BFS 3.2.0.2 Bipartite Graphs

Definition 3.2.1 (Bipartite Graph). Undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ is a bipartite graph if $V$ can be partitioned into $X$ and $Y$ s.t. all edges in $E$ are between $X$ and $Y$.


### 3.2.0.3 Bipartite Graph Characterization

Question When is a graph bipartite?
Proposition 3.2.2. Every tree is a bipartite graph.
Proof: Root tree $T$ at some node $r$. Let $L_{i}$ be all nodes at level $i$, that is, $L_{i}$ is all nodes at distance $i$ from root $r$. Now define $X$ to be all nodes at even levels and $Y$ to be all nodes at odd level. Only edges in $T$ are between levels.
Proposition 3.2.3. An odd length cycle is not bipartite.

### 3.2.0.4 Odd Cycles are not Bipartite

Proposition 3.2.4. An odd length cycle is not bipartite.
Proof: Let $C=u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{2 k+1}, u_{1}$ be an odd cycle. Suppose $C$ is a bipartite graph and let $X, Y$ be the partition. Without loss of generality $u_{1} \in X$. Implies $u_{2} \in Y$. Implies $u_{3} \in X$. Inductively, $u_{i} \in X$ if $i$ is odd $u_{i} \in Y$ if $i$ is even. But $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2 k+1}\right\}$ is an edge and both belong to $X$ !

### 3.2.0.5 Subgraphs

Definition 3.2.5. Given a graph $G=(V, E)$ a subgraph of $G$ is another graph $H=$ $\left(V^{\prime}, E^{\prime}\right)$ where $V^{\prime} \subseteq V$ and $E^{\prime} \subseteq E$.
Proposition 3.2.6. If $G$ is bipartite then any subgraph $H$ of $G$ is also bipartite.
Proposition 3.2.7. A graph $G$ is not bipartite if $G$ has an odd cycle $C$ as a subgraph.
Proof: If $G$ is bipartite then since $C$ is a subgraph, $C$ is also bipartite (by above proposition). However, $C$ is not bipartite!

### 3.2.0.6 Bipartite Graph Characterization

Theorem 3.2.8. A graph $G$ is bipartite if and only if it has no odd length cycle as subgraph.

Proof: Only If: $G$ has an odd cycle implies $G$ is not bipartite.
If: $G$ has no odd length cycle. Assume without loss of generality that $G$ is connected.
(A) Pick $u$ arbitrarily and do $\operatorname{BFS}(u)$
(B) $X=\cup_{i}$ is even $L_{i}$ and $Y=\cup_{i \text { is odd }} L_{i}$
(C) Claim: $X$ and $Y$ is a valid partition if $G$ has no odd length cycle.

### 3.2.0.7 Proof of Claim

Claim 3.2.9. In $\operatorname{BFS}(u)$ if $a, b \in L_{i}$ and $(a, b)$ is an edge then there is an odd length cycle containing $(a, b)$.

Proof: Let $v$ be least common ancestor of $a, b$ in BFS tree $T$.
$v$ is in some level $j<i$ (could be $u$ itself).
Path from $v \rightsquigarrow a$ in $T$ is of length $j-i$.
Path from $v \rightsquigarrow b$ in $T$ is of length $j-i$.
These two paths plus $(a, b)$ forms an odd cycle of length $2(j-i)+1$.

### 3.2.0.8 Proof of Claim: Figure <br> 3.2.0.9 Another tidbit

Corollary 3.2.10. There is an $O(n+m)$ time algorithm to check if $G$ is bipartite and output an odd cycle if it is not.

### 3.3 Shortest Paths and Dijkstra's Algorithm

### 3.3.0.10 Shortest Path Problems

Shortest Path Problems
Input A (undirected or directed) graph $G=(V, E)$ with edge lengths (or costs). For edge $e=(u, v), \ell(e)=\ell(u, v)$ is its length.
(A) Given nodes $s, t$ find shortest path from $s$ to $t$.
(B) Given node $s$ find shortest path from $s$ to all other nodes.
(C) Find shortest paths for all pairs of nodes.

Many applications!

### 3.3.1 Single-Source Shortest Paths:

### 3.3.1.1 Non-Negative Edge Lengths

Single-Source Shortest Path Problems
(A) Input: A (undirected or directed) graph $G=(V, E)$ with non-negative edge lengths. For edge $e=(u, v), \ell(e)=\ell(u, v)$ is its length.
(B) Given nodes $s, t$ find shortest path from $s$ to $t$.
(C) Given node $s$ find shortest path from $s$ to all other nodes.
(A) Restrict attention to directed graphs
(B) Undirected graph problem can be reduced to directed graph problem - how?
(A) Given undirected graph $G$, create a new directed graph $G^{\prime}$ by replacing each edge $\{u, v\}$ in $G$ by $(u, v)$ and $(v, u)$ in $G^{\prime}$.
(B) $\operatorname{set} \ell(u, v)=\ell(v, u)=\ell(\{u, v\})$
(C) Exercise: show reduction works

### 3.3.1.2 Single-Source Shortest Paths via BFS

Special case: All edge lengths are 1.
(A) Run $\mathrm{BFS}(s)$ to get shortest path distances from s to all other nodes.
(B) $O(m+n)$ time algorithm.

