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# Design and Analysis of Algorithms

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# Shortest Paths

A **shortest path** from  $u$  to  $v$  is a path of minimum weight from  $u$  to  $v$ .

The **shortest-path weight** from  $u$  to  $v$  is defined as:

$$\delta(u, v) = \min\{w(p) : p \text{ is a path from } u \text{ to } v\}.$$

**Note:**  $\delta(u, v) = \infty$  if no path from  $u$  to  $v$  exists.

$d[s] \leftarrow 0$

**for** each  $v \in V - \{s\}$

**do**  $d[v] \leftarrow \infty$

$S \leftarrow \emptyset$

$Q \leftarrow V$

▷  $Q$  is a priority queue maintaining  $V - S$ ,  
keyed on  $d[v]$

Let us review the process of Dijkstra with an example

$S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}$

**for** each  $v \in Adj[u]$

**do if**  $d[v] > d[u] + w(u, v)$

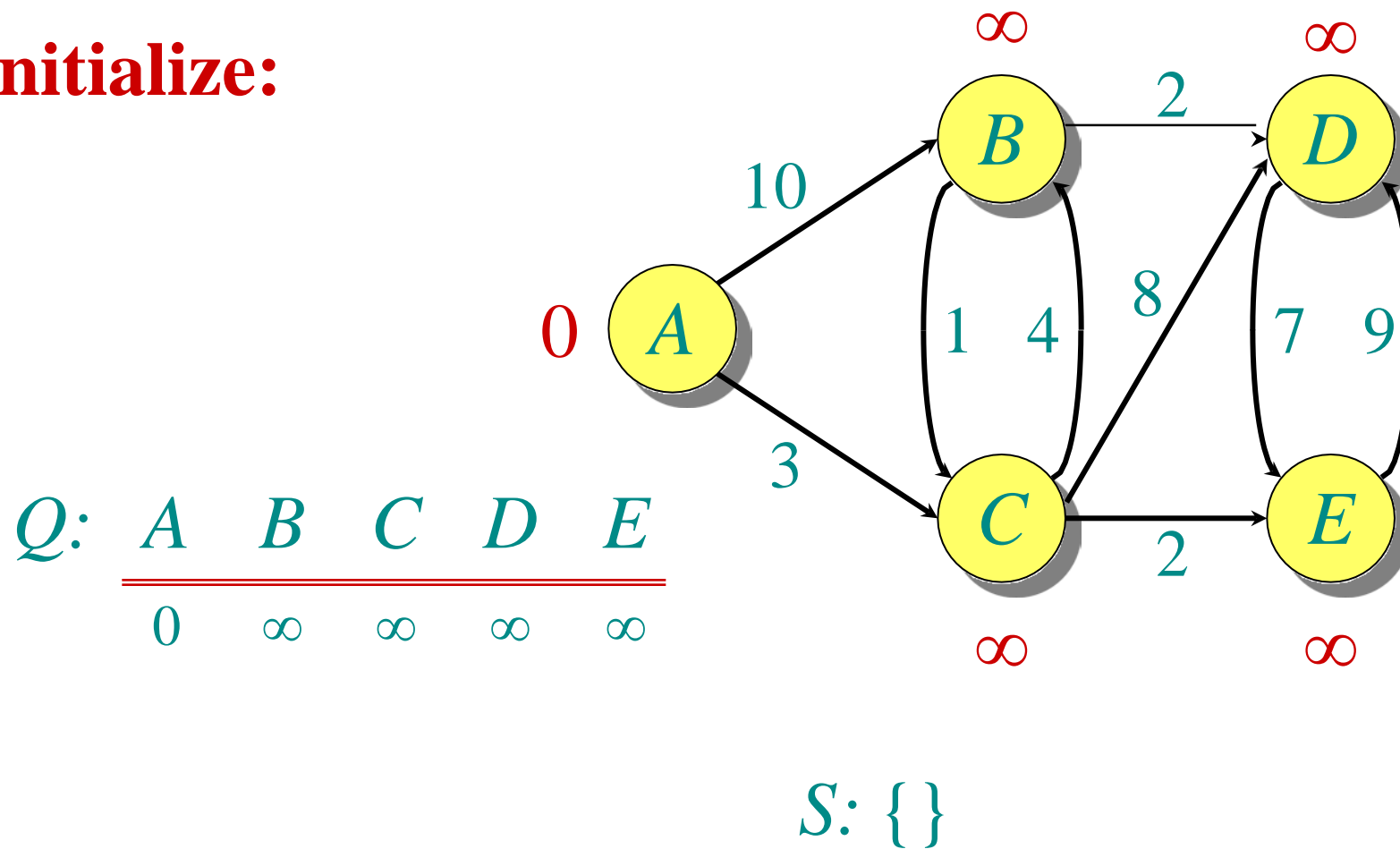
**then**  $d[v] \leftarrow d[u] + w(u, v)$

