Greedy Graph Algorithms

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Algorithm Design

- Start discussion of different ways of designing algorithms.
- Greedy algorithms, divide and conquer, dynamic programming, flow-based approaches.
- Discuss principles that can solve a variety of problem types.
- Design an algorithm, prove its correctness, analyse its complexity.

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- Greedy algorithms, divide and conquer, dynamic programming, flow-based approaches.
- Discuss principles that can solve a variety of problem types.
- Design an algorithm, prove its correctness, analyse its complexity.
- Greedy algorithms: make the current best choice.
 - First discussed greedy algorithms for scheduling (Chapters 4.1 to 4.3).
 - Now we will discuss greedy graph algorithms.



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- Goal: compute the shortest path from a specified start node *s* to each node in *V*.

Shortest Paths

INSTANCE: A directed graph G(V, E), a function $I : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$, and a node $s \in V$ **SOLUTION:** A set $\{P_u, u \in V\}$ of paths, where P_u is the shortest path

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- Goal: compute the shortest path from a specified start node *s* to each node in *V*.
- Aside: If *G* is undirected, convert to a directed graph by replacing each edge in *G* by two directed edges.

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Shortest Paths Problem Instance







Unweighted graph: Use BFS. Process nodes in non-decreasing order of distance.



Weighted graph: Edge weights are integers. Can we make the graph unweighted?



Add dummy nodes: Edge of weight w gets w - 1 nodes.



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Dummy nodes: BFS computes shortest paths correctly. Running time is $O(m + n + \sum_{e \in E} I(e))$. Pseudo-polynomial time: depends on input values.



Like BFS: explore nodes in non-increasing order of distance from s. Once a node is explored, its distance is fixed.



Unlike BFS: Layers are not uniform. Which node to process next? Candidates are nodes with an edge from a explored node.









For each unexplored node, determine "best" preceding explored node. Record shortest path length only through explored nodes.





Explore node with smallest path length only through explored nodes.



Like BFS: Record previous node in the computed path.



Follow previous nodes to compute shortest path. Like BFS : these edges form a tree.

Idea <u>Underlying Dijkstra's Algo</u>rithm



- Maintain a set S of explored nodes.
 - For each node $u \in S$, compute a value d(u), which (we will prove) is the length of the shortest path from s to u.
 - For each node x ∉ S, maintain a value d'(x), which is the length of the shortest path from s to x using only the nodes in S (and x, of course).

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 - For each node x ∉ S, maintain a value d'(x), which is the length of the shortest path from s to x using only the nodes in S (and x, of course).
- "Greedily" add a node v to S that has the smallest value of d'(v) (is closest to s using only nodes in S).









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DIJKSTRA'S ALGORITHM(G, I, s)

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 - We store the smallest of these values in d'(x).

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Dijkstra's Algorithm

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 - Run over all (unexplored) nodes x in V S.
 - Examine the d' values for these nodes.
 - Return the *argument* (i.e., the node) that has the smallest value of d'(x).
- To compute the shortest paths: when adding a node v to S, store the predecessor u that minimises d'(v).

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- Claim: P_u is the shortest path from s to u.
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The alternate s-v path P through x and y is already too long by the time it has left the set S.

Figure 4.8 The shortest path P_v and an alternate *s*-*v* path *P* through the node *y*.

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- Union of shortest paths output by Dijkstra's algorithm forms a tree. Why?
- Union of shortest paths from a fixed source s forms a tree; paths not necessarily computed by Dijkstra's algorithm.



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- How many iterations are there of the while loop?



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- Running time per iteration is O(m), since the algorithm processes each edge (u, x) in the graph exactly once (when computing d'(x)).
- The overall running time is O(nm).







- 3: Set $v = \arg \min_{x \in V-S} d'(x)$
- 4: Add v to S and set d(v) = d'(v)
- 5: for every node $x \in V S$ do
- 6: Set $d'(x) = \min_{(u,x):u \in S}(d(u) + l(u,x))$
 - Observation: If we add v to S, d'(x) changes only \bigcirc Poll



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- Idea: For each node x ∈ V − S, store the current value of d'(x). Upon adding a node v to S, update d'() only for neighbours of v that are not in S.

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- How do we efficiently compute $v = \arg \min_{x \in V-S} d'(x)$?

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- How do we efficiently compute $v = \arg \min_{x \in V-S} d'(x)$?
- Use a priority queue!

Faster Dijkstra's Algorithm

- 1: INSERT(Q, s, 0).
- 2: while $S \neq V$ do
- 3: (v, d'(v)) = EXTRACTMIN(Q)
- 4: Add v to S and set d(v) = d'(v)
- 5: for every node $x \in V S$ such that (v, x) is an edge in G do

6: if
$$d(v) + l(v, x) < d'(x)$$
 then

7:
$$d'(x) = d(v) + l(v, x)$$

8: CHANGEKEY
$$(Q, x, d'(x))$$

- For each node $x \in V S$, store the pair (x, d'(x)) in a priority queue Q with d'(x) as the key.
- Determine the next node v to add to S using EXTRACTMIN (line 3).
- After adding v to S, for each node x ∈ V − S such that there is an edge from v to x, check if d'(x) should be updated, i.e., if there is a shortest path from s to x via v (lines 5–8).
- In line 8, if x is not in Q, simply insert it.

