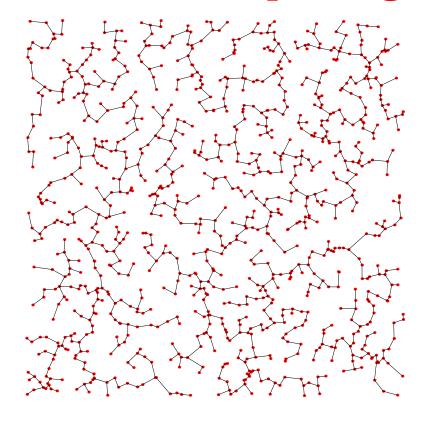
### **Further Mathematics and Algorithms**

### Lesson 18: Know Your Graph Algorithms

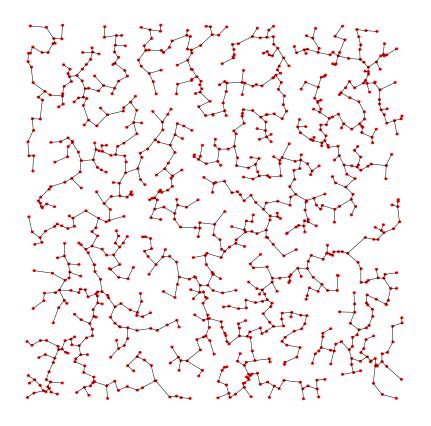


Weighted graph algorithms, Minimum spanning tree, Prim, Kruskal, shortest path, Dijkstra

### **Outline**

### 1. Minimum Spanning Tree

- 2. Prim's Algorithm
- 3. Kruskal's Algorithm
- 4. Union Find
- 5. Shortest Path

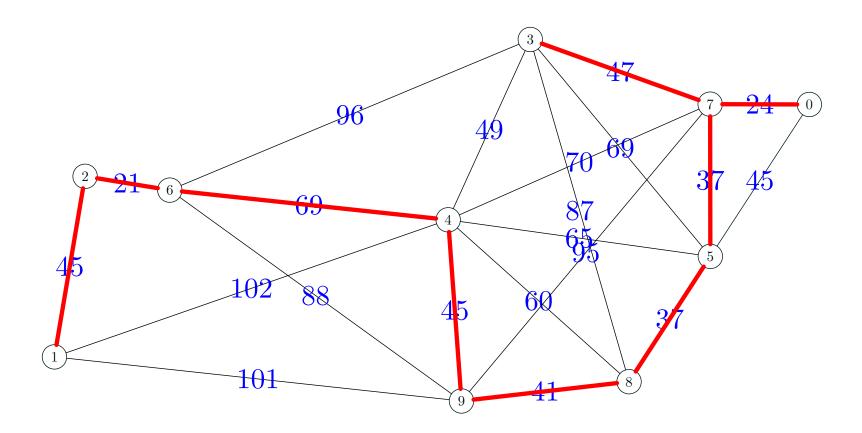


### **Graph Algorithms**

- We consider a graph algorithm to be **efficient** if it can solve a graph problem in  $O(n^a)$  time for some fixed a
- That is, an efficient algorithm runs in polynomial time.
- A problem is hard if there is no known efficient algorithm
- This does not mean the best we can do is to look through all possible solutions—see later lectures
- In this lecture we are going to look at some efficient graph algorithms for weighted graphs

## Minimum spanning tree

 A minimal spanning tree is the shortest tree which spans the entire graph

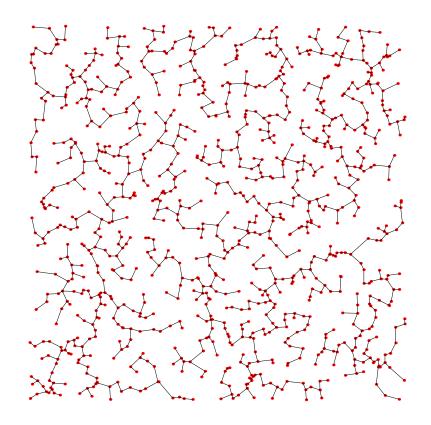


### **Greedy Strategy**

- We consider two algorithms for solving the problem
  - ★ Prim's algorithm (discovered 1957)
  - ★ Kruskal's algorithm (discovered 1956)
- Both algorithms use a greedy strategy
- Generally greedy strategies are not guaranteed to give globally optimal solutions
- There exists a class of problems with a matroid structure where greedy algorithms lead to globally optimal solutions
- Minimum spanning trees, Huffman codes and shortest path problems are matroids