*relaxation  
step*

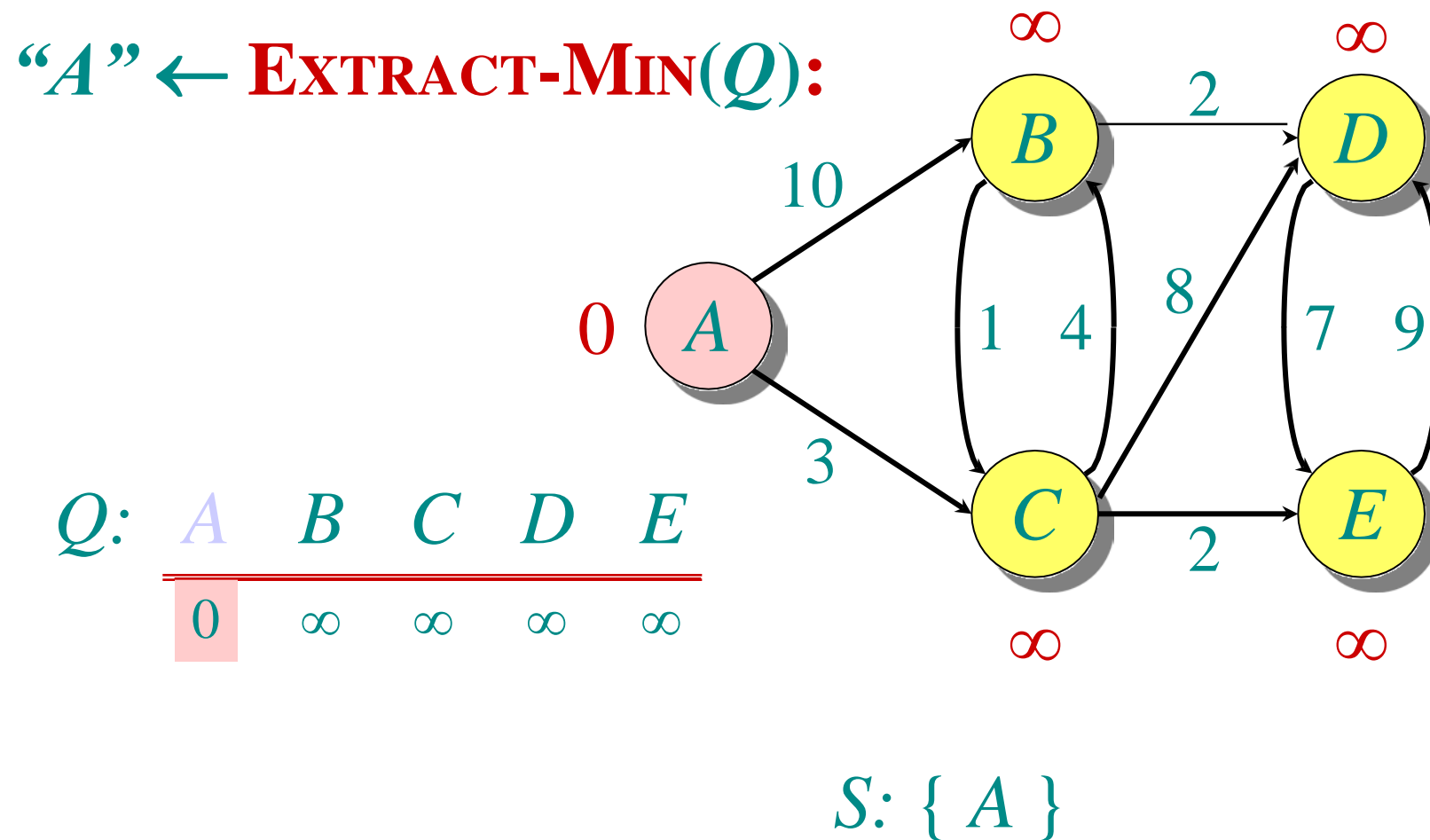
↑ Implicit DECREASE-KEY

# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

**Initialize:**

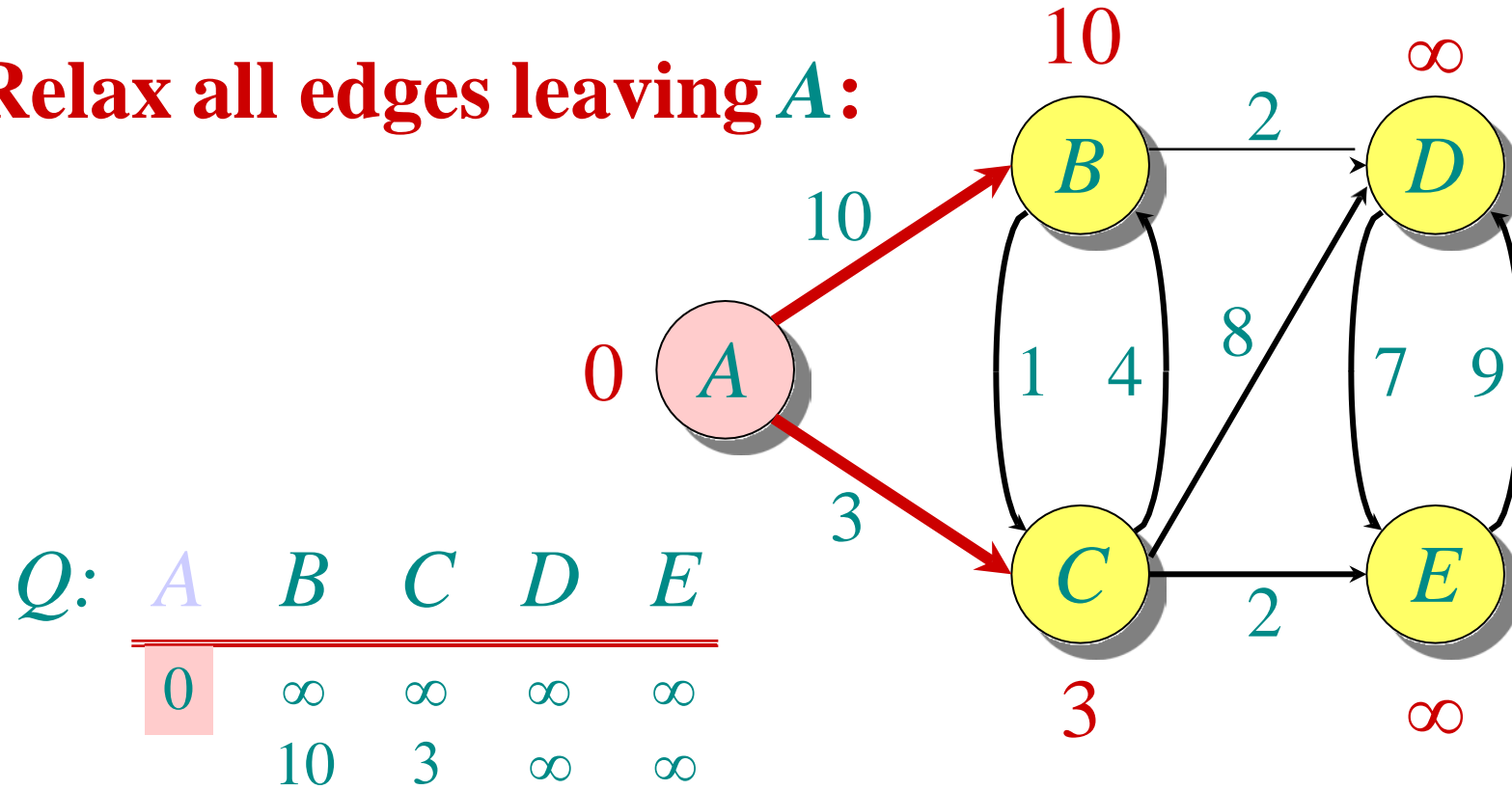


# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm



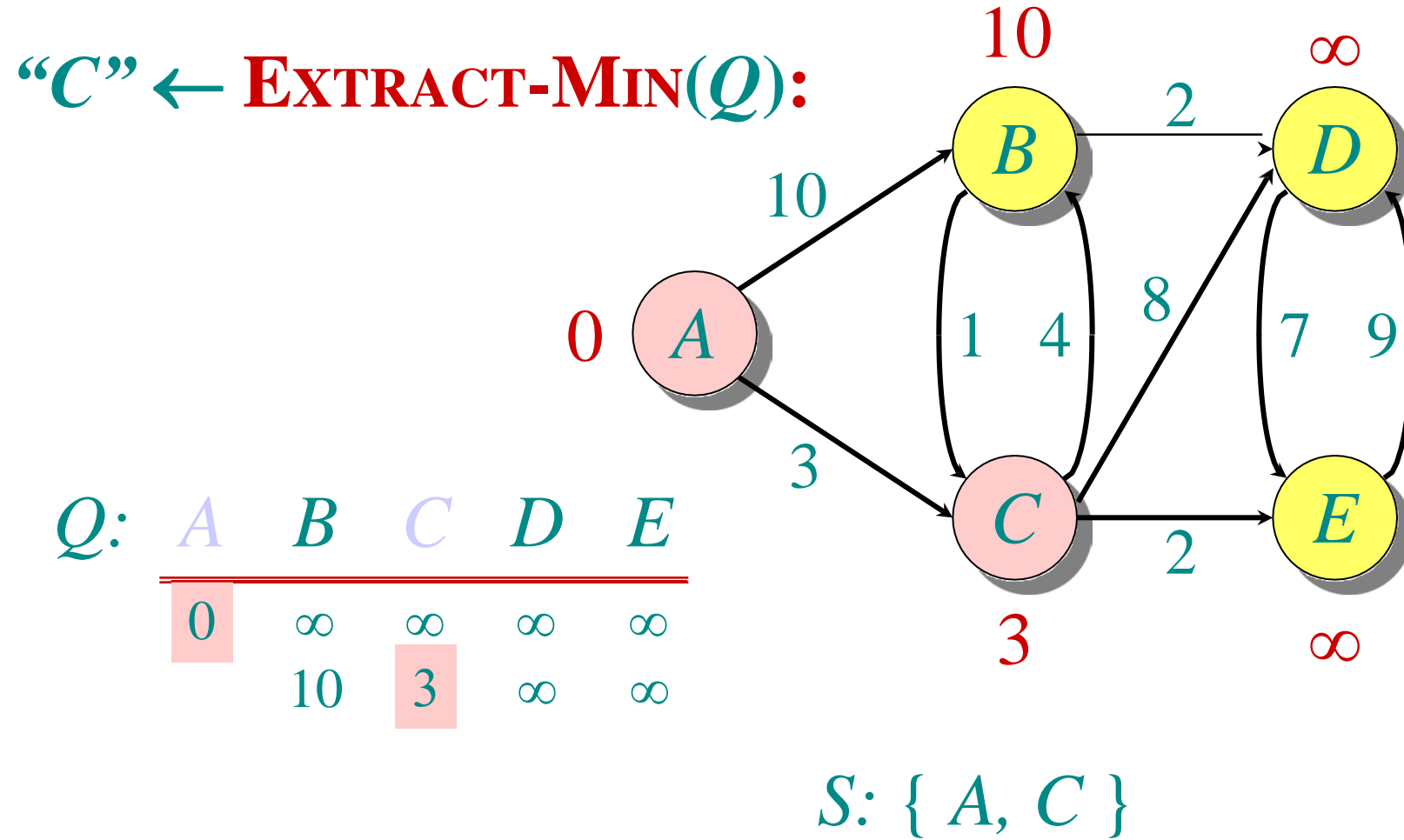
# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

