

Algorithms

Chapter 6: Greedy Method

GATE CS Lectures
by Monalisa

Section 5: Algorithms

Searching, sorting, hashing. Asymptotic worst case time and space complexity. Algorithm design techniques : greedy, dynamic programming and divide-and-conquer . Graph traversals, minimum spanning trees, shortest paths

Chapter 1: Algorithm Analysis:- Algorithm intro , Order of growth ,Asymptotic notation, Time complexity, space complexity, Analysis of Recursive & non recursive program, Master theorem]

Chapter 2: Brute Force:- Sequential search, Selection Sort and Bubble Sort , Radix sort, Depth first Search and Breadth First Search.

Chapter 3: Decrease and Conquer :- Insertion Sort, Topological sort, Binary Search .

Chapter 4: Divide and conquer:- Min max problem , matrix multiplication ,Merge sort ,Quick Sort , Binary Tree Traversals and Related Properties .

Chapter 5: Transform and conquer:- Heaps and Heap sort, Balanced Search Trees.

Chapter 6: Greedy Method:- knapsack problem , Job Assignment problem, Optimal merge, Hoffman Coding, minimum spanning trees, Dijkstra's Algorithm.

Chapter 7: Dynamic Programming:- The Bellman-Ford algorithm ,Warshall's and Floyd's Algorithm ,Rod cutting, Matrix-chain multiplication ,Longest common subsequence ,Optimal binary search trees

Chapter 8: Hashing.

Reference : Introduction to Algorithms by Thomas H. Cormen

Introduction to the Design and Analysis of Algorithms, by Anany Levitin

My Note

- **Chapter 6: Greedy Method:-**
- knapsack problem ,
- Job Sequencing with Deadlines,
- Optimal merge,
- Hoffman Coding,
- Minimum spanning trees,
- Dijkstra's Algorithm.

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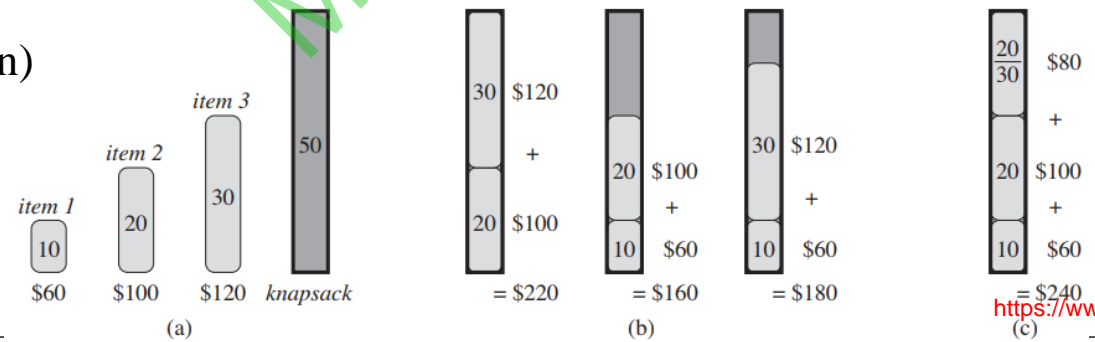
Greedy Algorithms

- If a problem requires either minimum or maximum result then it's a optimization problem .
- Greedy method , Dynamic Programming ,Branch and Bound are techniques used for optimization problem .
- Algorithms for optimization problems typically go through a sequence of steps, with a set of choices at each step.
- A **greedy algorithm** always makes the choice that looks best at the moment. That is, it makes a locally optimal choice in the hope that this choice will lead to a globally optimal solution.
- The choice made must be:
- **feasible**, i.e., it has to satisfy the problem's constraints.
- **locally optimal**, i.e., it has to be the best local choice among all feasible choices available on that step.
- **irrevocable**, i.e., once made, it cannot be changed on subsequent steps of the algorithm.
- *Algorithm Greedy (A,n)*
- *for i ← 1 to n*
- *{x ← Select (i) ;*
- *if feasible (x) then*
- *Solution=Solution +x;*
- *}*
- *Return (Solution);*
- Time complexity of any problem $\geq O(n)$

Knapsack Problem



- Given n items of known weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n and values v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n and a knapsack of capacity W , find the most valuable subset of the items that fit into the knapsack. $\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i \leq W$.
- x =how much included in W .
- Fractional knapsack problem** $0 \leq x \leq 1$
- 0-1 knapsack problem** $x=0$ or 1
- An example showing that the greedy strategy does not work for the 0-1 knapsack problem.
- (a) The thief must select a subset of the three items shown whose weight must not exceed 50 pounds.
- (b) The optimal subset includes items 2 and 3. Any solution with item 1 is suboptimal, even though item 1 has the greatest value per pound.
- (c) For the fractional knapsack problem, taking the items in order of greatest value per pound yields an optimal solution.
- Time Complexity $O(n)$



Ex 1 : Maximum capacity W=20.

Item	Weight	Value
1	18	25
2	15	24
3	10	15

Greedy_{value} : $x_1=1, x_2=2/15, x_3=0$

$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i = 18*1 + 15*2/15 + 10*0 = 20$

$\sum_{i=1}^n v_i x_i = 25*1 + 24*2/15 + 15*0 = 28.2$

Greedy_{weight} : $x_1=0, x_2=10/15, x_3=1$

$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i = 18*0 + 15*10/15 + 10*1 = 20$

$\sum_{i=1}^n v_i x_i = 25*0 + 24*10/15 + 15*1 = 31$

Greedy_{value/weight} : $v_1/w_1 = 25/18 = 1.4, v_2/w_2 = 24/15 = 1.6, v_3/w_3 = 15/10 = 1.5$

$x_1=0, x_2=1, x_3=1/2$

$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i = 18*0 + 15*1 + 10*1/2 = 20$

$\sum_{i=1}^n v_i x_i = 25*0 + 24*1 + 15*1/2 = 31.5$

item	weight	value
1	2	\$12
2	1	\$10
3	3	\$20
4	2	\$15

capacity $W = 5$.

