

Lecture 11

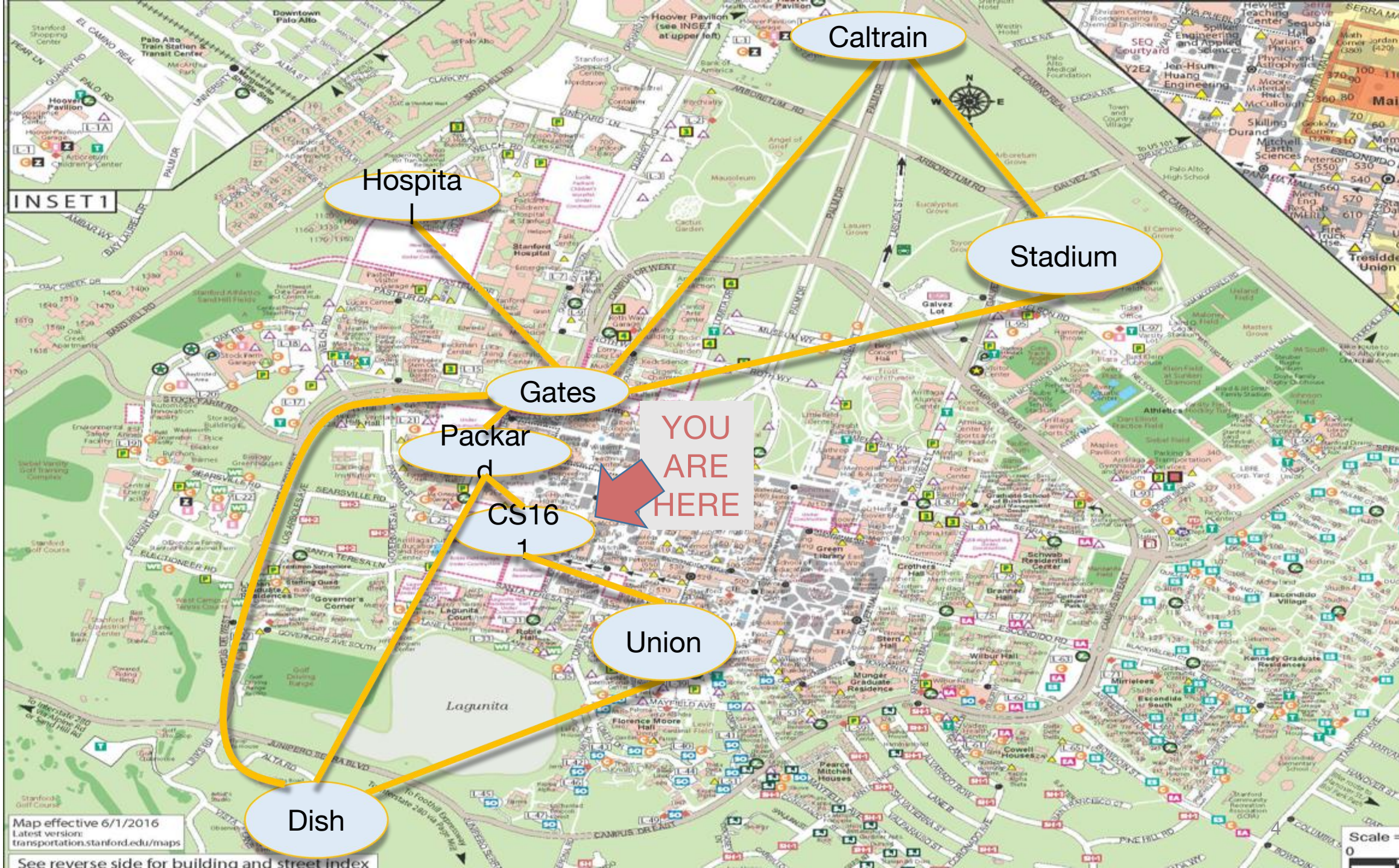
Weighted Graphs: Dijkstra and Bellman-Ford

Previous two lectures

- Graphs!
- DFS
 - Topological Sorting
 - Strongly Connected Components
- BFS
 - Shortest Paths in unweighted graphs

Today

- What if the graphs are weighted?
- Part 1: Dijkstra!
 - This will take most of today's class
- Part 2: Bellman-Ford!
 - Real quick at the end if we have time!
 - We'll come back to Bellman-Ford in more detail, so today is just a taste.



Caltrain

Hospital

Stadium

Gates

Packard

YOU ARE HERE

CS16

Union

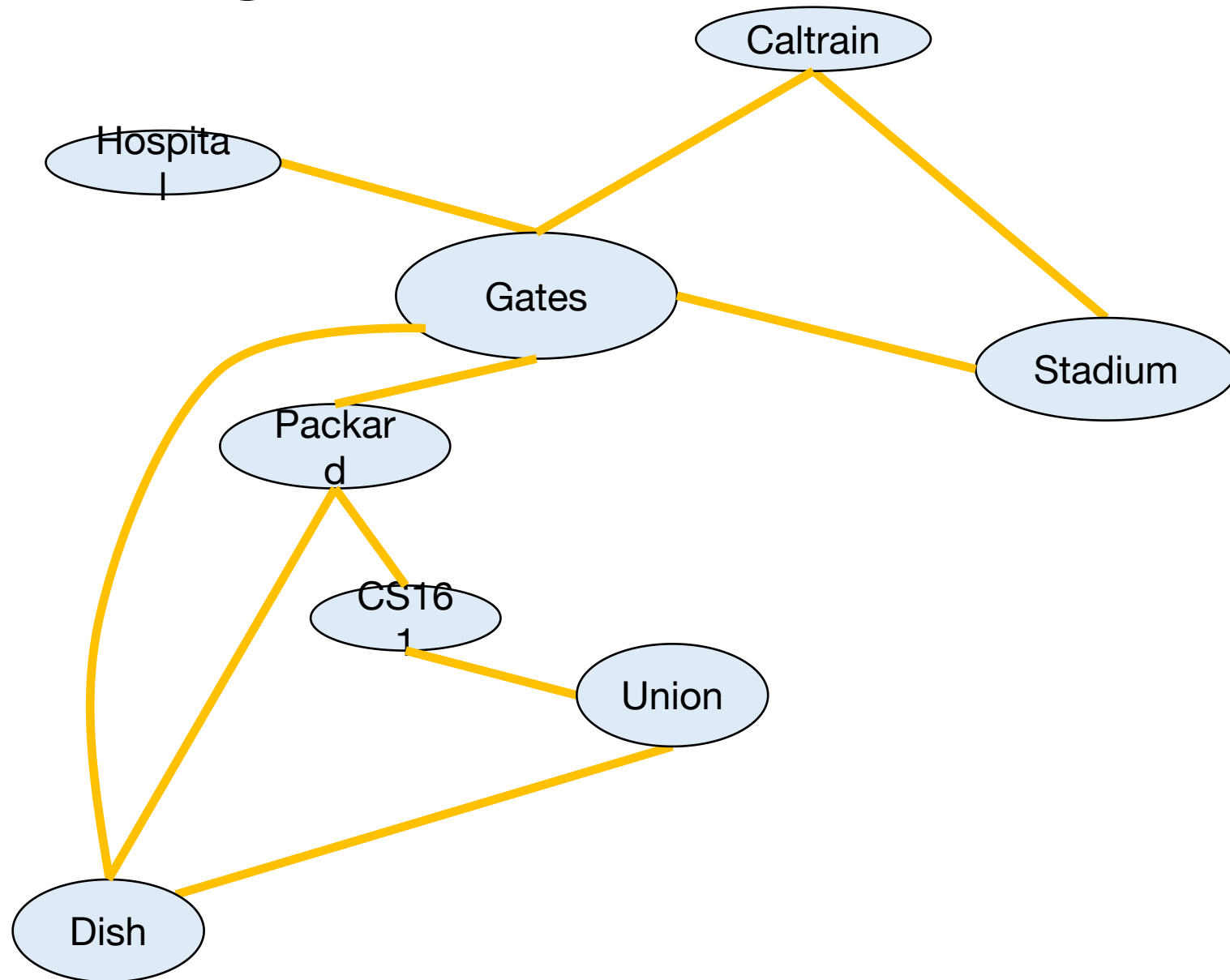
Dish

Map effective 6/1/2016
Latest version:
transportation.stanford.edu/maps

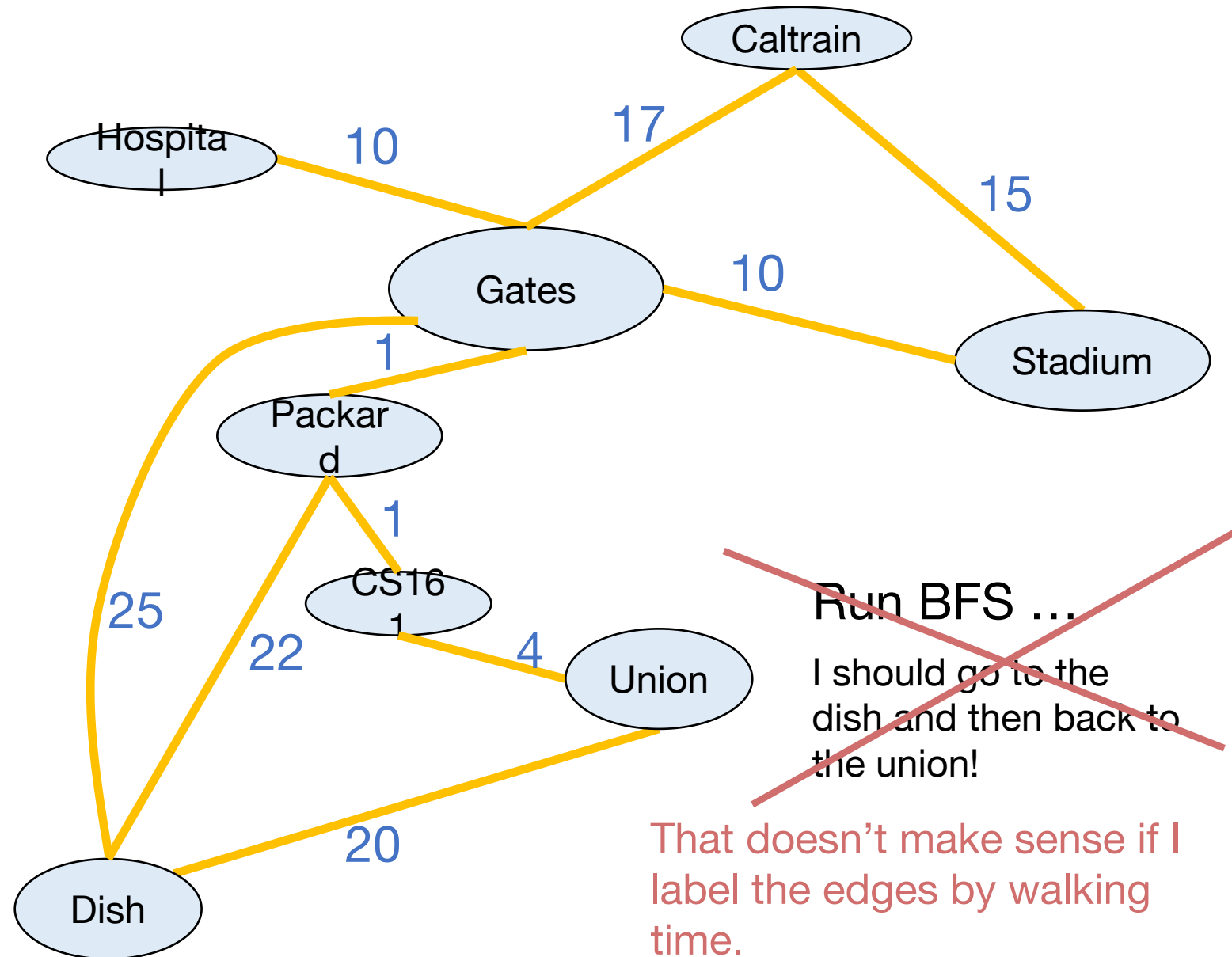
See reverse side for building and street index

