#### Lecture # 17

**Shortest Paths** 

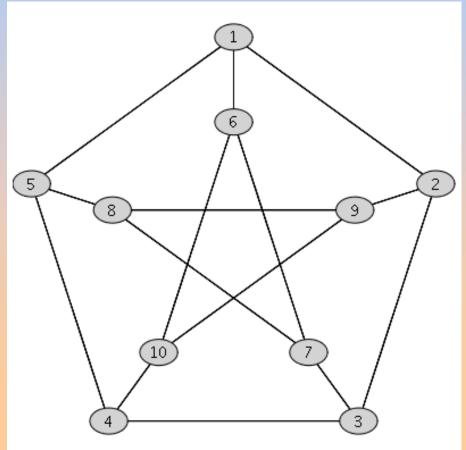
In the shortest -paths problem We are given a weighted, directed graph G=(V, E) The weight of path  $p = \langle v_0, v_1, ..., v_k \rangle$  is the sum of the constituent edges:

$$w(p) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} w(v_{i-1}, v_i)$$

■ We define the *shortest-path weight* from u to v by

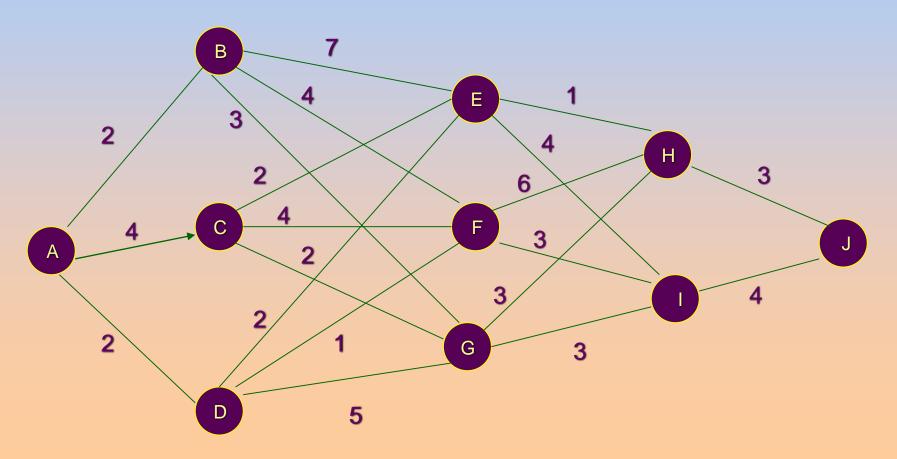
$$\delta(\mathfrak{u},\nu) = \begin{cases} \min\{w(\mathfrak{p}) : \mathfrak{u} \overset{\mathfrak{p}}{\leadsto} \nu\} & \text{if there is a path from } \mathfrak{u} \text{ to } \nu \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

■ The **breadth-first-search** algorithm we discussed earlier is a shortest-path algorithm that works on un-weighted graphs. An un-weighted graph can be considered as a graph in which every edge has weight one unit.

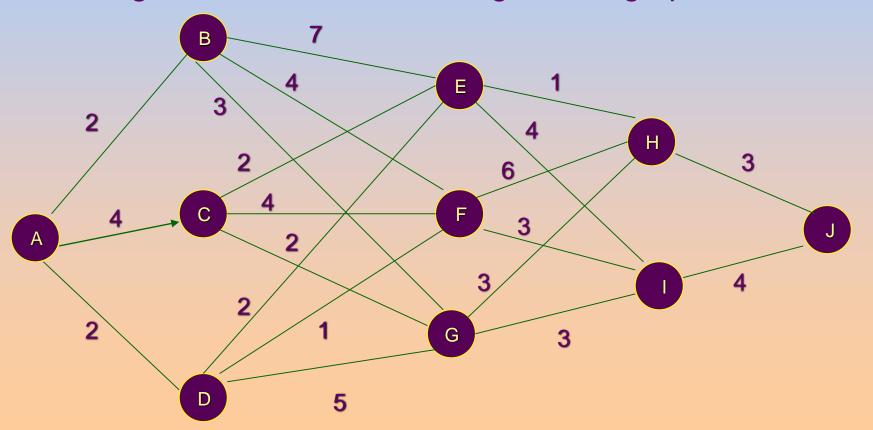


There are a few variants of the shortest path problem. We will cover their definitions and then discuss algorithms for some.

