Chapter 3

Breadth First Search, Dijkstra's Algorithm for Shortest Paths

CS 473: Fundamental Algorithms, Spring 2013 January 24, 2013

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

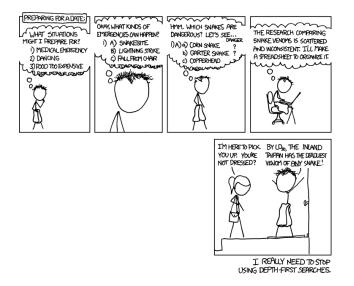
Queues

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.



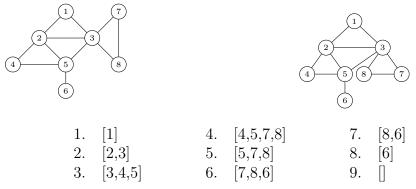
3.1.0.3 BFS Algorithm

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

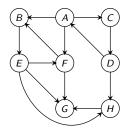
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\begin{array}{l} \textbf{BFS}(s) \\ & \text{Mark all vertices as unvisited} \\ & \text{Initialize search tree } T \text{ to be empty} \\ & \text{Mark vertex } s \text{ as visited} \\ & \text{set } Q \text{ to be the empty queue} \\ & \textbf{enq}(s)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

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.



3.1.0.6 BFS with Distance

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

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 dist(u) < dist(v) then u is visited before v.
- (C) For every vertex u, 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 $|\operatorname{dist}(u) \operatorname{dist}(v)| \le 1$.

Proof: Exercise.

3.1.0.8 Properties of BFS: <u>Directed</u> 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 dist(u) < dist(v) then u is visited before v

- (C) For every vertex u, 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 $dist(v) dist(u) \le 1$. Not necessarily the case that $dist(u) dist(v) \le 1$.

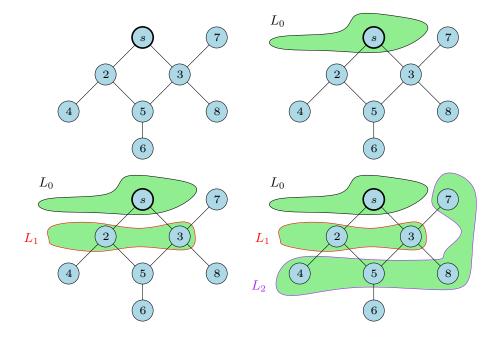
Proof: Exercise.

