# Shortest Path Trees Computation in Dynamic Graphs

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#### Abstract

Let G=(V,E,w) be a simple digraph, in which all edge weights are non-negative real numbers. Let G' be obtained from G by the application of a set of edge weight updates to G. Let  $s \in V$ , and let  $T_s$  and  $T_s'$  be a Shortest Path Tree (SPT) rooted at s in G and G', respectively. The Dynamic Shortest Path (DSP) problem is to compute  $T_s'$  from  $T_s$ . For the DSP problem, we correct and extend a few existing SPT algorithms to handle multiple edge weight updates. We prove that these extended algorithms are correct. The complexity of these algorithms is also analyzed. To evaluate the proposed algorithms, we compare them with the well-known static Dijkstra algorithm. Extensive experiments are conducted with both real-life and artificial data sets. The real-life data are road system graphs obtained from the Connecticut road system and are relatively sparse. The artificial data are randomly generated graphs and are relatively dense. The experimental results suggest the most appropriate algorithms to be used under different circumstances.

**Keywords:**Dynamic Shortest Path, Shortest Paths, Shortest Path Trees, Dynamic Graphs, Incremental Algorithms, Fully- and Semi-Dynamic Algorithms.

# 1 Introduction

Consider an application in which there are a number of distribution centers that are scattered around a metropolitan area, and it is useful to know the least-cost traffic routes from each location to all major intersections. Taking intersections as vertices, blocks between two intersections as edges, and traffic latencies as edge weights, the city traffic map is a digraph with non-negative edge weights. The least-cost route query between two intersections is to find a shortest path between two vertices in the corresponding graph. Since the traffic condition changes rapidly, least-cost routes may not be correct a few minutes after they are computed. One could apply *Dijkstra*'s algorithm [15] repeatedly to compute the shortest paths. However, this well-studied static algorithm may become ineffective when only a small number of the city roads experience

latency changes. Therefore, researchers have been studying incremental algorithms to minimize shortest paths re-computation time.

Computing shortest paths efficiently in a dynamic graph environment also finds its application in a spatial database system. In such a system, it is essential to provide the functionality of finding an optimal route in a network. A graph in a route query system in general is of an arbitrary size and is too huge to be main-memory resident. In the past decade, a popular approach to solve the scalability problem is based on graph partitioning [10, 4, 21, 23, 33]. The whole graph is first partitioned into smaller sized fragments, each of which can fit into the main-memory. Because the size of a graph could be arbitrarily large, to speed up the search process and to minimize the I/O activity, a common technique is to materialize, in each fragment, the (local) shortest-distance information between the so-called border vertices (those shared by more than one fragment). In a real-time traffic information system, an edge weight in a fragment could be updated dynamically, the shortest-distance information between border vertices has to be re-computed fast for it to be useful in a route query evaluation. This can be accomplished by materializing, for each border vertex, a Shortest Path Tree (SPT) to all other border nodes in a fragment; and re-computing each SPT whenever some edge weights in the fragment have been changed.

We call the problem of re-computing SPTs in a dynamic environment the DSP problem. Let G = (V, E, w) be a simple digraph, in which all edge weights are non-negative real numbers. Let G' = (V, E, w') be obtained from G by the application of a set of edge weight updates (increases and/or decreases) to G. Let  $s \in V$ ; let  $T_s$  and  $T'_s$  be SPTs rooted at s in G and G', respectively. The DSP problem is to compute  $T'_s$  from  $T_s$ .

For the *DSP* problem, the input edge weight changes could come in three forms: increases only, decreases only, and a mixture of both. We denote an algorithm as *semi-dynamic* if the input is either a set of edge weight increases or a set of edge weight decreases, but not both. An algorithm is said to be *fully-dynamic* if the input can be a set of mixed edge weight changes. We shall investigate the performance of both semi-and fully-dynamic algorithms in this work.

An intelligent approach to solve the *DSP* problem is proposed in [28]. We denote their semi-dynamic algorithms as *BallString* since they are based on a ball-and-string model. Unfortunately, the semi-dynamic algorithm for edge weight increases case is incorrect. We amend *BallString* by proposing *MBallStringInc* that updates SPTs correctly in the case of multiple edge weight increases. We propose a dynamic version of *Dijkstra*, which we call *DynDijkstra*. *DynDijkstra* are two semi-dynamic algorithms that can handle multiple edge weight increases and decreases, respectively. A fully-dynamic algorithm called *DynamicSWSF-FP* is proposed in [31]. However, a problem with *DynamicSWSF-FP* is that some of its computation is inefficient. We modify *DynamicSWSF-FP* by applying some optimizations on re-computing the so-called *rhs* values and adding SPT tree structure maintenance. We call the resulting more efficient algorithm *MFP*.

For each of the following proposed algorithms: *DynDijkstra*, *MBallStringInc*, and *MFP*, we prove its correctness and analyze its complexity. In addition, we derive general frameworks for describing *DynDijkstra* 

and *MBallString*.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, we conduct extensive experiments, with both real-life as well as artificial data sets, on all proposed algorithms and compare them with the static algorithm *Dijkstra*. As a result, we identify the preferred algorithm to compute an SPT in a dynamic environment under different input mixes.

In Section 2, we define some basic notation. In Section 3, we survey related work and highlight our contributions. In Sections 4 and 5, we describe the proposed semi- and fully-dynamic algorithms. We give the correctness proofs of some of these algorithms in the *Appendix*. In Section 6, we analyze the complexity of the proposed algorithms. In Section 7, we present experimental results and analysis. Finally, we give our conclusion in Section 8.

# 2 Preliminary

## 2.1 Definition and Notation

Before proceeding to the description of algorithms, let us examine the definitions of frequently used terms. Terms not defined here are common concepts in graph theory (such as vertices, edges, paths, and trees), which can be found in any graph theory resource [8].

Let G = (V, E, w) be a simple digraph with non-negative edge weights, where V is the set of vertices,  $E = \{e | e = (u, v), u, v \in V\}$ , and  $w : E \to \Re^{\geq 0}$ , i.e., w is a function from the set of edges to non-negative real numbers. Sometimes we use V(G) and E(G) to denote the set of vertices and edges in G, respectively. Let  $e = (u, v) \in E$ ; then u is the tail of e denoted as t(e), and v is the head of e denoted as h(e).

Let  $u \in V$ ; the set of outgoing edges of u is defined as  $Out_u = \{e | e \in E \text{ and } t(e) = u\}$ , and the set of incoming edges of u is defined as  $In_u = \{e | e \in E \text{ and } h(e) = u\}$ . Correspondingly, the children of u are defined as  $c(u) = \{v | v = h(e) \text{ and } e \in Out_u\}$ , and the parents of u are defined as  $p(u) = \{v | v = t(e) \text{ and } e \in In_u\}$ .

For  $U \subseteq V$ ,  $AllOut_U = \{e | e \in E \text{ and } t(e) \in U\}$ , and  $Out_U = \{e | e \in E \text{ and } t(e) \in U \text{ and } h(e) \notin U\}$ ; and  $AllIn_U = \{e | e \in E \text{ and } h(e) \in U\}$ , and  $In_U = \{e | e \in E \text{ and } h(e) \in U \text{ and } t(e) \notin U\}$ . We can easily observe that  $Out_U \subseteq AllOut_U$  and  $In_U \subseteq AllIn_U$ .

Let  $P_{uv}$  be a path from u to v in G; then v is reachable from u. All vertices reachable from u including itself in G are u's descendants, denoted as des(G, u) or des(u) if G is understood from the context.

A path  $P_{uv}$  is said to be a *shortest path*, denoted as  $SP_{uv}$ , if it is not longer than any other possible path  $P_{uv}^*$ . Given any  $v \in V$ , v could have more than one shortest path from a vertex u in G, and all v's shortest paths are of the same shortest distance. The shortest distance from u to v in G is denoted as  $d_{uv}$  when G is understood from the context. Given a digraph G = (V, E, w), an SPT rooted at a vertex or source s, denoted as  $T_s$ , is a tree with root s and  $\forall v \in des(s), v \neq s$ ,  $T_s$  contains an  $SP_{sv}$ . Due to the structure of trees,  $\forall v \in des(s), v \neq s$ ,  $T_s$  contains only one shortest path  $SP_{sv}$ . Let  $e \in E$ ; e is a tree edge wrt  $T_s$  if

 $<sup>^1</sup>$ From now on, MBallString refers to MBallStringInc and the original BallStringDec. BallStringDec is the BallString algorithm in [28] when the input is a set of edge weight decreases.

 $e \in E(T_s)$ ; otherwise it is a non-tree edge. Given  $v \in V(T_s)$ , the subtree rooted at v in  $T_s$  is denoted as  $SubT_{sv}$ .

Given G and  $s \in V$ , let  $T_s$  be an SPT. For any vertex  $v \in V(T_s)$ , the shortest path parent of v in  $T_s$ , denoted as  $spp_{T_s}(v)$ , is the parent of v in  $T_s$ ; the shortest path children of v in  $T_s$ , denoted as  $spc_{T_s}(v)$ , contain all the children of v in  $T_s$ . Let  $v \in V(T_s)$  and  $v \neq s$ . If s is understood in the context, then  $SP_{sv}$ ,  $d_{sv}$ ,  $spp_{T_s}(v)$ ,  $spc_{T_s}(v)$ , and  $SubT_{sv}$  are simply denoted as  $SP_v$ ,  $d_v$ , spp(v), spc(v), and  $SubT_v$ .

Given the simple digraphs G = (V, E, w) and G' = (V, E, w'), such that  $w' \neq w$ , G' is denoted as the updated digraph. In this paper,  $G \to G'$  is achieved by an application of a set  $\varepsilon$  of edge weight updates:  $\varepsilon = \{\langle e_i, \tau_i \rangle | e_i \in E \text{ and } -w(e_i) \leq \tau_i < \infty\}, \ \forall \langle e_i, \tau_i \rangle \in \varepsilon, \ \text{and } w'(e_i) = w(e_i) + \tau_i.$ 

Given  $G, G', s, v \in V$ , let  $\mathbf{SP_v}$  and  $\mathbf{SP'_v}$  be the sets of shortest paths from s to v in G and G', respectively. We define v as unaffected if  $\mathbf{SP_v} = \mathbf{SP'_v}$ ; otherwise it is affected. More specifically, let  $SP'_v$  and  $d'_v$  denote any shortest path and the shortest distance from s to v in G', respectively; we say  $SP'_v$  equals  $SP_v$  if  $V(SP'_v) = V(SP_v)$  and  $\forall u \in V(SP'_v), d'_u = d_u$ .

## 2.2 Problem Definition

In order to solve the DSP problem, a brute-force solution is to run Dijkstra's algorithm for a source s over G'. It is straight-forward but may not be effective all the times, since no previously-computed result is re-used. When  $T'_s$  is not much different from  $T_s$ , in terms of structural changes, it is more beneficial to construct  $T'_s$  from  $T_s$  than from scratch. In this paper, we study algorithms that can solve the DSP problem efficiently. In particular, we are interested in fast algorithms that solve the problem incrementally by re-using information in the outdated SPT.

### 2.3 Algorithmic Notation and Basic SPT Properties

In addition to the definitions we have introduced in this section so far, there are some notation used in the description of the coming algorithms.

Given G and  $s \in V$ , let  $T_s$  be an SPT rooted at s in G. Any vertex  $v \in V(T_s)$  has four associated properties:  $d_v$ , spp(v), spc(v), and status(v). The first three properties indicate v's shortest distance from s and v's shortest path parent and children in  $T_s$ . The last one, status(v), usually has two states: open or closed. Some algorithms use status(v) to indicate whether v needs to be processed (open) and whether v is consolidated closed.

In the DSP problem, let  $T'_s$  be an SPT rooted at s in G'. Our SPT algorithms, except Dijkstra, compute  $T'_s$  from  $T_s$ , and thus all these are *incremental* algorithms. More specifically, they take  $T_s$  as an input, update the properties of some affected vertices in  $T_s$ , and then, at the end, return the updated  $T_s$ , which is  $T'_s$ .

In the description of all the incremental algorithms discussed in this work, we use a hat() over an object

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ The term "consolidated" will be defined later.

to indicate the current state of that object. For example,  $\widehat{T}$  denotes any intermediate tree, in which some vertices' properties are being updated during the execution of an algorithm;  $\widehat{d_v}$  and  $\widehat{spp_v}$  denote the shortest distance and shortest path parent of v from the source in  $\widehat{T}$ . In addition, we use a prime(') with an object to indicate its final status in the modified graph G'. For example,  $d'_{sv}$  is the new shortest distance from s to v in G', and w(e)' is the new weight of e in G'. We prove the following properties.

**Lemma 2.1** When edge weights are only increased, for any vertex v, either  $d'_v > d_v$  or,  $d'_v = d_v$  and  $\mathbf{SP}_{\mathbf{v}} \supseteq \mathbf{SP}'_{\mathbf{v}}$ .

**Proof** Since all edge weight changes are increases,  $d'_v \geq d_v$  must hold. Let  $P'_v$  be any shortest path from s to v in G'; in other words,  $P'_v \in \mathbf{SP'_v}$  and the length of  $P'_v$  equals  $d'_v$ . If  $d'_v = d_v$ ,  $P'_v$  must contain no modified edges and  $P'_v$  must also be in  $SP_v$ . Therefore, if  $d'_v = d_v$ ,  $\mathbf{SP_v} \supseteq \mathbf{SP'_v}$ . On the other hand, if  $d'_v \neq d_v$ , then  $d'_v > d_v$ . Thus, Lemma 2.1 holds.

**Lemma 2.2** When edge weights are only decreased, for any vertex v, either  $d'_v < d_v$  or,  $d'_v = d_v$  and  $SP_v \subseteq SP'_v$ .

**Proof** This can be proven with a similar argument as in Lemma 2.1.

All incremental algorithms in this paper only process affected vertices: some process all of them, whereas others process only some of them. Any processed vertex v is consolidated if the distance assigned by the algorithm equals the final optimal value  $d'_v$  and the path constructed by the algorithm is an  $SP'_v$ .

At any instant of algorithm executions, an affected but non-consolidated vertex is denoted as a boundary vertex if it has either at least one unaffected parent or an affected but consolidated parent; otherwise, it is an inner vertex. A boundary edge is an incoming edge of a boundary vertex that has either an unaffected tail or an affected and consolidated tail. The candidate parent of a boundary vertex v is the tail  $u^*$  of a v's boundary edge, such that  $d_{u^*} + w(u^*, v)$  is minimum among all tails of v's boundary edges.<sup>3</sup> The candidate distance of a boundary vertex v is provided by  $d_{u^*v} + w(u^*, v)$ , given that  $u^*$  is the candidate parent of v. The candidate path  $SP_v^*$  for boundary vertex v is the shortest path  $SP_{u^*}$  concatenated by  $(u^*, v)$ .

## 2.4 Data Structures

There are a few important data structures that are shared by all algorithms: Graph G; SPT  $T_s$ , rooted at vertex s; and minimum-priority queue Q.

Conceptually, G contains a vertex set V and an edge set E. Each vertex v is identified by a key (the ID of v), and so is each edge e. Each vertex in a graph G has a list of incoming and a list of outgoing edges. Each edge e in a graph is assigned with a weight w(e).  $T_s$  is represented by the vertices' auxiliary information

 $<sup>^{3}</sup>$ If more than one tail provides the same minimum distance to v, any one of them can be taken as the candidate parent of v.

set, which is identified by the ID of the vertex; the auxiliary information, aux, for vertex v contains spp(v), spc(v),  $d_v$ , and status(v).

An entry in Q is of the format  $\langle ver, data, key \rangle$ , in which ver is a vertex and is unique among all entries, data contains some useful information of ver but is optional, key is the value on which entries are ranked. In those algorithms, key could be a pair of values,  $\langle value1, value2 \rangle$ . Entries are ranked on value1 first; then on value2. If more than one entry has same key, then the sequence among them is arbitrary.

Q supports four associated instructions. The instruction  $ENQUEUE(Q, \langle ver, data, key \rangle)$  adds one entry of vertex ver to Q. If ver is already in Q, the entry will replace the old ones only if the new key is smaller. In other words, at any instant, only one entry is maintained for each ver in Q. The instruction EXTRACTMIN(Q) selects and removes an entry  $\langle ver, data, key \rangle$  with the minimum key. The vertex ver is said to be extracted in this operation.  $ADJUST(Q, \langle ver, data, key \rangle)$  enqueues this entry if no entry of ver exists in Q, or sets data and key of ver's entry in Q as specified. The last instruction REMOVE(Q, ver) removes the entry of ver from Q.

# 3 Related Work

There are many research efforts reported in the literature of maintaining shortest paths on dynamic graphs. We are interested in algorithms for graphs of non-negative edge weights. For all pairs shortest paths problem, we refer to the algorithms and experimental results such as those in [14, 13, 11]. Due to the requirement of returning exact shortest paths, previously suggested randomized or approximate algorithms [24, 36, 13] are not directly applicable to our problem. Among all the deterministic incremental algorithms, some require special properties on the graph which are less general than what is assumed in our work. For example, some maintain shortest paths in planar graphs [25, 16]; some require unweighted graphs, such that all edges have a weight of 1 [7, 18]; and some allow only integer edge weights that are less than a certain constant C [24, 6].

