

Greedy Graph Algorithms

T. M. Murali

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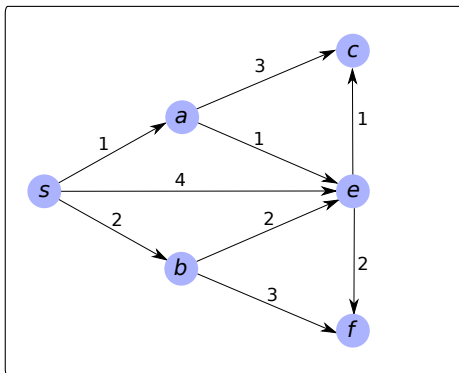
Algorithm Design

- 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.

Algorithm Design

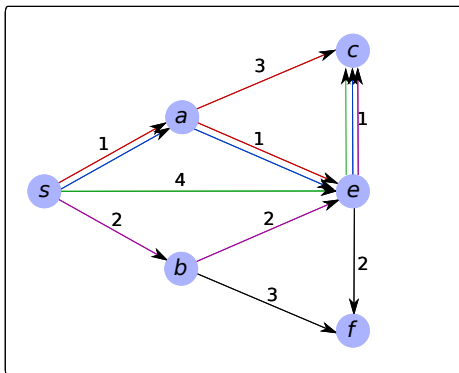
- Start discussion of different ways of designing algorithms.
- Greedy algorithms, divide and conquer, dynamic programming, flow-based approaches.
- Discuss principles that can solve a variety of problem types.
- Design an algorithm, prove its correctness, analyse its complexity.
- Greedy algorithms: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

Shortest Paths Problem



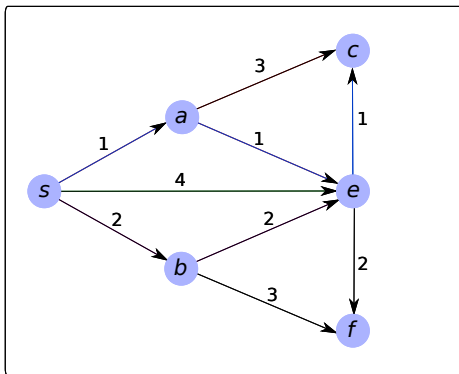
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- *Length of a path P* is the sum of the lengths of the edges in P .

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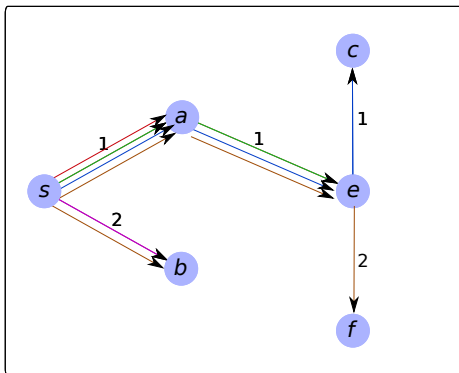
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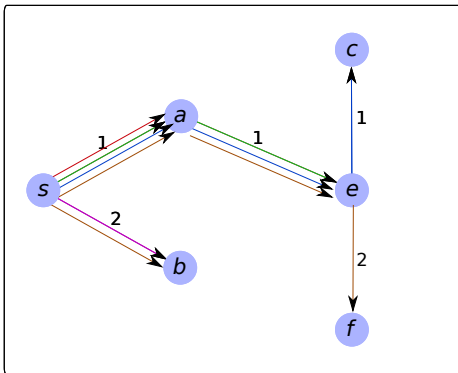
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- Goal: compute the shortest path from a specified start node s to each node in V .

SHORTEST PATHS

INSTANCE: A directed graph $G(V, E)$, a function $l : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, and a node $s \in V$

SOLUTION: A set $\{P_u, u \in V\}$ of paths, where P_u is the shortest path in G from s to u .

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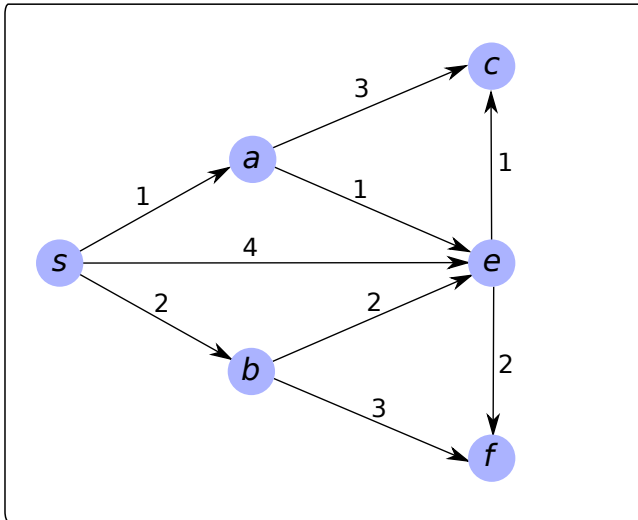
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- Aside: If G is undirected, convert to a directed graph by replacing each edge in G by two directed edges.

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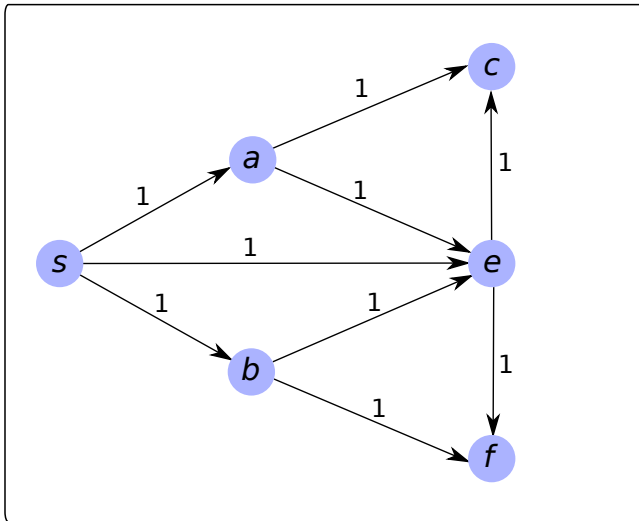
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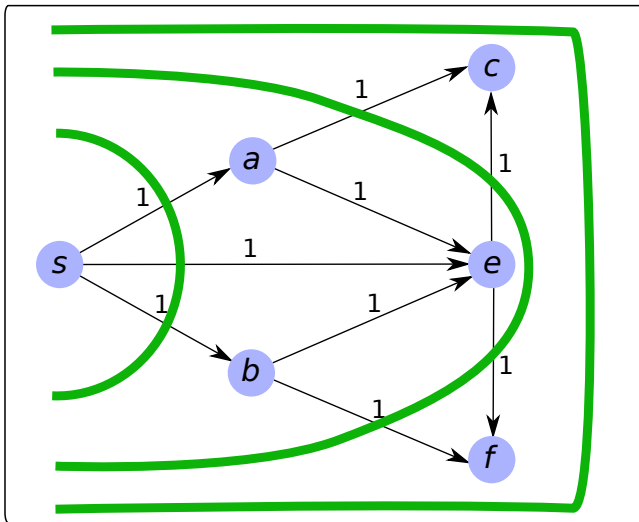
Shortest Paths Problem Instance



Generalizing BFS

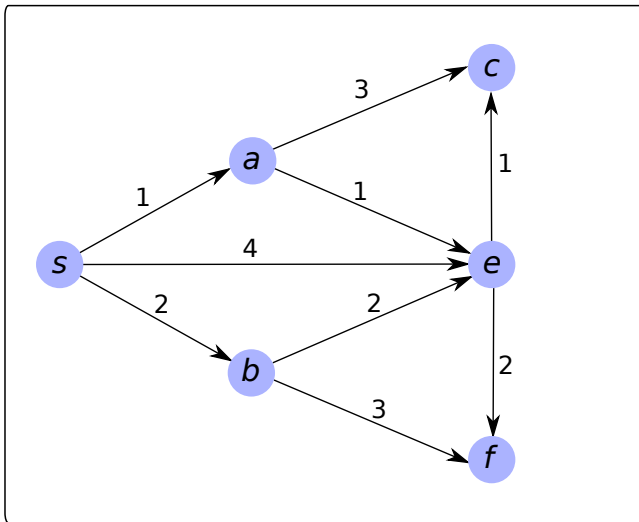


Generalizing BFS



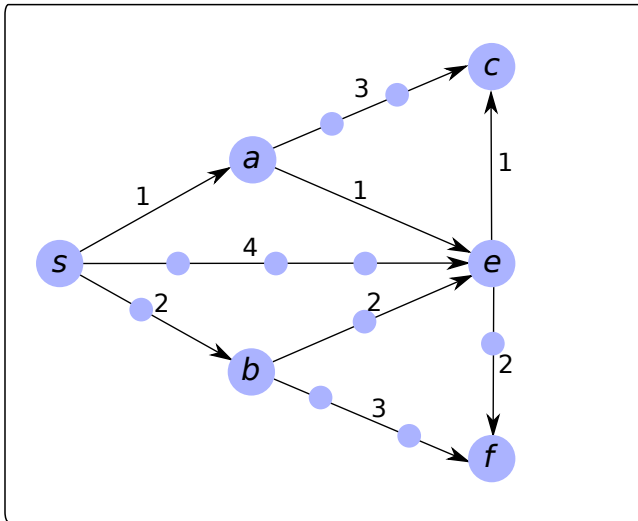
Unweighted graph: Use BFS. Process nodes in non-decreasing order of distance.

Generalizing BFS



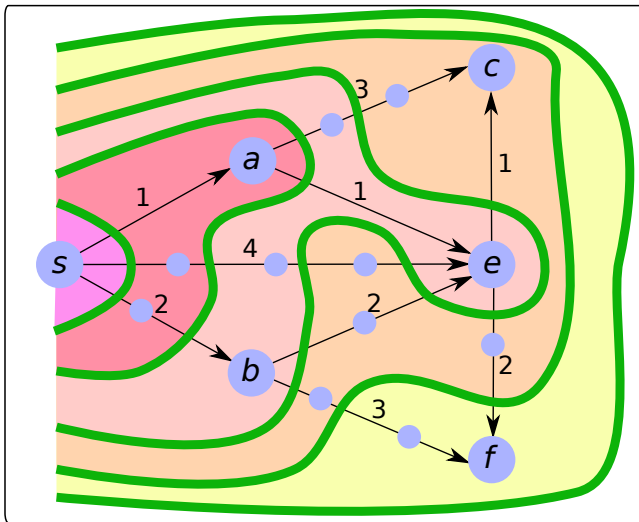
Weighted graph: Edge weights are integers. Can we make the graph unweighted?