Ex 2 :

Greedy_{value/weight} :

$v_1/w_1 = 12/2 = 6, v_2/w_2 = 10/1 = 10, v_3/w_3 = 20/3 = 6.7, v_4/w_4 = 15/2 = 7.5$

$x_1=0, x_2=1, x_3=2/3, x_4=1$

$\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i = 2*0 + 1*1 + 3*2/3 + 2*1 = 5$

$\sum_{i=1}^n v_i x_i = 12*0 + 10*1 + 20*2/3 + 15*1$

$0 + 10 + 13.33 + 15 = 38.33$

Job Sequencing with Deadlines

- The sequencing of jobs on a single processor with deadline constraints is called as Job Sequencing with Deadlines.
- You are given a set of jobs/process/task.
- Each job has a defined deadline(d) and some profit(p) associated with it.
- The profit of a job is given only when that job is completed within its deadline.
- Uniprocessor. Processor takes one unit of time to complete a job.
- Non preemptive , All arrival time 0.
- Greedy Algorithm is adopted to determine how the next job is selected for an optimal solution.
- Step-01: Sort all the given jobs in decreasing order of their profit.
- Step-02: Check the value of maximum deadline.
- Draw a Gantt chart where maximum time on Gantt chart is the value of maximum deadline.
- Step-03: Pick up the jobs one by one in decreasing order of their profit.
- Put the job on Gantt chart as far as possible from 0 ensuring that the job gets completed before its deadline.
- If n =number of jobs , d =maximum deadline then time complexity $O(n*d)$
- If maximum deadline = n then time complexity $O(n^2)$
- Solution space= 2^n [subset possible with n elements]

Ex 1: $n=4$

j_4	j_1
0	1
	2

Total profits = $115+80=195$

Jobs	j_1	j_2	j_3	j_4
Deadlines	2	1	2	1
Profits	115	20	30	80

Ex 2: $n=8$

j_8	j_5	j_1	j_4	j_6
0	1	2	3	4
			5	

Total profits = $12+25+18+15+40=110$

Other sequences are $=(j_5, j_1, j_8, j_4, j_6), (j_5, j_8, j_1, j_6, j_4)..$

Jobs	j_1	j_2	j_3	j_4	j_5	j_6	j_7	j_8
Deadlines	3	3	4	5	2	5	4	3
Profits	18	5	10	15	25	40	9	12

Ex 3: $n=9$

Which jobs are left out? ,Max profit?

j_2	j_7	j_9	j_5	j_3	j_1	j_8
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
						7

Jobs	j_1	j_2	j_3	j_4	j_5	j_6	j_7	j_8	j_9
Deadlines	7	2	5	3	4	5	2	7	3
Profits	15	20	30	18	18	10	23	16	25

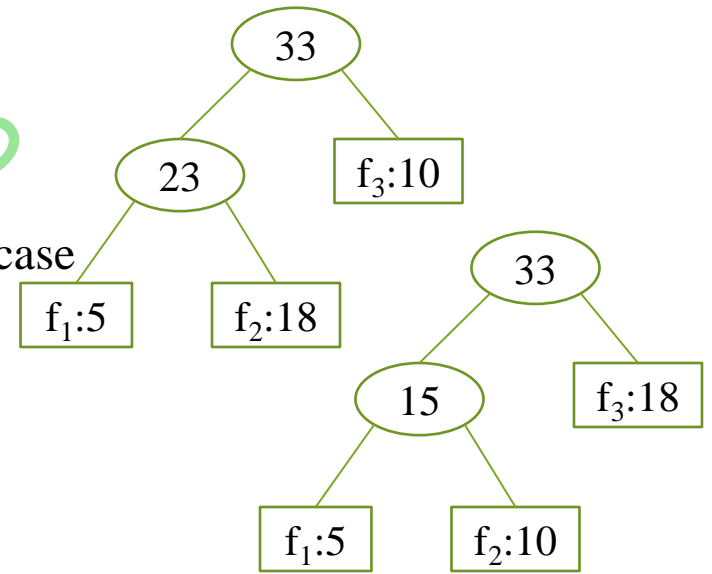
j_4, j_6 jobs are left out.

Max profit = $15+20+30+18+23+16+25= 147$

Optimal Merge Pattern

When two or more sorted files are to be merged altogether to form a single file by using two-way merging method, the minimum computations are done to reach this file are known as **Optimal Merge Pattern**.

- Ex 1: Let $A = \{4, 8, 10, 11, 15\}$, $B = \{3, 7, 12, 18, 21, 22\}$
- After 2-way merging $= \{3, 4, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 15, 18, 21, 22\}$
- Number of record movement $= n + m$ [n & m are file size]
- To merge two lists $m + n - 1$ comparisons requires in worst case
- $|A| = 5$, $|B| = 6$, Number of record movement $= 5 + 6 = 11$
- Ex 2: Let $f_1 = 5$, $f_2 = 18$, $f_3 = 10$ [number of records]
- Number of record movement $= (f_1 + f_2) + f_3 = 23 + 33 = 56$
- $f_1 + (f_2 + f_3) = 33 + 28 = 61$, $(f_1 + f_3) + f_2 = 15 + 33 = 48$
- Solution space for merging n files $= n!$



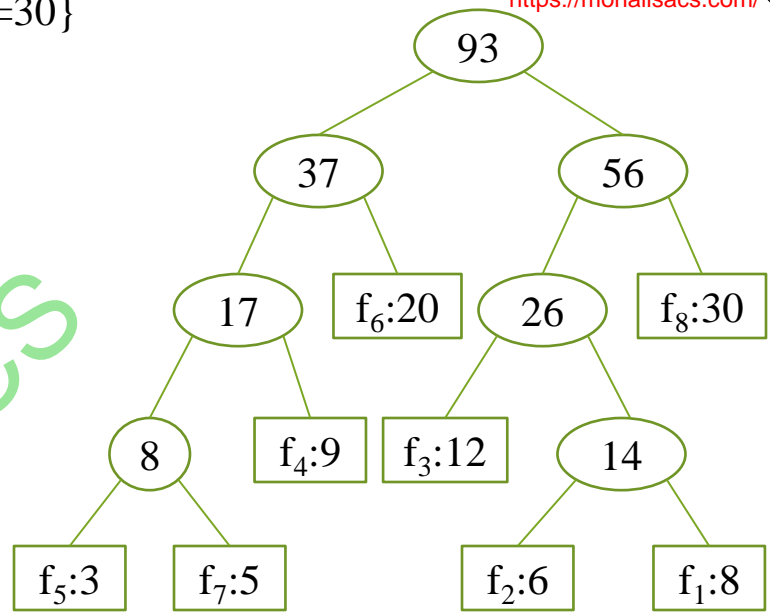
- Total number of pattern possible $= n!$
- Total number of record movement $= \sum_{i=1}^n f_i d_i$
- d = depth from root to the file
- f = number of records in file
- $5 * 2 + 10 * 2 + 18 * 1 = 10 + 20 + 18 = 48$

- Ex 3: $n=8, \{f_1=8, f_2=6, f_3=12, f_4=9, f_5=3, f_6=20, f_7=5, f_8=30\}$
- $f_5=3, f_7=5, f_2=6, f_1=8, f_4=9, f_3=12, f_6=20, f_8=30$
- Total number of record movement $=3*4+5*4+6*4+8*4+9*3+12*3+20*2+30*2=251$

```

Algorithm Tree(list, n)
{ For i=1 to n-1 do
  { Pt: new treenode;
    (Pt → lchild) = least(list);
    (Pt → rchild) = least(list);
    (Pt → weight) = ((Pt → lchild) → weight)
                    + ((Pt → rchild) → weight);
    Insert (list, Pt);
  } }

```



- The for loop is executed in $n-1$ times.
- If the list is kept in increasing order according to the weight value in the roots, then least (list) needs only $O(1)$ time and insert (list, t) can be performed in $O(n)$ time.
- Hence, the total time taken is $O(n^2)$.
- If the list is represented as a minheap, then least (list) and insert (list, t) can be done in $O(\log n)$ time.
- The computing time for the tree is $O(n \log n)$.

