

## CSCI 355: ALGORITHM DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

### 4. GREEDY ALGORITHMS II

- ▶ Dijkstra's algorithm
- ▶ minimum spanning trees
- ▶ Prim, Kruskal, Borůvka
- ▶ single-link clustering

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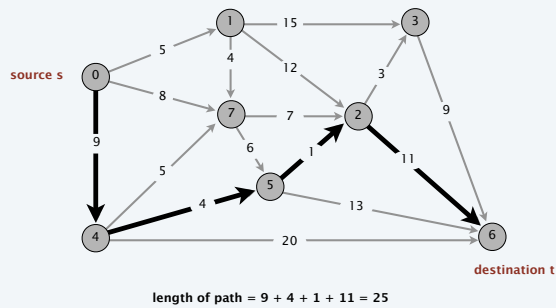
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#### Single-pair shortest path problem

**Problem.** Given a digraph  $G = (V, E)$ , edge lengths  $\ell_e \geq 0$ , source  $s \in V$ , and destination  $t \in V$ , find a shortest directed path from  $s$  to  $t$ .



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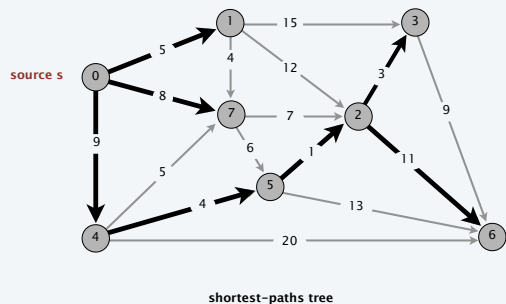
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#### Single-source shortest paths problem

**Problem.** Given a digraph  $G = (V, E)$ , edge lengths  $\ell_e \geq 0$ , source  $s \in V$ , find a shortest directed path from  $s$  to every node.



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## Shortest path applications

- PERT/CPM.
- Map routing.
- Seam carving.
- Robot navigation.
- Texture mapping.
- Typesetting in LaTeX.
- Urban traffic planning.
- Telemarketer operator scheduling.
- Routing of telecommunications messages.
- Network routing protocols (OSPF, BGP, RIP).
- Optimal truck routing through given traffic congestion pattern.

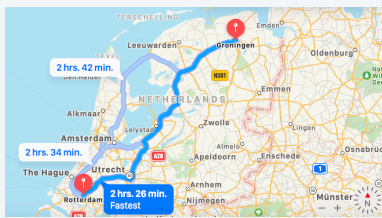


Network Flows: Theory, Algorithms, and Applications,  
by Ahuja, Magnanti, and Orlin, Prentice Hall, 1993.

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## Edsger Dijkstra

“What’s the shortest way to travel from Rotterdam to Groningen?  
It is the algorithm for the shortest path, which I designed in  
about 20 minutes. One morning I was shopping in Amsterdam  
with my young fiancée, and tired, we sat down on the café  
terrace to drink a cup of coffee and I was just thinking about  
whether I could do this, and I then designed the algorithm for  
the shortest path.” — Edsger Dijkstra



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## Dijkstra’s algorithm: single-source shortest paths



**Greedy approach.** Maintain a set of explored vertices  $S$  for which the algorithm has determined  $d[u]$  = the length of a shortest  $s \rightsquigarrow u$  path.

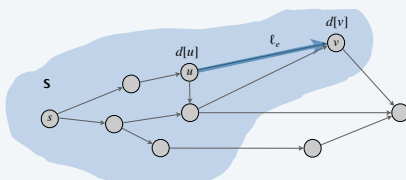
- Initialize  $S \leftarrow \{s\}$ ,  $d[s] \leftarrow 0$ .
- Repeatedly choose an unexplored vertex  $v \notin S$  which minimizes

$$\pi(v) = \min_{e = (u,v) : u \in S} d[u] + \ell_e$$

the length of a shortest path from  $s$  to some vertex  $u$  in the explored part  $S$ , followed by a single edge  $e = (u, v)$

add  $v$  to  $S$ , and set  $d[v] \leftarrow \pi(v)$ .