Generalizing BFS



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

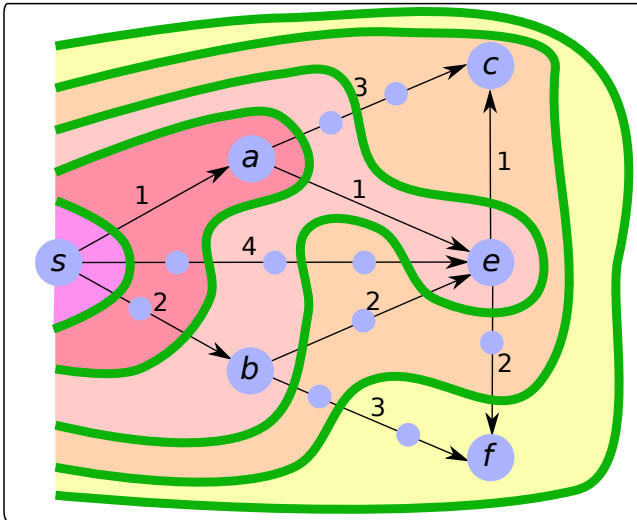
Generalizing BFS



Dummy nodes: BFS computes shortest paths correctly. Running time is

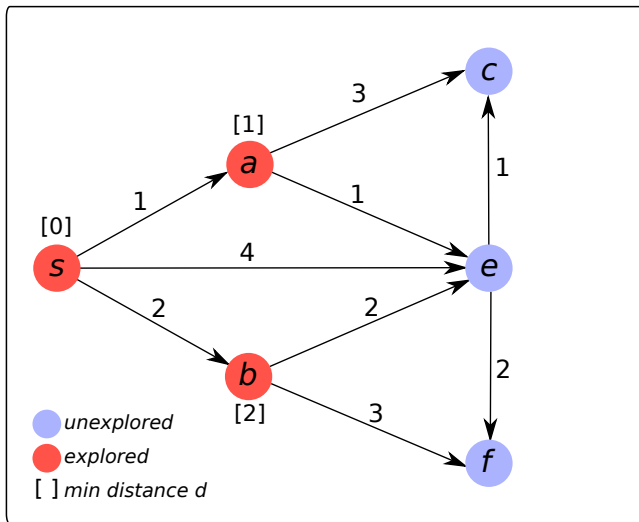
► Poll

Generalizing BFS



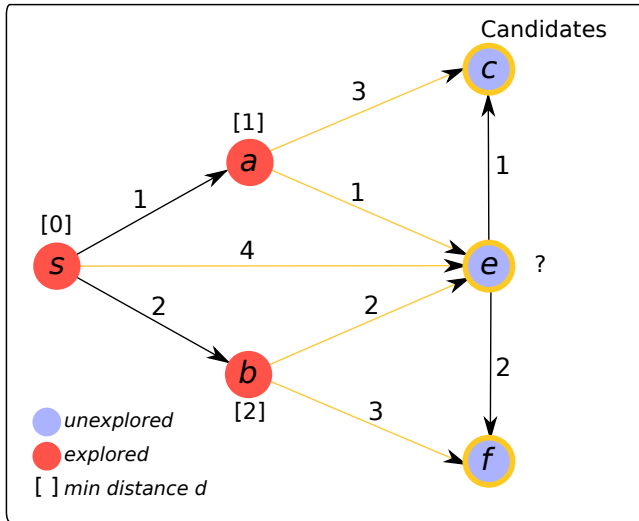
Dummy nodes: BFS computes shortest paths correctly. Running time is $O(m + n + \sum_{e \in E} l(e))$. *Pseudo-polynomial time*: depends on input values.

Generalizing BFS to Dijkstra's Algorithm



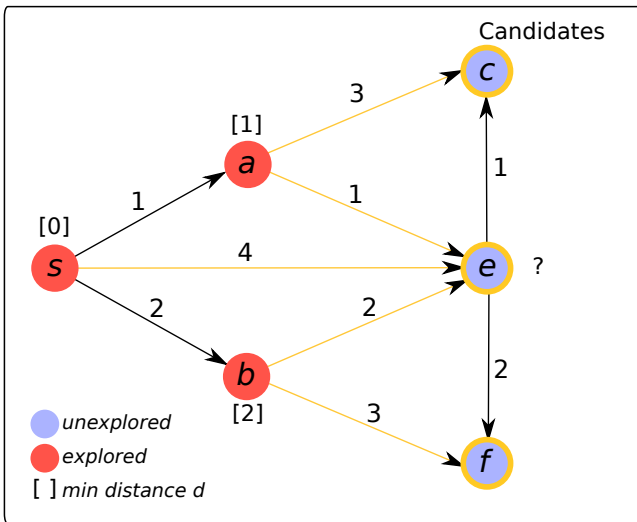
Like BFS: explore nodes in non-increasing order of distance from s . Once a node is explored, its distance is fixed.

Generalizing BFS to Dijkstra's Algorithm



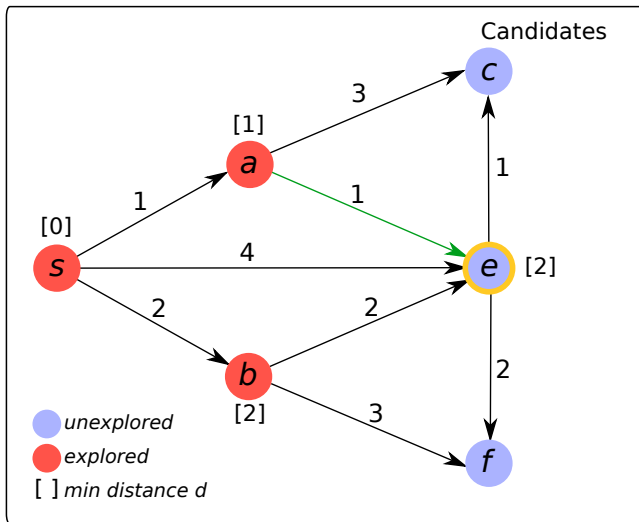
Unlike BFS: Layers are not uniform. Which node to process next? Candidates are nodes with an edge from a explored node.

Generalizing BFS to Dijkstra's Algorithm



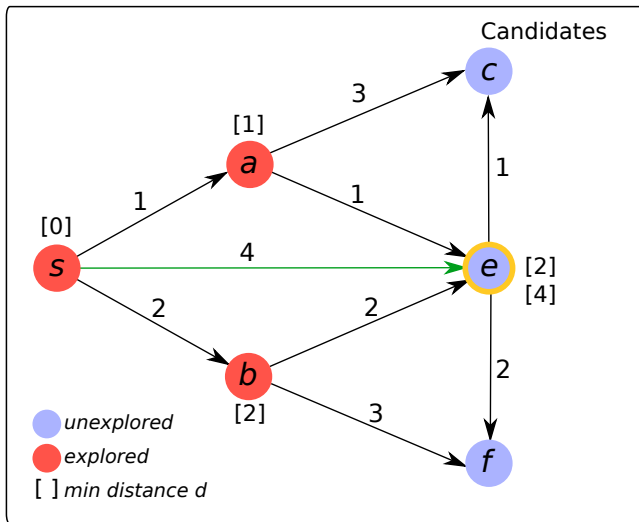
For each unexplored node, determine “best” preceding explored node.

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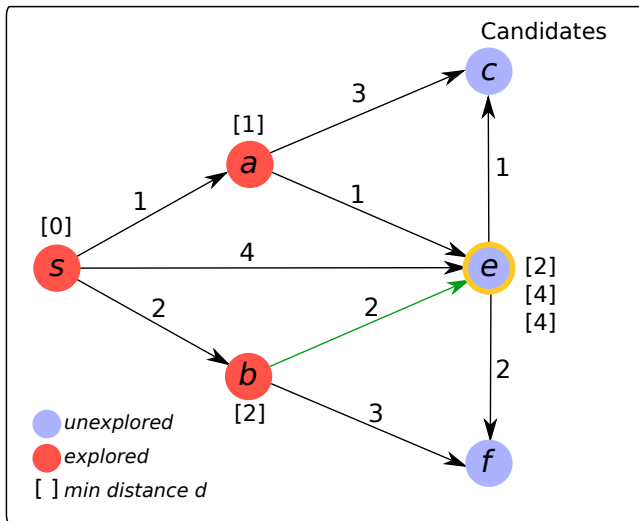
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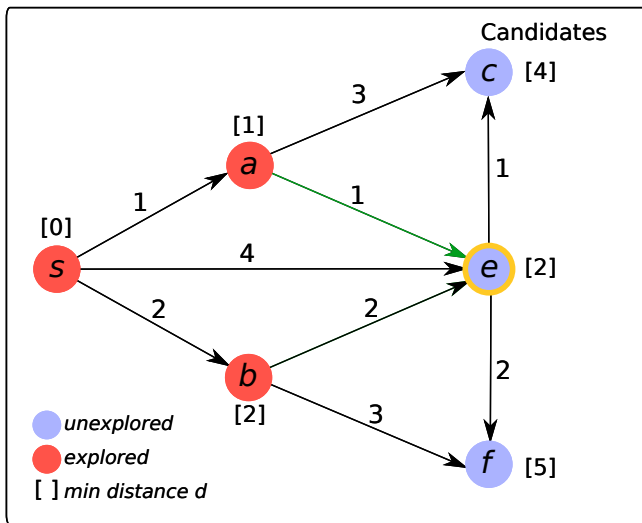
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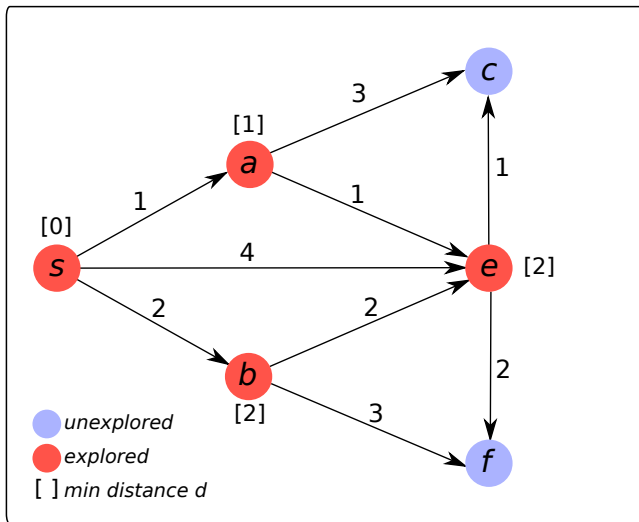
For each unexplored node, determine “best” preceding explored node. Record shortest path length only through explored nodes.