Over the past few decades, plenty of deterministic algorithms, which require no specific properties on graphs, have been proposed for this problem [34, 19, 32, 31, 28, 35, 29, 9]. Moreover, plentiful empirical studies have been conducted [12, 20, 17, 5, 22, 9]. Work has also been done on speeding up the search process by reducing the size of heap required in some *SPT* algorithms [9]. In the rest of this section, we review some proposals that fit into categories of our interests and highlight our contribution at the end.

# 3.1 *FMN*

Frigioni, Marchetti-Spaccamela and Nanni in [18] propose a complexity model to evaluate the theoretical performance of an SPT algorithm, which specifies using a function of the number of "locally-affected" vertices. This model captures the intrinsic cost required by any incremental algorithm after each input update.<sup>4</sup> Following that, in [19], the same authors propose a semi-dynamic algorithm *FMN* for maintaining

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>In this work, we employ their model in our complexity analysis.

an SPT in a dynamic graph. FMN uses the notion of the level of an edge and the notion of the ownership of a vertex. Ownership information is used to bound the number of edges scanned each time a vertex changes its distance from s. Every edge (x, y) has an owner that must be either x or y. FMN follows the similar flow of Dijkstra, except that it tries to visit a smaller number of edges. The authors claim that FMN has the best theoretical complexity, but it maintains complex data structures, e.g., levels of edges.

# 3.2 RR

Ramalingam and Reps in [30, 32] propose a semi-dynamic algorithm RR, which maintains all shortest paths from the source in a dynamic graph. However, RR handles single edge weight update only. After the shortest distances of all vertices have been computed,  $\forall (x,y) \in E$ , the "side-track value"  $r_{xy}$ , which is defined as  $d_x + w(x,y) - d_y$ , is computed. A side-track value of zero indicates that the edge is on at least one shortest path  $SP_y$  in G. A Shortest Path Graph (SPG) is constructed that contains all edges with zero side-track value. The advantage of maintaining an SPG is that, in the case of edge weight increases, SPG enables one to process only vertices that have to be processed because their shortest distances are increased. However, the trade-off lies in the maintenance of an SPG. The side-track value of any edge (x,y) needs to be re-computed once w(x,y),  $d_x$  or  $d_y$  is updated. Nevertheless, Demetrescu et al. in [12] and Frigioni et al. in [20] illustrate by experimental results that RR performs better than FMN in most cases.

# 3.3 BallString

There are also incremental shortest paths algorithms that handle multiple edge weight changes.

Narváez, Siu and Tzeng in [27] propose a general framework for several well-known SPT algorithms when the update is a single edge weight update. The idea is to re-compute only the affected part of an SPT. An intelligent approach to re-compute shortest paths in the case of multiple edge weight updates is proposed by the same authors in [28]. We denote their algorithm as *BallString* since it is based on a ball-and-string model. This model illustrates how affected balls re-arrange themselves in a natural way into their optimal positions when the length of a string is increased or decreased. By simulating the dynamics of the balls in this model, *BallString* processes affected vertices in the most economical way: it always chooses the vertex of least distance increase (in the case of edge weight increases) or most distance decrease (in the case of edge weight decreases) to consolidate. In addition, it always tends to consolidate as many vertices as possible in an iteration.<sup>5</sup>

This approach greatly reduces the number of iterations required for the same set of affected vertices and totally eliminates unnecessary structural changes. However, this idea induces "duplicate distance updates" in the case of edge weight decreases. At the same time, unfortunately, *BallString* is wrong for a certain case of multiple edge weight increases. The following is a simple example to show its incorrectness.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>In [28], the authors denote the set of vertices consolidated in an iteration as a branch.

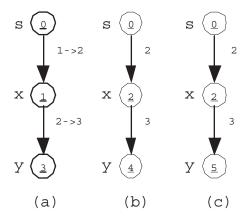


Figure 1: Counter-example of BallString. (a) G and  $T_s$ ; (b) G' and the incorrect  $T'_s$  returned by BallString; (c) G' and  $T'_s$ 

Example 3.1 In this example,  $V = \{s, x, y\}$ ,  $E = \{(s, x), (x, y)\}$  (thus  $SP_y = s \to x \to y$ ); both w(s, x) and w(x, y) are increased by 1. According to BallString, in the initialization step, both x and y are marked as "floating", and only x is enqueued. The entry for x in the priority queue is  $\langle x, s, \langle 1, 2 \rangle \rangle$ , indicating that x's shortest distance will be increased by 1 and its new distance will be 2, after s becomes x's shortest path parent. The queue entry format, in this case, is  $\langle vertex, candidate \ parent, \langle \delta, candidate \ distance \rangle \rangle$ . However, the distance change of y caused by the increase of w(x,y) is not enqueued, because x is y's only parent, and x is also "floating" at this point of time. Then BallString goes into iterations. In the first iteration, the entry of x is extracted from x0, x1, x2, x3 and x4 distances are increased by 1, and both are marked back to "anchored" (meaning that both have obtained their final optimal distances). Since no more entry exists in the priority queue, the algorithm ends. The result is given in Figure 1 (b), in which x2 is wrong. The correct x3 is given in Figure 1 (c). The error is due to some edge weight increase is being ignored.

# 3.4 DynamicSWSF-FP

FMN, RR, BallString are all semi-dynamic shortest paths algorithms. Ramalingam and Reps in [31] propose a fully-dynamic algorithm, DynamicSWSF-FP. The main idea is as follows. At any instant, a "right hand side value" (rhs), denoted as rhs(v), is maintained for every vertex v in G. The value records the shortest distance v could get, based on all parents p of v at that time. Given the shortest distance information  $d_v$  for each vertex v in G, we have  $d_v = rhs(v)$  before any input edge weight updates. After the input edge weight updates are applied to G, DynamicSWSF-FP gradually updates the affected vertices' shortest distances, and, at the end, all vertices' shortest distances are equal to their rhs(v) again.

A disadvantage of DynamicSWSF-FP is that it computes the rhs value too often, which leads to a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>When a vertex is enqueued, its parent must be "anchored".

high number of edge visits. In the same paper [31], the authors suggest some improvement on computing rhs values incrementally. Notice that in DynamicSWSF-FP, the rhs values are computed from scratch per request. The authors maintain a heap for each affected vertex. The improved algorithm is proven to be correct, but too many heaps are not practical.

## 3.5 Contributions

Our contribution in this work is that we propose a few incremental SPT algorithms based on previous work. We amend BallString by proposing MBallStringInc that updates SPTs correctly in the case of multiple edge weight increases. We propose a dynamic version of Dijkstra, which we call DynDijkstra. DynDijkstra can be considered as a generalization of the dynamic version of Dijkstra proposed in [27] by allowing multiple edge updates. DynDijkstra are two semi-dynamic algorithms that can handle multiple edge weight increases and decreases. For DynamicSWSF-FP, we suggest MFP by applying some optimizations on re-computing rhs values and to compute an SPT. In addition, we derive general frameworks for describing DynDijkstra and MBallString.

For each of the following proposed algorithms: DynDijkstra, MBallStringInc, and MFP, we prove its correctness and analyze its complexity. Furthermore, we conduct extensive experiments on all proposed algorithms. The set of experimental results is our another contribution. We test our algorithms on two types of graphs. One is graphs that are extracted from the real-life Connecticut road system [1]. These graphs are relatively sparse. The other one is randomly generated graphs, which are relatively dense. We evaluate a few factors that might affect the performances of proposed algorithms. We vary the graph size, the percentage of changed edges, and the percentage of weight changed. We first show that the weight changes have little effect on the performance of the incremental algorithms investigated. We also show that, in general, MBallStringInc and DynDijkDec have the best performance for the increases and decreases cases, respectively. We then combine these two algorithms together to form a new incremental algorithm MBSDD. We show experimentally that MBSDD and DynDijkstra have the best overall performance for the road and random mixed cases, respectively.

# 4 Semi-Dynamic Algorithms

In this section, we introduce a few semi-dynamic SPT algorithms for *DSP* problem. In Sections 4.1 and 4.2, algorithms *DynDijkstra* and *MBallString* are presented.<sup>7</sup> The correctness proofs of these algorithms are given in the *Appendix*.

There are some properties of input changes, which are shared by all SPT algorithms for dynamic graphs. We can break down the input changes to four cases: tree edge increase; tree edge decrease; non-tree edge increase; and non-tree edge decrease. Among these, non-tree edge increase has no effect on an SPT. In the

 $<sup>^7</sup>$ The original BallStringDec algorithm will not be repeated in this paper.

following discussion, we are interested in the remaining three cases in computing an SPT after edge weight changes.

According to Lemmas 2.1 and 2.2, there may exist some affected vertices v such that  $d'_v = d_v$  and some shortest path  $SP_v$  remains the same in G'. Since an SPT only records one shortest path for each vertex, if  $T_s$  happens to contain that unchanged  $SP_v$ , then from  $T_s$ 's point of view, v is more like unaffected than affected. Thus, we define an affected vertex v as locally-not-affected in  $T_s$  if  $SP_v$  in  $T_s$  remains the same in G'; otherwise, it is locally-affected. Let Affected be the set of affected vertices based on G and G', and let  $Affected_{T_s}$  be the set of locally-affected vertices based on one  $T_s$  and G'. It is straight-forward by definition that  $Affected_{T_s} \subseteq Affected$ .

As we will soon see, all algorithms in this section only process locally-affected vertices, for ease of description and discussion, we denote unaffected vertices and locally-not-affected vertices together as not-locally-affected; and the definitions of boundary vertices, inner vertices, candidate parents, and candidate distances apply only to locally-affected vertices. For instance, a locally-affected but non-consolidated vertex is a boundary vertex if it has at least one not-locally-affected or locally-affected but consolidated parent, otherwise is an inner vertex. Note that not-locally-affected vertices in  $T_s$  all keep their optimal shortest paths and distances as in  $T_s$ . For any modified edge e, we denote h(e) as affected-head if it is locally-affected, and as affected-mini-root if it is locally-affected but it has no locally-affected ancestor (except for itself) in  $T_s$ .

Both *DynDijkstra* and *MBallString* contain two individual algorithms corresponding to weight increases and decreases, respectively: *DynDijkInc* and *DynDijkDec*; *MBallStringInc* and *BallStringDec*. Two algorithms for increases fit into a general SPT computation framework, and so do the two for decreases.

All these algorithms consist of an initialization, follows by n iterations of a number of steps, where  $n \geq 0$ . We say an algorithm executes or runs n iterations. Similarly, the  $i^{th}$  iteration of an algorithm refers to the  $i^{th}$  iteration of these steps.

# 4.1 Algorithms DynDijkstra and MBallString: Edge Weight Increases

Given a graph G, a source vertex s, an SPT  $T_s$ , and a set of edges  $\varepsilon^+$ , such that  $\forall e \in \varepsilon^+$ , w(e) is going to be increased, we are going to compute a new SPT  $T'_s$  on G'.

We propose two algorithms that compute a new valid  $T'_s$  by only processing locally-affected vertices in  $T_s$ . With  $T_s$  and  $\varepsilon^+$ , we are able to locate all locally-affected vertices first, then compute new shortest paths and distances for them. Now we prove the following.

**Lemma 4.1** In the case of edge weight increases, for each  $v \in V(T_s)$ , v is locally-affected in  $T_s$  if and only if it is a descendant of an affected-mini-root in  $T_s$ .

**Proof** "If" If v is a descendant of an affected-mini-root, then at least one edge on  $SP_v$  is a modified tree edge. The vertex v is affected and  $SP_v$  will not remain the same in G', therefore it is locally-affected.

"Only if" If v is not a descendant of an affected-mini-root, then no edges on  $SP_v$  are modified tree edges. Since all input changes are edge weight increases, v cannot get a shorter distance in G'. Thus  $SP_v$  must also be a shortest path in G'. In other words, if v is affected, then it is locally-not-affected.

Let us define following phases of operations as framework F1, that computes  $T'_s$  in case of edge weight increases:

#### Framework F1:

**Phase 1:** We locate locally-affected vertices:

- 1.1 Given  $T_s$  and  $\varepsilon^+$ , construct  $\widehat{T_s}$  from  $T_s$  by removing modified tree edges;
- 1.2 We locate locally-affected vertices v in  $\widehat{T}_s$ ;
- Phase 2: We compute candidate distances of boundary vertices;
- Phase 3: We compute new shortest paths for locally-affected vertices:

As long as there are boundary vertices left, process them according to a certain sequence by repeating the following:

- 3.1 We consolidate locally-affected vertices and maintain tree edges;
- 3.2 We compute candidate distances for new boundary vertices.

DynDijkInc and MBallStringInc are two instances of framework F1; they locate the same set of locally-affected vertices using the same method. The difference between them is in Phase 3.1. DynDijkInc conducts "vertex consolidation by distance" — it consolidates locally-affected vertices one by one according to a non-decreasing order of new distances; whereas MBallStringInc conducts "branch consolidation by  $\delta$  (distance change)" — it consolidates locally-affected vertices set by set according to a non-decreasing order of distance changes.

In Phase 1.2, we locate all locally-affected vertices by calling procedure findLocallyAffectedVertices. In Phase 2, boundary vertices are initially identified from the set of locally-affected vertices<sup>8</sup>. In Phase 3, the new SPT is computed by consolidating locally-affected vertices.

#### 4.1.1 DynDijkInc

DynDijkInc first locates all locally-affected vertices, then it conducts vertex consolidation by distance.

$$DynDijkInc(G, s, \widehat{T_s}, \varepsilon^+)$$

**Input:** G is a simple directed graph, s is the source vertex,  $\widehat{T}_s$  is an SPT rooted at s in G, and  $\varepsilon^+$  is a set of edges whose weights are increased, such that  $\forall e_i \in \varepsilon^+$ ,  $w(e_i)$  is increased by  $\tau_i > 0$ .

**Output:** The SPT  $\widehat{T}_s$  is a new SPT rooted at s in the updated graph G'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>In our implementation, the set of boundary edges (and thus boundary vertices) are initially found as follows: if the number of locally-affected vertices is less the number of unaffected ones, then search incoming edges of locally-affected vertices for boundary edges, otherwise search outgoing edges of unaffected vertices.

**Notation:** For any vertex v, the notations of spp(v), spc(v), and  $d_v$  are wrt  $\widehat{T}_s$ . All the other notations are wrt G. Step 1: Apply the set of edge weight changes to G, remove modified tree edges from  $\widehat{T}_s$  and locate all locally-affected vertices.

```
1: \varepsilon \leftarrow \emptyset
 2: for each e_i \in \varepsilon^+ do
        w(e_i)' \leftarrow w(e_i) + \tau_i
         /* If e_i is an edge in \widehat{T}_s, then remove it from \widehat{T}_s and add it to \varepsilon.*/
         t \leftarrow t(e_i), h \leftarrow h(e_i)
         if t = spp(h) then
             spc(t) \leftarrow spc(t) - \{h\}, \ spp(h) \leftarrow \emptyset
 6:
 7:
            \varepsilon \leftarrow \varepsilon \cup \{e_i\}
         end if
 8:
 9: end for
      /* Find the set of locally-affected vertices based on \widehat{T}_s.*/
10: \bar{N} \leftarrow findLocallyAffectedVertices(\hat{T}_s, \varepsilon)
     Step 2: Enqueue boundary vertices with candidate distances. A vertex a is a boundary vertex iff \hat{d}_a \neq \infty.
11: for each vertex a \in \bar{N} do
         \widehat{d_a} \leftarrow min(\{d_b + w(b, a)' | (b, a) \in In_a \text{ and } b \notin \overline{N}\} \cup \{\infty\})
12:
         if \widehat{d}_a \neq \infty then
13:
             ENQUEUE(Q, \langle a, b, \widehat{d_a} \rangle)
14:
         end if
15:
16: end for
     Step 3: Consolidate and relax locally-affected vertices one by one.
17: while Q \neq \emptyset do
         \langle y, x, d \rangle \leftarrow EXTRACTMIN(Q)
         /* Re-assign the shortest path parent of y to x^{9*}/
         \widehat{spc(x)} \leftarrow \widehat{spc(x)} \cup \{y\}
19:
         p \leftarrow \widehat{spp(y)}, \ \widehat{spc(p)} \leftarrow \widehat{spc(p)} - \{y\}
20:
         spp(y) \leftarrow x
21:
         /* Relax outgoing edges of the consolidated vertex y.*/
22:
         for each e \in Out_y do
23:
            q \leftarrow h(e)
            if \widehat{d_y} + w(e)' < \widehat{d_q} then \widehat{d_q} \leftarrow \widehat{d_y} + w(e)'
24:
25:
                ENQUEUE(Q, \langle q, y, \widehat{d}_a \rangle)
26:
27:
             end if
28:
         end for
29: end while
30: return T_s
```

In Step 1, DynDijkInc update edges' weights, remove modified tree edges from  $\widehat{T}_s$ , locates all locally-affected vertices by calling findLocallyAffectedVertices. In Step 2, all locally-affected vertices a are examined: if a is a boundary vertex,  $d_a$  is updated to its candidate distance, and a is enqueued into Q in the format of  $\langle a, candidate \ parent, \ candidate \ distance \rangle$ ; if a is an inner vertex,  $d_a$  is set to  $\infty$ . From this point on, whenever a shorter candidate distance is located for any vertex y,  $\widehat{d}_y$  and candidate parent are updated. In Step 3, DynDijkInc goes into iterations. Each iteration consolidates one locally-affected vertex y of the minimum candidate distance, updates y's incoming tree edge, and also relaxes y. In the relaxation part, after y is consolidated, for each child q, DynDijkInc updates q's distance and candidate parent information

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>Line 20 is skipped if spp(y) does not exist. This applies to all other algorithms.

if a shorter distance is computed. The iterations end when Q becomes empty, which indicates no boundary vertices left. Now we look at an increase example.

