Chapter 3

Breadth First Search, Dijkstra's Algorithm for Shortest Paths

CS 473: Fundamental Algorithms, Fall 2011 August 30, 2011

3.1 Breadth First Search

3.1.0.1 Breadth First Search (BFS)

Overview

- 1. **BFS** is obtained from **BasicSearch** by processing edges using a data structure called a *queue*.
- 2. 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*

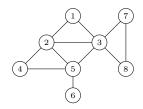
3.1.0.2 Queue Data Structure

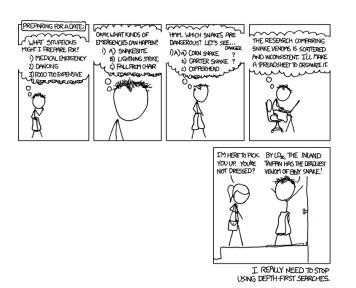
Queues

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 $s \in V$

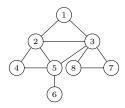
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\begin{aligned} \mathbf{BFS}(s) \\ & \text{Mark all vertices as unvisited} \\ & \text{Initialize search tree } T \text{ to be empty} \\ & \text{Mark vertex } s \text{ as visited} \\ & \text{set } Q \text{ to be the empty queue} \\ & \mathbf{enq}(s) \\ & \mathbf{while } Q \text{ is nonempty } \mathbf{do} \\ & u = \mathbf{deq}(Q) \\ & \mathbf{for each vertex } v \in \mathrm{Adj}(u) \\ & \mathbf{if } v \text{ is not visited } \mathbf{then} \\ & \text{add edge } (u,v) \text{ to } T \\ & \text{Mark } v \text{ as visited and } \mathbf{enq}(v) \end{aligned}
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Proposition 3.1.1 BFS(s) runs in O(n+m) time.

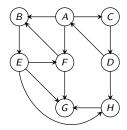
3.1.0.4 BFS: An Example in Undirected Graphs

1. [1]4. [4,5,7,8]7. [8,6]2. [2,3]5. [5,7,8]8. [6]3. [3,4,5]6. [7,8,6]9. []

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

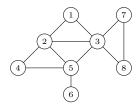
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\begin{aligned} \mathbf{BFS}(s) \\ & \text{Mark all vertices as unvisited } \textit{and for each } v \textit{ set } \operatorname{dist}(v) = \infty \\ & \text{Initialize search tree } T \textit{ to be empty} \\ & \text{Mark vertex } s \textit{ as visited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

3.1.0.7 Properties of BFS: Undirected Graphs

Proposition 3.1.2 The following properties hold upon termination of BFS(s)

- 1. The search tree contains exactly the set of vertices in the connected component of s.
- 2. If dist(u) < dist(v) then u is visited before v.
- 3. For every vertex u, dist(u) is indeed the length of shortest path from s to u.
- 4. 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):

- 1. The search tree contains exactly the set of vertices reachable from s
- 2. If dist(u) < dist(v) then u is visited before v
- 3. For every vertex u, dist(u) is indeed the length of shortest path from s to u
- 4. 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

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

3.1.1 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.

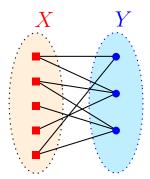
For each edge e = (u, v) is one of four types:

- (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
- (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 $C = u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{2k+1}, u_1$ 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) $X = \bigcup_{i \text{ is even}} L_i \text{ and } Y = \bigcup_{i \text{ is odd}} L_i$
- (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 i < 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 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

3.3.0.9 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?

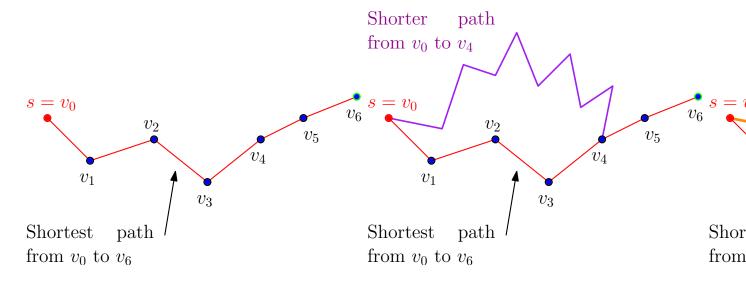
BFS(s) explores nodes in increasing distance from s

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) $\operatorname{dist}(s, v_i) \leq \operatorname{dist}(s, v_k)$.

