



Video 4.1

Sampath Kannan

Shortest Paths

- I How does Google Maps plan your route?
- I How is email sent to its destination on the internet?

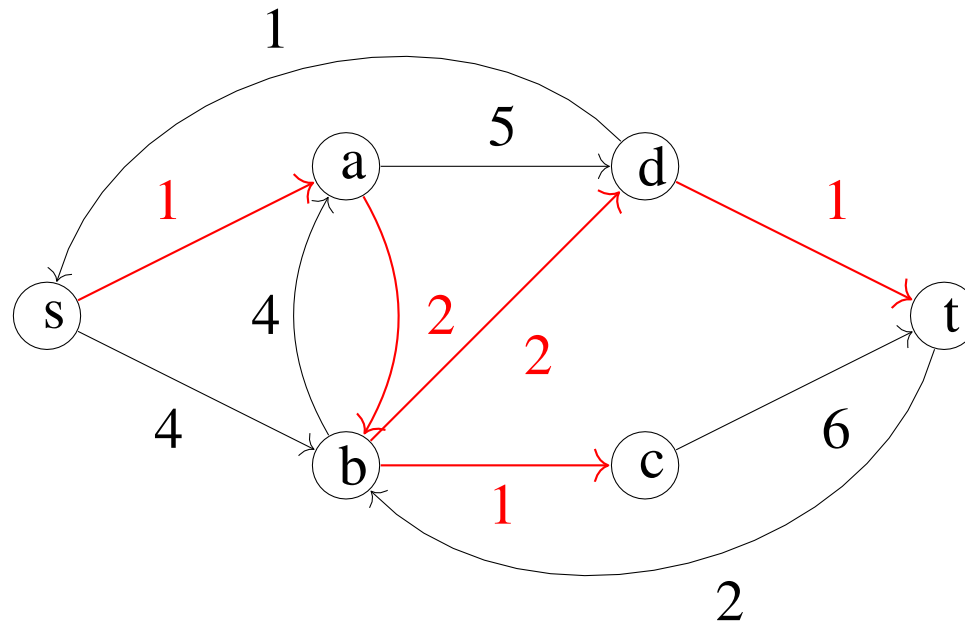
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Shortest Paths

- I How does Google Maps plan your route?
- I How is email sent to its destination on the internet?
- I Weighted graphs! Weight = Distance.
- I But edges are directed now (one-way streets, asymmetric links, etc)
- I (if a link is two-way we can always draw two one-way links)

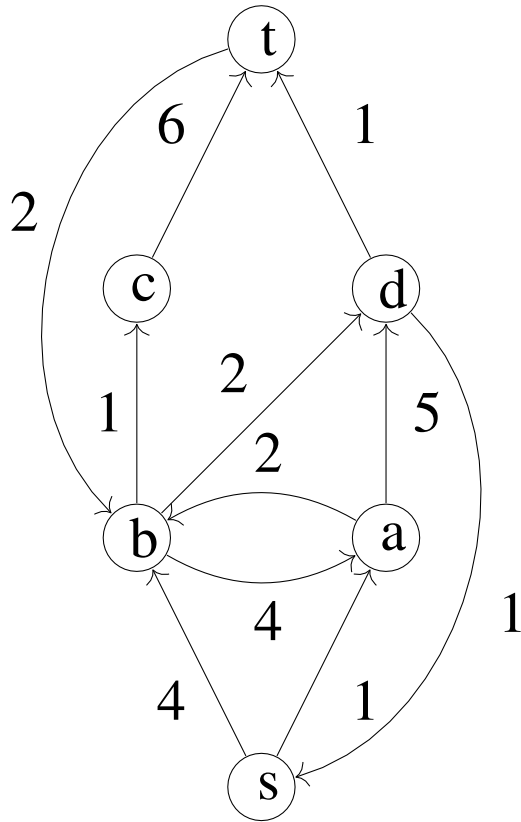
Single-Source Shortest Path Problem



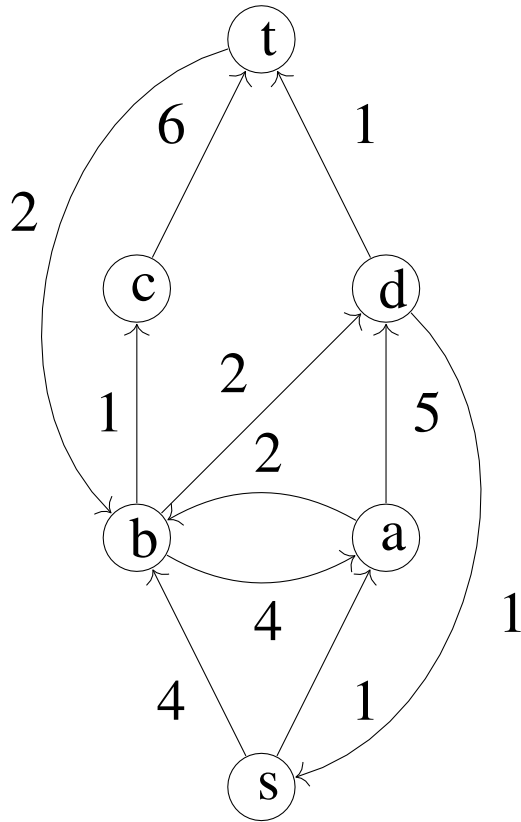
- I Given a weighted, directed graph and a vertex s, find the shortest paths from s to all other vertices
- I We will assume the weights are positive

Greedy Approach

- I What is a good greedy approach? Can we make any decision “for sure” right now?
- I Problem: shortest path from s to a vertex v could be a single edge, or a path of multiple edges.