Special case: Suppose $\ell(e)$ is an integer for all $e$ ?
Can we use BFS? Reduce to unit edge-length problem by placing $\ell(e)-1$ dummy nodes on e

Let $L=\max _{e} \ell(e)$. New graph has $O(m L)$ edges and $O(m L+n)$ nodes. BFS takes $O(m L+n)$ time. Not efficient if $L$ is large.

### 3.3.1.3 Towards an algorithm

Why does BFS work?
BFS(s) explores nodes in increasing distance from $s$
Lemma 3.3.1. Let $G$ be a directed graph with non-negative edge lengths. Let $\operatorname{dist}(s, v)$ denote the shortest path length from s to $v$. If $s=v_{0} \rightarrow v_{1} \rightarrow v_{2} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow v_{k}$ is a shortest path from s to $v_{k}$ then for $1 \leq i<k$ :
(A) $s=v_{0} \rightarrow v_{1} \rightarrow v_{2} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow v_{i}$ is a shortest path from $s$ to $v_{i}$
(B) $\operatorname{dist}\left(s, v_{i}\right) \leq \operatorname{dist}\left(s, v_{k}\right)$.

Proof: Suppose not. Then for some $i<k$ there is a path $P^{\prime}$ from $s$ to $v_{i}$ of length strictly less than that of $s=v_{0} \rightarrow v_{1} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow v_{i}$. Then $P^{\prime}$ concatenated with $v_{i} \rightarrow v_{i+1} \ldots \rightarrow v_{k}$ contains a strictly shorter path to $v_{k}$ than $s=v_{0} \rightarrow v_{1} \ldots \rightarrow v_{k}$.

### 3.3.1.4 A proof by picture



### 3.3.1.5 A Basic Strategy

Explore vertices in increasing order of distance from $s$ :
(For simplicity assume that nodes are at different distances from $s$ and that no edge has zero length)

```
Initialize for each node v, dist(s,v)=\infty
Initialize S=\emptyset,
for i=1 to }|V|\mathrm{ do
    (* Invariant: S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s *)
    Among nodes in }V\backslashS\mathrm{ , find the node v that is the
                ith closest to s
    Update dist(s,v)
    S=S\cup{v}
```

How can we implement the step in the for loop?

### 3.3.1.6 Finding the $i$ th closest node

(A) $S$ contains the $i-1$ closest nodes to $s$
(B) Want to find the $i$ th closest node from $V-S$.

What do we know about the $i$ th closest node?

Claim 3.3.2. Let $P$ be a shortest path from $s$ to $v$ where $v$ is the ith closest node. Then, all intermediate nodes in $P$ belong to $S$.

Proof: If $P$ had an intermediate node $u$ not in $S$ then $u$ will be closer to $s$ than $v$. Implies $v$ is not the $i$ th closest node to $s$ - recall that $S$ already has the $i-1$ closest nodes.

### 3.3.2 Finding the $i$ th closest node repeatedly

### 3.3.2.1 An example




### 3.3.2.2 Finding the $i$ th closest node

Corollary 3.3.3. The $i$ ith closest node is adjacent to $S$.

### 3.3.2.3 Finding the $i$ th closest node

(A) $S$ contains the $i-1$ closest nodes to $s$
(B) Want to find the $i$ th closest node from $V-S$.
(A) For each $u \in V-S$ let $P(s, u, S)$ be a shortest path from $s$ to $u$ using only nodes in $S$ as intermediate vertices.
(B) Let $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ be the length of $P(s, u, S)$

Observations: for each $u \in V-S$,
(A) $\operatorname{dist}(s, u) \leq d^{\prime}(s, u)$ since we are constraining the paths
(B) $d^{\prime}(s, u)=\min _{a \in S}(\operatorname{dist}(s, a)+\ell(a, u))$ - Why?

Lemma 3.3.4. If $v$ is the $i$ th closest node to $s$, then $d^{\prime}(s, v)=\operatorname{dist}(s, v)$.