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 $s = v_0 \to v_1 \to \ldots \to v_i$. Then P' concatenated with $v_i \to v_{i+1} \ldots \to v_k$ contains a strictly shorter path to v_k than $s = v_0 \to v_1 \ldots \to v_k$.

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, \operatorname{dist}(s,v) = \infty Initialize S = \emptyset, for i = 1 to |V| do  (* \ \textit{Invariant:} \ S \ \textit{contains the } i-1 \ \textit{closest nodes to } s \ *)  Among nodes in V \setminus S, find the node v that is the  i \text{th closest to } s  Update \operatorname{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

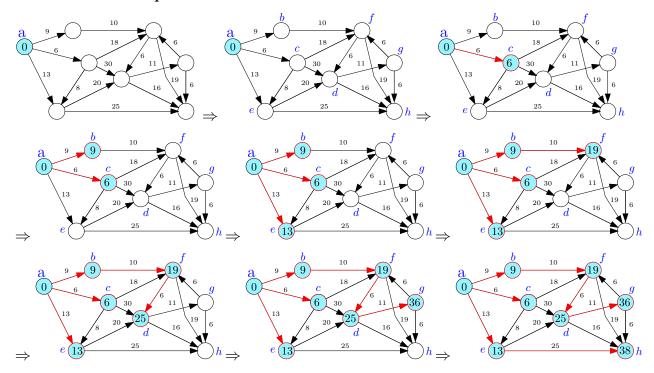
- (A) S contains the i-1 closest nodes to s
- (B) Want to find the *i*th closest node from V S. What do we know about the *i*th closest node?

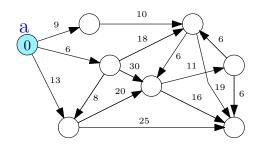
Claim 3.3.2 Let P be a shortest path from s to v where v is the ith closest node. Then, all intermediate nodes in P belong to S.

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 ith 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 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'(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) $d'(s, u) = \min_{x \in S} (\text{dist}(s, x) + \ell(x, u))$

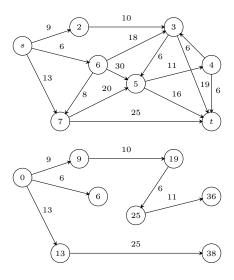
If v is an ith closest node to s, then d'(s,v) = dist(s,v).

Proof: Let v be the ith 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 ith 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 ith 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 $u \in V - S$, $\operatorname{dist}(s, u) \leq d'(s, u)$ and for the *i*th closest node v, $\operatorname{dist}(s, v) = d'(s, v)$. 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\colon\operatorname{dist}(s,v)=\infty
Initialize S = \emptyset, d'(s,s)=0
for i=1 to |V| 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'(s,v)=\min_{u\in V-S}d'(s,u) \operatorname{dist}(s,v)=d'(s,v) S=S\cup\{v\} for each node u in V\setminus S do
d'(s,u) \Leftarrow \min_{a\in S} \left(\operatorname{dist}(s,a)+\ell(a,u)\right)
```

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.

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

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

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

```
\begin{split} Q & \leftarrow \mathbf{makePQ}() \\ \mathbf{insert}(Q,\ (s,0)) \\ \mathbf{for} \ \mathbf{each} \ \mathbf{node} \ u \neq s \ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{insert}(Q,\ (u,\infty)) \\ S & \leftarrow \emptyset \\ \mathbf{for} \ i = 1 \ \mathbf{to} \ |V| \ \mathbf{do} \\ (v, \mathrm{dist}(s,v)) &= extractMin(Q) \\ S &= S \cup \{v\} \\ \mathbf{for} \ \mathbf{each} \ u \ \mathbf{in} \ \mathrm{Adj}(v) \ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{decreaseKey}\Big(Q, \left(u, \min(\mathrm{dist}(s,u), \ \mathrm{dist}(s,v) + \ell(v,u))\right)\Big). \end{split}
```

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

3.3.3.6 Shortest Path Tree

Lemma 3.3.8 The edge set (u, 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} !