

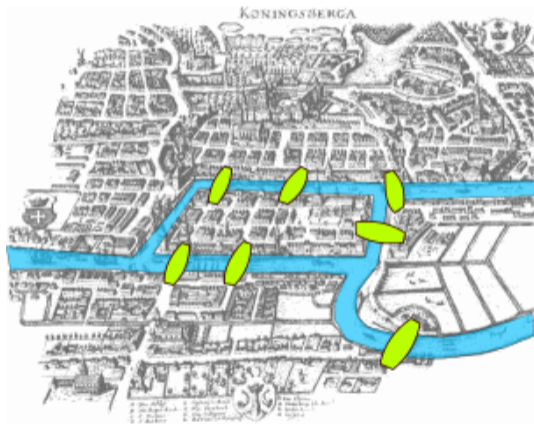
Algorithms and Data Structures

Part 5: Elementary Graph Algorithms

Department of Mathematics
Stockholm University

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Seven Bridges of Königsberg (Euler, 1736)

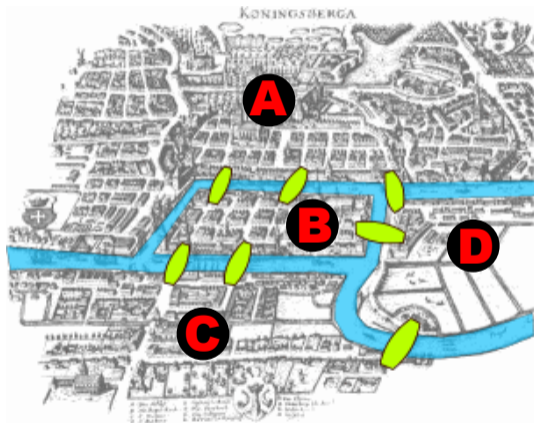


The “first problem” in graph theory:

Is there a walk through the city that would cross each of those bridges once and only once.

Original article: <https://scholarlycommons.pacific.edu/euler-works/>

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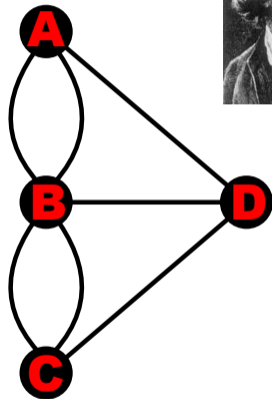
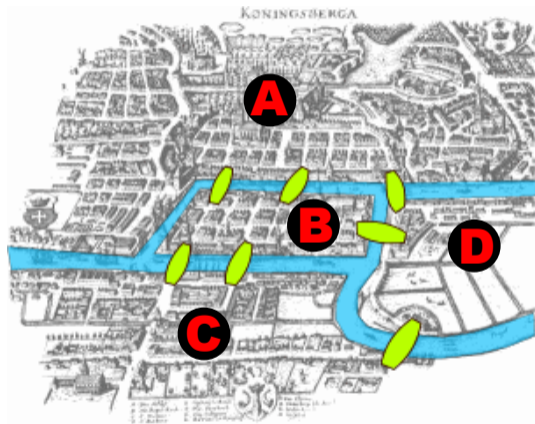


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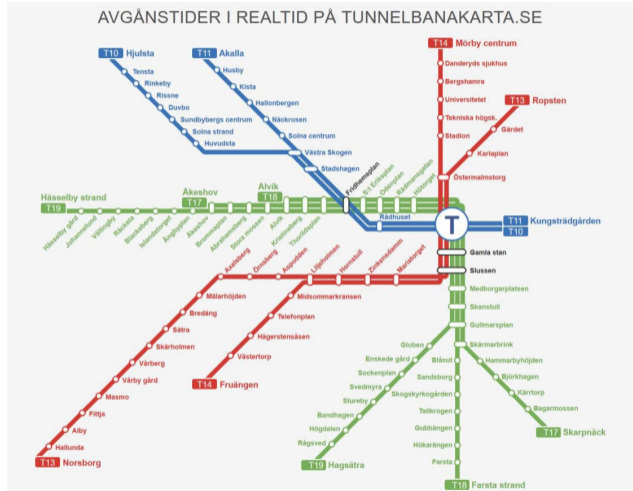
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Graphs are used to abstract and to show relationships

Metro Network



Vertices = metro stations

Edges = direct connections between stations

Graphs are used to abstract and to show relationships

Social Networks



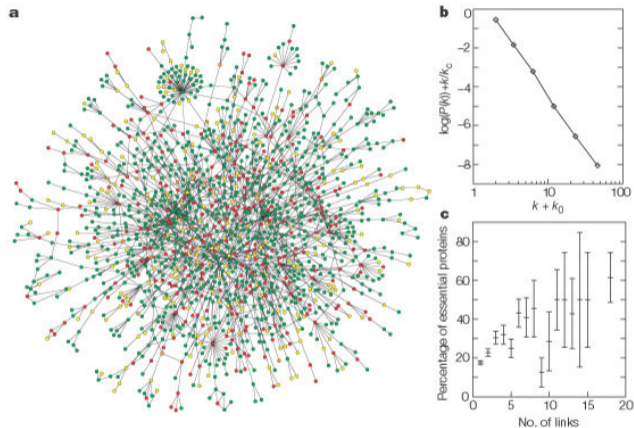
Vertices = user accounts

Edges = two accounts are "friends"

Source: <http://blog.revolutionanalytics.com>

Graphs are used to abstract and to show relationships

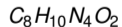
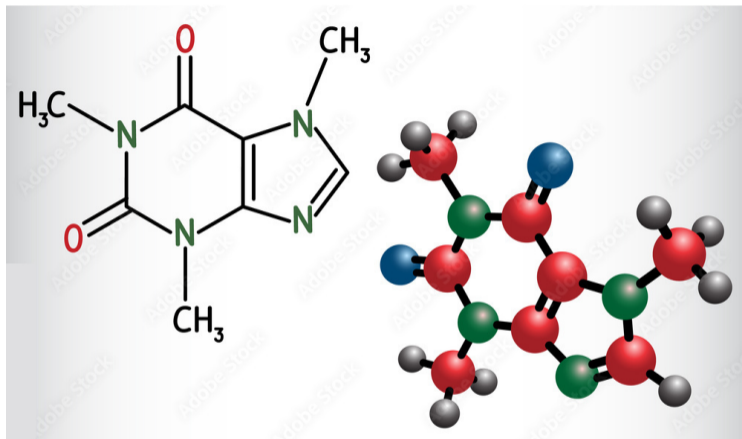
Graph of Protein-Interactions (yeast)



Vertices = proteins

Edges = two proteins interact

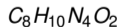
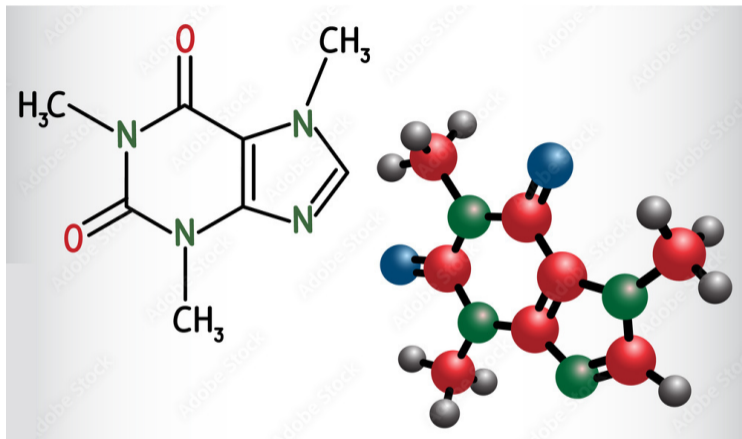
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Vertices = atoms