- To recover the path, set  $pred[v] \leftarrow e$  that achieves the minimum.



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## Dijkstra's algorithm: proof of correctness

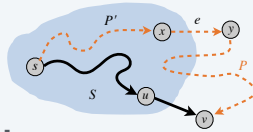
**Invariant.** For each vertex  $u \in S$ ,  $d[u] = \text{length of a shortest } s \rightsquigarrow u \text{ path}$ .

**Pf.** [ by induction on  $|S|$  ]

Base case:  $|S| = 1$  is easy since  $S = \{s\}$  and  $d[s] = 0$ .

Inductive hypothesis: Assume true for  $|S| \geq 1$ .

- Let  $v$  be the next vertex added to  $S$ , and let  $(u, v)$  be the final edge.
- A shortest  $s \rightsquigarrow u$  path plus  $(u, v)$  is an  $s \rightsquigarrow v$  path of length  $\pi(v)$ .
- Consider any other  $s \rightsquigarrow v$  path  $P$ . We show that it is no shorter than  $\pi(v)$ .
- Let  $e = (x, y)$  be the first edge in  $P$  that leaves  $S$ , and let  $P'$  be the subpath from  $s$  to  $x$ .
- The length of  $P$  is already  $\geq \pi(v)$  as soon as it reaches  $y$ :



$$\ell(P) \geq \ell(P') + \ell_e \geq d[x] + \ell_e \geq \pi(y) \geq \pi(v) \quad \blacksquare$$

↑ non-negative lengths    
 ↑ inductive hypothesis    
 ↑ definition of  $\pi(y)$     
 ↑ Dijkstra's alg. chose  $v$  instead of  $y$

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## Dijkstra's algorithm: efficient implementation



**Critical optimization 1.** For each unexplored vertex  $v \notin S$ : explicitly maintain  $\pi[v]$  instead of computing directly from definition

$$\pi(v) = \min_{e=(u,v): u \in S} d[u] + \ell_e$$

- For each  $v \notin S$ :  $\pi(v)$  can only decrease (because set  $S$  increases).
- More specifically, suppose  $u$  is added to  $S$  and there is an edge  $e = (u, v)$  leaving  $u$ . Then, it suffices to update:

$$\pi[v] \leftarrow \min \{ \pi[v], \pi[u] + \ell_e \}$$

↑ recall: for each  $u \in S$ ,  
 $\pi[u] = d[u] = \text{length of shortest } s \rightsquigarrow u \text{ path}$

**Critical optimization 2.** Use a min-oriented priority queue (PQ) to choose an unexplored vertex that minimizes  $\pi[v]$ .

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## Dijkstra's algorithm: efficient implementation

**Implementation.**

- Algorithm maintains  $\pi[v]$  for each node  $v$ .
- Priority queue stores unexplored vertices, using  $\pi[\cdot]$  as priorities.
- Once  $u$  is deleted from the PQ,  $\pi[u] = \text{length of a shortest } s \rightsquigarrow u \text{ path}$ .

```

DIJKSTRA ( $V, E, \ell, s$ )
  FOREACH  $v \neq s$ :  $\pi[v] \leftarrow \infty, \text{pred}[v] \leftarrow \text{null}; \pi[s] \leftarrow 0$ .
  Create an empty priority queue  $pq$ .
  FOREACH  $v \in V$ : INSERT( $pq, v, \pi[v]$ ).
  WHILE (IS-NOT-EMPTY( $pq$ ))
     $u \leftarrow \text{DEL-MIN}(pq)$ .
    FOREACH edge  $e = (u, v) \in E$  leaving  $u$ :
      IF ( $\pi[v] > \pi[u] + \ell_e$ )
        DECREASE-KEY( $pq, v, \pi[u] + \ell_e$ ).
         $\pi[v] \leftarrow \pi[u] + \ell_e; \text{pred}[v] \leftarrow e$ .
    
```

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## Dijkstra's algorithm: which priority queue?

