



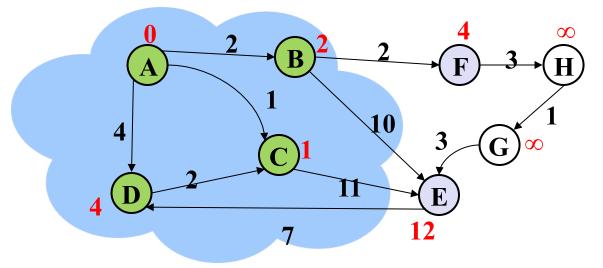
CSE373: Data Structures & Algorithms Lecture 17: Dijkstra's Algorithm

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Announcements

- Homework 4 due tonight
- Homework 5 out today

Dijkstra's Algorithm: Lowest cost paths



- Initially, start node has cost 0 and all other nodes have cost ∞
- At each step:
 - Pick closest unknown vertex \mathbf{v}
 - Add it to the "cloud" of known vertices
 - Update distances for nodes with edges from \boldsymbol{v}
- That's it!

The Algorithm

- 1. For each node v, set v.cost = ∞ and v.known = false
- 2. Set source.cost = 0
- 3. While there are unknown nodes in the graph
 - a) Select the unknown node \mathbf{v} with lowest cost
 - b) Mark v as known
 - c) For each edge (v,u) with weight w,

c1 = v.cost + w // cost of best path through v to u
c2 = u.cost // cost of best path to u previously known
if(c1 < c2) { // if the path through v is better
 u.cost = c1
 u.path = v // for computing actual paths
}</pre>

A Greedy Algorithm

- Dijkstra's algorithm is an example of a greedy algorithm:
 - At each step, always does what seems best at that step
 - A locally optimal step, not necessarily globally optimal
 - Once a vertex is known, it is not revisited
 - Turns out to be globally optimal (for this problem)

Where are we?

- Had a problem: Compute shortest paths in a weighted graph with no negative weights
- Learned an algorithm: Dijkstra's algorithm
- What should we do after learning an algorithm?
 - Prove it is correct
 - Did this last time, not doing it again
 - Analyze its efficiency
 - Will do better by using a data structure we learned earlier!

Efficiency, first approach

Use pseudocode to determine asymptotic run-time

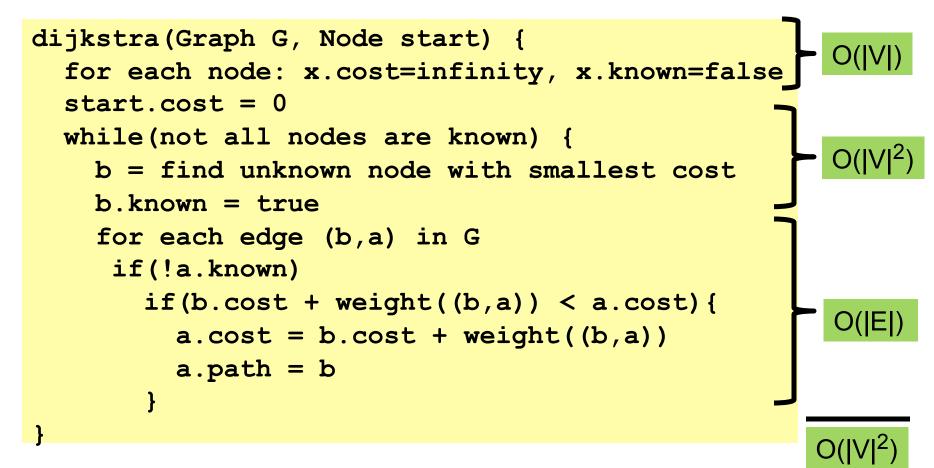
Notice each edge is processed only once

```
dijkstra(Graph G, Node start) {
  for each node: x.cost=infinity, x.known=false
  start.cost = 0
  while(not all nodes are known) {
    b = find unknown node with smallest cost
    b.known = true
    for each edge (b,a) in G
     if(!a.known)
       if(b.cost + weight((b,a)) < a.cost){</pre>
         a.cost = b.cost + weight((b,a))
         a.path = b
```