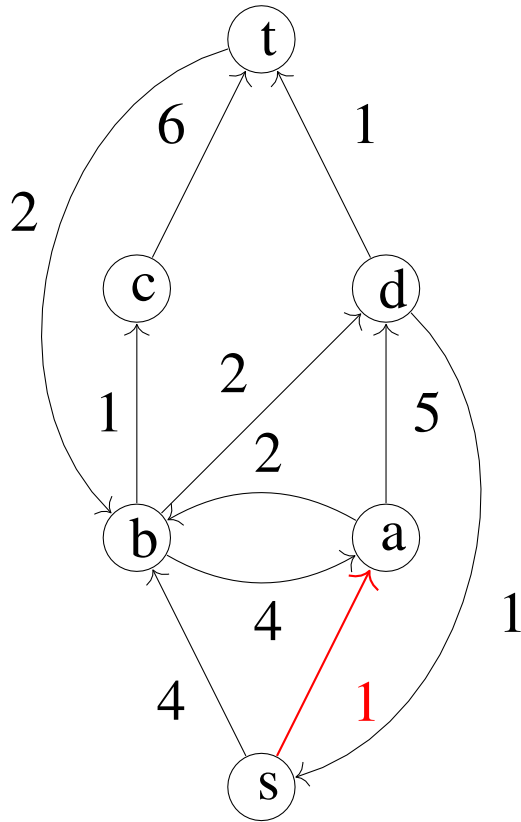


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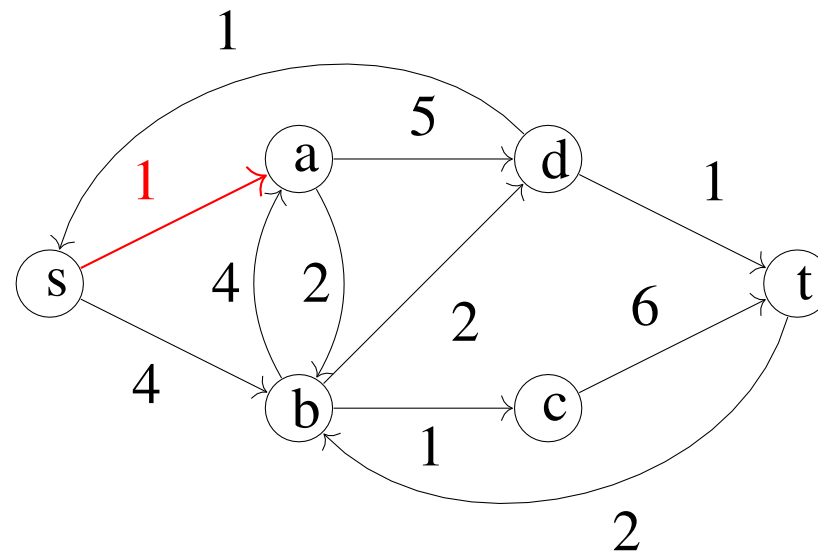
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- I For what neighbor of s can we be sure the shortest path is a single edge?

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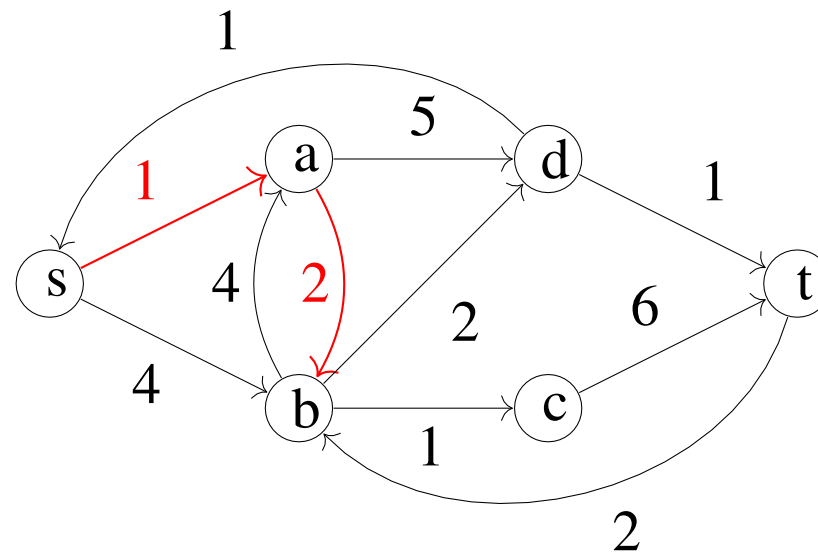


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- I Except the the shortest path to s . It is of length and cost 0.
- I For what neighbor of s can we be sure the shortest path is a single edge?
- I For the neighbor a that is closest to s. Let $w(s, a) = d(a)$ be the cost of this path
- I There can be no shorter path to a. Even the first edge from s on some other path costs more than $d(a)$.

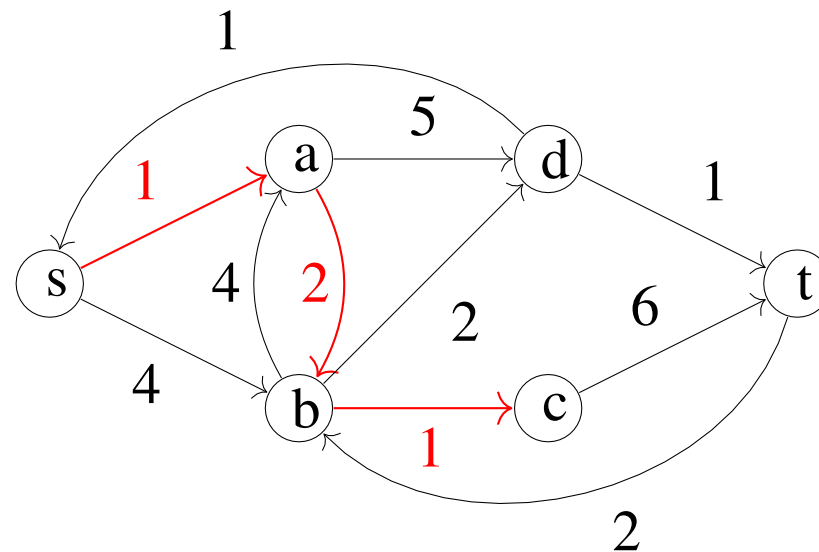
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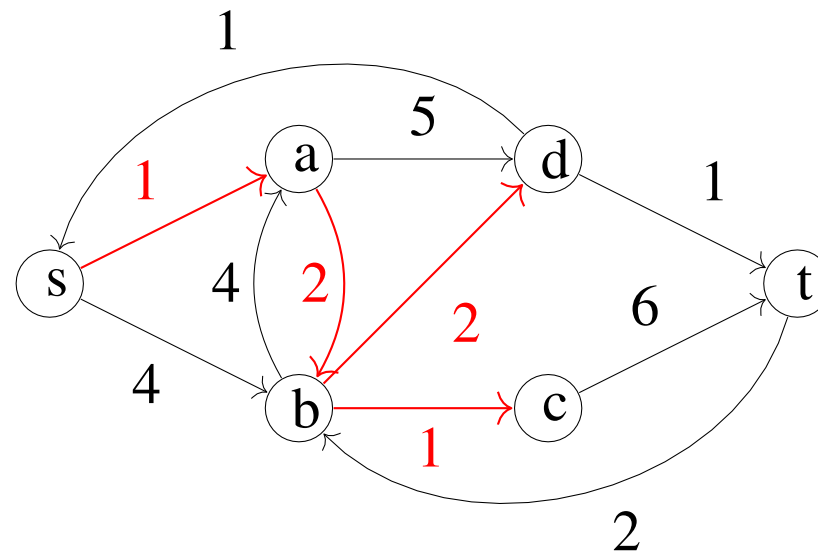
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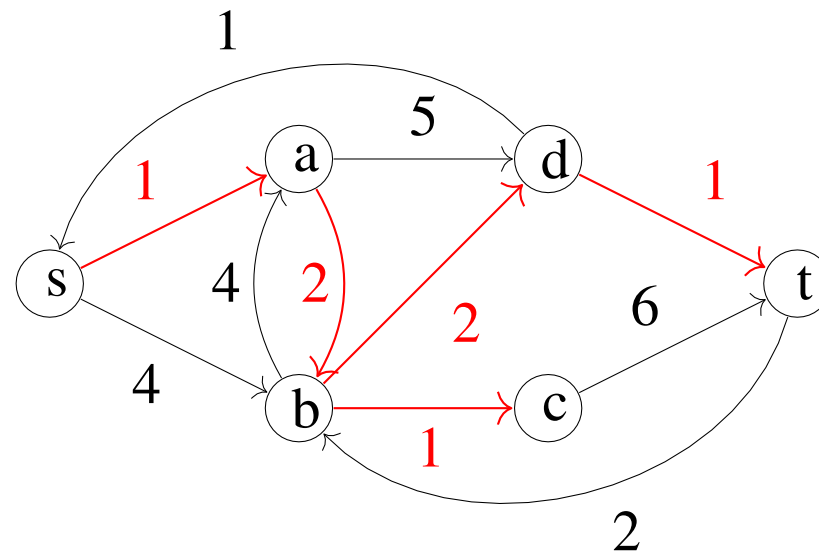
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- I For all vertices $v \in V - S$ it maintains a distance $d(v)$ which is the length of the shortest path to v passing only through vertices in S .
- I At each stage it brings the vertex u with minimum $d(u)$ into S and updates the values of $d(v)$ for all vertices v that are still in $V - S$.