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 - What is total running time of the algorithm? $O(m \log n)$.

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- 8: CHANGEKEY(Q, x, d'(x))
 - How many times does the algorithm invoke EXTRACTMIN? n-1 times.
 - For every node v, what is the running time of step 5? $O(d_v)$, the number of *outgoing* neighbours of v.
 - What is the total running time of step 5? $\sum_{v \in V} O(d_v) = O(m)$.
 - How many times does the algorithm invoke CHANGEKEY? At most m times.
 - What is total running time of the algorithm? $O(m \log n)$.
 - State of the art: Fibonacci heaps achieve a running time of O(m) for all CHANGEKEY operations, for a running time of $O(n \log n + m)$.

Network Design

- Connect a set of nodes using a set of edges with certain properties.
- Input is usually a graph and the desired network (the output) should use subset of edges in the graph.
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- Input is usually a graph and the desired network (the output) should use subset of edges in the graph.
- Example: connect all nodes using a cycle of shortest total length. This problem is the NP-complete traveling salesman problem.
- Given an undirected graph G(V, E) with a cost c(e) > 0 associated with each edge $e \in E$.
- Find a subset T of edges such that the graph (V, T) is connected and the cost ∑_{e∈T} c(e) is as small as possible.



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MINIMUM SPANNING TREE

INSTANCE: An undirected graph G(V, E) and a function $c : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$ **SOLUTION:** A set $T \subseteq E$ of edges such that (V, T) is connected and the cost $\sum_{e \in T} c(e)$ is as small as possible.



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Claim: If T is a minimum-cost solution to this problem then (V, T) is a tree.
A subset T of E is a spanning tree of G if (V, T) is a tree.

• Template: process edges in some order. Add an edge to T if tree property is not violated.

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- Simplifying assumption: all edge costs are distinct.

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 - What happens when we add an edge to an MST?
 - We obtain a cycle.
 - Which edge in the cycle can we be sure does not belong to an MST?

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 - This cycle must contain an edge e' in cut(S). Poll


Proof of Cut Property

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 - ► This cycle must contain an edge e' in cut(S). ► Poll
 - T {e'} ∪ {e} has smaller cost than T and is a spanning tree.



Prim's Algorithm

- Maintain a tree (S, T), i.e. a set of nodes and a set of edges, which we will show will always be a tree.
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- 2: while $S \neq V$ do
- 3: Compute $(u, v) = \arg \min_{(u,v): u \in S, v \in V-S} c(u, v)$ Poll
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4: Add the node v to S and add the edge (u, v) to T.

Note that

$$\arg\min_{(u,v),u\in S,v\in V-S} c(u,v) \equiv \arg\min_{(u,v)\in \text{cut}(S)} c(u,v).$$

• In other words, in each step, Prim's algorithm computes and adds the cheapest edge in the current value of cut(S).

































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 - Prove that the graph constructed is a spanning tree.
 - * Why are there no cycles in (V, T)? Poll
 - * Why is (V, T) a spanning tree (edges in T connect all nodes in V)? \bigcirc Poll

Kruskal's Algorithm

- Start with an empty set *T* of edges.
- Process edges in *E* in increasing order of cost.
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 - Why is e the cheapest edge in cut(S)?
 - Prove that the algorithm computes a spanning tree.
 - * (V, T) contains no cycles by construction.
 - * If (V, T) is not connected, there exists a subset S of nodes not connected to V S. What is the contradiction?

Cycle Property

• When can we be sure that an edge cannot be in any MST?

Cycle Property

- When can we be sure that an edge cannot be in *any* MST?
- Let C be any cycle in G and let e = (v, w) be the most expensive edge in C.
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- Let C be any cycle in G and let e = (v, w) be the most expensive edge in C.
- Claim: e does not belong to any MST of G.
- Proof: exchange argument. If a supposed MST *T* contains *e*, show that there is a tree with smaller cost than *T* that does not contain *e*.



Figure 4.11 Swapping the edge e' for the edge e in the spanning tree *T*, as described in the proof of (4.20).

- Reverse-Delete algorithm: Maintain a set E' of edges.
 - Start with E' = E.
 - Process edges in decreasing order of cost.
 - Delete the next edge e from E' only if (V, E') is connected after deletion.
 - Stop after processing all the edges.
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Prove that the graph remaining at the end is a spanning tree.

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 - Prove that the graph remaining at the end is a spanning tree.
 - * (V, E') is connected at the end, by construction.
 - * If (V, E') contains a cycle, consider the costliest edge in that cycle. The algorithm would have deleted that edge.

Implementing Prim's Algorithm

PRIM'S ALGORITHM(G, c, s) 1: $S = \{s\}$ and $T = \emptyset$ 2: while $S \neq V$ do 3: Compute $(u, v) = \arg \min_{(u,v): u \in S, v \in V - S} c(u, v)$ 4: Add the node v to S and add the edge (u, v) to T.

