## Mathematics for Decision Making: An Introduction

## Lecture 11

#### Matthias Köppe

UC Davis, Mathematics

February 10, 2009

### Dijkstra's Algorithm

**Input:** A digraph G = (V, A) with nonnegative arc costs, starting node *r* **Output:** A predecessor vector **p**, encoding minimum-cost paths from *r* to all nodes.

- Initialize y, p.
- Set S := V.

```
    While S ≠ Ø:

Choose v ∈ S with y<sub>v</sub> minimum.

Set S := S \ {v}.

Scan vertex v, i.e., do for all arcs (v, w) ∈ A:

If (v, w) is incorrect, then correct it, updating predecessor information.
```

## Dijkstra's Algorithm: Correctness

- We use the notation  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  for the ordering of the nodes
- We denote by  $\mathbf{y}^{(i)}$  the value of  $\mathbf{y}$  at the point when  $v_i$  is chosen to be scanned.

### Lemma (Monotonicity of potentials of scanned nodes)

For all i < k we have  $y_{v_i}^{(i)} \leq y_{v_k}^{(k)}$ .

#### Proof.

- Suppose the contrary, i.e., there exist i < k with  $y_{v_i}^{(i)} > y_{v_k}^{(k)}$ .
- Fix such a *i* and choose *k* minimal with this property, i.e., *v<sub>k</sub>* is the earliest-chosen vertex after *v<sub>i</sub>* that, at the time of its scanning, had a smaller potential than the vertex *v<sub>i</sub>* at the time of its scanning.
- But by the minimal choice in the algorithm, we have  $y_{v_i}^{(i)} \le y_{v_k}^{(i)}$ .
- So  $y_{v_k}$  must have been lowered while scanning some vertex  $v_j$  with i < j < k.
- This arc correction made  $y_{v_k}^{(k)} = y_{v_k}^{(j+1)} = y_{v_j}^{(j)} + c_{v_j, v_k}$ .
- Because  $c_{v_j,v_k} \ge 0$ , we have  $y_{v_j}^{(j)} \le y_{v_k}^{(k)} < y_{v_i}^{(i)}$ .
- This is a contradiction to the definition of k.

#### Theorem

Dijkstra's Algorithm is correct.

#### Proof.

We prove that, after all vertices have been scanned, we have a feasible potential  $y^{n+1}$ :

- Suppose not, i.e., for some  $(v_i, v_k) \in A$ , we have  $y_{v_i}^{(n+1)} + c_{v_i, v_k} < y_{v_k}^{(n+1)}$ .
- But directly after scanning vertex  $v_i$ , we certainly did have  $y_{v_i}^{(i+1)} + c_{v_i,v_k} \ge y_{v_k}^{(i+1)}$ .
- Since we never increase the potentials,  $y_{v_i}$  must have been lowered afterwards! Say, it was lowered the last time when scanning vertex  $v_j$  (with i < j).
- Thus  $y_{v_i}^{(i+1)} > y_{v_i}^{(n+1)} = y_{v_i}^{(j+1)} = y_{v_j}^{(j)} + c_{v_j,v_i} \ge y_{v_j}^{(j)}$
- On the other hand, by the Lemma, because  $v_j$  was scanned after  $v_i$ , we have  $y_{v_j}^{(j)} \ge y_{v_i}^{(i)}$ , a contradiction  $(y_{v_i}^{(i+1)} > y_{v_i}^{(i)})$ .

## Theorem (Efficiency of Dijkstra's Algorithm)

Dijkstra's Algorithm terminates after m = |A| arc verification steps.

- Let's try out Dijkstra's Algorithm in practice; we expect that the running time essentially only depends, linearly, on the number of arcs.
- We try on examples with the same number of arcs, but different numbers of vertices.
- Result: There is a great dependence on the number of vertices, and we are not happy with the running time for large, sparse graphs (many vertices, few arcs)
- Where is the running time spent? Our coarse abstraction of running time (number of arc verification steps) does not give the answer.
- To find this out in the practical program, it is strongly recommended to find this out by measuring time, rather than thinking or guessing.
- Every modern, reasonable programming system has a facility for measuring how much running time is spent in parts of the program; this is called a (time) profiler.
- In the case of C, the GCC toolchain (compiler/linker option -pg) and the gprof tool provide a (sampling) time profiler.

# Dijkstra's Algorithm: Efficiency, II

- To make refined mathematical statements about the running time of Dijkstra's Algorithm, we analyze the algorithm on an abstraction of a computer, which we call the **Random Access Machine** (RAM).
- Such a machine has a fixed (immutable) **program**, a **central processing unit** with finitely many **registers**, and direct (indexed by a constant) and indirect (indexed by the contents of a register) access to infinitely many **memory locations**.
- Each of the registers and memory locations can store an **integer of arbitrary** size.
- The running time of a program on the RAM is the number of **elementary operations** it executes.
  - Reading a number from memory into a register
  - Writing a number from a register to memory
  - Elementary arithmetic operations  $(+, -, \times, division with remainder)$  on registers
  - Comparing numbers  $(=, \leq, \geq)$  in registers
  - Elementary control flow operations (branches)
- In other words, by definition, each of the above elementary operations takes constant time (1 time unit). Note that this is a dramatic simplification of the running time of a program on a real computer.

# Dijkstra's Algorithm: Efficiency, III

- We now turn to the refined analysis of Dijkstra's Algorithm, based on a concrete **implementation** of the algorithm on a RAM:
  - We need to clarify how the input data are presented
  - We need to decide using which concrete data structures we store the data
  - We need to clarify several steps of the algorithm

(The same is necessary if we want to create an implementation of the algorithm in a not-too-high-level programming language such as C.)

