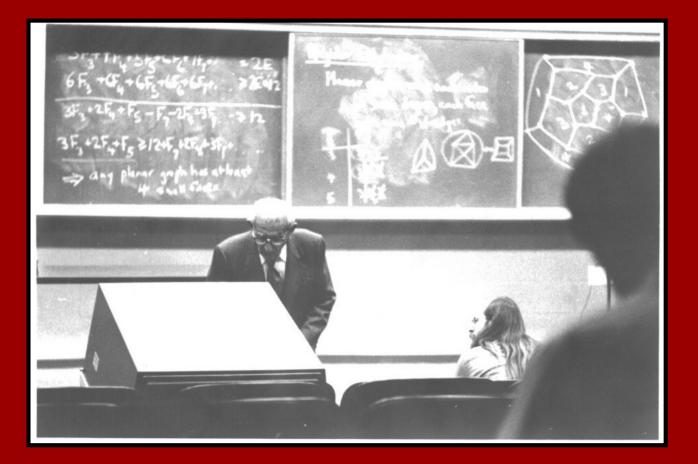
#### 15-251: Great Theoretical Ideas in Computer Science Lecture 12

# **Graph Algorithms**



## L.F.O.A.

### Lecture Full Of Acronyms

### LFOA Fun Poll:.

Which acronym(s) will we not learn about today

AFS BFS CFS DFS MST AFSOC The most basic graph algorithms:

**BFS:** Breadth-first search

**DFS:** Depth-first search

**AFS:** Arbitrary-first search

What problems do these algorithms solve?

### **Graph Search Algorithms**

#### Given a graph G = (V, E)...

- Check if vertex s can reach vertex t.
- Decide if G is connected.
- Identify connected components of G.

All reduce to:

"Given s∈V, identify all nodes reachable from s." (We'll call this set ConnComp(s).)

Algorithm AFS(G,s) does exactly this.

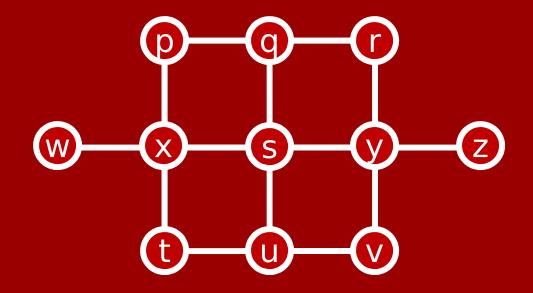
Finds a **spanning tree** of CONNCOMP(s) rooted at s.

Given G = (V,E), a **spanning tree** is a tree T = (V,E') such that  $E' \subseteq E$ .

More informally, a minimal set of edges connecting up all vertices of G.

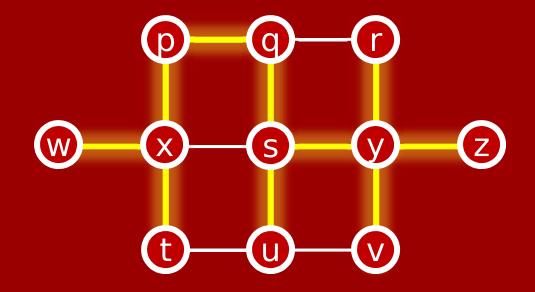
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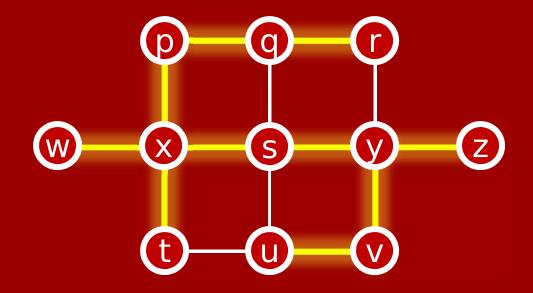
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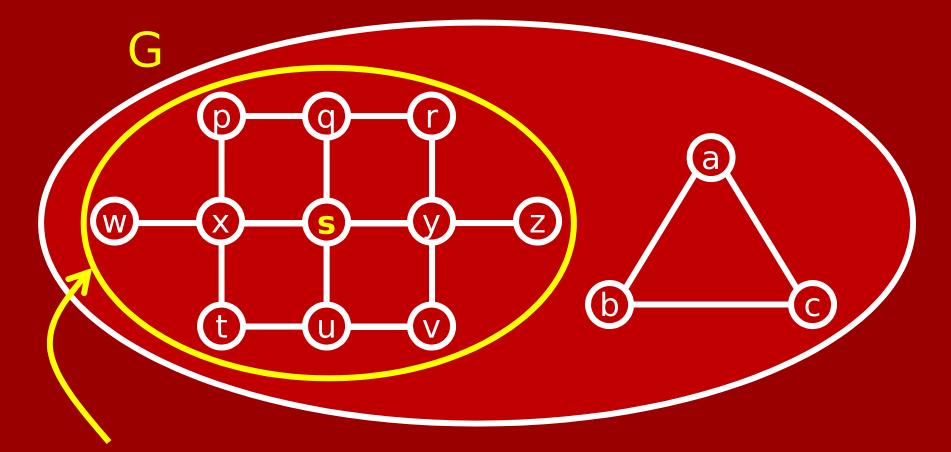


Finds a **spanning tree** of CONNCOMP(s) rooted at s.

Given G = (V,E), a **spanning tree** is a tree T = (V,E') such that  $E' \subseteq E$ .



#### AFS(G,s): Finding all nodes reachable from s



"Duh, it's these ones."

But it's not so obvious when the input looks like...