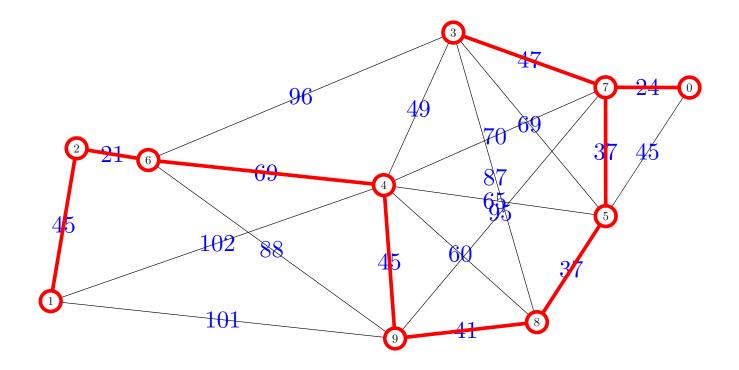
### **Outline**

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### **Prim's Algorithm**

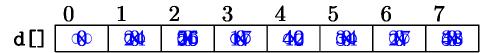
- Prim's algorithm grows a subtree greedily
- Start at an arbitrary node
- Add the shortest edge to a node not in the tree



#### Pseudo Code

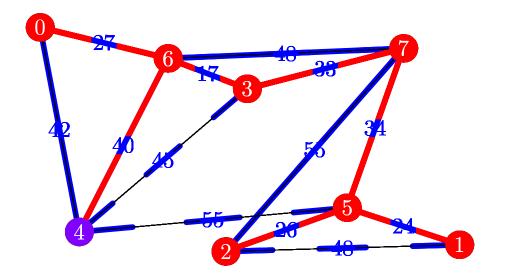
```
PRIM (G=(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{E},oldsymbol{w})) {
    for i \leftarrow 1 to |\mathcal{V}|
       d_i \leftarrow \infty \\ Minimum 'distance' to subtree
    endfor
   \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \emptyset \\ Set of edges in subtree
   PQ.initialise() \\ initialise an empty priority queue
    node \leftarrow v_1 \\ where v_1 \in \mathcal{V} is arbitrary
    for i\leftarrow 1 to |\mathcal{V}|-1
       d_{\text{node}} \leftarrow 0
       for \mathbf{k} \in \{v \in \mathcal{V} | (\mathtt{node}, v) \in \mathcal{E}\} \setminus \mathbf{k} is a neighbours of \mathtt{node}
           if ( w_{
m node,k} < d_{
m k} )
              d_k \leftarrow w_{\text{node},k}
              PQ.add( (d_k, (node, k)))
           endif
       endfor
       do
            (a\_node, next\_node) \leftarrow PQ.qetMin()
       until (d_{\text{next\_node}} > 0)
       \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_T \cup \{(a\_node, next\_node)\}
       node ←next node
    endfor
    return \mathcal{E}_T
}
```

### Prim's Algorithm in Detail



neighboddrædden (61,5 ) I tadkled I to PQ

node=8 PQ 
$$(42, (0,4))$$
 nearest node=8  $(55, (7,2))$   $(48, (6,7))$   $(55, (7,2))$   $(42, (0,4))$   $(48, (6,7))$ 