Edges = chemical bonds

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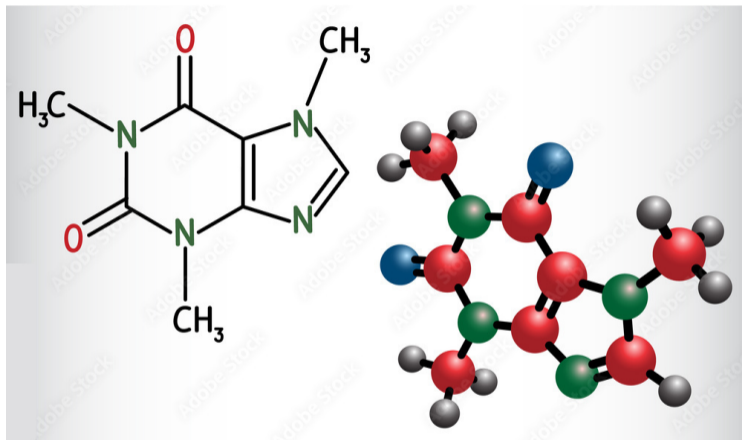
Edges = chemical bonds

Any idea what this molecule is?

(Hint: makes you awake and can be transformed by mathematicians into theorems)

Source <https://stock.adobe.com/>

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$C_8H_{10}N_4O_2$ = caffeine

Vertices = atoms

Edges = chemical bonds

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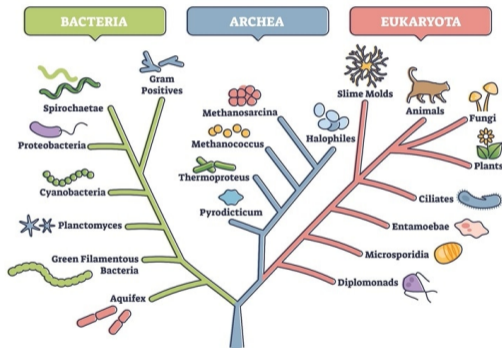
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Graphs are used to abstract and to show relationships

Phylogenetics Trees

PHYLOGENETIC TREE



Vertices = Taxa (e.g. genes or species)

Edges = ancestor relationship

Graphs are used to abstract

Graphs can be used to model various types of real-world scenarios.

Given such a graph, it is therefore of interest, to understand its structure (what does structure mean?).

⇒ we need algorithms to analyze them.

Here, we focus on simple structural properties and basic algorithms to compute them.

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Graphs: Basics

Definition

A tuple (V, E) is called an **undirected graph** if

V is a finite set, and

E is a set of unordered pairs of elements in V .

V is called the **vertex set**, and the elements of V are called **vertices** (often also **nodes**).

E is called the **edge set**, and the elements of E are called **edges**.

For now, we consider undirected graphs only and call them just **graphs**

Example. $V = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$E = \{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{2, 4\}, \{2, 5\}, \{3, 4\}, \{3, 5\}, \{4, 5\}\}$

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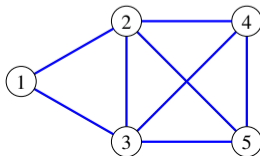
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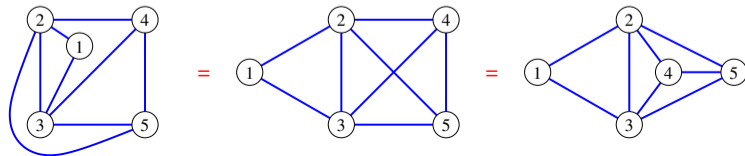
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A graph G is **connected** if for any two vertices $x, y \in V(G)$ there is an xy -path.

A connected and acyclic graph is a **tree** (see previous lectures for further defs).

Lemma. *If $T = (V, E)$ is a tree, then $(V, E \setminus e)$ is disconnected for all $e \in E$.*

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Proof: Let $T = (V, E)$ be a tree. By definition, T is connected.

\Rightarrow for all $u, v \in V$ there is a uv -path in T .

In particular, there cannot be two uv -paths in T since, otherwise, we can find simple cycles.

\Rightarrow For all $u, v \in V$ there is a *unique* uv -path in T

\Rightarrow For $e = \{u, v\} \in E$, the unique uv -path in T is precisely the edge $\{u, v\}$.

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Note that $|V| = |V_1| + |V_2|$ and $|E| = |E_1| + |E_2| + 1$.

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Hence, $|E| = |E_1| + |E_2| + 1 = (|V_1| - 1) + (|V_2| - 1) + 1 = |V_1| + |V_2| - 1 = |V| - 1$.

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Proof: *if-direction:* Let $T = (V, E)$ be connected and $|E| = |V| - 1$.

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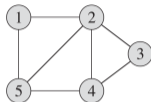
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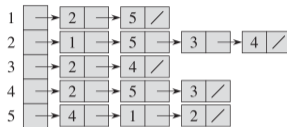


How to store graphs

Before we delve into graph algorithms, let's take a closer look at how to store graphs. Here, we assume that the vertices in $G = (V, E)$ are integers $1, \dots, |V|$.



G



adjacency-list

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	1	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	1	1
3	0	1	0	1	0
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adjacency matrix

There are two common standard ways (among others):

- The **adjacency-list** of a graph $G = (V, E)$..
.. consists of an array A of $|V|$ linked lists, one for each vertex j in V and each list $A[j]$ contains all vertices $i \in N(j)$, i.e., those i for which $\{i, j\} \in E$

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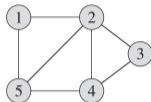
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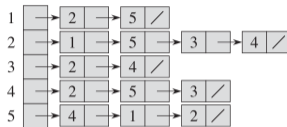
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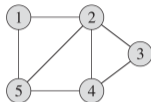
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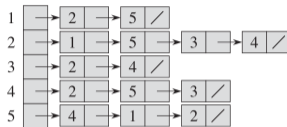
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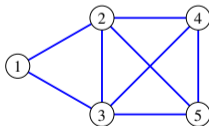
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The **neighborhood** $N(v)$ of v in $G = (V, E)$ is the set $N(v) = \{w \in V \mid \{v, w\} \in E\}$ of all vertices w of G such that $\{v, w\}$ form an edge in G .

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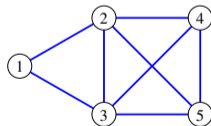
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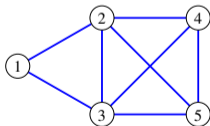
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Proof: Each edge $\{u, w\}$ connects exactly the two vertices u and w and so it contributes 1 to $|N(u)|$ and 1 to $|N(w)|$. Thus, each edge contributes 2 to $\sum_{v \in V} |N(v)|$. Hence, $\sum_{v \in V} |N(v)|$ is equal to twice the number of edges. \square



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PrintSomething($G = (V, E)$) // G given as adjacency-list

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Question: Do you now classes of graphs where space and time-complexity of **PrintSomething** is both in $O(|V|)$?