### 3.3.2.4 Finding the $i$ th closest node

Lemma 3.3.5. Given:
(A) S: Set of $i-1$ closest nodes to $s$.
(B) $d^{\prime}(s, u)=\min _{x \in S}(\operatorname{dist}(s, x)+\ell(x, u))$

If $v$ is an ith closest node to $s$, then $d^{\prime}(s, v)=\operatorname{dist}(s, v)$.
Proof: Let $v$ be the $i$ th closest node to $s$. Then there is a shortest path $P$ from $s$ to $v$ that contains only nodes in $S$ as intermediate nodes (see previous claim). Therefore $d^{\prime}(s, v)=\operatorname{dist}(s, v)$.

### 3.3.2.5 Finding the $i$ th closest node

Lemma 3.3.6. If $v$ is an $i$ th closest node to $s$, then $d^{\prime}(s, v)=\operatorname{dist}(s, v)$.
Corollary 3.3.7. The $i$ th closest node to $s$ is the node $v \in V-S$ such that $d^{\prime}(s, v)=$ $\min _{u \in V-S} d^{\prime}(s, u)$.
Proof: For every node $u \in V-S, \operatorname{dist}(s, u) \leq d^{\prime}(s, u)$ and for the $i$ th closest node $v$, $\operatorname{dist}(s, v)=d^{\prime}(s, v)$. Moreover, $\operatorname{dist}(s, u) \geq \operatorname{dist}(s, v)$ for each $u \in V-S$.


### 3.3.2.6 Algorithm

```
Initialize for each node v: dist(s,v)=\infty
Initialize S = \emptyset, d
for }i=1\mathrm{ to }|V|\mathrm{ do
    (* Invariant: S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s *)
    (* Invariant: d'(s,u) is shortest path distance from u to s
        using only S as intermediate nodes*)
    Let v be such that d}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,v)=\mp@subsup{\operatorname{min}}{u\inV-S}{}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,u
    dist(s,v)=\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,v)
    S=S\cup{v}
    for each node u in }V\S\mathrm{ do
        \mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,u)\Leftarrow\mp@subsup{\operatorname{min}}{a\inS}{}(\operatorname{dist}(s,a)+\ell(a,u))
```

Correctness: By induction on $i$ using previous lemmas.
Running time: $O(n \cdot(n+m))$ time.
(A) $n$ outer iterations. In each iteration, $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ for each $u$ by scanning all edges out of nodes in $S ; O(m+n)$ time/iteration.

### 3.3.2.7 Example

### 3.3.2.8 Improved Algorithm

(A) Main work is to compute the $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ values in each iteration
(B) $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ changes from iteration $i$ to $i+1$ only because of the node $v$ that is added to $S$ in iteration $i$.

```
Initialize for each node v, dist (s,v)=\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,v)=\infty
Initialize S = \emptyset, d'(s,s) = 0
for }i=1\mathrm{ to }|V|\mathrm{ do
    // S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s,
    // and the values of d}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,u)\mathrm{ are current
    v be node realizing d}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,v)=\mp@subsup{\operatorname{min}}{u\inV-S}{}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,u
    dist (s,v)=\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,v)
    S=S\cup{v}
    Update d}\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,u)\mathrm{ for each u in V-S as follows:
        d'(s,u)=min}(\mp@subsup{d}{}{\prime}(s,u),\operatorname{dist}(s,v)+\ell(v,u)
```

Running time: $O\left(m+n^{2}\right)$ time.
(A) $n$ outer iterations and in each iteration following steps
(B) updating $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ after $v$ added takes $O(\operatorname{deg}(v))$ time so total work is $O(m)$ since a node enters $S$ only once
(C) Finding $v$ from $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ values is $O(n)$ time

### 3.3.2.9 Dijkstra's Algorithm

(A) eliminate $d^{\prime}(s, u)$ and let $\operatorname{dist}(s, u)$ maintain it
(B) update dist values after adding $v$ by scanning edges out of $v$

```
Initialize for each node v, dist(s,v)=\infty
Initialize S={}, dist(s,s)=0
for }i=1\mathrm{ to }|V|\mathrm{ do
    Let v be such that dist (s,v)= min}\mp@subsup{\operatorname{meV-S}}{}{\operatorname{dist}(s,u)
    S=S\cup{v}
    for each u in Adj(v) do
        dist}(s,u)=\operatorname{min}(\operatorname{dist}(s,u),\operatorname{dist}(s,v)+\ell(v,u)
```

Priority Queues to maintain dist values for faster running time
(A) Using heaps and standard priority queues: $O((m+n) \log n)$
(B) Using Fibonacci heaps: $O(m+n \log n)$.