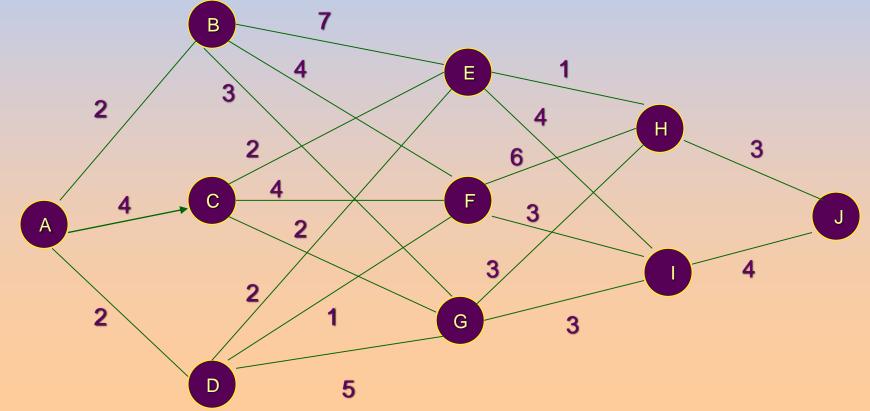
Single-source shortest-path problem: Find shortest paths from a given (single) source vertex
s € V to every other vertex v € V in the graph G.



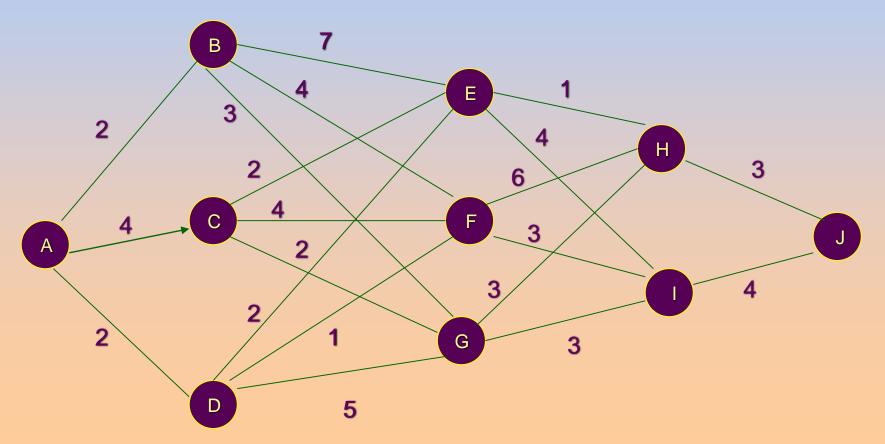
Single-destination shortest-paths problem: Find a shortest path to a given destination vertex t from each vertex v. We can reduce the problem to a single-source problem by reversing the direction of each edge in the graph.



■ Single-pair shortest-path problem: Find a shortest path from u to v for given vertices u and v. If we solve the single-source problem with source vertex u, we solve this problem also. No algorithms for this problem are known to run asymptotically faster than the best single-source algorithms in the worst case.

