Efficient algorithms and data structures

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Course

- What the course is:
- ▶ a selection of topics on the design and analysis of algorithms
- with emphasis on rigorous analysis (Ph.Flajolet: "mathematically oriented engineering")
- dealing with basic data structures (graphs, strings, trees, tables, ...)
- including programming assignments and in-class projects
- What the course is not:
- > a programming course
- a course oriented to a specific programming language (an imperative programming language is assumed, one of Python, C, C++, Java)
- > a course oriented to a specific application area
- a math course

Course

- Varying level of difficulty
- Prerequisites:
- imperative programming (C, C++, Java, ...)
- ▶ Basic data structures: lists, arrays, stacks, queues
- ▶ Recursion, Big-Oh notation
- ▶ Sorting, ...
- "Free-style" pseudo-code
- Having a laptop assumed

Grading

- participation in class 10%
- ▶ full attendance is expected
- in-class projects
- programming exercises 40%
- ▶ one every ~2 weeks
- plagiarism is not tolerated
- ▶ exam 50%

Useful books







CLRS = Cormen & Leiserson & Rivest & Stein

Some other good algorithm textbooks:

- Steven Skiena, The Algorithm Design Manual, 2nd Edition, Springer, 2008 [a bit advanced?]
- Jon Kleinberg and Éva Tardos, Algorithm Design, MIT Press 2005
- Robert Sedgewick and Kevin Wayne, Algorithms, Addison-Wesley, 4th Edition, 2011 [for beginners, Java-oriented]

How to measure the efficiency of algorithms?

- ▶ Efficiency (in this course) = TIME and SPACE
- other possible measure of efficiency: accuracy
- ▶ Classical model: RAM model of computation
 - > all memory accesses have equal cost
 - no parallel execution
 - unit cost (O(1)) of basic operations (unless we want to explicitly count individual bits operations)
 - space = # of computer words (unless bit complexity is considered); each computer word contains Θ(log n) bits
 - other possible measures can be considered: disk accesses, cache misses, probe model, query complexity ...

How to measure the efficiency of algorithms?

- Algorithms solve mass problems
- n: input size (in computer words or bits)
- ▶ time/space as a function of *n*
- ▶ Different complexity analyses:
- worst-case complexity
- average-case complexity
- smoothed analysis
- query (probe) complexity

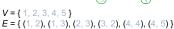
· ...

Graphs

Graphs

Directed graph G = (V, E) V finite set of nodes (vertices) $E \subseteq V \times V$ set of edges (arcs), i.e., a relation on V



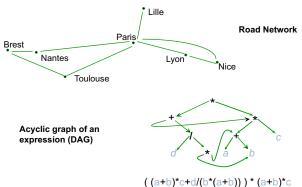


Undirected graph G = (V, E)
E set of edges (arcs),
symmetric relation

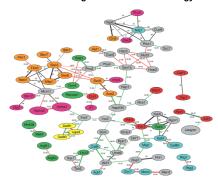


E = { 1, 2, 3, 4 } V = { {1, 2}, {1, 3}, {1, 4}, {2, 4} }

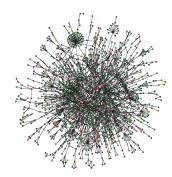
Graphs are everywhere



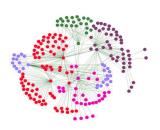
Gene regulation network in biology



Protein-protein interaction network (in yeast)



Social networks



Graph representations

$$G = (V, E)$$
 $V = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$

Adjacency list

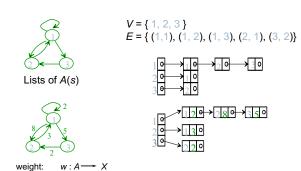
reduces the size if $|E| \ll (|V|)^2$ reading time : O(|V| + |E|)

Adjacency matrix

using matrix operations reading time $O(|V|)^2$

Other representations possible

Adjacency lists



Adjacency matrix



$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M[i, j] = 1$$
 iff j is adjacent to i



weight: $w: A \longrightarrow X$

Graph algorithms

▶ Exploration

- Depth-first or breadth-first search
- ▶ Topological sorting
- Strongly connected components