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Question: Do you now classes of graphs where space and time-complexity of **PrintSomething** is both in $O(|V|)$?

Answer: For trees $T = (V, E)$ we have $|E| = |V| - 1 \Rightarrow 0.5|V| \leq |E| < |V|$ whenever $|V| \geq 2$
 $\Rightarrow O(|V| + |E|) = O(|V|)$ and $O(|E|) = O(|V|)$.

Graphs: Basics

The **neighborhood** $N(v)$ of v in $G = (V, E)$ is the set $N(v) = \{w \in V \mid \{v, w\} \in E\}$ of all vertices w of G such that $\{v, w\}$ form an edge in G .

If $u \in N(v)$ (and thus, $v \in N(u)$), then u and v are called **neighbors**.

Handshake-lemma. $\sum_{v \in V} |N(v)| = 2|E|$ for every graph $G = (V, E)$.

Let $G = (V, E)$ and $G' = (V', E')$ be graphs. Then,

G' is called a **subgraph** of G if $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$.

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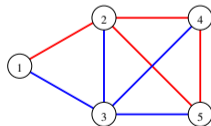
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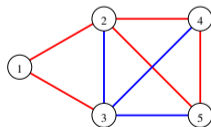
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a spanning subgraph

Graphs: Basics

Graphs can be used to model various types of real-world scenarios.

Given such a graph, it is therefore of interest, to understand its structure (what does structure mean?).

⇒ we need algorithms to analyze them.

Simple structural properties:

Is G connected?

Does G contain simple cycles?

Is G a tree?

What is distance between two vertices u, v , i.e., length of shortest (simple) uv -path?

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Graph Traversal

For the simple graph properties we want to test as listed above we can use [graph traversal](#), that is:
visit the vertices in a graph beginning with a start vertex s such that

- Each vertex reachable from s is visited exactly once.

- The next visited vertex always has at least one neighbor in the set of previously visited nodes.

We consider here two classical graph traversal algorithms:

- Breadth-First Search (BFS)

- Depth-First Search (DFS)

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

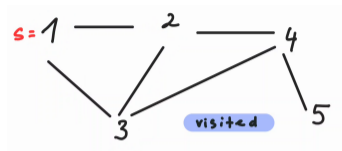
`BFS($G = (V, E), s$)`

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4  Q.enqueue(s)
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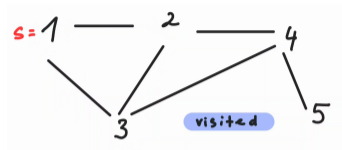


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after L1-4: $Q = (1)$ `visited(1) := true`



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L6 (**BFS-order**)

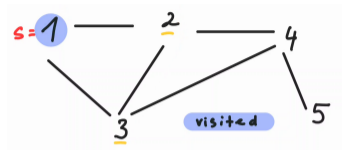
L8

L9

$v = 1$ and $Q = ()$

$Q = (2, 3)$

visited(2) = **visited**(3) = true



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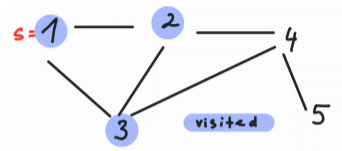
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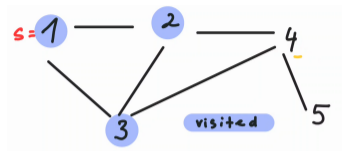
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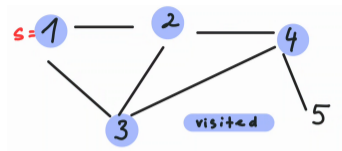
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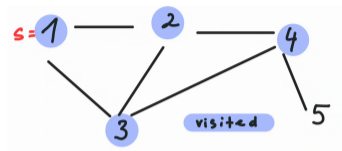
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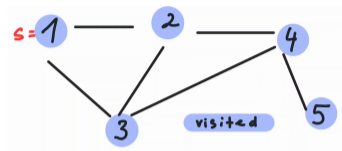
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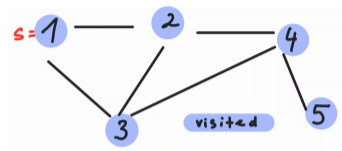
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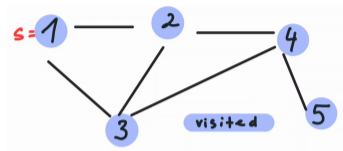
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\Rightarrow each $v \in V$ is enqueued at most once, and hence dequeued at most once.

The operations of enqueueing and dequeuing take $O(1)$ time, and so the total time devoted to queue operations is $O(|V|)$.

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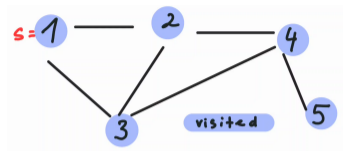
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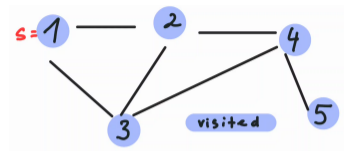
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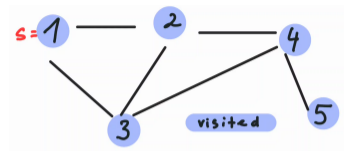
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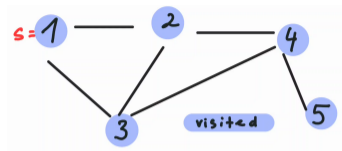
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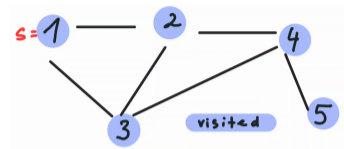
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\Rightarrow each $v \in V$ is enqueued at most once, and hence dequeued at most once.

The operations of enqueueing and dequeuing take $O(1)$ time, and so the total time devoted to queue operations is $O(|V|)$.

The neighbors in $N(v)$ of each vertex v are scanned only when the vertex is dequeued

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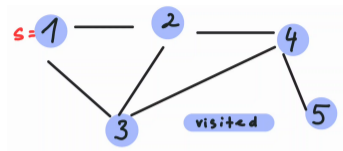
The handshake-lemma implies $\sum_{v \in V} |N(v)| = 2|E| \in O(|E|)$.

\Rightarrow while-loop runs in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

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$\text{BFS}(G = (V, E), s)$

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Runtime: Assume that G is stored as adjacency-list (for all v the set of neighbors $N(v)$ is available)

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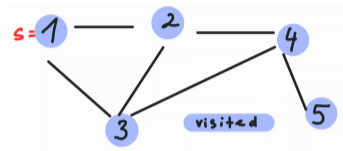
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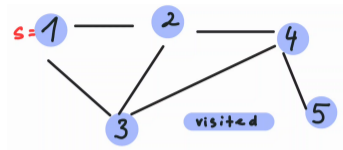
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BFS runtime: $O(|V| + |E|)$.

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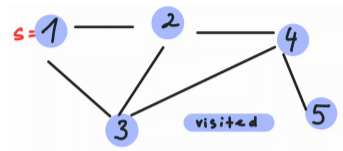
Now, let's squeeze out all structural properties of a graph G we may get using **BFS**.

In what follows, we say that v is marked as **visited**, precisely if **visited**(v) = true

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Structural Property: Is $G = (V, E)$ connected?