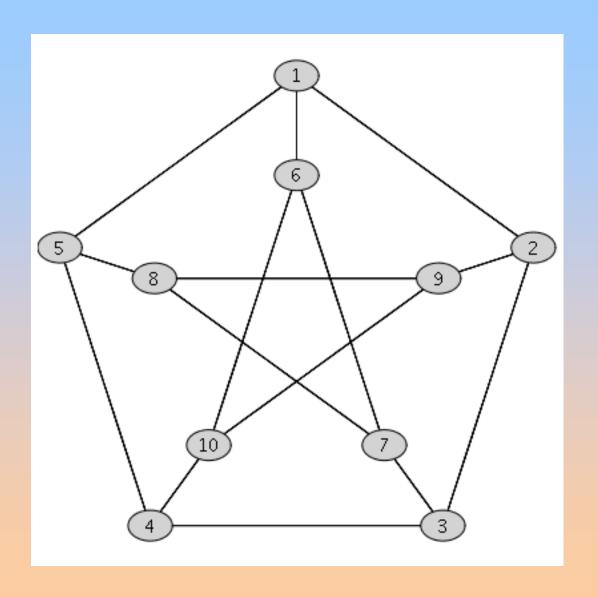


All-pairs shortest-paths problem: Find a shortest path from u to v for *every pair* of vertices u and v. Although this problem can be solved by running a single-source algorithm once from each vertex, it can usually be solved faster.

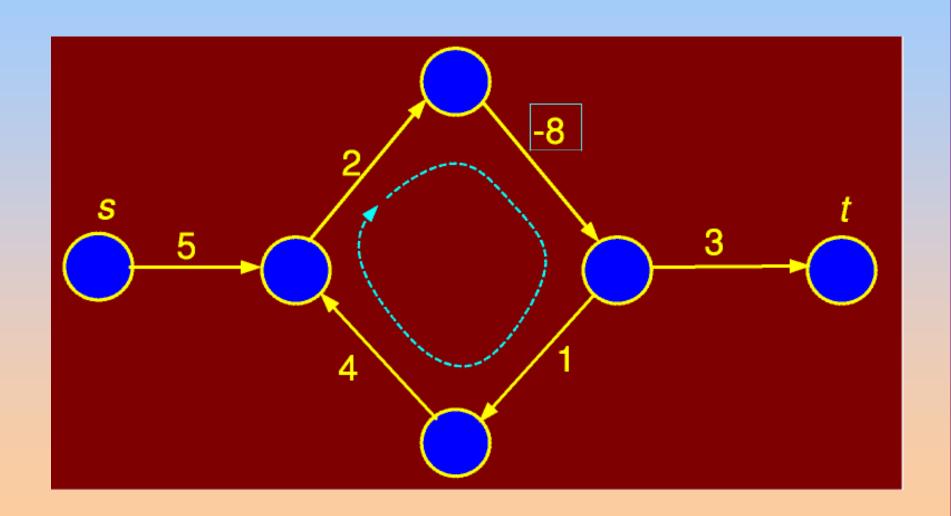


- Dijkstra's algorithm is a simple *greedy* algorithm for computing the **single-source shortest-paths** to all other vertices.
- Dijkstra's algorithm works on a weighted directed graph G =(V, E) in which all edge weights are non-negative, i.e., w(u, v) ≥ 0 for each edge (u, v) € E.

- Negative edges weights may be counter to intuition but this can occur in real life problems.
- However, we will *not allow negative cycles* because then there is no shortest path. If there is a negative cycle between, say, s and t, then we can always find a shorter path by going around the cycle one more time.



## Figure: Negative weight cycle



- The basic structure of Dijkstra's algorithm is to maintain an estimate of the shortest path from the source vertex to each vertex in the graph. Call this estimate d[v].
- Intuitively, d[v] will be the length of the shortest path that the algorithm knows of from s to v.
- This value will always be greater than or equal to the *true* shortest path distance from **s** to **v**. I.e.,  $d[v] \ge \delta(u, v)$ .
- Initially, we do not know the paths, so  $d[v] = \infty$  Moreover, d[s] = 0 for the source vertex.
- As the algorithm goes on and sees more and more vertices, it attempts to update d[v] for each vertex in the graph. The process of updating estimates is called *relaxation*.