▶ Path computation

- ▶ Shortest path
- Transitive closure
- Eulerian and Hamiltonian paths

▶ Minimum spanning trees

Kruskal's and Prim's algorithms

Networks

Maximum flow

Others

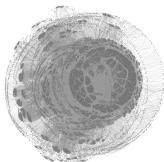
- Graph coloring
- Planarity testing
- **...**

Shortest paths in graphs

Single-source shortest path: unweighted case

- ▶ Path length = number of edges
- Distance between two nodes = length of the shortest path
- ▶ Problem: given a (directed or undirected) graph G = (V, E) and a source node $s \subseteq V$, compute the distance from s to each reachable node

Single-source shortest path: unweighted case



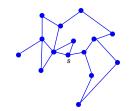
a subgraph (29,160 nodes) of the graph of Rubik's mini cube (2x2x2) configuraitons (3,674,160 nodes)

https://miscellaneouscoder.wordpress.com/2014/07/28/working-with-rubiks-group-cycle-graphs/

Breadth-first search (BFS)

Given a source node s.

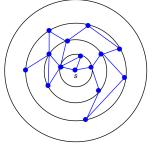
"Discovers" all nodes reachable from s



Breadth-first search (BFS)

Given a source node s.

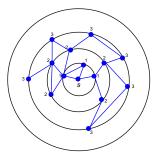
- "Discovers" all nodes reachable from s
- Proceeds by "concentric circles"
- Discovers all nodes at distance d from s before discovering any nodes at distance d+1



Breadth-first search (BFS)

Given a source node s.

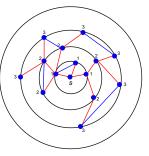
- "Discovers" all nodes reachable from s
- Proceeds by "concentric circles"
- Discovers all nodes at distance d from s before discovering any nodes at distance d+1
- Computes the distances from s
- Computes a breadth-first tree encoding one shortest path for each node



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- "Discovers" all nodes reachable from s
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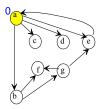
How it works?

- colors every node white (not yet discovered), yellow (discovered but may have white adjacent nodes), or red (discovered and all adjacent nodes discovered)
- yellow nodes = "active frontier" (nodes under processing)
- when processing a (yellow) node, determine all white neighbors, set their distance to be larger by 1, color them yellow. After that, color the node red.

Breadth-first search (BFS)

```
procedure BFT (s node of V);
begin
for each node v of V do {
       visited[v] = false ; //s is white
       d[v] = \infty; \pi(v) = nil
visited[s]=true; //s becomes yellow
d[s]=0;
Queue = enqueue (empty-queue, s);
while not empty (Queue) do {
      u = dequeue (Queue);
      for t = first to last successor of u do
             if not visited [t] then
                    visited[ t ]=true ; //t becomes yellow
                    d[t] = d[u] + 1; \pi(t) = u
                    Queue = enqueue (Queue, t);
       //s' becomes red
end
```

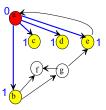
BFS: example



Queue : a

Order of traversal:

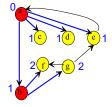
BFS: example



Queue: a b c d e

Order of traversal: a

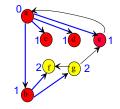
BFS: example



Queue: a b c d efg

Order of traversal: a b

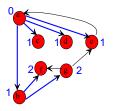
BFS: example



Queue: a b c d e f g

Order of traversal: a b c d e

BFS: example



Queue: a b c d efg

Order of traversal: a b c d e f g

Ouestions

- ▶ Show that BFS runs in time O(n+m) (assuming the graph is represented by adjacency lists), n=|V|, m=|E|
- ▶ Show that if $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_r)$ is the state of the Queue, then $d[v_i] \le d[v_i] + 1$ and $d[v_i] \le d[v_{i+1}]$ for all i
- Show that upon termination $d[v]=\delta(s,v)$, where $\delta(s,v)$ is the length of the shortest path from s to v