Assume, for contradiction, that $x \in V$ is *not* marked as **visited** after run of $\text{BFS}(G, s)$.

Since s is marked as **visited**, but x is not, there are consecutive vertices v, w in $P = (s, \dots, v, w, \dots, x)$ such that v is marked as **visited**, but w is not.

In particular, $\{v, w\} \in E$ and, therefore $w \in N(v)$.

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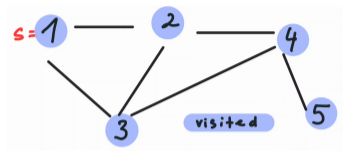
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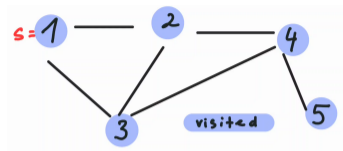
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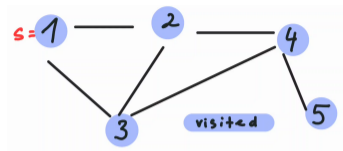
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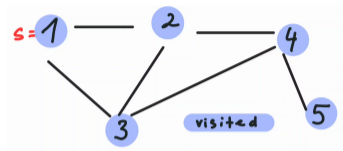
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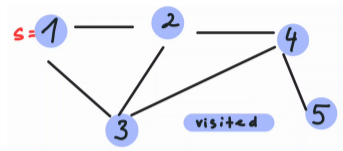
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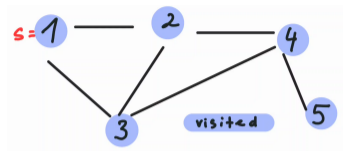
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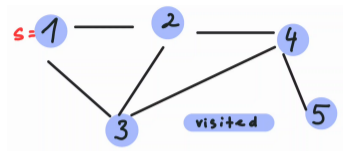
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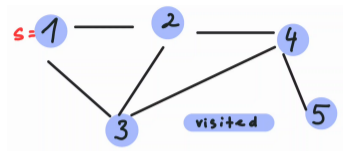
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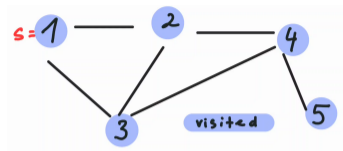
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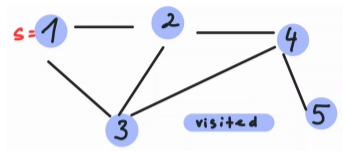
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Proof: " \Rightarrow " Assume that all vertices in V are marked as **visited** after run of $\text{BFS}(G, s)$.

If $V = \{s\}$, then G is connected. Assume that $|V| > 1$ and let $w \in V \setminus \{s\}$.

Since w is marked as **visited**, we have $w \in N(v_1)$ whereby $v_1 \in Q$ prior to point where w is considered in for-loop

Since v_1 was added to Q , it holds that either

$v_1 = s$ (in which case we found an sw -path $P = (s, w)$) or

$v_1 \in N(v_2)$ whereby $v_2 \in Q$ prior to point where v_1 is considered in for-loop

Repeating the latter, ends in a sequence of vertices v_k, \dots, v_1, v_0 with $s = v_k$ and $w = v_0$ and such that $v_i \in N(v_{i+1})$, $0 \leq i \leq k-1$ and thus, we obtain an sw -path $P = (v_k, \dots, v_0)$.

\Rightarrow for all $w \in V$ there is an sw -path

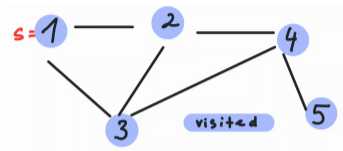
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Breadth-First Search (BFS)

$\text{BFS}(G = (V, E), s)$

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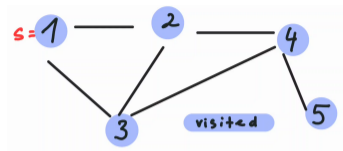
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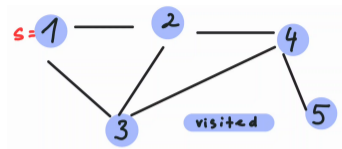
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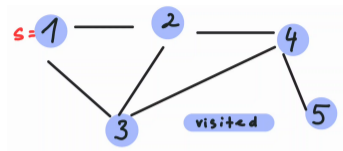
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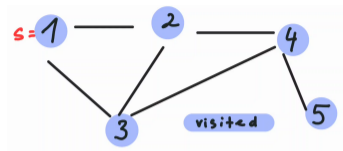
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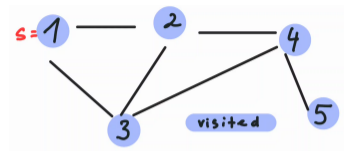
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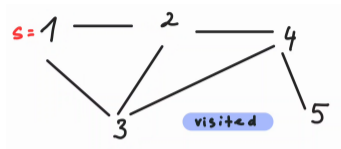
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Thus, we obtain

Lemma. Testing whether a graph $G = (V, E)$ is connected can be done $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

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Structural Property: Is $G = (V, E)$ a tree?

Since we can test connectedness of $G = (V, E)$ in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time, we obtain

Lemma. Testing whether a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a tree can be done $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

Proof. First test if G is connected in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time. Then, check if $|E| = |V| - 1$. In the affirmative case, the Tree-Theorem implies that G is a tree.

In many applications we are also interested in subgraphs of G that are trees, in particular, spanning trees.

To obtain spanning trees, let us slightly modify **BFS** by marking also edges as **visited**.

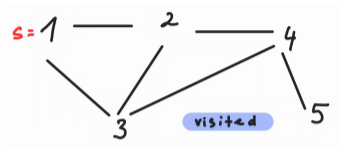
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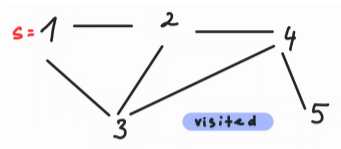
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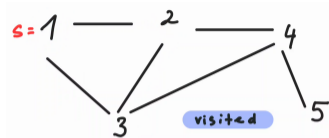
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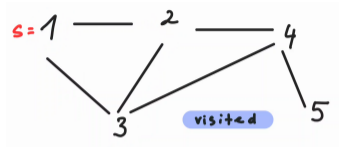
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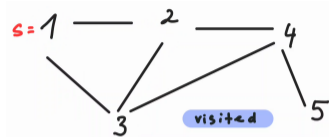
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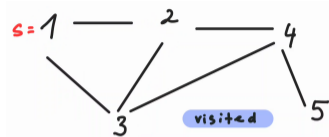
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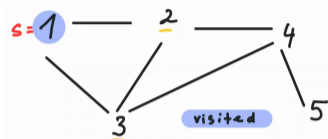
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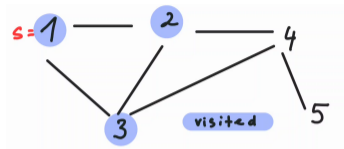
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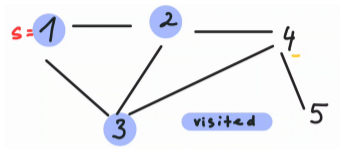
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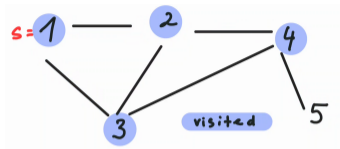
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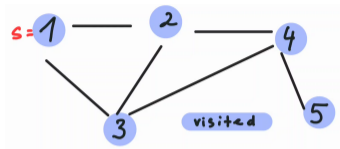
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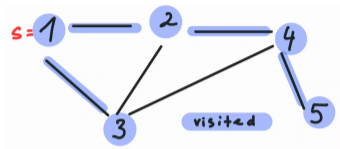
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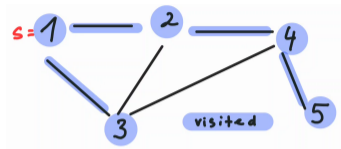
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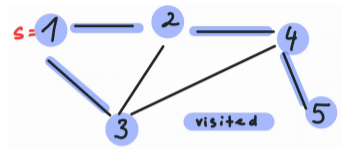
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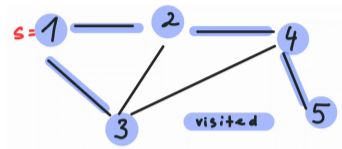
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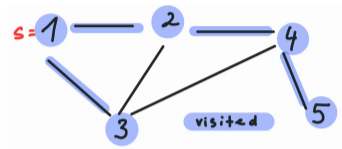
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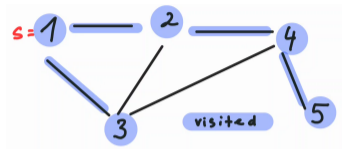
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Proof: We show that T_{BFS} is connected and has $|V| - 1$ edges.