- Consider an edge from a vertex u to v whose weight is w(u, v). Suppose that we have already computed current estimates on d[u] and d[v].
- We know that there is a path from s to u of weight d[u].
- By taking this path and following it with the edge (u, v) we get a path to v of length d[u] + w(u, v).
- If this path is better than the existing path of length d[v] to v, we should update the value of d[v].
- We should also remember that the shortest way back to the source is through u by updating the predecessor pointer.
- The relaxation process is illustrated in the following figure.

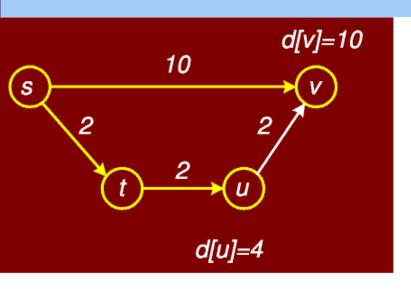


Figure 8.62: Vertex u relaxed

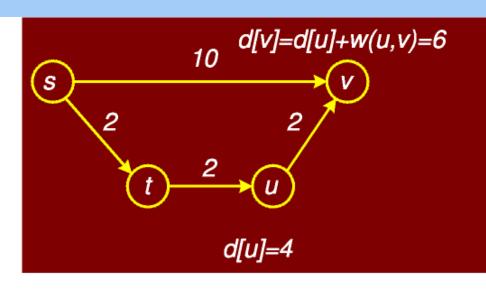


Figure 8.63: Vertex  $\nu$  relaxed

```
RELAX( (u, v) )

1 if (d[u] +w(u,v) < d[v])

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

3 pred[v] = u
```

- Dijkstra's algorithm is based on the notion of performing repeated relaxations.
- The algorithm operates by maintaining a subset of vertices,  $S \subseteq V$ , for which we claim we *know* the true distance,  $d[v] = \delta(s,v)$ . Initially  $S = \emptyset$ , the empty set. We set d[u] = 0 and all others to ∞. One by one we select vertices from V-S to add to S.

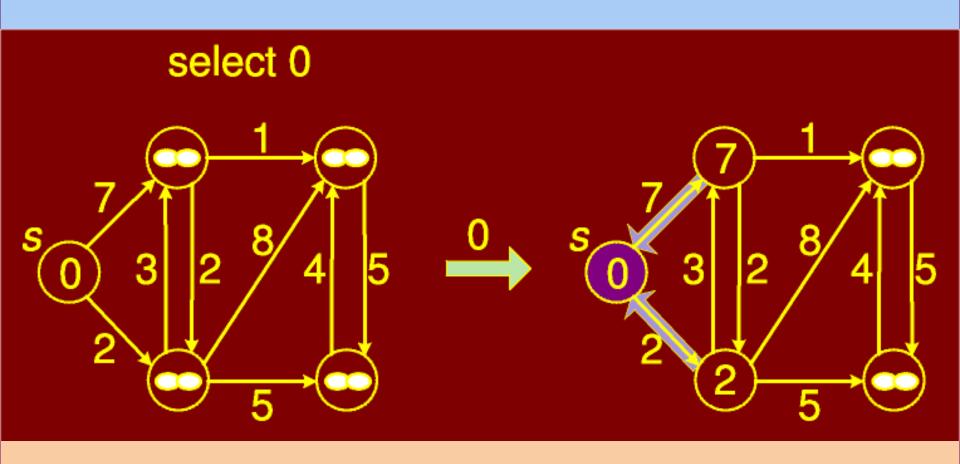
- How do we select which vertex among the vertices of V-S to add next to S? Here is *greediness* comes in.
- For each vertex u ∈ (V S), we have computed a distance estimate d[u].
- The greedy thing to do is to take the vertex for which d[u] is minimum, i.e., take the unprocessed vertex that is closest by our estimate to s.
- Later, we justify why this is the proper choice. In order to perform this selection efficiently, we store the vertices of V-S in a priority queue.