**Performance.** Depends on PQ:  $n$  INSERT,  $n$  DELETE-MIN,  $\leq m$  DECREASE-KEY.

- Array implementation is optimal for dense graphs. ←  $\Theta(n^2)$  edges
- Binary heap is much faster for sparse graphs. ←  $\Theta(n)$  edges
- 4-way heap is worth the trouble in performance-critical situations.

priority queue	INSERT	DELETE-MIN	DECREASE-KEY	total
node-indexed array (A[i] = priority of i)	$O(1)$	$O(n)$	$O(1)$	$O(n^2)$
binary heap	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(m \log n)$
d-way heap (Johnson 1975)	$O(d \log_d n)$	$O(d \log_d n)$	$O(\log_d n)$	$O(m \log_{\min} n)$
Fibonacci heap (Fredman-Tarjan 1984)	$O(1)$	$O(\log n)^\dagger$	$O(1)^\ddagger$	$O(m + n \log n)$
integer priority queue (Thorup 2004)	$O(1)$	$O(\log \log n)$	$O(1)$	$O(m + n \log \log n)$

(assuming  $m \geq n$ )  
 $\dagger$  = amortized

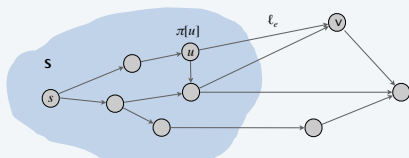
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## Extensions of Dijkstra's algorithm

Dijkstra's algorithm and proof extend to several related problems:

- Shortest paths in undirected graphs:  $\pi[v] \leq \pi[u] + \ell(u, v)$ .
- Maximum capacity paths:  $\pi[v] \geq \min \{ \pi[u], c(u, v) \}$ .
- Maximum reliability paths:  $\pi[v] \geq \pi[u] \times \gamma(u, v)$ .

**Key algebraic structure.** Closed semiring (min-plus, bottleneck, Viterbi, ...).



$$\begin{aligned}
 a + b &= b + a \\
 a + (b + c) &= (a + b) + c \\
 a + 0 &= a \\
 a \cdot (b \cdot c) &= (a \cdot b) \cdot c \\
 a \cdot 0 &= 0 \cdot a = 0 \\
 a \cdot 1 &= 1 \cdot a = a \\
 a \cdot (b + c) &= a \cdot b + a \cdot c \\
 (a + b) \cdot c &= a \cdot c + b \cdot c \\
 a^* &= 1 + a \cdot a^* = 1 + a^* \cdot a
 \end{aligned}$$

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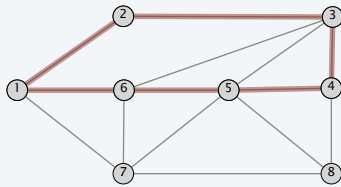
## CSCI 355: ALGORITHM DESIGN AND ANALYSIS 4. GREEDY ALGORITHMS II

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## Paths and cycles

Def. A **path** is a sequence of edges which connects a sequence of vertices.

Def. A **cycle** is a path with no repeated vertices or edges other than the starting and ending vertices.



path  $P = \{ (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4), (4, 5), (5, 6) \}$

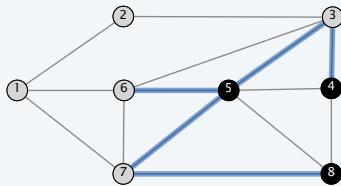
cycle  $C = \{ (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4), (4, 5), (5, 6), (6, 1) \}$

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## Cuts

Def. A **cut** is a partition of vertices into two nonempty subsets  $S$  and  $V - S$ .

Def. The **cutset** of a cut  $S$  is the set of edges with exactly one endpoint in  $S$ .