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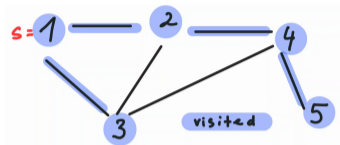
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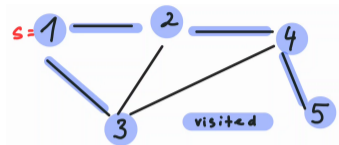
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Since G is connected, the latter lemma also implies that all vertices are marked as `visited`. In particular, all $|V| - 1$ vertices distinct from s must have been marked during the execution of the for-loop and each vertex is marked `visited` precisely once. Thus, exactly $|V| - 1$ edges have been marked `visited`. Hence, F contains precisely $|V| - 1$ edges.

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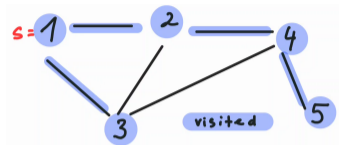
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Thus, T_{BFS} is connected and has $|V| - 1$ edges and the Tree-Theorem implies that T_{BFS} is a tree.

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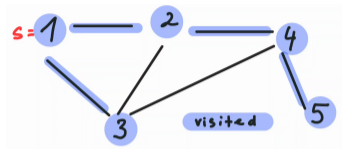
Since the vertex set of T_{BFS} and G is V , T_{BFS} is a spanning tree of G



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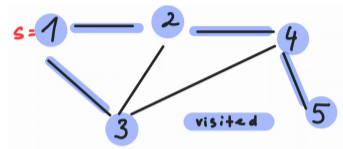
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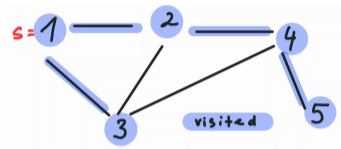
Lemma. If $G = (V, E)$ is connected, then $T_{BFS} = (V, F)$ is a spanning tree of G

Lemma. $G = (V, E)$ is a tree if and only if G is connected and $|F| = |E|$

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

`modi_BFS($G = (V, E)$, s)`

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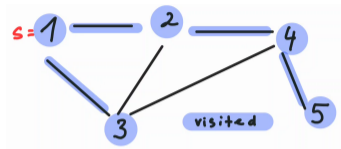
Proof: If $G = (V, E)$ is a tree, then G is connected and there is only one spanning tree and thus, $G = T_{BFS}$ (hence, $|E| = |F|$)

Suppose that G is connected and $|F| = |E|$. Since F is edge set of the spanning tree T_{BFS} of G it holds that $|F| = |V| - 1$ and thus, $|E| = |V| - 1$. By the Tree-Theorem, G is a tree.

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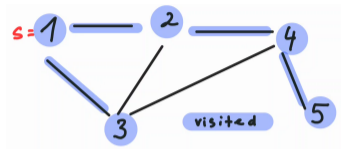
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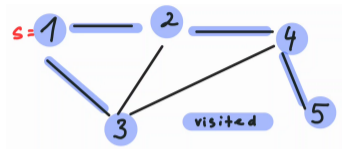
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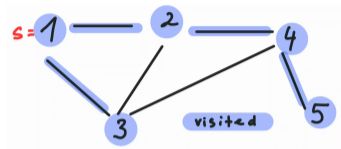
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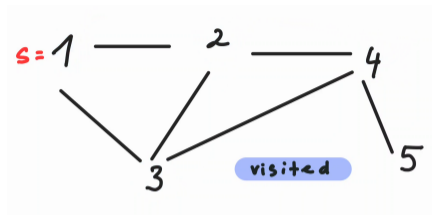
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The latter results also imply

Theorem. For each connected graph $G = (V, E)$ we have $|E| \geq |V| - 1$ and G has a spanning tree.

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Structural Property: Distances in $G = (V, E)$?