Efficiency, first approach

Use pseudocode to determine asymptotic run-time

- Notice each edge is processed only once



Improving asymptotic running time

- So far: $O(|V|^2)$
- We had a similar "problem" with topological sort being O(|V|²) due to each iteration looking for the node to process next
 - We solved it with a queue of zero-degree nodes
 - But here we need the lowest-cost node and costs can change as we process edges
- Solution?
 - A priority queue holding all unknown nodes, sorted by cost
 - But must support decreaseKey operation
 - Must maintain a reference from each node to its current position in the priority queue
 - Conceptually simple, but can be a pain to code up

Efficiency, second approach

Use pseudocode to determine asymptotic run-time

```
dijkstra(Graph G, Node start) {
  for each node: x.cost=infinity, x.known=false
  start.cost = 0
 build-heap with all nodes
  while(heap is not empty) {
    b = deleteMin()
    b.known = true
    for each edge (b,a) in G
     if(!a.known)
      if(b.cost + weight((b,a)) < a.cost){</pre>
        decreaseKey(a, "new cost - old cost"
        a.path = b
      }
```

Efficiency, second approach

Use pseudocode to determine asymptotic run-time

```
dijkstra(Graph G, Node start) {
  for each node: x.cost=infinity, x.known=false
                                                       O(|V|)
  start.cost = 0
  build-heap with all nodes
  while(heap is not empty) {
                                                   O(|V|log|V|)
    b = deleteMin()
    b.known = true
    for each edge (b,a) in G
     if(!a.known)
      if(b.cost + weight((b,a)) < a.cost){</pre>
                                                   O(|E|log|V|)
        decreaseKey(a, "new cost - old cost"
         a.path = b
      }
                                           O(|V||og|V|+|E||og|V|)
```

Dense vs. sparse again

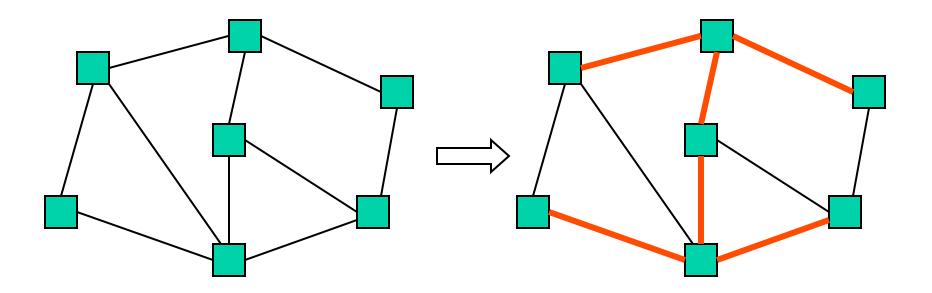
- First approach: $O(|V|^2)$
- Second approach: O(|V|log|V|+|E|log|V|)
- So which is better?
 - Sparse: $O(|V|\log|V|+|E|\log|V|)$ (if |E| > |V|, then $O(|E|\log|V|)$)
 - Dense: $O(|V|^2)$
- But, remember these are worst-case and asymptotic
 - Priority queue might have slightly worse constant factors
 - On the other hand, for "normal graphs", we might call decreaseKey rarely (or not percolate far), making |E|log|V| more like |E|

Done with Dijkstra's

- You will implement Dijkstra's algorithm in homework 5 ③
- Onward..... Spanning trees!