Video 4.2

Sampath Kannan

Dijkstra's Pseudocode

```
dijkstra(G, w, s):  
    S = {s}  
    d(s) = 0  
    for all u in G.out-neighbor(s):  
        d(u) = w(s, u):  
for all u != s and u not in G.out-neighbor(s):  
    d(u) = infinity  
while S != G.V:  
    u = argmin d(v) over all v in G.V-S  
    add u to S  
    for each v in G.adj(u):  
        d(v) = min(d(v), d(u) + w(u, v))  
    //This maintains the property that d(w) is  
    //length of s->v path going only through  
    //vertices in S
```

Why does this work?

- I **Lemma 1:** For any vertex v , $d(v)$ cannot increase as the algorithm progresses.

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- I **Lemma 2:** If u is brought into S before v , then $d(v) \geq d(u)$.
Proof by contradiction: Suppose $d(v) < d(u)$. Consider the shortest path from s to v and let w be the first vertex on the path brought in after u . We have $d(w) < d(v) < d(u)$. So the algorithm should have brought in w before u .
Contradiction!

Why does this work? cont.

I **Theorem:** At all points in the algorithm the following are true:

- I For any $v \in S$, $d(v)$ is the length of the shortest path from s to v
- I For any $v \in V - S$, $d(v)$ is the minimum length of an $s - v$ path with intermediate vertices only in S .

I **Base Case:**

- I Initially $S = \{s\}$ and $d(s) = 0$, which is the length of the shortest path from s to s .
- I The only paths with all intermediate vertices in S are exactly the length-1 paths, for which $d(u)$ is correctly set. For all other vertices there are no such paths and $d(v) = \infty$.

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- I **Inductive Hypothesis:** Assume these statements are true just before bringing v into S . What happens after?

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I **Inductive Step:**

- I At this point $d(v)$ is the length of the shortest path to v . A future vertex u coming into s has $d(u) > d(v)$ and will not be on the shortest path to v . Thus $d(v)$ is the true length of the shortest path from s to v in the graph.
- I For any vertex u in $V - S$, either the shortest path to u with all intermediate vertices in S passes through v or it doesn't. If it doesn't then we already have its length in $d(u)$, if it does it's length is $d(v) + w(u, v)$.

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- I With a little more bookkeeping, we can compute the actual shortest path

Running time of Dijkstra's

- I Run times depends on what kind of structure we use for $d(v)$. If we use an array, finding the argmin takes $O(n)$ each round, leading to $O(n^2)$ time overall. The updates are then constant time and there are $O(m)$ of them which is also $O(n^2)$.

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- I What if we use heaps instead?

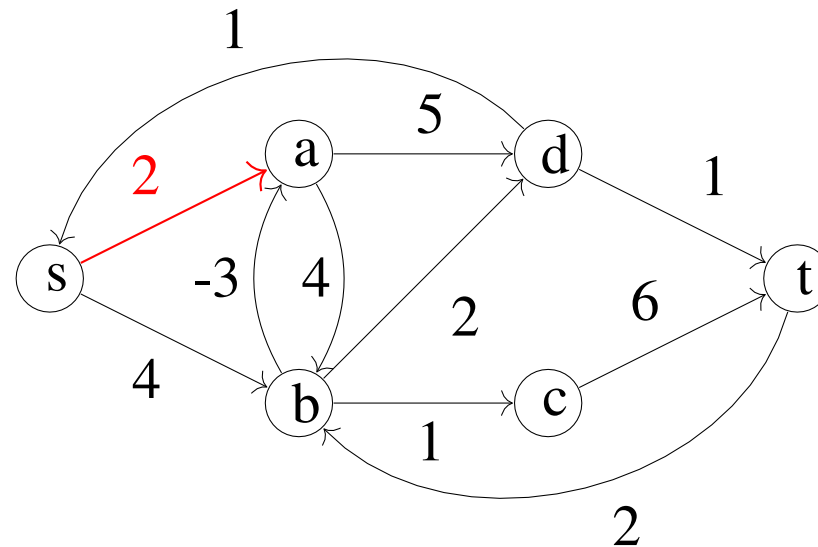
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- I What if we use heaps instead?
- I $O(n \log n)$ to extract-min n times
- I Updates are $O(\log n)$ per update which is $O(m \log n)$
- I Which running time is better: (n^2) or $O(m \log n)$?. Depends on whether the graph is dense or sparse.

Negative edge weights



The algorithm will start by assigning $d(a) = 2$ but the path $s \rightsquigarrow b \rightsquigarrow a$ has length 1!