Scale = 0

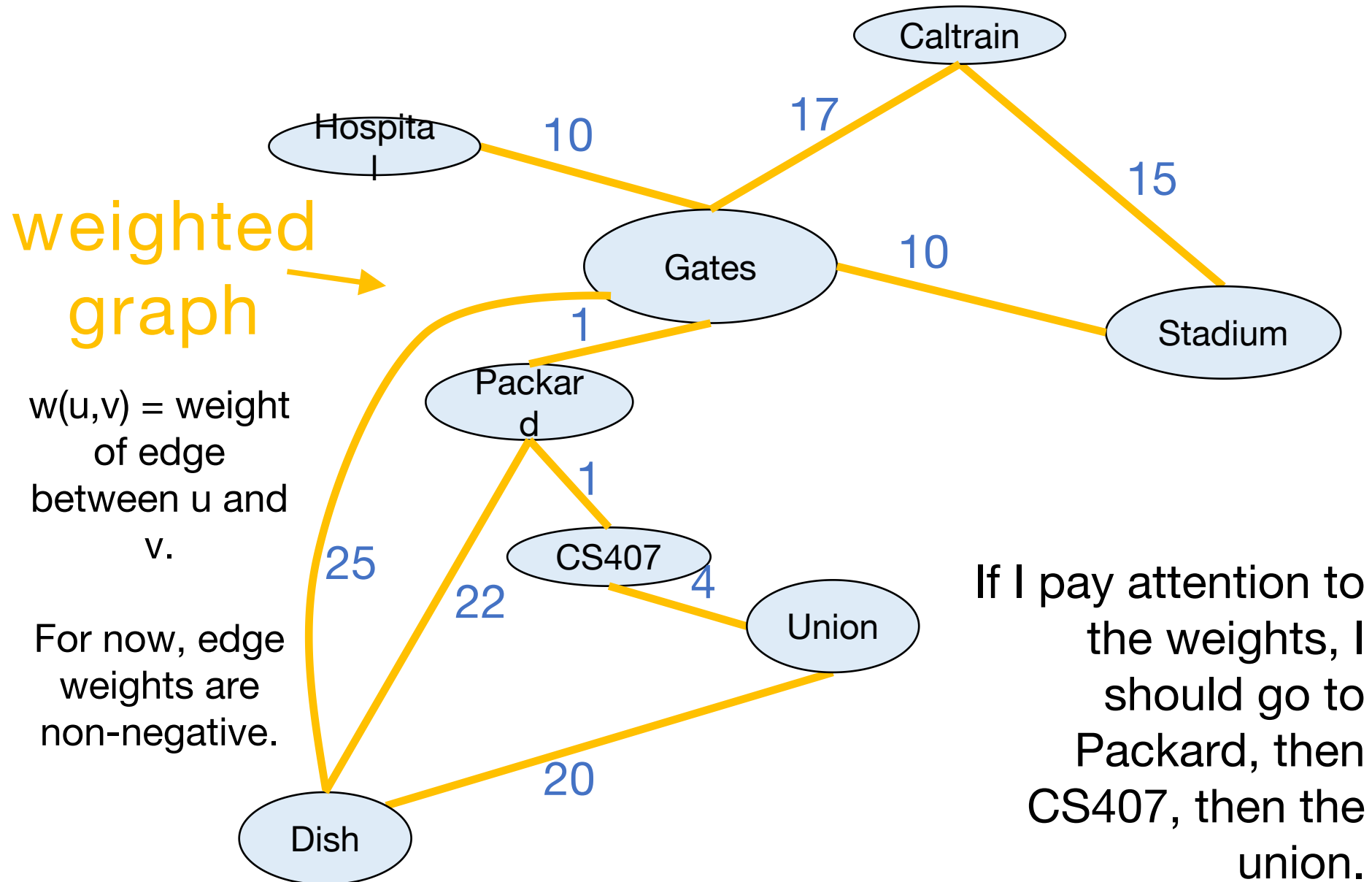
Just the graph



Shortest path from Gates to the Union?

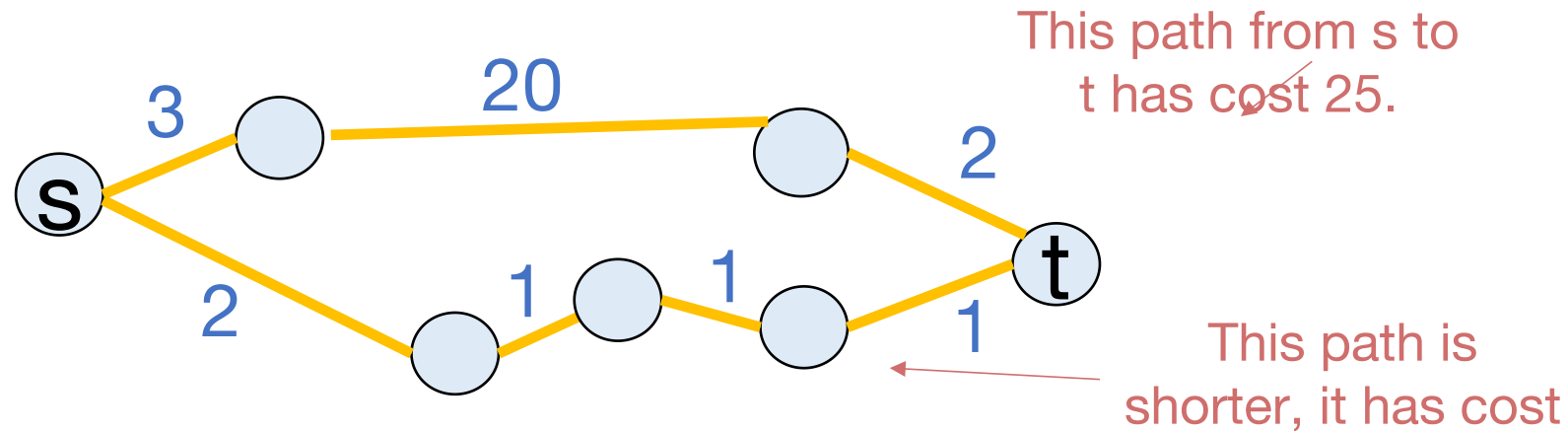


Shortest path from Gates to the Union?



Shortest path problem

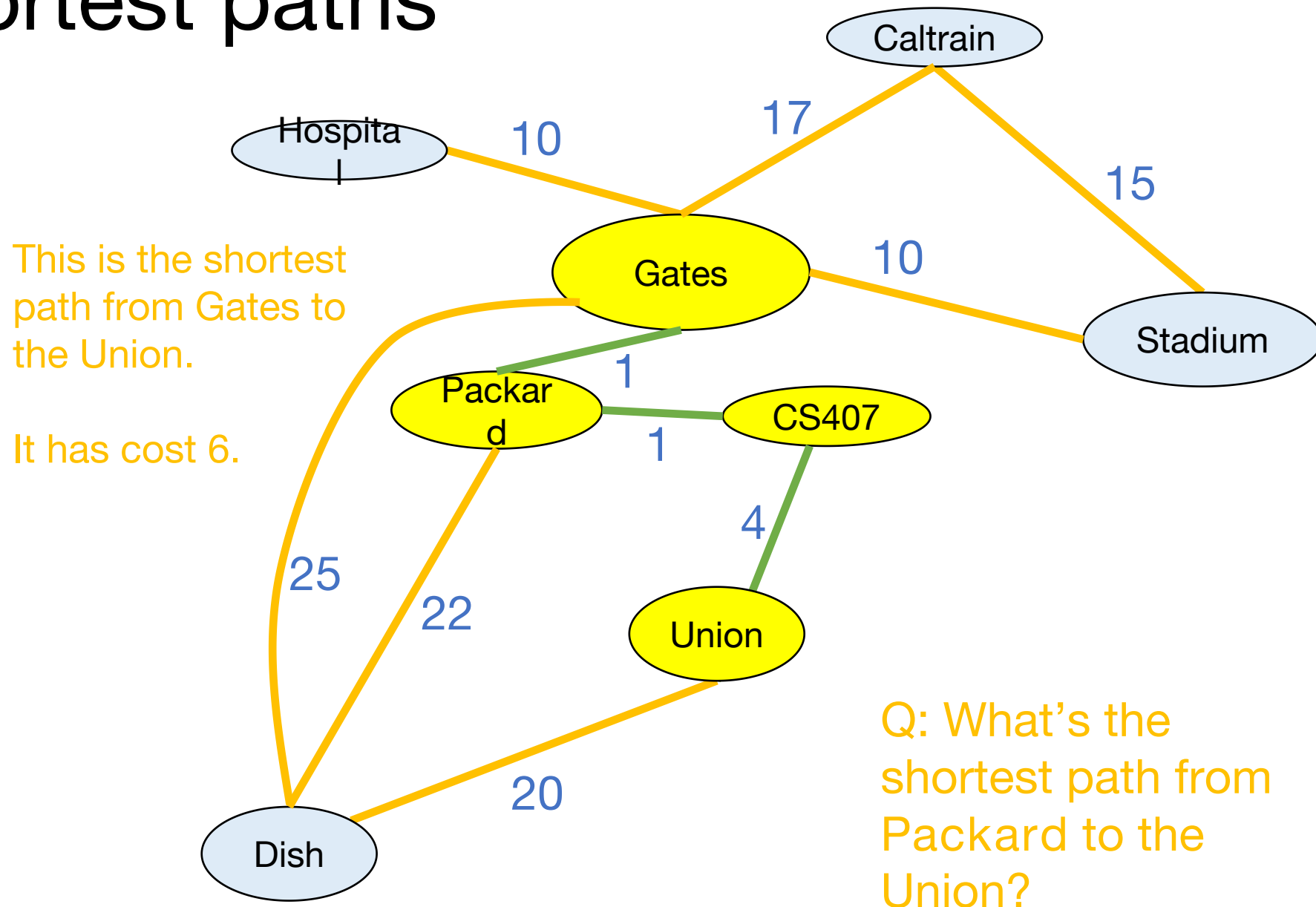
- What is the **shortest path** between u and v in a weighted graph?
 - the cost of a path is the sum of the weights along that path
 - The shortest path is the one with the minimum cost.