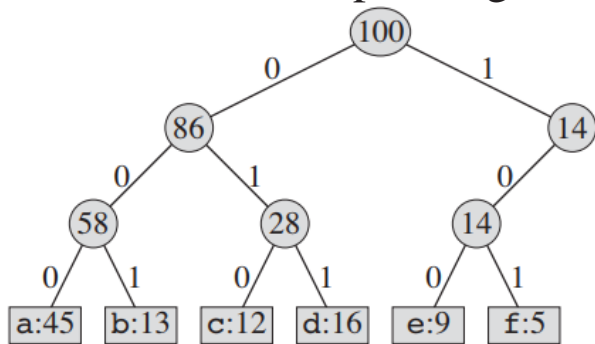
Huffman Trees and Codes

- Huffman codes compress data very effectively: savings of 20% to 90% depending on data .
- We consider the data to be a sequence of characters.
- Huffman's greedy algorithm uses a table giving how often each character occurs (i.e., its frequency) to build up an optimal way of representing each character as a binary string.
- Suppose we have a 100,000-character data file that we wish to store compactly.
- We observe that only 6 different characters appear.
- Here, we consider the problem of designing a *binary character code* (or *code*)
- In which each character is represented by a unique binary string, which we call a *codeword*.
- If we use a *fixed-length code*, we need 3 bits to represent 6 characters: This method requires 300,000 bits to code the entire file.
- A *variable-length code* can do considerably better than a fixed-length code, by giving frequent characters short codewords and infrequent characters long codewords.
- This code requires $(45*1 + 13*3 + 12*3 + 16*3 + 9*4 + 5*4)*1,000 = 224,000$ bits to represent the file, a savings of approximately 25%.

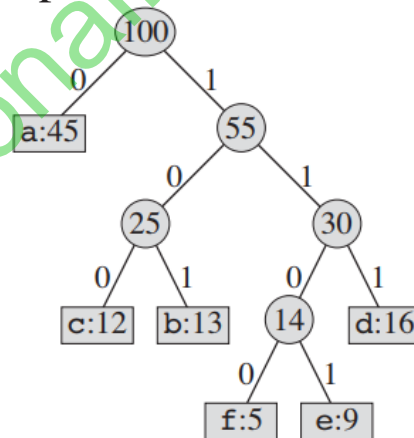
	a	b	c	d	e	f
Frequency (in thousands)	45	13	12	16	9	5
Fixed-length codeword	000	001	010	011	100	101
Variable-length codeword	0	101	100	111	1101	1100

Prefix codes

- We consider here only codes in which no codeword is also a prefix of some other codeword.
- Such codes are called *prefix-free* (or simply *prefix*) *codes*.
- A binary tree whose leaves are the given characters provides one such representation.
- We interpret the binary codeword for a character as the simple path from the root to that character, where 0 means “go to the left child” and 1 means “go to the right child.”
- Each leaf is labeled with a character and its frequency of occurrence.
- Each internal node is labeled with the sum of the frequencies of the leaves in its subtree.
- (a) The tree corresponding to the fixed-length code $a = 000, \dots, f = 101$.
- (b) The tree corresponding to the optimal prefix code $a = 0, b = 101, \dots, f = 1100$.



(a)



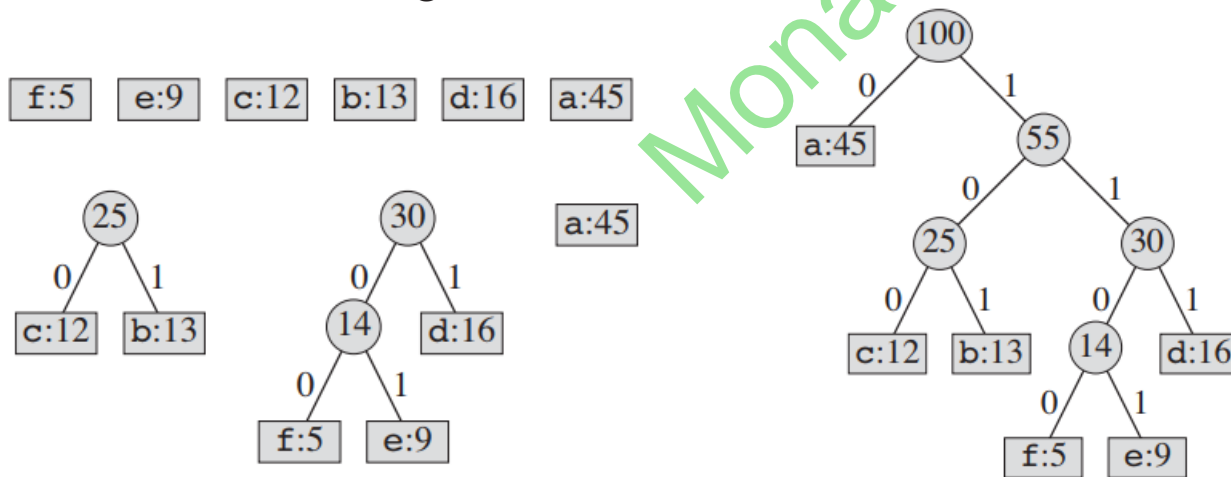
(b)

- If C is the set of characters, then the tree for an optimal prefix code has exactly $|C|$ leaves, one for each letter of the alphabet, and exactly $|C| - 1$ internal nodes .
- Let the attribute $c.freq$ denote the frequency of c in the file and let $d_T(c)$ denote the depth of c 's leaf in the tree also the length of the codeword for character c .
- The number of bits required to encode a file is $B(T) = \sum_{c \in C} c.freq * d_T(c)$ the *cost* of the tree T .
- **Constructing a Huffman Tree/code**
- Huffman invented a greedy algorithm for an optimal prefix code called a *Huffman code*.
- When we merge two objects, the result is a new object whose frequency is the sum of the frequencies of the two objects that were merged.
- The codeword for a letter is the sequence of edge labels on the path from the root to the letter.