Video 4.3

Sampath Kannan

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$$A[i, j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = j \\ w(i, j) & \text{if } (i, j) \text{ is an edge} \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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- I Thus $A[i, j]$ represents the weight of the shortest path between any pair of vertices using at most 1 edge.

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- I The weight of the length 2 path $i \rightsquigarrow k \rightsquigarrow j$ is $A[i, k] + A[k, j]$. If we consider every possible k we would have considered every way of going from i to j in (at most) two hops.

$$\begin{array}{c} k \\ \downarrow \\ i \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \infty & 2 & 1 \\ 7 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ \infty & \infty & 0 & 1 \\ \color{red}{2} & \infty & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \quad k \rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{c} j \\ \downarrow \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \infty & \color{red}{2} & 1 \\ 7 & 0 & 3 & 2 \\ \infty & \infty & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & \infty & 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

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$k \downarrow$ $j \downarrow$

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- I This looks like matrix multiplication except. . .

All Pairs Solution 1 cont.

- I In normal matrix multiplication we multiply corresponding entries and add the products.
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All Pairs Solution 1 cont.

- I In normal matrix multiplication we multiply corresponding entries and add the products.
- I Here we add corresponding entries, and take the minimum.
- I Denoting the matrix we get by this kind of multiplication as A^2 , we can repeat this to get A^3, A^4, \dots until we get A^{n-1} .
- I $A^{n-1}[i, j]$ is the weight of the shortest path from i to j of length at most $n - 1$. Thus it is the shortest weight simple path from i to j .

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- I The negative-weight cycle has length at most n , and if i is on the cycle $A^n[i, i]$ will be negative.
- I If there are negative-weight cycles you can shorten paths that pass through it infinitely. So there is no shortest path between some vertices.
- I Examining the diagonals of A^n will detect the presence of negative-weight cycles and can abort the algorithm if they are found

Faster Multiplication

- I Run time to “multiply” two $n \times n$ matrices: $O(n^3)$
- I n multiplications gives run time of $O(n^4)$.

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- I Run time to “multiply” two $n \times n$ matrices: $O(n^3)$
- I n multiplications gives run time of $O(n^4)$.
- I Instead of “multiplying”, repeatedly “square” A until we get to a power that is at least n . That is we compute A, A^2, A^4, \dots, A^p where $n \leq p < 2n$.

Final Running Time

- I $O(\log n)$ “squaring” operations for a total of $O(n^3 \log n)$.

Close to the best!

- I Note that “squaring” like multiplication is done in a strange way: we add corresponding entries and take the minimum.
- I If A does not have negative weight cycles, all the shortest paths are simple and $A^p = A^{n-1}$ for any $p \geq n - 1$.



Video 4.4

Sampath Kannan

Floyd-Warshall Algorithm

- I We already saw an $O(n^3 \log n)$ algorithm for computing all pairs shortest paths
- I We can use dynamic programming to get an $O(n^3)$ algorithm.



Figure 1: Robert Floyd and Stephen Warshall

Property of Penn Engineering, Sampath Kannan

Subproblem

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- I This algorithm will use intermediate vertices like the previous one, but will consider subproblems by restricting which ones can be used.
- I Number the vertices from 1 to n arbitrarily and let $D^k[i, j]$ be the weight of the shortest path from i to j where all intermediate nodes have number $\leq k$.
- I $D^n[i, j]$ has no restriction on intermediate nodes, so this is what we wish to compute.

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- I So D^0 are the “smallest” subproblems which we can use to compute D^k for increasing values of k .

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- I The only difference is that now we consider paths include vertex $k + 1$
- I If a path in D^{k+1} uses $k + 1$, it goes through it only once and all other nodes on the path are numbered $\leq k$.

Recurrence cont.

$$D^k[i, j] = \min(D^k[i, j], D^k[i, k + 1] + D^k[k + 1, j])$$

- I This is a minimum over the two types of shortest path from i to j that only use vertices numbered $\leq k + 1$:

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1. Paths that only go through nodes numbered $\leq k$
 2. Paths that go through $k + 1$ exactly once.

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- I Number of subproblems: Each D^i has n^2 entries to compute, and there are n value of i . So $O(n^3)$ subproblems.

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- I Therefore the total running time is $O(n^3)$.



Video 4.5

Sampath Kannan

Efficiency Definition

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- I We define running time as a function of the input length n
- I When an algorithm has running time $O(n^2)$ it means that for long enough inputs, the algorithm takes no more than quadratic time.

Efficiency

Definition

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- I We define running time as a function of the input length n
- I When an algorithm has running time $O(n^2)$ it means that for long enough inputs, the algorithm takes no more than quadratic time.
- I In general an algorithm is efficient if its running time is polynomial. More precisely a running time is polynomial when it is $O(n^c)$ for some constant c .
 - I Polynomial: $n^2, n^{100}, n \log n$
 - I Non Polynomial: $2^n, n!, n^{\log n}$

P

- I A decision problem is one where the answer is either a YES or a NO
 - I Examples: Is N prime? Do sequences x and y have a common subsequence of length $> k$? Does the graph G have a path from s to t of length at most k ?

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- I A decision problem with a polynomial time algorithm is said to be in the class P.
- I Decision problems associated with minimum spanning trees, shortest paths, and the dynamic programming and greedy examples are in P.
- I What about testing if N is prime?
 - I Simple Algorithm: Try dividing N by all numbers between 2 and \sqrt{N} . If some i is a factor of N , output 'NOT PRIME'; If no such i exists, output 'PRIME'.

P

- I A decision problem is one where the answer is either a YES or a NO
 - I Examples: Is N prime? Do sequences x and y have a common subsequence of length $> k$? Does the graph G have a path from s to t of length at most k ?
 - I For most problems there is an associated decision problem. An efficient algorithm for the decision problem gives rise to an efficient algorithm for the original problem.
- I A decision problem with a polynomial time algorithm is said to be in the class P.
- I Decision problems associated with minimum spanning trees, shortest paths, and the dynamic programming and greedy examples are in P.
- I What about testing if N is prime?
 - I Simple Algorithm: Try dividing N by all numbers between 2 and \sqrt{N} . If some i is a factor of N , output 'NOT PRIME'; If no such i exists, output 'PRIME'.
 - I But this is not poly-time! We only require $n = \log N$ bits to represent N and $\sqrt{N} = 2^{n/2}$

- I Given a solution to an instance of a decision problem, we want to verify if it actually is a solution (is this sequence actually a subsequence of x and y ?)