- The distance $d(u,v)$ between two vertices u and v is the cost of the the shortest path between u and v .
- For this lecture all graphs are directed, but to save on notation I'm just going to draw undirected edges



Shortest paths



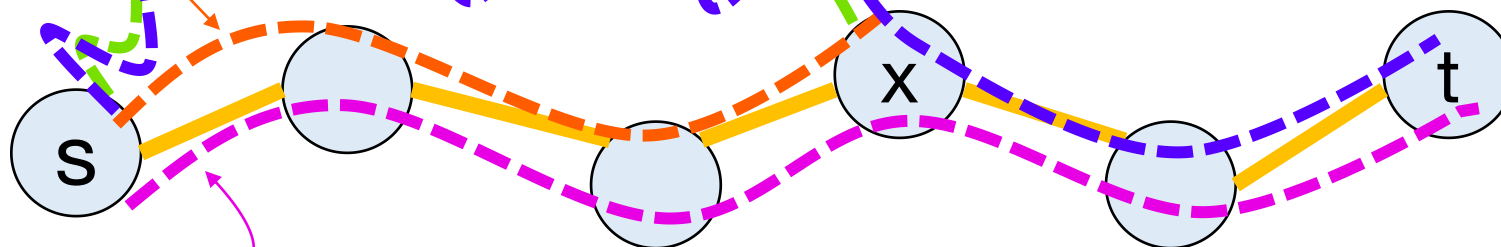
Warm-up

- A sub-path of a shortest path is also a shortest path.

- Say **this** is a shortest path from s to t .

- Claim: **this** is a shortest path from s to x .

- Suppose not, **this** one is a shorter path from s to x .
- But then that gives an even shorter path from s to t !



Single-source shortest-path problem

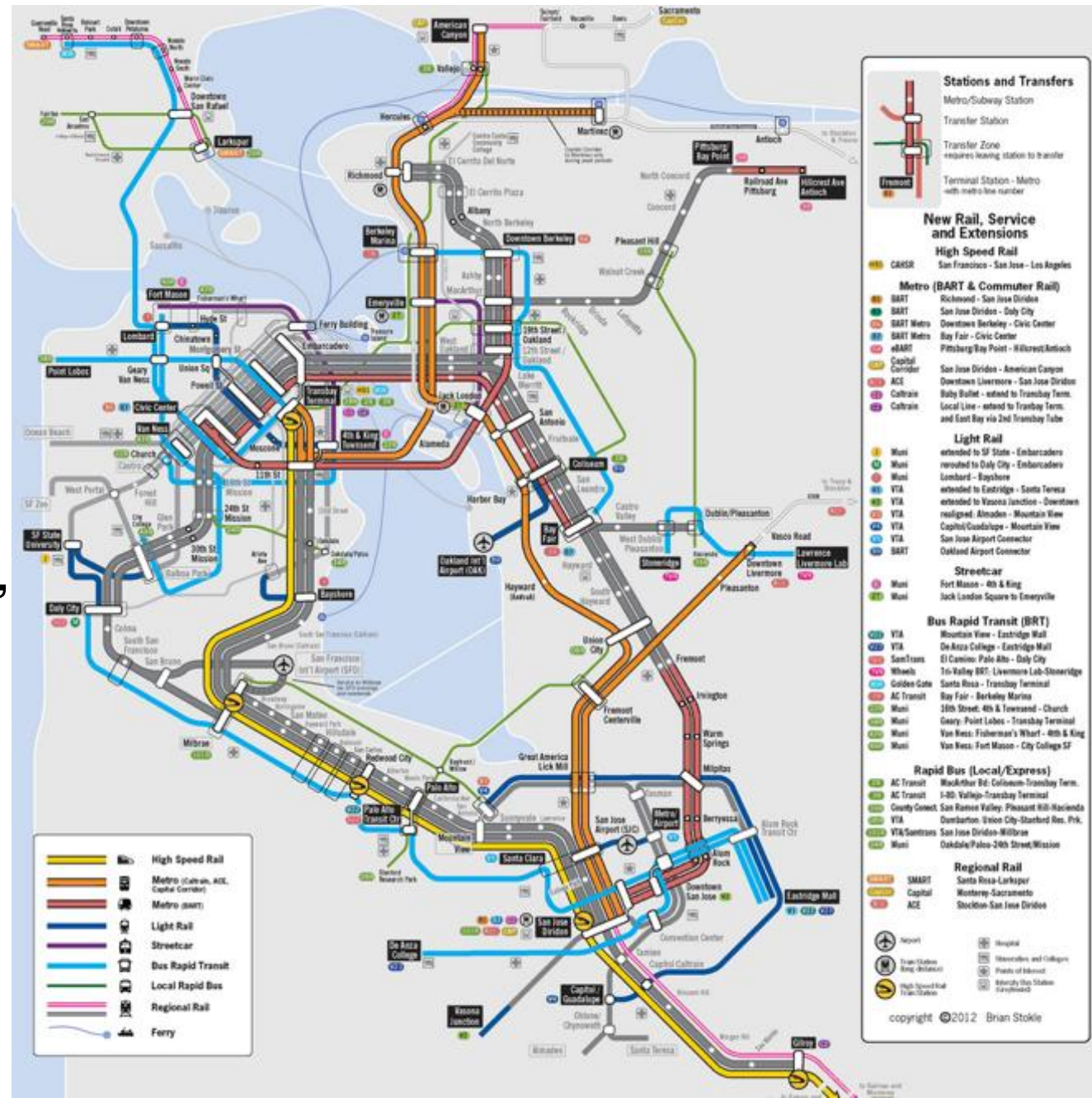
- I want to know the shortest path from one vertex (Gates) to all other vertices.

Destination	Cost	To get there
Packard	1	Packard
CS407	2	Packard-CS407
Hospital	10	Hospital
Caltrain	17	Caltrain
Union	6	Packard-CS407-Union
Stadium	10	Stadium
Dish	23	Packard-Dish

(Not necessarily stored as a table – how this information is represented will depend on the application)

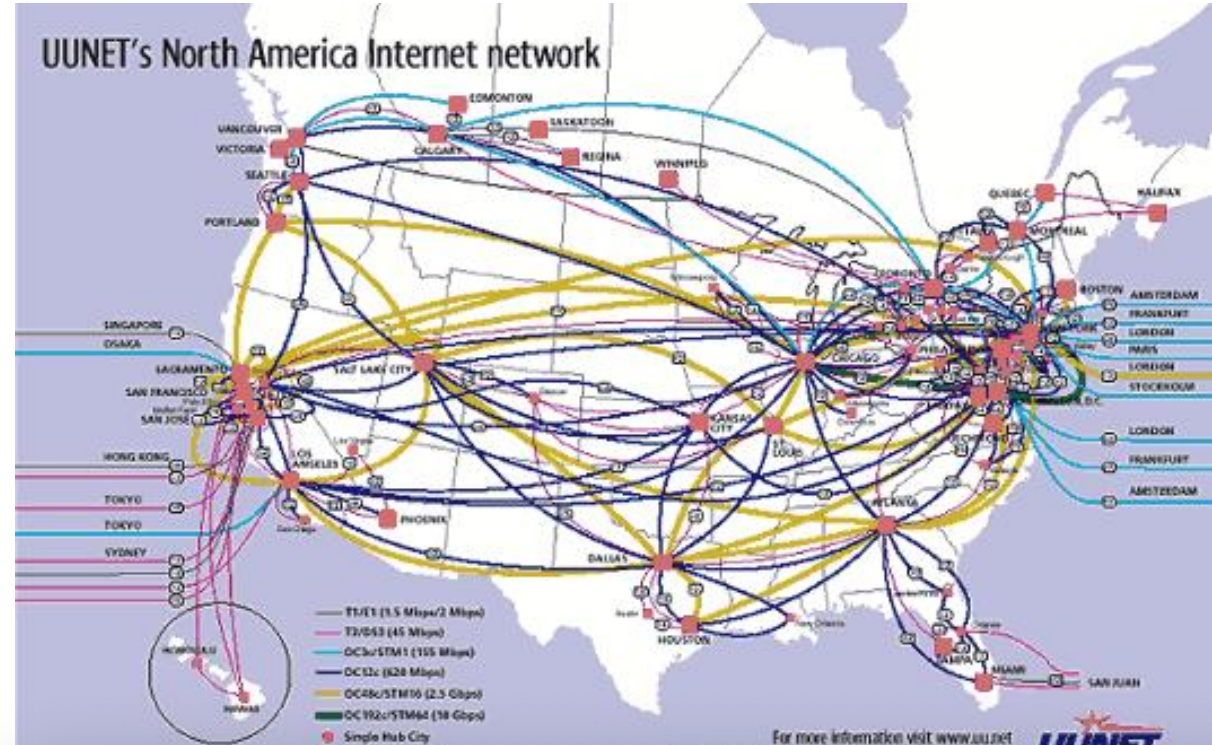
Example

- “what is the shortest path from Palo Alto to [anywhere else]” using BART, Caltrain, lightrail, MUNI, bus, Amtrak, bike, walking, uber/lyft.
- Edge weights have something to do with time, money, hassle.



Example

- Network routing
- I send information over the internet, from my computer to to all over the world.
- Each path has a cost which depends on link length, traffic, other costs, etc..
- How should we send packets?




```
moses — traceroute -a www.ethz.ch — 103x19

Last login: Mon Feb  7 09:27:47 on ttys003
moses@Mosess-MacBook-Pro ~ % traceroute -a www.ethz.ch
traceroute to www.ethz.ch (129.132.19.216), 64 hops max, 52 byte packets
 1 [AS0] 192.168.7.1 (192.168.7.1)  3.898 ms  2.066 ms  2.881 ms
 2 [AS0] 192.168.0.1 (192.168.0.1)  2.897 ms  4.720 ms  3.108 ms
 3 [AS0] 10.127.252.2 (10.127.252.2)  57.256 ms  5.571 ms  4.268 ms
 4 [AS32] he-rtr.stanford.edu (128.12.0.209)  4.039 ms  11.471 ms  4.628 ms
 5 [AS6939] 100gigabitethernet5-1.core1.pao1.he.net (184.105.177.237)  4.648 ms  3.839 ms  4.300 ms
 6 [AS6939] 100ge9-2.core1.sjc2.he.net (72.52.92.157)  5.949 ms  5.291 ms  4.980 ms
 7 [AS6939] 100ge10-2.core1.nyc4.he.net (184.105.81.217)  69.007 ms  66.575 ms  67.516 ms
 8 [AS6939] 100ge7-1.core1.lon2.he.net (72.52.92.165)  268.329 ms  191.401 ms  203.048 ms
 9 [AS6939] port-channel2.core3.lon2.he.net (184.105.64.2)  205.515 ms  350.183 ms  206.164 ms
10 [AS6939] port-channel12.core2.ams1.he.net (72.52.92.214)  144.263 ms  143.638 ms  146.034 ms
11 [AS1200] swice1-100ge-0-3-0-1.switch.ch (80.249.208.33)  161.119 ms  208.169 ms  185.621 ms
12 [AS559] swice4-b4.switch.ch (130.59.36.70)  219.228 ms  203.833 ms  204.402 ms
13 [AS559] swibf1-b2.switch.ch (130.59.36.113)  184.671 ms  204.955 ms  204.671 ms
14 [AS559] swiez3-b5.switch.ch (130.59.37.6)  205.079 ms  164.116 ms  245.086 ms
15 [AS559] rou-gw-lee-tengig-to-switch.ethz.ch (192.33.92.1)  204.296 ms  164.770 ms  162.913 ms
16 [AS559] rou-fw-rz-rz-gw.ethz.ch (192.33.92.169)  165.148 ms  322.839 ms  204.627 ms
```