HUFFMAN(C)

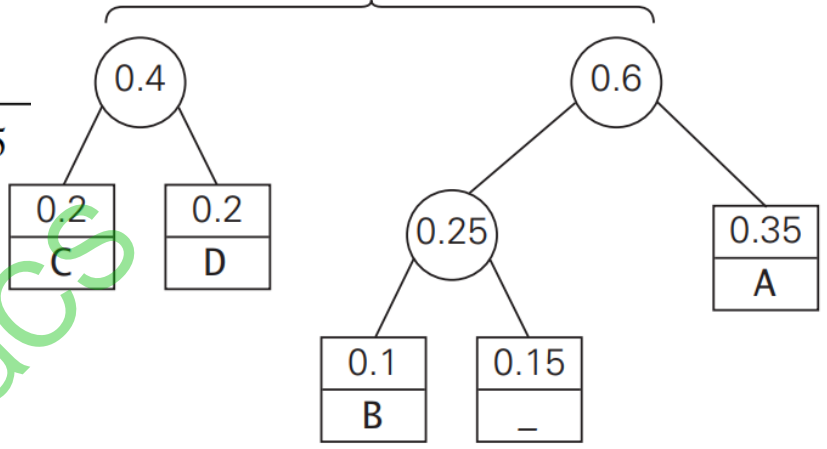
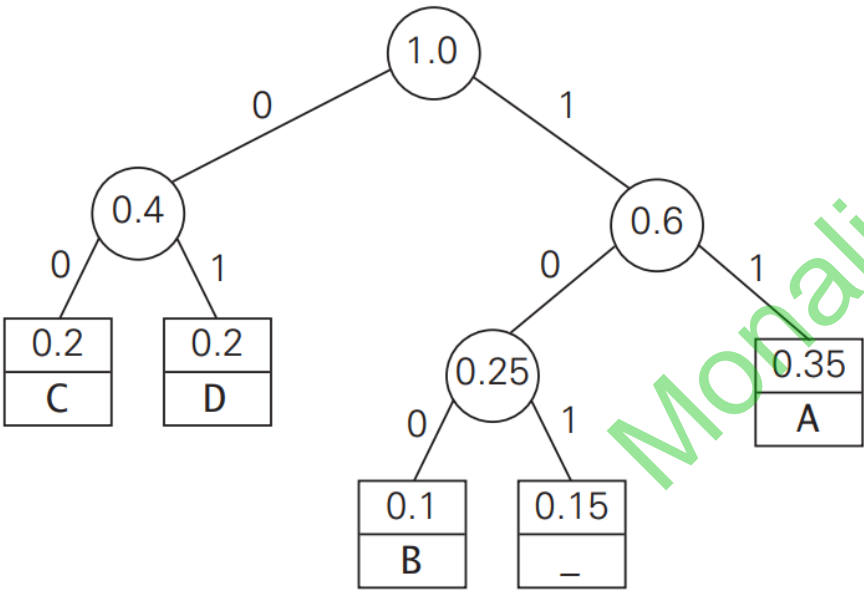
```
1   $n = |C|$ 
2   $Q = C$ 
3  for  $i = 1$  to  $n - 1$ 
4      allocate a new node  $z$ 
5       $z.left = x = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$ 
6       $z.right = y = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$ 
7       $z.freq = x.freq + y.freq$ 
8       $\text{INSERT}(Q, z)$ 
9  return  $\text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$     // return the root of the tree
```

- Line 2 initializes the min-priority queue Q with the characters in C .
- The **for** loop in lines 3–8 repeatedly extracts the two nodes x and y of lowest frequency from the queue, replacing them in the queue with a new node z representing their merger.
- The node z has x as its left child and y as its right child
- After n-1 mergers, line 9 returns the one node left in the queue , which is the root of the tree.
- To analyze the running time of Huffman’s algorithm, assume that Q as a binary min-heap .
- For a set C of n characters, Q in $O(n)$ time using the BUILD-MIN-HEAP procedure.
- The **for** loop in lines 3–8 executes exactly n- 1 times, and since each heap operation requires time $O(\lg n)$, the loop contributes $O(n \lg n)$ to the running time.
- Thus, the total running time of HUFFMAN on a set of n characters is $O(n \lg n)$.



EX : Consider the five-symbol alphabet {A, B, C, D, _} with the following occurrence frequencies in a text made up of these symbols:

symbol	A	B	C	D	_
frequency	0.35	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.15



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● **ISRO2020-34**

● Huffman tree is constructed for the following data : {A,B,C,D,E} with frequency {0.17,0.11,0.24,0.33 and 0.15} respectively. 100 00 01101 is decoded as

- (A) BACE (B) CADE (C) BAD (D) CADD

● Sol: In increase order B:0.11 ,E:0.15 ,A:0.17 ,C:0.24 ,D:0.33

● Prefix code :

● A=00

● B=100

● C=01

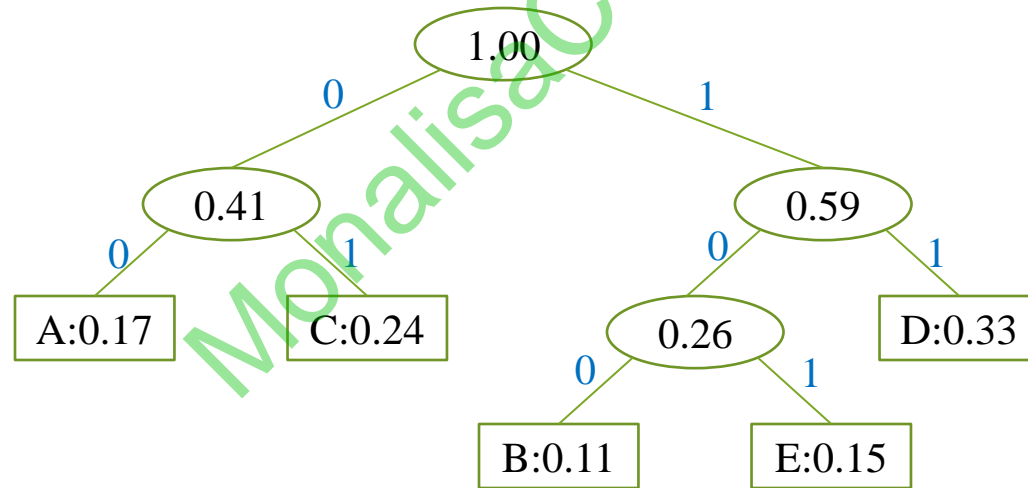
● D=11

● E=101

● 100 00 01 101

● BACE

● Ans: (A) BACE



Minimum Spanning Trees

- A **spanning tree** of an undirected connected graph is its connected acyclic subgraph (i.e., a tree) that contains all the vertices of the graph.
- If such a graph has weights assigned to its edges, a **minimum spanning tree** is its spanning tree of the smallest weight, where the **weight** of a tree is defined as the sum of the weights on all its edges.
- The **minimum spanning tree problem** is the problem of finding a minimum spanning tree for a given weighted connected graph.
- **Prim's algorithm**
- Prim's algorithm operates much like Dijkstra's algorithm for finding shortest paths in a graph.
- Prim's algorithm constructs a minimum spanning tree through a sequence of expanding subtrees.
- The initial subtree in such a sequence consists of a single vertex from the set of the graph's vertices.
- On each iteration, the algorithm expands the current tree in the greedy manner by simply attaching to it the nearest smallest weight vertex not in that tree.
- The algorithm stops after all the graph's vertices have been included.
- Since the algorithm expands a tree by exactly one vertex on each of its iterations, the total number of such iterations is $n - 1$, where n is the number of vertices in the graph.