Generalizing BFS to Dijkstra's Algorithm



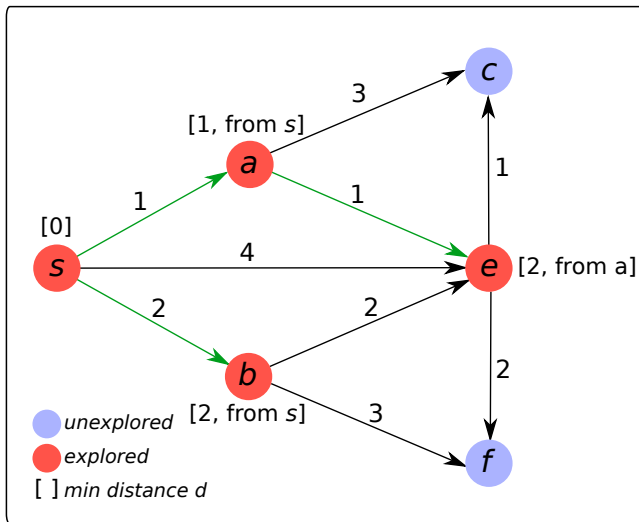
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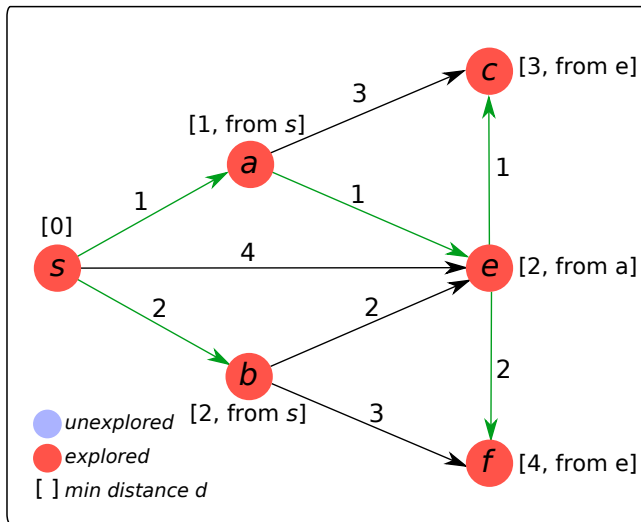
Explore node with smallest path length only through explored nodes.

Generalizing BFS to Dijkstra's Algorithm



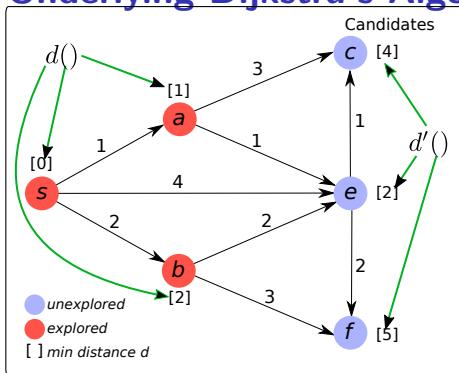
Like BFS: Record previous node in the computed path.

Generalizing BFS to Dijkstra's Algorithm



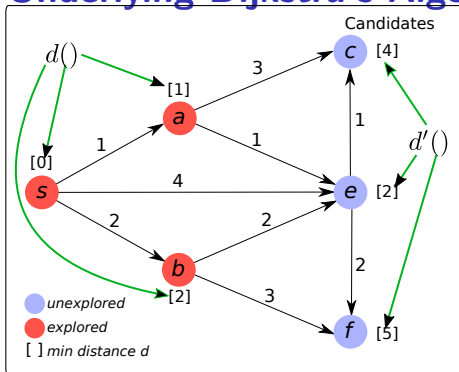
Follow previous nodes to compute shortest path. Like BFS: these edges form a tree.

Idea Underlying Dijkstra's Algorithm



- 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 $x \notin S$, 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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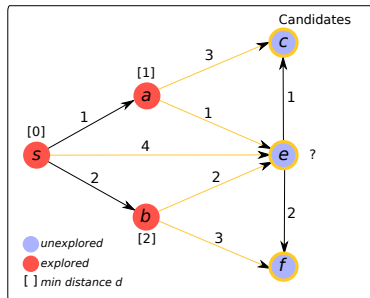


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- “Greedyly” add a node v to S that has the smallest value of $d'(v)$ (is closest to s using only nodes in S).

Dijkstra's Algorithm

DIJKSTRA'S ALGORITHM(G, l, s)

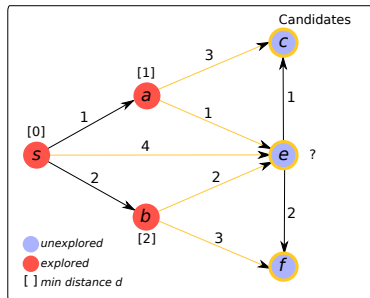
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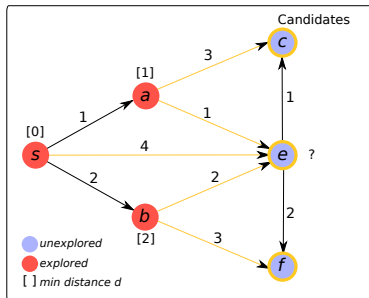


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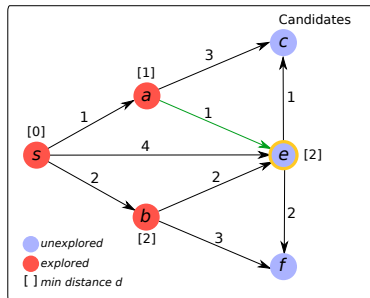


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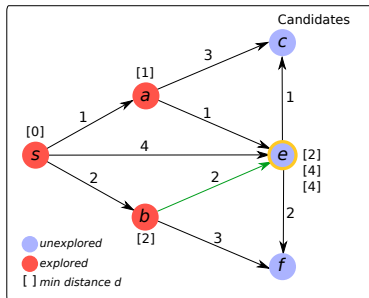


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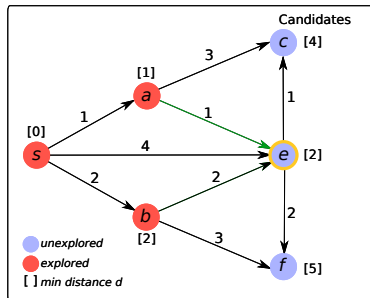


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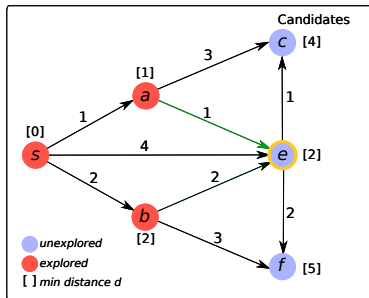


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 - ▶ We store the smallest of these values in $d'(x)$.

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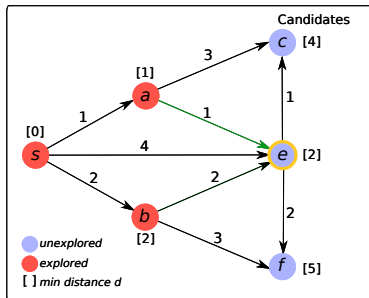


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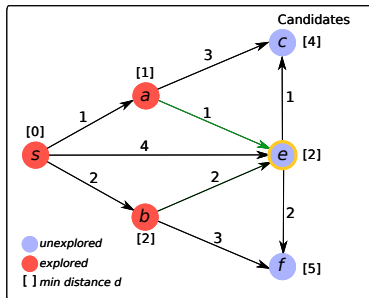


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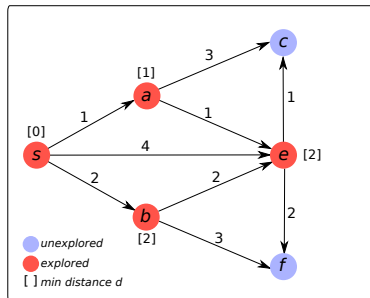


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 - ▶ Examine the d' values for these nodes.

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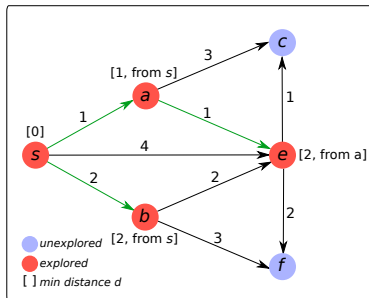


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- To compute the shortest paths: when adding a node v to S , store the predecessor u that minimises $d'(v)$.

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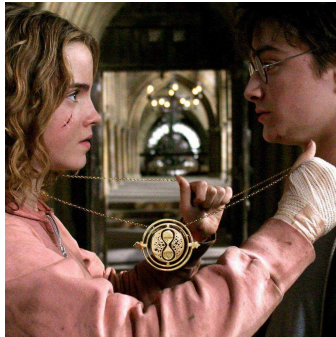
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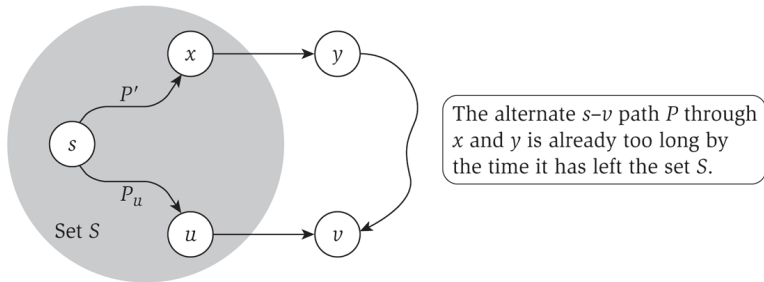


Figure 4.8 The shortest path P_v and an alternate s - v path P through the node y .

Comments about Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Algorithm cannot handle negative edge lengths. We will discuss the Bellman-Ford algorithm in a few weeks.
- Union of shortest paths output by Dijkstra's algorithm forms a tree. Why?

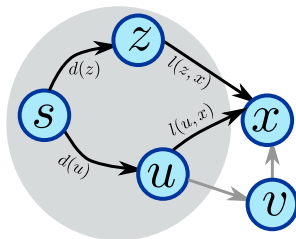
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- Union of shortest paths from a fixed source s forms a tree; paths not necessarily computed by Dijkstra's algorithm.