AFS(G,s): Finding all nodes reachable from s

 $V = \{a,b,c,p,q,r,s,t,u,v,w,x,y,z\}$ 

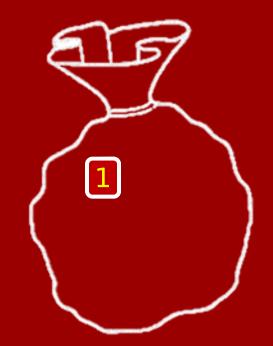
 $E = \{ \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{b,c\}, \{p,q\}, \{p,x\}, \{q,r\}, \\ \{q,s\}, \{r,y\}, \{s,u\}, \{s,x\}, \{s,y\}, \{t,u\}, \\ \{t,x\}, \{u,v\}, \{v,y\}, \{w,x\}, \{y,z\} \} \}$ 

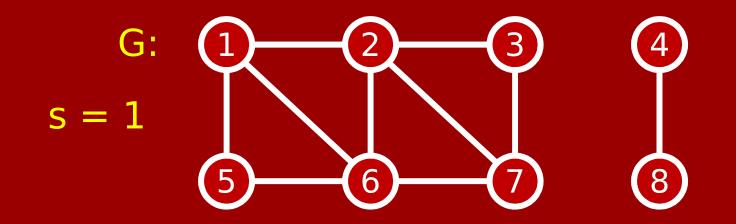
#### AFS(G,s):



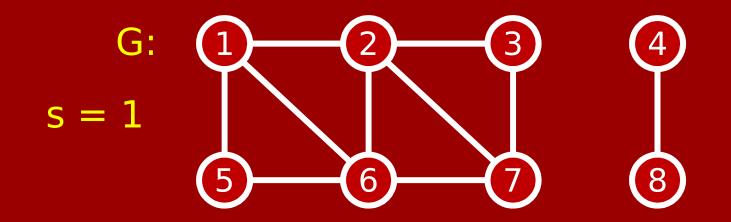
#### Intent:

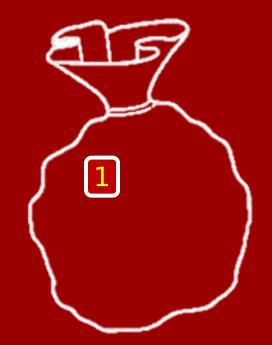
"Marked" vertices should be those reachable from s. w in bag means we want to keep exploring from w.

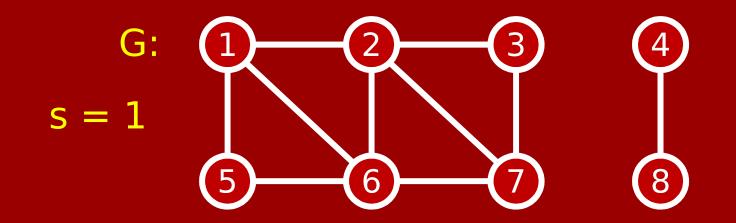












G:

s = 1

1

4

8

3

2

2

6

3

G:

s = 1

1

4

2

6

3

G:

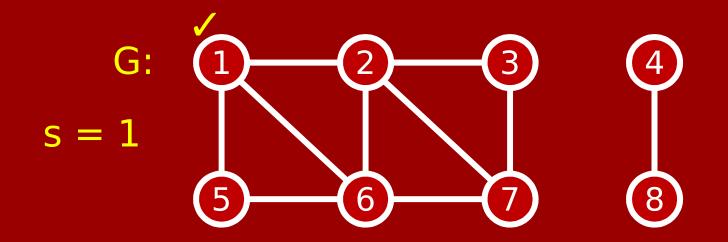
s = 1

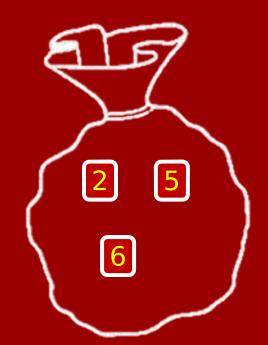
1

4

G:

s = 1





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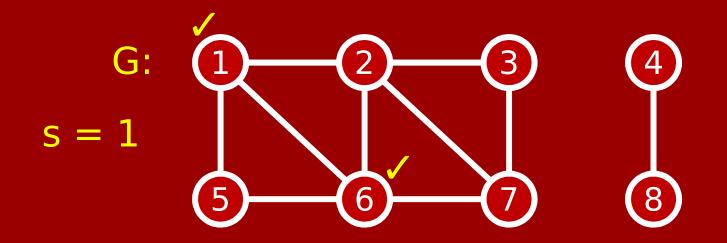
G:

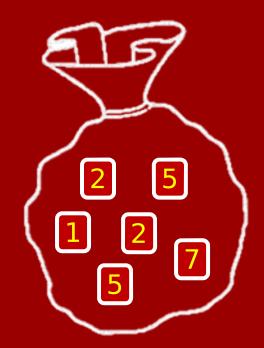
s = 1

4

G:

s = 1





2

6

3

G:

s = 1

4

G: (1) (2) (3) (4)s = 1 (5) (6) (7) (8)

AFS(G,s): Put s into bag While bag is not empty: Pick arbitrary tile v from bag If v is "unmarked": "Mark" v For each neighbor w of v: Put w into bag

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2

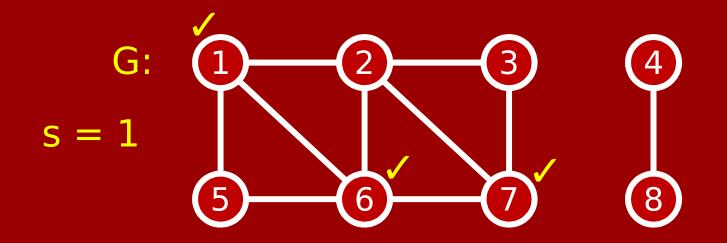
6

3

G:

s = 1

4





G: (1) (2) (3) (4)s = 1 (5) (5) (6) (7) (8)

AFS(G,s): Put s into bag While bag is not empty: Pick arbitrary tile v from bag If v is "unmarked": "Mark" v For each neighbor w of v: Put w into bag



s = 1 6 AFS(G,s): Put s into bag -> While bag is not empty: Pick arbitrary tile v from bag If v is "unmarked":

2

3

4

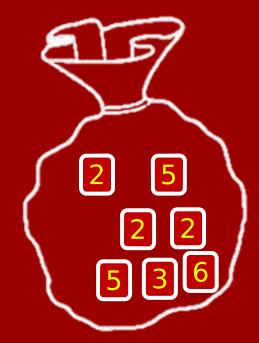
8

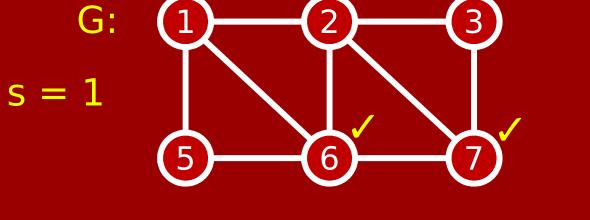
G:

"Mark" v For each neighbor w of v: Put w into bag



Put w into bag







### **Analysis of AFS**

Want to show: When this algorithm halts, { marked vertices } = { vertices reachable from s }.

