## Discrete Mathematical Models

Lecture 25

Kane Townsend Semester 2, 2024

# D2: Weighted Graphs

#### References

## D2. Weighted Graphs

Text Reference (Epp) 3ed: Chapter 11

4ed: Chapter 10

5ed: Chapter 10

Some of the work is not covered in Epp.

but is based on some examples from:

Kolman, Busby & Ross Discrete Mathematical Structures

Johnsonbaugh Discrete Mathematics

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  - Fibre telecommunications: Vertices are primary routing stations; there are edges between every pair of vertices (a complete graph); weights are the costs of laying fibre between stations.
  - The internet: Vertices are internet nodes; edges are all direct connections between nodes; weights are times (in milliseconds) for a packet to travel across a connection.

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We will also look at a different kind of problem on a weighted **directed** graph: Maximal Flow. Details later.

# Minimal Spanning Tree

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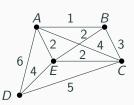
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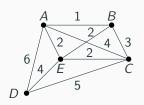
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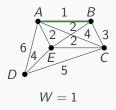
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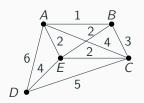
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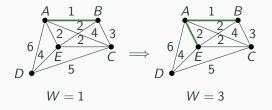
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- 4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until T has n-1 edges.

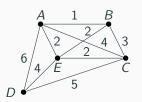


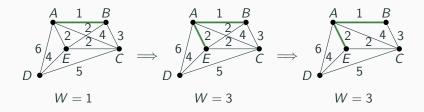


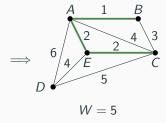


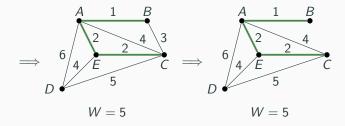


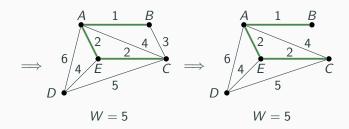


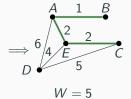




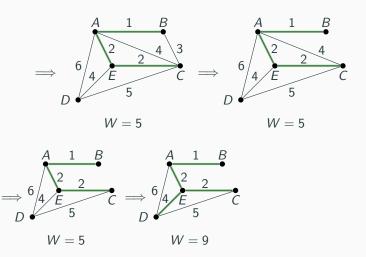


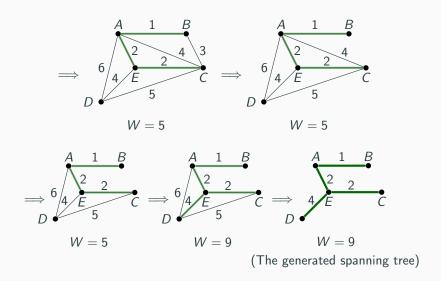






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- Kruskal's algorithm always succeeds! (Non-obvious theorem omitted)
   That is, it always finds a minimal spanning tree, given any weighted connected (finite) graph.

'Nearest neighbour' algorithm

## The 'Travelling salesman' problem

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- The salesman needs to visit *n* towns on a shortest possible circuit.
- Given: a table of distances between every pair of towns.
- **Model:** Graph  $K_n$  with towns as vertices and edges weighted by the the inter-town distances.

Find a Hamilton circuit of minimum possible total weight.

**Input:** Weighted complete graph G with n vertices.

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  - 6. Add weight(L(n), L(1)) to W. Append L(1) to L as L(n+1).

 The Nearest Neighbour algorithm is another example of a greedy algorithm because at each step it looks for the 'best way out', ignoring any possible disadvantages later on.

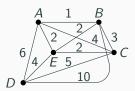
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- But the Nearest Neighbour algorithm often fails to find the shortest Hamilton circuit.
- Greed doesn't always pay !!
- In fact, no efficient successful algorithm for the travelling salesman problem is known at this time. Finding one, or proving that none exists, is a major outstanding problem in mathematics.

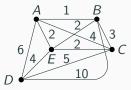
Find a minimal Hamilton circuit for this weighted graph:

**Note:** This graph is as for the minimal spanning tree example but with the addition of an edge *BD* to make it complete.

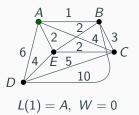


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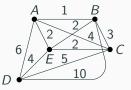


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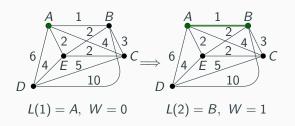


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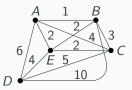


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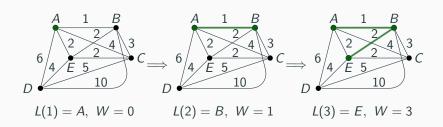


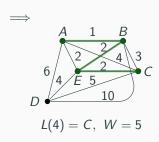
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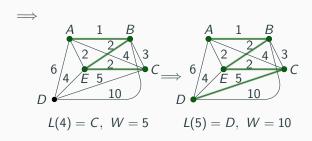
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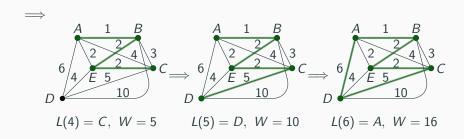


