# Greedy Graph Algorithms

T. M. Murali

February 7, 12, and 14, 2013

#### **Graphs**

- Model pairwise relationships (edges) between objects (nodes).
- ▶ Undirected graph G = (V, E): set V of nodes and set E of edges, where  $E \subseteq V \times V$ . Elements of E are unordered pairs.
- ▶ Directed graph G = (V, E): set V of nodes and set E of edges, where  $E \subseteq V \times V$ . Elements of E are ordered pairs.

# **Applications of Graphs**

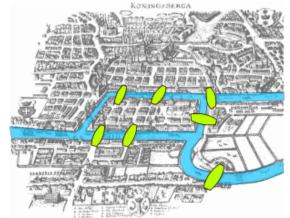
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#### **Shortest Path Problem**

- ▶ G(V, E) is a connected directed graph. Each edge e has a length  $l_e \ge 0$ .
- ▶ V has n nodes and E has m edges.
- ▶ Length of a path P is the sum of the lengths of the edges in P.
- ▶ Goal is to determine 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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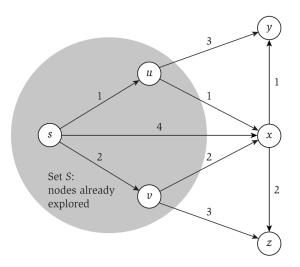
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- ▶ Aside: If *G* is undirected, convert to a directed graph by replacing each edge in *G* by two directed edges.

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  $\{P_u, u \in V\}$ , where  $P_u$  is the shortest path in G from s to u.

#### **Example of Dijkstra's Algorithm**



**Figure 4.7** A snapshot of the execution of Dijkstra's Algorithm. The next node that will be added to the set S is x, due to the path through u.

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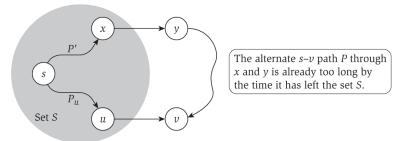
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**Figure 4.8** The shortest path  $P_v$  and an alternate s-v path P through the node y.

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Running time per iteration is O(m), yielding an overall running time of O(nm).

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- ▶ Store the minima d'(v) for each node  $v \in V S$  in a priority queue.
- ▶ Determine the next node v to add to S using EXTRACTMIN.
- After adding v to S, for each neighbour w of v, compute  $d(v) + l_{(v,w)}$ .
- ▶ If  $d(v) + I_{(v,w)} < d'(w)$ ,
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#### **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.
- Example: connect all nodes using a cycle of shortest total length.

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- ▶ 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.
- ► Example: connect all nodes using a cycle of shortest total length. This problem is the NP-complete traveling salesman problem.

## 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.

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

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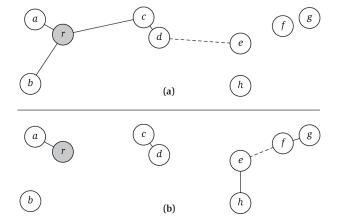
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Prim's algorithm

Decreasing cost order Delete edges in order of decreasing cost as long as graph remains connected. Reverse-Delete algorithm

- Which of these algorithms works? All of them!
- Simplifying assumption: all edge costs are distinct.

#### **Example of Prim's and Kruskal's Algorithms**



**Figure 4.9** Sample run of the Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithms of (a) Prim and (b) Kruskal, on the same input. The first 4 edges added to the spanning tree are indicated by solid lines; the next edge to be added is a dashed line.

Does the edge of smallest cost belong to an MST?

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- ▶ Which edges cannot belong to an MST?
  - ▶ 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?

#### **Graph Cuts**

- ▶ A *cut* in a graph G(V, E) is a set of edges whose removal disconnects the graph (into two or more connected components).
- ▶ Every set  $S \subset V$  (S cannot be empty or the entire set V) has a corresponding cut: cut(S) is the set of edges (v, w) such that  $v \in S$  and  $w \in V S$ .

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- ightharpoonup cut(S) is a cut because deleting the edges in cut(S) disconnects S from V-S.

# **Cut Property**

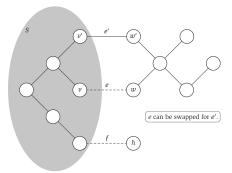
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#### **Cut Property**

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- Let  $S \subset V$ , S is not empty or equal to V.
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- ▶ Let e be the cheapest edge in cut(S).
- Claim: every MST contains e.
- ▶ Proof: exchange argument. If a supposed MST *T* does not contain *e*, show that there is a tree with smaller cost than *T* that contains *e*.



**Figure 4.10** Swapping the edge e for the edge e' in the spanning tree T, as described in the proof of (4.17).

- 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. Discard e
    if it creates a cycle.
- ▶ Claim: Kruskal's algorithm outputs an MST.

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    - ▶ Why is e the cheapest edge in cut(S)?
  - 2. Prove that the algorithm computes a spanning tree.
    - (V, T) contains no cycles by construction.
    - ▶ If (V, T) is not connected, then exists a subset S of nodes not connected to V S. What is the contradiction?