Relax all edges leaving **A**:



$S: \{ A \}$

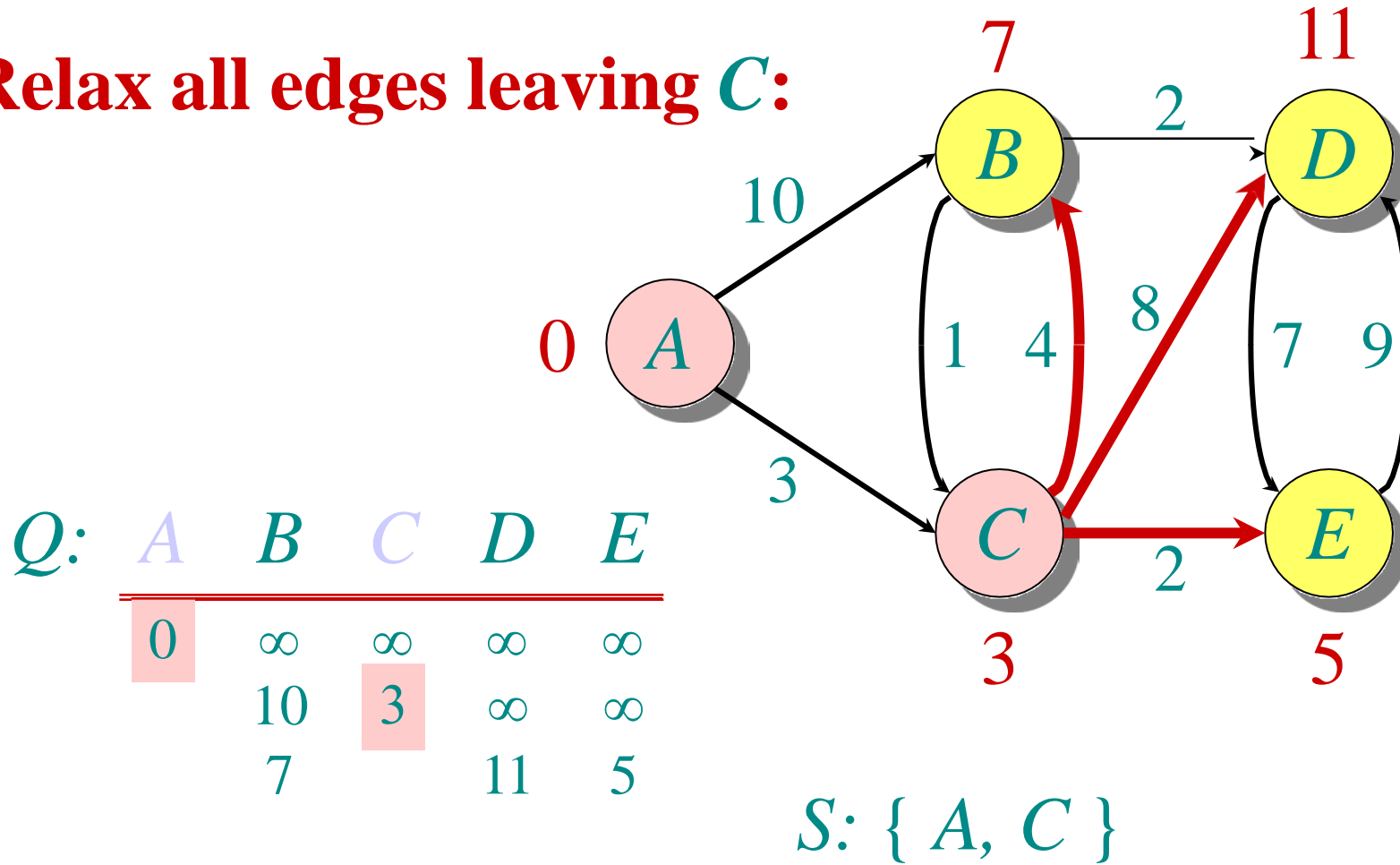
# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm