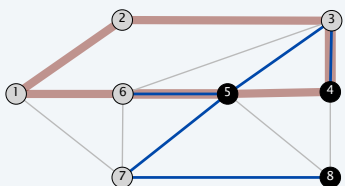
cut  $S = \{ 4, 5, 8 \}$

cutset  $D = \{ (3, 4), (3, 5), (5, 6), (5, 7), (8, 7) \}$

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## Cycle-cut intersection

Proposition. A cycle and a cutset intersect in an **even** number of edges.



cycle  $C = \{ (1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 4), (4, 5), (5, 6), (6, 1) \}$

cutset  $D = \{ (3, 4), (3, 5), (5, 6), (5, 7), (8, 7) \}$

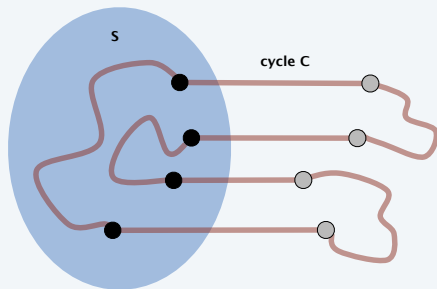
intersection  $C \cap D = \{ (3, 4), (5, 6) \}$

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### Cycle-cut intersection

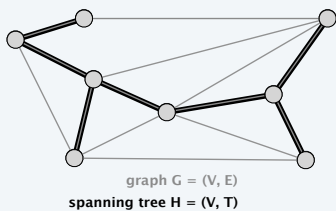
**Proposition.** A cycle and a cutset intersect in an **even** number of edges.

Pf. [by picture]



### Spanning trees

**Def.** Let  $H = (V, T)$  be a subgraph of an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ .  $H$  is a **spanning tree** of  $G$  if  $H$  is both acyclic and connected.

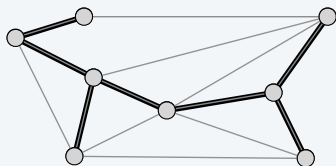


graph  $G = (V, E)$   
spanning tree  $H = (V, T)$

### Spanning trees: properties

**Proposition.** Let  $H = (V, T)$  be a subgraph of an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ . Then, the following statements are equivalent:

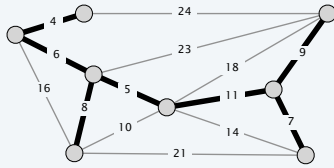
- $H$  is a **spanning tree** of  $G$ .
- $H$  is acyclic and connected.
- $H$  is connected and has  $|V| - 1$  edges.
- $H$  is acyclic and has  $|V| - 1$  edges.
- $H$  is minimally connected: the removal of any edge disconnects  $H$ .
- $H$  is maximally acyclic: the addition of any edge creates a cycle in  $H$ .



graph  $G = (V, E)$   
spanning tree  $H = (V, T)$

## Minimum spanning trees (MSTs)

**Def.** Given a connected, undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  with edge costs  $c_e$ , a **minimum spanning tree**  $(V, T)$  is a spanning tree of  $G$  such that the sum of the edge costs in  $T$  is minimized.



$$\text{MST cost} = 50 = 4 + 6 + 8 + 5 + 11 + 9 + 7$$

**Cayley's theorem.** The complete graph on  $n$  nodes has  $n^{n-2}$  spanning trees.

↑  
can't solve by brute force

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## MST applications

MST is a fundamental problem with diverse applications.

- Dithering.
- Cluster analysis.
- Max bottleneck paths.
- Real-time face verification.
- LDPC codes for error correction.
- Image registration with Renyi entropy.
- Find road networks in satellite and aerial imagery.
- Model locality of particle interactions in turbulent fluid flows.
- Reducing data storage in sequencing amino acids in a protein.
- Autoconfig protocol for Ethernet bridging to avoid cycles in a network.
- Approximation algorithms for NP-hard problems (e.g., TSP, Steiner tree).
- Network design (communication, electrical, hydraulic, computer, road).



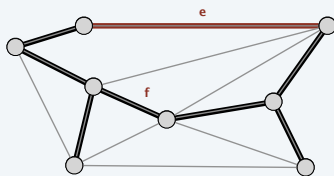
Network Flows: Theory, Algorithms, and Applications,  
by Ahuja, Magnanti, and Orlin, Prentice Hall, 1993.