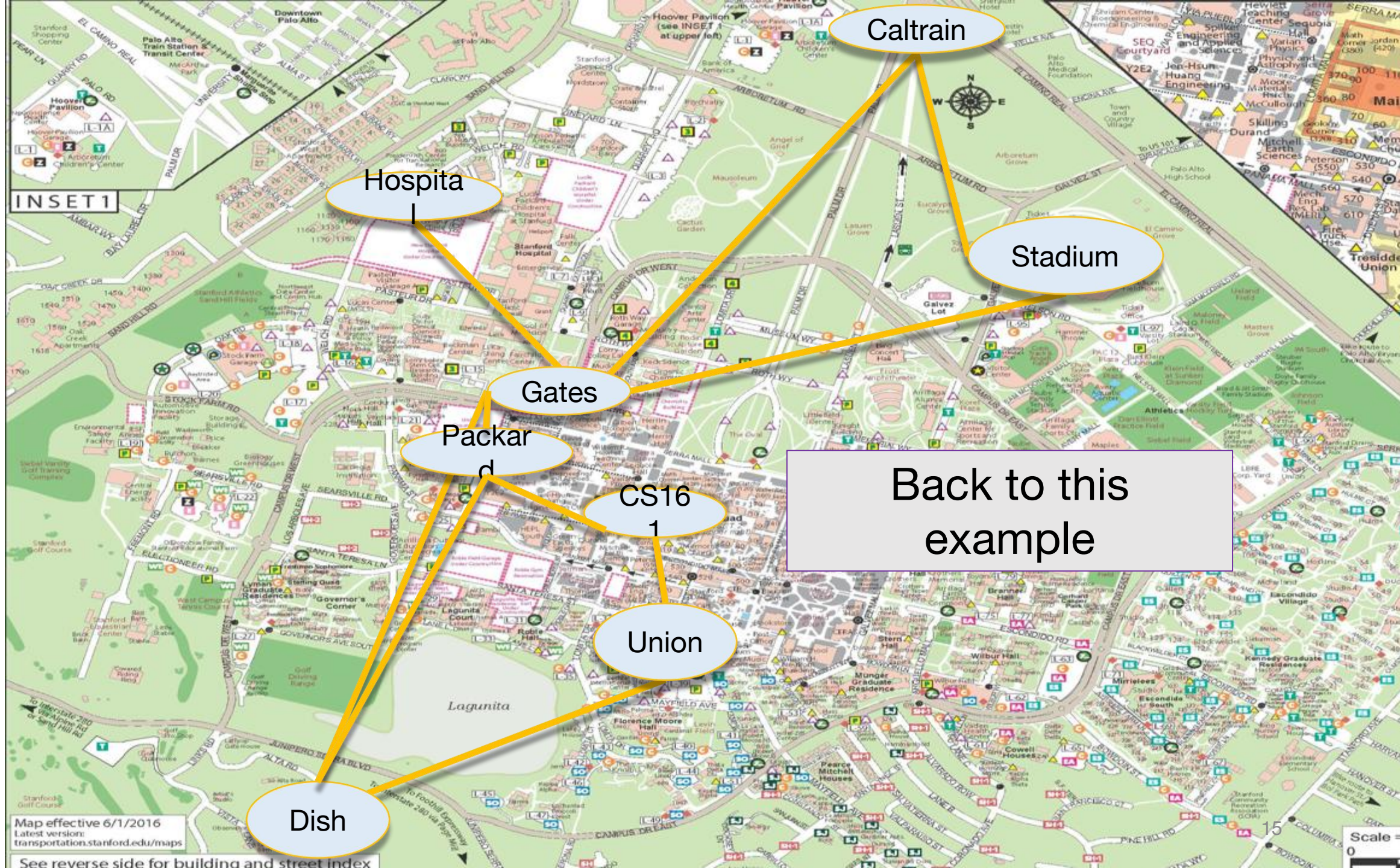

Aside: These are difficult problems

- Costs may change
 - If it's raining the cost of biking is higher
 - If a link is congested, the cost of routing a packet along it is higher
- The network might not be known
 - My computer doesn't store a map of the internet
- We want to do these tasks really quickly
 - I have time to bike to Berkeley, but not to think about whether I should bike to Berkeley...
 - More seriously, the internet.

This is a
joke.

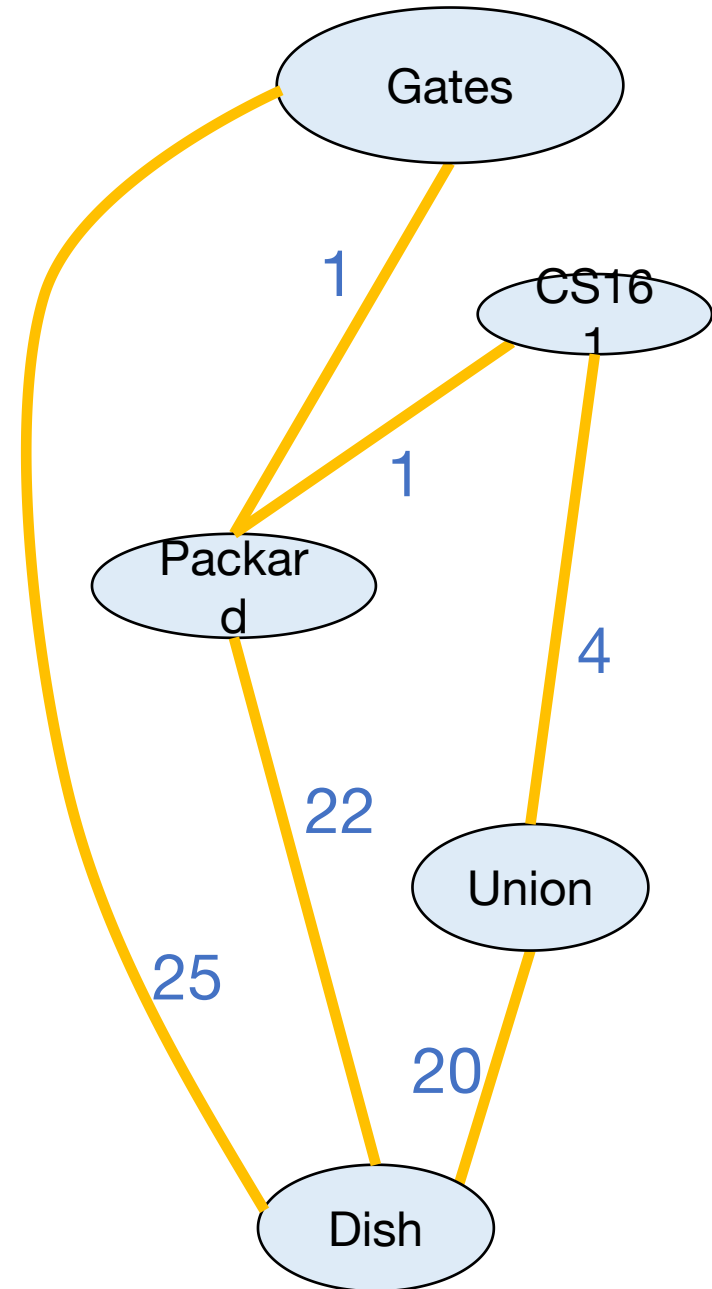


But let's ignore them for now.



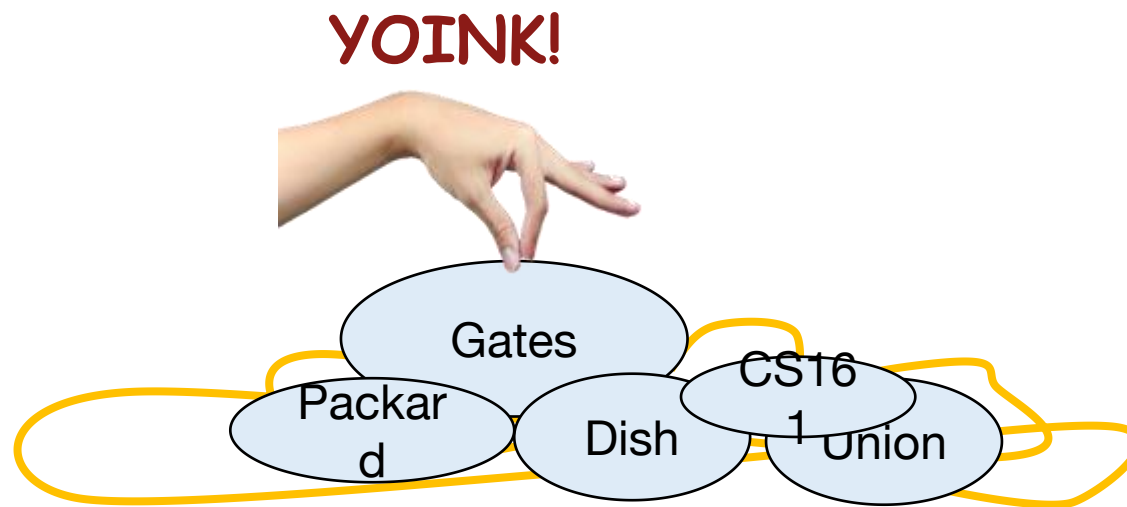
Dijkstra's algorithm

- Finds shortest paths from Gates to everywhere else.