#### Finished MST

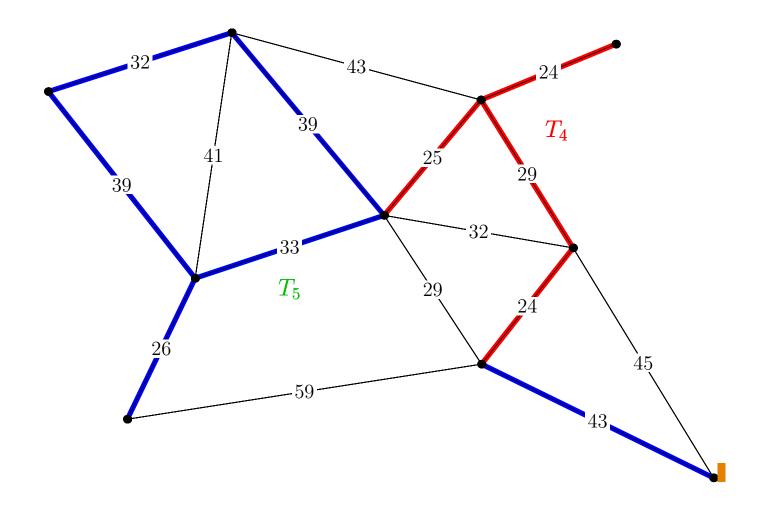
### Why Does This Work?

- Clearly Prim's algorithm produces a spanning tree!
  - ★ It is a tree because we always choose an edge to a node not in the tree!
  - $\star$  It is a spanning tree because it has  $|\mathcal{V}|-1$  edges
- Why is this a minimum spanning tree?
- Once again we look for a proof by induction

### **Proof by induction**

- We want to show that each subtree,  $T_i$ , for  $i=1,2,\cdots,n$  is part of (a subgraph) of some minimum spanning tree!
- In the base case,  $T_1$  consists of a tree with no edges, but this has to be part of the minimum spanning tree!
- To prove the inductive case we assume that  $T_i$  is part of the minimum spanning tree!
- We want to prove that  $T_{i+1}$  formed by adding the shortest edge is also part of the minimum spanning tree!
- We perform the proof by contradiction—we assume that this added edge isn't part of the minimum spanning tree!

# **Contrariwise**



### **Loop Counting**

```
PRIM (G=(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{E},oldsymbol{w})) {
    for i \leftarrow 0 to |\mathcal{V}|
        d_i \leftarrow \infty
    endfor
    \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \emptyset
    PO.initialise()
    node \leftarrow v_1
    for i \leftarrow 1 to |\mathcal{V}| - 1
                                                              // loop 1 O(|\mathcal{V}|)
        d_{node} \leftarrow 0
         for k \in \{v \in \mathcal{V} | (\text{node}, v) \in \mathcal{E}\} // inner loop O(|\mathcal{E}|/|\mathcal{V}|)
             if (w_{node,k} < d_k)
                 d_k \leftarrow w_{node,k}
                 PQ.add( (d_k, (node,k)) ) /\!/\,Oig(\log(|\mathcal{E}|)ig)
             endif
         endfor
         do
              (a\_node, next\_node) \leftarrow PQ.qetMin()
         until (d_{next,node} > 0)
         \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_T \cup \{(\text{node, next\_node})\}
         node ←next node
    endfor
    return \mathcal{E}_T
```

#### Run Time

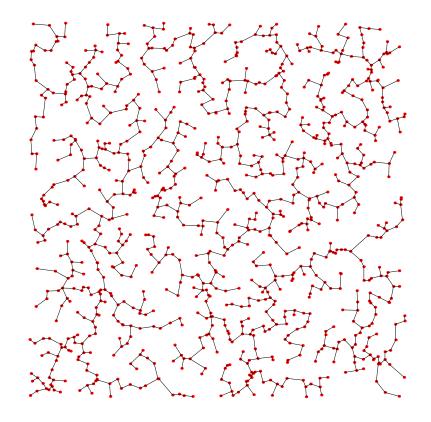
The worst time is

$$O(|\mathcal{V}|) \times O\left(\frac{|\mathcal{E}|}{|\mathcal{V}|}\right) \times O\left(\log(|\mathcal{E}|)\right) = O\left(|\mathcal{E}|\log(|\mathcal{E}|)\right)$$

- Note that  $|\mathcal{E}| < |\mathcal{V}|^2$
- Thus,  $\log(|\mathcal{E}|) < 2\log(|\mathcal{V}|) = O\left(\log(|\mathcal{V}|)\right)$
- Thus the worst case time complexity is  $|\mathcal{E}| \log(|\mathcal{V}|)$