- ▶ Prim's algorithm: Maintain a tree (S, U)
  - ▶ Start with an arbitrary node  $s \in S$  and  $U = \emptyset$ .
  - ▶ Add the node v to S and the edge e to U that minimise

$$\min_{e=(u,v),u\in S,v\not\in S} c_e \equiv \min_{e\in \operatorname{cut}(S)} c_e.$$

- ▶ Stop when S = V.
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- Claim: Prim's algorithm outputs an MST.
  - 1. Prove that every edge inserted satisfies the cut property.
    - In each iteration, S is the set added in the algorithm and e is the cheapest edge in cut(S) by construction.
  - 2. Prove that the graph constructed is a spanning tree.
    - ▶ Why are there no cycles in (V, T)?
    - ▶ Why is (*V*, *T*) connected?

# **Cycle Property**

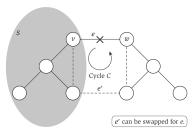
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### Cycle Property

- ▶ 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.
- Claim: e does not belong to any MST of G.

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- 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.
  - ▶ 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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    - $\triangleright$  (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

- Maintain a tree (S, U).
  - ▶ Start with an arbitrary node  $s \in V$  and  $U = \emptyset$ .
  - ▶ Add the node *v* to *S* and the edge *e* to *U* that minimise

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\min_{e \in \operatorname{cut}(S)} c_e.
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▶ Stop when S = V.

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$$\min_{e \in \text{cut}(S)} c_e$$
.

- Stop when S = V.
- ▶ Sorting edges takes  $O(m \log n)$  time.
- Implementation is 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 minimum *v* from priority queue and update the attachment costs of the neighbours of *v*.
- ▶ Total of n-1 EXTRACTMIN and m CHANGEKEY operations, yielding a running time of  $O(m \log n)$ .

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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.
  - 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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- ➤ 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.
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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. 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.

- ightharpoonup 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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- Implementing the operations:
  - 1. MAKEUNIONFIND(U): For each  $s \in U$ , set Component[s] = s in O(n) time.
  - 2. FIND(s): return COMPONENT[s] in O(1) time.
  - 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.

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- ▶ 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*.
  - ightharpoonup 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.
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- ▶ 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.

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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?

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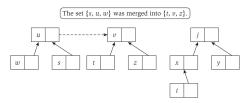


Figure 4.12 A Union-Find data structure using pointers. The data structure has only two sets at the moment, named after nodes v and j. The dashed arrow from u to v is the result of the last Union operation. To answer a Find query, we follow the arrows until we get to a node that has no outgoing arrow.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

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

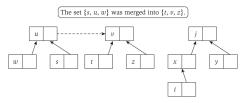


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- Represent each subset in a tree using pointers:
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- The identity of the set is the identity of the element at the root.
- ▶ Implementing FIND(u): follow pointers from u to the root of u's tree.
- ▶ Implementing UNION(A, B): make smaller tree's root a child of the larger tree's root. Takes O(1) time.

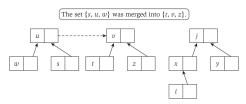


Figure 4.12 A Union-Find data structure using pointers. The data structure has only two sets at the moment, named after nodes v and j. The dashed arrow from u to v is the result of the last Union operation. To answer a Find query, we follow the arrows until we get to a node that has no outgoing arrow.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

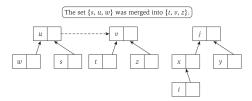


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▶ Why does FIND(u) take  $O(\log n)$  time?

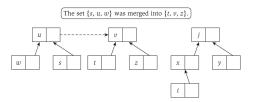


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- ▶ Why does FIND(u) take  $O(\log n)$  time?
- ▶ Number of pointers followed equals the number of times the identity of the set containing *u* changed.
- ▶ Every time u's set's identity changes, the set at least doubles in size  $\Rightarrow$  there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

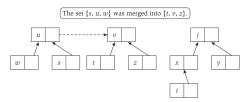


Figure 4.12 A Union-Find data structure using pointers. The data structure has only two sets at the moment, named after nodes v and j. The dashed arrow from u to v is the result of the last Union operation. To answer a Find query, we follow the arrows until we get to a node that has no outgoing arrow.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

• Every time we invoke FIND(u), we follow the same set of pointers.

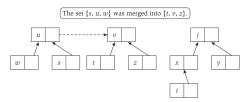


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- Every time we invoke FIND(u), we follow the same set of pointers.
- ▶ Path compression: make all nodes visited by FIND(u) children of the root.

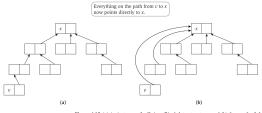


Figure 4.13 (a) An instance of a Union-Find data structure; and (b) the result of the operation Find(ν) on this structure, using path compression.

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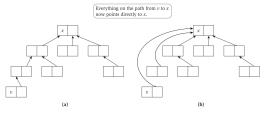


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- **E** Every time we invoke FIND(u), we follow the same set of pointers.
- ▶ Path compression: make all nodes visited by FIND(u) children of the root.
- ▶ Can prove that total time taken by n FIND operations is  $O(n\alpha(n))$ , where  $\alpha(n)$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