{ marked } ⊆ { reachable }: This is clear.
{ reachable } ⊆ { marked }:
Wait, why does the algorithm even halt?!

### Why does AFS halt?

Every time a bunch of tiles is added to bag, it's because some vertex v just got marked.

 ♦ we add at most |V| bunches of tiles to the bag (since each vertex is marked ≤ 1 time).

at most finitely many
 tiles ever go into the bag.

Each iteration through loop removes 1 tile.

 AFS halts after finitely many iterations.

### A more careful analysis

Every time a bunch of tiles is added to bag, it's because some vertex v just got marked.

In this case, we add deg(v) tiles to the bag.

total number of tiles that ever enter the bag is

 $\leq \sum_{v \in V} deg(v) = 2|E|$ 

Each iteration through loop removes 1 tile.

 AFS halts after finitely many iterations. AFS(G,s):

# A more careful analysis

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Each iteration through loop removes 1 tile.

♦ AFS halts after  $\leq 2|E|$ many iterations. AFS(G,s):

Put s into bag
While bag is not empty:
Pick arbitrary tile v from bag
If v is "unmarked":
"Mark" v
For each neighbor w of v:
Put w into bag

# A more careful analysis

Every time a bunch of tiles is added to bag, it's because some vertex v just got marked.

In this case, we add deg(v) tiles to the bag.

total number of tiles that ever enter the bag is

When a tile w is added to the bag, it gets there "because of" a neighbor v that was just marked.

(Except for the initial s.)

Let's actually record this info on the tile, writing  $v \rightarrow w$ .

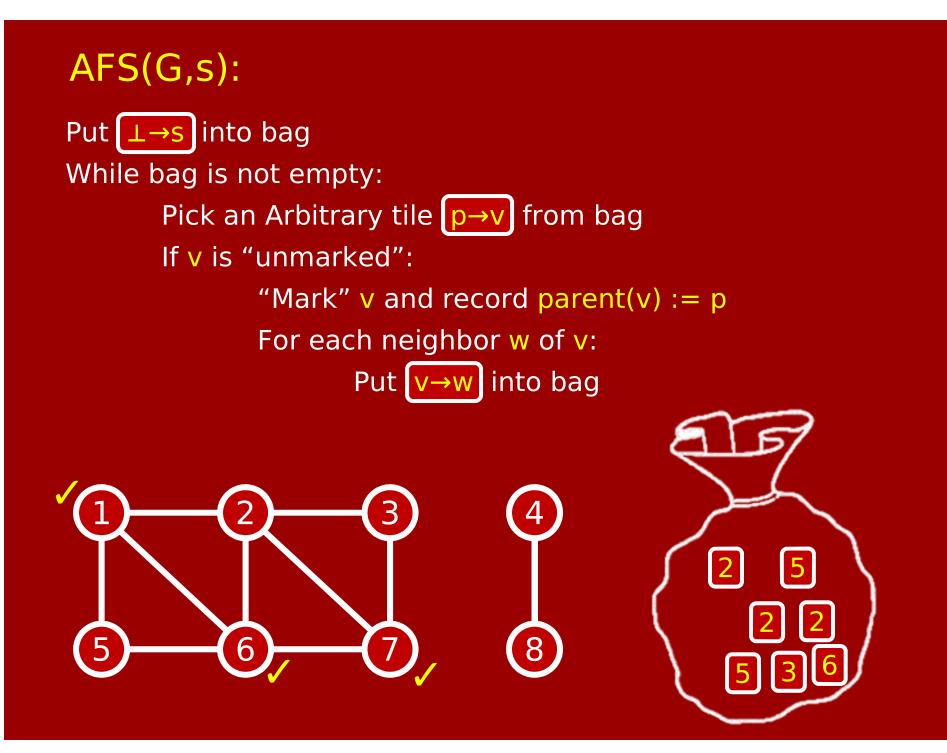
Meaning: "We want to keep exploring from w. By the way, we got to w from v."

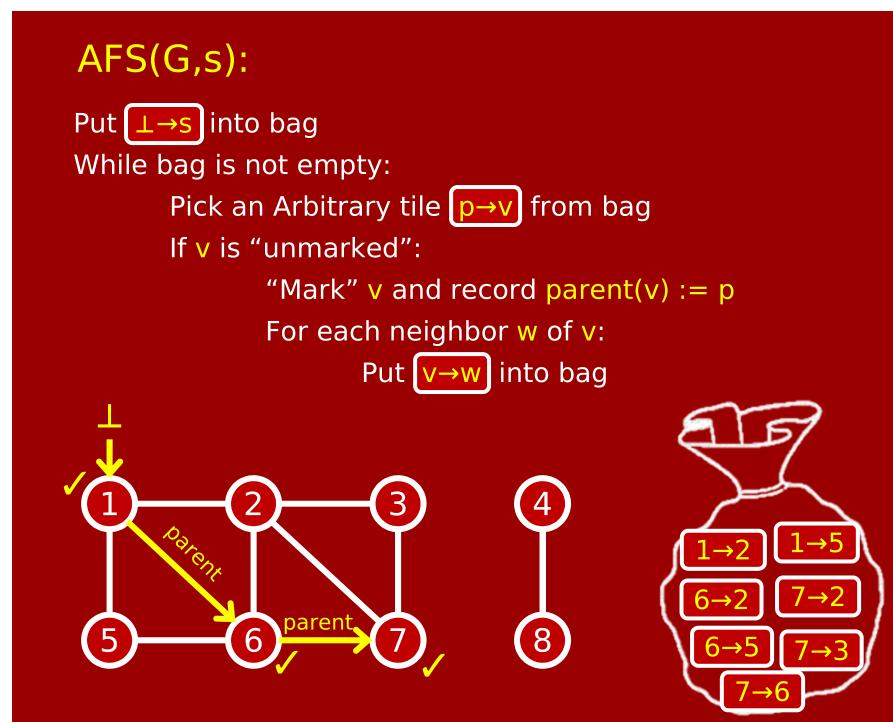
(And we'll write  $\square \rightarrow s$  initially.)