Running time of Dijkstra's Algorithm

DIJKSTRA'S ALGORITHM(G, l, s)

- 1: $S = \{s\}$ and $d(s) = 0$
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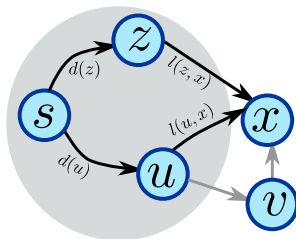


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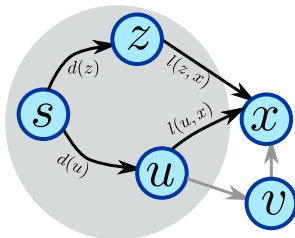


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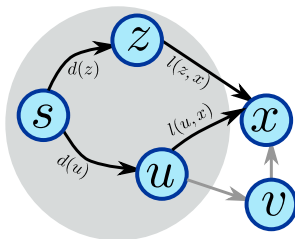
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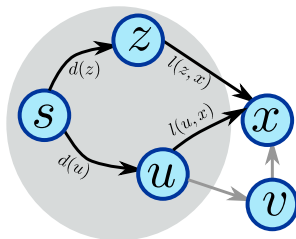
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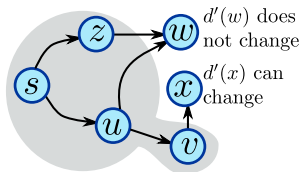
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- Running time per iteration is $O(m)$, since the algorithm processes each edge (u, x) in the graph exactly once (when computing $d'(x)$).
- The overall running time is $O(nm)$.

A Faster implementation of Dijkstra's Algorithm

DIJKSTRA'S ALGORITHM(G, l, s)

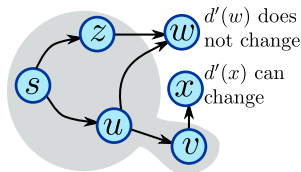
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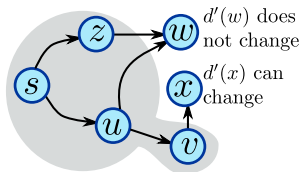
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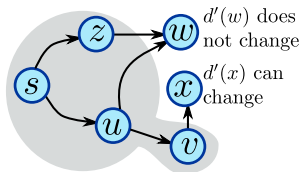
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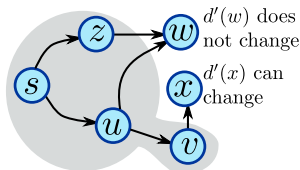


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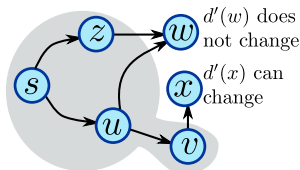


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- Use a priority queue!

Faster Dijkstra's Algorithm

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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 $x \in V - S$ 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.

Running Time of Faster Dijkstra's Algorithm

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[▶ Poll](#)

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- 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

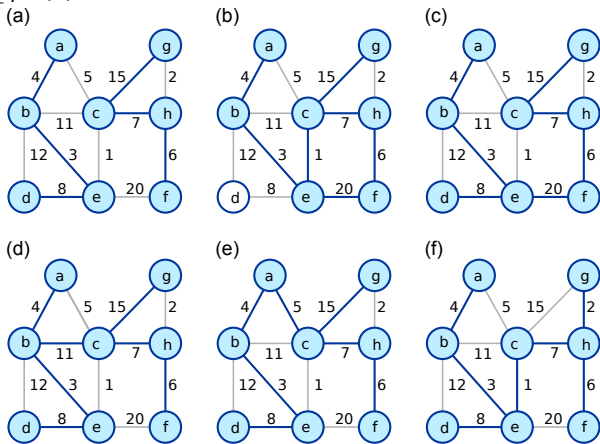
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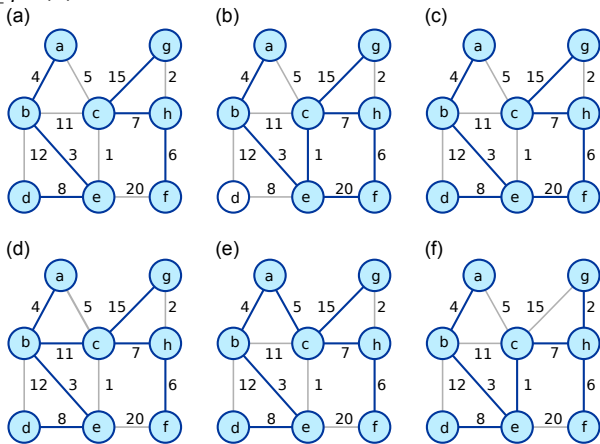
Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)

- 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 $\sum_{e \in T} c(e)$ is as small as possible. ▶ Poll



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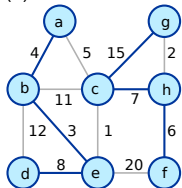
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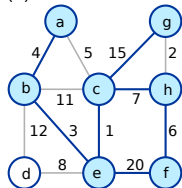
Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)

- 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 $\sum_{e \in T} c(e)$ is as small as possible. ▶ Poll

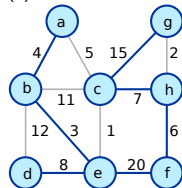
(a) Not connected



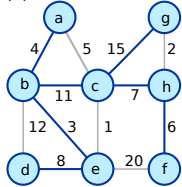
(b) Not smallest cost



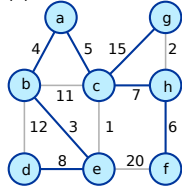
(c) Not smallest cost



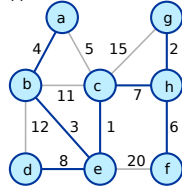
(d) Not smallest cost



(e) Not smallest cost



(f) Smallest cost

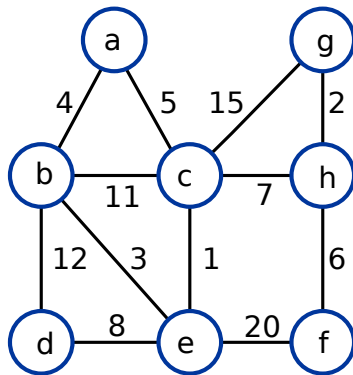


Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)

MINIMUM SPANNING TREE

INSTANCE: An undirected graph $G(V, E)$ and a function $c : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$

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.

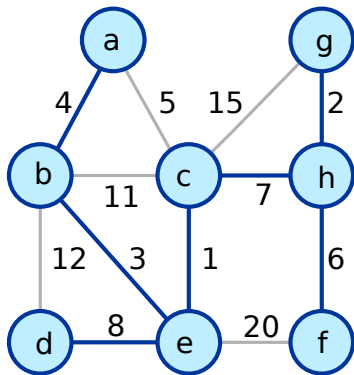


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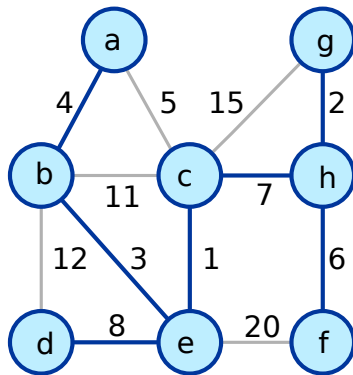


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- Claim: If T is a minimum-cost solution to this problem then (V, T) is a tree.
- A subset T of E is a *spanning tree* of G if (V, T) is a tree.

Greedy Algorithm for the MST Problem

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

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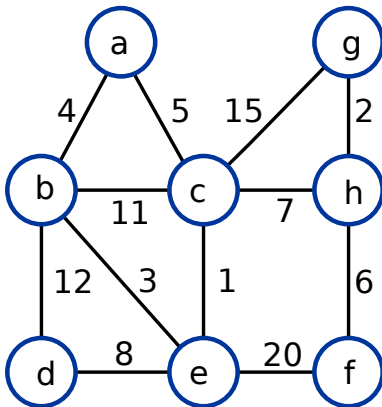
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 - ▶ We obtain a cycle.
 - ▶ Which edge in the cycle can we be sure does not belong to an MST?

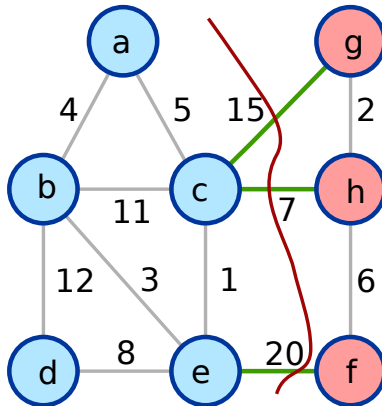
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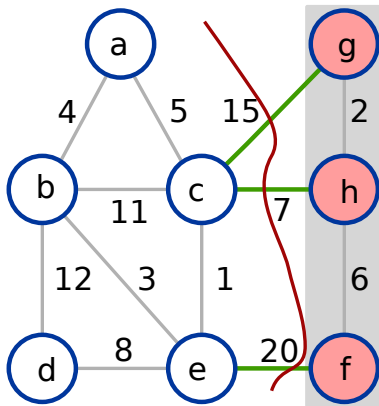
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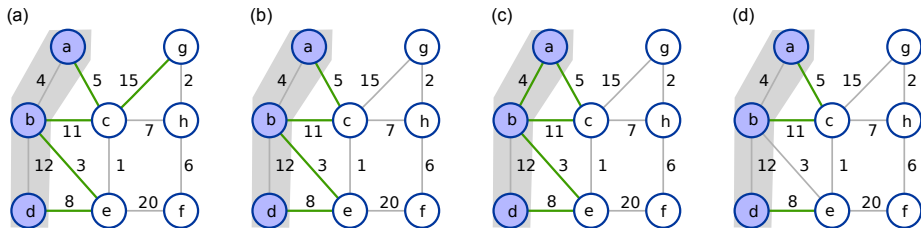
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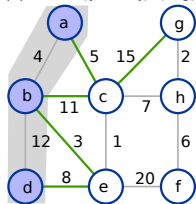
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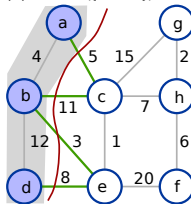
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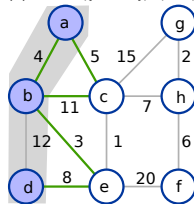
(a) Not cut($\{a, b, d\}$): (c, g)



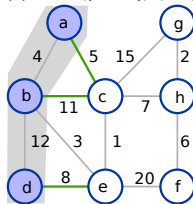
(b) Is cut($\{a, b, d\}$)



(c) Not cut($\{a, b, d\}$): (a, b)