**Example 4.1** As shown in Figure 2 (a), the weights of edges (c,g) and (g,j) are increased. In Step 1, DynDijkInc removes modified tree edges and locates all locally-affected vertices, *i.e.*,  $\{g,k,o,p,j,i,n\}$ . In Step 2, DynDijkInc computes candidate distances for boundary vertices, *i.e.*,  $\{g,i,j,k,p\}$ , and enqueues one entry for each. After that, DynDijkInc consolidates locally-affected vertices by distance, and it also updates the incoming tree edge to each consolidated vertex. Since it is just like Dijkstra, we leave out the detail of intermediate steps. As shown in Figure 2 (b), all affected vertices are processed.

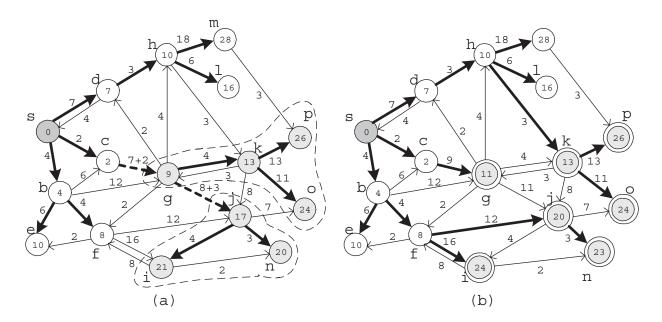


Figure 2: DynDijkInc on an example. (a) An SPT  $T_s$  rooted at s in a graph G. A vertex is denoted by a single circle, and it is denoted by a letter, an edge is denoted by an arrow from the tail to the head, and the weight is numbered beside. In an SPT, a tree edge is highlighted by thick arrow, vertex's shortest distance is inside the vertex. In this example, w(c,g) is increased by 2 and w(g,j) is increased by 3,  $\widehat{T_s}$  which is obtained from  $T_s$  by removing edges (c,g) and (g,j), is a forest of three trees: one rooted at s, one rooted at s and the other rooted at s. The latter two subtrees are circled by dashed line; (b) s0 and s1. Legends: dashed arrow represents removed tree edge in s2; locally-affected vertices are lightly shaded and extracted vertices are doubly circled.

From Figure 2 (a) and (b), we see that vertices  $\{o, p\}$  are extracted despite that they have the same shortest distance and shortest parent in  $T'_s$  and  $T_s$ ; and vertex i is linked to vertex f, even though i could have stayed with its old shortest parent j for the identical new shortest distance 24. In following subsection, we will see how MBallStringInc gets around the above undesirable result.

#### 4.1.2 MBallStringInc

Paolo Narváez et al. propose an intelligent semi-dynamic algorithm BallString in [27, 26, 28]. Unfortunately, as illustrated in Section 3.3, their algorithm BallStringInc for multiple edge weight increases is not correct. Here, we propose an algorithm MBallStringInc, which is a slight modification of theirs, that correctly and efficiently computes a new SPT for multiple edge weight increases, by adapting the same branch closing idea.

MBallStringInc is another instance of framework F1. Unlike DynDijkInc, in Phase 3.1 of F1, MBall-StringInc conducts branch consolidation by  $\delta$ : it consolidates locally-affected vertices according to the non-decreasing sequence of distance changes  $\delta$ 's. For each locally-affected vertex v, the distance change of v, denoted as  $\delta_v$ , is defined as  $d'_v - d_v$ . At the same time, MBallStringInc is more aggressive in that it consolidates a whole branch (a subtree) instead of one vertex. In addition, MBallStringInc does not set any tentative distances to locally-affected vertices (as DynDijkInc does) until they are consolidated; because the old distances of locally-affected vertices are required for the computation of  $\delta$  values. This is also why MBallStringInc needs the status of open to trace the remaining locally-affected vertices.

```
MBallStringInc(G, s, \widehat{T_s}, \varepsilon^+)
```

**Input:** G is a simple directed graph, s is the source vertex,  $\widehat{T}_s$  is an SPT rooted at s in G, and  $\varepsilon^+$  is a set of edges whose weights are increased. All vertices in  $\widehat{T}_s$  are initially *closed*.

**Output:** The SPT  $\hat{T}_s$  is a new SPT rooted at s in the updated graph G'.

**Notation:** For any vertex v, the notations of spp(v), spc(v),  $d_v$  and status(v) are wrt  $\widehat{T}_s$ . All the other notations are wrt G.

Step 1: Apply the set of edge weight changes to G; if a modified edge is a tree edge, remove the edge from  $\widehat{T}_s$ ; and locate all locally-affected vertices.

```
1: \varepsilon \leftarrow \emptyset
 2: for each e_i \in \varepsilon^+ do
        w(e_i)' \leftarrow w(e_i) + \tau_i
        t \leftarrow t(e_i), h \leftarrow h(e_i)
         /* If e_i is an edge in \widehat{T}_s, then remove it from \widehat{T}_s and add it to \varepsilon.*/
 5:
        if t = spp(h) then
            spc(t) \leftarrow spc(t) - \{h\}, \ spp(h) \leftarrow \emptyset
 6:
 7:
            \varepsilon \leftarrow \varepsilon \cup \{e_i\}
        end if
 8:
 9: end for
      /* Find the set of locally-affected vertices based on \widehat{T}_s.*/
10: \bar{N} \leftarrow findLocallyAffectedVertices(\hat{T}_s, \varepsilon)
     Step 2: Find candidate distances/parents for boundary vertices.
11: for each vertex a \in N do
12:
         status(a) \leftarrow open
         newdist \leftarrow min(\{d_b + w(b, a)' | (b, a) \in In_a \text{ and } b \notin \bar{N}\} \cup \{\infty\})
13:
         if newdist \neq \infty then
14:
15:
            \delta \leftarrow newdist - d_a
16:
            ENQUEUE(Q, \langle a, b, \langle \delta, newdist \rangle))
17:
         end if
18: end for
     Step 3: Consolidate and relax locally-affected vertices set by set.
19: while Q \neq \emptyset do
         \langle y, x, \langle \delta, d \rangle \rangle \leftarrow EXTRACTMIN(Q)
```

```
/* Re-assign the shortest path parent of y to x.*/
21:
        spc(x) \leftarrow spc(x) \cup \{y\}
        p \leftarrow spp(y), \ spc(p) \leftarrow spc(p) - \{y\}
22:
23:
        spp(y) \leftarrow x
        /* Consolidate all descendants of y.*/
        N \leftarrow des(T_s, y)
24:
        for each v \in N do
25:
26:
          d_v \leftarrow d_v + \delta
27:
           status(v) \leftarrow closed
          if v \in Q then
28:
29:
              REMOVE(v,Q)
30:
           end if
31:
        end for
        /* Relax outgoing edges of just consolidated vertices.*/
32:
        for each e \in Out_N do
          if status(h(e)) = open then
33:
             newdist \leftarrow \widehat{d_{t(e)}} + w(e)'
34:
              \delta \leftarrow newdist - \tilde{d}_{h(e)}
35:
              ENQUEUE(Q, \langle h(e), t(e), \langle \delta, newdist \rangle \rangle)
36:
          end if
37:
        end for
38:
39: end while
40: return \hat{T}_s
```

Step 1 and Step 2 of MBallStringInc are almost the same as those of DynDijkInc, except that in Step 2, MBallStringInc sets all locally-affected vertices to open, and for each boundary vertex, it enqueues  $\langle boundary\ vertex,\ candidate\ parent,\ \langle \delta, candidate\ distance \rangle \rangle$ .

In Step 3, MBallStringInc extracts the boundary vertex y of the least shortest distance increase  $\delta$  in line 20, updates y's new shortest path parent; it also selects all vertices in  $des(\widehat{T}_s, y)$  into N to consolidate in the next step.

Then, MBallStringInc consolidates vertices  $v \in N$ : it updates the shortest distance of vertex v by adding  $\delta$  in line 26, and changes v to closed in line 27. In lines 28 - 30, if v is still in Q, then v is removed from Q, because v's optimal distance has been found, therefore no need to process it again.

Finally, MBallStringInc relaxes consolidated vertices. All remaining open vertices adjacent to any vertex in N now become boundary vertices, and the information (candidate parent, candidate distance, and  $\delta$ ) of each boundary vertex is enqueued into Q. MBallStringInc repeats consolidation and relaxation until no locally-affected vertices left.

Branch consolidation by  $\delta$  enables that, locally-affected vertices of less distance increase are processed earlier. For each locally-affected vertex v,  $\delta_v$  is defined as  $d'_v - d_v$ . In each branch (a subtree), the vertex without an incoming tree edge is denoted as *mini-root* in [28]. Basically, the algorithm computes  $T'_s$  by re-arranging the position of each branch, and applying the  $\delta$  of the mini-root to all vertices in that branch. MBallStringInc yields the SPT that is least different from  $T_s$  in terms of tree structure. It is an efficient algorithm because it avoids unnecessary computation inside a branch.

Example 4.2 As shown in Figure 3 (a), after modified tree edges (c,g) and (g,j) are removed from  $T_s$ , vertices  $\{g,k,p,o,j,i,n\}$  are located as locally-affected in Step 1. Then entries of all boundary vertices  $\{g,i,j,k,p\}$  are enqueued in Step 2:  $\langle g,c,\langle 2,11\rangle\rangle$ ,  $\langle i,f,\langle 3,24\rangle\rangle$ ,  $\langle j,f,\langle 3,20\rangle\rangle$ ,  $\langle k,h,\langle 0,13\rangle\rangle$ , and  $\langle p,m,\langle 5,31\rangle\rangle$ . In Step 3, in the first iteration, k, whose entry has the minimum  $\delta$ , is extracted, vertices in  $des(\widehat{T_s},k)$ , i.e.,  $\{k,o,p\}$  are selected into N in line 24, and the whole branch is cut from g and linked to h. Vertices in N are consolidated and entry of p is removed from Q. Since the open vertex p does not get a smaller p from the just consolidated vertex p, there is no change in p. In the following iteration, entry of p is extracted, and only p is returned by  $des(\widehat{T_s},g)$  because modified tree edge p, p was removed in Step 1, and tree edge p, p was removed after p is extracted. At this time, two entries exist in p: p is p are consolidated, including p is removed from p. The resulting p is given in Figure 3(b).

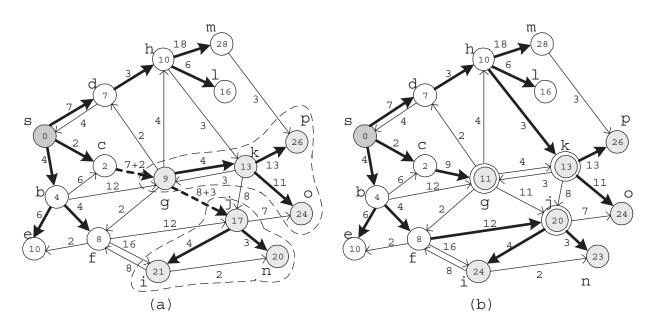


Figure 3: MBallStringInc on an example. (a) Graph G and the forest  $\widehat{T}_s$  after modified tree edges (c,g) and (g,j) are removed, and dashed circle denotes a set of locally-affected vertices; (b) the final SPT T'

Compared with DynDijkInc, MBallStringInc has three advantages. Firstly, MBallStringInc runs fewer iterations than DynDijkInc does on the same set of locally-affected vertices. The reason is that MBallStringInc Inc (the same as in BallStringInc) removes an entry directly from Q if the corresponding vertex v is already consolidated. By contrasting Figure 2 (b) and Figure 3 (b), we see DijktraInc has 7 iterations corresponding to all 7 affected vertices, whereas MBallStringInc only has 3. Secondly, MBallStringInc consumes much smaller number of tree edge updates because it changes only the incoming tree edges of mini-roots. In this example, DynDijkInc updates 7 tree edges, while MBallStringInc updates only 3. Thirdly, MBallStringInc

changes a locally-affected vertex's shortest path parent only when compulsory, as exemplified by vertices p, o, and i, in Figures 2 and 3.

# 4.2 Algorithms DynDijkstra and MBallString: Edge Weight Decreases

Given a graph G, a source vertex s, an SPT  $T_s$ , and a set of edges  $\varepsilon^-$ , such that  $\forall e \in \varepsilon^-$ , w(e) is going to be decreased, we are going to compute a new SPT  $T'_s$ .

**Lemma 4.2** In the case of edge weight decreases, for any locally-affected vertex v in  $T_s$ ,  $d'_v < d_v$ .

**Proof** According to the definition of a locally-affected vertex,  $SP_v$  does not remain the same in G'. Since v must be an affected vertex, according to Lemma 2.2, it is not possible to have  $d'_v = d_v$ . Thus  $d'_v < d_v$  must stand.

Unlike in the increases case, we cannot predict the set of locally-affected vertices without computing the new distances for them, because for each modified edge e, all vertices reachable from h(e) in G might be locally-affected.

To compute  $T'_s$  in this case, we start from all affected-heads, then we traverse all reachable vertices until no shorter distances are located. In other words, we locate locally-affected vertices and consolidate them in an *interleaved* manner, as stated in [30].

Let us define following phases of operations as  $framework\ F2$  which computes  $T_s'$  in case of edge weight decreases:

#### Framework F2:

**Phase 1:** We compute new candidate distances for all affected-heads;

Phase 2: We compute new shortest paths for all locally-affected vertices:

As long as there are locally-affected vertices left, we process them according to a certain sequence by repeating the following:

- 2.1 We consolidate locally-affected vertices and maintain tree edges;
- 2.2 We compute candidate distances for remaining locally-affected vertices.

# ${\bf 4.2.1} \quad DynDijkDec$

Algorithm DynDijkDec does precisely what framework F2 describes, and as in DynDijkInc, DynDijkDec conducts, in Phase 2, vertex consolidation by distance.

In Step 1, DynDijkDec checks each modified edge e, if h = h(e) is an affected-head, then a shorter distance,  $\widehat{d_{t(e)}} + w(e)'$ , is given to h, and h is enqueued. In Step 2, DynDijkDec greedily examines all descendants v of h in G' for locally-affected vertices. If v is locally-affected, then all its children will be examined as well. Otherwise, v will not induce its children to be examined. By iterating this process,

DynDijkDec eventually locates all locally-affected vertices. DynDijkDec updates the distance of each locally-affected vertex v whenever a shorter distance is located, and it updates v's incoming tree edge when v is extracted.

```
DynDijkDec(G, s, \widehat{T_s}, \varepsilon^-)
Input: G is a simple directed graph, s is the source vertex, \hat{T}_s is an SPT rooted at s in G, and \varepsilon^- is a set of edges
     whose weights are decreased, such that \forall e_i \in \varepsilon^-, w(e_i) is decreased by -w(e_i) \leq \tau_i < 0.
Output: The SPT \widehat{T}_s is a new SPT rooted at s in the updated graph G'.
Notation: For any vertex v, the notations of spp(v), spc(v) and d_v are wrt \widehat{T}_s. All others are wrt G.
     Step 1: Apply the set of edge weight changes to G and enqueue affected-heads.
  1: for each e_i \in \varepsilon^- do
        w(e_i)' \leftarrow w(e_i) + \tau_i
        t \leftarrow t(e_i), h \leftarrow h(e_i)
        /* If the head of a modified edge is affected, update its distance and enqueue in Q.*/
        if \widehat{d}_t + w(e_i)' < \widehat{d}_h then
           \widehat{d_h} \leftarrow \widehat{d_t} + w(e_i)'
 5:
            ENQUEUE(Q,\langle h,t,\widehat{d_h}\rangle)
 6:
        end if
 7:
 8: end for
     Step 2: Consolidate and relax locally-affected vertices.
 9: while Q \neq \emptyset do
        \langle y, x, d \rangle \leftarrow EXTRACTMIN(Q)
         /* Re-assign the shortest path parent of y to x.*/
        \widehat{spc(x)} \leftarrow \widehat{spc(x)} \cup \{y\}
11:
        p \leftarrow \widehat{spp(y)}, \ \widehat{spc(p)} \leftarrow \widehat{spc(p)} - \{y\}
12:
13:
         /* Relax outgoing edges of consolidated vertex y.*/
        for each e \in Out_y do
14:
           q \leftarrow h(e)
15:
           if \widehat{d}_y + w(e)' < \widehat{d}_q then \widehat{d}_q \leftarrow \widehat{d}_y + w(e)'
16:
17:
               ENQUEUE(Q, \langle q, y, \widehat{d_q} \rangle)
18:
19:
            end if
20:
        end for
21: end while
22: return T_s
```

**Example 4.3** In Figure 4 (a), the weight of edges (c,g) and (g,j) will be decreased. In Step 1 of DynDijkDec, the weight of each modified edge is decreased, and entries of g and j are enqueued, because both g and j get shorter distances. In Step 2, the entry of g is extracted first, then g is relaxed so that entries of k and j are enqueued. Then entries of k, j, n, i, o, and p are extracted sequentially. The new shortest path parent for each extracted vertex is set to the candidate parent. For instance, j becomes o's new shortest path parent. As shown in Figure 4 (b), vertices g, k, j, n, i, o, and p turn out to be locally-affected, and all of them are processed by DynDijkDec.