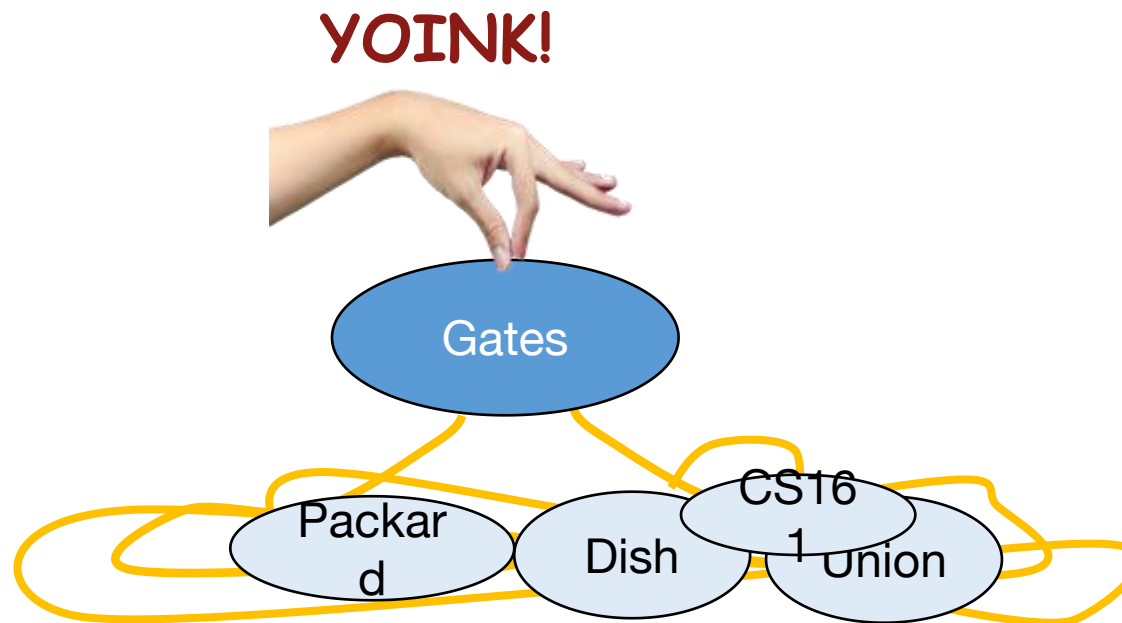
Dijkstra

intuition



Dijkstra intuition

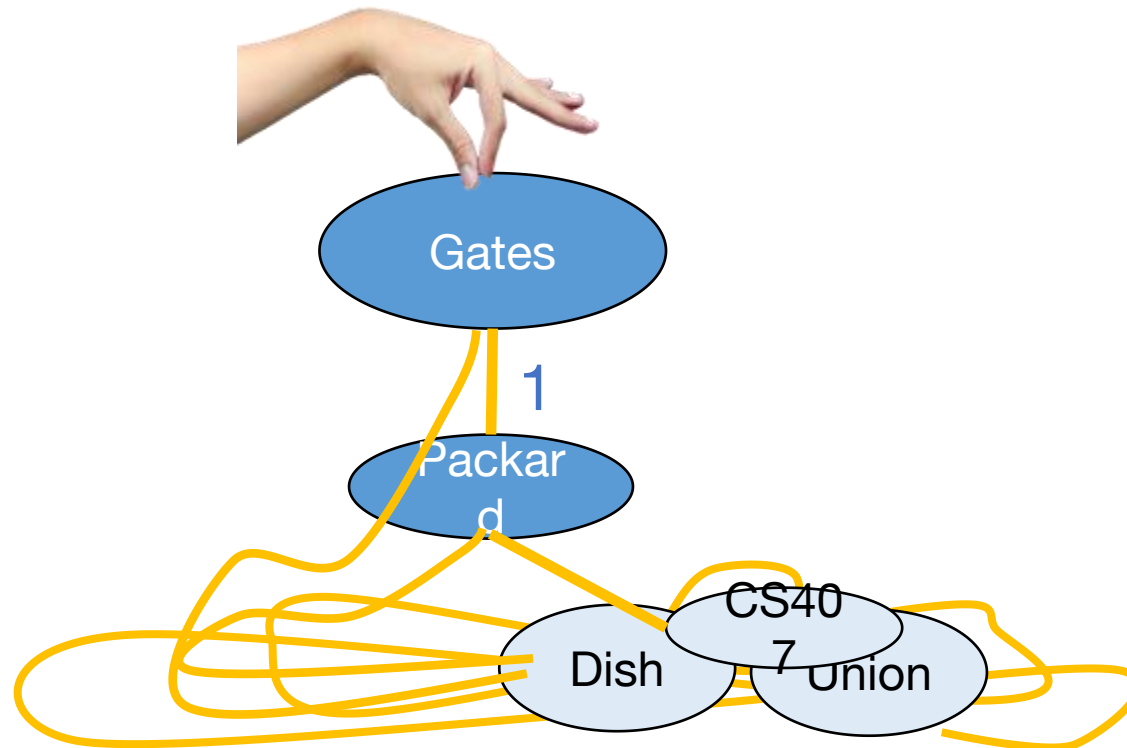
A vertex is done when it's
not on the ground
anymore.



Dijkstra

intuition

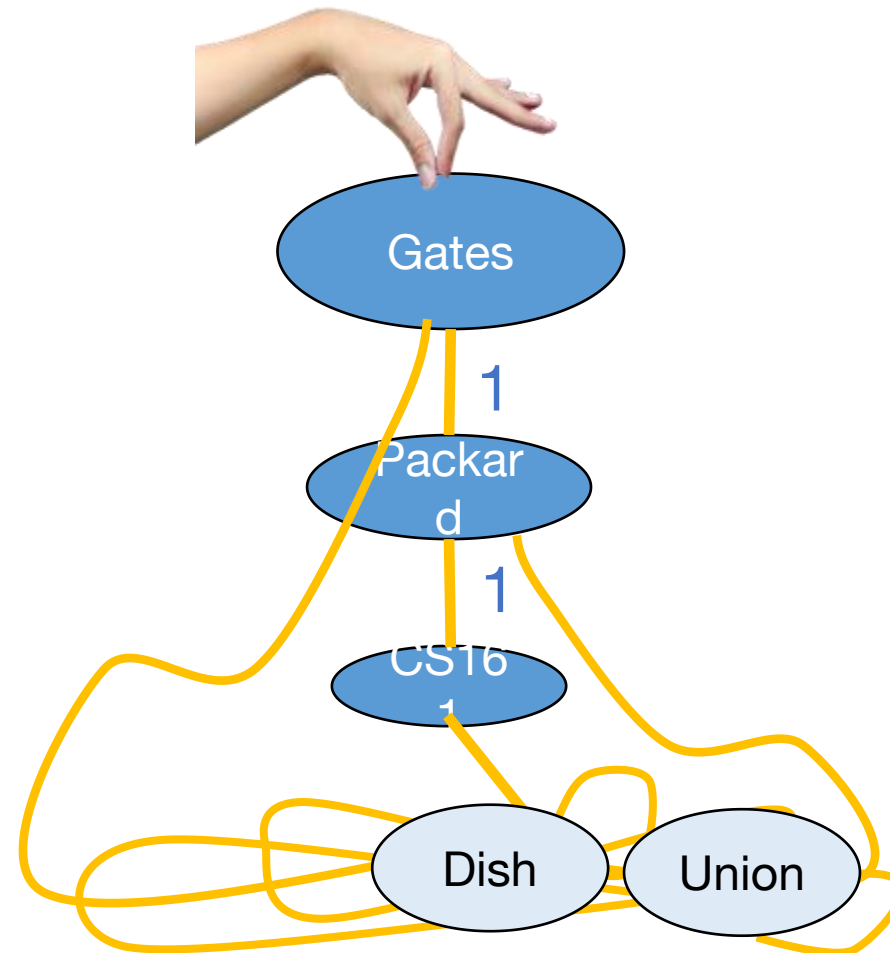
YOINK!



Dijkstra

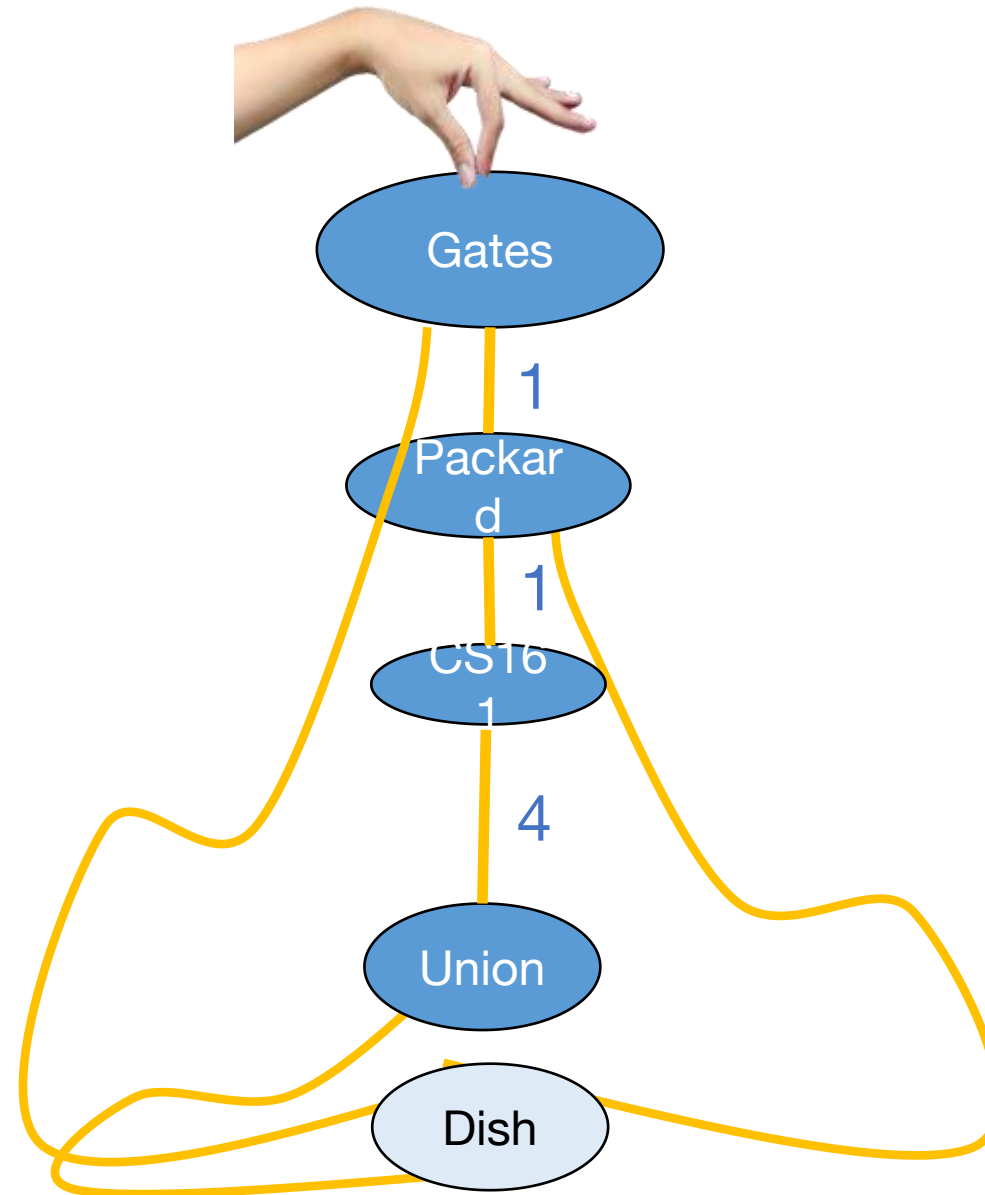
intuition

YOINK!