- Implementation and analysis are very similar to Dijkstra's algorithm.
- Maintain S and store attachment costs a(v) = min_{e∈cut(S)} c(e) for every node v ∈ V − S in a priority queue. Not the same as Dijsktra's algorithm!
- At each step, extract the node v with the minimum attachment cost from the priority queue and update the attachment costs of the neighbours of v.

Final Version of Prim's Algorithm

PRIM'S ALGORITHM(G, c, s)1: INSERT($Q, s, 0, \emptyset$)2: while $S \neq V$ do3: (v, a(v), u) = EXTRACTMIN(Q)4: Add node v to S and edge (u, v) to T.5: for every node $x \in V - S$ such that (v, x) is an edge in G do6: if c(v, x) < a(x) then7: a(x) = c(v, x)8: CHANGEKEY(Q, x, a(x), v)

- Q is a priority queue.
- Each element in Q is a triple: the node, its attachment cost, and its predecessor in the MST.
- In Step 8, if x is not already in Q, simply Insert (x, a(x), v) into Q. \bigcirc

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- In Step 8, if x is not already in Q, simply Insert (x, a(x), v) into Q.
- Total of n 1 EXTRACTMIN and m CHANGEKEY/Insert operations, yielding a running time of $O(m \log n)$.

Skip implementation of Kruskal's algorithm

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Implementing Kruskal's Algorithm

- Start with an empty set T of edges.
- Process edges in *E* in increasing order of cost.
- Add the next edge e to T only if adding e does not create a cycle.
- Sorting edges takes $O(m \log n)$ time.
- Key question: "Does adding e = (u, v) to T create a cycle?"
 - Maintain set of connected components of *T*.
 - ▶ FIND(u): return the name of the connected component of T that u belongs to.
 - ▶ UNION(*A*, *B*): merge connected components *A* and *B*.

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- Total running time of Kruskal's algorithm is $O(m \log n)$.

Comments on Union-Find and MST

- The UNION-FIND data structure is useful to maintain the connected components of a graph as edges are added to the graph.
- The data structure does not support edge deletion efficiently.

Comments on MST Algorithms

- To handle multiple edges with the same length, perturb each length by a random infinitesimal amount. Read the textbook.
- Any algorithm that constructs a spanning tree by including edges that satisfy the cut property and deleting edges that satisfy the cycle property will yield an MST!
- Current best algorithm for MST runs in $O(m\alpha(m, n))$ time (Chazelle 2000) and O(m) randomised time (Karger, Klein, and Tarjan, 1995).
- Holy grail: O(m) deterministic algorithm for MST.

Union-Find Data Structure

- Abstraction of the data structure needed by Kruskal's algorithm.
- Maintain disjoint subsets of elements from a universe U of n elements.
- Each subset has an name. We will set a set's name to be the identity of some element in it.
- Support three operations:
 - **1** MAKEUNIONFIND(U): initialise the data structure with elements in U.
 - **2** FIND(u): return the identity of the subset that contains u.
 - **3** UNION(A, B): merge the sets named A and B into one set.

- Store all the elements of U in an array COMPONENT.
 - Assume identities of elements are integers from 1 to *n*.
 - COMPONENT[s] is the name of the set containing s.
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 - UNION(A, B): merge B into A by scanning COMPONENT and updating each index whose value is B to the value A. Takes O(n) time.
- UNION is very slow because we cannot efficiently find the elements that belong to a set.

- Optimisation 1: Use an array ELEMENTS
 - ▶ Indices of ELEMENTS range from 1 to *n*.
 - ELEMENTS[s] stores the elements in the subset named s in a list.
- Execute UNION(*A*, *B*) by merging *B* into *A* in two steps:
 - **Updating** COMPONENT for elements of *B* in O(|B|) time.
 - **2** Append ELEMENTS[B] to ELEMENTS[A] in O(1) time.
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- Optimisation 2: Store size of each set in an array (say, SIZE). If SIZE[B] ≤ SIZE[A], merge B into A. Otherwise merge A into B. Update SIZE.
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- FIND is fast in the worst case, UNION is fast in an amortised sense. Can we make both operations worst-case efficient?

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Figure 4.12 A Union-Find data structure using pointers. The data structure has only two sets at the moment, named after nodes v and j. The dashed arrow from u to v is the result of the last Union operation. To answer a Find query, we follow the arrows until we get to a node that has no outgoing arrow. For example, answering the query Find(i) would involve following the arrows it ox, and then x to j.

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- Implementing UNION(A, B): make smaller tree's root a child of the larger tree's root. Takes O(1) time.



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- Why does FIND(u) take $O(\log n)$ time?
- Number of pointers followed equals the number of times the identity of the set containing *u* changed.
- Every time u's set's identity changes, the set at least doubles in size ⇒ there are O(log n) pointers followed.



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- Path compression: make all nodes visited by FIND(u) children of the root.
- Can prove that total time taken by n FIND operations is $O(n\alpha(n))$, where $\alpha(n)$ is the inverse of the Ackermann function, and grows e-x-t-r-e-m-e-l-y s-l-o-w-l-y with n.