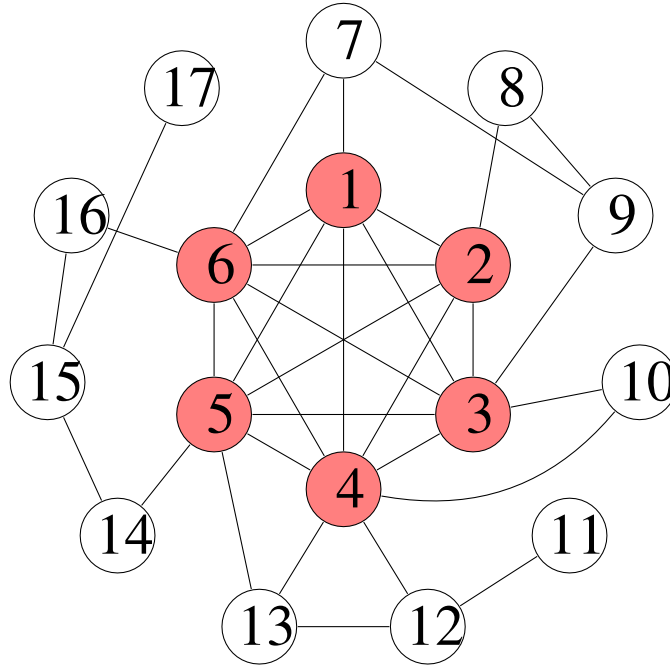
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NP

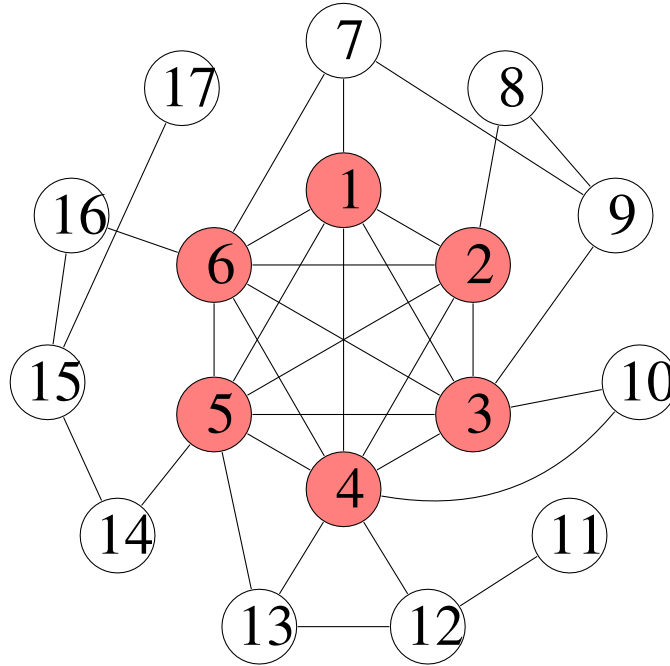
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- I There is no known poly-time algorithm for this but it is easy to verify if a given cycle is a Hamiltonian cycle.
- I NP is the class of decision problems where if the answer is YES then there is a short “solution” which can be easily verified.

Maximum Clique



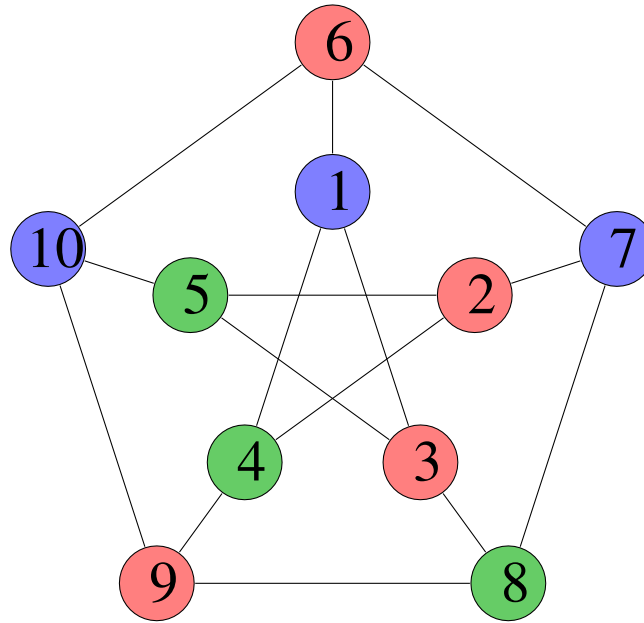
- I Given a graph G and a number K , are there K vertices in G that are all pairwise adjacent (this is called a clique)?

Maximum Clique



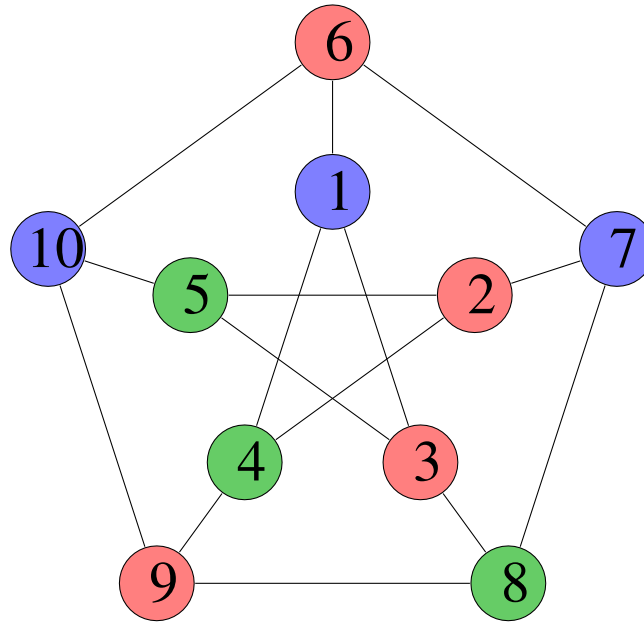
- I Given a graph G and a number K , are there K vertices in G that are all pairwise adjacent (this is called a clique)?
- I Easy to verify since given the vertices we only need check that they are all adjacent.
- I Useful for finding groups of mutual friends in social networks.

3-Coloring



- I Given a graph G , can we assign 3 colors to its vertices so that any pair of adjacent vertices have different colors?

3-Coloring



- I Given a graph G , can we assign 3 colors to its vertices so that any pair of adjacent vertices have different colors?
- I Easy to verify a coloring by examining all edges so it is in NP.
- I Useful for allocating transmission frequencies to radio stations to avoid interference.

Partition Problem

1	5	2	4	3	7
---	---	---	---	---	---

1	5	9	4	3	8	10	2	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	----	---	---

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- I Given n numbers, can they be partitioned into 2 sets such that the sums of the numbers in the sets are equal

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- I Given n numbers, can they be partitioned into 2 sets such that the sums of the numbers in the sets are equal
- I Easy to verify given the two sets, so it is in NP.