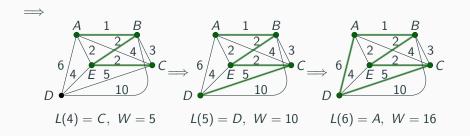
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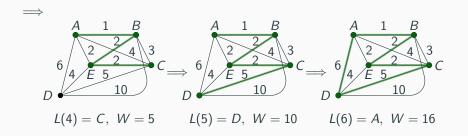








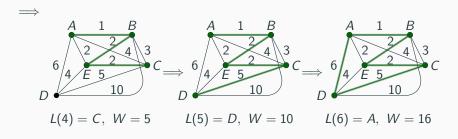
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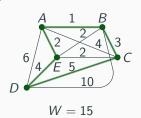


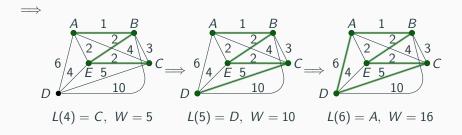
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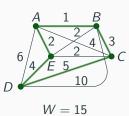
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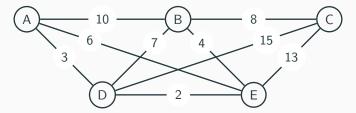
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Note that Nearest Neighbour may generate this circuit if we start at D instead of A. Then L(2) = E and it just depends on the choice for L(3).

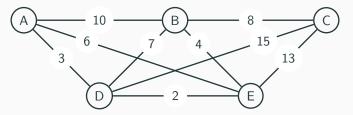


# **Shortest Path**

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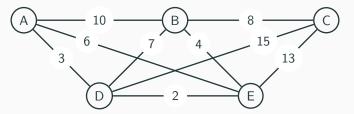


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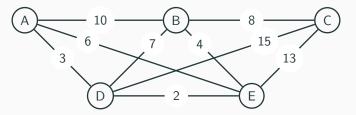
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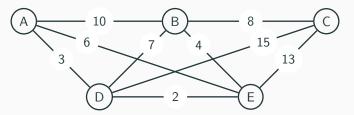


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For a small graph like this you can soon find a shortest path just by trying many alternatives (there are 10 or so simple  $A \rightarrow C$  paths here).

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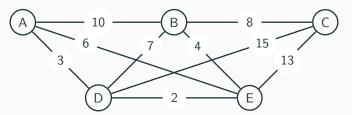
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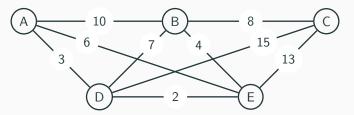
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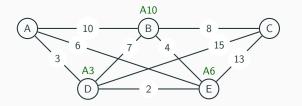
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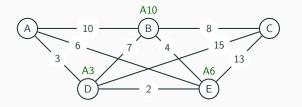
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For large graphs this approach is not practical. We need an algorithm.





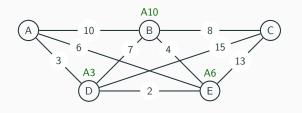
Edsger Dijkstra 1930 - 2002





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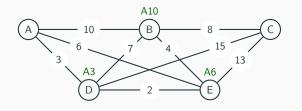




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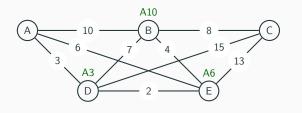


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# Dijkstra's Algorithm





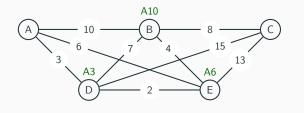
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Dijkstra's algorithm has some similarities to Kruskal's algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree but is a little more complicated.

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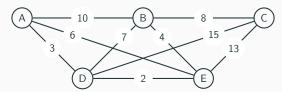
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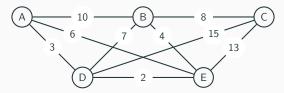
Dijkstra's algorithm has some similarities to Kruskal's algorithm for finding a minimum spanning tree but is a little more complicated.

We launch straight in to demonstrating the algorithm on the above example, then we describe the algorithm.

We seek a minimal weight path from A to C in the graph below.

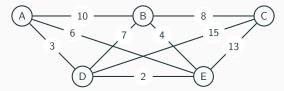


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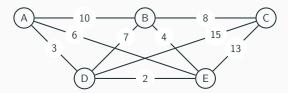
This will yield the minimal 'distance', via graph edges, of C from A.

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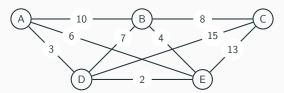
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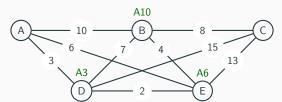
Label each vertex adjacent to A with its 'direct' distance from A:

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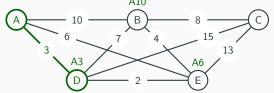
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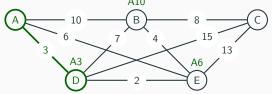


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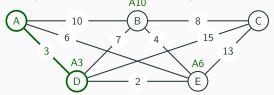


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We call vertex D the current vertex c.