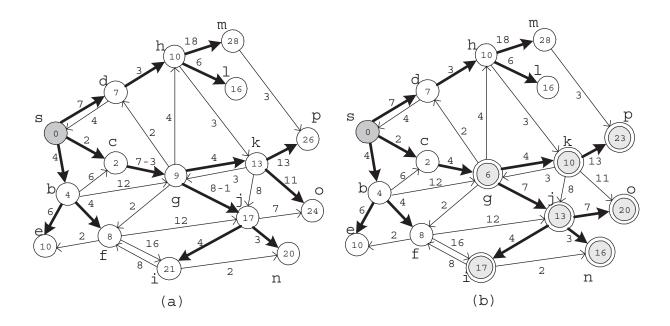


Figure 4: DynDijkDec on an example. (a) G and  $T_s$ , in which (c,g)'s weight will be decreased by 3 and (g,j)'s weight will be decreased by 1; (b) G' and  $T'_s$ .

#### 4.2.2 Ball StringDec

BallStringDec is presented in [28], therefore we do not repeat it here. It is totally in accordance with framework F2. More specifically, for each boundary vertex, the potential distance and corresponding  $\delta$  are computed; in each iteration, the boundary vertex v with the minimum  $\delta$  is extracted, and the distances of vertices in  $\widehat{SubT}_v$  are decreased by  $\delta$ . Here, we run BallStringDec with our decrement example. After that, we provide some further discussion of this algorithm.

Example 4.4 In Phase 1 of framework F2, two entries are enqueued:  $\langle g, c, \langle -3, 6 \rangle \rangle$  and  $\langle j, g, \langle -1, 16 \rangle \rangle$ . Then in Phase 2, the entry of g is extracted first. Vertex g keeps its old shortest path parent; all its descendants in  $T_s$ , i.e.,  $N=\{g,k,j,n,i,o,p\}$ , are processed – their distances are decreased by 3. When BallStringDec relaxes vertices in N, it enqueues a new entry for j, i.e.,  $\langle j,g,\langle -1,13\rangle \rangle$ . In the next iteration, the entry of j is extracted. Vertex j's shortest path parent remains to be g; all descendants of j in  $\widehat{T}_s$ , i.e.,  $\{j,i,n\}$ , are processed - their distances are decreased by 1. The relaxation on j enqueues entry for o, i.e.,  $\langle o,j,\langle -1,20\rangle \rangle$ . In the last iteration, the entry of o is processed. Vertex o's shortest path parent switches to j and o's shortest distance is now 20. The new SPT  $T'_s$  is in Figure 5 (b). Contrasted with Figure 4 (b), DynDijkDec extracts all 7 affected vertices, whereas here BallStringDec only extracts 3 vertices, i.e., g, j, and o.

The above example again illustrates the advantage of branch consolidation by  $\delta$ : a fewer number of iterations and also a lesser number of tree edge updates. However, it also exemplifies duplicate distance

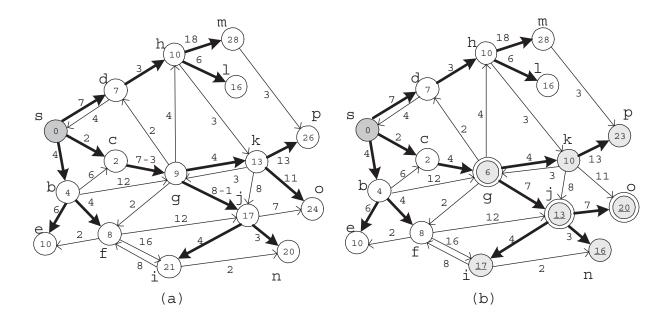


Figure 5: BallStringDec on an example. (a) G and  $T_s$ , in which (c, g)'s weight will be decreased by 3 and (g, j)'s weight will be decreased by 1; (b) G' and  $T'_s$ .

updates, i.e., the distances of some vertices z are updated more than once, and vertex z is said to be duplicate-updated. In the above example, vertices j, n, i, and o are duplicate-updated. Moreover, a locally-affected vertex such as j could be enqueued more than once.

# 5 A Fully-Dynamic Algorithm

In the previous section, we introduce a few semi-dynamic SPT algorithms for the *DSP* problem. In this section, we present a fully-dynamic algorithm that can handle "multiple heterogeneous modifications" [31].

At any instant of the execution of DynamicSWSF-FP, we denote the right hand side value of v (rhs(v)) as  $\min_{x \in p(v)} \{\widehat{d}_x + w(x, v)'\}$ . We say parent x of v satisfies v, if  $rhs(v) = \widehat{d}_x + w(x, v)'$ . For any vertex  $x \in p(v)$ , x is a satisfying-parent of v, if x satisfies v, and in that case, v is a satisfying-child of x. Any affected vertex is processed differently according to whether rhs(v) is greater than (under-consistent), equal to (consistent), or less than  $\widehat{d}_v$  (over-consistent).

Let us analyze how this algorithm performs when changes are either increases or decreases, but not both. When all the input updates are edge weight increases, no vertices can have shorter distances. Hence, any affected vertex v is initially under-consistent, and  $\widehat{d}_v$  will first be assigned the value of  $\infty$ , and then back to its correct value. Therefore, the affected vertices are enqueued and extracted twice. Similarly, when all the input updates are edge weight decreases, no vertices can have longer distances. Because of this, any enqueued vertex u can only be over-consistent, and  $\widehat{d}_u$  is directly set to its rhs value and will not be processed again.

Consequently, the affected vertices are processed only once. From this analysis, we conclude that the case of the edge weight increases is always the worst scenario of *DynamicSWSF-FP*.

# 5.1 *MFP*

DynamicSWSF-FP conducts frequent edge visits and computations to maintain rhs values. Here, we apply some simpler optimizations, and their correctness can be verified easily from the transformation. Our optimizations are based on avoiding the unnecessary rhs value re-computation, and also simplifying the computation when it is possible. The first optimization is that, when an over-consistent vertex v is extracted  $(\widehat{d_v})$  is decreased to rhs(v), for each child q, DynamicSWSF-FP re-evaluates rhs(q) according to the definition  $rhs(q) = \min_{z \in p(q)} \{\widehat{d_z} + w(z,q)'\}$ , whereas MFP incrementally re-computes rhs(q) as  $\min\{rhs(q), \widehat{d_v} + w(v,q)'\}$ . The second optimization is that, when an under-consistent vertex u is extracted  $(\widehat{d_u})$  is set to  $\infty$ ), DynamicSWSF-FP re-evaluates the rhs values of all u's children, whereas MFP re-evaluates the rhs values of all u's satisfying-children only. The reason is as follows. According to the definition,  $rhs(q) = \min_{u \in p(q)} \{\widehat{d_u} + w(u,q)'\}$ . We need to re-evaluate rhs(q), if and only if q is a satisfying-child of u (before  $\widehat{d_u}$  is set to  $\infty$ ).

Furthermore, the original DynamicSWSF-FP computes the shortest distance values only without maintaining an SPT. To properly evaluate this with other incremental algorithms, MFP is designed to accept an outdated SPT with a set of edge weight changes, and to return a new SPT. Note that, for the tree structure, it is sufficient to maintain spp(v) only for each vertex v in SPT. <sup>10</sup> We define a function sap(v) that returns v's tentative satisfying parent when sap(v) is called. In MFP, spp(v) is updated by sap(v) whenever rhs(v) is re-computed. The following is an outline of MFP.

```
MFP(G, s, \widehat{T_s}, \varepsilon)
```

**Input:** G is a simple directed graph, s is the source vertex in G,  $T_s$  is an SPT rooted at s in G, and  $\varepsilon$  is a set of edges such that  $\forall e_i \in \varepsilon$ ,  $w(e_i)$  will be increased by  $\tau_i$ , where  $\tau_i < 0$  or  $\tau_i > 0$ .

**Output:** The changed graph G' and the updated SPT  $\widehat{T}_s$ .

**Notation:** For any vertex v, the notations of  $d_v$ , rhs(v), and key(v) are wrt  $\widehat{T}_s$ . All the other notations are wrt G. Step 1: updates G and enqueues inconsistent heads of modified edges, as in previous algorithms.

Step 2: process inconsistent vertices

```
1: while Q \neq \emptyset do
       \langle y, key \rangle \leftarrow EXTRACTMIN(Q)
       if \widehat{d_y} > \widehat{rhs(y)} then
3:
          \hat{d_y} \leftarrow r\hat{h}s(y) /*y is over-consistent*/
4:
           /*check children to propagate the updates*/
           for each e \in \mathbf{Out}_y do
5:
6:
              q \leftarrow h(e)
              \widehat{rhs(q)} \leftarrow \min\{\widehat{rhs(q)}, \widehat{d_y} + w(e)'\} /*==the \ first \ optimization==*/
7:
              spp(q) \leftarrow sap(q)
8:
              if rhs(q) \neq \widehat{d}_q then
9:
```

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>$ In DynDijkstra and MBallStringInc, for v, we need to maintain spc(v) as well, because we need shortest path descendants information.

```
\widehat{key(q)} \leftarrow \min\{\widehat{d_q}, \widehat{rhs(q)}\}
10:
                 ADJUST(Q,\langle q,\widehat{key(q)}\rangle) /*enqueue q if it becomes inconsistent*/
11:
              else
12:
                 REMOVE(Q, q) /*removes q if it becomes consistent*/
13:
14:
          end for
15:
        else
16:
          d \leftarrow \widehat{d_y}
17:
          \widehat{d}_y \leftarrow \infty / *y \text{ is under-consistent*}/
18:
          if rhs(y) \neq \infty then
19:
              \widehat{key(y)} \leftarrow \widehat{rhs(y)}
20:
              ENQUEUE(Q, \langle y, \widehat{key(y)} \rangle) /*enqueue q if it becomes inconsistent*/
21:
22:
23:
              /*This is the similar to lines 5-15 in above. The second optimization is also applied here by checking
             satisfying-children of y for more inconsistent vertices. */
24:
25:
        end if
26: end while
27: return T_s
```

**Example 5.1** In Figure 6, we apply the following edge weight updates: w(c, g) is decreased by 1, w(g, j) is increased by 3, and w(f, i) is decreased by 8.

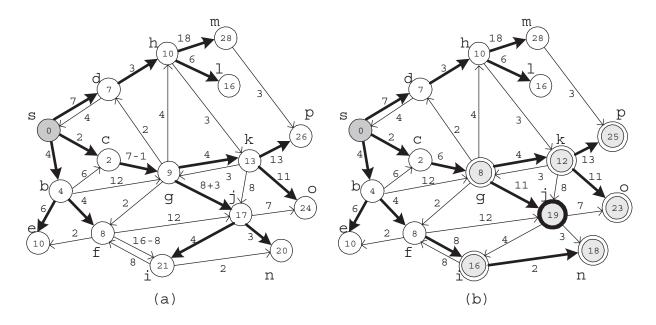


Figure 6: MFP on our mixed example. (a) G and  $T_s$ , in which w(c,g) will be decreased by 1, w(f,i) will be decreased by 8, and w(g,j) will be increased by 3. (b) The final G' and  $T'_s$ , in which all the vertices are consistent and of the correct shortest distances. Legend: the vertices that are processed twice are circled by a heavy dark line.

In this example, two edges' weights will be decreased, and one edge's weight will be increased. MFP first examines that all modified heads, g, j, and i, become inconsistent. Their associated variables in the

format of  $\langle v, \widehat{d_v}, \widehat{rhs(v)} \rangle$  are  $\langle g, 9, 8 \rangle$ ,  $\langle j, 17, 20 \rangle$ , and  $\langle i, 21, 16 \rangle$ . Vertices g and i are over-consistent, and j is under-consistent. Therefore, MFP enqueues entries  $\{\langle g, 8 \rangle, \langle j, 17 \rangle, \langle i, 16 \rangle\}$  in Step 1. Then, in Step 2, MFP runs iteratively. It first extracts  $\langle g, 8 \rangle$ . Since g is over-consistent,  $d'_g$  is set to 8, and g is consolidated. By checking all the children of g, k is found to be inconsistent, and thus, the entry  $\langle k, 12 \rangle$  is enqueued. In addition,  $\widehat{rhs(j)}$  is changed to 19, although  $\widehat{key(j)}$  is still 17. MFP conducts similar processes to the subsequent over-consistent vertices k and i. When the under-consistent vertex j is extracted,  $\widehat{d_j} = 17$  and  $\widehat{rhs(j)} = 19$ , MFP sets  $\widehat{d_j}$  to  $\infty$ , which changes j to over-consistent. Since j had no satisfying-children, no vertices require their rhs values to be re-evaluated. <sup>11</sup> Later, j is extracted again and consolidated with the distance of 19. Figure 6 depicts G' and  $T'_s$  in which only vertex j is processed by MFP twice.

As illustrated in Figure 6 (b), we observe that the affected vertices, whose new distances are increased, could be processed twice.

# 6 Complexity Analysis

Here we analyze, for the increase and decrease cases, the complexity of algorithms *DynDijkstra*, *MBallString*, and *MFP*. The complexity model used is the one proposed in [18]. For this purpose, we define a set of metrics that represent the important operations in these algorithms.

Given a graph G, an SPT  $T_s$  rooted at vertex  $s \in V(G)$ , and a set  $\varepsilon$  of edges, in which either all edges get their weights increased or all edges get their weights decreased, we let A be the set of affected vertices, and  $\delta_A = |A|$ . More specifically, for algorithms DynDijkstra and MBallString, A denotes the set of locally-affected vertices in  $T_s$ ; and for the MFP, A denotes the set of dist-affected vertices in G. An affected vertex v is said to be dist-affected if  $d'_v \neq d_v$ ; otherwise, v is dist-not-affected.

We let  $\delta_A^{out} = |Out_A|$  be the number of outgoing edges from vertices in A, and  $\delta_A^{in} = |In_A|$  be the number of incoming edges to vertices in A.<sup>12</sup> We let  $\delta_m$  be the number of modified edges, and  $\delta_m^{in}$  be the number of incoming edges to all heads of modified edges. Finally, we let  $\delta_x$  be the number of branches or subtrees processed by MBallString. We consider  $\delta_x$  to be much less than  $\delta_A$  although they could possibly be the same.

 $<sup>^{11}\</sup>mathrm{Vertex}\ f$  is i's satisfying-parent; i is n's satisfying-parent; k is o's satisfying-parent.

 $<sup>^{12}</sup>$ In complexity analysis, we do not differentiate between  $In_N$  and  $AllIn_N$ , because based on the data structure presented in this paper, they have the same complexity. Similarly for  $Out_N$  and  $AllOut_N$ .

Unit Operation	description
edge visit	access any edge in $G$
distance update	update shortest distance of vertex
link visit	access shortest path parent/child relation
link update	update shortest path parent/child relation
status update	update vertex's status (open/closed)
enqueue	enqueue a new entry
decrease-key	decrease an existing entry's key
increase-key	increase an existing entry's key
extract-min	extract an existing entry
removal	remove an existing entry

Table 1: Unit operations

Specially, for the MFP, we let C be the set of not-dist-affected children of dist-affected vertices in G and  $\delta_C^{in}$  <sup>13</sup>=  $|In_C|$  be the number of incoming edges to vertices C in G.

We consider unit operations as listed in Table 1.<sup>14</sup> Edge weight updates are ignored in complexity analysis; and all operations related to one vertex's shortest path parent modification are counted as one link update.<sup>15</sup> Note that Table 1 gives the maximum set of major operations that could be involved in any algorithm discussed in this paper; not every algorithm requires all these operations.