$d[v] = \delta(s,v)$: sketch of the proof

- by contradiction, let v be the closest to s node with $d[v] > \delta(s,v)$
- consider a shortest path from s to v, and let u be the node preceding v in this path
- $\delta(s,v)=\delta(s,u)+1$ (by properties of shortest paths)
- consider the moment when u was dequeued $(d[u]=\delta(s,u))$
- ightharpoonup if v was white then, we have $d[v]=\delta(s,v)\Rightarrow$ contradiction
- if v was yellow then, it was visited earlier by exploring the successors of some w with $d[w] \le d[u]$. Then $d[v] = d[w] + 1 \le d[u] + 1 \Rightarrow contradiction$
- ▶ if v was red, then $d[v] \le d[u] \Rightarrow contradiction$

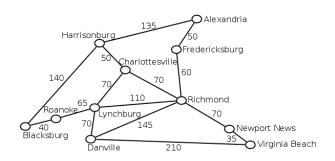
Space efficient BFS

- BFS stores the queue which (in the worst case) can contain O(n) nodes, i.e. $O(n \log n)$ bits
- ▶ Can we implement BFS with o(n log n) bits?
- Example of a result: There exists an algorithm that outputs vertices in the BFS order in time O(n+m) and uses 2n+o(n) bits

[N. Banerjee, S. Chakraborty, V. Raman, and S. R. Satti. Space efficient linear time algorithms for BFS, DFS and applications. Theory of Computing Systems, Jan 2018]

Single-source shortest path: weighted case

Single-source shortest path: weighted case



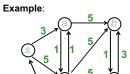
Shortest path problem

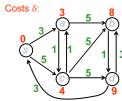
Weighted (directed or undirected) graph: G = (V, E, w) where $w: E \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ (weight/cost)

Source : $s \in V$

Problem: for all $t \in V$, compute

 $\delta(s, t) = \min \{ \{ w(c) ; c \text{ path from } s \text{ to } t \} \cup \{+\infty\} \}$

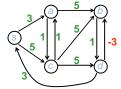




Properties of the shortest paths

Proposition 1 (existence):

shortest paths are well-defined (i.e. for all $t \in V$, $\delta(s, t) > -\infty$) iff the graph does not have a cycle of cost < 0 reachable from s



Proposition 2: if there exists a shortest path from s to t, then there exists one without a cycle

Proposition 3: if there exists a shortest path from s to t, then there exists one with no more than |V|-1 edges

Main properties

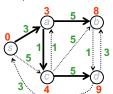
Property 1: G = (V, E, w)

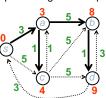
let c be a shortest path from p to r and q be the node preceding r in c. Then $\delta(p, r) = \delta(p, q) + w(q, r)$.



Property 2: A subpath of a shortest path is a shortest path

Shortest path tree: tree rooted at s representing shortest paths





Main properties (cont)

Property 3: G = (V, E, w) let c be a path from p to r and q be the node preceding r in c. Then $\delta(p, r) \le \delta(p, q) + w(q, r)$.



Relaxation

Compute $\delta(s,t)$ by successive approximations

 $t \in V \ d[t]$ = estimate (from above) of $\delta(s, t)$

 $\pi[t]$ = predecessor of t on

a path from s to t of cost d[t]

Initialization of d and π

for all $t \in V$ do { $d[t] = \infty$; $\pi[t] = \text{nil}$ } d[s] = 0;

Relaxation of the edge (q, r)

RELAX(q, r)if d[q] + w(q, r) < d[r]then $\{d[r] = d[q] + w(q, r) ; \pi[r] = q\}$

Relaxation (cont)

Proposition:

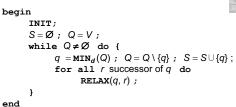
the following property is an invariant of relax: for all $t \in V$, $d(t) \ge \delta(s, t)$

Proof: by induction on the number of executions of relax

Dijkstra's algorithm

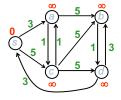
Assumption: $w(p, q) \ge 0$ for all edges (p, q)





- At each iteration, the algorithm extracts a node from Q that is never returned to Q
- **RELAX**(q, r) may change d[r]

Example





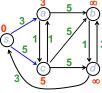
$$Q = \{s, a, b, c, \pi[s] = \text{nil}$$

$$\pi[a] = \text{nil}$$

$$\pi[b] = \text{nil}$$

$$\pi[c] = \text{nil}$$

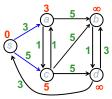
$$\pi[d] = \text{nil}$$



$$S = \{s\}$$

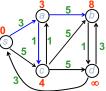
 $Q = \{a, b, c, d\}$
 $\pi[s] = \text{nil}$
 $\pi[a] = s$
 $\pi[b] = \text{nil}$
 $\pi[c] = s$
 $\pi[d] = \text{nil}$