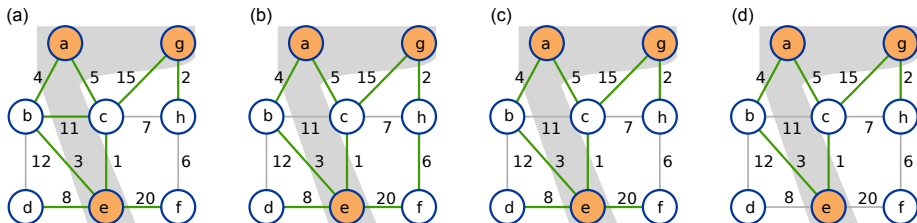


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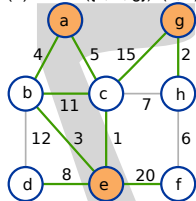
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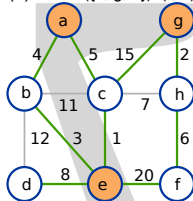
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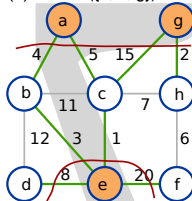
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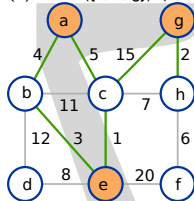
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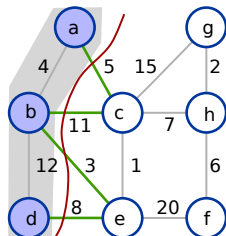


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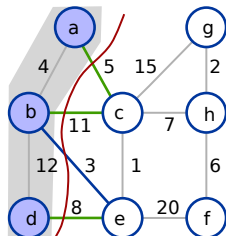
Cut Property

- When is it safe to include an edge in an MST?



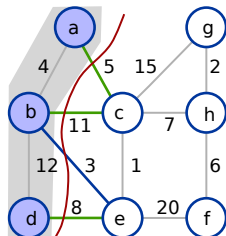
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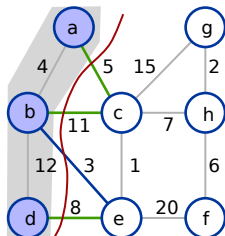
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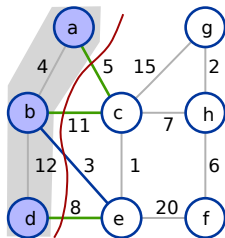
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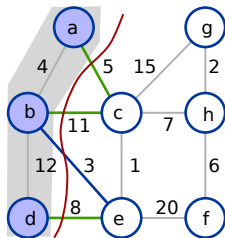
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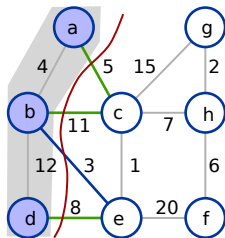
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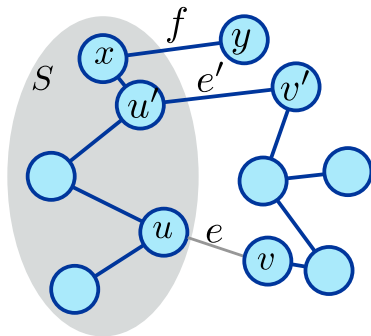
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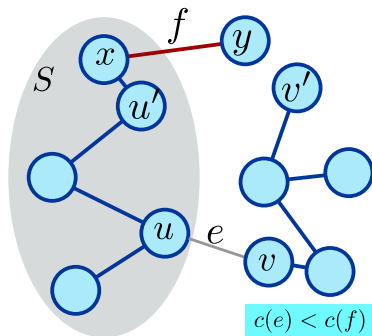
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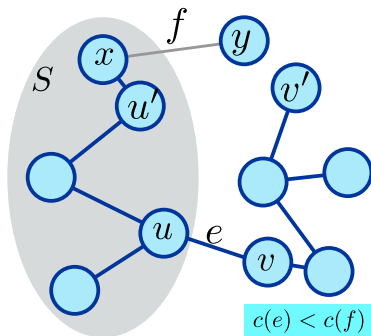
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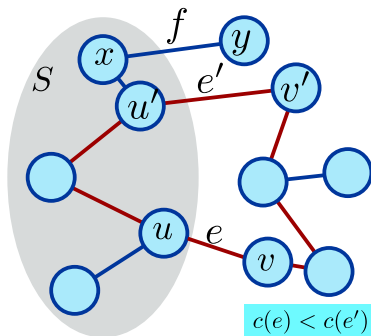
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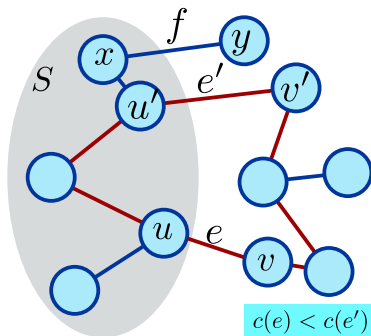
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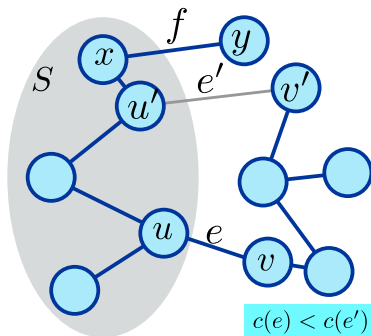
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Prim's Algorithm

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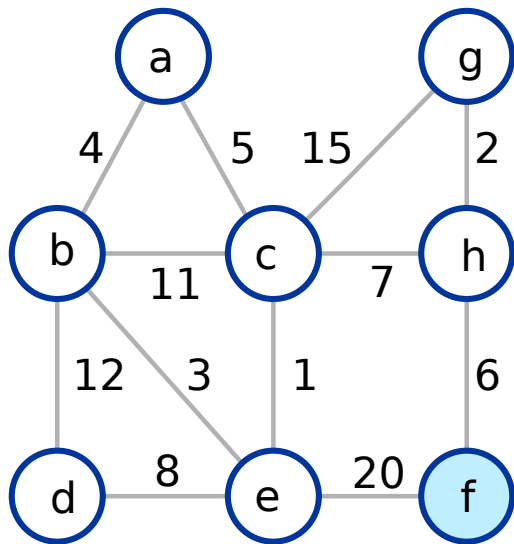
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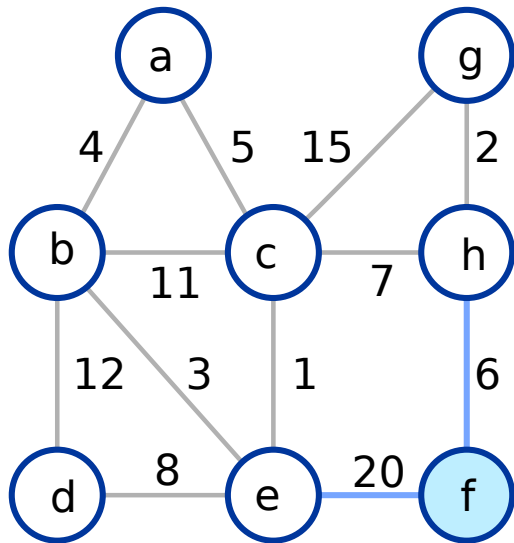
$$\arg \min_{(u,v), u \in S, v \in V-S} c(u, v) \equiv \arg \min_{(u,v) \in \text{cut}(S)} c(u, v).$$

- In other words, in each step, Prim's algorithm computes and adds the cheapest edge in the current value of $\text{cut}(S)$.