### 3.3.3 Priority Queues <br> 3.3.3.1 Priority Queues

Data structure to store a set $S$ of $n$ elements where each element $v \in S$ has an associated real/integer key $k(v)$ such that the following operations:
(A) makePQ: create an empty queue.
(B) findMin: find the minimum key in $S$.
(C) extractMin: Remove $v \in S$ with smallest key and return it.
(D) $\operatorname{insert}(v, k(v))$ : Add new element $v$ with key $k(v)$ to $S$.
(E) delete $(v)$ : Remove element $v$ from $S$.
(F) decreaseKey $\left(v, k^{\prime}(v)\right.$ ): decrease key of $v$ from $k(v)$ (current key) to $k^{\prime}(v)$ (new key). Assumption: $k^{\prime}(v) \leq k(v)$.
(G) meld: merge two separate priority queues into one.

All operations can be performed in $O(\log n)$ time.
decreaseKey is implemented via delete and insert.

### 3.3.3.2 Dijkstra's Algorithm using Priority Queues

```
\(Q \Leftarrow\) makePQ()
insert \((Q,(s, 0))\)
for each node \(u \neq s\) do
        insert \((Q,(u, \infty))\)
\(S \Leftarrow \emptyset\)
for \(i=1\) to \(|V|\) do
    \((v, \operatorname{dist}(s, v))=\operatorname{extractMin}(Q)\)
    \(S=S \cup\{v\}\)
    for each \(u\) in \(\operatorname{Adj}(v)\) do
        \(\operatorname{decreaseKey}(Q,(u, \min (\operatorname{dist}(s, u), \operatorname{dist}(s, v)+\ell(v, u))))\).
```

Priority Queue operations:
(A) $O(n)$ insert operations
(B) $O(n)$ extractMin operations
(C) $O(m)$ decreaseKey operations

### 3.3.3.3 Implementing Priority Queues via Heaps

Using Heaps Store elements in a heap based on the key value
(A) All operations can be done in $O(\log n)$ time Dijkstra's algorithm can be implemented in $O((n+m) \log n)$ time.

### 3.3.3.4 Priority Queues: Fibonacci Heaps/Relaxed Heaps

Fibonacci Heaps
(A) extractMin, insert, delete, meld in $O(\log n)$ time
(B) decreaseKey in $O(1)$ amortized time: $\ell$ decreaseKey operations for $\ell \geq n$ take together $O(\ell)$ time
(C) Relaxed Heaps: decreaseKey in $O(1)$ worst case time but at the expense of meld (not necessary for Dijkstra's algorithm)
(A) Dijkstra's algorithm can be implemented in $O(n \log n+m)$ time. If $m=\Omega(n \log n)$, running time is linear in input size.
(B) Data structures are complicated to analyze/implement. Recent work has obtained data structures that are easier to analyze and implement, and perform well in practice. RankPairing Heaps (European Symposium on Algorithms, September 2009!)

### 3.3.3.5 Shortest Path Tree

Dijkstra's algorithm finds the shortest path distances from s to $V$.
Question: How do we find the paths themselves?
$\left.\begin{array}{|c|}\hline Q=\operatorname{makePQ()} \\ \operatorname{insert}(Q,(s, 0)) \\ \operatorname{prev}(s) \Leftarrow \operatorname{null}) \\ \text { for } \operatorname{each} \operatorname{node} u \neq s \text { do } \\ \operatorname{insert}(Q,(u, \infty)) \\ \operatorname{prev}(u) \Leftarrow \operatorname{null} \\ S=\emptyset \\ \text { for } i=1 \text { to }|V| \text { do } \\ (v, \operatorname{dist}(s, v))=\operatorname{extractMin}(Q) \\ S=S \cup\{v\} \\ \text { for each } u \text { in } \operatorname{Adj}(v) \operatorname{do} \\ \text { if }(\operatorname{dist}(s, v)+\ell(v, u)<\operatorname{dist}(s, u)) \text { then } \\ \operatorname{decreaseKey}(Q,(u, \operatorname{dist}(s, v)+\ell(v, u))) \\ \operatorname{prev}(u)=v\end{array}\right]$

### 3.3.3.6 Shortest Path Tree

Lemma 3.3.8. The edge set $(u, \operatorname{prev}(u))$ is the reverse of a shortest path tree rooted at $s$. For each $u$, the reverse of the path from $u$ to $s$ in the tree is a shortest path from $s$ to $u$.

Proof:[Proof Sketch.]
(A) The edge set $\{(u, \operatorname{prev}(u)) \mid u \in V\}$ induces a directed in-tree rooted at $s$ (Why?)
(B) Use induction on $|S|$ to argue that the tree is a shortest path tree for nodes in $V$.

### 3.3.3.7 Shortest paths to $s$

Dijkstra's algorithm gives shortest paths from $s$ to all nodes in $V$.
How do we find shortest paths from all of $V$ to $s$ ?
(A) In undirected graphs shortest path from $s$ to $u$ is a shortest path from $u$ to $s$ so there is no need to distinguish.
(B) In directed graphs, use Dijkstra's algorithm in $G^{\text {rev }}$ !