● **ALGORITHM** *Prim*(G)

● //Input: A weighted connected graph $G = (V, E)$

● //Output: E_T , the set of edges composing a minimum spanning tree of G

● $V_T \leftarrow \{v_0\}$ //the set of tree vertices can be initialized with any vertex

● $E_T \leftarrow \emptyset$

● **for** $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $|V| - 1$ **do**

● find a minimum-weight edge $e^* = (v^*, u^*)$ among all the edges (v, u)

● such that v is in V_T and u is in $V - V_T$

● $V_T \leftarrow V_T \cup \{u^*\}$

● $E_T \leftarrow E_T \cup \{e^*\}$

● **return** E_T

● If a graph is represented by its weight matrix and the priority queue is implemented as an unordered array, the algorithm's running time will be in $\theta(|V|^2)$.

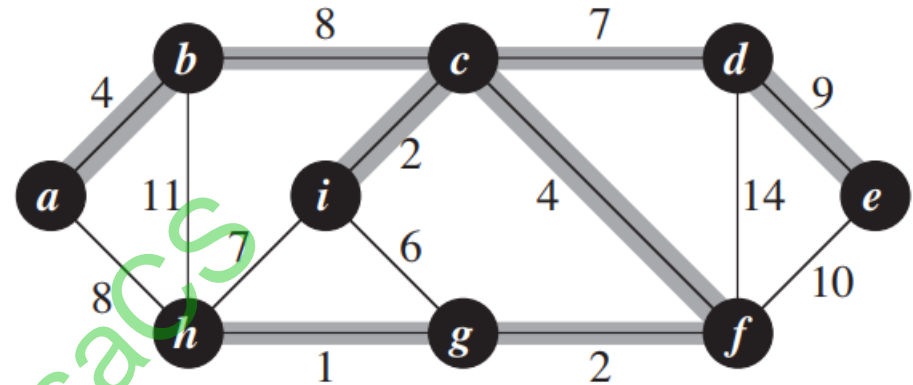
● On each of the $|V| - 1$ iterations, the array implementing the priority queue is traversed to find and delete the minimum and then to update.

● We can also implement the priority queue as a *min-heap*.

● Deletion of the smallest element from and insertion of a new element into a min-heap of size n are $O(\log n)$ operations.

● If a graph is represented by its adjacency lists and the priority queue is implemented as a min-heap, the running time of the algorithm is in $O(|E| \log |V|)$.

- **Ex 1:** The root vertex is a . Shaded edges are in the tree being grown, and black vertices are in the tree.



- **Kruskal's Algorithm**

- Joseph Kruskal, discovered this algorithm when he was a second-year graduate student .
- Kruskal's algorithm looks at a minimum spanning tree of a weighted connected graph $G = (V, E)$ as an acyclic subgraph with $|V| - 1$ edges for which the sum of the edge weights is the smallest.
- Consequently, the minimum spanning tree is always acyclic but are not necessarily connected on the intermediate stages of the algorithm.
- The algorithm begins by sorting the graph's edges in nondecreasing order of their weights.
- Then, starting with the empty subgraph, it scans this sorted list, adding the next edge on the list to the current subgraph if such an inclusion does not create a cycle and simply skipping the edge otherwise.

● **ALGORITHM** *Kruskal*(G)

● //Input: A weighted connected graph $G = (V, E)$

● //Output: E_T , the set of edges composing a minimum spanning tree of G

● Sort E in nondecreasing order of the edge weights $w(e_1) \leq \dots \leq w(e_{|E|})$

● $E_T \leftarrow \emptyset$; $ecounter \leftarrow 0$ //initialize the set of tree edges and its size

● $k \leftarrow 0$ //initialize the number of processed edges

● **while** $ecounter < |V| - 1$ **do**

● $k \leftarrow k + 1$

● **if** $E_T \cup \{e_k\}$ is acyclic

● $E_T \leftarrow E_T \cup \{e_k\}$;

● $ecounter \leftarrow ecounter + 1$;

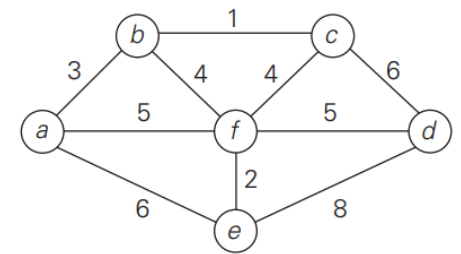
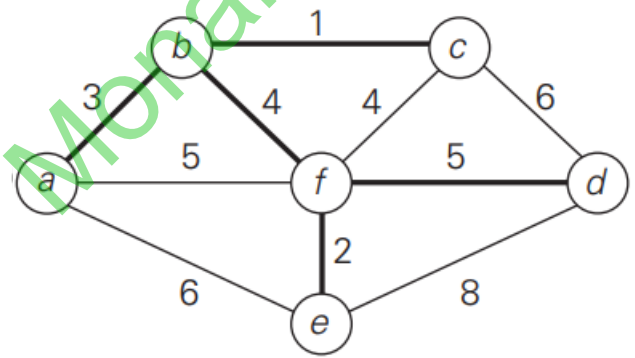
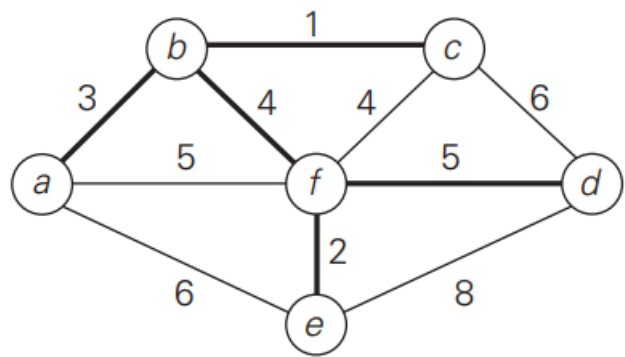
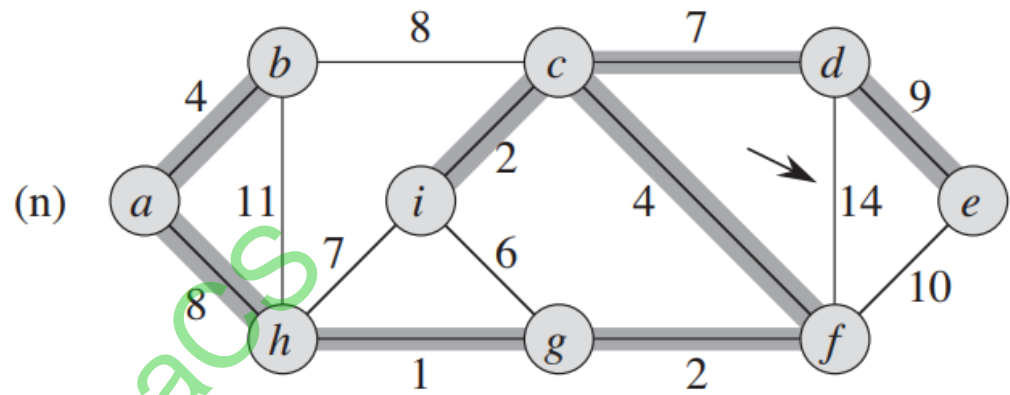
● **return** E_T