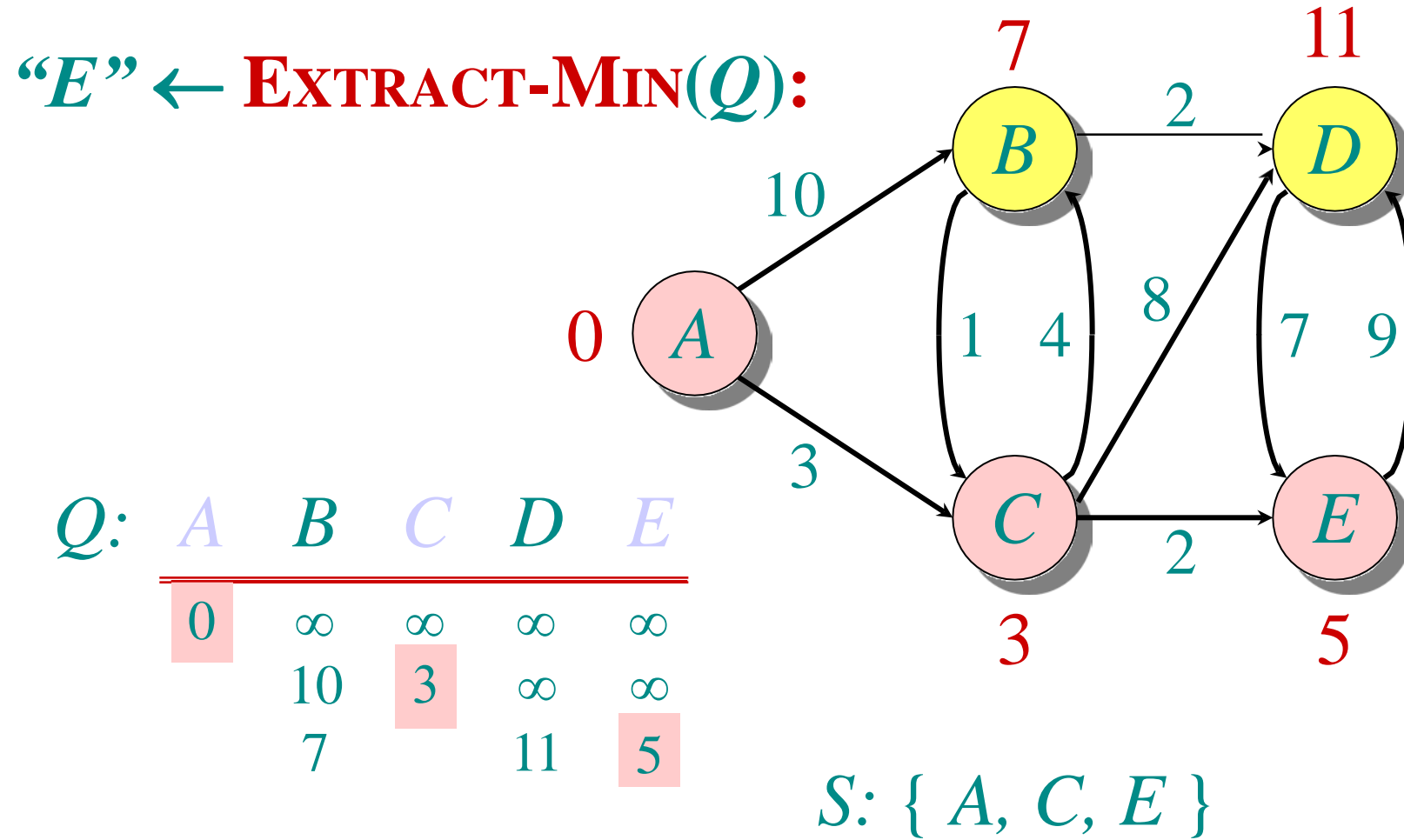


# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

Relax all edges leaving **C**:

