Recitation 10

Shortest Paths

10.1 Announcements

- *ShortLab* has been released, and is due **Friday afternoon**. It’s worth 125 points.
- *SegmentLab* will be released on **Friday**.
10.2 Dijkstra’s Algorithm

For this section, we’ll be using Dijkstra’s algorithm as implemented in the textbook. It is also given here as a refresher.

```
Algorithm 10.1. Dijkstra’s Algorithm

1   Dijkstra (G,s) =
2     let
dijkstra (X,Q) =
3     case PQ.deleteMin Q of
4         (NONE, _) ⇒ ⊥
5         | (SOME (d,v), Q') ⇒
6             if v ∈ X then dijkstra (X,Q') else
7                 let
8                     X' = X ∪ {v → d}
9                     relax (Q,(u,w)) = PQ.insert (Q,d+w,u)
10                    Q'' = iterate relax Q' (N^G_C(v))
11                 in
12                 dijkstra (X',Q'')
13             end
14         end
15     in
16     dijkstra ({} ,PQ.singleton (0,s))
17     end
```
Task 10.2. Run Dijkstra’s algorithm on the following, starting from GHC. Trace the process by writing the most recently popped vertex and the contents of the priority queue immediately before each deleteMin operation. Also write the returned mapping of each vertex to its shortest path distance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Recently Popped</th>
<th>Priority Queue</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>{ (0, GHC) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>GHC</td>
<td>{ (9, NSH), (14, PB) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>NSH</td>
<td>{ (14, PB), (23, WH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>PB</td>
<td>{ (23, WH), (26, UC), (30, C) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>WH</td>
<td>{ (26, UC), (30, C), (32, DH), (35, PH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>UC</td>
<td>{ (30, C), (32, DH), (35, PH), (46, C) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>{ (32, DH), (35, PH), (46, C), (46, BH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>DH</td>
<td>{ (35, PH), (45, BH), (46, C), (46, BH), (46, C) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>PH</td>
<td>{ (45, BH), (46, C), (46, BH), (46, C), (49, BH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>BH</td>
<td>{ (46, C), (46, BH), (46, C), (49, BH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>{ (46, BH), (46, C), (49, BH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>BH</td>
<td>{ (46, C), (49, BH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>{ (49, BH) }</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>BH</td>
<td>{}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\{GHC \rightarrow 0, NSH \rightarrow 9, PB \rightarrow 14, WH \rightarrow 23, UC \rightarrow 26, C \rightarrow 30, DH \rightarrow 32, PH \rightarrow 35, BH \rightarrow 45\}
**Task 10.3.** Consider the following simple modification to Dijkstra’s algorithm:

When relaxing the neighbors of a vertex, we only insert a neighbor into the priority queue if it has not already been visited.

*Does this modification improve the worst-case cost bounds of Dijkstra’s algorithm?*

This modification has no effect on the amount of work performed by Dijkstra’s algorithm in the worst case. For example, in a chain graph consisting of the directed edges \((i, i + 1)\) for every \(0 \leq i < n\), every time a vertex is inserted into the priority queue, it has not yet been visited.

**Task 10.4.** Priority queues sometimes support a `decreaseKey` operation which attempts to decrease the priority associated with some value. For example, in the priority queue \(\{(15, A), (42, B)\}\), we could apply `decreaseKey` on \(B\) with a new priority of 11 to get back the priority queue \(\{(11, B), (15, A)\}\). If the newly specified priority is greater than the original, then this operation simply does nothing.

Suppose that you are given a priority queue which supports `insert` and `decreaseKey` in constant time, and `deleteMin` in \(O(\log |Q|)\) time.\(^a\) Describe how to use this data structure to improve the asymptotic performance of Dijkstra’s algorithm. You may assume the graph is enumerated.

\(^a\)These bounds are supported by implementations such as Fibonacci and Brodal heaps.

In the relax step, if a neighbor is already present in the priority queue, we perform a `decreaseKey` operation rather than an `insert`. We also only insert vertices which have not already been visited. In combination, these changes guarantee that every time we `deleteMin`, we get back a vertex which has not yet been visited. Notice, then, that

(a) for each vertex, we perform one `deleteMin` operation, and

(b) for each edge, we might either `insert` or `decreaseKey`.

Therefore the total running time is \(O(m + n \log n)\), since `deleteMin` is logarithmic while `insert` and `decreaseKey` are constant-time.

Now, you might be concerned that it is expensive to keep track of what is and isn’t in the priority queue. But, this is a non-issue: all we need is a set data structure with constant-time `insert, delete, and find` operations. For enumerated graphs, we can implement such a structure simply as an array of flags of length \(n\) (one flag for each vertex).
10.3 A*

Dijkstra’s algorithm computes shortest paths between the source and every other vertex in the graph. But what if we only care about the shortest path to a specific “target” vertex?

In the example graph given above, if you are trying to get from GHC to BH, you intuitively know that the shortest path probably doesn’t pass through the UC. As you work your way towards the goal, you are guided by an internal heuristic which helps you estimate how far each building is from BH and choose the most promising option.