● With an efficient union-find algorithm, the running time of Kruskal's algorithm will be dominated by the time needed for sorting the edge weights of a given graph.

● Hence, with an efficient sorting algorithm, the time efficiency of Kruskal's algorithm will be in $O(|E| \log |E|)$.

● Observing that $|E| < |V|^2$, we have $\lg |E| = O(\lg |V|)$, and so we can restate the running time of Kruskal's algorithm as $O(|E| \lg |V|)$.

- **Ex 1:** Shaded edges belong to the forest being grown.
- The algorithm considers each edge in sorted order by weight. An arrow points to the edge under consideration at each step of the algorithm.
- Shorted edges: {1,2,2,4,4,6,7,7,8,8,9,10,11,14}
- Ex 2: Prim's and Kruskal's MST
- Shorted edges: {1,2,3,4,4,5,5,6,6,8}

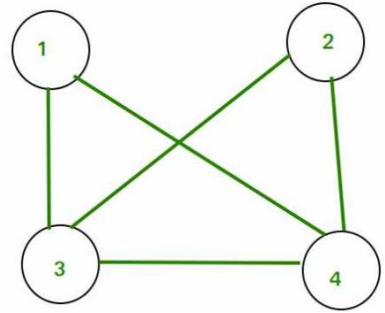


Number of Spanning Trees in connected, undirected graph

- Let G be a connected graph with $|V|$ vertices then spanning tree contain $|V|-1$ edges.
- Circuit rank : number of edges need to delete for forming a spanning tree= $|E|-|V|+1$
- Number of spanning trees possible= ${}^{|E|}C_{|V|-1}$ [if no cycle present in graph]
- Number of spanning trees $\leq n^{n-2}$ [if graph is complete then n^{n-2}]

Kirchhoff's theorem:

- STEP 1: Create Adjacency Matrix for the given graph.
- STEP 2: Replace all the diagonal elements with the degree of nodes.
- STEP 3: Replace all non-diagonal 1's with -1.
- STEP 4: Calculate co-factor for any element.
- STEP 5: The cofactor that you get is the total number of spanning tree for that graph



- Cofactor of $C_{11}=(-1)^{1+1} * M_{11}$
- $=(-1+18-1)- (3+3+2)$
- $=16-8=8$
- 8 spanning trees possible

$$\begin{matrix}
 & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix} \\
 \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{matrix}
 \quad
 \begin{matrix}
 & \begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \end{matrix} \\
 \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & -1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 3 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}
 \end{matrix}$$

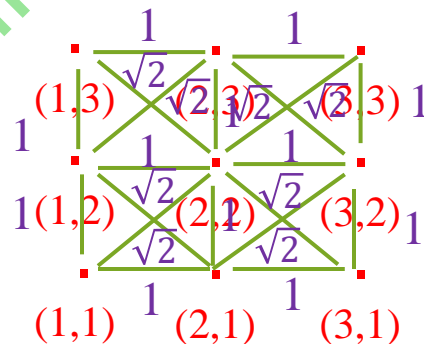
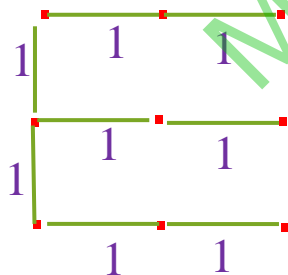
Number of Spanning Trees in connected, weighted, undirected graph

- If all weights are distinct then one minimum spanning tree.
- If equal weights are present then based on how many equal weights and cycles multiple spanning tree possible.
- Prim's and Kruskal will generate same MST if all weights are unique.
- If graph have equal edges then both may generate different MST .but total cost will be same .
- Q: Consider a graph whose vertices are present in a plane with int coordinate $(x,y), 1 \leq x \leq n, 1 \leq y \leq n, n > 2$ $\{(x_1,y_1) \& (x_2,y_2)\}$ are adjacent if and only if $|x_1-x_2| \leq 1, |y_1-y_2| \leq 1$. The cost of such an edge is distance between them . Compute the weight of minimum cost spanning tree of such a graph for a value of n .

$$d = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2}$$

Cost of MST=8

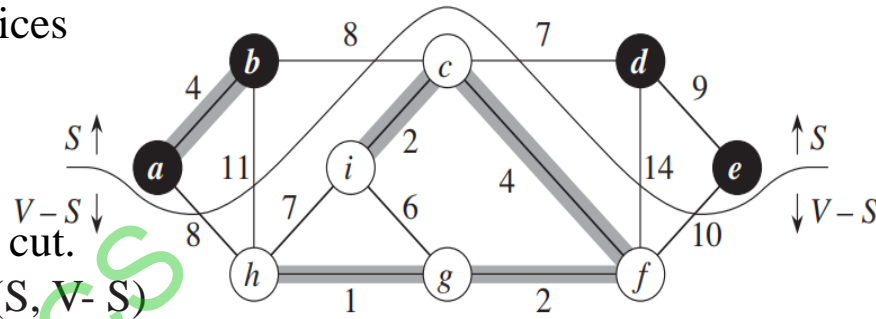
$$n^2 - 1$$



Growing a minimum spanning tree

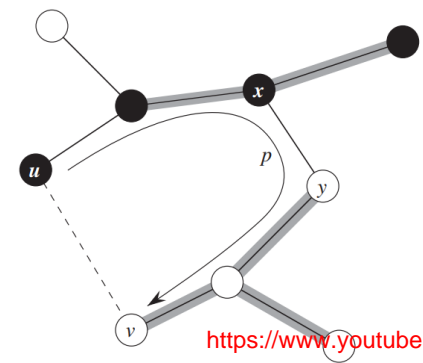
- This greedy strategy is captured by the following generic method, which grows the minimum spanning tree one edge at a time.
- Prior to each iteration, A is a subset of some minimum spanning tree.
- At each step, we determine an edge (u,v) that we can add to A without violating this invariant, in the sense that $A \cup \{(u,v)\}$ is also a subset of a minimum spanning tree.
- We call such an edge a *safe edge* for A , since we can add it safely to A .
- **GENERIC-MST**(G, w)
 1. $A = \emptyset$
 2. **while** A does not form a spanning tree
 3. find an edge (u,v) that is safe for A
 4. $A = A \cup \{(u,v)\}$
 5. **return** A
- A *cut* $(S, V - S)$ of an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a partition of V .
- An edge $(u,v) \in E$ *crosses* the cut $(S, V - S)$ if one of its endpoints is in S and the other is in $V - S$.
- We say that a cut *respects* a set A of edges if no edge in A crosses the cut.