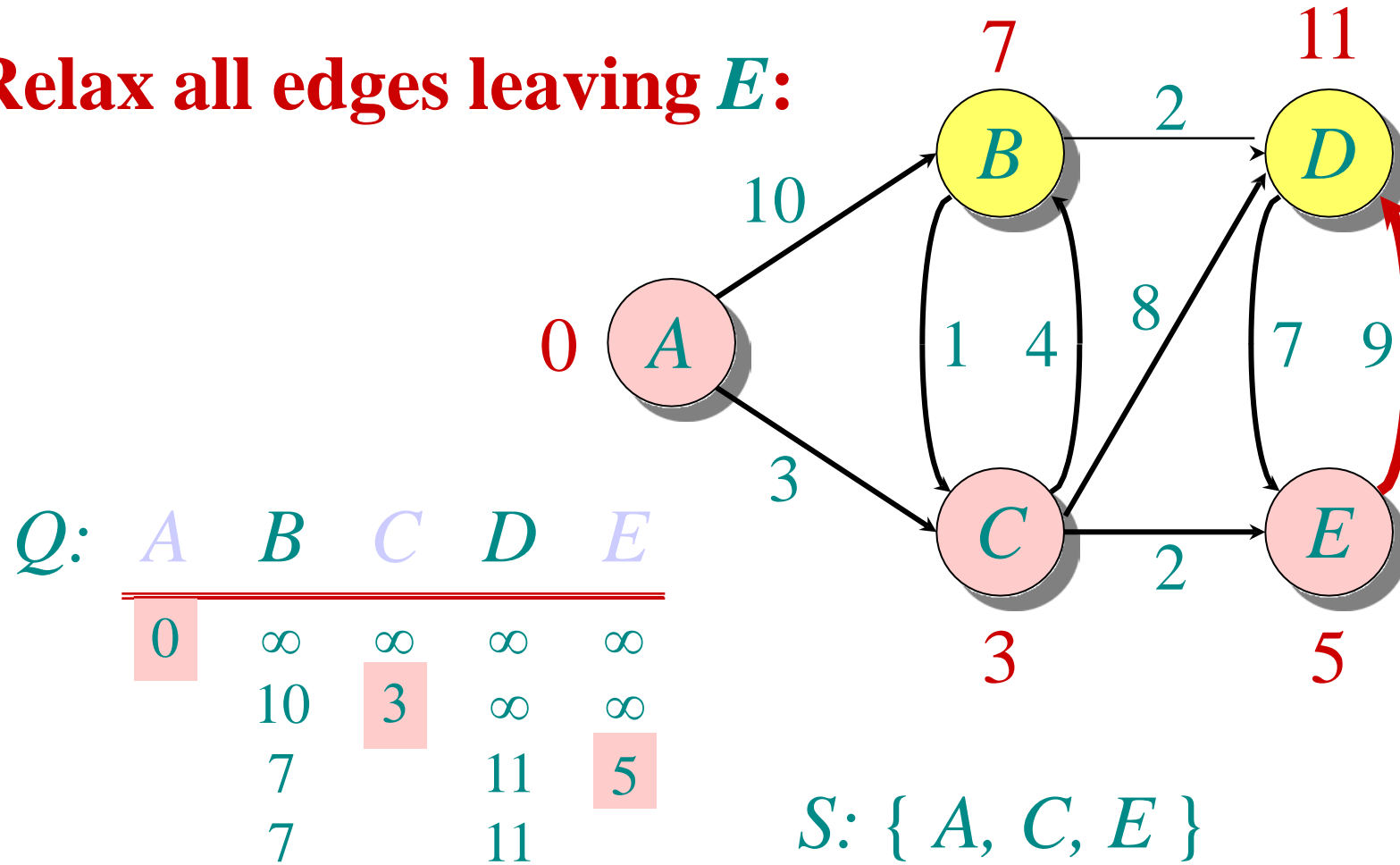


# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

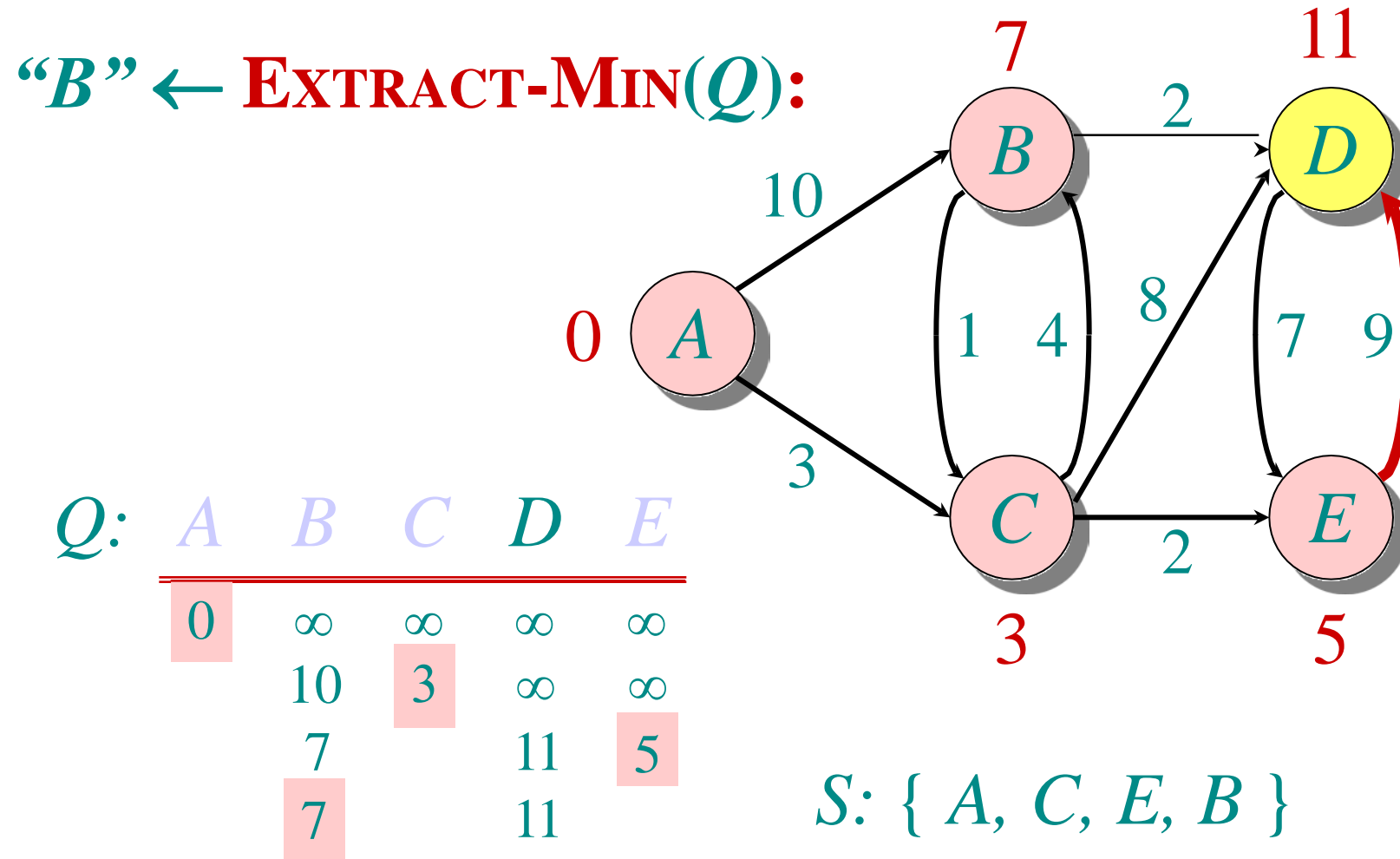


# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

Relax all edges leaving *E*:

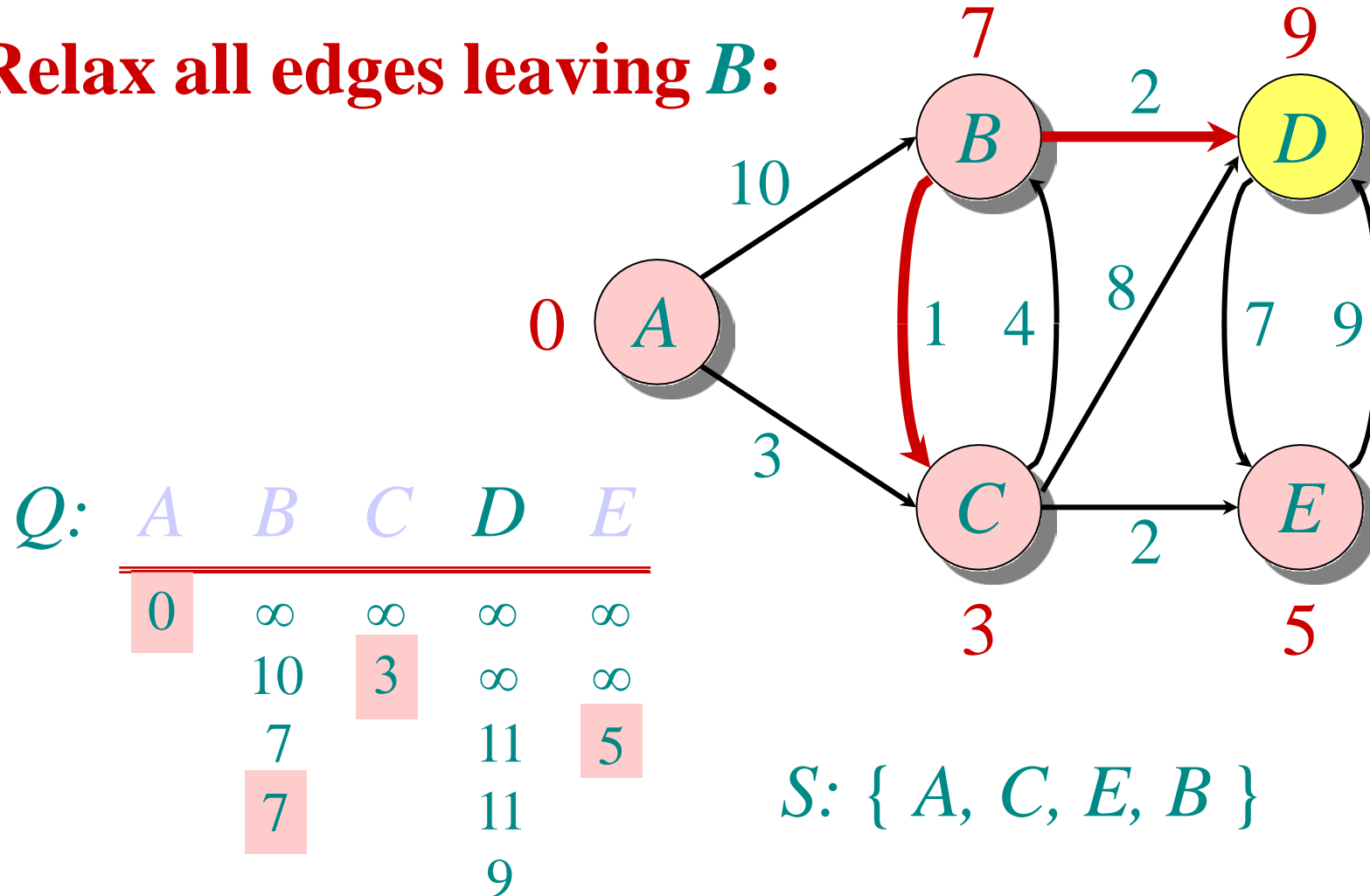


# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm



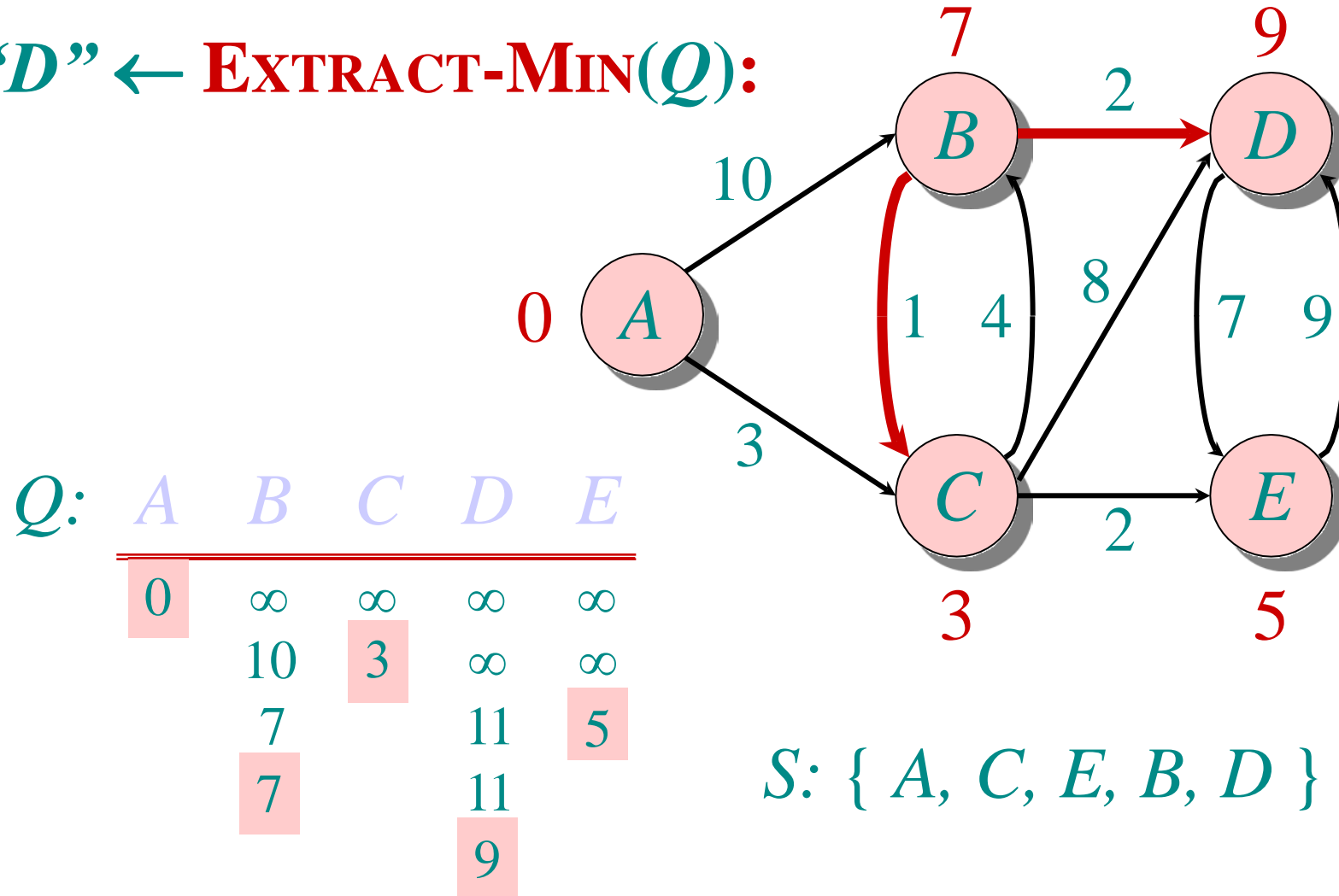
# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