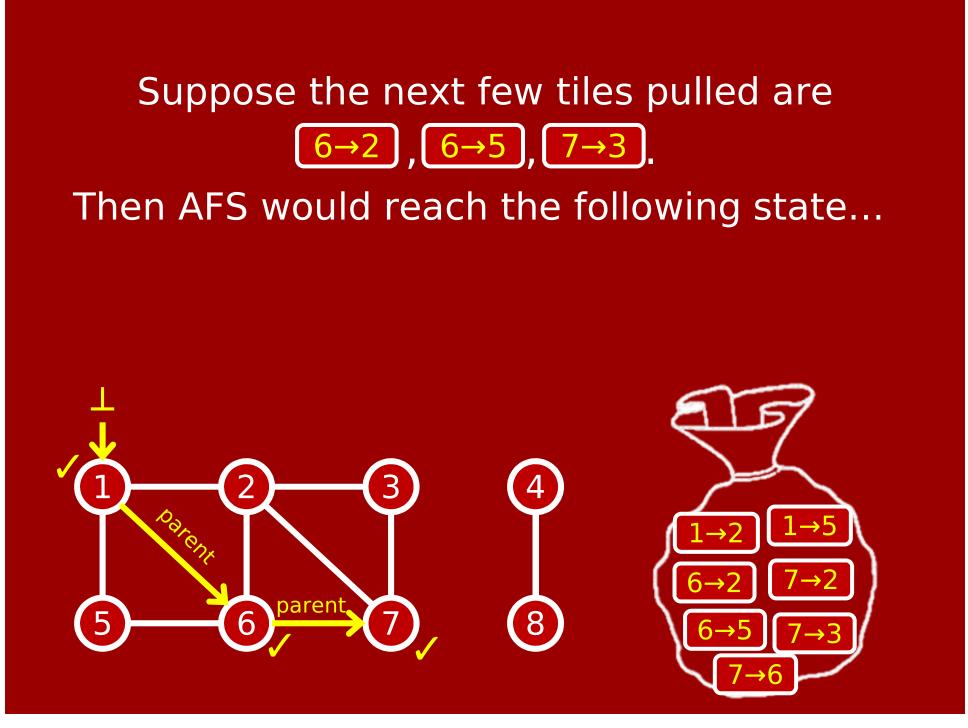
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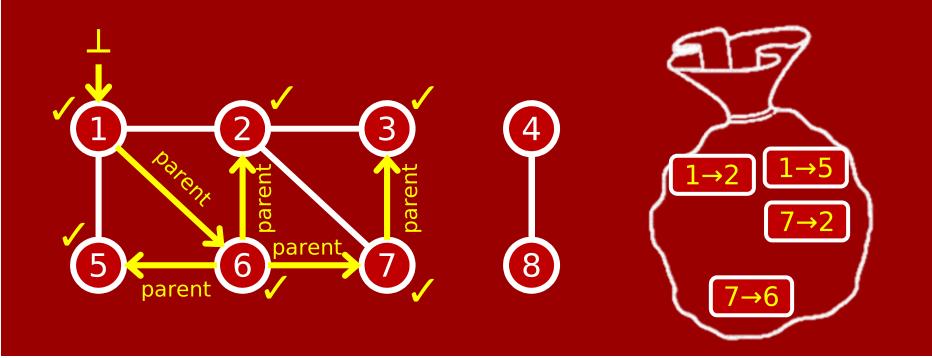




# Suppose the next few tiles pulled are $6 \rightarrow 2$ , $6 \rightarrow 5$ , $7 \rightarrow 3$ .

#### Then AFS would reach the following state...

#### Then remaining tiles would be pulled & discarded.



AFS(G,s):

Put ⊥→s into bag While bag is not empty: Pick an Arbitrary tile p→v from bag If v is "unmarked": "Mark" v and record parent(v) := p For each neighbor w of v: Put v→w into bag

**Theorem:** Every vertex in CONNCOMP(s) gets marked.

**Theorem:** Every vertex in CONNCOMP(s) gets marked.

**Equivalently:** For all vertices y, if there's a path from s to y of length k, then y gets marked.

**Proof:** By induction on k. Base case k = 0: Indeed, s gets marked.

Induction step: Suppose it's true for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Now suppose  $\exists$  a length-(k+1) path from s to some y. Write it as (s, ..., x, y). So (s, ..., x) is a length-k path. By induction, x gets marked. When x gets marked by the algorithm,  $x \rightarrow y$  goes in bag. We proved the bag eventually empties.

Thus  $x \rightarrow y$  will come out, and the algorithm will mark y.

#### So we've proved AFS(G,s) indeed marks CONNCOMP(s).

From now on, let's assume CONNCOMP(s) is all of G.

**Corollary:** The parent() information recorded by AFS encodes a spanning tree of G rooted at s.

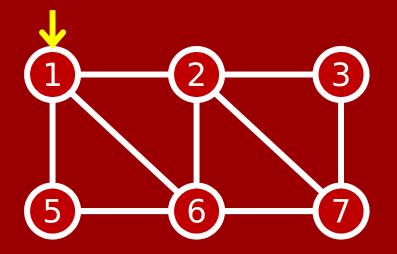
#### **Proof:**

It certainly records a bunch of edges.
Each vertex in G, except s, has exactly one parent edge.
Thus there are |V|−1 edges.
Further, it's clear that for all vertices v, parent(parent(…parent(v)…)) must reach s.
All vertices are connected to s, hence to each other.
parent edges form a tree (|V|−1 edges, connected).

# Instantiations of AFS

When the bag is a "**stack**". LIFO: Last-In First-Out.