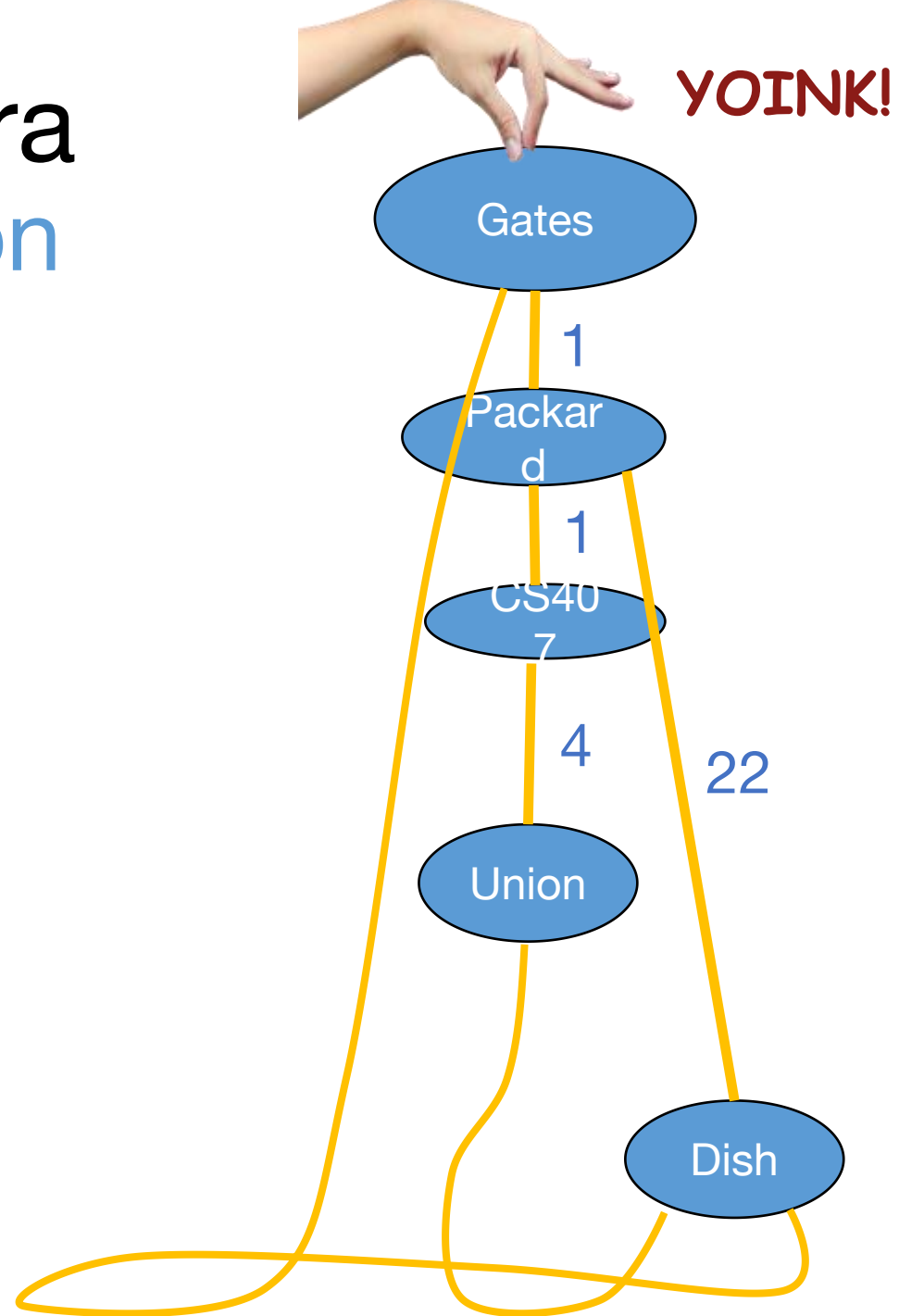


Dijkstra intuition

YOINK!



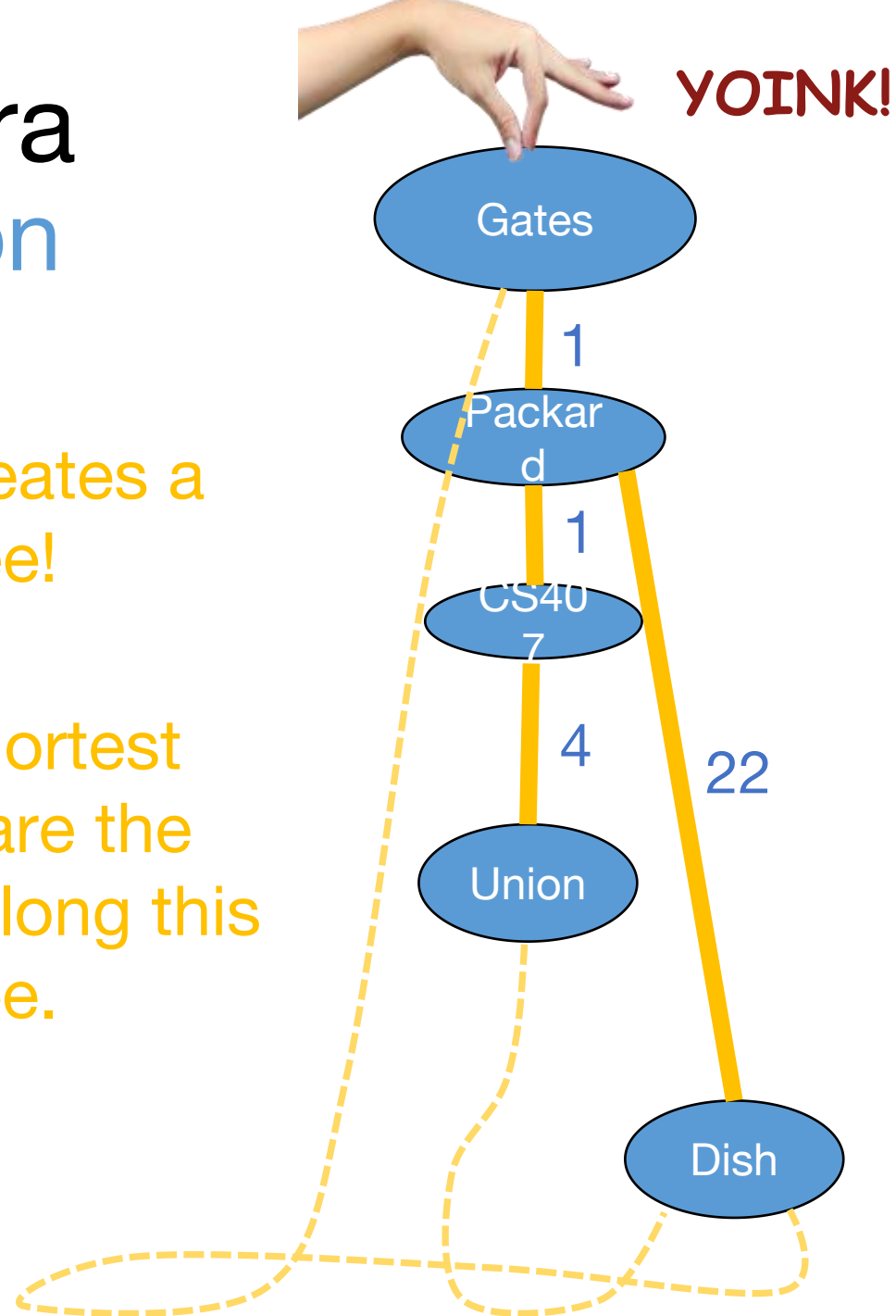
Dijkstra intuition



Dijkstra intuition

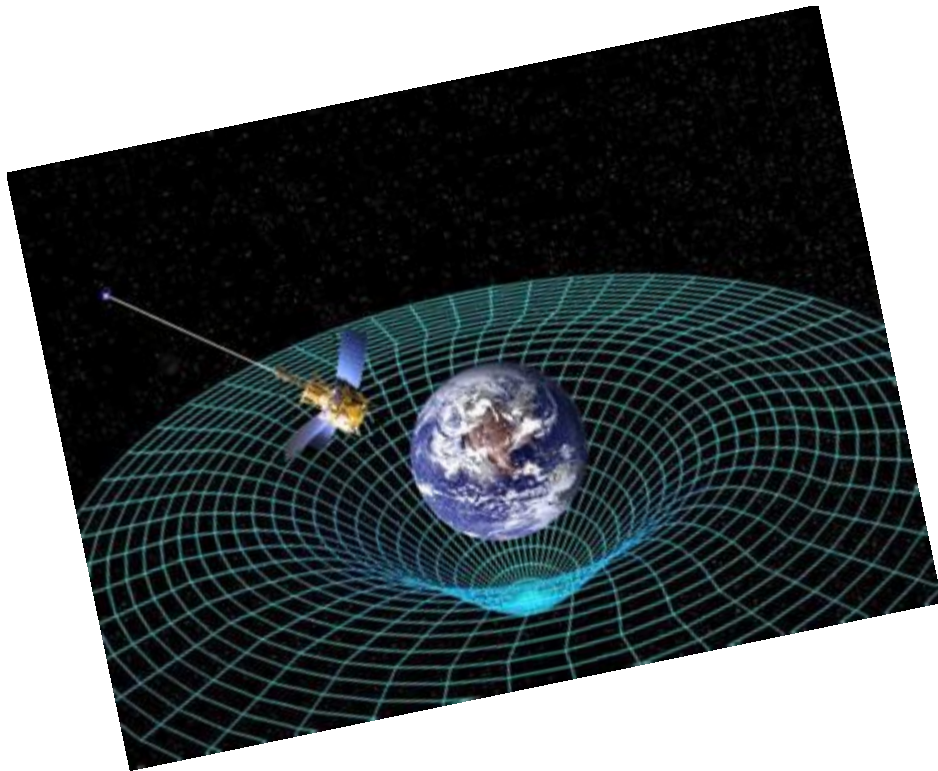
This creates a
tree!

The shortest
paths are the
lengths along this
tree.



How do we actually implement this?

- **Without** string and gravity?

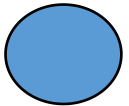


Dijkstra by example

How far is a node from Gates?