Video 4.6

Sampath Kannan

- I Recall that for a decision problem in NP, if the answer is yes for a given input then the “solution” can be verified efficiently

P v NP

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P v NP

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- I But can we compute the solution efficiently?
- I We don't know! This is[?] the $P = NP$ question.

Hard Problems

- I One approach to settling $P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$: Identify the “hardest” problems in NP and focus on solving them in poly-time

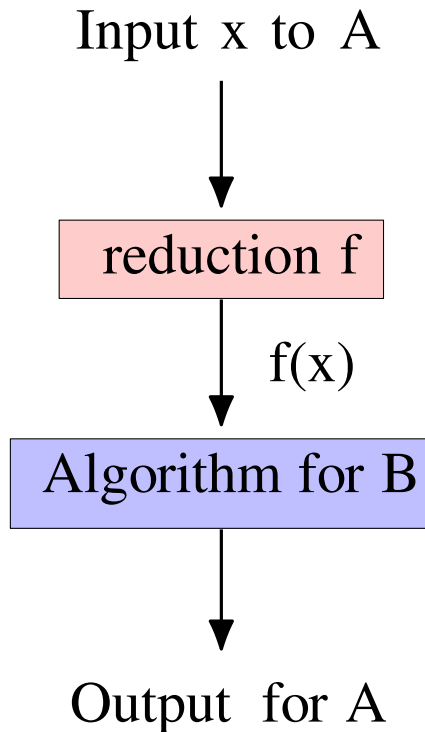
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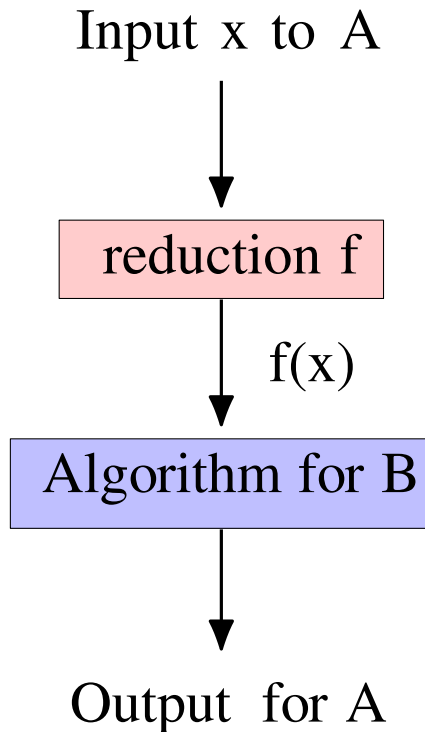
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- I Idea: Reductions

Reductions



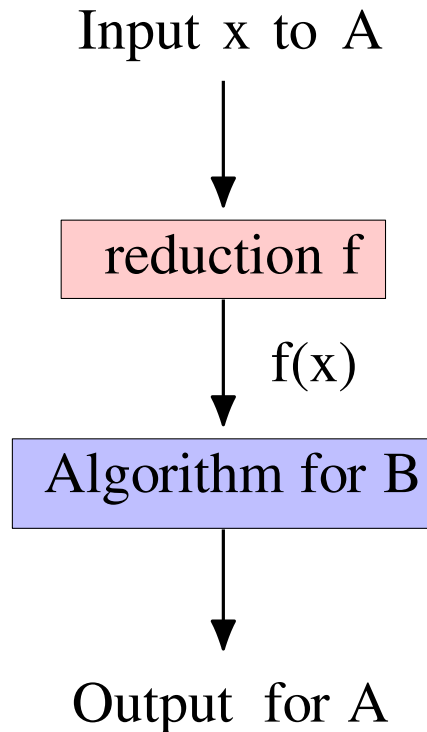
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Reductions



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Reductions



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- I Example: Problem A is finding the median of n elements and Problem B is sorting n elements.
A reduces to B since we can take the input to A, sort it using the solution to B, and then recover the solution to A by looking at the middle element in sorted order.

Reductions cont.

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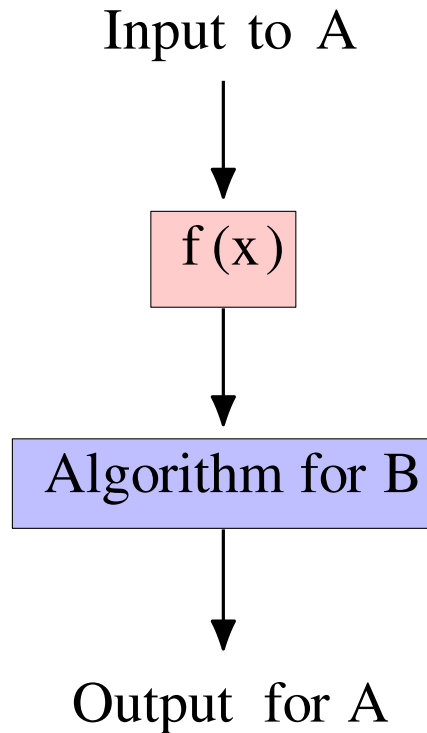
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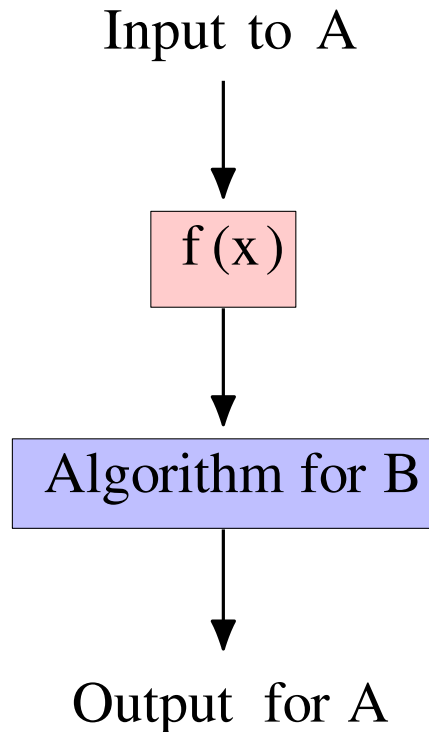
- I The median and sorting example illustrates reductions, but it is a bad example since medians can be computed directly faster than sorting.
- I However if we go the other way we can use the median finding algorithm to make an efficient sorting algorithm.
 - I Sort n elements, compute the median using the black box for A
 - II Use the median as a pivot like in quicksort and recurse.
We will always have a perfect partition so the algorithm will be efficient.