Relax all edges leaving *B*:



# Example of Dijkstra's algorithm

**“D”**  $\leftarrow$  **EXTRACT-MIN(Q):**



$$\text{Time} = \Theta(|V|) \cdot T_{\text{EXTRACT-MIN}} + \Theta(|E|) \cdot T_{\text{DECREASE-KEY}}$$

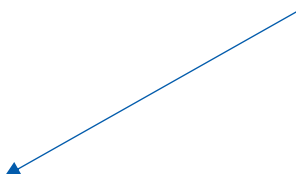
$Q$	$T_{\text{EXTRACT-MIN}}$	$T_{\text{DECREASE-KEY}}$	Total
array	$O( V )$	$O(1)$	$O( V ^2)$
binary heap	$O(\lg V )$	$O(\lg V )$	$O( E  \lg V )$
Fibonacci heap	$O(\lg V )$ amortized	$O(1)$ amortized	$O( E  +  V  \lg V )$ worst case

The heap-optimized Dijkstra algorithm is far better than the naive Dijkstra algorithm in most cases

However, for dense graph ( $m \approx n^2$ ), naïve Dijkstra algorithm works better.

- (-) Slower than Dijkstra's algorithm
- (+) Can handle negative edge weights.
  - Can be useful if you want to say that some edges are actively good to take, rather than costly.
  - Can be useful as a building block in other algorithms.

Dijkstra can't handle negative edges because it's based on greedy, and the "current best" may not be the "final best" with negative edges.



Basic idea:

Instead of picking the  $u$  with the smallest  $d[u]$  to update, just update all of the  $u$ 's simultaneously.



## Bellman-Ford( $G, s$ ):

- $d[v] = \infty$  for all  $v$  in  $V$
  - $d[s] = 0$
  - **For**  $i=0, \dots, |V|-1$ :
    - **For**  $u$  in  $V$ :
      - **For**  $v$  in  $u.\text{neighbors}$ :
        - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u, v))$
- Instead of picking  $u$  cleverly,  
just update for all of the  $u$ 's.

Compare to Dijkstra:

- **While** there are **not-sure** nodes:
  - Pick the **not-sure** node  $u$  with the smallest estimate  $d[u]$ .
  - **For**  $v$  in  $u.\text{neighbors}$ :
    - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u, v))$
  - Mark  $u$  as **sure**.

- We are actually going to change this to be less smart.
- Keep  $n$  arrays:  $d^{(0)}, d^{(1)}, \dots, d^{(n-1)}$

**Bellman-Ford\*(G,s):**

- $d^{(i)}[v] = \infty$  for all  $v$  in  $V$ , for all  $i=0, \dots, |V|-1$
- $d^{(0)}[s] = 0$
- **For**  $i=0, \dots, |V|-2$ :
  - **For**  $u$  in  $V$ :
    - **For**  $v$  in  $u.\text{neighbors}$ :
      - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
- Then  $\text{dist}(s,v) = d^{(n-1)}[v]$

Slightly different than the original Bellman-Ford algorithm, but the analysis is basically the same.

- Running time:  $O(|V||E|)$  running time
  - For each of  $|V|$  steps we update  $m$  edges
  - Slower than Dijkstra
- However, it's also more flexible in a few ways.
  - Can handle negative edges
  - If we constantly do these iterations, any changes in the network will eventually propagate through.

# How Bellman-Ford deals with negative cycles

- If there are no negative cycles:
  - Everything works as it should.
  - The algorithm stabilizes after  $|V|-1$  rounds.
  - Note: Negative *edges* are okay!!
- If there are negative cycles:
  - Not everything works as it should...
    - it couldn't possibly work, since shortest paths aren't well-defined if there are negative cycles.
  - The  $d[v]$  values will keep changing.
- Solution:
  - Go one round more and see if things change.
    - If so, return NEGATIVE CYCLE ☹️

## Single-source shortest paths

- Nonnegative edge weights
  - ★ Dijkstra's algorithm:  $O(|E| + |V| \lg |V|)$
- General
  - ★ Bellman-Ford algorithm:  $O(|V||E|)$

## All-pairs shortest paths

- Nonnegative edge weights
  - ★ Dijkstra's algorithm  $|V|$  times:  $O(|V||E| + |V|^2 \lg |V|)$
- General
  - ★ Floyd-Warshall algorithms:  $\Theta(|V|^3)$ .

# Dynamic Programming

- Dynamic Programming is an algorithm design technique for *optimization problems*: often minimizing or maximizing.
- Like divide and conquer, DP solves problems by **combining solutions to sub-problems**.
- Unlike divide and conquer, sub-problems are **not independent**.
  - Sub-problems may share sub-sub-problems.

# Two Ways to Think and Implement DP

- Top down:
    - Think of it like a recursive algorithm.
    - To solve the big problem:
      - Recurse to solve smaller problems
        - Those recurse to solve smaller problems
        - etc..
  - The difference from divide and conquer:
    - Keep track of what small problems you've already solved to prevent re-solving the same problem twice.
    - Aka, "memoization"
- Bottom up:
    - For Fibonacci:
      - Solve the small problems first
        - fill in  $F[0], F[1]$
      - Then bigger problems
    - ...
    - Then bigger problems
      - fill in  $F[n-1]$
    - Then finally solve the real problem.
      - fill in  $F[n]$




# The Process of Applying Dynamic Programming

- **Step 1:** Identify **optimal** substructure.
- **Step 2:** Find a **recursive formulation** for the length of the longest common subsequence.
- **Step 3:** Use **dynamic programming** to find the length of the longest common subsequence. **Let us review the LCS problem as an example.**
- **Step 4:** If needed, keep track of some additional info so that the algorithm from Step 3 can **find the actual LCS**.
- **Step 5:** If needed, **code this up like a reasonable person**.