I'm not sure yet



I'm sure

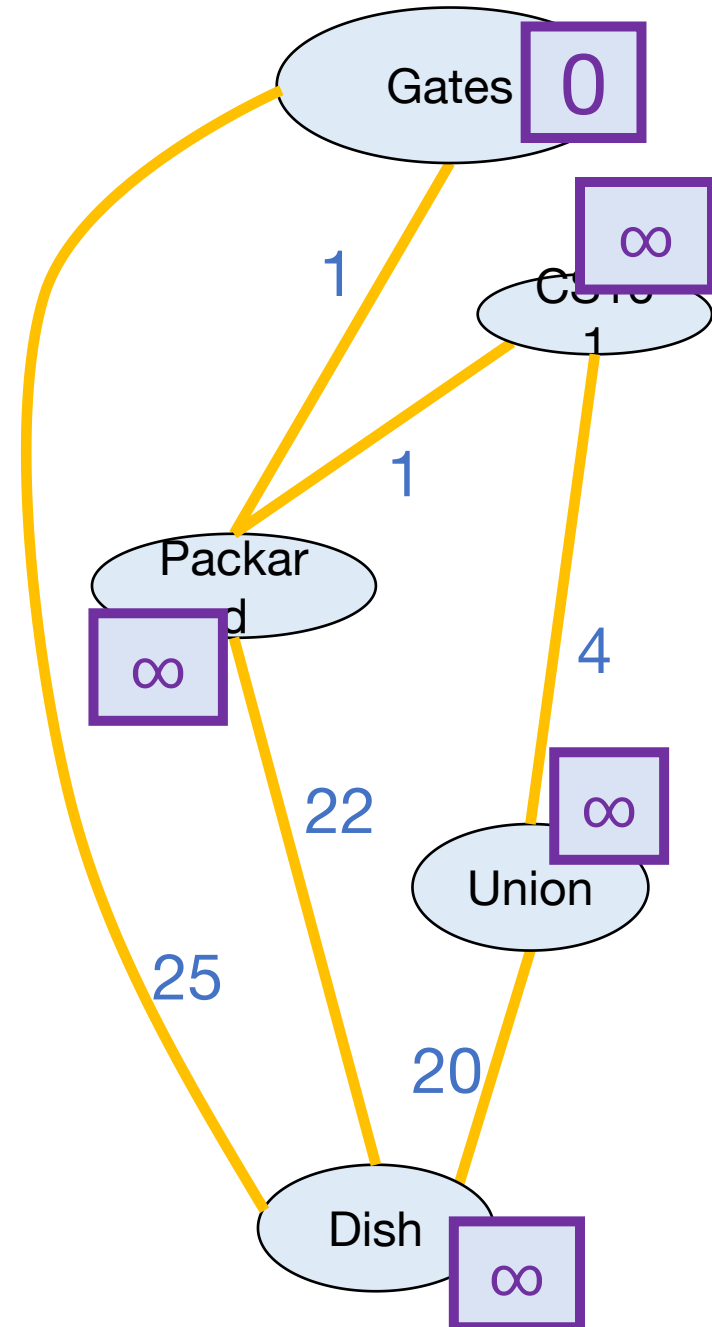


$x = d[v]$ is my best **over-estimate** for $\text{dist}(\text{Gates}, v)$.

Initialize $d[v] = \infty$
for all non-starting vertices v ,

and $d[\text{Gates}] = 0$

- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.

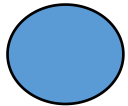


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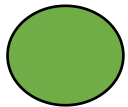
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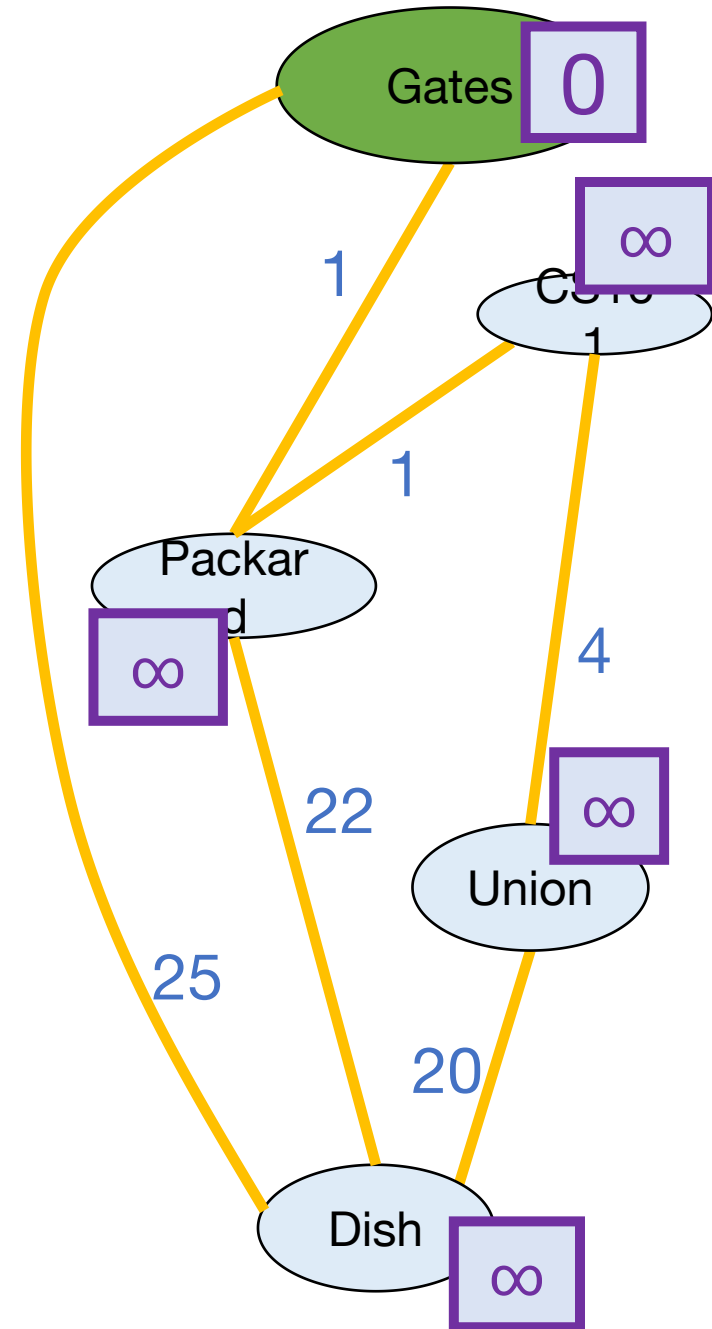


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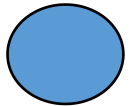


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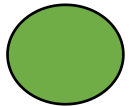
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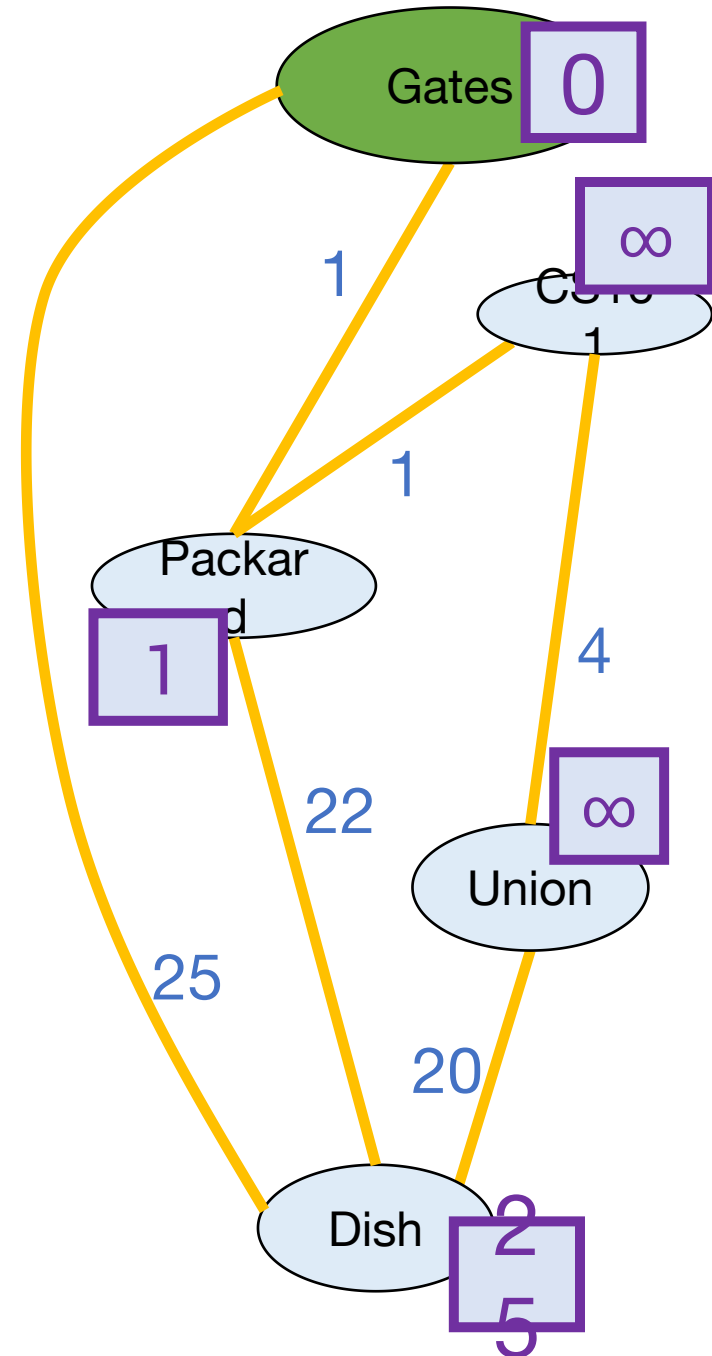


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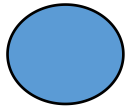


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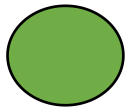
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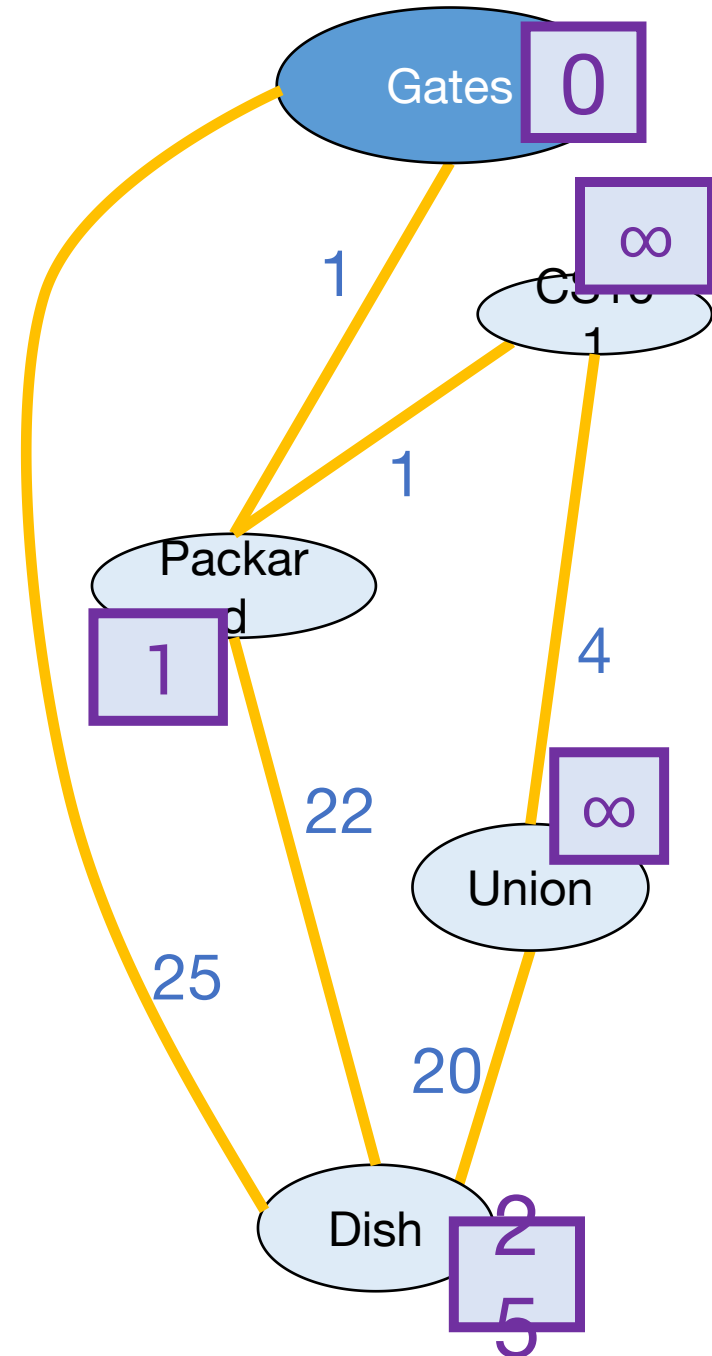