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## Fundamental cycles

**Fundamental cycle.** Let  $H = (V, T)$  be a spanning tree of  $G = (V, E)$ .

- For any non-tree edge  $e \in E$ ,  $T \cup \{e\}$  contains a unique cycle, say  $C$ .
- For any edge  $f \in C$ ,  $(V, T \cup \{e\} - \{f\})$  is a spanning tree.



graph  $G = (V, E)$   
spanning tree  $H = (V, T)$

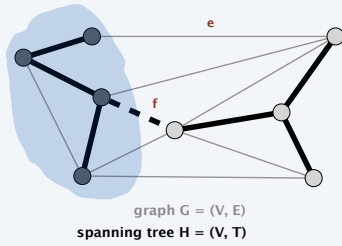
**Observation.** If  $c_e < c_f$ , then  $(V, T)$  is not an MST.

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## Fundamental cutsets

**Fundamental cutset.** Let  $H = (V, T)$  be a spanning tree of  $G = (V, E)$ .

- For any tree edge  $f \in T$ ,  $(V, T - \{f\})$  has two connected components.
- Let  $D$  denote the corresponding cutset.
- For any edge  $e \in D$ ,  $(V, T - \{f\} \cup \{e\})$  is a spanning tree.



**Observation.** If  $c_e < c_f$ , then  $(V, T)$  is not an MST.

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## Greedy algorithm: MSTs



**Red rule.**

- Let  $C$  be a cycle with no red edges.
- Select an uncoloured edge of  $C$  of max cost and colour it red.

**Blue rule.**

- Let  $D$  be a cutset with no blue edges.
- Select an uncoloured edge in  $D$  of min cost and colour it blue.

**Greedy algorithm.**

- Apply the red and blue rules (nondeterministically!) until all edges are coloured. The blue edges form an MST.
- Note: we can stop once we have  $n - 1$  edges coloured blue.

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## Greedy algorithm: proof of correctness

**Colour invariant.** There exists an MST  $(V, T^*)$  containing every blue edge and no red edge.

**Pf.** [by induction on number of iterations]

**Base case.** No edges coloured  $\rightarrow$  every MST satisfies the invariant.

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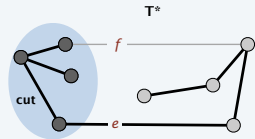
### Greedy algorithm: proof of correctness

**Colour invariant.** There exists an MST  $(V, T^*)$  containing every blue edge and no red edge.

**Pf.** [by induction on number of iterations]

**Induction step (blue rule).** Suppose the colour invariant is true before applying the blue rule.

- let  $D$  be the chosen cutset, and let  $f$  be the edge coloured blue.
- if  $f \in T^*$ , then  $T^*$  still satisfies the invariant.
- Otherwise, consider the fundamental cycle  $C$  by adding  $f$  to  $T^*$ .
- let  $e \in C$  be another edge in  $D$ .
- $e$  is uncoloured and  $c_e \geq c_f$  since
  - $e \in T^* \Rightarrow e$  is not red
  - blue rule  $\Rightarrow e$  is not blue and  $c_e \geq c_f$
- Thus,  $T^* \cup \{f\} - \{e\}$  satisfies the invariant.



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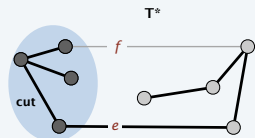
### Greedy algorithm: proof of correctness

**Colour invariant.** There exists an MST  $(V, T^*)$  containing every blue edge and no red edge.

**Pf.** [by induction on number of iterations]

**Induction step (red rule).** Suppose the colour invariant is true before applying the red rule.

- let  $C$  be the chosen cycle, and let  $e$  be the edge coloured red.
- if  $e \notin T^*$ , then  $T^*$  still satisfies the invariant.
- Otherwise, consider the fundamental cutset  $D$  by deleting  $e$  from  $T^*$ .
- let  $f \in D$  be another edge in  $C$ .
- $f$  is uncoloured and  $c_e \geq c_f$  since
  - $f \notin T^* \Rightarrow f$  is not blue
  - red rule  $\Rightarrow f$  is not red and  $c_e \geq c_f$
- Thus,  $T^* \cup \{f\} - \{e\}$  satisfies the invariant. ■