- We will assume that the digraph (*V*, *A*) is given in the form of an **adjacency list**, stored in **arrays** (i.e., using contiguous memory locations), which allows to
  - obtain the number of vertices in constant time c1
  - given a vertex index *ν*, to determine the **outdegree** δ<sup>+</sup>(*ν*) (the number of arcs leaving *ν*) in constant time *c*<sub>2</sub>
  - given a vertex index *v* and an index *i*, to determine the endpoint *w* of the *i*-th arc leaving *v*, and the arc cost *c*<sub>*v*,*w*</sub> in constant time *c*<sub>3</sub>
- We will store the potential vector y and the predecessor vector p as arrays.
   Accessing (reading or writing) an element y<sub>v</sub> or p(v) of these vectors, given a vertex index v, then takes a constant c<sub>4</sub> many elementary operations
- We will store the set *S* as a **singly-linked list**; this allows to decide whether  $S = \emptyset$  in time  $c_5$ , iterate through the elements in time  $c_6$  (per element), add an element at the front in constant time  $c_7$ , and delete an element found by iterating in constant time  $c_8$ .

## Dijkstra's Algorithm: Efficiency, IV

We now determine the precise number of elementary operations.

- We use the constants *c<sub>i</sub>* associated with the data structures, which appeared to the previous slide.
- We use additional constants *d<sub>i</sub>* to denote the number of elementary operations in other parts of the program.

### Dijkstra's Algorithm

**Input:** A digraph G = (V, A) with nonnegative arc costs, starting node *r* **Output:** A predecessor vector **p**, encoding minimum-cost paths from *r* to all nodes.

## Dijkstra's Algorithm: Efficiency, V

Adding up everything:

• The minimum-finding operation takes  $d_6 + |S|(c_4 + c_6 + d_7)$  operations, where |S| starts with |V| and is decreased until it reaches 1. Thus its total time is:

$$\sum_{s=1}^{|V|} \left( d_6 + |S|(c_4 + c_6 + d_7) \right) = |V|d_6 + \frac{|V|(|V|+1)}{2}(c_4 + c_6 + d_7)$$

• All node-scanning operations (verifying all outgoing arcs) together take

$$\sum_{\nu \in V} (c_2 + \delta^+(\nu)(c_3 + 4c_4 + d_8)) = |V|c_2 + |A|(c_3 + 4c_4 + d_8)$$

- The remaining operations are easy to account for
- Together we obtain

$$e_1|V|^2 + e_2|V| + e_3|A| + e_4$$

elementary operations, for some (complicated) constants e<sub>i</sub>.

• For sparse graphs, where  $|A| \ll |V|^2$ , the term  $e_1 |V|^2$  is the largest summand. It comes from the minimum-finding operation!

## Dijkstra's Algorithm: Efficiency, VI

- We are not happy with the complicated analysis (counting of operations, lots of constants, ...) we had to do to obtain this result.
- Moreover, the constants *e<sub>i</sub>* we obtained still depend on the specific RAM we are using. For instance, on a version of a RAM with few registers, we might need more elementary operations to do the same thing.
- For these reasons, it is useful and convenient to **ignore the specific constants** and just ask **how does the running time grow for large problems** (i.e., asymptotically)
- We will use the Landau notation for asymptotic growth. Fix a function  $g(n) \ge 0$ .
  - A function f(n) ≥ 0 is said to grow (asymptotically) at most with order g(n) if

 $\exists c > 0, n_0 \in \mathbf{N} : \forall n \ge n_0 : f(n) \le cg(n).$ 

We use the notation  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ , this is read as "big oh of g(n)".

A function f(n) ≥ 0 is said to grow (asymptotically) at least with order g(n) if

 $\exists c > 0, n_0 \in \mathbf{N} : \forall n \ge n_0 : f(n) \ge cg(n).$ 

We use the notation  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ , this is read as "big omega of g(n)".

- A function  $f(n) \ge 0$  is said to **grow (asymptotically) with order** g(n) if  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  (note: different constants are allowed); we write  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  (read: "big theta of g(n)")
- Similarly, for functions of several arguments.

 Using Big-Oh notation, we obtain that the running time of our RAM implementation of Dijkstra's Algorithm is

 $\Theta(|V|^2).$ 

In particular, the number of arcs (and thus sparsity) is no longer visible.

- A Big-Oh calculus helps to simplify the expressions:
  - For example, any polynomial function  $p(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{d} p_i n^i$  (with  $p_d \neq 0$ ) is in  $\Theta(n^d)$ .
  - In particular, constants get consumed by higher-order terms
  - $\max{f_1(n), f_2(n)} \in O(f_1(n) + f_2(n))$
- By keeping in mind that we are only interested in this kind of asymptotic estimate, we can simplify our counting of elementary operations: We can be "sloppy", in a controlled way.
  - It suffice to determine that some operation is O(1), or Θ(n); we don't need to discuss the precise number of iterations.

## Dijkstra's Algorithm: Efficiency, VIII

- We are **still not happy** with the performance of Dijkstra's Algorithm for large, sparse graphs
- We have found the reason: Running time is (asymptotically) dominated by the minimum-finding operation.
- A solution is to use **better concrete data structures**. Here it pays off to use a **binary heap** (an implementation of a **priority queue**) to implement the set *S* together with the potential vector **y**.
- A priority queue stores elements v together with a **priority**  $y_v$ ; it has **operations**:
  - Empty?
  - Insert and element v with priority  $y_v$
  - Find, remove, and return the element v of smallest priority yv
  - Find a given element v, and change its priority to y'<sub>v</sub>.
- The binary heap implementation of this abstract data structure on a RAM has running time of O(log *n*) for all of these operations, where *n* is the number of elements stored.