# Longest Common Subsequence

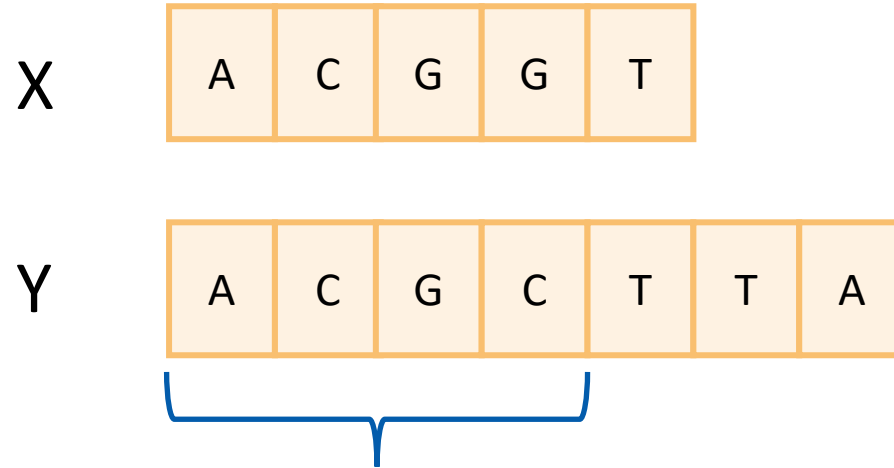
- Subsequence:
  - BDFH is a **subsequence** of ABCDEFGH
- If X and Y are sequences, a **common subsequence** is a sequence which is a subsequence of both.
  - BDFH is a **common subsequence** of ABCDEFGH and of ABDFGHI
- A **longest common subsequence**...
  - ...is a common subsequence that is longest.
  - The **longest common subsequence** of ABCDEFGH and ABDFGHI is ABDFGH.

# Recipe for applying Dynamic Programming

- **Step 1:** Identify optimal substructure. 
- **Step 2:** Find a recursive formulation for the length of the longest common subsequence.
- **Step 3:** Use dynamic programming to find the length of the longest common subsequence.
- **Step 4:** If needed, keep track of some additional info so that the algorithm from Step 3 can find the actual LCS.
- **Step 5:** If needed, code this up like a reasonable person.

# Step 1: Optimal substructure

Prefixes:



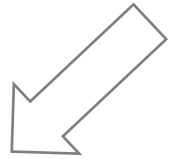
**Notation:** denote this prefix **ACGC** by  $Y_4$

- Our sub-problems will be finding LCS's of prefixes to X and Y.
- Let  $C[i,j] = \text{length\_of\_LCS}(X_i, Y_j)$

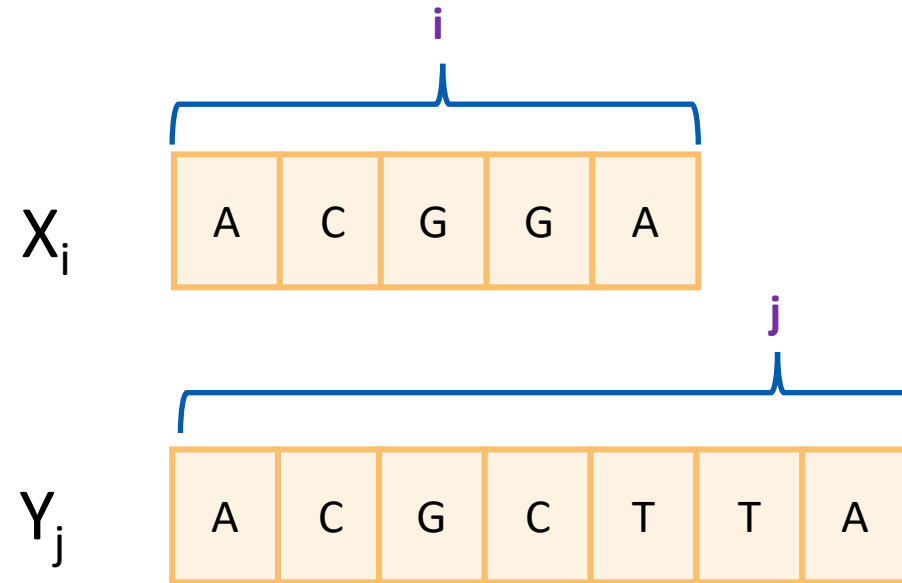
Examples:  $C[2,3] = 2$   
 $C[4,4] = 3$

# Recipe for applying Dynamic Programming

- **Step 1:** Identify optimal substructure.
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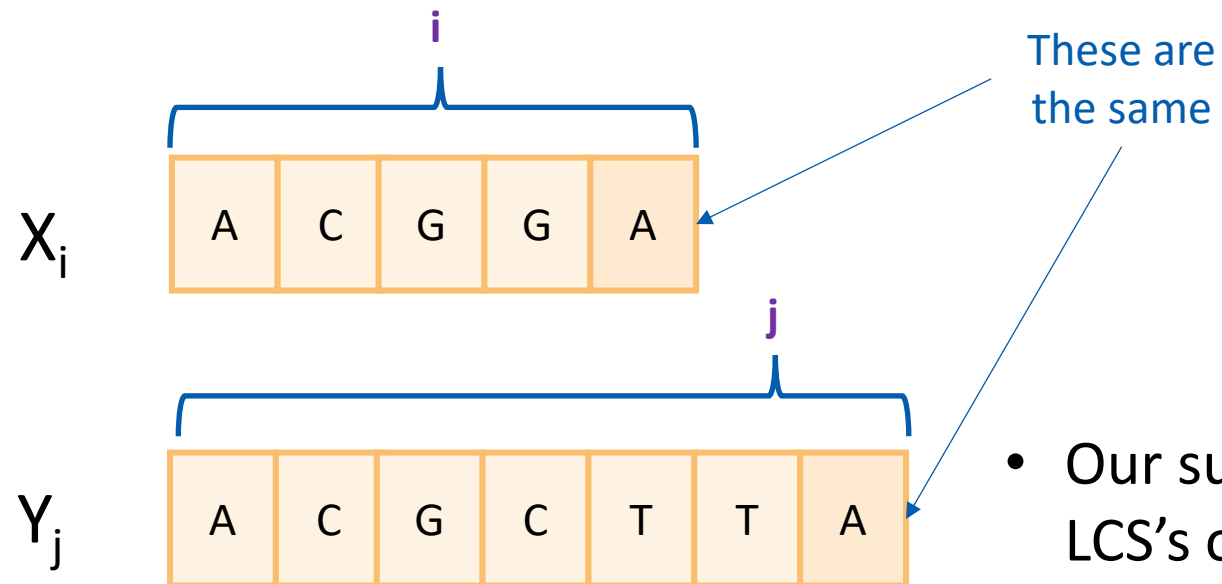