Queue operations are important for each algorithm. To evaluate algorithms fairly, all of them use the same queue implementation. In this paper, a queue is realized with an *ArrayHeap* (in [3]) since this is the only implementation that supports all five queue operations required by the algorithms studied in this work.

## 6.1 Edge Weight Increases

In this subsection, we analyze the complexities of *DynDijkInc*, *MBallStringInc*, and *MFP*. We summarize the complexities in Table 2 and prove the complexity of each algorithm individually.

Unit Operation	DynDijkInc	MBallStringInc	MFP
edge visit	$\delta_m + \delta_A^{in} + \delta_A^{out}$	$\delta_m + \delta_A^{in} + \delta_A^{out}$	$\delta_m + \delta_m^{in} + 2 \times (\delta_A^{out} + \delta_A^{in} + \delta_C^{in})$
distance update	$\leq \delta_A + \delta_A^{out}$	$\delta_A$	$2 \times \delta_A$
link visit	$\leq \delta_A$	$\leq 2 \times \delta_A$	0
link update	$\leq \delta_m + \delta_A$	$\leq \delta_m + \delta_x$	$\leq \delta_m + 2 \times \delta_A^{out}$
status update	0	$2 \times \delta_A$	0
enqueue	$\delta_A$	$\leq \delta_A$	$2  imes \delta_A$
decrease-key	$\leq \delta_A^{out}$	$\leq \delta_A^{out}$	$\leq \delta_A^{out}$
increase-key	0	0	0
extract-min	$\delta_A$	$\delta_x$	$2 \times \delta_A$
removal	0	$\leq \delta_A - \delta_x$	0

Table 2: Unit operations of DynDijkInc, MBallStringInc, and MFP

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>This notation is used in the analysis of edge weight increases case.

 $<sup>^{14}</sup>REMOVE$  and EXTRACTMIN operations in the pseudo-code are the same as removal and extract-min in Table 1. However, ENQUEUE is enqueue + decrease-key while ADJUST is enqueue + decrease-key+ increase-key.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>For example, lines 19-21 in DynDijkInc are counted as one link update; so are lines 21-23 in MBallStringInc.

**Lemma 6.1** After a set of edge weight increases, the worst-case number of unit operations of DynDijkInc is as listed in Table 2.

**Proof** In Step 1,  $\delta_m$  modified edges are visited. All modified edges could be tree edges in  $T_s$  and be removed, so, there are at most  $\delta_m$  link updates. Method findLocallyAffectedVertices has to traverse  $\widehat{T}_s$  from modified heads. Therefore, according to the tree structure, at most  $\delta_A$  links are visited.

In Step 2, all incoming edges to locally-affected vertices are examined, so, there are  $\delta_A^{in}$  edge visits. All locally-affected vertices get the distances updated in line 12, thus, there are  $\delta_A$  distance updates.

In Step 3, according to Lemma A.5, only locally-affected vertices are processed by DynDijkInc. According to lines 18-21, DynDijkInc extracts exactly one locally-affected vertex in each iteration; it also updates one shortest parent link in each iteration according to the extracted vertex. Therefore, there are  $\delta_A$  enqueues, extractions, and link updates. In addition, all outgoing edges for each locally-affected vertex are visited, and each edge visit might induce a distance update and a decrease-key. Therefore, there are exactly  $\delta_A^{out}$  edge visits and at most that number of distance updates and decrease-keys.

Next, we analyze the complexity of MBallStringInc, in which locally-affected vertices are processed branch by branch. For any locally-affected vertex v, its distance is updated only when the final optimal distance is located.

**Lemma 6.2** After a set of edge weight increases, the worst-case number of unit operations of MBallStringInc is as listed in Table 2.

**Proof** Step 1 of MBallStringInc contains exactly the same unit operations as Step 1 of DynDijkInc; therefore, we skip the analysis.

In Step 2,  $\delta_A^{in}$  edges are visited. No distance update happens, but all locally-affected vertices get their status updated to *open*. Therefore, there are  $\delta_A$  status updates. Since a locally-affected vertex can be enqueued at most once, then there are no more than  $\delta_A$  enqueues.

In Step 3, MBallStringInc extracts only mini-roots. Correspondingly, it updates only the shortest path parents of these mini-roots; thus, there are  $\delta_x$  extractions and link updates. All locally-affected vertices are selected by  $des(\widehat{T}_s, y)$  in line 24 once and then get the distance and status updated also exactly once. Therefore, there are at most  $\delta_A$  link visits, and exactly  $\delta_A$  distance and status updates. In addition, MBall-StringInc examines the outgoing edges of all locally-affected vertices, and each edge visit might induce a decrease-key; thus, there are exactly  $\delta_A^{out}$  edge visits and at most  $\delta_A^{out}$  decrease-keys.

Finally, since all entries in Q that are not extracted are removed and there are at most  $\delta_A$  entries in Q, MBallStringInc conducts no more than  $\delta_A - \delta_x$  extractions.

**Lemma 6.3** After a set of edge weight increases, the worst-case number of unit operations of MFP is summarized in Table 2.

**Proof** In this algorithm, a vertex v is enqueued iff v is dist-affected. This follows from the requirement that the rhs(v) is not equal from  $d_v$  before a vertex v is enqueued.<sup>16</sup>

In Step 1, all the modified edges are visited; thus,  $\delta_m$  edges are visited and the same number of link updates. In addition, all the incoming edges to each modified head h are visited to re-evaluate rhs(h). Therefore, there are  $\delta_m^{in}$  more edge visits.

In Step 2, each dist-affected vertex y is first extracted to be under-consistent and processed: its distance is first updated to  $\infty$ ; then all the outgoing edges e of y are visited. However, there will be no increase-/decrease-key or remove operation. Therefore, there are  $\delta_A$  extractions and distance updates,  $\delta_A^{out}$  edge visits, and at most  $\delta_A^{out}$  link updates. Furthermore, in order to obtain  $\widehat{rhs(h(e))}$ , all the incoming edges of h(e) are visited. If h(e) is affected, then there are  $\delta_A^{in}$  edge visits overall. If h(e) is unaffected, then there are, in total,  $\delta_C^{in}$  edge visits.

According to the algorithm, each vertex in A is then extracted to be over-consistent and is finalized. Therefore, there are  $\delta_A$  extractions and distance updates,  $\delta_A^{out}$  edge visits, and, at most, that number of link updates and decrease-keys. Furthermore, in order to obtain  $\widehat{rhs(h(e))}$ , all the incoming edges of h(e) are visited. If h(e) is affected, then there are  $\delta_A^{in}$  edge visits overall. If h(e) is unaffected, then there are  $\delta_C^{in}$  edge visits overall.

Due to  $2 \times \delta_A$  extractions, MFP must conduct at least that number of enqueues.

# 6.2 Edge Weight Decreases

In this subsection, we analyze the complexity of DynDijkDec and MFP. We summarize the complexities in Table 3 and prove the complexity of each algorithm individually. In addition, we give informal discussion of BallStringDec's complexity in our metrics.

Unit Operation	DynDijkDec	BallStringDec	MFP
edge visit	$\delta_m + \delta_A^{out}$	$\gg \delta_A^{out}$	$\delta_m + \delta_m^{in} + \delta_A^{out}$
distance update	$\leq \delta_m + \delta_A^{out}$	$\gg \delta_A$	$\delta_A$
link visit	0	$\gg \delta_A$	0
link update	$\delta_A$	$\gg \delta_x$	$\leq \delta_m + \delta_A^{out}$
status update	0	0	0
enqueue	$\delta_A$	$\gg \delta_x$	$\delta_A$
decrease-key	$\leq \delta_A^{out}$	$\gg \delta_x$	$\leq \delta_A^{out}$
increase-key	0	0	0
extract-min	$\delta_A$	$\gg \delta_x$	$\delta_A$
removal	0	$\gg \delta_x$	0

Table 3: Unit operations of DynDijkDec, BallStringDec, and MFP

**Lemma 6.4** After a set of edge weight decreases, the worst-case number of unit operations of DynDijkDec is as listed in Table 3.

 $<sup>^{16}</sup>$ This holds for both the increase and decrease cases.

**Proof** In Step 1, modified edges are visited, and each edge visit might induce a distance update. Therefore, there are exactly  $\delta_m$  edge visits and at most  $\delta_m$  distance updates.

In Step 2, according to Lemma A.6, only locally-affected vertices are processed by DynDijkDec. According to line 10, DynDijkDec extracts exactly one locally-affected vertex in each iteration, and updates one shortest parent link in each iteration according to the extracted vertex. Thus, there are exactly  $\delta_A$  enqueues, extractions, and link updates. In addition, the outgoing edges of all locally-affected vertices are visited, and each edge visit might induce a link update and decrease-key. Therefore, there are exactly  $\delta_A^{out}$  edge visits and at most  $\delta_A$  link updates and decrease-keys.

The official proof of BallStringDec's complexity can be found in [28], and here we analyze BallStringDec's complexity according to our metrics. As we have discussed in the algorithm description, very likely, Ball-StringDec conducts duplicate distance updates. Unlike MBallStringInc, which processes each branch exactly once, BallStringDec might process some branches multiple times. Whenever a branch is processed, edge visits, distance updates, enqueues, and removals are induced. Therefore, there is no way to predict the numbers of all these unit operations. In Table 3, we use  $\gg f(n)$  to indicate that the number of operations is dependent on f(n) but it cannot be established precisely due to the unpredictable effect of duplicate distance updates.

**Lemma 6.5** After a set of edge weight decreases, the worst-case number of unit operations of MFP is summarized in Table 3.

**Proof** The proof of Lemma 6.5 is the same as that of Lemma 6.3, except for Step 2.

In Step 2, all vertices in A are found to be over-consistent and are processed (and finalized). According to the algorithm, each vertex y in A is extracted only once, and the distance of each vertex is updated. All the outgoing edges of y are examined, and each edge that is visited could induce a decrease-key. Thus, there are  $\delta_A$  extractions and distance updates,  $\delta_A^{out}$  edge visits, and at most  $\delta_A^{out}$  number of decrease-keys.

# 7 Experiments

The main purposes of this section are to detail how the algorithms presented in this work perform, and to identify the best solution for different scenarios. In Section 7.1, we introduce our experimental framework, present the problem instance generators, describe the performance indicators, and give some relevant implementation details. In Section 7.2, we present the experimental results.

# 7.1 Experimental Setup

#### 7.1.1 System Environment and Data Sets

Our experiments are performed on a personal computer with a Pentium IV 2.56 GHz processor and 1 GB of main memory, running Microsoft Windows XP Professional Version 2002. We use Java 1.4.2 to implement

all programs. To make a homogeneous execution environment for every test case, we set the Java Virtual Machine (JVM) to 1 GB.

We use two types of graph data: a real-life data set and an artificial data set. The former one is from the Connecticut road system extracted from the U.S. Census Bureau Tiger/Line files [1], denoted as road system graphs in short. Road system graphs have 5 different sizes: 1K, 2K, 4K, 8K, and 15K. The size is determined by the number of vertices inside the graph. For each size, 2 graphs are extracted from Connecticut road system. Each graph F is originally undirected, so we construct a directed graph G by replacing an undirected edge in F with two directed edges as follows:  $\forall v \in V(F)$ , v is added to G;  $\forall (u, v) \in E(F)$ , (u, v) is added to G, and a new edge (v, u) with a random weight is also added to G, such that (u, v) is u's outgoing and v's incoming edge, and (v, u) is v's outgoing and v's incoming edge. The weight of an edge (u, v) is the length of the edge in F while the weight of the newly added edge (v, u) is chosen arbitrarily from the weights in the original graph. The weights, for instance, could denote the time needed to travel over a street block in a road system graph.

Due to the nature of the road system and the way we construct a directed graph, the directed graphs G's are relatively sparse such that  $|E(G)| \leq 3 \times |V(G)|$ . Moreover, they are all strongly-connected, such that there exists a path between any pair of vertices in G. The statistics are given in Table 4.

Graph size	No. of vertices	No. of edges
1K	1194	2970
1K	1181	2798
2K	2280	5364
2K	2034	4784
4K	4320	9826
4K	4165	9674
8K	8350	20474
8K	8146	20396
15K	15001	38346
15K	15002	36814

Table 4: Road System Graphs Statistics.

Graph Size	No. of Vertices	No. of Edges
100	100	4950
200	200	17300
400	400	61400
800	800	220400

Table 5: Artificial Random Graphs Statistics

The other type of graphs is *artificially generated*. With the random graph generator from [2], we generate directed graphs, given the number of vertices, the number of edges, and a certain range of edge weights. The generator assigns edges to vertices such that the outgoing degrees of vertices follow quasi-power law distribution. The weight of an edge is randomly selected from the input range of 1 to 1,000,000. According

to this random generator,  $|E(G)|_{max} = \frac{|V(G)| \times (|V(G)| - 1)}{2}$ . Therefore, we are able to generate random graphs much denser than road system graphs. The data on random graphs generated are shown in Table 5.

#### 7.1.2 Problem Instances

In each testing graph G, we randomly select a vertex s as the source, and a set  $\varepsilon$  of edges whose weights are to be increased or decreased. We denote  $\varepsilon$  as non-mixed if it contains either increased edges or decreased edges, but not both; we denote  $\varepsilon$  as mixed if it contains both. Given an outdated SPT rooted at s in G, we run SPT algorithms to update  $\varepsilon$  accordingly and compute a new SPT. Note that the outdated SPT is already residing in the main memory before an algorithm starts executing.

In a non-mixed case, we vary the percentage of changed edges and the percentage of weight changed; in a mixed case, we vary the percentage of changed edges and the percentage of increased edges. More details follow in Section 7.1.4.

#### 7.1.3 Performance Indicator

In this work, we are interested in the total number of operations performed and the CPU running time for each solution. The types of operations interested are listed in Table 1.

In the mixed cases, the semi-dynamic algorithms need to divide  $\varepsilon$  into  $\varepsilon^+$  and  $\varepsilon^-$  so that  $\varepsilon^+$  contains all edges in  $\varepsilon$  whose weights are increased, and  $\varepsilon^-$  contains the rest. The CPU time for dividing  $\varepsilon$  into  $\varepsilon^+$  and  $\varepsilon^-$  is also counted as part of the cost. In addition, when we run semi-dynamic algorithms for mixed cases, we first run the decreases routine for  $\varepsilon^-$ , and then the increases routine for  $\varepsilon^+$ . This order, however, could be arbitrary.

#### 7.1.4 Factors Evaluated

Since different algorithms may have different properties, in order to draw a meaningful conclusion, we examine which algorithm works the best in different scenarios. We extract some factors from the general situations. Table 6 lists these factors and their sample values used in the experiments.

Factor	Samples for Road System Graphs	Samples for Random Graphs
graphsize (increase and decrease cases)	1K, 2K, 4K, 8K, 15K	100, 200, 400, 800
(mixed case)	2K, 8K, 15K	200, 400, 800
pce (increase and decrease cases) %	0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 1, 2, 5, 10	0.1, 0.5, 2, 10
(mixed cases) %	0.5, 2, 5	0.5,1,2,5
pcw (increase cases) %	100, 200, 1000, 2000, 5000, 10000	100, 200, 1000, 2000, 5000, 10000
(decrease cases) $\%$	5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 90	5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 90
pie(mixed cases only) %	10, 30, 50, 70, 90	10, 30, 50, 70, 90

Table 6: Samples of evaluated factors in the DSP problem

Graph Size (graphsize) It is the number of vertices in it. The samples are listed in Table 6.

Percentage of Changed Edges (pce) It is the percentage of changed edges. The samples are listed in Table 6. The changed edges are randomly selected from the graph. For example, in a 4K sized road system graph which has approximately 8K edges, when pce is 1%, 80 edges get their weights updated.

**Percentage of Changed Weight** (pcw) It is the percentage of the changed edge's weight that will be added to or deducted from the its original weight. There are two groups of samples: the edge weight increases and the edge weight decreases. For the mixed case, percentage of increased edges (pie) is used instead. Table 6 provides the samples.

For example, if a person is driving at 100 kilometers per hour (100km/h) on a highway, it takes him 30 seconds (30s) to travel from one intersection to the next one. If, due to a traffic congestion, he/she slows down to 10km/h, he/she needs 300s to drive the same distance. In the graph presentation, the corresponding edge's weight is increased by nine times from 30s to 300s. For the opposite situation, the edge's weight is decreased by 90% from 300s to 30s.

Percentage of Increased Edges (pie) In the mixed cases, after randomly selecting a group of modified edges, we vary the ratio between the number of the increased edges and the number of the decreased edges in this group. The samples are given in Table 6. For instance, the value 10 stands for that 10% of modified edges have their weights increased while 90% have their weights decreased.<sup>17</sup>

For all cases, given a group of sample values, a run consists of 150 (2 × 3 × 25) SPT computations. For example, for the road system graphs, let graphsize = 4K, pce = 0.1, and pcw = 100 be a group of sample values. In a run, 2 graphs (both are 4K in size) are selected. For each graph, we randomly select 3 groups of edges, each of which contains 4 edges (pce = 0.1) whose weights are increased by 100%, and we randomly select 25 vertices as sources whose SPTs are computed. Thus, in a run, we have 150 SPT computations. For each algorithm and for each group of sample values, the average number of unit operations and the average execution time of a run are used as the average data, and they are the y-values in our plots.