- An edge is a **light edge** crossing a cut if its weight is the minimum of any edge crossing cut.
- Ex 1 : Black vertices are in the set S , and white vertices are in $V - S$.
- The edges crossing the cut are those connecting white vertices with black vertices.
- The edge (d, c) is the unique light edge crossing the cut.
- A subset A of the edges is shaded; note that the cut $(S, V - S)$ respects A , since no edge of A crosses the cut.



• **Theorem** : Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected, undirected graph with a real-valued weight function w defined on E . Let A be a subset of E that is included in some minimum spanning tree for G , let $(S, V-S)$ be any cut of G that respects A , and let (u,v) be a light edge crossing $(S,V-S)$. Then, edge (u,v) is safe for A .

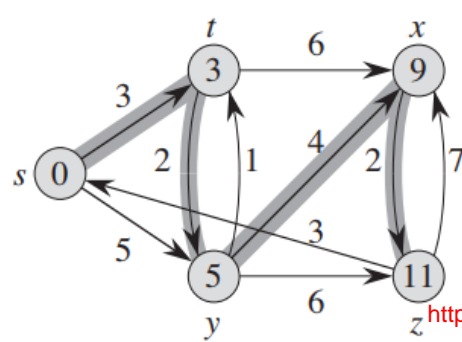
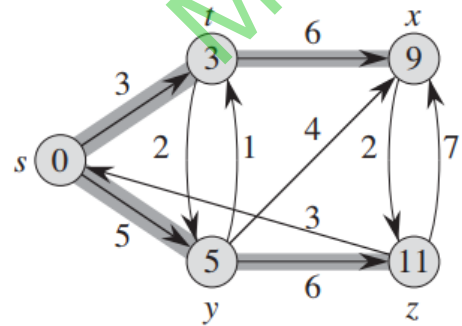
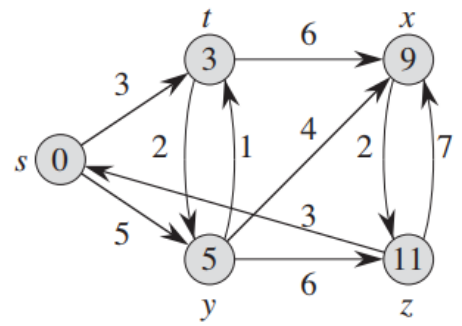
- **Proof** : Black vertices are in S , and white vertices are in $V - S$.
- The edges in A are shaded, and (u,v) is a light edge crossing the cut $(S,V - S)$.
- The edge (x, y) is an edge on the unique simple path p from u to v in T .
- To form a minimum spanning tree T' that contains (u,v) , remove the edge (x, y) from T and add the edge (u,v) .



Single-Source Shortest Paths

- In a **shortest-paths problem**, we are given a weighted, directed graph $G=(V,E)$ with weight function $w:E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ mapping edges to real-valued weights.
- The **weight** $w(p)$ of path $p = \{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is the sum of the weights of its constituent edges:
- $w(p) = \sum_{i=1}^k w(v_{i-1}, v_i)$.
- We define the **shortest-path weight** $\delta(u, v)$ from u to v by
- $\delta(u, v) = \begin{cases} \min \{w(p) : u \rightarrow v\} & \text{if there is a path from } u \text{ to } v \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$.
- A **shortest path** from vertex u to vertex v is any path p with weight $w(p) = \delta(u, v)$.
- The breadth-first-search algorithm is a shortest-paths algorithm that works on unweighted graphs, that is, graphs in which each edge has unit weight.
- **Variants**
- **single-source shortest-paths problem**: given a graph $G=(V,E)$ we want to find a shortest path from a given **source** vertex $s \in V$ to each vertex $v \in V$.
- **Single-destination shortest-paths problem**: Find a shortest path to a given **destination** vertex t from each vertex. By reversing the direction of each edge in the graph, we can reduce this problem to a single-source problem.
- **Single-pair shortest-path problem**: Find a shortest path from u to v for given vertices u and v .
- **All-pairs shortest-paths problem**: Find a shortest path from u to v for every pair of vertices u and v .

- Dijkstra's algorithm, is a greedy algorithm, and the Floyd Warshall algorithm, which finds shortest paths between all pairs of vertices, is a dynamic-programming algorithm.
- **Negative-weight edges:** Dijkstra's algorithm, assume that all edge weights in the input graph are nonnegative, But Bellman-Ford algorithm, allow negative-weight edges in the input graph and produce a correct answer as long as no negative-weight cycles are reachable from the source.
- If there is a negative weight cycle on some path from s to v , we define $\delta(s, v) = -\infty$.
- If there is such a negative-weight cycle, the algorithm can detect and report its existence.
- **Representing shortest paths:** We not only compute shortest-path weights, but the vertices on shortest paths as well.
- We represent shortest paths similarly to how we represented breadth-first trees.
- The shortest-paths algorithms set the π attributes so that the chain of predecessors originating at a vertex v runs backwards along a shortest path from s to v .
- A **predecessor** $v.\pi$ is either another vertex or NIL.
- Ex: A weighted, directed graph with two shortest-path weights from source s .



● Relaxation

● For each vertex $v \in V$, we maintain an attribute $v.d$, which is an upper bound on the weight of a shortest path from source s to v . We call $v.d$ a *shortest-path estimate*.

● We initialize the shortest-path estimates and predecessors by the following $O(V)$ time procedure:

● INITIALIZE-SINGLE-SOURCE (G, s)

1. for each vertex $v \in G.V$

2. $v.d = \infty$

3. $v.\pi = \text{NIL}$

4. $s.d = 0$

● The process of *relaxing* an edge (u,v) consists of testing whether we can improve the shortest path to v found so far by going through u and, if so, updating $v.d$ and $v.\pi$.