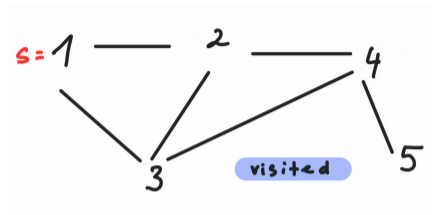
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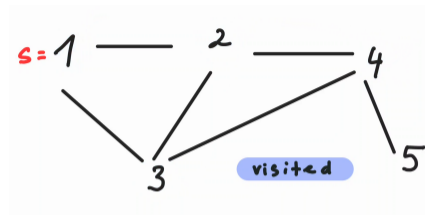
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dist_BFS( $G = (V, E), s$ )
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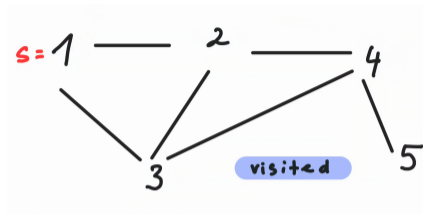
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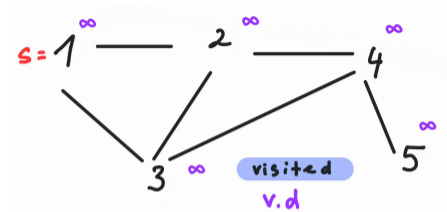
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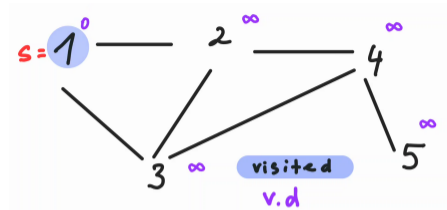
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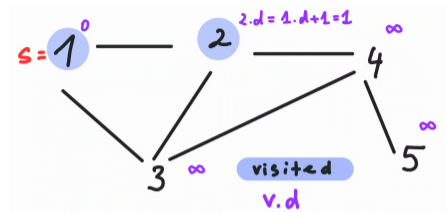
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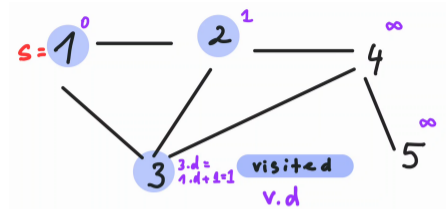
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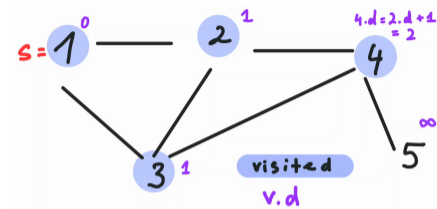
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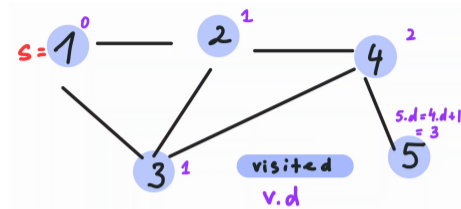
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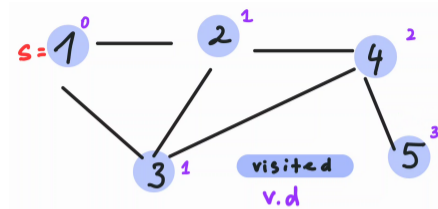
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10   visited(w) := true
```



Structural Property: Distances in $G = (V, E)$?

In many application it is useful to know the distances $d(x, y)$ between vertices x and y in G , where

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} \min_{P \in \mathcal{P}} |P| & \text{if set } \mathcal{P} \text{ of all } xy\text{-paths is not empty} \\ \infty & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

Here $|P| := k$ denotes the length of a path $P = (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k)$.

In other words $d(x, y)$ denotes the length of a shortest xy -path in G . If no such path exists, then $d(x, y) = \infty$.

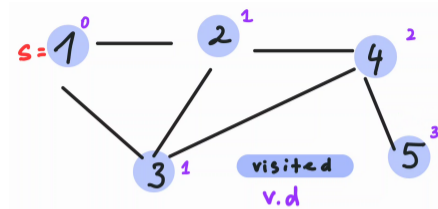
To this end, consider the following modification `dist_BFS`.

Example. Given the same order in which vertices are added to Q as in previous slides: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

`dist_BFS($G = (V, E)$, s)`

```
1  visited(v) := false and v.d := ∞ for all  $v \in V$ 
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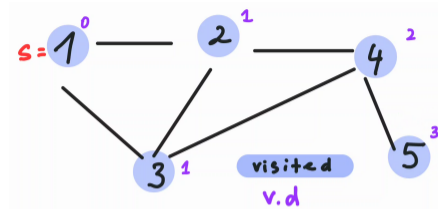
Example. Given the same order in which vertices are added to Q as in previous slides: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

What have we computed?

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

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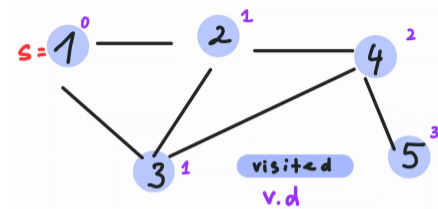
Example. Given the same order in which vertices are added to Q as in previous slides: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

What have we computed? Answer: $d(s, v)$ for all $v \in V$.

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

`dist_BFS($G = (V, E)$, s)`

```
1  visited( $v$ ) := false and  $v.d := \infty$  for all  $v \in V$ 
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Structural Property: Distances in $G = (V, E)$

In many application it is useful to know the distances $d(x, y)$ between vertices x and y in G , where

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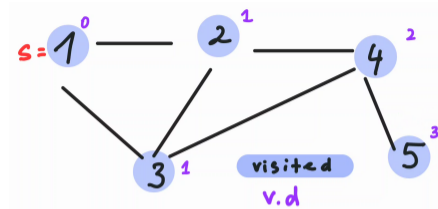
Example. Given the same order in which vertices are added to Q as in previous slides: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

What have we computed? Answer: $d(s, v)$ for all $v \in V$. Let's prove correctness!

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

`dist_BFS($G = (V, E)$, s)`

```
1  visited(v) := false and v.d := ∞ for all  $v \in V$ 
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```



Structural Property: Distances in $G = (V, E)$?

Theorem. `dist_BFS(G, s)` correctly computes the distances $d(s, v)$ between s and all $v \in V$ in $O(|V| + |E|)$ time.

proof board (before some conclusion we can draw)

We could run `dist_BFS(G, w)` for each $w \in V$ as start vertex and thus, obtain the distances $d(w, v)$ for all $w, v \in V$, which implies

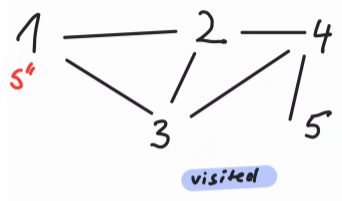
Lemma. The distances between all pairs of vertices in $G = (V, E)$ can be computed $O(|V|(|V| + |E|)) = O(|V|^2 + |V||E|)$ time.

There are many other algorithms that can be used to determine distances that even work in the case that we may have edge weights (here `dist_BFS` would fail in general).

Depth-First Search (DFS)

DFS($G = (V, E), s$)

```
1  visited( $v$ ) := false for all  $v \in V$ 
2  init empty stack  $S$  //LIFO
3   $S.push(s)$ 
4  WHILE ( $S \neq \emptyset$ ) DO
5       $v := S.top()$  and  $S.pop()$ 
6      IF (visited( $v$ )  $\neq$  true) THEN
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8          FOR (all neighbors  $w \in N(v)$  of  $v$  for which visited( $w$ ) = false) DO
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```

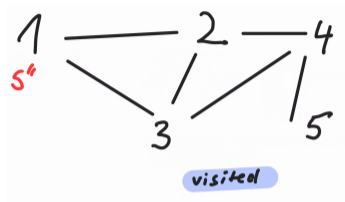


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```

after L1-4: $S = (1)$



Depth-First Search (DFS)

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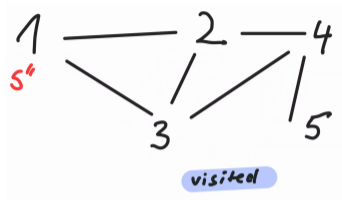
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L5

L7 (DFS-order)

L9



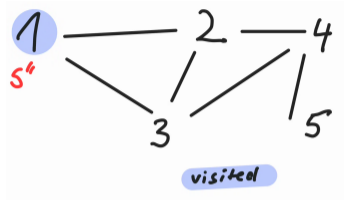
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L5	L7 (DFS-order)	L9
$v = 1$ and $S = ()$	$visited(1) = true$	$S = (2, 3)$



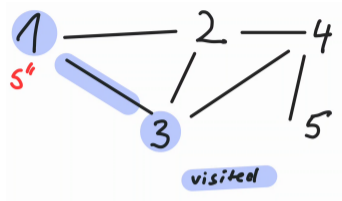
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5     $v := S.top()$  and  $S.pop()$ 
6    IF ( $visited(v) \neq true$ ) THEN
7       $visited(v) := true$ 
8      FOR (all neighbors  $w \in N(v)$  of  $v$  for which  $visited(w) = false$ ) DO
9         $S.push(w)$ 
```

after L1-4: $S = (1)$

L5	L7 (DFS-order)	L9
$v = 1$ and $S = ()$	$visited(1) = true$	$S = (2, 3)$
$v = 3$ and $S = (2)$	$visited(3) = true$	$S = (2, 4, 2)$