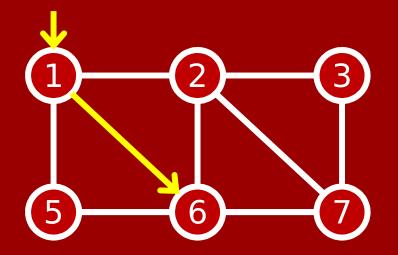
(Assume sorted adjacency list representation.)





When the bag is a "**stack**". LIFO: Last-In First-Out.

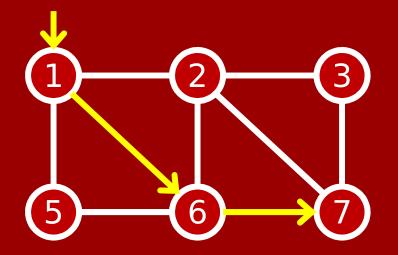
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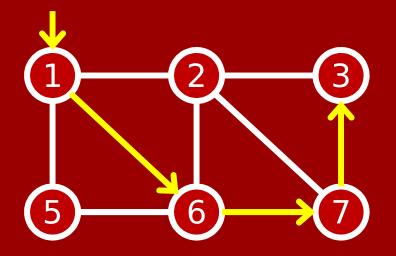
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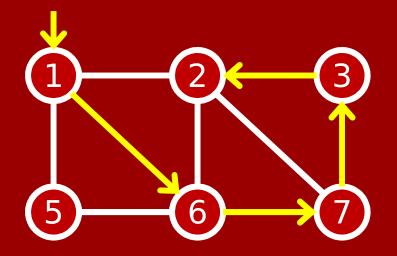
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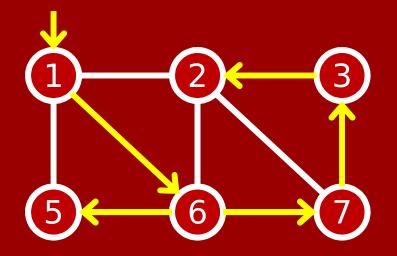
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When the bag is a "**stack**". LIFO: Last-In First-Out.

(Assume sorted adjacency list representation.)





When the bag is a "**stack**". LIFO: Last-In First-Out.

DFS is cute because many programming languages allow recursion, which means the compiler takes care of implementing the stack for you!



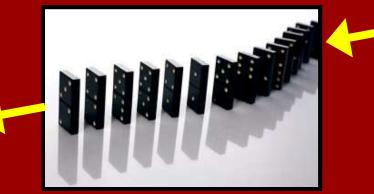
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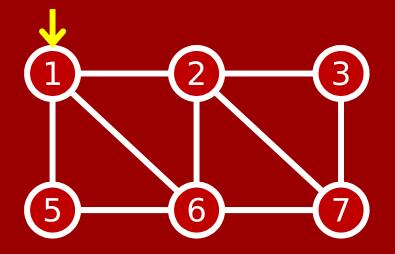
RecursiveDFS(v)
if v unmarked
mark v
for each w ∈ N(v)
RecursiveDFS(w)



When the bag is a "**queue**". FIFO: First-In First-Out.

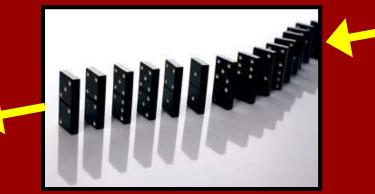
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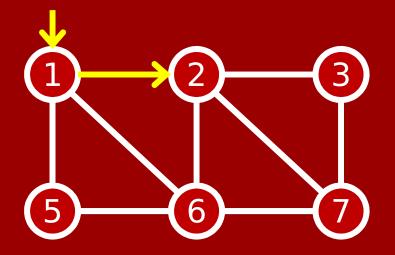




When the bag is a "**queue**". FIFO: First-In First-Out.

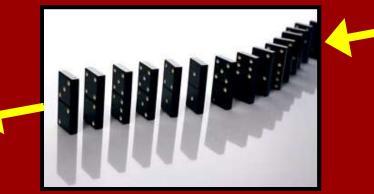
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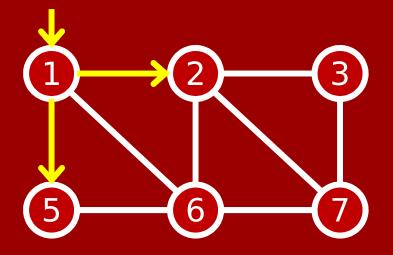




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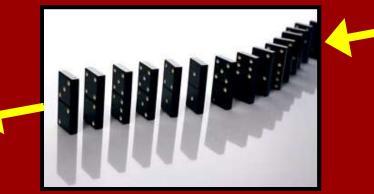
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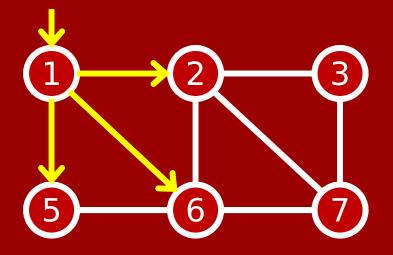




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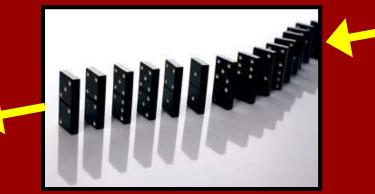
(Assume sorted adjacency list representation.)

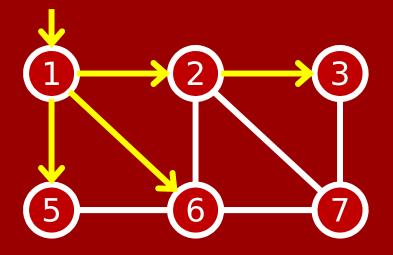




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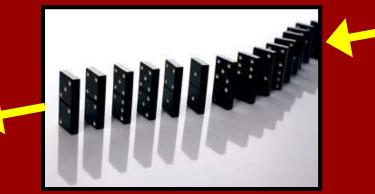
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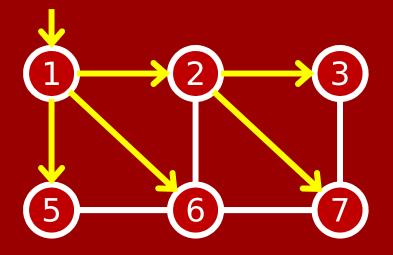




When the bag is a "**queue**". FIFO: First-In First-Out.

