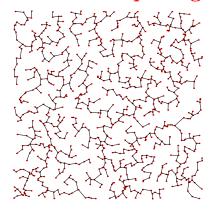
# **Further Mathematics and Algorithms**

#### Outline

# Lesson 18: Know Your Graph Algorithms



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

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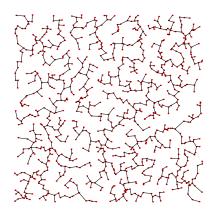
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# **Graph Algorithms**

- 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

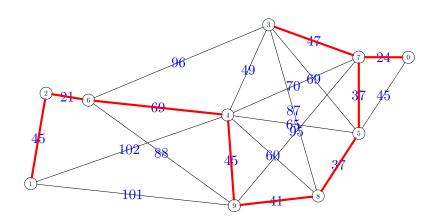
# 1. Minimum Spanning Tree

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



## Minimum spanning tree

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



# **Greedy Strategy**

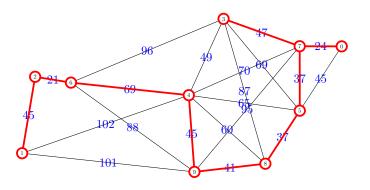
#### Outline

- 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

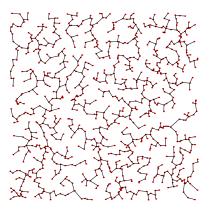
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# Prim's Algorithm

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



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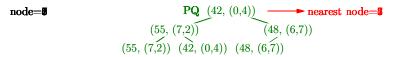
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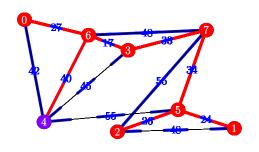
#### Pseudo Code

```
PRIM (G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \boldsymbol{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
                               \\ 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}\} \setminus k is a neighbours of node
           if ( w_{\text{node,k}} < d_{\text{k}} )
               d_k \leftarrow w_{\text{node},k}
               PQ.add( (d_k, (node, k)))
           endif
       endfor
           (a_node, next_node) ←PQ.getMin()
       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

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# **Proof by induction**

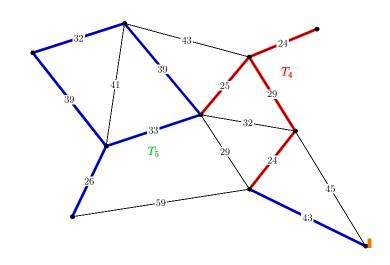
- We want to show that each subtree,  $T_i$ , for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  is part of (a subgraph) of some minimum spanning tree
- In the base case,  $T_1$  consists of a tree with no edges, but this has to be part of the minimum spanning tree!
- To prove the inductive case we assume that  $T_i$  is part 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!

# 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

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#### **Contrariwise**



# **Loop Counting**

```
PRIM (G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \boldsymbol{w})) {
    for i\leftarrow 0 to |\mathcal{V}|
        d_i \leftarrow \infty
    endfor
    \mathcal{E}_T \leftarrow \emptyset
    PQ.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))) // O(\log(|\mathcal{E}|))
            endif
        endfor
        do
             (a_node, next_node) ←PQ.getMin()
        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
```

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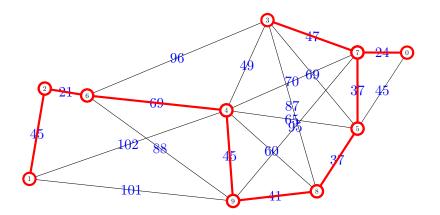
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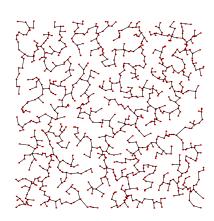
# Kruskal's Algorithm

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



#### **Outline**

- 1. Minimum Spanning Tree
- 2. Prim's Algorithm
- 3. Kruskal's Algorithm
- 4. Union Find
- 5. Shortest Path



Run Time

• The worst time is

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

- 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  $|\mathcal{E}| \log(|\mathcal{V}|)$

#### Pseudo Code

```
KRUSKAL (G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathbf{w}))
{
    PQ.initialise()
    for edge \in |\mathcal{E}|
        PQ.add( (w_{edge}, \text{ 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 \leftarrownoEdgesAccepted +1
    endif
    endwhile

return \mathcal{E}_T
}
```

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# **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

# **Analysis**

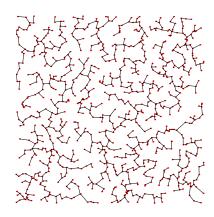
- Kruskal's algorithm looks much simpler than Prim's
- The sorting takes most of the time, thus Prim's algorithms is  $O(|\mathcal{E}|\log(|\mathcal{E}|)) = O(|\mathcal{E}|\log(|\mathcal{V}|))$
- We can sort the edges however we want—we could use quick sort rather than heap sort using a priority queue!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

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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  $S_1, S_2, \ldots$
- 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

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- 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!

# 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?

## **DisjointSets**

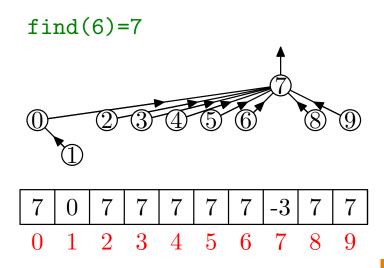
We want to create a class.

```
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)

#### **Fast Union**

#### **Putting it Together**



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# **Path Compression**

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

```
public int DisjointSets::find(int index)
{
    if (s[index]<0)
        return index;
    else
        return s[index] = find(s[index]);
}</pre>
```

#### **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]) {</pre>
                                        // root2 is deeper
                                        // make root2 the root
         s[root1] = root2;
    } else {
         if (s[root1] == s[root2])
             s[root1]--;
                                        // update height if same
         s[root2] = root1;
                                        // make root1 new root
}
ន[]
                                             |-B|
                                              root2
                        root1
```

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#### **Mazes**

- Union-Find is a data structure which can occur in very different applications
- One application is building a mazel
- 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
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```

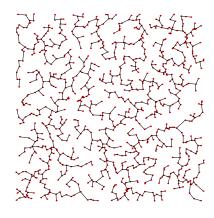
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# **Time Complexity of Union-Find**

Outline

- If we perform M finds and N unions then the time complexity is  $O(M \log_2^*(N))$
- Where  $\log_2^*(N)$  is the number of times you need to apply the logarithm function before you get a number less than 11
- In practice  $\log_2^*(N) \le 5$  for all conceivable N
- The proof of this time complexity is rather involved

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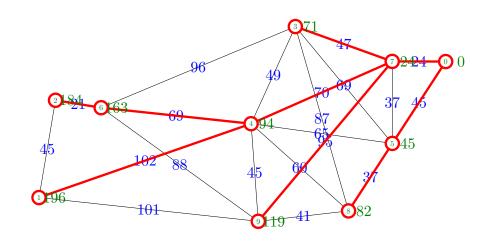
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#### **Shortest path**

- 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



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#### Pseudo Code

```
DIJKSTRA (G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \boldsymbol{w}), source)
   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
          (a_node, next_node) ←PQ.getMin()
      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
```

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## 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)

#### Compare to Prim's Algorithm

```
PRIM (G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \boldsymbol{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
                               \\ where v_1 \in \mathcal{V} is arbitrary
   node \leftarrow v_1
   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}
               PQ.add( (d_k, (node, k)))
       endfor
           (a_node, next_node) ←PQ.getMin()
       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
```

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

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- 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

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