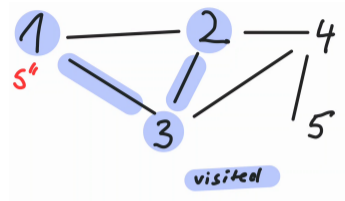


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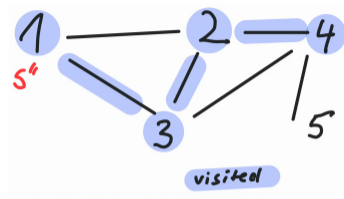
L5	L7 (DFS-order)	L9
$v = 1$ and $S = ()$	visited (1) = true	$S = (2, 3)$
$v = 3$ and $S = (2)$	visited (3) = true	$S = (2, 4, 2)$
$v = 2$ and $S = (2, 4)$	visited (2) = true	$S = (2, 4, 4)$

Depth-First Search (DFS)

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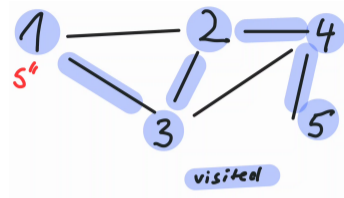
L5	L7 (DFS-order)	L9
$v = 1$ and $S = ()$	$visited(1) = true$	$S = (2, 3)$
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$v = 2$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(2) = true$	$S = (2, 4, 4)$
$v = 4$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(4) = true$	$S = (2, 4, 5)$

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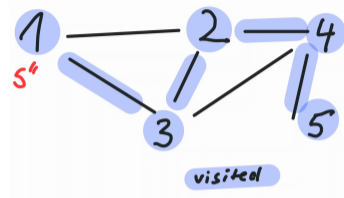
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$v = 2$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(2) = true$	$S = (2, 4, 4)$
$v = 4$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(4) = true$	$S = (2, 4, 5)$
$v = 5$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(5) = true$	-

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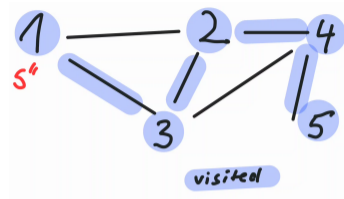
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$v = 4$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(4) = true$	$S = (2, 4, 5)$
$v = 5$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$visited(5) = true$	-
$v = 4$ and $S = (2)$	-	-

Depth-First Search (DFS)

$\text{DFS}(G = (V, E), s)$

```
1   $\text{visited}(v) := \text{false}$  for all  $v \in V$ 
2  init empty stack  $S$  //LIFO
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6      IF ( $\text{visited}(v) \neq \text{true}$ ) THEN
7           $\text{visited}(v) := \text{true}$ 
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```

after L1-4: $S = (1)$



L5	L7 (DFS-order)	L9
$v = 1$ and $S = ()$	$\text{visited}(1) = \text{true}$	$S = (2, 3)$
$v = 3$ and $S = (2)$	$\text{visited}(3) = \text{true}$	$S = (2, 4, 2)$
$v = 2$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$\text{visited}(2) = \text{true}$	$S = (2, 4, 4)$
$v = 4$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$\text{visited}(4) = \text{true}$	$S = (2, 4, 5)$
$v = 5$ and $S = (2, 4)$	$\text{visited}(5) = \text{true}$	-
$v = 4$ and $S = (2)$	-	-
$v = 2$ and $S = ()$	-	-

Depth-First Search (DFS)

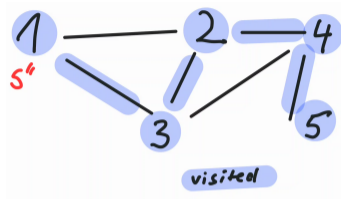
`DFS($G = (V, E), s$)`