Reduction Definition



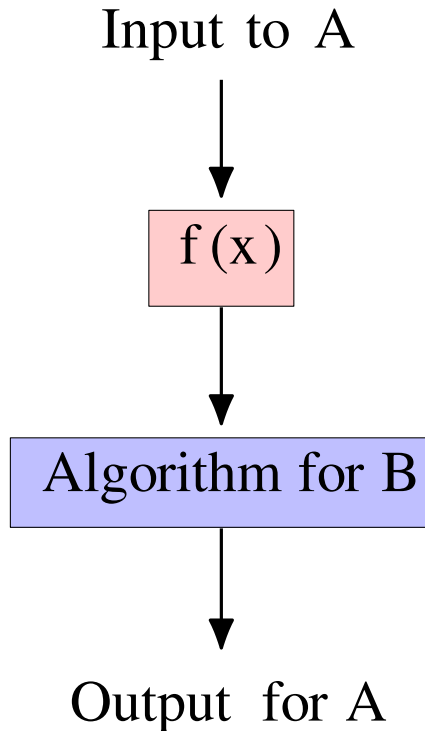
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- I We say Decision Problem A reduces to Decision problem B if there is a function f mapping inputs of A to inputs of B such that:
 - I If x is a YES input for A, then $f(x)$ is a YES input for B
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- I The reduction is f itself.

Poly-Time Reductions

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- I Note: If f is a polynomial-time reduction, then $|f(x)|$ is polynomial in the length of x .

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- I Note: If f is a polynomial-time reduction, then $|f(x)|$ is polynomial in the length of x .
- I Median finding and sorting are not decision problems, but otherwise the median finding to sorting reduction fits this definition.
 - I What is $f(x)$? Is it in computable poly-time?
- I However, the other direction does not fit since we repeatedly use the median finding algorithm

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- I If A is not solvable in polynomial time, then neither is B. This statement is actually equivalent to the original one.

Example

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- I Using our language, the problem of traveling back to the past reduces to the problem of traveling faster than the speed of light
- I If we manage to build a faster-than-light vehicle, then we can go back to the past
- I But if we prove that is impossible to travel back in time, then we immediately know it is impossible to build a faster-than-light vehicle.



Video 4.7

Sampath Kannan

NP –Completeness Definition

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Equivalently, $A \in P \implies P = NP$.
- I In a sense, A is a “hardest” problem in NP.
- I We say a problem A is NP-complete if
 - I $A \in NP$
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For example, $((\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \wedge (a \vee c) \wedge (\neg c \vee b)) \vee (\neg a \wedge b \wedge c)$
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Cook-Levin uses the fact that every problem in NP has a poly-time verifier to construct a formula that is satisfiable if and only if there is a “solution” that the verifier will accept.

Properties of Reductions

Input to A \rightarrow $f(x)$ \rightarrow Algorithm for B \rightarrow Output for A

Input to B \rightarrow $g(x)$ \rightarrow Algorithm for C \rightarrow Output for B

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- I Polynomial-time reductions are transitive: If A reduces to B and B reduces to C, then A reduces to C
- I After Cook-Levin, to show a problem X is NP-complete we need only show that $X \in \text{NP}$ and that Satisfiability or another NP-complete problem reduces to X.

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- I Therefore the function $f(\phi) = \phi \wedge (x \vee \neg x)$ is a polynomial time reduction from Satisfiability and NUS is NP-Complete.



Video 4.8

Sampath Kannan

3-SAT

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- I A formula is in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) when it is the AND of m clauses where each clause is an OR of some number of variables. For example
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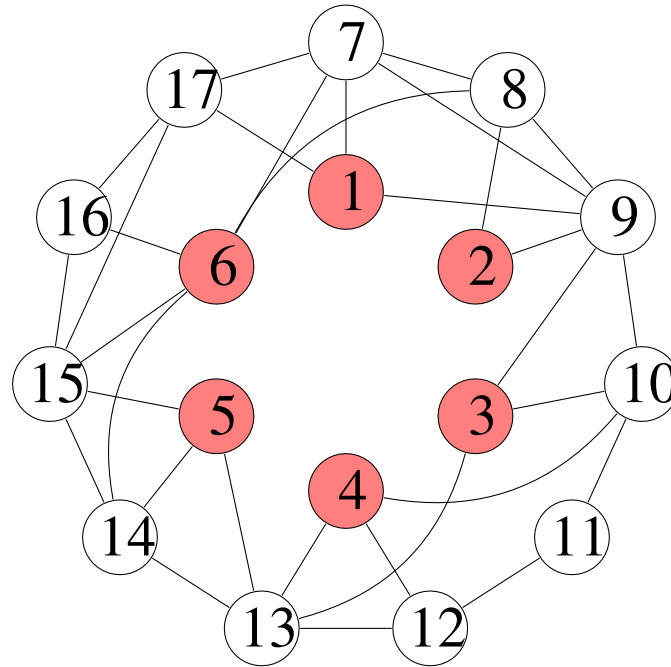
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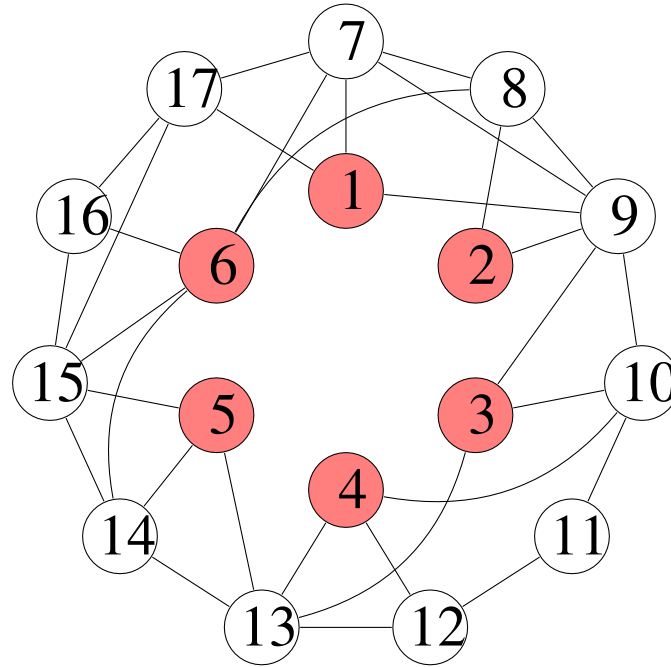
We will omit the details but Satisfiability can be reduced to 3-SAT, implying that 3-SAT is NP-Complete.