Spanning Trees

- A simple problem: Given a *connected* undirected graph G=(V,E), find a minimal subset of edges such that G is still connected
 - A graph G2=(V,E2) such that G2 is connected and removing any edge from E2 makes G2 disconnected



Observations

- 1. Any solution to this problem is a tree
 - Recall a tree does not need a root; just means acyclic
 - For any cycle, could remove an edge and still be connected
- 2. Solution not unique unless original graph was already a tree
- 3. Problem ill-defined if original graph not connected
 So |E| ≥ |V|-1
- 4. A tree with **|V|** nodes has **|V|-1** edges
 - So every solution to the spanning tree problem has |V|-1 edges

Motivation

A spanning tree connects all the nodes with as few edges as possible

- Example: A "phone tree" so everybody gets the message and no unnecessary calls get made
 - Bad example since would prefer a balanced tree
- In most compelling uses, we have a *weighted* undirected graph and we want a tree of least total cost
- Example: Electrical wiring for a house or clock wires on a chip
- Example: A road network if you cared about asphalt cost rather than travel time

This is the minimum spanning tree problem

- Will do that next, after intuition from the simpler case

Two Approaches

Different algorithmic approaches to the spanning-tree problem:

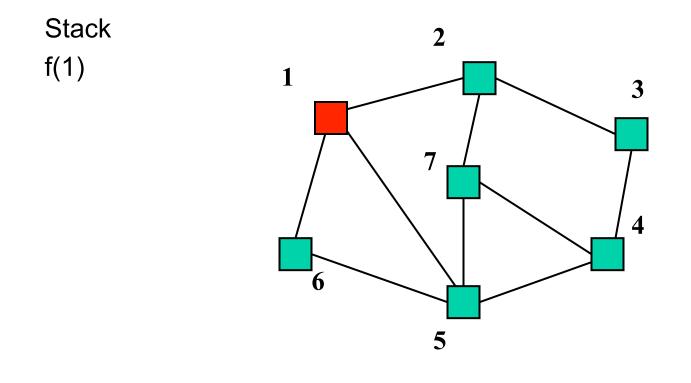
- 1. Do a graph traversal (e.g., depth-first search, but any traversal will do), keeping track of edges that form a tree
- 2. Iterate through edges; add to output any edge that does not create a cycle

Spanning tree via DFS

```
spanning tree(Graph G) {
  for each node i
      i.marked = false
  for some node i: f(i)
}
f(Node i) {
  i.marked = true
  for each j adjacent to i:
    if(!j.marked) {
      add(i,j) to output
      f(j) // DFS
    }
}
```

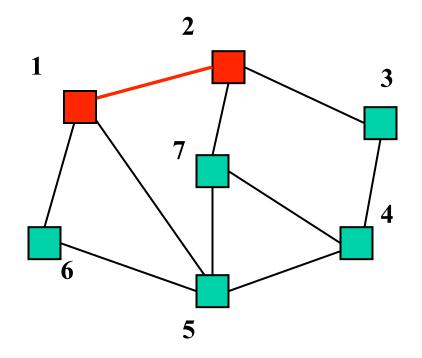
Correctness: DFS reaches each node. We add one edge to connect it to the already visited nodes. Order affects result, not correctness.

Time: *O*(**|E|**)



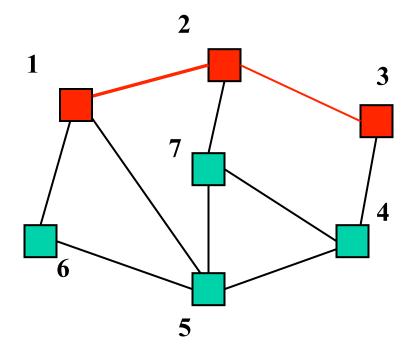
Output:

Stack f(1) f(2)



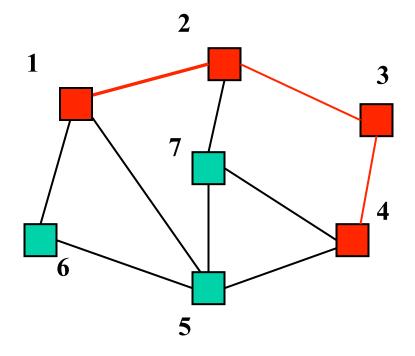
Output: (1,2)