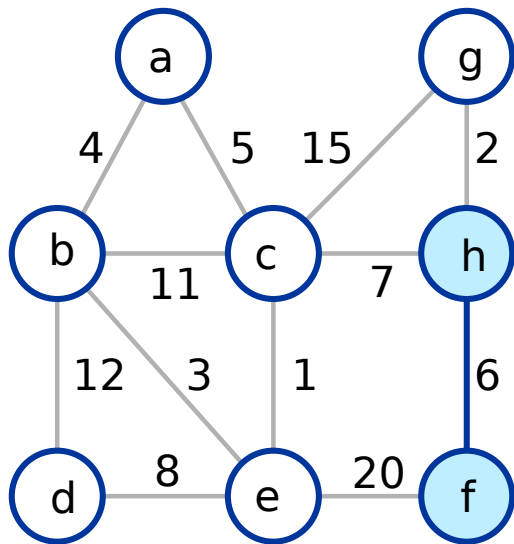
Example of Prim's Algorithm



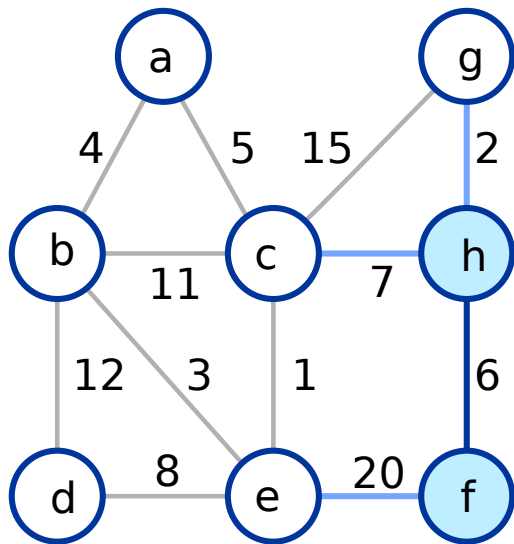
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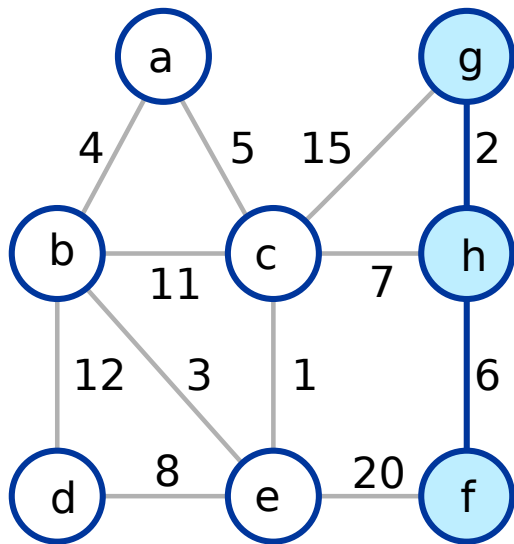
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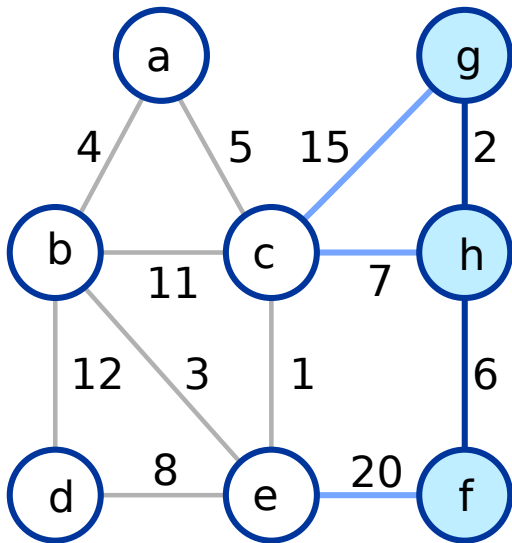
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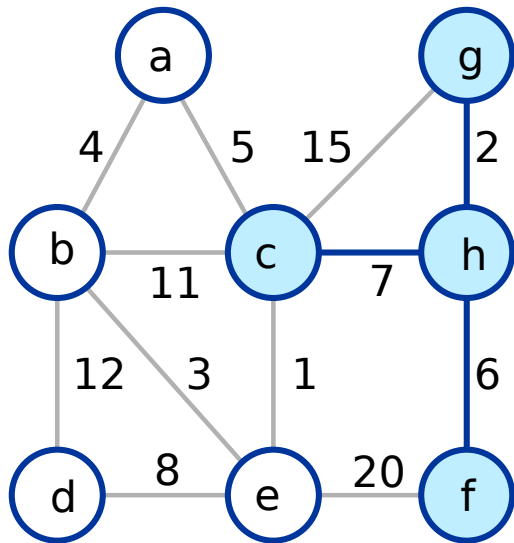
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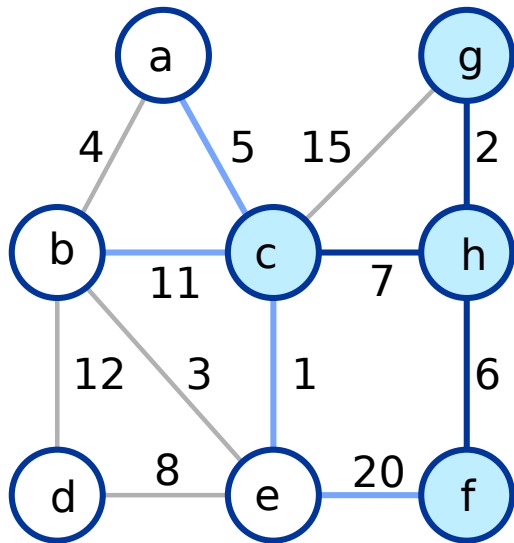
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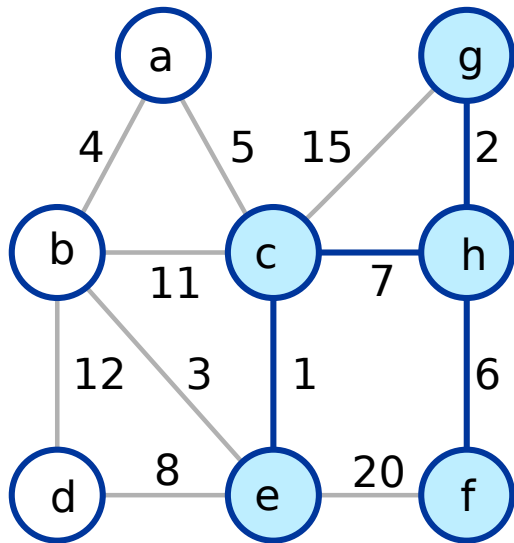
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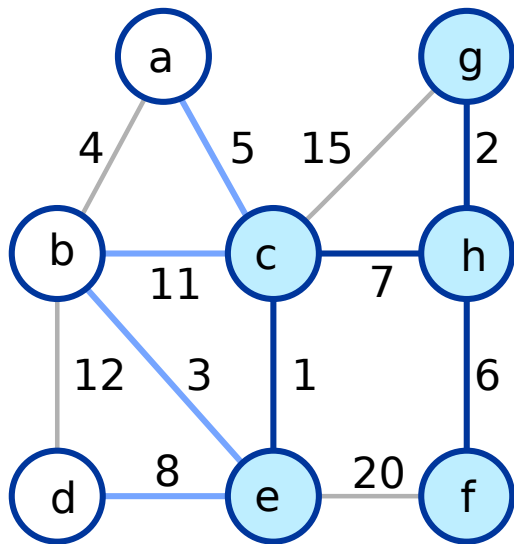
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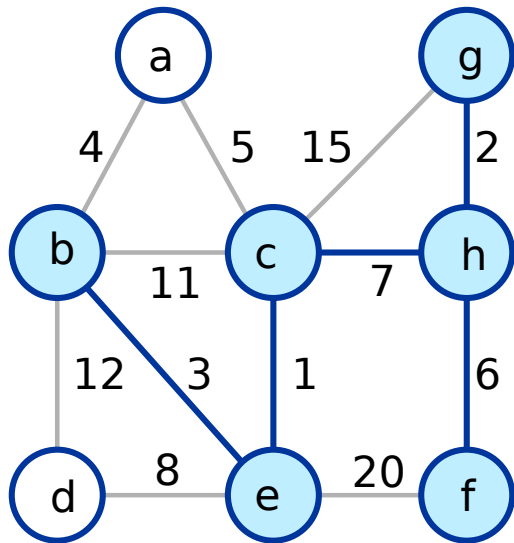
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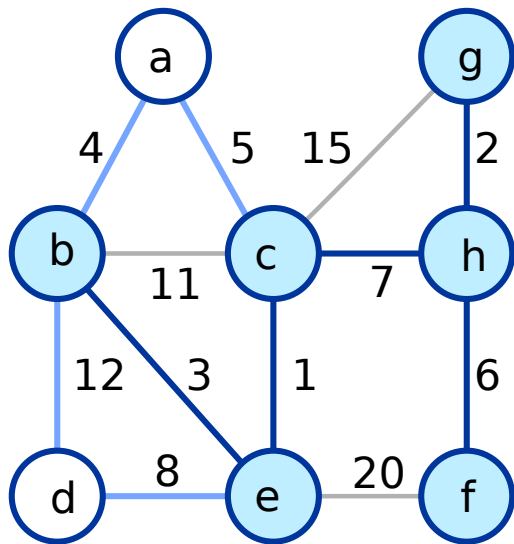
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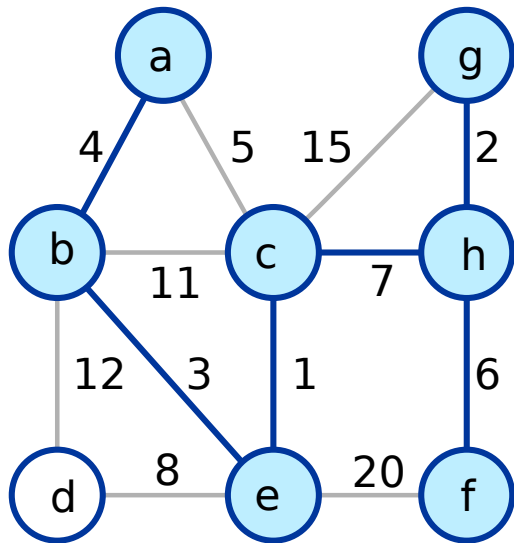
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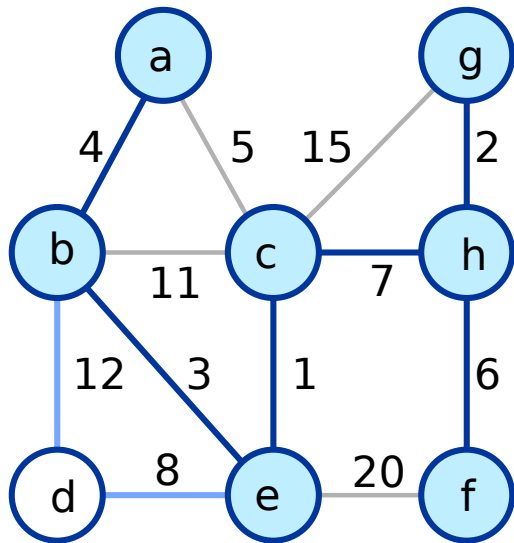
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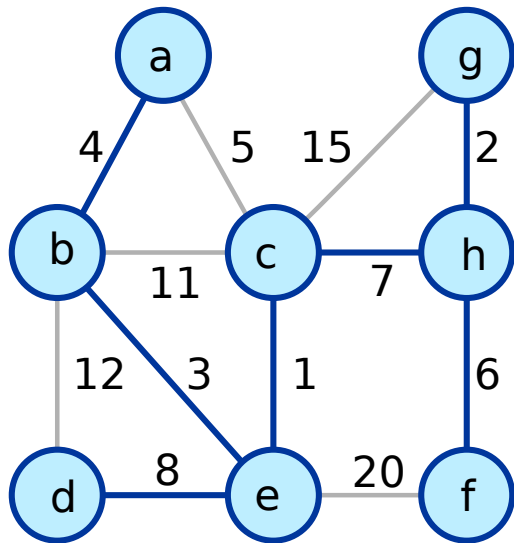
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Optimality of Prim's Algorithm

PRIM'S ALGORITHM(G, c, s)

- 1: $S = \{s\}$ and $T = \emptyset$
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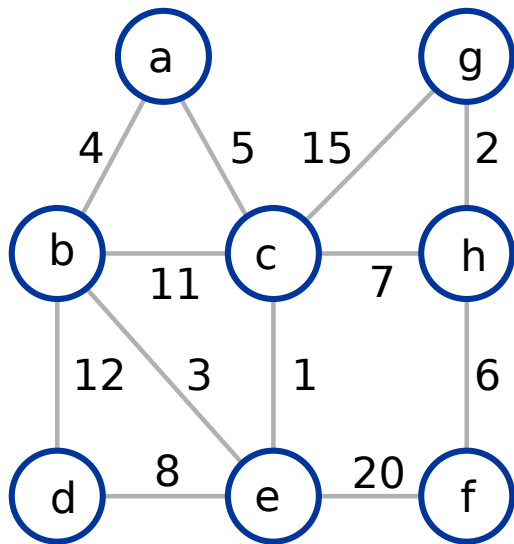
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 - ★ Why is (V, T) a spanning tree (edges in T connect all nodes in V)? ▶ Poll