(Assume sorted adjacency list representation.)



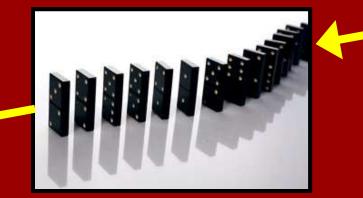


When the bag is a "**queue**". FIFO: First-In First-Out.

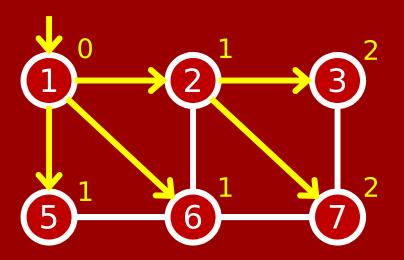
**BFS bonus property:** Vertices marked in increasing order of distance from s.

BFS(G,s)

parent(v) := p
dist(v) := dist(parent(v))+1



(usually implemented using a linked list)



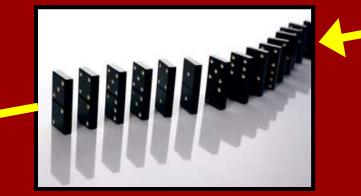
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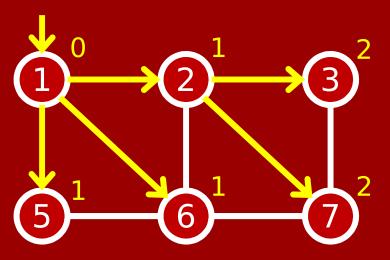
When the bag is a "**queue**". FIFO: First-In First-Out.

**BFS bonus property:** Vertices marked in increasing order of distance from s.

**Exercise:** Prove this.

So path from s to any v in BFS tree is a shortest path.





# **BFS & DFS: Running time**

Put ⊥→s into bag While bag is not empty: Pick an Arbitrary tile p→v from bag If v is "unmarked": "Mark" v and record parent(v) := p For each neighbor w of v: Put v→w into bag

Recall: # of tiles put in bag is ≤ 2|E|+1.
Actually, exactly 2|E|+1, assuming G connected.
Bag operations are O(1) time for stack/queue.
Each tile engenders O(1) work.
♦ Total run-time: O(|E|).

# **BFS & DFS: Running time**

AFS(G,s) just finds the connected component of s.

What if we want to find all connected components?

FullAFS(G): For all vertices v: If v is unmarked AFS(G,v)

Overall run-time: O(|V|+|E|) (Why?)

#### We have seen AFS, BFS, DFS

#### Looks like we're missing something...

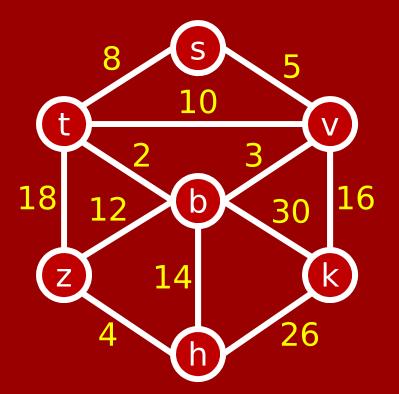
#### CFS! Cheapest-First Search

The goal of CFS is more ambitious than just finding connected components. Its goal is to find a **minimum spanning tree** (MST).

# **Weighted Graphs**

Often in life, each edge of a graph G = (V,E)will have a real number associated to it.

Variously called: weight length distance or cost.



"Cost function",  $c : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ 

Positive values only, unless otherwise specified.

#### MST

The year:1926The place:Brno, MoraviaOur hero:Otakar Borůvka



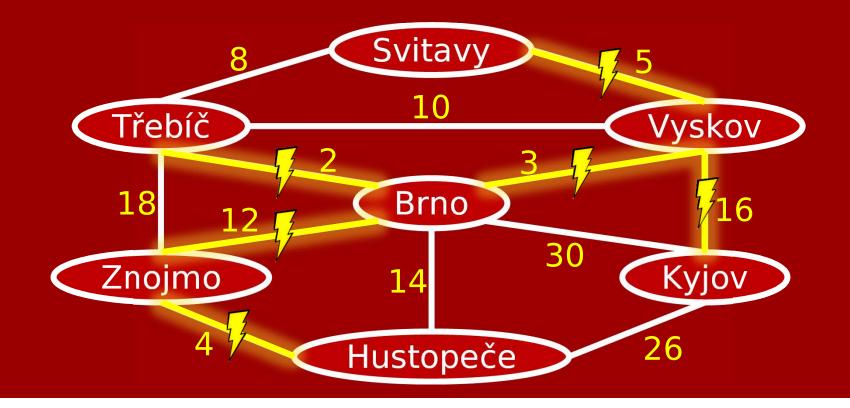
Borůvka's had a pal called Jindřich Saxel who worked for Západomoravské elektrárny (the West Moravian Power Plant company).

Saxel asked him how to figure out the most efficient way to electrify southwest Moravia.

# MST

Edge exists if it's feasible to connect two towns by power lines.

Edge weights might be distance in km, or cost in 1000's of koruna to install lines.



#### MST

Minimum Spanning Tree (MST) problem:

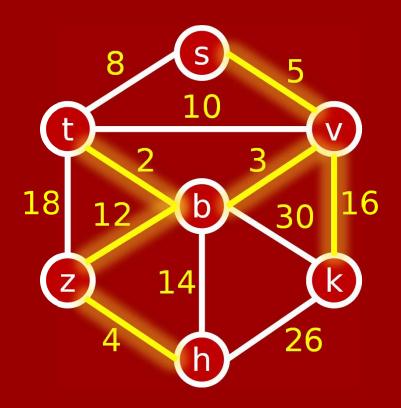
**Input:** A weighted graph G = (V,E), with cost function  $c : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ .

**Output:** Subset of edges of minimum total cost such that all vertices connected.

The edges will form a tree: If you had a cycle, you could delete any edge on it and still be connected, but cheaper.