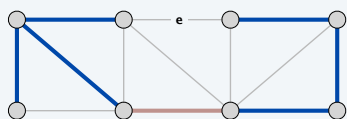
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### Greedy algorithm: proof of correctness

**Theorem.** The greedy algorithm terminates, and blue edges form an MST.

**Pf.** We need to show that either the red or blue rule (or both) applies.

- Suppose edge  $e$  is left uncoloured.
- Blue edges form a forest.
- Case 1: both endpoints of  $e$  are in the same blue tree.
  - $\Rightarrow$  apply the red rule to the cycle formed by adding  $e$  to the blue forest.
- Case 2: both endpoints of  $e$  are in different blue trees.
  - $\Rightarrow$  apply the blue rule to the cutset induced by either of the two blue trees. ■



Case 2

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#### Review: the greedy MST algorithm

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##### Red rule.

- Let  $C$  be a cycle with no red edges.
- Select an uncoloured edge of  $C$  of max cost and colour it red.

##### Blue rule.

- Let  $D$  be a cutset with no blue edges.
- Select an uncoloured edge in  $D$  of min cost and colour it blue.

##### Greedy algorithm.

- Apply the red and blue rules (nondeterministically!) until all edges are coloured. The blue edges form an MST.
- Note: we can stop once we have  $n - 1$  edges coloured blue.

**Theorem.** The greedy algorithm is correct.

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#### Special cases of MST algorithms

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**Special cases.** Prim, Kruskal, reverse-delete, Borůvka, ...

##### Prim's algorithm.

- Adds edges outward from an arbitrary starting vertex.
- Works well on graphs with many edges (dense graphs).

##### Kruskal's algorithm.

- Adds edges in order from least cost to greatest cost.
- Works well on graphs with few edges (sparse graphs).

##### Reverse-delete algorithm.

- Deletes edges in order from greatest cost to least cost.

##### Borůvka's algorithm.

- Finds all min-cost edges incident to each connected component, and adds those edges to a forest.
- Adapts well to parallelization.

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## Prim's algorithm: MSTs

see 4B

Initialize  $S = \{s\}$  for any vertex  $s$ , and set  $T = \emptyset$ .

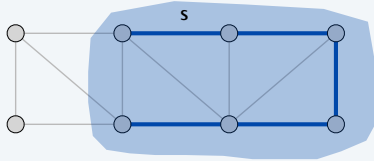
Repeat  $n - 1$  times:

- Add to  $T$  a min-cost edge with exactly one endpoint in  $S$ .
- Add the other endpoint of the edge to  $S$ .

**Theorem.** Prim's algorithm computes an MST.

by construction, edges in cutset are uncolored

**Pf.** Special case of greedy algorithm (blue rule repeatedly applied to  $S$ ). ▀



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## Prim's algorithm: implementation

**Theorem.** Prim's algorithm can be implemented in  $O(m \log n)$  time.

**Pf.** Implementation almost identical to Dijkstra's algorithm.

```

PRIM ( $V, E, c$ )
 $S \leftarrow \emptyset, T \leftarrow \emptyset$ .
 $s \leftarrow$  any node in  $V$ .
FOREACH  $v \neq s : \pi[v] \leftarrow \infty, pred[v] \leftarrow null; \pi[s] \leftarrow 0$ .
Create an empty priority queue  $pq$ .
FOREACH  $v \in V : INSERT(pq, v, \pi[v])$ .
WHILE (IS-NOT-EMPTY( $pq$ ))
     $u \leftarrow DEL-MIN(pq)$ .
     $S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}, T \leftarrow T \cup \{pred[u]\}$ .
    FOREACH edge  $e = (u, v) \in E$  with  $v \notin S$ :
        IF ( $c_e < \pi[v]$ )
            DECREASE-KEY( $pq, v, c_e$ ).
             $\pi[v] \leftarrow c_e; pred[v] \leftarrow e$ .
    
```

$\pi[v]$  = cost of cheapest known edge between  $v$  and  $S$

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## Kruskal's algorithm: MSTs

see 4B

Consider edges in ascending order of cost:

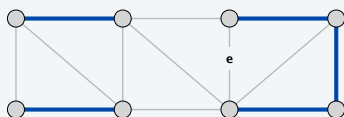
- Add the edge to the tree unless it would create a cycle.