- Write  $C[i,j]$  in terms of the solutions to smaller sub-problems



$$C[i,j] = \text{length\_of\_LCS}(X_i, Y_j)$$

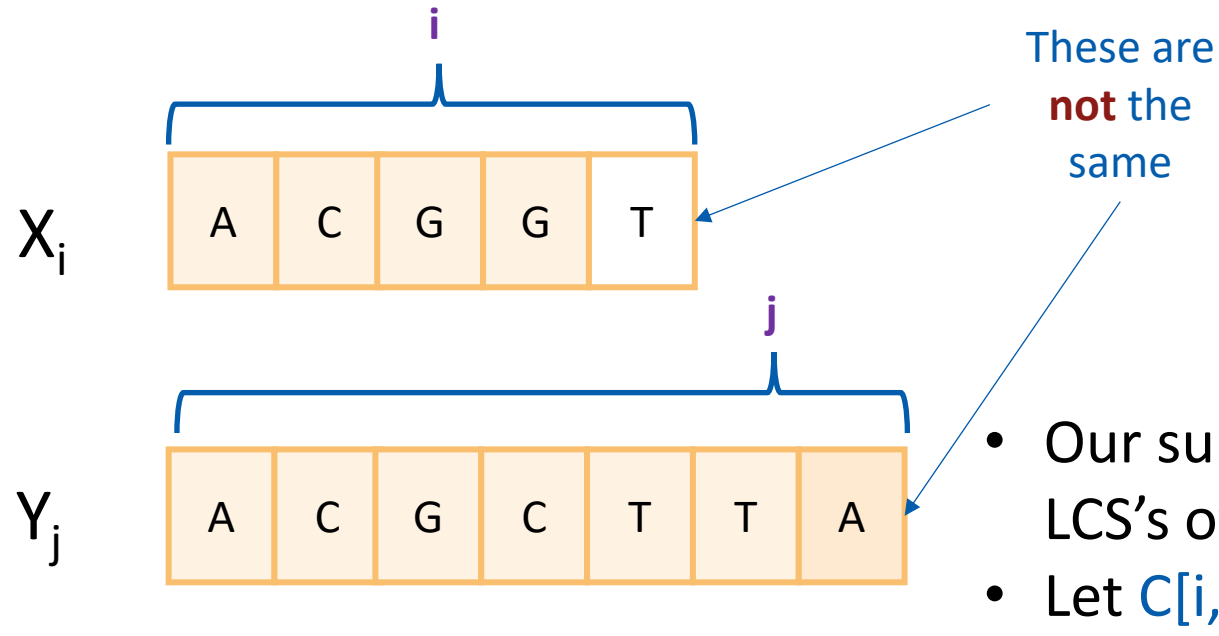
Case 1:  $X[i] = Y[j]$



- Our sub-problems will be finding LCS's of prefixes to X and Y.
- Let  $C[i,j] = \text{length\_of\_LCS}(X_i, Y_j)$

- Then  $C[i,j] = 1 + C[i-1,j-1]$ .
  - because  $\text{LCS}(X_i, Y_j) = \text{LCS}(X_{i-1}, Y_{j-1})$  followed by A

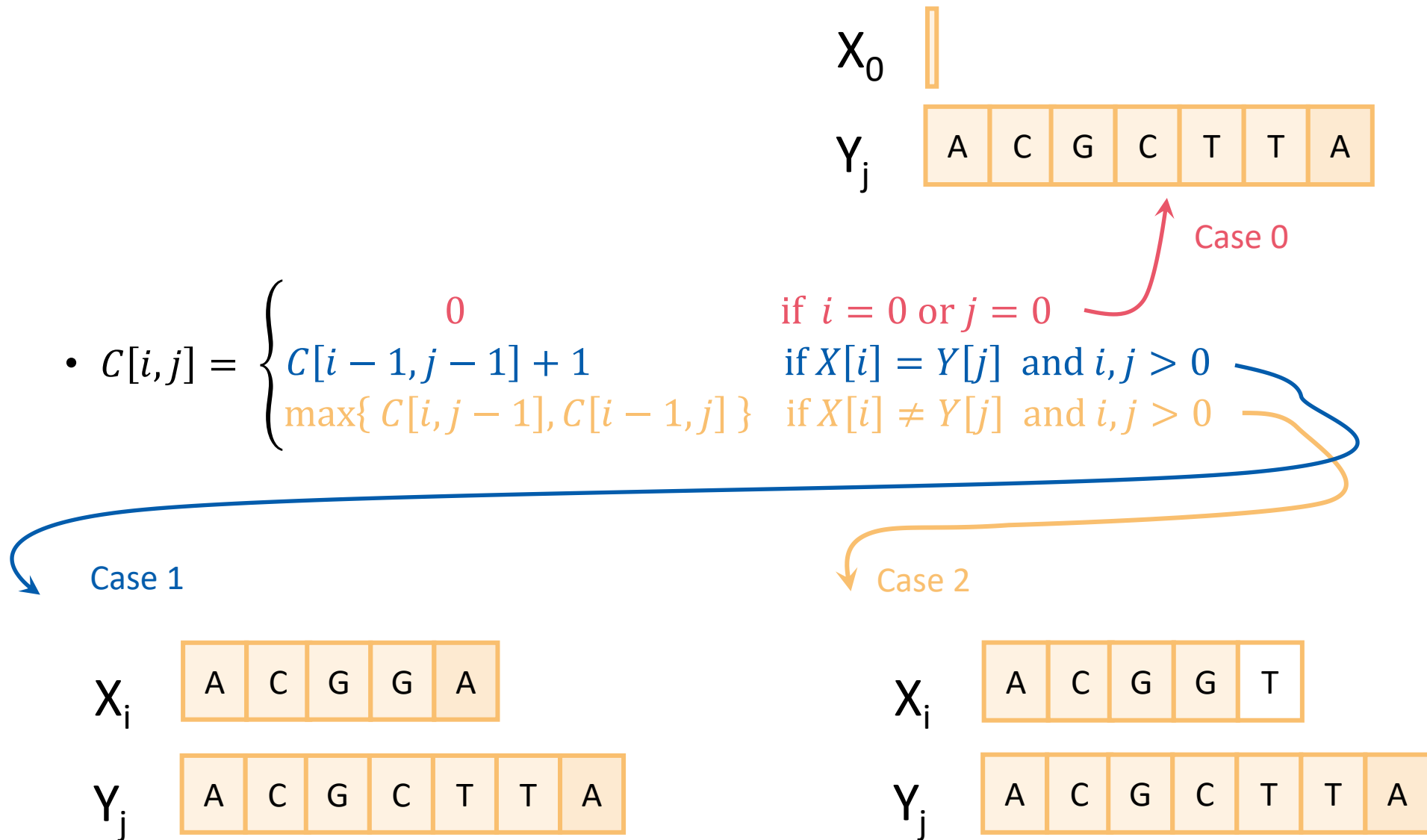
Case 2:  $X[i] \neq Y[j]$




- Our sub-problems will be finding LCS's of prefixes to  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- Let  $C[i,j] = \text{length\_of\_LCS}(X_i, Y_j)$
- Then  $C[i,j] = \max\{ C[i-1,j], C[i,j-1] \}$ .
  - either  $\text{LCS}(X_i, Y_j) = \text{LCS}(X_{i-1}, Y_j)$  and  $\text{T}$  is not involved,
  - or  $\text{LCS}(X_i, Y_j) = \text{LCS}(X_i, Y_{j-1})$  and  $\text{A}$  is not involved,
  - (maybe both are not involved, that's covered by the "or").



# Recursive formulation of the optimal solution



# Recipe for applying Dynamic Programming

- **Step 1:** Identify optimal substructure.
  - **Step 2:** Find a recursive formulation for the length of the longest common subsequence.
  - **Step 3:** Use dynamic programming to find the length of the longest common subsequence.
  - **Step 4:** If needed, keep track of some additional info so that the algorithm from Step 3 can find the actual LCS.
  - **Step 5:** If needed, code this up like a reasonable person.
- 

- **LCS(X, Y):**

- $C[i,0] = C[0,j] = 0$  for all  $i = 0, \dots, m, j = 0, \dots, n$ .

- **For**  $i = 1, \dots, m$  and  $j = 1, \dots, n$ :

- **If**  $X[i] = Y[j]$ :

- $C[i,j] = C[i-1,j-1] + 1$

- **Else:**

- $C[i,j] = \max\{ C[i,j-1], C[i-1,j] \}$

- Return  $C[m,n]$

*Running time:  
 $O(nm)$*

$$C[i,j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ or } j = 0 \\ C[i-1,j-1] + 1 & \text{if } X[i] = Y[j] \text{ and } i, j > 0 \\ \max\{ C[i,j-1], C[i-1,j] \} & \text{if } X[i] \neq Y[j] \text{ and } i, j > 0 \end{cases}$$

# The End