#### **Example:**



In this case, there's a unique solution, of cost 5+2+3+12+16+4=42.

## MST

**Convenient assumption:** Edges have distinct costs.

In this case, not hard to show the MST is unique.

Thus we can speak of the MST, not just an MST.

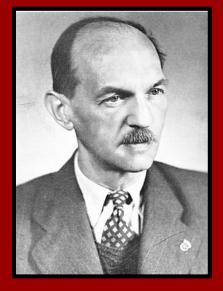
A hint for the little trick that shows this is WLOG:



"Whether [the] distance from Brno to Břeclav is 50 km or 50 km and 1 cm is a matter of conjecture."

Often known as **Prim's Algorithm**, due to a 1957 publication by Robert C. Prim.

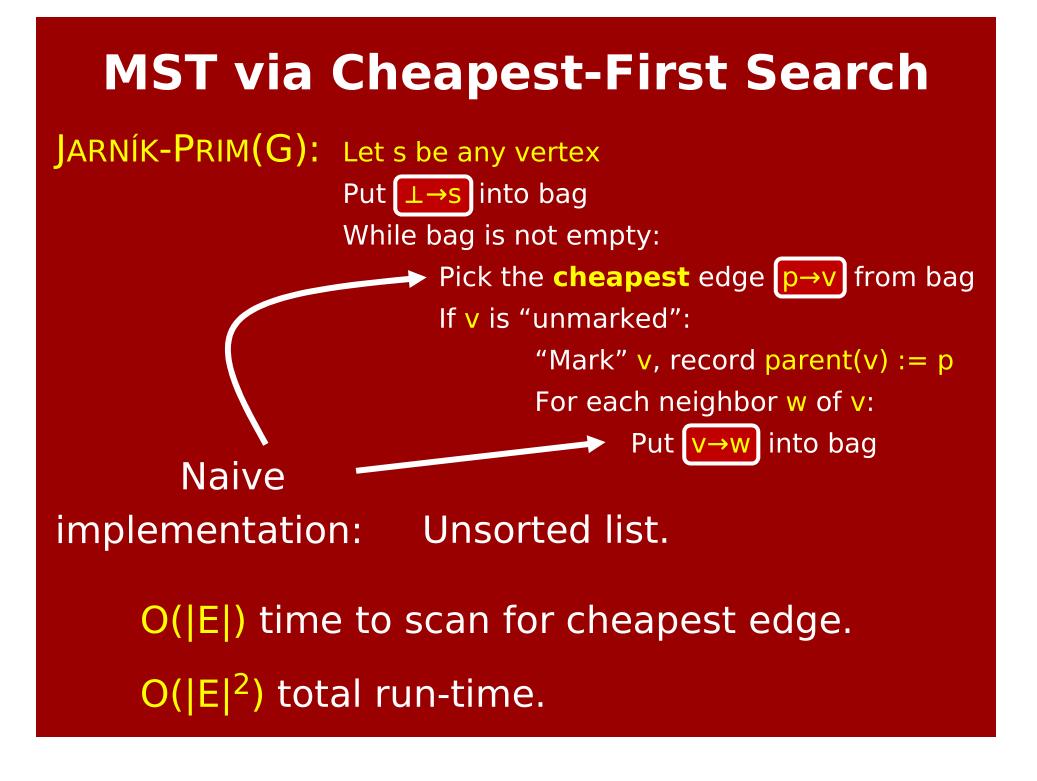
Actually first discovered by Vojtěch Jarník, who described it in a letter to Borůvka, and published it in 1930.



Jarník

Borůvka himself had published a different algorithm in 1926.

Put ⊥→s into bag While bag is not empty: Pick an Arbitrary edge p→v from bag If v is "unmarked": "Mark" v, record parent(v) := p For each neighbor w of v: Put v→w into bag



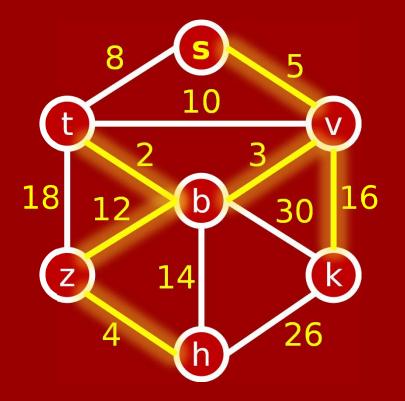
#### **MST via Cheapest-First Search JARNÍK-PRIM(G):** Let s be any vertex Put $\bot \rightarrow s$ into bag While bag is not empty: Pick the **cheapest** edge $p \rightarrow v$ from bag If v is "unmarked": "Mark" v, record parent(v) := p For each neighbor w of v: Put <mark>v→w</mark> into bag Sophisticated

implementation: "Priority Queue".

O(log |E|) time for both bag operations. O(|E| log |E|) total run-time.

**Effectively:** CFS grows a tree from s, always adding the cheapest edge next.

Example:



#### **Theorem:** JARNÍK–PRIM finds the MST.

**Theorem:** For each  $0 \le k \le n-1$ , the first k edges added are all in the MST.

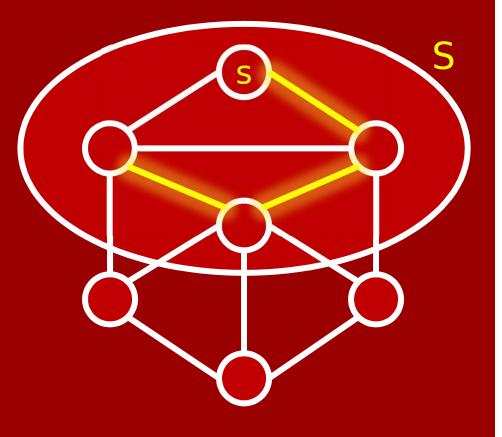
**Proof:** By induction on k.

Base case k=0: Vacuously true.

Induction step: Suppose CFS has added k edges so far ( $0 \le k < n-1$ ), and all are in MST.

We need to show next added edge is also in MST.