Stack f(1) f(2) f(3)

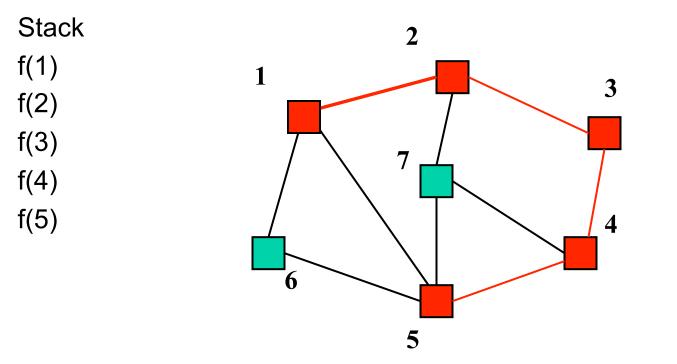


Output: (1,2), (2,3)

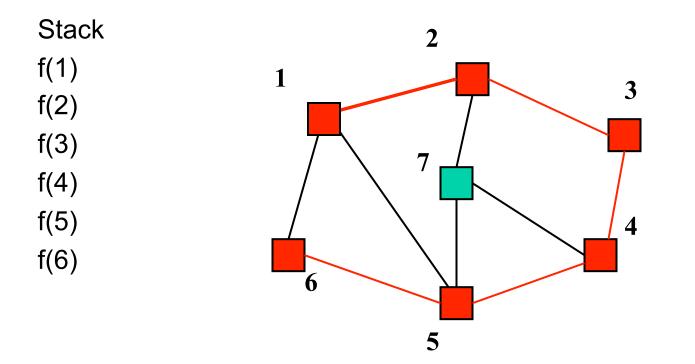
Stack f(1) f(2) f(3) f(4)



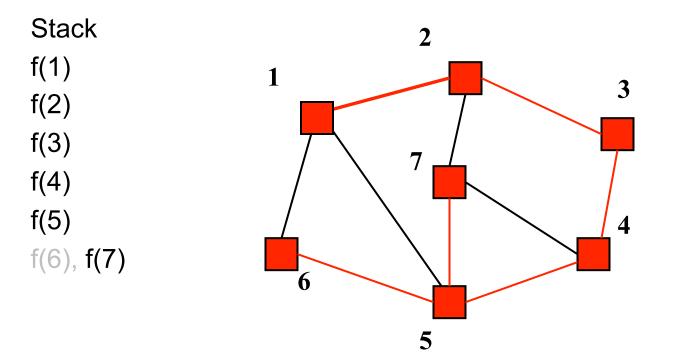
Output: (1,2), (2,3), (3,4)



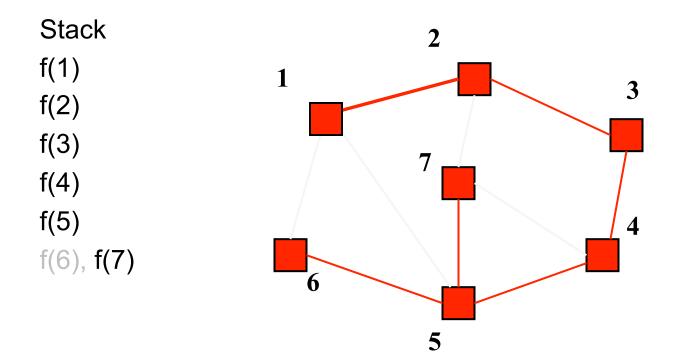
Output: (1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,5)



Output: (1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,5), (5,6)



Output: (1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,5), (5,6), (5,7)



Output: (1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,5), (5,6), (5,7)

Second Approach

Iterate through edges; output any edge that does not create a cycle

Correctness (hand-wavy):