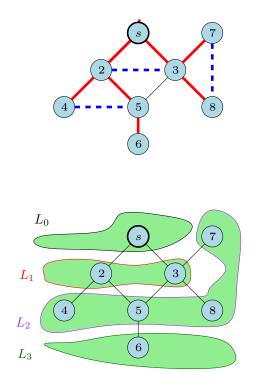
3.1.0.9 BFS with Layers

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\begin{aligned} \textbf{BFSLayers}(s): \\ & \text{Mark all vertices as unvisited and initialize } T \text{ to be empty} \\ & \text{Mark } s \text{ as visited and set } L_0 = \{s\} \\ & i = 0 \\ & \textbf{while } L_i \text{ is not empty } \textbf{do} \\ & \text{ initialize } L_{i+1} \text{ to be an empty list} \\ & \textbf{for each } u \text{ in } L_i \text{ do} \\ & \textbf{for each edge } (u, v) \in \text{Adj}(u) \text{ do} \\ & \text{ if } v \text{ is not visited} \\ & \text{ mark } v \text{ as visited} \\ & \text{ add } (u, v) \text{ to tree } T \\ & \text{ add } v \text{ to } L_{i+1} \\ & i = i+1 \end{aligned}
```

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
 - $(D) \implies$ 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.

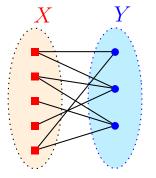
For each edge e = (u, v) is one of four types:

(A) a **tree** edge between consecutive layers, $u \in L_i, v \in L_{i+1}$ for some $i \ge 0$

- (B) a non-tree forward edge between consecutive layers
- (C) a non-tree **backward** edge

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 $C = u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{2k+1}, u_1$ 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 $\{u_1, u_{2k+1}\}$ 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 = (V', E') where $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.

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 **BFS**(u)
- (B) $X = \bigcup_{i \text{ is even}} L_i$ and $Y = \bigcup_{i \text{ is odd}} L_i$
- (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 **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 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' by replacing each edge $\{u, v\}$ in G by (u, v) and (v, u) in G'.
 - (B) 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 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(mL) edges and O(mL + n) nodes. **BFS** takes O(mL + n) time. Not efficient if L is large.

3.3.1.3 Towards an algorithm

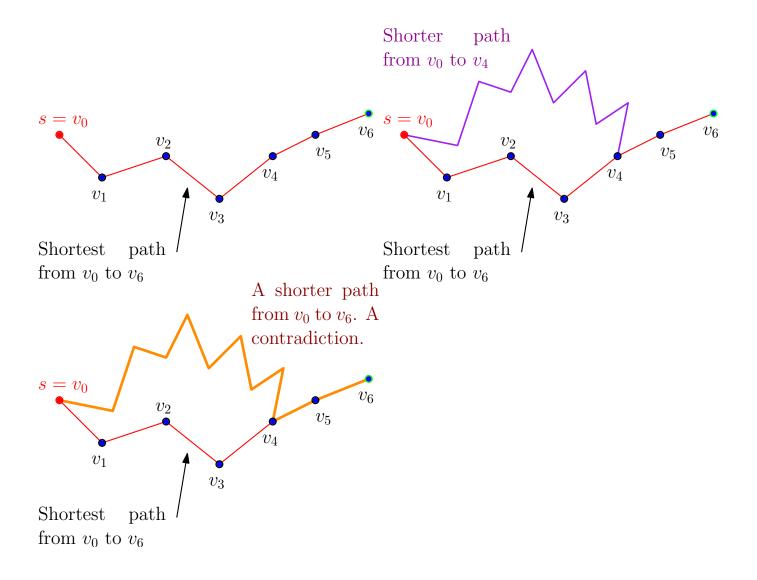
Why does **BFS** work?

 $\mathbf{BFS}(s)$ explores nodes in increasing distance from s

Lemma 3.3.1. Let G be a directed graph with non-negative edge lengths. Let 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 $1 \le i < k$: (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) dist $(s, v_i) \leq dist(s, v_k)$.

Proof: Suppose not. Then for some i < k there is a path P' 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' concatenated with $v_i \rightarrow v_{i+1} \ldots \rightarrow v_k$ contains a strictly shorter path to v_k than $s = v_0 \rightarrow v_1 \ldots \rightarrow v_k$.



3.3.1.5 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| do
(* Invariant: S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s *)
Among nodes in V \setminus S, 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

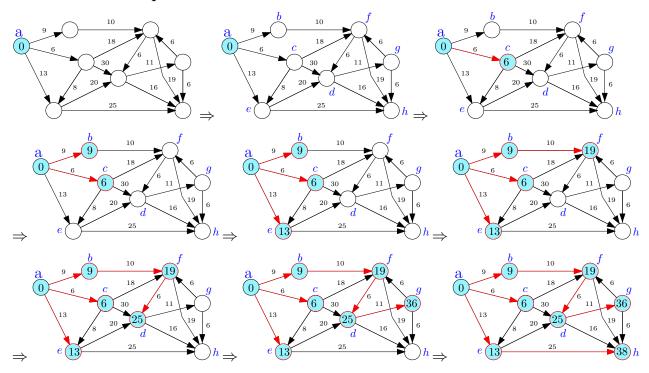
- (A) S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s
- (B) Want to find the *i*th closest node from V S. What do we know about the *i*th closest node?

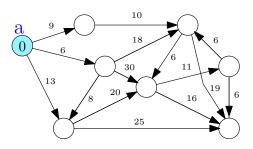
Claim 3.3.2. Let P be a shortest path from s to v where v is the *i*th closest node. Then, all intermediate nodes in P belong to S.

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*th 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'(s, u) be the length of P(s, u, S)Observations: for each $u \in V - S$,
- (A) dist $(s, u) \leq d'(s, u)$ since we are constraining the paths