**Theorem.** Kruskal's algorithm computes an MST.

**Pf.** Special case of greedy algorithm.

- Case 1: both endpoints of  $e$  in same blue tree.
  - color  $e$  red by applying red rule to unique cycle.
- Case 2: both endpoints of  $e$  in different blue trees.
  - color  $e$  blue by applying blue rule to cutset defined by either tree. ▀

all other edges in cycle are blue



no edge in cutset has smaller cost (since Kruskal chose it first)

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## Kruskal's algorithm: implementation

**Theorem.** Kruskal's algorithm can be implemented in  $O(m \log m)$  time.

**Pf.**

- Sort edges by cost.
- Use **union-find** data structure to dynamically maintain connected components.

```

KRUSKAL ( $V, E, c$ )
  SORT  $m$  edges by cost and renumber so that  $c(e_1) \leq c(e_2) \leq \dots \leq c(e_m)$ .
   $T \leftarrow \emptyset$ .
  FOREACH  $v \in V$ : MAKE-SET( $v$ ).
  FOR  $i = 1$  TO  $m$ 
     $(u, v) \leftarrow e_i$ .
    IF (FIND-SET( $u$ )  $\neq$  FIND-SET( $v$ ))  $\leftarrow$  are  $u$  and  $v$  in
      same component?
       $T \leftarrow T \cup \{e_i\}$ .
    UNION( $u, v$ ).  $\leftarrow$  make  $u$  and  $v$  in
      same component
  RETURN  $T$ .
    
```

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## Reverse-delete algorithm: MSTs

see 4B

Start with all edges in  $T$  and consider them in descending order of cost:

- Delete each edge from  $T$  unless doing so would disconnect  $T$ .

**Theorem.** The reverse-delete algorithm computes an MST.

**Pf.** Special case of greedy algorithm.

- Case 1. [ deleting edge  $e$  does not disconnect  $T$  ]
  - $\rightarrow$  apply red rule to cycle  $C$  formed by adding  $e$  to another path in  $T$  between its two endpoints.
    - $\leftarrow$  no edge in  $C$  is more expensive (it would have already been considered and deleted)
- Case 2. [ deleting edge  $e$  disconnects  $T$  ]
  - $\rightarrow$  apply blue rule to cutset  $D$  induced by either component.
    - $\leftarrow$   $e$  is the only remaining edge in the cutset (all other edges in  $D$  must have been colored red / deleted)

**Fact.** [Thorup 2000] Reverse-delete can be implemented in  $O(m \log n (\log \log n)^3)$  time.

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## Borůvka's algorithm: MSTs

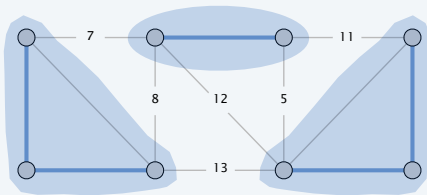
see 4B

Repeat until only one tree remains:

- Apply blue rule to the cutset corresponding to **each** blue tree.
- Color **all** selected edges blue.