Independent Set



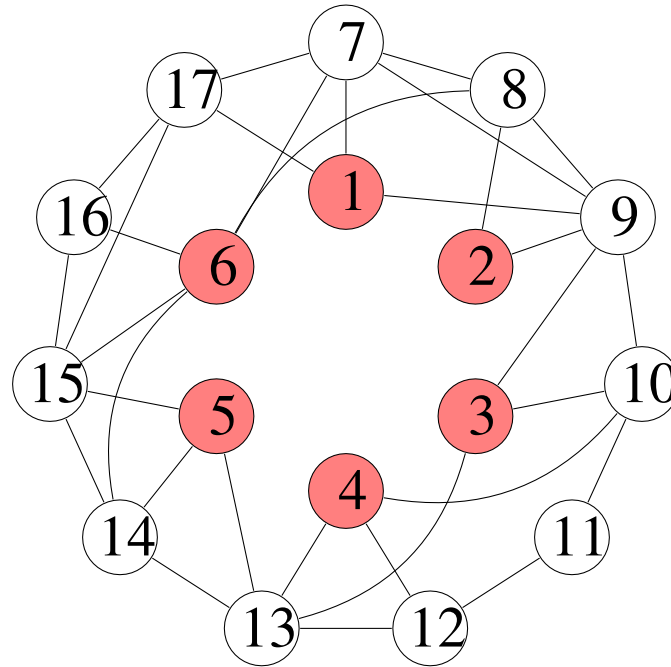
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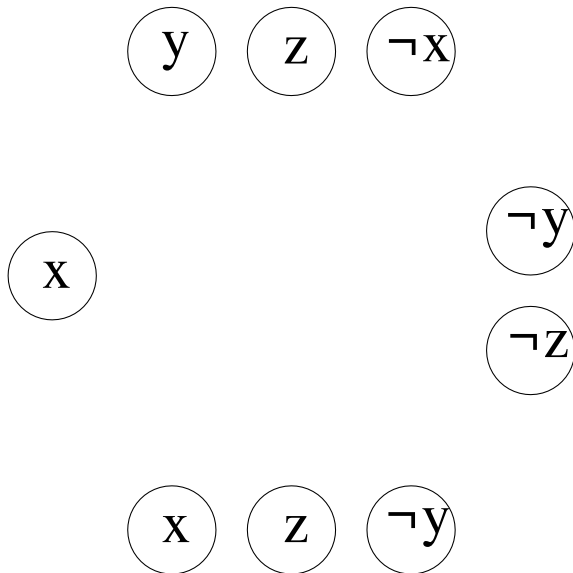


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- I Independent Set Decision Problem (ISDP): Given a graph G and integer K , does G have an independent set of size K ?
- I Clearly ISDP is in NP since we can easily verify if a given set is independent. We will now reduce 3-SAT to ISDP to show that ISDP is NP-Complete.

Reduction

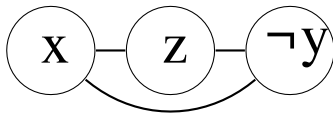
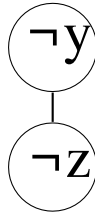
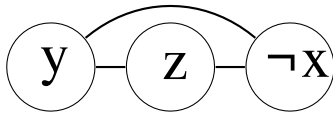
$$x \wedge (y \wedge z \wedge \neg x) \\ \wedge (\neg y \wedge \neg z) \wedge (x \vee z \vee \neg y) \\)$$

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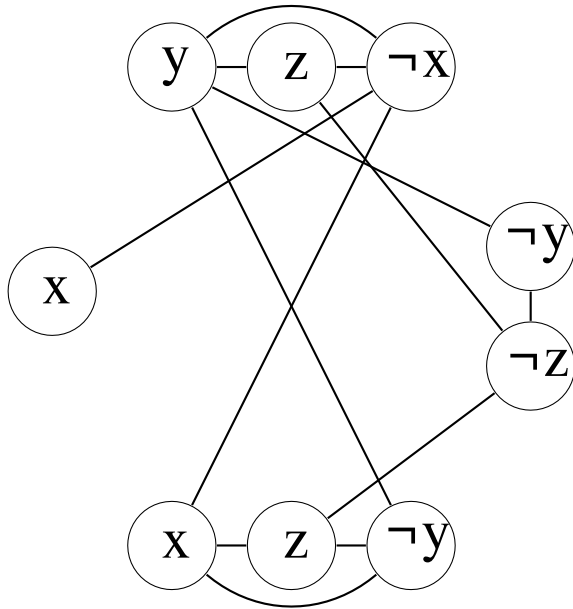
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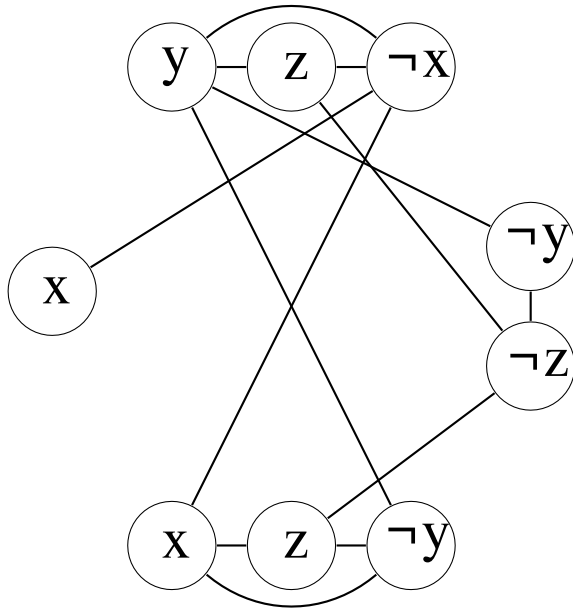
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- I The input to ISDP will be this graph and $K = m$.

Proof

- I \Rightarrow : If ϕ is satisfiable then using the satisfying assignment we can pick one literal from each clause that evaluates to true and we notice that no two of these literals will be negations of each other. The vertices corresponding to these literals will be an independent set of size m .

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- I \Leftarrow : If G has an independent set S of size m , then one vertex from each of the m clauses is in S , since all vertices in the same clause are adjacent. We also have that no two of the vertices in S are negations of each other since an edge connects all such pairs. Therefore we can make an assignment such that the literal corresponding to each vertex in S evaluates to true, which is a satisfying assignment for φ .
Therefore φ is satisfiable.

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- I If $P = NP$ then music creation is no more difficult than music appreciation! Likewise for art creation, so $P = NP$ implies that creativity can be automated!

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 - I If they don't, perhaps the problem is too hard. Try to show it is NP-complete to avoid wasting your time looking for an efficient algorithm that probably doesn't exist.

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4. Different models of computing and algorithms for those models.