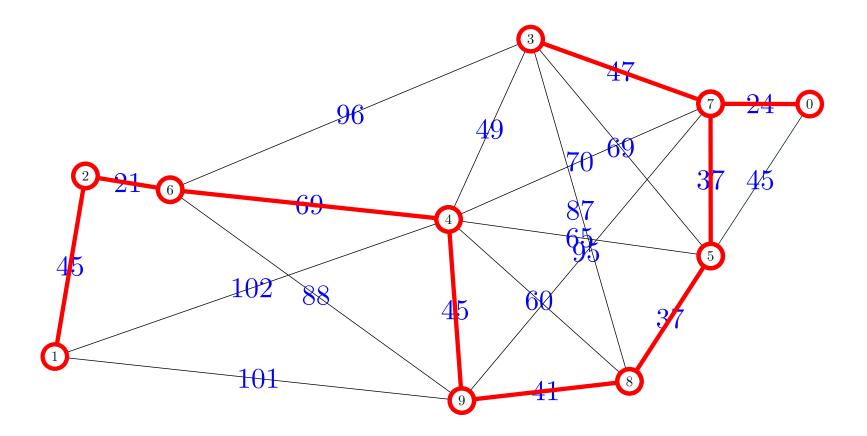
### **Outline**

- 1. Minimum Spanning Tree
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- 3. Kruskal's Algorithm
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### Kruskal's Algorithm

 Kruskal's algorithm works by choosing the shortest edges which don't form a loop!



#### Pseudo Code

```
KRUSKAL (G=(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{E},oldsymbol{w}))
    PQ.initialise()
    for edge \in |\mathcal{E}|
       PQ.add( (w_{edge}, edge) )
    endfor
   \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \emptyset
   noEdgesAccepted \leftarrow 0
   while (noEdgesAccepted < |\mathcal{V}| - 1)
       edge \leftarrowPQ.getMin()
       if \mathcal{E}_T \cup \{\text{edge}\} is acyclic
           \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_T \cup \{\text{edge}\}
           noEdgesAccepted ←noEdgesAccepted +1
       endif
    endwhile
    return \mathcal{E}_T
}
```

### **Analysis**

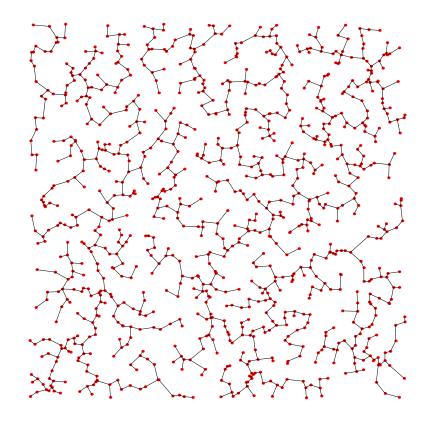
- Kruskal's algorithm looks much simpler than Prim's
- The sorting takes most of the time, thus Prim's algorithms is  $O(|\mathcal{E}|\log(|\mathcal{E}|)) = O(|\mathcal{E}|\log(|\mathcal{V}|))$ .
- We can sort the edges however we want—we could use quick sort rather than heap sort using a priority queue!
- But we haven't specified how we determine if the added edge would produce a cycle.

## **Cycling**

- For a path to be a cycle the edge has to join two nodes representing the same subtree!
- To compute this we need to quickly find which subtree a node has been assigned to
- Initially all nodes are assigned to a separate subtree!
- When two subtrees are combined by an edge we have to perform the union of the two subtrees
- This is a tricky but standard operation known as union-find

### **Outline**

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#### **Union-Find**

- In the union-find algorithm we have a set of objects  $x \in \mathcal{S}$  which are to be grouped into subsets  $\mathcal{S}_1, \mathcal{S}_2, \ldots$
- Initially each object is in its individual subset (no relationships)
- We want to make the union of two subsets (add relationship between elements)
- We also want to find the subset given an element
- This is a common problem for which we will write a class
   DisjointSets to perform fast unions and finds

### **DisjointSets**

We want to create a class

```
class DisjointSets
{
    DisjointSets(int numElements) { /* Constructor */}
    int find(int x) { /* Find root */}
    void union(int root1, int root2) { /* Union */}

    private:
        int[] s;
}
```

- Where find(x) returns a unique identifier for the subset which element x belongs to
- The array s contains labelling information to implement find(x)