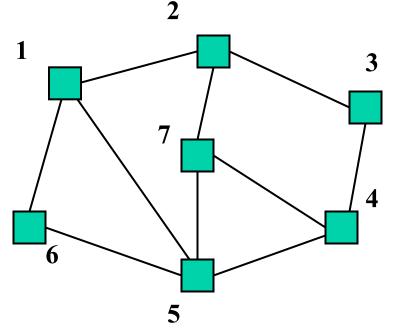
- Goal is to build an acyclic connected graph
- When we add an edge, it adds a vertex to the tree
 - Else it would have created a cycle
- The graph is connected, so we reach all vertices

Efficiency:

- Depends on how quickly you can detect cycles
- Reconsider after the example

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)



Output:

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

6

5

4

Output: (1,2)

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

Output: (1,2), (3,4)

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

Output: (1,2), (3,4), (5,6),

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

Output: (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7)

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

Output: (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5)

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

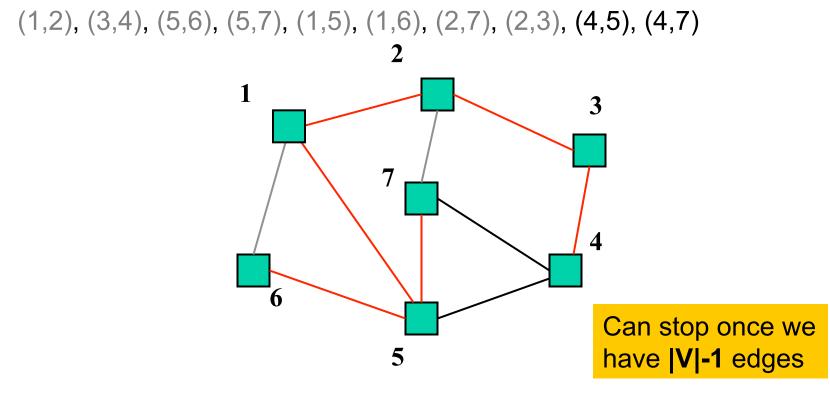
Output: (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5)

Edges in some arbitrary order:

(1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (1,6), (2,7), (2,3), (4,5), (4,7)

Output: (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5)

Edges in some arbitrary order:



Output: (1,2), (3,4), (5,6), (5,7), (1,5), (2,3)

Cycle Detection

- To decide if an edge could form a cycle is O(|V|) because we may need to traverse all edges already in the output
- So overall algorithm would be O(|V||E|)
- But there is a faster way we know
- Use union-find!
 - Initially, each item is in its own 1-element set
 - Union sets when we add an edge that connects them
 - Stop when we have one set

Using Disjoint-Set

Can use a disjoint-set implementation in our spanning-tree algorithm to detect cycles:

Invariant: u and v are connected in output-so-far iff u and v in the same set

- Initially, each node is in its own set
- When processing edge (u,v):
 - If find(u) equals find(v), then do not add the edge
 - Else add the edge and union (find(u), find(v))
 - $O(|\mathbf{E}|)$ operations that are almost O(1) amortized

Summary So Far

The spanning-tree problem

- Add nodes to partial tree approach is O(|E|)
- Add acyclic edges approach is almost O(|E|)
 - Using union-find "as a black box"

But really want to solve the minimum-spanning-tree problem

- Given a weighted undirected graph, give a spanning tree of minimum weight
- Same two approaches will work with minor modifications
- Both will be O(|E| log |V|)

Minimum Spanning Tree Algorithms

Algorithm #1

Shortest-path is to Dijkstra's Algorithm

as

Minimum Spanning Tree is to Prim's Algorithm

(Both based on expanding cloud of known vertices, basically using a priority queue instead of a DFS stack)

Algorithm #2

Kruskal's Algorithm for Minimum Spanning Tree

is

Exactly our 2nd approach to spanning tree but process edges in cost order