#### Let S be the set of vertices connected to s so far,



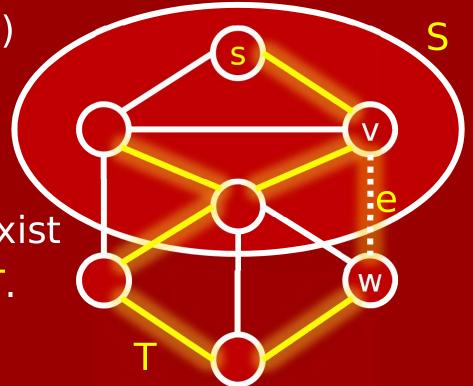
Let S be the set of vertices connected to s so far, and let  $e = \{v,w\}$  be next edge added by CFS.

(By definition of CFS, e is the cheapest edge out of S.)

Let T be the MST for G.

AFSOC that  $e \notin T$ .

Since T spans G, must exist a path from v to w in T.



Let S be the set of vertices connected to s so far, and let  $e = \{v,w\}$  be next edge added by CFS.

(By definition of CFS, e is the cheapest edge out of S.)

Let T be the MST for G. AFSOC that e ∉ T.

Since T spans G, must exist a path from v to w in T.

Let e'= {v',w'} be first edge on that path which exits S.

Let S be the set of vertices connected to s so far, and let  $e = \{v,w\}$  be next edge added by CFS.

(By definition of CFS, e is the cheapest edge out of S.)

Let T be the MST for G. AFSOC that  $e \notin T$ .

Since T spans G, must exist a path from v to w in T.

Let e'= {v',w'} be first edge on that path which exits S.

# **MST via Cheapest-First Search Claim:** $T' := T - e' \cup \{e\}$ is a spanning tree. If true, we have a contradiction because cost(e') > cost(e) (why?) and so cost(T') > cost(T).

T' has |V|-1 edges, so we just need to check it's still connected.

Any walk in T formerly using  $e' = \{v,w\}$  can now take path from v' to v, then T take e, then take path from w to w'. Look carefully at our proof that  $e \in MST$ .

We didn't actually use the fact that the edges inside S were part of the MST.

All we used: e was the cheapest edge out of S.

Thus we more generally proved...

#### **MST Cut Property:**

Let G=(V,E) be a graph with distinct edge costs. Let S ⊆ V (with S≠Ø, S≠V). Let e ∈ E be the cheapest edge with one endpoint in S and the other not in S. Then a minimum spanning tree **must** contain e.

## **MST Cut Property**

Using this, it's not hard to show that practically any natural "greedy" MST algorithm works.

#### Kruskal's Algorithm:

Go through edges in order of cheapness. Add edge as long as it doesn't make a cycle.

#### Borůvka's Algorithm:

Start with each vertex a connected component. Repeatedly: add the cheapest edge coming out of each connected component.

# Run-time Race for MST (an amusing story)

The "classical" (pre-1960) MST algorithms, Borůvka, Jarník–Prim, Kruskal, all run in time O(m log m).

That is very good.

In practice, these algorithms are great.

Nevertheless, algorithms & data structures wizards tried to do better.

1984: Fredman & Tarjan invent the "Fibonacci heap" data structure.

> Run-time improved from O(m log(m)) to O(m log\*(m)).

> > Remember log\*(m)?

It is the number of times you need to take log to get down to 2.

For all real-world purposes,  $log^*(m) \le 5$ .

#### 1984: Fredman & Tarjan invent the "Fibonacci heap" data structure.

#### Run-time improved from O(m log(m))

to O(m log\*(m)).

#### Also not Fredman

Not Fredman

Tarjan

**1986:** Gabow, Galil, T. Spencer, Tarjan improved the algorithm.

Run-time improved from O(m log\*(m)) to... O(m log (log\*(m))).

# **1986:** Gabow, Galil, T. Spencer, Tarjan improved the algorithm.

Run-time improved from O(m log\*(m)) to... O(m log (log\*(m))).



Gabow



Galil



Tarjan & Not-Spencer

1997: Chazelle invents "soft heap" data structure.

Run-time improved from O(m log(log\*(m))) to... O(m  $\alpha$ (m) log( $\alpha$ (m))).

I will tell you what function  $\alpha(m)$  is in a second. I assure you, it's comically slow-growing.



Chazelle

**Run-time Race for MST** <u>2000: Chazelle improves it down to  $O(m \alpha(m))$ .</u>  $\alpha(m)$  is called the Inverse-Ackermann function.  $log^{*}(m) = #$  of times you need to do log to get down to 2  $\log^{**}(m) = \#$  of times you need to do  $\log^{*}$  to get down to 2  $\log^{**}(m) = \#$  of times you need to do  $\log^{**}$  to get down to 2  $\alpha(m) = \# \text{ of } \ast$ 's you need so that  $\log^{\ast\ast\ast\cdots\ast\ast\ast}(m) \leq 2$ It's incomprehensibly, preposterously slow-growing!

1995: Meanwhile, Karger, Klein, and Tarjan give an algorithm with run-time O(m).

It's a **randomized** algorithm: O(m) is the expected value of the running time.



Karger



Klein



Tarjan

# 2002: Pettie and Ramachandran gave a new deterministic MST algorithm.

#### They proved its running time is O(**optimal**).







Ramachandran

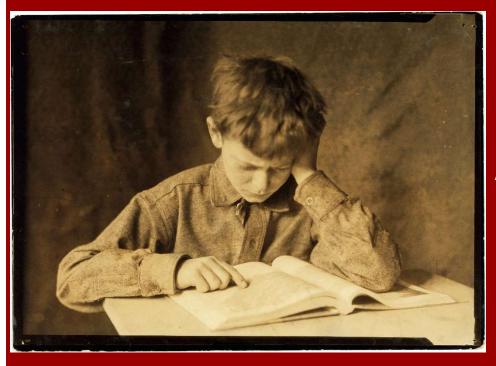
2002: Pettie and Ramachandran gave a new deterministic MST algorithm.

They proved its running time is O(**optimal**).

Would you like to know its running time? So would we.

Its running time is **unknown**. All we know is: whatever it is, it's optimal.

## Study Guide



#### **Definition:**

Minimum Spanning Tree

#### Algorithms and analysis:

AFS BFS DFS CFS (Jarník–Prim algorithm)