#### The Union-Find Dilemma

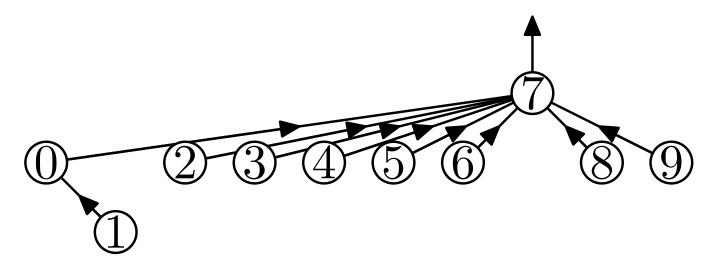
- A natural algorithm to perform finds is to maintain an array returning a subset label for each element—this makes find fast
- However, every time we combine two subset we have to change all the labels in this array (taking O(n) operations)
- If we are unlucky the cost of performing n unions is  $\Theta(n^2)$
- If we ensure that we relabel the smaller subset then the time complexity is  $\Theta(n\log(n))$
- Fast finds seems to give slow(ish) unions
- What about the other way around?

#### **Fast Union**

- To achieve fast unions we can represent our disjoint sets as a forest (many disjoint trees)
- Every time we perform a union we make one of the trees point to the head of the other tree!
- The cost of find depends on the depth of the tree!
- To make unions efficient we make the shallow tree a subtree of the deeper tree!

# **Putting it Together**

$$find(6)=7$$



7	0	7	7	7	7	7	-3	7	7
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

#### **Smart Union**

```
DisjointSets::DisjointSets(int numElements)
    s = new int[numElements];
    for (int i=0; i<s.length; i++)</pre>
        s[i] = -1;
                                      // roots are negative number
}
void DisjointSets::union(int root1, int root2)
{
    if (s[root2] < s[root1]) { // root2 is deeper
                          // make root2 the root
        s[root1] = root2;
    } else {
        if (s[root1]==s[root2])
                                      // update height if same
            s[root1]--;
                                      // make root1 new root
        s[root2] = root1;
}
                       -A
                                           -B
s[]
                       root1
                                            root2
```

### **Path Compression**

 To speed up find we relabel all nodes we visit during find by the root label

#### Mazes

- Union-Find is a data structure which can occur in very different applications
- One application is building a maze
- Start from a complete lattice
- Remove a randomly chosen edge if it connects two unconnected regions
- Stop when the start and end cell are connected
- Or better after all cells are connected

0	1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9
10	11	12	13	14
15	16	17	18	19
20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29
30	31	32	33	34
35	36	37	38	39
40	41	42	43	44
45	46	47	48	49

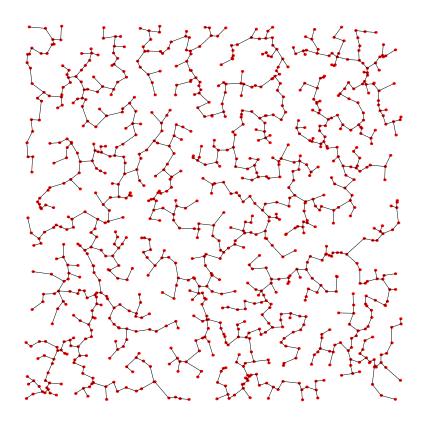
# Time Complexity of Union-Find

- If we perform M finds and N unions then the time complexity is  $O\big(M\log_2^*(N)\big)$  .
- Where  $\log_2^*(N)$  is the number of times you need to apply the logarithm function before you get a number less than 1
- In practice  $\log_2^*(N) \le 5$  for all conceivable N