```
1  visited(v) := false for all  $v \in V$ 
2  init empty stack  $S$  //LIFO
3  S.push(s)
4  WHILE ( $S \neq \emptyset$ ) DO
5     $v := S.top()$  and S.pop()
6    IF (visited(v) ≠ true) THEN
7      visited(v) := true
8      FOR (all neighbors  $w \in N(v)$  of  $v$  for which visited(w) = false) DO
9        S.push(s)
```

after L1-4: $S = (1)$

L5	L7 (DFS-order)	L9
$v = 1$ and $S = ()$	<code>visited(1) = true</code>	$S = (2, 3)$
$v = 3$ and $S = (2)$	<code>visited(3) = true</code>	$S = (2, 4, 2)$
$v = 2$ and $S = (2, 4)$	<code>visited(2) = true</code>	$S = (2, 4, 4)$
$v = 4$ and $S = (2, 4)$	<code>visited(4) = true</code>	$S = (2, 4, 5)$
$v = 5$ and $S = (2, 4)$	<code>visited(5) = true</code>	-
$v = 4$ and $S = (2)$	-	-
$v = 2$ and $S = ()$	-	-

DFS plays a particular role when considering directed graphs.



BFS and DFS

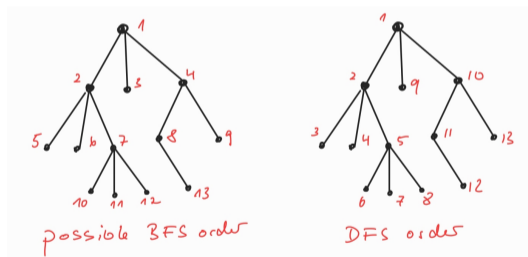
Both BFS and DFS [graph traversal](#) algorithms, that is:

they visit the vertices in a graph beginning with a start vertex s such that

Each vertex reachable from s is visited exactly once.

The next visited vertex always has at least one neighbor in the set of previously visited nodes.

BFS goes first into "breadth" while DFS goes first in "depth".



Neither the BFS- nor DFS-order is unique (e.g., we could have visited first 4 and then 3 in both trees)

Weighted Graphs and Minimum Spanning Trees

In many cases, we are interested in weighted graphs and minimum spanning trees.

Let (V, E) be a graph and $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

The triple $G = (V, E, w)$ is called a **weighted** (or **edge-weighted**) graph.

$w(e)$ is called the **weight** (or length) of edge $e \in E$.

Given: Weighted connected graph $G = (V, E, w)$.

Find: A **minimum spanning tree (MST)**, i.e., a spanning tree $T = (V, F)$ with **minimum total edge weight**. That is, choose the set of edges $F \subseteq E$ such that

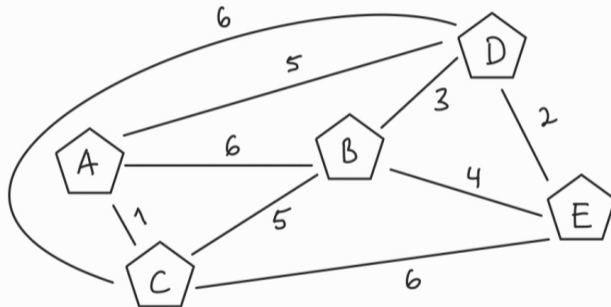
$$\sum_{e \in F} w(e)$$

is minimized.

Weighted Graphs and Minimum Spanning Trees

Example

Consider a scenario where a company needs to connect several buildings on its campus using cables or fiber optics. Each building is represented as a vertex, and the distances between the buildings are represented as edges with weights (the cost of laying cables/fiber).

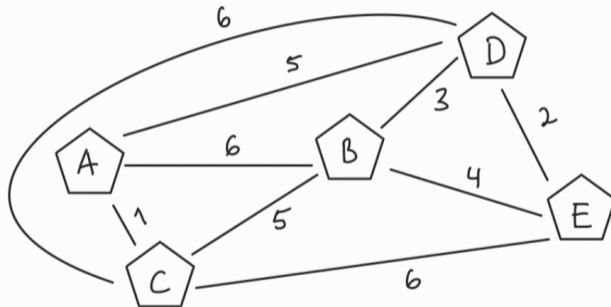


In this scenario, we want to connect all the buildings with the minimum cost possible. This is where an MST becomes useful which will give us the subset of edges that form a tree connecting all the nodes with the minimum total edge weight.

Weighted Graphs and Minimum Spanning Trees

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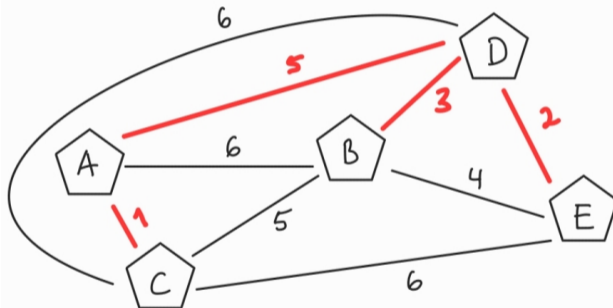
In this scenario, we want to connect all the buildings with the minimum cost possible. This is where an MST becomes useful which will give us the subset of edges that form a tree connecting all the nodes with the minimum total edge weight.

Question: What is a minimum spanning tree here?

Weighted Graphs and Minimum Spanning Trees

Example

Consider a scenario where a company needs to connect several buildings on its campus using cables or fiber optics. Each building is represented as a vertex, and the distances between the buildings are represented as edges with weights (the cost of laying cables/fiber).



In this scenario, we want to connect all the buildings with the minimum cost possible. This is where an MST becomes useful which will give us the subset of edges that form a tree connecting all the nodes with the minimum total edge weight.

Question: What is a minimum spanning tree here?

Weighted Graphs and Minimum Spanning Trees

Given: Weighted connected graph $G = (V, E, w)$.

Find: A **minimum spanning tree (MST)**, i.e., a spanning tree $T = (V, F)$ such that $\sum_{e \in F} w(e)$ is minimized.

Question: Does BFS still work?

\implies we need a different approach.

Many optimization problems are rather difficult to solve (keyword: NP-hard).

However, somewhat surprisingly the MST problem can be solved in polynomial time with a simple greedy algorithm.

Question: What is a greedy algorithm?

Answer: A **greedy algorithm** is an algorithm that always makes the choice that looks best at the moment. That is, it makes a locally optimal choice in the hope that this choice will lead to a globally optimal solution.

How does a greedy algorithm for finding an MST look like?

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Kruskal's Algorithm

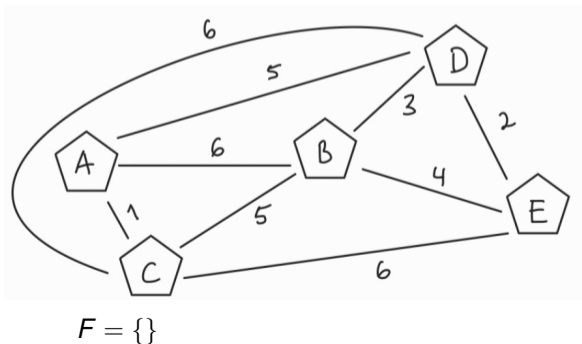
```
Kruskal( $G = (V, E, w)$ ,  $w: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ) //  $m = |E|$   
  1 Sort edges such that  $w(e_1) \leq w(e_2) \cdots \leq w(e_m)$   
  2  $F := \emptyset$ ,  $T := (V, F)$   
  3 FOR  $i = 1, \dots, m$  DO  
    3   IF  $(V, F \cup \{e_i\})$  is acyclic  
    3      $F := F \cup \{e_i\}$   
  3 return  $T$ 
```

Kruskal's algorithm finds the minimum spanning tree as follows: It starts by sorting edges by weight, then adds them one by one from lightest to heaviest while ensuring that the "intermediate" graph T remains a forest, until all vertices have been checked and when possible added to T

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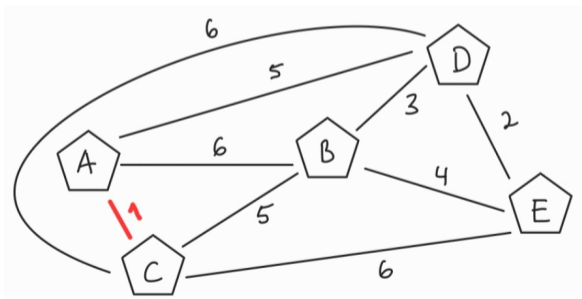
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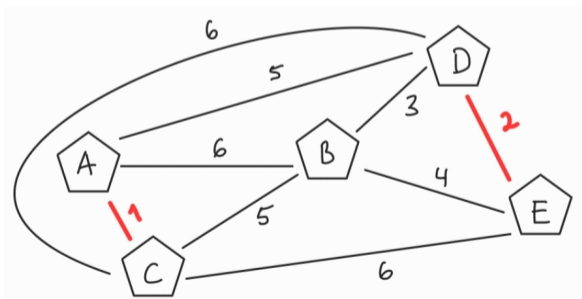


$$F = \{(A, C)\}$$

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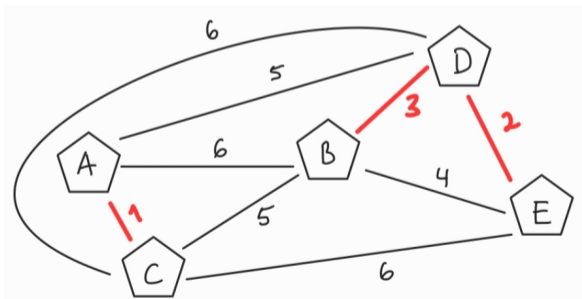


$$F = \{\{A, C\}, \{D, E\}\}$$

Kruskal's Algorithm

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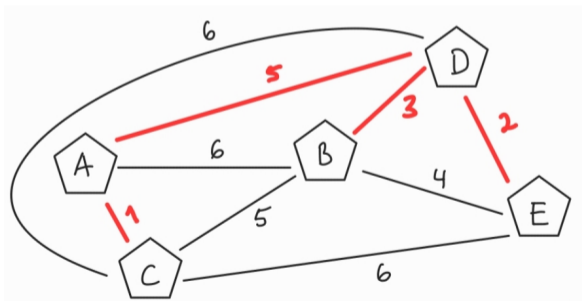


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Theorem. *Kruskal* correctly computes an MST for a given undirected, connected graph $G = (V, E)$ in $O(|E||V|)$ time.

Proof Board.