#### 7.1.5 Implementation Details

In this subsection, we take a closer look at the data structures used in the implementation. There are a few important data structures that are shared by the algorithms: Graph G; SPT  $T_s$ , rooted at vertex s; and priority queue Q.

Conceptually, G contains a vertex set V and an edge set E. Each vertex v is identified by a key (the ID of v), and so is each edge e.  $T_s$  is denoted by the vertices' auxiliary information set. In this set, a vertex is identified by its ID. Each vertex has an auxiliary information, aux, which contains spp(v), spc(v),  $d_v$ , and status(v). We use Java 1.4.2's HashMap to implement the containers of V, E, and  $T_s$ . During the execution period in which we observe the performance, our algorithms update the auxiliary information of the vertices in  $T_s$ . As pointed out before, a priority queue is implemented with the ArrayHeap in JDSL [3].

Besides implementing our algorithms in this work, we also implement *Dijkstra* as a reference. To obtain a fair comparison, we modify *Dijkstra* to take a group of modified edges as its input, as all the other incremental algorithms do, to modify these edges' weights, and to compute a new SPT for the updated graph.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>The weight changes, in this case, are randomly set.

# 7.2 Experimental Results

In Section 7.2.1, we show how pcw affects the algorithms investigated. Then in the rest of Section 7.2, we focus on the other factors and see how they influence the performance of an algorithm.

#### 7.2.1 Factor pcw

Figure 7 shows, for the increases case, the effect of *pcw* on various algorithms with road system graphs.<sup>18</sup> Results on other road system graphs and random graphs are similar, and therefore are not included here.<sup>19</sup> The plot on the left shows the execution time while the one on the right records the total number of operations performed by an algorithm. From the figure, it is observed that, for all algorithms, both the unit operations and the CPU time remain relatively constant, regardless of the changed weights. The reason for this phenomenon is due to the nature of the incremental algorithms. In the increases cases, given a

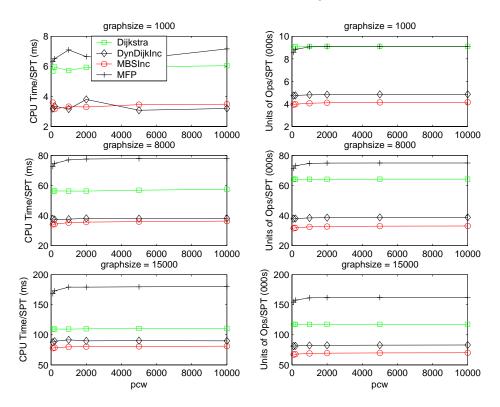


Figure 7: Comparison in Edge Weight Increases on pcw with Road System Graphs

graph, an SPT, and a set of changed edges, the set of locally-affected vertices in algorithm DynDijkInc and MBallStringInc remains unchanged, regardless of the weight changes. At the beginning of execution, these algorithms both invoke a function called findLocallyAffectedVertices. The set of vertices returned by this function solely depends on the set of changed edges, but not on the increases in their weights. For

 $<sup>^{18}</sup>$ The substring BS in a legend denotes BallString.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>From now on, due to space limitation, only a subset of exemplifying plots are presented.

DynDijkInc, the number of iterations is the number of locally-affected vertices. For MBallStringInc, even though the number of iterations is the number of branches processed, which is much smaller, the amount of work required is proportional to the number of locally-affected vertices. For algorithm MFP, similar to the two other algorithms, the number of dist-affected vertices, which need to be processed, remains relatively constant. Therefore, the CPU time and the units of operations remain flat. The performance differences among these algorithms will be explained in subsequent discussion. In summary, for the increases case, pcw has little influence on these incremental algorithms.

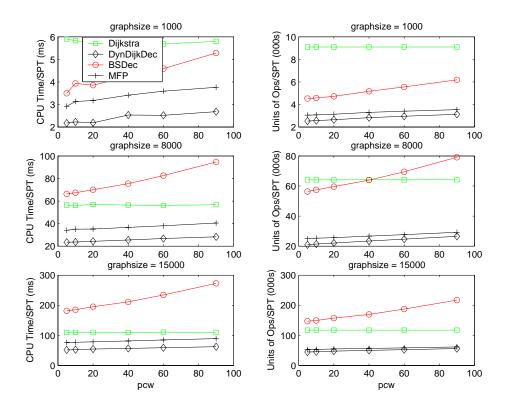


Figure 8: Comparison in Edge Weight Decreases on pcw with Road System Graphs

On the other hand, pcw has a more noticeable influence in the decreases case. Figures 8 and 9 show how the weight decreases affect the performance of these algorithms. Contrary to the increases case, the set of locally-affected vertices cannot be determined initially. As a result, the more the edges' weights are decreased, the more likely a vertex is locally-affected. The larger the number of locally-affected vertices, the more processing is required. In addition, this effect is amplified in the random case due to a larger number of edge visits.

It is worth noting that algorithm *Dijkstra* performs significantly better, relatively to the incremental algorithms, in road system graphs than in random graphs. This is due to the nature of the data sets and the sample points chosen, as well as the characteristics of these algorithms. Because the density of tree

edges is much lower in random graphs than in road system graphs, the same pce results in a smaller affected subgraph when it is a random graph than it is a road system graph. For instance, consider the edge weight increases case and a pce value, 2%. In random graphs case, 11% vertices in 100-node graphs and 25% vertices in 800-node graphs are locally-affected. In contrast, in road system graphs case, 55% vertices in 1K-node graphs and 75% vertices in 15K-node graphs are locally-affected. Since an incremental algorithm processes locally-affected vertices only, it performs better in road system graphs than in random graphs, in general. Another reason for Dijkstra's better performance in road system graph is its complexity. Recall that the complexity of Dijkstra is  $O(n \times log n + m)$ , where n and m are the number of vertices and edges in a graph G, respectively. In a random graph, m is dominant.

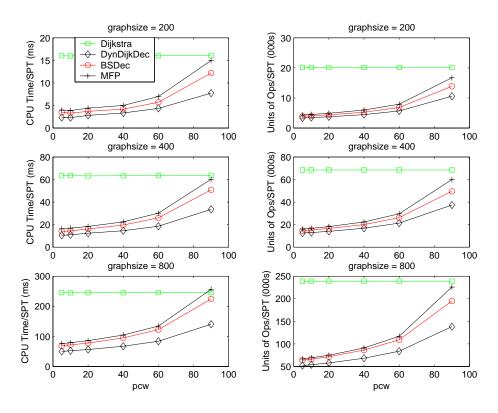


Figure 9: Compariosn in Edge Weight Decreases on pcw with Random Graphs

For the rest of the experimental results, we shall focus on other factors and their influences on the performance of various algorithms. We shall present and analyze the results in three parts: the edge weight increases, the edge weight decreases, and the mixed edge weight changes. Let us call a pce x the pce-threshold of an incremental algorithm I, if for any value  $y \ge x$ , I no longer, in term of time, outperforms Dijkstra.

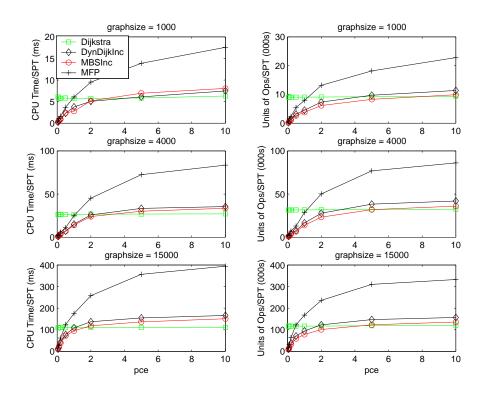


Figure 10: Comparison in Edge Weight Increases on pce with Road System Graphs

## 7.2.2 Edge Weight Increases

For road system graphs, as shown in Figure 10, graphsize's increase lowers the incremental algorithms' pce-thresholds. In fact, this holds for all test data sets. In the increases case, all incremental algorithms outperform Dijkstra when pce is small, say when it is less than 1%. As pce increases from zero to some pce-threshold, the performance gap between a incremental algorithm and Dijkstra narrows. Thus, the advantage of an incremental algorithm over Dijkstra reduces as pce increases; after some pce-threshold is reached, no more advantage exists.

In general, MBallStringInc outperforms all other incremental algorithms, in terms of the total number of operations and the CPU execution time, regardless of graphsize and pce. Although MBallStringInc processes the same set of affected vertices as DynDijkInc does, MBallStringInc's better performance is due to the branch consolidation by  $\delta$ . Branch consolidation results in fewer queue operations when compared to DynDijkInc. Since MFP processes each dist-affected vertex twice, it requires a larger number of edges visits and more queue-related operations. Consequently, it performs the worst among all three incremental algorithms. In sum, if pce is less than a certain pce-threshold, which depends on graphsize, MBallStringInc should be applied; otherwise, Dijkstra should be applied. According to our tests, the range of the pce-threshold for MBallStringInc is between 2% to 4%.

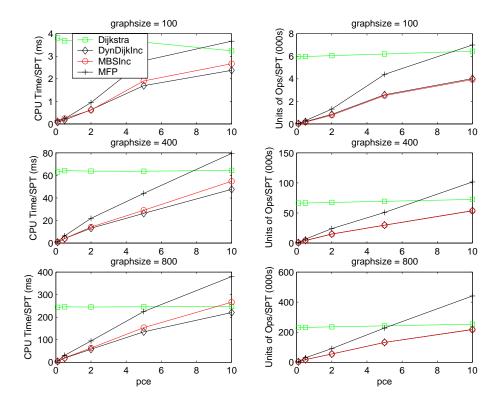


Figure 11: Comparison in Edge Weight Increases on pce with Random Graphs

For random graphs, as shown in Figure 11, the relative performance is similar to that in road system graphs, except that DynDijkInc performs a bit better in term of CPU time. We observe that DynDijkInc and MBallStringInc have almost the same number of unit operations. In fact, they both have similar numbers over all major categories of operations. However, MBallStringInc is a more complex algorithm than DynDijkInc. When an SPT is small, the benefit of branch consolidation of MBallStringInc could be out-weighted by its overhead. As a result, DynDijkInc has a better time performance than MBallStringInc. It is worth noting that the pce-thresholds for all incremental algorithms in random graphs are significantly higher than those in road system graphs, due to the reason given at the end of Section 7.2.1.

## 7.2.3 Edge Weight Decreases

Figures 12 and 13 show the experimental results, in the decreases case, for road system graphs and for random graphs, respectively.

We observe that, for road system graphs, as in the increases case, all incremental algorithms outperform Dijkstra when pce is small, but under-perform Dijkstra once the pce passes some pce-threshold. DynDijkDec outperforms all other incremental algorithms, regardless of graphsizes and pce. The pce-threshold of DynDijkDec is noticeably higher than that of DynDijkInc. This is due mainly to the far fewer number of operations involving distance update, link visit, and link update in DynDijkDec. BallStringDec performs sig-

nificantly worse than other incremental algorithms due to the duplicate distance updates. The performance deteriorates rapidly as pce increases, because more and more subtrees in an SPT are repeatedly processed by BallStringDec. On the contrary, MFP performs better, compare to the increases case, due to that each affected vertex is enqueued only once in the decreases case, which results in far fewer edge visits and queue-related operations. In sum, for road system graphs, if pce is less than a certain threshold, DynDijkDec should be applied; otherwise, Dijkstra should be employed. The range of the pce-thresholds is above 10%, depending on the size of a graph.

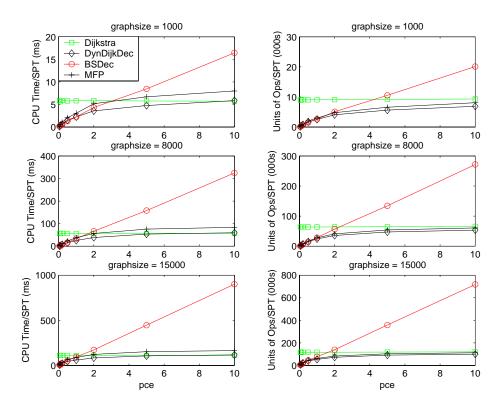


Figure 12: Comparison in Edge Weight Decreases on pce with Road System Graphs

For random graphs, as shown in Figure 13, DynDijkDec still has the best overall performance among all incremental algorithms while MFP performs the worst. Although each vertex is enqueued and extracted once, the number of adjust key operations by MFP is much larger than that of the two other incremental algorithms, resulting in MFP's deteriorating performance. In general, an SPT in a random graph is much smaller than that in a road system graph. The chance of duplicate distance update is smaller in a small SPT than in a large SPT. This explains why BallStringDec does not perform as bad as in the road system case.

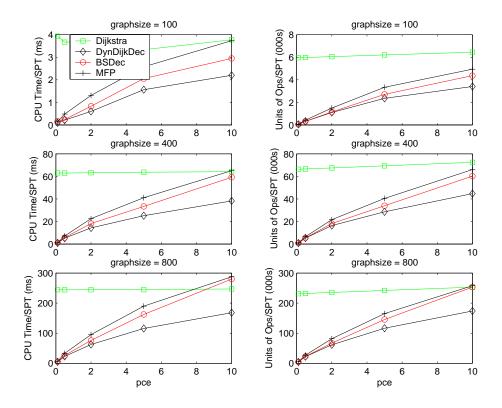


Figure 13: Comparison in Edge Weight Decreases on pce with Random Graphs

### 7.2.4 Mixed Edge Weight Changes

All semi-dynamic algorithms such as *MBallString* and *DynDijkstra* can be used to process a mixed edge weight changes. The mixed edge weight changes are first divided into two sets: increase and decrease. They are then processed by the corresponding semi-dynamic routines. In the previous subsections, we have shown experimentally that the overall best performed semi-dynamic algorithms for increases and decreases cases are *MBallStringInc* and *DynDijkDec*, respectively. We construct an algorithm for the mixed case, which we call *MBSDD*, by combining these two semi-dynamic algorithms together. Algorithm *MBSDD* is also included in our evaluation.

Here, we provide the experimental results in the case of the mixed edge weight changes. Similar to what is reported in the previous two sections, graphsize and pce affect the performance of all the algorithms in the same manner, and, as can be expected, combining the edge weight increases and the edge weight decreases does not reverse the trend. Consequently, in this part, we choose less samples, and focus on testing pie. The graphsize chosen are 2K, 8K, and 15K while the pce examined are 0.5%, 2%, and 5%. Our tested samples cover almost the full range of all the possible values for pie, i.e., from 10% to 90%.

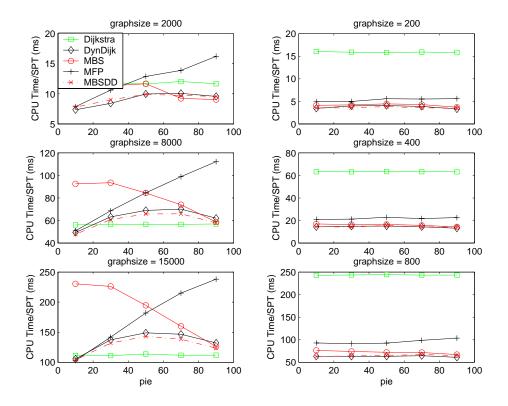


Figure 14: Time Comparison in Mixed Edge Weight Changes on *pie* with Road System Graphs (left) and Random Graphs (right)

Figure 14 shows how the mixes of edge weight increases/decreases affect the performance of the algorithms in term of CPU running time. The plots for the unit operations are very similar to the corresponding time plots and therefore are not included here.

Let us first look at the result on the road system graphs. The figure shows that pie does not influence the incremental algorithms uniformly. DynDijkstra and MBSDD have more or less the same trend. For the same set of modified edges, as pie increases from 10% to 90%, two algorithms' performance is initially bad, and then gets improved after a certain threshold. This trend can be explained by considering the behavior of MBSDD. When the pie is very large (90%) or very small (10%), the best semi-dynamic algorithm, MBallStringInc or DynDijkDec respectively, is invoked to handle the dominating set of edge weight changes. Thus, the performance of MBSDD at the two extremes of pie will be very close to (but still slightly better than) two best semi-dynamic algorithms respectively. For the rest of the pie sample values, MBSDD performs certainly better than all other incremental algorithms. For the reasons stated in the increase and decrease cases, as pie increases, MBallString performs better while MFP performs worse.

The result on random graphs is slightly different from road system graphs. We first observe that the lines look relatively flat, but this mainly due to the poor performance of *Dijkstra*. We also observe that *MFP* performs not as good, relative to road system graphs, mainly because of its larger number of queue-related

operations.