The proof of this time complexity is rather involved

### **Outline**

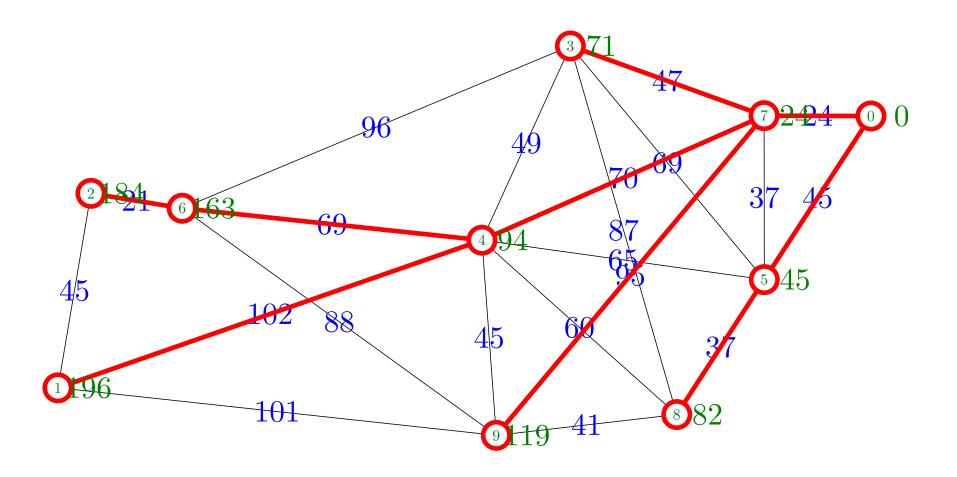
- 1. Minimum Spanning Tree
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### **Shortest path**

- We can efficiently compute the shortest path from one vertex to any other vertex
- This defines a spanning tree, but where the optimisation criteria is that we choose the vertex that are closest to the *source*!
- To find this spanning tree we use Dijkstra's algorithm where we successively add the nearest node to the source which is connected to the subtree built so far
- This is very close to Prim's algorithm and has the same complexity

# Dijkstra's Algorithm



### Pseudo Code

```
DIJKSTRA(G=(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{E},oldsymbol{w}), source) lacksquare
   for i \leftarrow 0 to |\mathcal{V}|
      d_i \leftarrow \infty \\ Minimum 'distance' to source
   endfor
   \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \emptyset \\ Set of edges in subtree
   PQ.initialise() \\ initialise an empty priority queue
   node ←source
   d_{node} \leftarrow 0
   for i \leftarrow 1 to |\mathcal{V}| - 1
       for k \in \{v \in \mathcal{V} | (\text{node}, v) \in \mathcal{E}\}
          if (w_{node,k} + d_{node} < d_k)
             d_k \leftarrow w_{node,k} + d_{node}
             PO.add( (d_k, (node, k)))
          endif
       endfor
       do
           (a\_node, next\_node) \leftarrow PQ.qetMin()
       while next node not in subtree
       \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_T \cup \{(a\_node, next\_node)\}
       node ←next node
   endfor
   return \mathcal{E}_T
}
```

Compare to Prim's Algorithm

```
PRIM (G=(\mathcal{V},\mathcal{E},oldsymbol{w})) {
    for i \leftarrow 1 to |\mathcal{V}|
       d_i \leftarrow \infty \\ Minimum 'distance' to subtree
   endfor
   \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \emptyset
                \\ Set of edges in subtree
   PQ.initialise() \\ initialise an empty priority queue
   node \leftarrow v_1 \\ where v_1 \in \mathcal{V} is arbitrary
    for i \leftarrow 1 to |\mathcal{V}| - 1
       d_{\text{node}} \leftarrow 0
       for k \in \{v \in \mathcal{V} | (\text{node}, v) \in \mathcal{E}\}
           if ( w_{
m node,k} < d_{
m k} )
              d_k \leftarrow w_{\text{node},k}
              PO.add( (d_k, (node, k)))
           endif
       endfor
       do
            (a\_node, next\_node) \leftarrow PQ.qetMin()
       until (d_{\text{next\_node}} > 0)
       \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_T \cup \{(a\_node, next\_node)\}
       node ←next node
   endfor
    return \mathcal{E}_T
```

### Dijkstra Details

- Dijkstra is very similar to Prim's (it differs in the distances that are used)
- It has the same time complexity
- It can be viewed as using a greedy strategy
- It can also be viewed as using the dynamic programming strategy (see lecture 22)

#### Lessons

- There are many efficient (i.e. polynomial  $O(n^a)$ ) graph algorithms
- Some of the most efficient ones are based on the Greedy strategy
- These are easily implemented using priority queues
- Minimum spanning trees are useful because they are easy to compute!
- Dijkstra's algorithm is one of the classics