**Theorem.** Borůvka's algorithm computes the MST.  $\leftarrow$  assuming edge costs are distinct

**Pf.** Special case of greedy algorithm (repeatedly apply blue rule). ▀



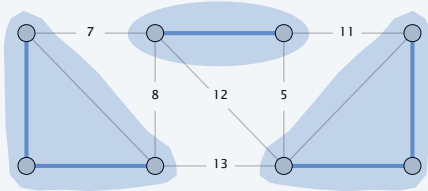
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## Borůvka's algorithm: implementation

**Theorem.** Borůvka's algorithm can be implemented in  $O(m \log n)$  time.

**Pf.**

- To implement a phase in  $O(m)$  time:
  - compute connected components of blue edges
  - for each edge  $(u, v) \in E$ , check if  $u$  and  $v$  are in different components; if so, update each component's best edge in cutset
- $\leq \log_2 n$  phases since each phase (at least) halves total # components. ■



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## Does a linear-time comparison-based MST algorithm exist?

year	worst case	discovered by
1975	$O(m \log \log n)$	Yao
1976	$O(m \log \log n)$	Cheriton–Tarjan
1984	$O(m \log^* n)$ , $O(m + n \log n)$	Fredman–Tarjan
1986	$O(m \log(\log^* n))$	Gabow–Galil–Spencer–Tarjan
1997	$O(m \alpha(n) \log \alpha(n))$	Chazelle
2000	$O(m \alpha(n))$	Chazelle
2002	asymptotically optimal	Pettie–Ramachandran
20xx	$O(m)$	???

deterministic compare-based MST algorithms

iterated logarithm function

$$\lg^* n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \leq 1 \\ 1 + \lg^*(\lg n) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

$n$	$\lg^* n$
$(-\infty, 1]$	0
(1, 2]	1
(2, 4]	2
(4, 16]	3
(16, $2^{16}$ ]	4
( $2^{16}$ , $2^{65536}$ ]	5

( $\alpha$ : inverse Ackermann function)

**Theorem.** [Fredman–Willard 1990]  $O(m)$  in word RAM model.

**Theorem.** [Dixon–Rauch–Tarjan 1992]  $O(m)$  MST verification algorithm.

**Theorem.** [Karger–Klein–Tarjan 1995]  $O(m)$  randomized MST algorithm.

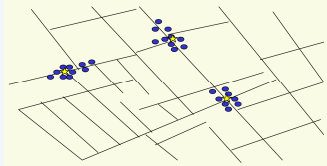
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## CSCI 355: ALGORITHM DESIGN AND ANALYSIS 4. GREEDY ALGORITHMS II

- ▶ Dijkstra's algorithm
- ▶ minimum spanning trees
- ▶ Prim, Kruskal, Borůvka
- ▶ single-link clustering

## Clustering

**Goal.** Given a set  $U$  of  $n$  objects labeled  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ , partition the objects into clusters so that objects in different clusters are far apart.



outbreak of cholera deaths in London in 1850s (Nina Mishra)



### Applications.

- Routing in mobile ad-hoc networks.
- Document categorization for web search.
- Similarity searching in medical image databases
- Cluster celestial objects into stars, quasars, galaxies.

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## Clustering with maximum spacing

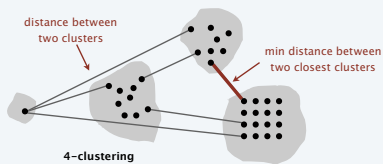
**k-clustering.** Divide objects into  $k$  non-empty groups.

**Distance function.** Numeric value specifying "closeness" of two objects.

- $d(p_i, p_j) = 0$  iff  $p_i = p_j$  [ identity of indiscernibles ]
- $d(p_i, p_j) \geq 0$  [ non-negativity ]
- $d(p_i, p_j) = d(p_j, p_i)$  [ symmetry ]

**Spacing.** Min distance between any pair of points in different clusters.

**Goal.** Given an integer  $k$ , find a  $k$ -clustering with maximum spacing.



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## Greedy clustering algorithm

**"Well-known" algorithm for single-linkage  $k$ -clustering:**

- Form a graph on the vertex set  $U$ , corresponding to  $n$  clusters.
- Find the closest pair of objects such that each object is in a different cluster, and add an edge between them.
- Repeat  $n - k$  times (until there are exactly  $k$  clusters).



**Key observation.** This procedure is precisely Kruskal's algorithm (except we stop when there are  $k$  connected components).

**Alternative.** Find an MST and delete the  $k - 1$  longest edges.

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## Dendrogram of cancers in human

Tumors in similar tissues cluster together.