● The following code performs a relaxation step on edge (u,v) in $O(1)$ time:

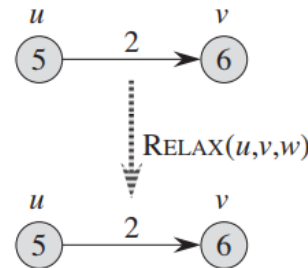
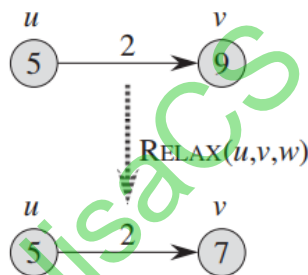
● RELAX(u,v,w)

1. if $v.d > u.d + w(u,v)$

2. $v.d = u.d + w(u,v)$

3. $v.\pi = u$

□ Ex :Relaxing an edge (u,v) with weight $w(u,v)=2$



● **Dijkstra's algorithm:**

● Dijkstra's algorithm solves the single-source shortest-paths problem on a nonnegative weighted, directed graph $G=(V,E)$.

● Dijkstra's algorithm maintains a set S of vertices whose final shortest-path weights from the source s have already been determined.

● The algorithm repeatedly selects the vertex $u \in V - S$ with the minimum shortest-path estimate, adds u to S , and relaxes all edges leaving u .

● In the following implementation, we use a min-priority queue Q of vertices, keyed by their d values.

● **DIJKSTRA(G, w, s)**

1. **INITIALIZE-SINGLE-SOURCE (G, s)**

2. $S = \emptyset$

3. $Q = G.V$

4. **while** $Q \neq \emptyset$

5. $u = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$

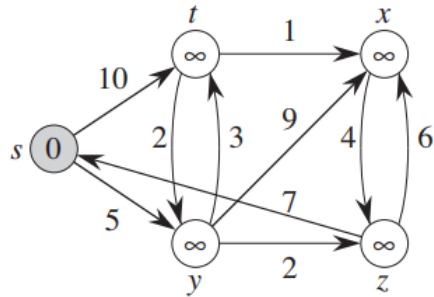
6. $S = S \cup \{u\}$

7. **for each** vertex $v \in G . \text{Adj}[u]$

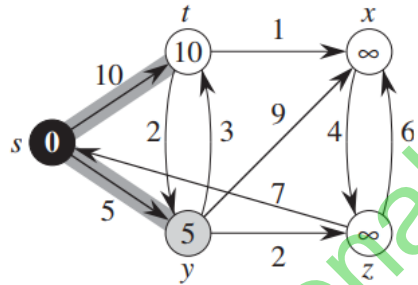
8. **RELAX** $\{u, v, w\}$

● Because Dijkstra's algorithm always chooses the "lightest" or "closest" vertex in $V - S$ to add to set S , we say that it uses a greedy strategy .

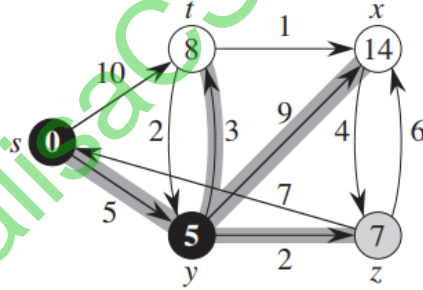
- The time efficiency of Dijkstra's algorithm depends on the data structures used for implementing the priority queue and for representing an input graph itself.
- $O(V^2)$ for graphs represented by their weight matrix and the priority queue implemented as an unordered array.
- For graphs represented by their adjacency lists and the priority queue implemented as a min-heap, it is in $O(|E| \log |V|)$.
- **Ex :** The execution of Dijkstra's algorithm



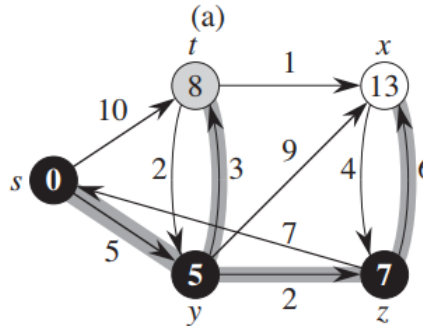
(a)



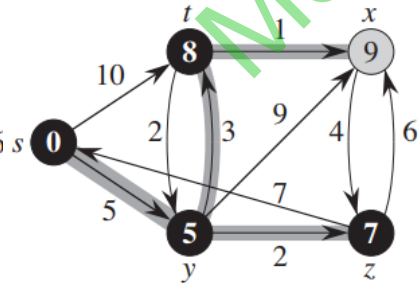
(b)



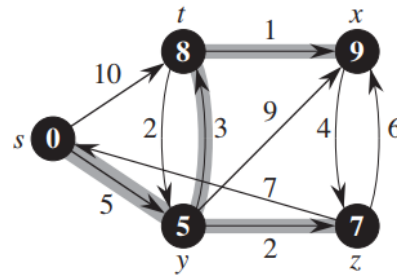
(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

- **DIJKSTRA**(G, w, s)
 1. **INITIALIZE-SINGLE-SOURCE** (G, s)
 2. $S = \emptyset$
 3. $Q = G.V$
 4. **while** $Q \neq \emptyset$
 5. $u = \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$
 6. $S = S \cup \{u\}$
 7. **for each vertex** $v \in G.Adj[u]$
 8. **RELAX**{ u, v, w }

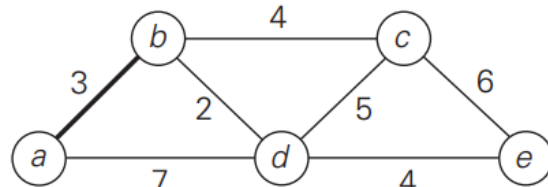
Tree vertices

Remaining vertices

Illustration

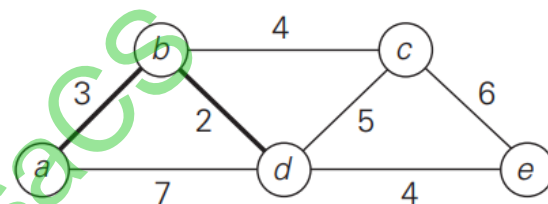
a(-, 0)

b(a, 3) c(-, ∞) d(a, 7) e(-, ∞)



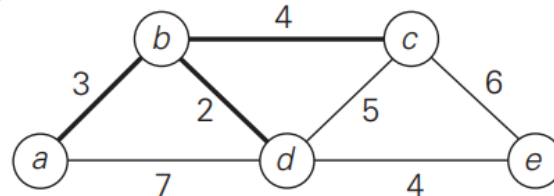
b(a, 3)

c(b, 3 + 4) **d(b, 3 + 2)** e(-, ∞)



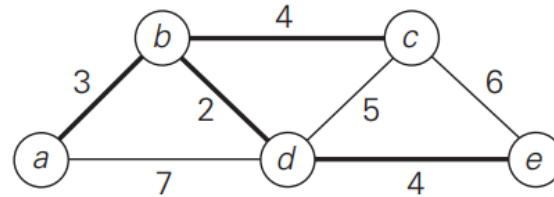
d(b, 5)

c(b, 7) e(d, 5 + 4)



c(b, 7)

e(d, 9)



e(d, 9)

MonalisaCS