- (B) $d'(s, u) = \min_{a \in S} (\operatorname{dist}(s, a) + \ell(a, u))$ Why?

Lemma 3.3.4. If v is the ith closest node to s, then d'(s, v) = 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) $d'(s, u) = \min_{x \in S} (\operatorname{dist}(s, x) + \ell(x, u))$ If v is an ith closest node to s, then $d'(s, v) = \operatorname{dist}(s, v)$.

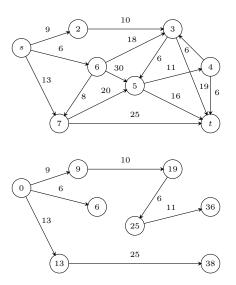
Proof: Let v be the *i*th closest node to s. Then there is a shortest path P from s to v that contains only nodes in S as intermediate nodes (see previous claim). Therefore $d'(s, v) = \operatorname{dist}(s, v)$.

3.3.2.5 Finding the *i*th closest node

Lemma 3.3.6. If v is an ith closest node to s, then d'(s, v) = dist(s, v).

Corollary 3.3.7. The *i*th closest node to *s* is the node $v \in V - S$ such that $d'(s, v) = \min_{u \in V-S} d'(s, u)$.

Proof: For every node $u \in V - S$, $dist(s, u) \leq d'(s, u)$ and for the *i*th closest node v, dist(s, v) = d'(s, v). Moreover, $dist(s, u) \geq dist(s, v)$ for each $u \in V - S$.



3.3.2.6 Algorithm

Correctness: By induction on *i* using previous lemmas. **Running time:** $O(n \cdot (n+m))$ time.

(A) *n* outer iterations. In each iteration, d'(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'(s, u) values in each iteration
- (B) d'(s, u) changes from iteration i to i + 1 only because of the node v that is added to S in iteration i.

Running time: $O(m+n^2)$ time.

- (A) n outer iterations and in each iteration following steps
- (B) updating d'(s, u) after v added takes O(deg(v)) time so total work is O(m) since a node enters S only once
- (C) Finding v from d'(s, u) values is O(n) time

3.3.2.9 Dijkstra's Algorithm

- (A) eliminate d'(s, u) and let dist(s, u) maintain it
- (B) update dist values after adding v by scanning edges out of v

Initialize for each node v,
$$\operatorname{dist}(s, v) = \infty$$

Initialize $S = \{\}$, $\operatorname{dist}(s, s) = 0$
for $i = 1$ to $|V|$ do
Let v be such that $\operatorname{dist}(s, v) = \min_{u \in V-S} \operatorname{dist}(s, u)$
 $S = S \cup \{v\}$
for each u in $\operatorname{Adj}(v)$ do
 $\operatorname{dist}(s, u) = \min(\operatorname{dist}(s, u), \operatorname{dist}(s, v) + \ell(v, u))$

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

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) **insert**(v, k(v)): Add new element v with key k(v) to S.
- (E) delete(v): Remove element v from S.
- (F) **decreaseKey**(v, k'(v)): *decrease* key of v from k(v) (current key) to k'(v) (new key). Assumption: $k'(v) \le k(v)$.

- (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 \mathsf{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}(\mathbb{Q})

S = S \cup \{v\}

for each u in \operatorname{Adj}(v) do

decreaseKey\left(Q, (u, \min(\operatorname{dist}(s, u), \operatorname{dist}(s, v) + \ell(v, u)))\right).
```

Priority Queue operations:

- (A) O(n) insert operations
- (B) O(n) extract Min 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: ℓ **decreaseKey** operations for $\ell \ge n$ 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. Rank-Pairing 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?

```
Q = makePQ()
insert (Q, (s,0))
prev(s) \leftarrow null
for each node u \neq s do
insert (Q, (u, \infty))
prev(u) \leftarrow null
S = \emptyset
for i = 1 to |V| do
(v, dist(s, v)) = extractMin(Q)
S = S \cup \{v\}
for each u in Adj(v) do
if (dist(s, v) + \ell(v, u) < dist(s, v) + \ell(v, u))) then
decreaseKey (Q, (u, dist(s, v) + \ell(v, u)))
prev(u) = v
```

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^{rev} !