We can apply a similar approach to Dijkstra’s algorithm. At each step, we’d like to visit the “most promising” candidate among the vertices in the frontier. To determine how promising a candidate is, we need an estimate of how far that candidate is from the destination. Specifically, we’ll assume we have a heuristic function \( h : V \to \mathbb{R}^+ \) which maps vertices \( v \) to an estimate of the length of the shortest path between \( v \) and the destination.

The A* algorithm is identical to Dijkstra’s except that it orders its priority queue by \( d(v) + h(v) \) rather than by \( d(v) \), and terminates as soon as it finds the target. We also need to explicitly store the distance to each vertex in the priority queue. Here is the code:

```
Algorithm 10.5. A* search with a consistent heuristic.
1. A* \( h ((G, s, t)) = \\
2. \quad \text{let} \\
3. \quad \quad \text{search } (X, Q) = \\
4. \quad \quad \quad \text{case } PQ.deleteMin Q \text{ of} \\
5. \quad \quad \quad \quad (\text{NONE, } _) \Rightarrow \bot \\
6. \quad \quad \quad \quad | (\text{SOME } \langle v, d \rangle), Q' \rangle \Rightarrow \\
7. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{if } v = t \text{ then } d \text{ else} \\
8. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{if } v \in X \text{ then } \text{search } (X, Q') \text{ else} \\
9. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{let} \\
10. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad X' = X \cup \{v \mapsto d\} \\
11. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{relax } (Q, (u, w)) = PQ.insert (Q, (d+w+h(u), (u, d+w))) \\
12. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad Q'' = \text{iterate relax } Q' (N_G^+(v)) \\
13. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{in} \\
14. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{search } (X', Q'') \\
15. \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \end \\
16. \quad \quad \quad \text{in} \\
17. \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{search } (\{\}, PQ.singleton (h(s), (s, 0))) \\
18. \quad \text{end} \\
```

To visualize the difference between using (target-specific) Dijkstra and A*, visit this link.

In order to ensure correctness, we need \( h \) to be consistent, meaning that for every two vertices \( u \) and \( v \), \( h(u) \leq \delta(u, v) + h(v) \) where \( \delta(u, v) \) is the shortest path from \( u \) to \( v \). Furthermore,
the heuristic value of the destination must be 0: $h(t) = 0$. As an exercise, try proving that A* always finds an optimal path when using a consistent heuristic.

It turns out that all consistent heuristics are also admissible, meaning that for every $v$, $h(v) \leq \delta(v, t)$. The opposite is not always true.

**Task 10.6.** Give an example of a consistent heuristic which causes A* to perform identically to Dijkstra’s algorithm up until the point it visits the target.

If $h(v) = 0$ for every $v$, then A*’s priority queue is ordered simply by $d(v)$, which is identical to Dijkstra’s algorithm.

**Task 10.7.** Suppose we use $h(v) = \delta(v, t)$. Argue that A* visits exactly the vertices on the shortest path between $s$ and $t$, and no others. (Assume a unique shortest path from $s$ to $t$.)

Proof by induction. Let $p$ be the sequence of vertices which forms the shortest path from $s$ to $t$.

- At time 0, A* visits $s$, and obviously $p[0] = s$.
- At time $i > 0$, assume A* has visited exactly the vertices $p[0], \ldots, p[i-1]$. The vertex $p[i]$ must be in the priority queue with priority

$$d(p[i]) + \delta(p[i], t) = \delta(s, p[i-1]) + w(p[i-1], p[i]) + \delta(p[i], t) = \delta(s, t)$$

and therefore $p[i]$ has the smallest priority in the priority queue (this should be straightforward to see via a proof by contradiction). A* will proceed by visiting $p[i]$.

**Remark 10.8.** The runtime performance of A* depends heavily upon the quality of the heuristic. The previous two tasks highlight the extremes: the “worst” heuristic causes A* to do exactly the same thing as Dijkstra’s, while the “best” causes it to visit only the nodes on the shortest path.

**Remark 10.9.** When searching a Euclidean space (where each vertex is a point in that space), a simple and effective heuristic is Euclidean distance. You should convince yourself that this heuristic is consistent.
Exercise 10.10. Design a consistent heuristic for the example graph given at the beginning of this recitation and run A* with that heuristic. Take note of how many vertices are left unvisited.

Exercise 10.11. Prove that for any consistent heuristic \( h \), A* returns the shortest path between the source and target.

Exercise 10.12. Give an example of a small graph along with an admissible heuristic which is inconsistent.

Exercise 10.13. Prove that any consistent heuristic is also admissible.

Exercise 10.14. A simple modification of A* is called weighted-A*. In this algorithm, we take an additional parameter \( w \geq 1.0 \) and order the priority queue by \( d(v) + w \cdot h(v) \). This has the tendency to make A* more directed towards the goal, further reducing the number of vertices visited at the cost of producing a potentially non-optimal solution.

Prove that weighted-A* with weight \( w \) finds a path to the destination of length within a factor of \( w \) of the optimal path.