Example (cont)



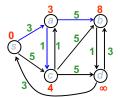


$$\pi[a] = S$$
 $\pi[b] = \text{nil}$
 $\pi[c] = S$
 $\pi[d] = \text{nil}$





Example (cont)



$$S = \{s, a\}$$

$$Q = \{b, c, d\}$$

$$\pi[s] = \text{nil}$$

$$\pi[a] = s$$

$$Q = \{b, c, d \\ \pi[s] = \text{nil} \\ \pi[a] = s \\ \pi[b] = a \\ \pi[c] = a \\ \pi[d] = \text{nil}$$

$$S = \{s, a, c\}$$

$$Q = \{b, d\}$$

$$\pi[s] = \text{nil}$$

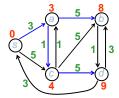
$$\pi[a] = s$$

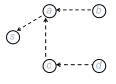
$$\pi[b] = a$$

$$\pi[c] = a$$

$$\pi[d] = c$$

Example (cont)





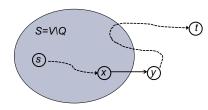
$$S = \{s, a, c\}$$

 $Q = \{b, d\}, Q = \{d\} \text{ then } Q = \emptyset$
 $\pi[s] = \text{nil}$
 $\pi[a] = s$
 $\pi[b] = a$
 $\pi[c] = a$
 $\pi[d] = c$

Correctness of Dijkstra's algorithm

Proposition: After the execution of Dijkstra's algorithm on a graph $G = (V, E, w), d[t] = \delta(s, t)$ for all $t \in V$.

Proof by contradiction: let $d[t] \neq \delta(s, t)$

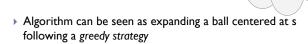


Properties of Dijkstra's algorithm

Algorithm maintains three sets:

• S: finished nodes, for which $d[t] = \delta(s, t)$ (red)

- ▶ S': nodes of Q with $d[t] < \infty$ (yellow)
- ▶ nodes of Q with $d[t]=\infty$ (white)



Implementation

With adjacency matrix

time $O(n^2)$ (where n=|V|)

With adjacency lists

depends on the data structure for Q

we need to support operations:

- insert an element to Q
- extract an element with minimum d value
- modify (decrease) the *d* value of an element (when relaxing)
- ⇒ (min-)priority queue

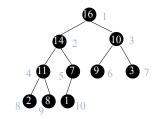
Priority Queues

- (max-)Priority Queue is a data structure that supports operations
- ▶ INSERT(S,x)
- MAX(S)
- EXTRACT-MAX(S)
- ▶ INCREASE-KEY(S,x,k): increase the key of x to k
- Priority Queues are used in
 - Dijkstra's algorithm for shortest paths
 - > Prim's algorithm for minimum spanning tree
 - other greedy algorithms
- Implemented using heaps

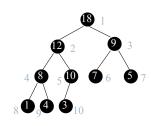
Binary Heaps

- Binary heap:
- > a binary tree that is
- **complete**: every level except possibly the bottom one is completely filled and the leaves in the bottom level are as far left as possible
- > satisfies the (max-)heap property: the key stored in every node is greater than or equal to the keys stored in its children
 - If the key at each node is smaller than or equal to the keys of its children, then we have a min-heap

Binary (max-)heap: example



Binary heaps stored in arrays



Due to their regular structure, binary heaps are easily stored in arrays

Given index i of a node.