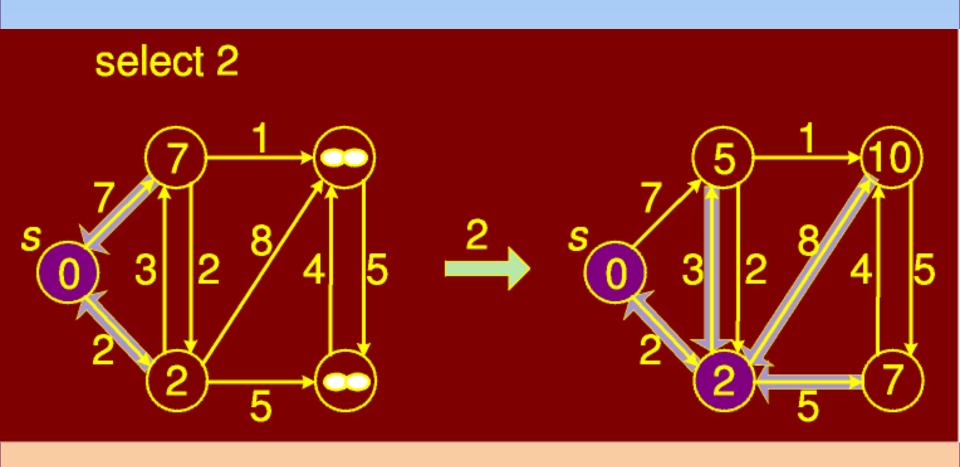
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DIJKSTRA((G, w, s))
1 for ( each u \in V)
2 do d[u] ← ∞
      pq.insert (u, d[u])
4 d[s] \leftarrow 0; pred [s] \leftarrow nil; pq.decrease_key (s, d[s])
5 while (pq.not_empty())
6 do u ← pq.extract_min()
      for ( each v ∈ adj [u] )
8
      do if (d[u] + w(u,v) < d[v])
9
          then d[v] = d[u] + w(u,v)
10
                pq.decrease_key (v, d[v])
11
                pred[v] = u
```

### **Analyzing Dijkstra's Algorithm**

- The call to BuildHeap () takes O(n) time
- Each of the *n* 1 calls to **Heapify()** takes O(lg *n*) time
- Thus the total time taken:
  - $= O(n) + (n 1) O(\lg n)$
  - $= O(n) + O(n \lg n)$
  - $= O(n \lg n)$

- Note the similarity with Prim's algorithm, although a different key is used here. Therefore the running time is the same, i.e.. **Θ(E log V)**.
- Next Figures demonstrate the algorithm applied to a directed graph with no negative weight edges.





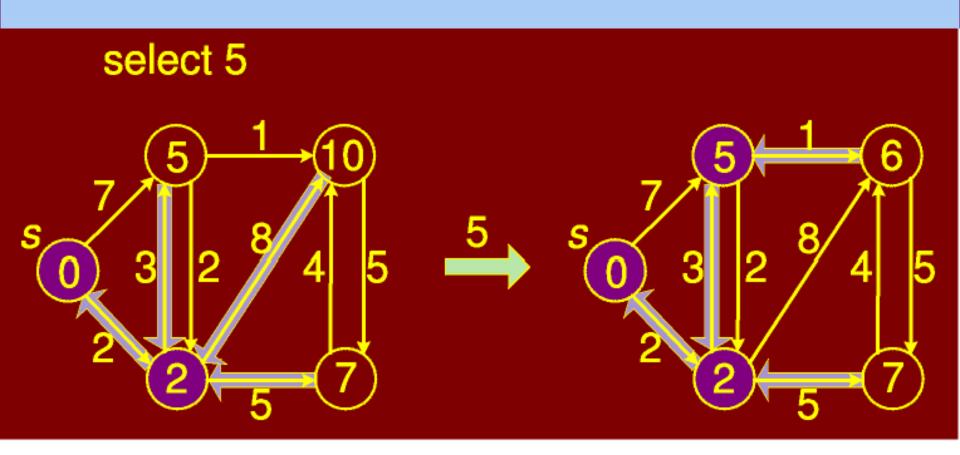


Figure 8.66: Dijkstra's algorithm: select 5