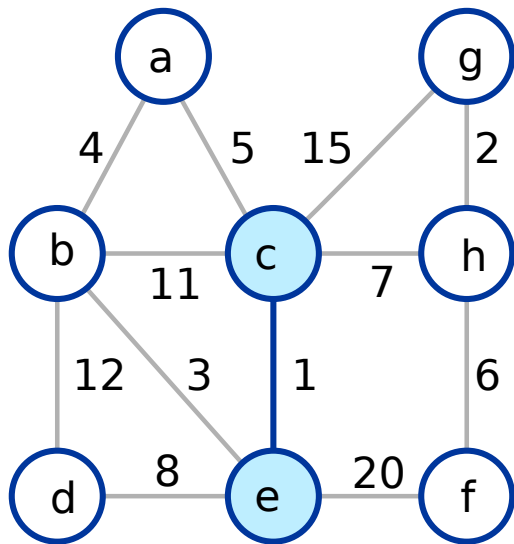
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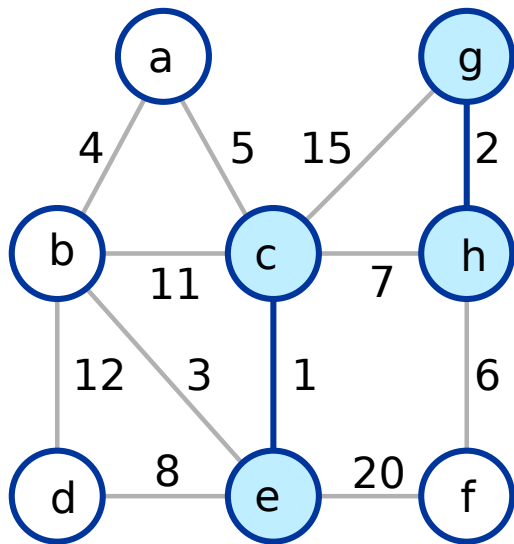
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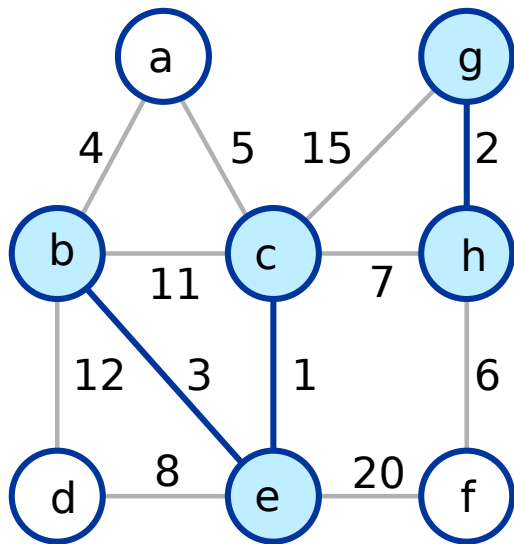
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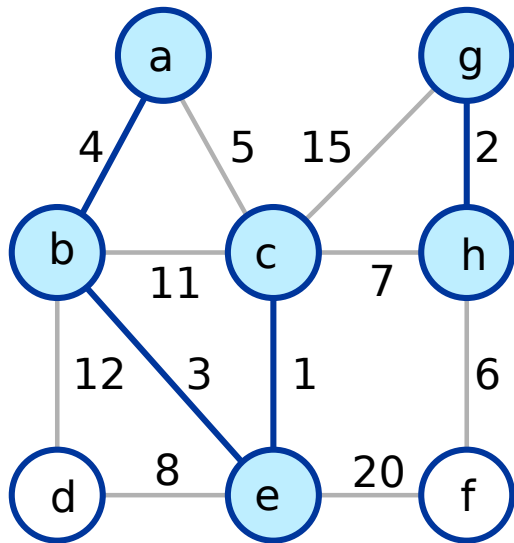
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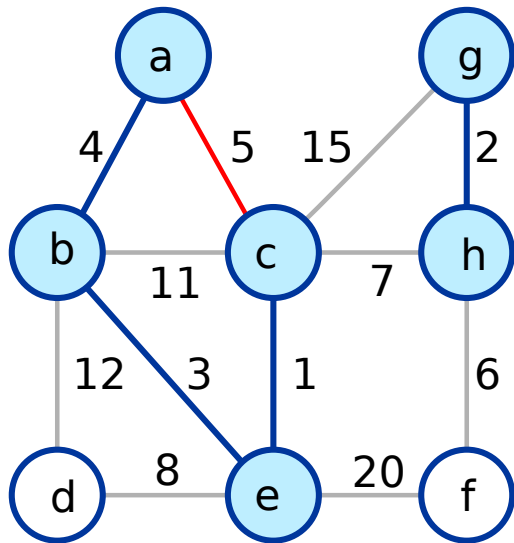
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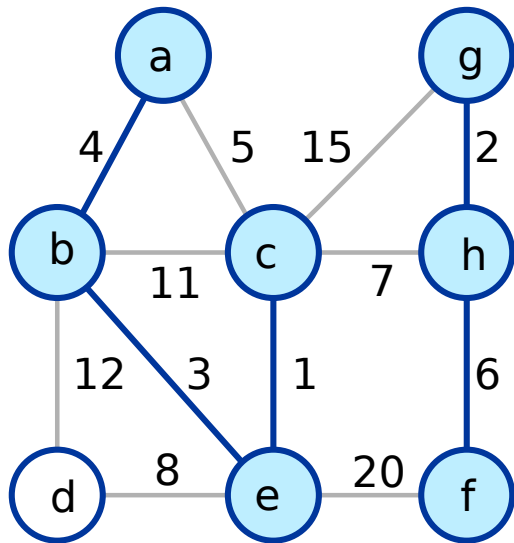
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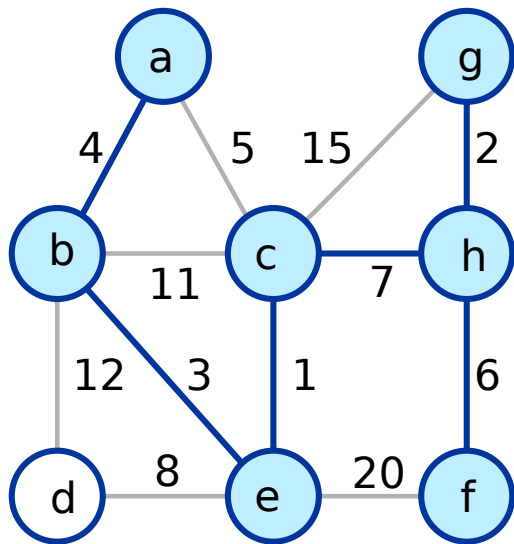
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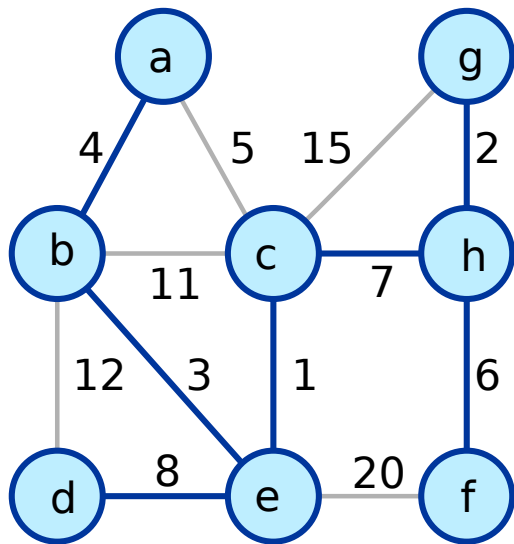
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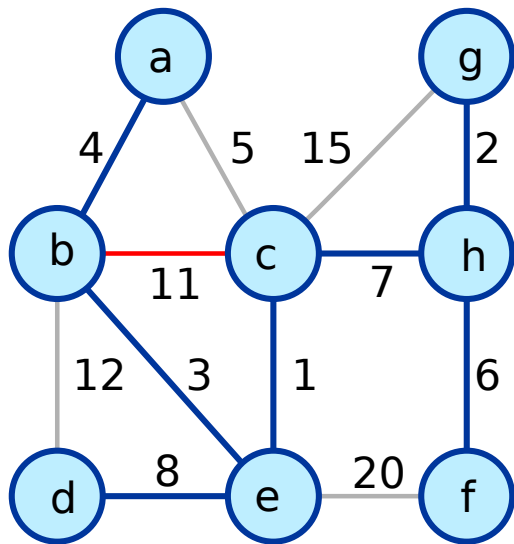
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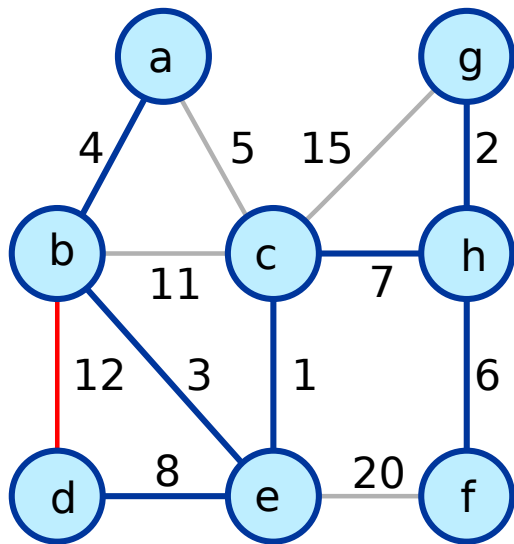
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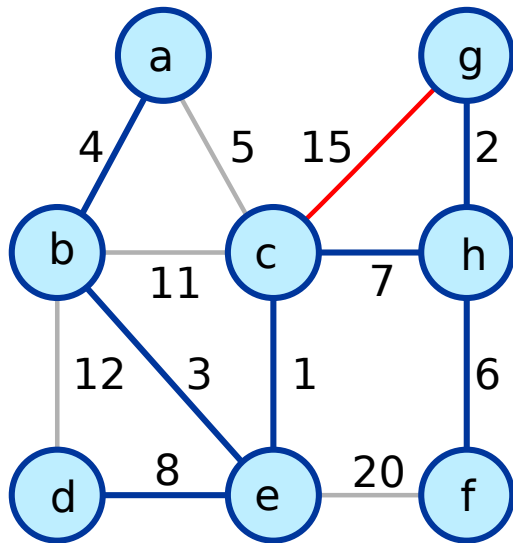
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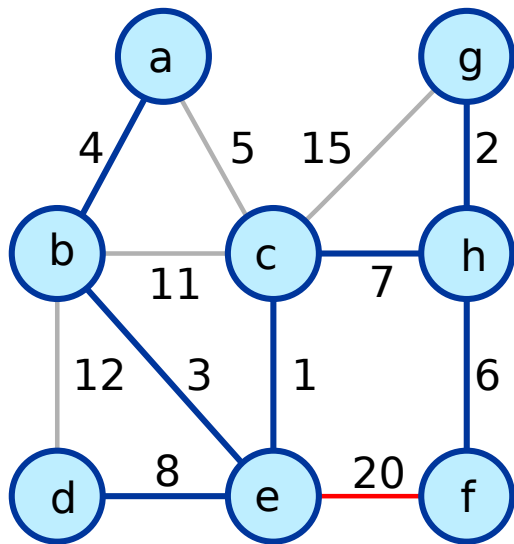
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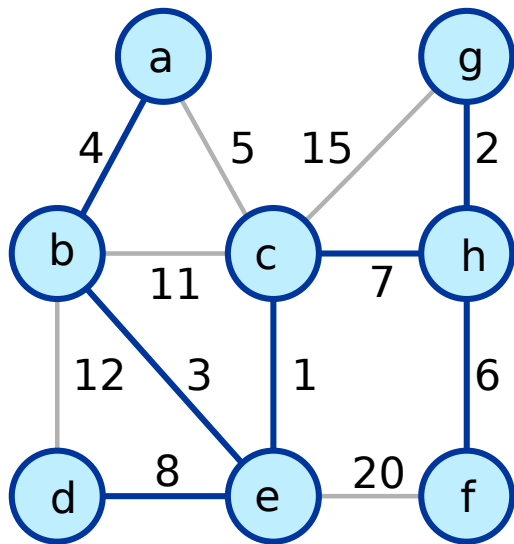
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 - ★ (V, T) contains no cycles by construction.
 - ★ If (V, T) is not connected, there exists a subset S of nodes not connected to $V - S$. What is the contradiction?