- the index of its parent is i / 2
- · the indices of its children are 2i and 2i+1



Binary heaps: some properties

- ▶ The height of a heap is |log(n)|
- Not every array represents a heap
- In a max-heap, the largest element is at the root and the smallest element is in a leaf

Heapify

Assume that node i violates the heap property, but the children nodes 2i and 2i+1 (if exist) are heaps.

```
HEAPIFY(A,i)

if A[2i]>A[i] or A[2i+1]>A[i] then

if A[2i+1]>A[2i] then

exchange A[i] and A[2i+1];

HEAPIFY(A, 2i+1)

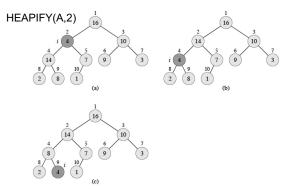
else

exchange A[i] and A[2i];

HEAPIFY(A, 2i)

end
end
```

Heapify: example



Building a binary heap

 Given an array A[1..n], build a binary heap for array elements

BUILD-HEAP(A,n) for i=|n/2| downto 1 do HEAPIFY(A,i);

• Exercise: build the heap for A=[4,1,3,2,16,9,10,14,8,7]

BUILD-HEAP: complexity

- ▶ Straightforward estimation O(n·log(n))
- Refined analysis:
- Cost of a call to HEAPIFY at a node depends on the height, h, of the node – O(h).
- ▶ Height of most nodes smaller |log(n)|
- ▶ Height of nodes *h* ranges from 0 to |log(n)|
- number of nodes of height h is at most $\lceil n / 2^{h+1} \rceil$?

Heap Characteristics

- \rightarrow Height = $|\log n|$
- Number of leaves = [n/2]
- Number of nodes of height $h \leq \lfloor n/2^{h+1} \rfloor$
- Proof by induction:
- remove all leaves from the heap
- there remains $n \lfloor n/2 \rfloor = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ nodes
- ▶ the height of each node is decremented by 1
- ▶ nb of nodes of height h-1 is (by induction) $[|n/2|/2^h] \le [n/2^{h+1}]$

Tighter bound for BUILD-HEAP: O(n)

time of BUILD-HEAP is
$$\sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \log n \rfloor} \left\lceil \frac{n}{2^{h+1}} \right\rceil O(h) = O\left(n \sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \log n \rfloor} \frac{h}{2^h}\right)$$

note that
$$\sum_{h=0}^{\lfloor \log n \rfloor} \frac{h}{2^h} \le \sum_{h=0}^{\infty} \frac{h}{2^h} = \frac{1/2}{(1-1/2)^2} = 2$$

therefore the time is O(n)

Priority Queue

- ▶ MAX(A): return the heap root
- ► EXTRACT-MAX(A):

Priority Queue

- ▶ MAX(A): return the heap root
- ► EXTRACT-MAX(A): exchange A[1] and A[n], discard element n, and apply HEAPIFY(A,1)
- ► INCREASE-KEY(A,i,k):

Priority Queue

- MAX(A): return the heap root
- ► EXTRACT-MAX(A): exchange A[1] and A[n], discard element n, and apply HEAPIFY(A,1)
- ► INCREASE-KEY(A,i,k):

```
A[i] \leftarrow k;
```

while A[[i/2]]<A[i] do exchange A[[i/2]] and A[i]; i←parent(i)

end

▶ INSERT(A,i): insert a new leaf n+1 with key $-\infty$; call INCREASE-KEY(A,n+1,k)

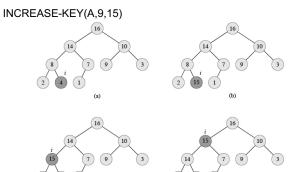
Priority Queues: time bounds

- ▶ MAX: O(1)
- ▶ EXTRACT-MAX, INCREASE-KEY, INSERT: O(log(n))

Various improvements have been proposed

- Fibonacci heaps take O(1) amortized time for INSERT and INCREASE-KEY
- if keys are integers bounded by C, van Emde Boas trees support INSERT, DELETE, MAX, MIN, SUCC, PRED in time O(log log(C))

INCREASE-KEY: example



Back to Dijkstra's algorithm

With adjacency matrix time O(n²)

With adjacency lists

Q: priority queue if implemented by binary heaps: n building a heap of n elements: O(n) n operations $\min_{\mathbf{d}}: O(n \cdot \log n)$ m operations $\mathtt{RELAX}: O(m \cdot \log n)$ total time $O((n+m) \cdot \log n)$: improves over $O(n^2)$ if $m = o(n^2/\log n)$

time can be improved to $O(n \cdot log \ n + m)$ using Fibonacci heaps, as decreasing the key takes O(1) amortized

Priority Queues: time bounds

▶ MAX: O(1)

▶ EXTRACT-MAX, INCREASE-KEY, INSERT: O(log(n))