The test result on *pce* for road system graphs is summarized in Figure 15. As can be observed, and except for 2K graph and small *pce*'s, *MBSDD* performs no worse than all other incremental algorithms. In fact, *MBSDD* performs just slightly better than *DynDijkstra*. Depending on *graphsize* and *pie*, *MBSDD* should be applied, if *pce* is below a certain *pce*-threshold; otherwise, *Dijkstra* should be applied. The threshold range in this case is about between 1.5% and 3.5%.

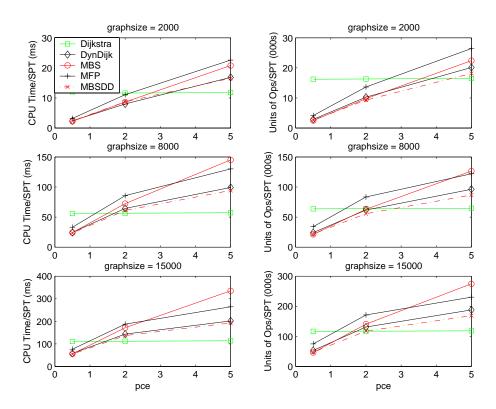


Figure 15: Comparison in Mixed Edge Weight Changes on pce with Road System Graphs

For random graphs, the result is summarized in Figures 16. There is not much surprise in this figure. However, unlike the mixed case of road system graphs, DynDijkstra edges out MBSDD in almost every case. The reason is that MBallStringInc does not perform as well as DynDijkInc in the random increases case. Consequently, the combined algorithm MBSDD is not as good as DynDijkstra.

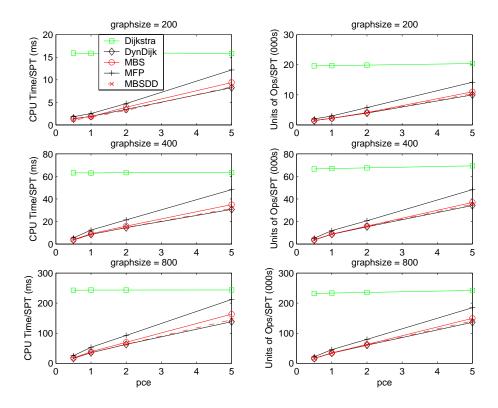


Figure 16: Comparison in Mixed Edge Weight Changes on pce with Random Graphs.

## 8 Conclusion

For the DSP problem, we reviewed the previous investigations and discovered that many of them either process a single edge weight update or fail to correctly process the multiple edge weight updates. Therefore, we proposed a few semi-dynamic algorithms by correcting, extending, and optimizing some of the previously studied algorithms. More specifically, DynDijkstra and MBallString are two semi-dynamic SPT algorithms, whereas MFP is a fully-dynamic SPT algorithm. In addition, we derived two frameworks for describing the modified semi-dynamic algorithms: one for increases case and the other for decreases case. We analyzed the complexity and proved the correctness of these algorithms. We conducted experiments to evaluate their performance, both in terms of CPU execution time and total number of operations. We also compared them with the well-known static algorithm Dijkstra. The purpose of this study is to understand how these algorithms behave and to determine the best algorithms for different graph sizes and for various mixes of modified edges. We used both real-life and artificial data sets in our experiments. The real-life data sets are road systems in Connecticut and are sparse in nature. The artificial data set are randomly generated graph and are relatively dense. We tried to eliminate the experimental anomalies by conducting a large number of tests. We also identified and evaluated factors that could affect the algorithms' performances.

The factors we investigated in this work are graph size, pce, and pcw. We first showed that, for the

increases case, pcw has very little effect on the performance of all incremental algorithms studied. However, there are some effects on their performance when the changed-weights are decreases. As expected, incremental algorithms should be used in place of the static Dijkstra algorithm when the pce is smaller than certain threshold. These thresholds vary on the input mixes and on the graph size. We concluded the following for all incremental algorithms examined in this work. In the increases case, for road system graphs and for random graphs, MBallStringInc and DynDijkInc have the best overall performance, respectively. In the decreases case, DynDijkDec performs the best. For the mixed case, MBSDD is the best choice for road system graphs while DynDijkstra outperforms others for random graphs.

## Acknowledgement

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# **Appendix**

# A Correctness Proofs of DynDijkstra and MBallStringInc

We now prove the correctness of *DynDijkstra* and *MBallStringInc*. A simple observation of the two algorithms for the increases case.

**Proposition A.1** Let  $\bar{N}$  be the set of vertices returned in line 10 of either DynDikjstraInc or MBallString-Inc. If  $\bar{N}$  is non-empty, then there is some vertex  $a \in \bar{N}$  that satisfies the condition  $(b,a) \in In_a$  and  $b \notin \bar{N}$ . That is, for both algorithms, there is some boundary vertex enqueued in Q before Step 3 begins execution.

**Proof** By Lemma 4.1,  $\bar{N}$  is  $V(T_s) - des(\widehat{T}_s, s)$ , where  $\widehat{T}_s$  is the forest obtained from  $T_s$  by removing the modified tree edges. Search the tree  $T_s$ , starting with the root s, until a vertex b in  $des(\widehat{T}_s, s)$ , but a is not in  $des(\widehat{T}_s, s)$  and (b, a) is an edge in G. Such an edge (b, a) guarantees to exist since  $\bar{N}$  is non-empty, all vertices in  $\bar{N}$  are reachable from s in  $T_s$ , and  $s \notin \bar{N}$ .

### $A.1 \quad DynDijkstra$

In this part, we prove the correctness of DynDijkInc and DynDijkDec. Since major part in DynDijkInc (Step 3) is the same as that in DynDijkDec (Step 2), we are going to prove the correctness of these two algorithms together, and we use DynDijkstra when no need to differentiate them.

We prove that DynDijkstra computes a correct new SPT  $T'_s$  eventually. First we argue that DynDijkstra correctly updates only the shortest distances/paths of locally-affected vertices in  $T_s$ . Thereafter, we prove that  $T'_s$  is a valid new SPT. We break the proof into two cases: one without iteration and the other with iterations during the execution of the algorithm.

**Lemma A.2** If DynDijkstra executes 0 iteration, then  $\forall v \in V(T'_s)$ ,  $\hat{d}_v$  is optimal.

**Proof** If DynDijkInc executes 0 iteration, no entry is enqueued in Step 2. If  $\bar{N}$  is empty at the end of Step 1, then none of modified edges is a tree edge in  $T_s$ , thus all vertices are unaffected. Therefore, all vertices keep their optimal distances. If  $\bar{N}$  is non-empty, by Proposition A.1, the queue is non-empty and the algorithm will execute at least once.

If DynDijkDec executes 0 iteration, no entries are enqueued in Step 1. It means that there are no affected-heads. Since no vertex gets a shorter distance after the updates, all vertices must be unaffected and keep their optimal distances.

Suppose DynDijkstra executes k iterations, where  $k \geq 1$ , and let  $y_1, y_2, ..., y_k$  be the sequence of vertices extracted from the priority queue Q and are processed in line 18 in DynDijkInc or in line 10 in DynDijkDec.

Let  $\widehat{d_{y_i}}$  be the distance assigned by DynDijkstra when  $y_i$  is extracted, where  $1 \leq i \leq k$ . We prove by induction that  $\widehat{d_{y_i}}$  is optimal. First, we shall prove a few preliminary Lemmas and Theorems.

**Lemma A.3** The sequence of  $\widehat{d_{y_i}}$ , where  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , is in a non-decreasing order.

**Proof** Suppose in any two consecutive iterations, i and i+1, where i>0,  $y_i$  and  $y_{i+1}$  are the extracted vertices, respectively. To prove Lemma A.3, we want to show that  $\widehat{d_{y_i}} \leq \widehat{d_{y_{i+1}}}$ .

In the  $i^{th}$  iteration, vertex  $y_i$  is extracted in line 18 in DynDijkInc or in line 10 in DynDijkDec, which means  $\widehat{d}_{y_i}$  is less than or equal to any entry currently enqueued. Then, in line 26 of DynDijkInc or line 18 of DynDijkDec, a new entry q with distance  $\widehat{d}_q$  is enqueued. According to the previous line in DynDijkstra and the non-negative edge weight,  $\widehat{d}_q \geq \widehat{d}_{y_i}$ . Therefore, all entries existing in the priority queue after q is enqueued have a distance of no less than  $\widehat{d}_{y_i}$  and so is the entry with the minimum distance, that is going to be extracted in  $i+1^{th}$  iteration. In other words,  $\widehat{d}_{y_i} \leq \widehat{d}_{y_{i+1}}$ . Thus, the sequence of extracted entries from the queue is in a non-decreasing order.

**Lemma A.4** In the sequence of  $y_1, y_2, ..., y_k, \forall i \neq j$ , where  $k \geq i, j \geq 1, y_i \neq y_j$ .

**Proof** It suffices to prove that, any extracted vertex v in some iteration will not be enqueued again in later iterations. Let  $\widehat{d}_v$  be the distance of v when it is extracted in some iteration. In any later iteration, inequality  $\widehat{d}_y + w(e)' < \widehat{d}_q$  in line 24 of DynDijkInc and in line 16 of DynDijkDec will not hold, where  $\widehat{d}_q$  is  $\widehat{d}_v$  in our context. The reason is  $w(e)' \geq 0$ , and, according to Lemma A.3,  $\widehat{d}_y \geq \widehat{d}_v$ . Therefore, v will not be enqueued anymore. Thus Lemma A.4 holds.

Now we prove that DynDijkstra processes a vertex v in some iteration if and only if v is locally-affected.

**Lemma A.5** Given a graph G, an  $SPTT_s$ , and input edge increases  $\varepsilon^+$ , DynDijkInc processes v if and only if v is locally-affected.

**Proof** By Lemma 4.1, it suffices to show that the set of processed vertices is exactly the set of vertices  $\bar{N}$  in line 10.

"If" If  $v \in \overline{N}$ , then either v is a boundary vertex in Step 2 and is enqueued, or its distance is set to  $\infty$ . In the former case, v is clearly processed by the algorithm. In the latter case, consider the shortest path  $SP_v$  in  $T_s$ . Using an argument similar to Proposition A.1, there exists a boundary vertex w such that all ancestor vertices of v, except w, in the sub-path  $SP_{wv}$  have their distances set to  $\infty$  in Step 2. Since w is enqueued before Step 3 starts executing, together with lines 22-28, all vertices in the sub-path  $SP_{wv}$  will eventually be enqueued in line 26 due to the condition in line 24. Thus v will eventually be processed.

"Only if" If v is a not-locally-affected vertex, then v is either not reachable from s in G or  $v \in des(\widehat{T}_s, s)$ , where  $\widehat{T}_s$  is the forest obtained from  $T_s$  in Step 1 after the set of modified tree edges are removed. If v is not reachable from s, then v will not be processed. If  $v \in des(\widehat{T}_s, s)$ , then  $SP_v = SP'_v$  since no affected-head

is in the path  $SP_v$  and weight changes are only increases. In this case, vertex v is not in  $\bar{N}$ , thus it is not enqueued in Step 2. Because of the condition in line 24, it is not enqueued in Step 3 either. Therefore v is not processed by the algorithm.

**Lemma A.6** Given a graph G, an SPT  $T_s$ , and input edge changes  $\varepsilon^-$ , DynDijkDec processes v if and only if v is locally-affected.

**Proof** By Lemma 4.2, the set of locally-affected vertices is exactly the set of vertices the distance of which are changed with the update.

"If' If  $d'_v < d_v$ , then there is an affected-mini-root in the path  $SP'_v$ . Step 1 guarantees all affected-mini-roots are enqueued. Lines 14 to 20 guarantee v will eventually be enqueued and processed since v is reachable from an enqueued affected-mini-root.

"Only if" By line 4 and line 16, all enqueued and processed vertices have their distances decreased. Thus all processed vertices are locally-affected.

**Theorem A.7** DynDijkstra terminates after finite k iterations.

**Proof** According to Lemmas A.5 and A.6, only locally-affected vertices will be processed by DynDijkstra. There are at most  $|V(T_s)| - 1$  locally-affected vertices caused by the input modified edges. In other words, the worst case is that all vertices in  $T_s$ , except the source, are locally-affected. According to lines 18 in DynDijkInc and 10 in DynDijkDec, in each iteration exactly one vertex is processed. Based on Lemma A.4, all processed vertices are distinct. Thus, DynDijkstra will terminate after a finite k iterations, where  $k \leq |V(T_s)| - 1$ .

At any instant of DynDijkstra's execution, we say vertex v's distance is finalized (or simply v is finalized) if it is not-locally-affected, or if it is locally-affected and has already been consolidated by DynDijkstra. In general, let  $v \in V$  and  $q \in p(v)$ ;  $d_q + w(q, v)$  is denoted as the distance of v induced by q. Now we prove that the finalized distances of all locally-affected vertices are optimal.

**Theorem A.8** In DynDijkstra, at the end of each iteration, all consolidated vertices are assigned with optimal distances.

**Proof** We prove the theorem by induction on the number i of iterations. We want to prove that, if at the beginning of  $i^{th}$  iteration, where  $i \geq 1$ , the inductive hypothesis holds, then it is also true at the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration.

At the beginning of the first iteration, no vertices are consolidated in both DynDijkInc and DynDijkDec. Thus, the inductive hypothesis holds trivially before the first iteration begins.

We now prove that, if at the beginning of any  $i^{th}$  iteration, where  $i \ge 1$ , the inductive hypothesis holds, then at the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration, all vertices consolidated are also given the optimal distances. We want to

prove that if  $y_i$  is extracted in  $i^{th}$  iteration (in line 18 in DynDijkInc or line 10 in DynDijkDec), then it gets its optimal distance at the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration.

Suppose in G', a path  $P'_{sy_i}$  has a shorter distance than  $\widehat{d}_{y_i}$ , which is computed by DynDijkstra. Let z be the first vertex along  $P'_{sy_i}$  such that z is locally-affected but not consolidated before the current iteration begins, and let x be z's shortest path parent on  $P'_{sy_i}$ . Vertex z guarantees to exist since  $y_i$  is locally-affected but not consolidated before the current iteration begins. We want to show that, before the iteration begins, z is an enqueued vertex with a candidate distance induced by x.

There are two possible cases for x: Case (1): x is not-locally-affected. In the increase case, z is an enqueued boundary vertex in Step 2 of DynDijkInc. In the decrease case, the edge (x, z) must be a modified edge and z is an affected head. Thus z is enqueued with a candidate distance induced by x. Case (2): x is locally-affected. By assumption on z, x is extracted and consolidated in some previous iteration. Therefore x is assigned with its optimal distance before the current iteration begins. Before the relaxation of x, z is either not in the queue, or if it is in the queue, then the induced distance cannot be smaller than the one induced by x. In either case, after the relaxation of x, z is enqueued with a candidate distance induced by x.

Now we are ready to show that  $\widehat{d_{y_i}}$  is the optimal distance for  $y_i$ . According to our assumption that  $P'_{sy_i}$  has a shorter distance,  $\widehat{d_z} < \widehat{d_{y_i}}$  stands. However,  $\widehat{d_{y_i}}$  is minimum among all enqueued boundary vertices,  $\widehat{d_z} \ge \widehat{d_{y_i}}$  must stand. A contradiction. Therefore,  $\widehat{d_{y_i}}$  is the optimal distance for  $y_i$ .

Thus we can conclude Theorem A.8 is correct.

**Lemma A.9** DynDijkstra maintains tree edges correctly.

**Proof** According to Lemmas A.5 and A.6, DynDijkstra only processes locally-affected vertices. Since Dyn-Dijkstra only updates the shortest path parent of processed vertex, the tree edges headed at not-locally-affected vertices remain unchanged. Thus it suffices to prove that, each locally-affected vertex v gets its correct shortest path parent when it is consolidated.

According to lines 14 and 26 in DynDijkInc, lines 6 and 18 in DynDijkDec, the parent p that induces v's current tentative distance is always enqueued with v. At line 18 in DynDijkInc and 10 in DynDijkDec, v is extracted with parent p. The next three lines make sure v's shortest path parent is correctly set to p. According to Lemma A.3 and Theorem A.8, p is always consolidated before v, and when v is consolidated, both p and v are with optimal distances. Therefore, the correctness of Lemma A.9 follows.

Corollary A.10 Let  $T_s$  be a valid SPT rooted at vertex s in graph G. The graph G is modified into G' by a set of edge weight increases or decreases. Algorithm DynDijkstra computes a new valid SPT  $T'_s$  rooted at s in graph G'.

**Proof** According to Lemmas A.2, A.5 and A.6, not-locally-affected vertices keep their optimal distances. For locally-affected vertices, the correctness follows from Lemmas A.5, A.6, Theorems A.7 and A.8. For tree

edges, the correctness follows from Lemma A.9. Therefore, we conclude the correctness of Corollary A.10.

## $A.2 \quad MBall String Inc$

The main part of MBallStringInc contains iterations. Each iteration consolidates a set of locally-affected vertices. We use inductive reasoning to prove that, at the end of k iterations ( $k \ge 0$ ), all vertices, whose statuses are set to closed, get their final optimal shortest distances. Again, we break the proof into two cases: one with and the other without iterations.