Cycle Property

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

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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 .

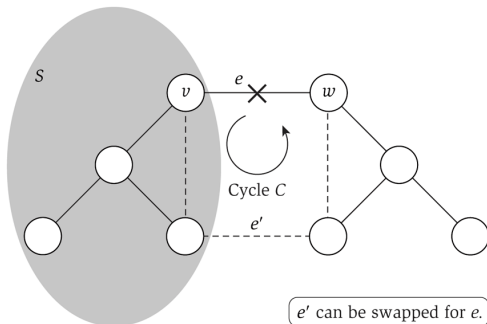


Figure 4.11 Swapping the edge e' for the edge e in the spanning tree T , as described in the proof of (4.20).

Optimality of the Reverse-Delete Algorithm

- Reverse-Delete algorithm: Maintain a set E' of edges.
 - ▶ Start with $E' = E$.
 - ▶ Process edges in decreasing order of cost.
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 - ▶ Stop after processing all the edges.
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 - ★ (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.

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!

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 $a(v) = \min_{e \in \text{cut}(S)} c(e)$ for every node $v \in V - S$ in a priority queue.
- 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  $S \neq V$  do
3:    $(v, a(v), u) = \text{EXTRACTMIN}(Q)$ 
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  $G$  do
6:     if  $c(v, x) < a(x)$  then
7:        $a(x) = c(v, x)$ 
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 .



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- Q is a priority queue.
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- Total of $n - 1$ EXTRACTMIN and m CHANGEKEY/Insert operations, yielding a running time of $O(m \log n)$.

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Implementing Kruskal's Algorithm

- Start with an empty set T of edges.
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- 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 .
 - ▶ $\text{FIND}(u)$: return the name of the connected component of T that u belongs to.
 - ▶ $\text{UNION}(A, B)$: merge connected components A and B .

Analysing Kruskal's Algorithm

- How many `FIND` invocations does Kruskal's algorithm need?

Analysing Kruskal's Algorithm

- How many `FIND` invocations does Kruskal's algorithm need? $2m$.
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- Textbook describes two implementations of UNION-FIND: (see appendix to this set of slides)
 - ▶ Each FIND takes $O(1)$ time, k invocations of UNION take $O(k \log k)$ time in total.
 - ▶ Each FIND takes $O(\log n)$ time and each invocation of UNION takes $O(1)$ time.

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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.
- 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 $\text{MAKEUNIONFIND}(U)$: initialise the data structure with elements in U .
 - 2 $\text{FIND}(u)$: return the identity of the subset that contains u .
 - 3 $\text{UNION}(A, B)$: merge the sets named A and B into one set.

Union-Find Data Structure: Implementation 1

- 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 .
- Implementing the operations:

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 - 1 MAKEUNIONFIND(U): For each $s \in U$, set COMPONENT[s] = s in $O(n)$ time.
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 - 3 `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.

Union-Find Data Structure: Implementation 2

- 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:
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- `UNION` takes $\Omega(n)$ in the worst-case.

Union-Find Data Structure: Implementation 2

- 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:
 - 1 Updating `COMPONENT` for elements of B in $O(|B|)$ time.
 - 2 Append `ELEMENTS[B]` to `ELEMENTS[A]` in $O(1)$ time.
- `UNION` takes $\Omega(n)$ in the worst-case.
- Optimisation 2: Store size of each set in an array (say, `SIZE`). If $SIZE[B] \leq SIZE[A]$, merge B into A . Otherwise merge A into B . Update `SIZE`.

Union-Find Data Structure: Analysis of Implementation

- MAKEUNIONFIND(S) and FIND(u) are as before.

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 - ▶ Consider any element s . Every time s 's set identity is updated, the size of the set containing s at least doubles $\Rightarrow s$'s set can change at most $\log(2k)$ times \Rightarrow the total work done in k UNION operations is $O(k \log k)$.

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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?

Union-Find Data Structure: Implementation 3

- Goal: Implement FIND in $O(\log n)$ and UNION in $O(1)$ worst-case time.

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- Represent each subset in a tree using pointers:
 - ▶ Each tree node contains an element and a pointer to a parent.
 - ▶ The identity of the set is the identity of the element at the root.

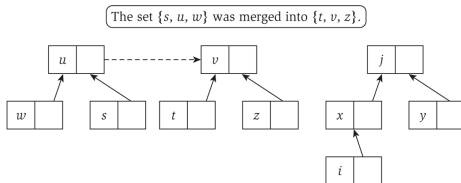


Figure 4.12 A Union-Find data structure using pointers. The data structure has only two sets at the moment, named after nodes v and j . The dashed arrow from u to v is the result of the last Union operation. To answer a Find query, we follow the arrows until we get to a node that has no outgoing arrow.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

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- Implementing `FIND(u)`: follow pointers from u to the root of u 's tree.

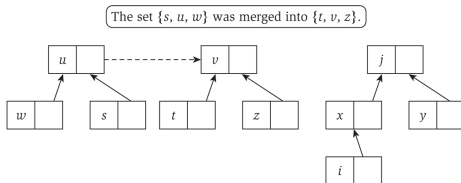


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 - ▶ Each tree node contains an element and a pointer to a parent.
 - ▶ The identity of the set is the identity of the element at the root.
- Implementing $\text{FIND}(u)$: follow pointers from u to the root of u 's tree.
- Implementing $\text{UNION}(A, B)$: make smaller tree's root a child of the larger tree's root. Takes $O(1)$ time.

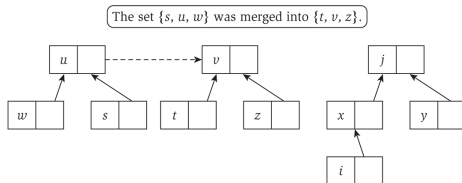


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Union-Find Data Structure: Find in Implementation 3

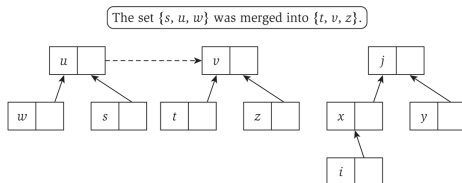


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- Why does $\text{FIND}(u)$ take $O(\log n)$ time?

Union-Find Data Structure: Find in Implementation 3

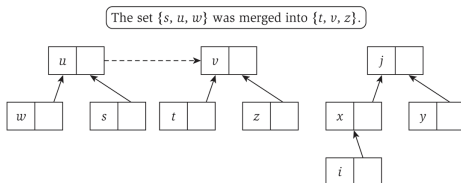


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- Why does $\text{FIND}(u)$ take $O(\log n)$ time?
- Number of pointers followed equals the number of times the identity of the set containing u changed.
- Every time u 's set's identity changes, the set at least doubles in size \Rightarrow there are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

Union-Find Data Structure: Improving Implementation

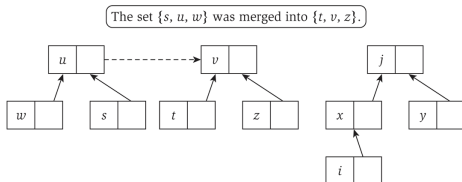


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- Every time we invoke $\text{FIND}(u)$, we follow the same set of pointers.

Union-Find Data Structure: Improving Implementation

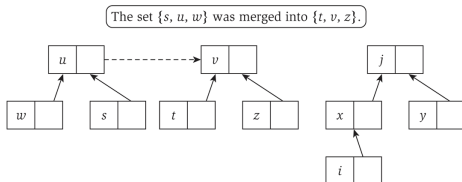


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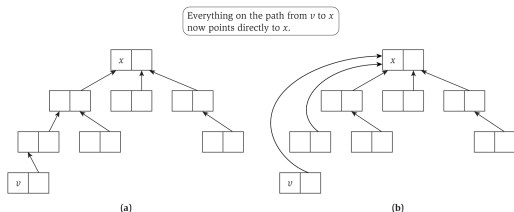


Figure 4.13 (a) An instance of a Union-Find data structure; and (b) the result of the operation $\text{Find}(v)$ on this structure, using path compression.

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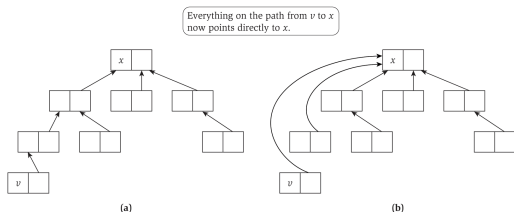


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- Every time we invoke $\text{FIND}(u)$, we follow the same set of pointers.
- Path compression: make all nodes visited by $\text{FIND}(u)$ children of the root.
- Can prove that total time taken by n FIND operations is $O(n\alpha(n))$, where $\alpha(n)$ 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 .