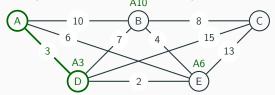
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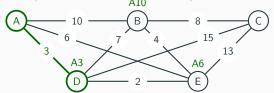


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There are always three possibilities, and all three occur here:

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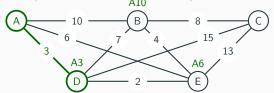
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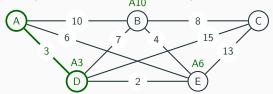
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Mark v with c and label with its distance from A via c.

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There are always three possibilities, and all three occur here:

Possibility 1: v is unmarked. e.g. Vertex C . Mark v with c and label with its distance from A via c. So we write D18 above C.

The distance to v via c is less than the distance currently shown. Remark with c and relabel with the shorter distance.

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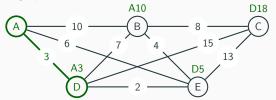
So we replace A6 above E with D5

#### Possibility 3: v needs no updating. e.g. Vertex B.

The distance to v via c is no less than the distance currently shown.

So we leave the A10 above B as it is.

The annotated graph now looks like this:



We now have three so-called 'fringe' vertices, B, C and E.

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Also lock in its marked lead-in edge. That's edge DE for us.

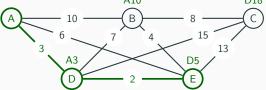
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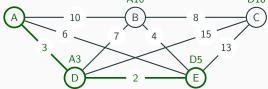
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The latest locked-in vertex E becomes the new current vertex.

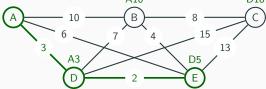
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We now repeat the process applied to the previous current vertex D.

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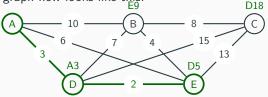
Vertex C does not need updating since 5 + 13 = 18, and C is already labelled 18.

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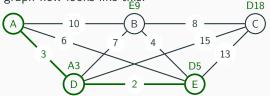
The updated graph now looks like this:



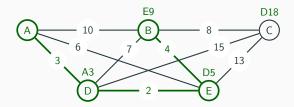
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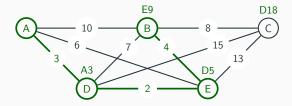
- Vertex B needs updating, since 5 + 4 = 9 < 10. So it is re-marked with E and re-labelled 9; *i.e.* A10 is replaced by E9.
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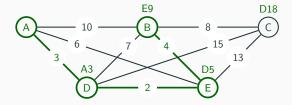


The lowest fringe value is now 9 on B, so we lock in B and its lead-in edge EB (next slide).



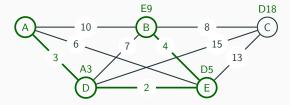


The new current vertex is the just locked-in B.



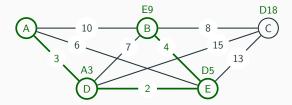
The new current vertex is the just locked-in B.

There is only one vertex adjacent to B that has not already been locked in, namely C.



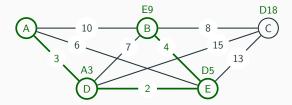
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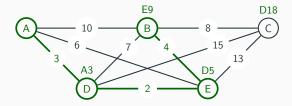
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Since vertex C is the only vertex in the fringe it has the lowest label by default. So C and its lead-in edge BC are locked in.

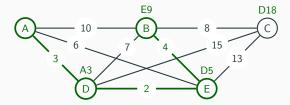


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We have now locked in the minimal distance 17 into our 'target' vertex C, so we can stop.

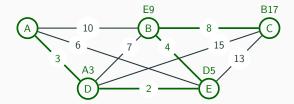


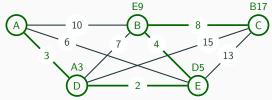
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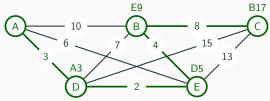
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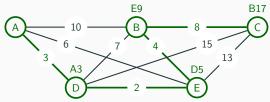
#### Some Observations:

 Besides the shortest path from A to C, the solution provides the shortest path to all the vertices along that path. For this example that happens to be the entire vertex set.



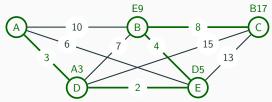
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- Since no vertex is locked twice, the locked edges form a tree. The required shortest path is the unique path on that tree from A to C.
- With all vertices locked, the solution provides a spanning tree for the graph.

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#### While $c \neq Z$ :

4. For each vertex v adjacent to c but not in T:

If 
$$v$$
 is unmarked (i.e.  $M(v) = blank$ )  
or if  $L(v) > L(c) + dist(\{c, v\})$   
set  $M(v) = c$ ,  $L(v) = L(c) + dist(\{c, v\})$ .

5. From all marked  $v \in G \setminus T$  (i.e.  $M(v) \neq blank$  and  $v \notin T$ ) (such v are said to be 'on the fringe') select one, say w, with minimal L(v).

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This completes the formal description of Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm. Make some example weighted graphs and apply the algorithm for practice!