**Lemma A.11** If MBallStringInc runs no iteration,  $\forall v \in V(T'_s)$ ,  $\widehat{d}_v$  is optimal.

**Proof** If MBallStringInc runs no iteration, no entry is enqueued in Step 2. If  $\bar{N}$  is empty at the end of Step 1, then no modified edges were tree edges in  $T_s$ . Thus, all vertices are unaffected, keeping their optimal distances. If  $\bar{N}$  is non-empty, by Proposition A.1, the queue is non-empty and the algorithm executes at least once. Therefore, if MBallStringInc runs no iteration, all vertices must be unaffected and keep their optimal distances.

**Lemma A.12** In an SPT  $T_s$  rooted at vertex s in graph G, let u and v be two vertices that are not s, suppose  $d_u \ge d_v$ , then  $d_{vu} \ge d_u - d_v$ .<sup>20</sup>

**Proof** It is trivially proven by triangle inequality.

**Lemma A.13** In any iteration of MBallStringInc, if  $\delta_{old}$  is the  $\delta$  extracted in line 20 and  $\delta_{new}$  is any  $\delta$  enqueued in line 36, then  $\delta_{old} \leq \delta_{new}$ .

**Proof** Let e be any edge examined in line 32 such that y = t(e), x = h(e) and status(x) = open. According to MBallStringInc, the distance of y is updated in line 26, and a newdist is computed for x in line 34. To facilitate the present discussion, we denote the shortest distance of y before line 26 as  $d_y^{old}$  and after line 26 as  $d_y^{old}$ ; we also denote the shortest distance of x before line 34 as  $d_x^{old}$ .

In  $T_s$  of G, we have  $d_y + w(y, x) \ge d_x$  (1). According to the algorithm, the shortest distance of an open vertex is updated only in line 26, and its status is set to closed right after that in line 27. Since both y and x are open before line 26 in this iteration, inequality (1) can also be stated as  $d_y^{old} + w(y, x) \ge d_x^{old}$  (2). After line 26, the shortest distance of y is set to  $d_y^{new}$ . Therefore, according to line 34,  $d_y^{new} + w(y, x)' = new dist$  (3). By combining (2) and (3), we obtain  $d_y^{new} - d_y^{old} + w(y, x)' - w(y, x) \le new dist - d_x^{old}$  (4). According to line 26,  $d_y^{new} - d_y^{old}$  is actually  $\delta_{old}$ , and, according to line 35,  $new dist - d_x^{old}$  is actually  $\delta_{new}$ . Therefore, inequality (4) is in fact  $\delta_{old} + w(y, x)' - w(y, x) \le \delta_{new}$  (5). At the same time, since all input edge changes are increases, we have  $w(y, x)' - w(y, x) \ge 0$ . Thus, (5) turns out to be  $\delta_{old} \le \delta_{new}$ .

 $<sup>^{20}</sup>d_{vu}$  refers to the shortest distance from v to u in G.

**Lemma A.14** If MBallStringInc runs k iterations, where  $k \geq 1$ , the extracted  $\delta$ 's follow a non-decreasing order.

**Proof** According to line 20 of MBallStringInc, the minimum  $\delta$  in priority queue is extracted in each iteration. Therefore, the non-decreasing order follows from repeated applications of Lemma A.13.

**Lemma A.15** During the  $i^{th}$  iteration,  $i \ge 1$ , in line 24 and at the end of the iteration, the structure  $\widehat{T}_s$  is a forest.

**Proof** After Step 2 is executed,  $\widehat{T}_s$  is a forest since it is obtained from  $T_s$  by removing some tree edges. During an iteration of Step 3, the only place that changes the parent-child relationship in a tree in  $\widehat{T}_s$  is in lines 21 to 23. It assigns a new parent to a subtree of a tree in the forest. Thus the Lemma follows.

**Lemma A.16** At the end of the  $i^{th}$  iteration,  $i \geq 1$ , and given any open vertex v,  $des(\widehat{T}_s, v)$  is a subset of the initially open vertices in Step 2. Moreover, all vertices in  $des(\widehat{T}_s, v)$  are open.

**Proof** We prove this by induction on i. Before the first iteration, the inductive hypothesis holds simply by the Lemma 4.1. Assume the hypothesis holds before the  $i^{th}$  iteration, we want to show that it is true after the  $i^{th}$  iteration, where  $i \geq 1$ .

In the  $i^{th}$  iteration, let vertex  $y_i$  be extracted in line 20. By lines 12 and 33,  $y_i$  is open. By the inductive hypothesis, the set  $N_i = des(\widehat{T_s}, y_i)$  of vertices returned in line 24 are all open. From line 27, all vertices in  $N_i$  become closed. By lines 21 and 23, the subtree rooted at  $y_i$  is connected to a closed vertex. At the the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration, if there exists an open vertex u such that  $des(\widehat{T_s}, u)$  contains some closed vertex c, then, by the inductive hypothesis, the vertex c must be in  $N_i$ . A contradiction to Lemma A.15 that  $\widehat{T_s}$  at the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration is a set of disjoint trees. Thus, vertices in  $des(\widehat{T_s}, u)$  are all open at the end of the  $i^{th}$  iteration. Since no vertex is set to open after Step 2,  $des(\widehat{T_s}, u)$  is a subset of the initially open vertices. Therefore, the inductive hypothesis holds after the  $i^{th}$  iteration.

**Lemma A.17** MBallStringInc processes v if and only if v is locally-affected.

**Proof** According to Steps 1 and 2 of *MBallStringInc*, the set of locally-affected vertices is exactly the set of vertices with status set to *open*. During the execution of the algorithm, no vertex has its status set to *open*. Thus it is equivalent to proving that the set of processed vertices is exactly the set of *open* vertices.

"If" We want to show that if a vertex is open, then it will be consolidated and closed eventually. Consider the set of initially open vertices before Step 3 begins. Let v be an open vertex. Consider the path  $SP_v$  in  $T_s$ . Since v is open, there is some open vertex u in the path  $SP_v$  which is a boundary vertex and is enqueued in the priority queue before Step 3 starts executing. Moreover, all vertices in the sub-path  $SP_{uv}$  are open. We want to show that, after the execution of an iteration, either v is closed or there is some ancestor vertex of v in  $SP_{uv}$  is enqueued. We prove this by induction on the number of iterations. Because of the existence of u,

the inductive hypothesis holds before the execution of the first iteration. Suppose the inductive hypothesis holds before the  $i^{th}$  iteration, we want to show that it is true after the execution of the  $i^{th}$  iteration,  $\forall i \geq 1$ . Consider the execution of an iteration, there are two cases to be considered:

Case (1): Some enqueued ancestor vertex w of v in the sub-path  $SP_{uv}$  is extracted and processed. By lines 24-31, a subtree rooted at w is consolidated and all vertices in the subtree are *closed*. Since v is a descendant of w, v is *processed* and *closed* in the iteration.

Case (2): No vertex in  $SP_{uv}$  is processed. In this case, none or some of the vertices in the path  $SP_{uv}$  are enqueued during the iteration. In any case, the inductive hypothesis holds trivially after the iteration.

In sum, if the inductive hypothesis holds before  $i^{th}$  iteration, then after the execution of  $i^{th}$  iteration, either v is closed or some ancestor vertex in the sub-path  $SP_{uv}$  is enqueued.

Since only open vertices are enqueued and at least one open vertex is closed in an iteration, v will eventually be consolidated and closed in an iteration.

"Only if" By Lemma A.16, the set of vertices returned in line 24 are all *open* vertices. Thus only initially *open* vertices are processed and *closed*. Since the set of *open* vertices is the set of locally-affected vertices, all processed and *closed* vertices are locally-affected.

**Lemma A.18** If MBallStringInc runs k iterations, where  $k \ge 1$ , let  $N_1, N_2, ..., N_k$  be the sequence of sets of vertices processed over iterations in line 24, then  $\forall i \ne j$ , where  $1 \le i, j \le k$ ,  $N_i \cap N_j = \emptyset$ .

**Proof** By Lemma A.16, each  $N_i$  is a subset of the initial set of *open* vertices. Since once a vertex is set to *closed*, it is not *open* again. By Lemma A.16, the Lemma follows.

**Lemma A.19** MBallStringInc terminates after finite k iterations.

**Proof** By Lemma A.17, MBallStringInc only processes locally-affected vertices. There are at most  $|V(T_s)|-1$  locally-affected vertices caused by the input modified edges. In other words, the worst case is all vertices in  $T_s$  except for the source are locally-affected. According to line 24, in each iteration, at least one *open* vertex is selected into N and is consolidated, and from Lemma A.18, no locally-affected vertex will be processed more than once. Therefore at most  $|V(T_s)|-1$  iterations will be processed.

Now we prove MBallStringInc correctly updates the distances of all locally-affected vertices after k iterations, where  $k \geq 1$ .

**Theorem A.20** If MBallStringInc runs k iterations, where  $k \geq 1$ , at the end of each iteration, all closed vertices get their optimal distances, and all boundary vertices are enqueued in Q with the candidate distances.

**Proof** We want to prove that if at the beginning of  $i^{th}$  iteration, where  $1 \le i \le k$ , the inductive hypothesis holds, that is,

- (1) all consolidated vertices get their final optimal shortest distances; and
- (2) all boundary vertices are enqueued with their candidate distances, then at the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration, the inductive hypothesis also holds.

In Step 1, MBallStringInc selects all locally-affected vertices into  $\bar{N}$ . In Step 2, MBallStringInc marks all locally-affected vertices to open, therefore closed vertices are not-locally-affected vertices, which are with their optimal distances. Also, in Step 2, MBallStringInc computes a minimum distance newdist for each affected vertex a based on a's parents: if a is a boundary vertex,  $newdist < \infty$  must stand, thus a must be enqueued. Therefore, before the first iteration, all closed vertices are with their optimal distances, and all boundary vertices are enqueued.

Next, we want to show that the inductive hypothesis holds after the  $i^{th}$  iteration, assuming that the hypothesis holds before the iteration. Firstly, we want to prove the distance optimality of the consolidated set of vertices in the  $i^{th}$  iteration.

At the beginning of  $i^{th}$  iteration, all boundary vertices are enqueued with their candidate distances. Then in line 20, the entry  $\langle y, x, \langle \delta, newdist \rangle \rangle$  of boundary vertex y with the least  $\delta$  is extracted. In lines 21-23, y's shortest path parent is set to x. In line 24, vertices returned by  $des(\widehat{T}_s, y)$  are selected into N. In lines 26-27, vertices in N get their shortest distances incremented by  $\delta$  and get their status set to closed. Now we prove that their distances are optimal.

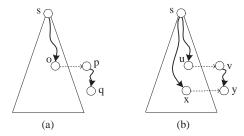


Figure 17: The illustration of possible shortest paths. (a) Any possible shortest path  $SP'_q$  in G' is a shortest path  $SP'_o$  located so far, concatenated with a boundary edge (o,p) that is again concatenated with a shortest path  $SP'_{pq}$ ; (b) Suppose y is the vertex with the minimum  $\delta$  in Q, and its candidate shortest path parent is x, we are going to argue that the shortest path  $s \rightharpoonup x \rightharpoonup y$  is not longer than any other possible path  $s \rightharpoonup u \rightharpoonup v \rightharpoonup y$ .

As shown in Figure 17(a), at any instant of MBallStringInc, for any remaining open vertex q, the optimal shortest path from s in G' must contain three consecutive parts: the shortest path from s to some vertex o closed so far:  $SP'_{so}$ ; a boundary edge (o, p); the shortest path from p to q in G':  $SP'_{pq}$ . Among them, both the first and the third parts may be a single vertex.

In Figure 17(b), y is the vertex to be extracted, which means that, among all *open* vertices directly connected to *closed* vertices, edge (x, y) provides the minimum  $\delta$ . By the inductive hypothesis, the *closed* vertex x has already got its optimal distance,  $\widehat{d}_x$  equals  $d'_x$ . After y is extracted, its shortest distance is

updated to  $d'_x + w(x, y)$ . Now we prove by contradiction that this distance is y's optimal distance.

Let SP stand for the shortest path from s to y that is computed by MBallStringInc. Assume some other path  $SP^*$  is shorter than SP. As shown in Figure 17(b), let  $SP^*$  be composed by a shortest path from s to another closed vertex u, a boundary edge (u,v), and a shortest path from v to y. As we assume that  $SP^*$  is shorter than P, we have  $d'_u + w(u,v) + d'_{vy} < d'_x + w(x,y)$  (1). Since all input edge changes are increases, the shortest distance between any two vertices in G' could only be increased, thus  $d'_{vy} \ge d_{vy}$  (2). By combining (1) and (2), we get  $d'_u + w(u,v) + d_{vy} < d'_x + w(x,y)$  (3). Meanwhile according to Lemma A.12,  $d_{vy} \ge d_y - d_v$  (4). By combining (3) and (4), we get  $d'_u + w(u,v) + d_y - d_v < d'_x + w(x,y)$ , which leads to  $d'_u + w(u,v) - d_v < d'_x + w(x,y) - d_y$  (5). According to MBallStringInc, an open vertex's distance is updated only in line 26, and right after that its status is set back to closed in line 27. Since v and y are still open, their distances have not been updated yet. Therefore according to the definition of  $\delta$ , inequality (5) is actually  $\delta_v < \delta_y$ . However we know  $\delta_v \ge \delta_y$  because y is extracted before v. A contradiction. Thus, no other path from s to y is shorter than P located by algorithm MBallStringInc.

Now we prove that, besides y, other consolidated vertices w also get their optimal shortest distances. See Figure 18 for the explanation. Basically, we apply the same strategy here.

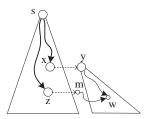


Figure 18: The illustration of possible shortest paths for other consolidated vertices. Legend: the triangle with s on the top stands for the subtree rooted at s that is consolidated so far; the triangle with y on the top stands for the set of vertices returned by  $des(\widehat{T}_s, y)$ .

For any vertex w in N returned by  $des(\widehat{T}_s, y)$  in line 24, MBallStringInc updates its shortest distance to  $\widehat{d_w} + \delta_y$ , which is  $\widehat{d_w} + d'_x + w(x,y) - \widehat{d_y}$ ; and locates the corresponding path SP as the shortest path from s to w. Suppose there is a path  $SP^*$  from s to w that is shorter than SP. Based on the same argument as before, let  $SP^*$  be composed of the shortest path from s to a closed vertex s, a boundary edge s, and the shortest path from s to s assumed, s, and the shortest path from s to s, as assumed, s, and s, and the shortest path from s to s, as assumed, s, and s, and s, and s, and the shortest path from s, as assumed, s, and s, and s, and s, and s, as assumed, s, and s, are also as a sum of s, and s, and s, and s, are also as s, and s, are also as s, and s, are also as s, and s, and s, are also as s, and are also as s, and are also as s, are also as s, and are also as s, and are also as s, are also as s, are also as s, and are also as s, are also as s, and are also as s, and are also as s, are also as s, and are also as s, and are also as s, and are also as s, are also as s, and are also

In lines 32-38 of  $i^{th}$  iteration, MBallStringInc relaxes consolidated vertices. If any new boundary vertices are induced, they will be located and their candidate paths will be computed in this step. Also, if better candidate paths are induced, the information will be updated. Therefore, all boundary vertices will be enqueued with a candidate distance at the end of  $i^{th}$  iteration. We conclude that the inductive hypothesis holds after the  $i^{th}$  iteration. Therefore, Theorem A.20 stands.

#### **Lemma A.21** MBallStringInc maintains tree edges correctly.

**Proof** According to Lemma A.17, MBallStringInc only processes locally-affected vertices. Since MBallStringInc only updates the shortest path parent of a processed vertex, the tree edges headed at not-locally-affected vertices remain unchanged. For locally-affected vertices, MBallStringInc conducts branch consolidation. In each branch, all vertices' distances are updated by the same amount, therefore, tree edges in each branch remain unchanged. The root of each branch (except for the branch containing the root s) is connected to another branch by a tree edge in  $T'_s$ . Accordingly to lines 16 and 36, when a root v is enqueued, its candidate parent p is also enqueued. At line 20, v is extracted with parent p. The next three lines make sure that v's shortest path parent is correctly set to p. Therefore, MBallStringInc maintains all tree edges correctly.

Corollary A.22 Let  $T_s$  be a valid SPT rooted at vertex s in graph G. The graph G is modified into G' by a set of edge weight increases. Algorithm MBallStringInc computes a new valid SPT  $T'_s$  rooted at s in G'.

**Proof** According to Lemma A.17, not-locally-affected vertices keep their optimal distances. For locally-affected vertices, the correctness follows from Lemmas A.19 and A.11, and Theorem A.20. For tree edges, the correctness follows Lemma A.21. Therefore, we conclude the correctness of Corollary A.22.