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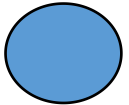


Dijkstra by example

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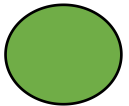
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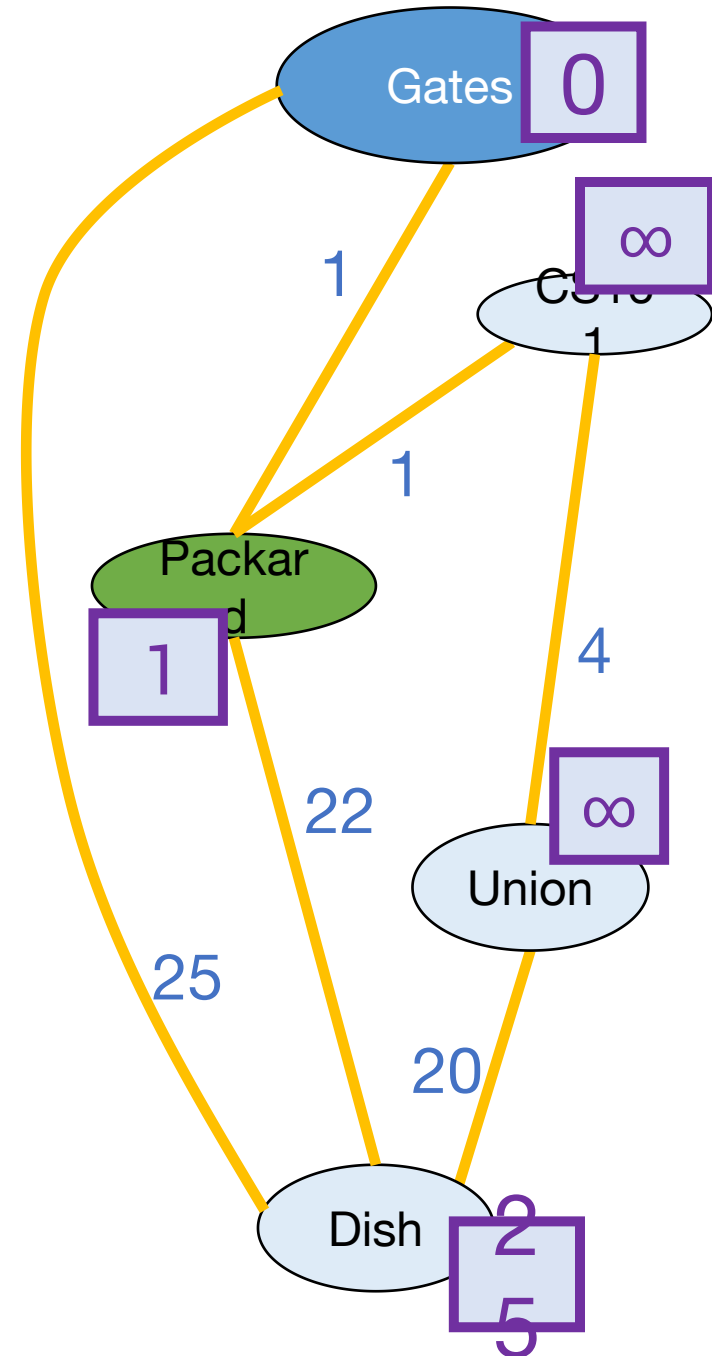
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Packard has three neighbors. What happens when we update them?

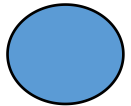


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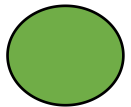
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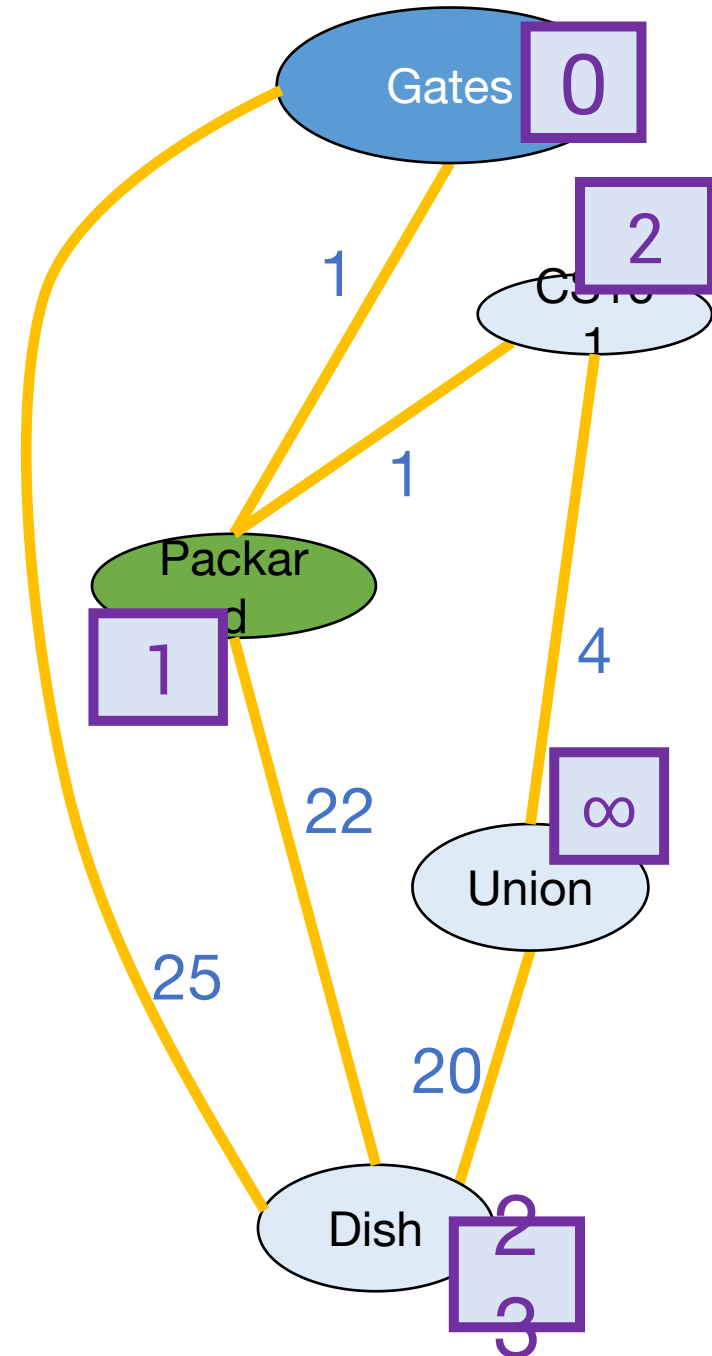
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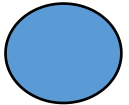


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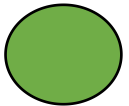
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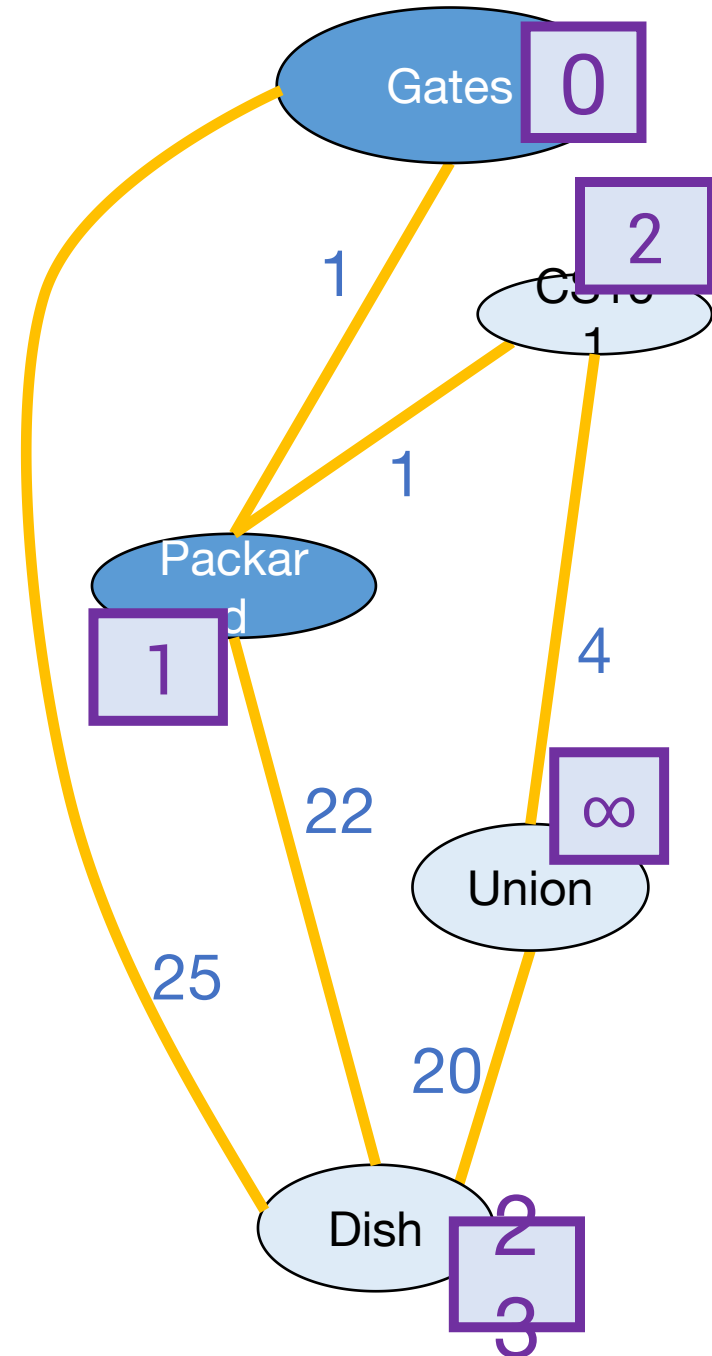


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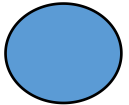


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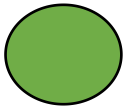
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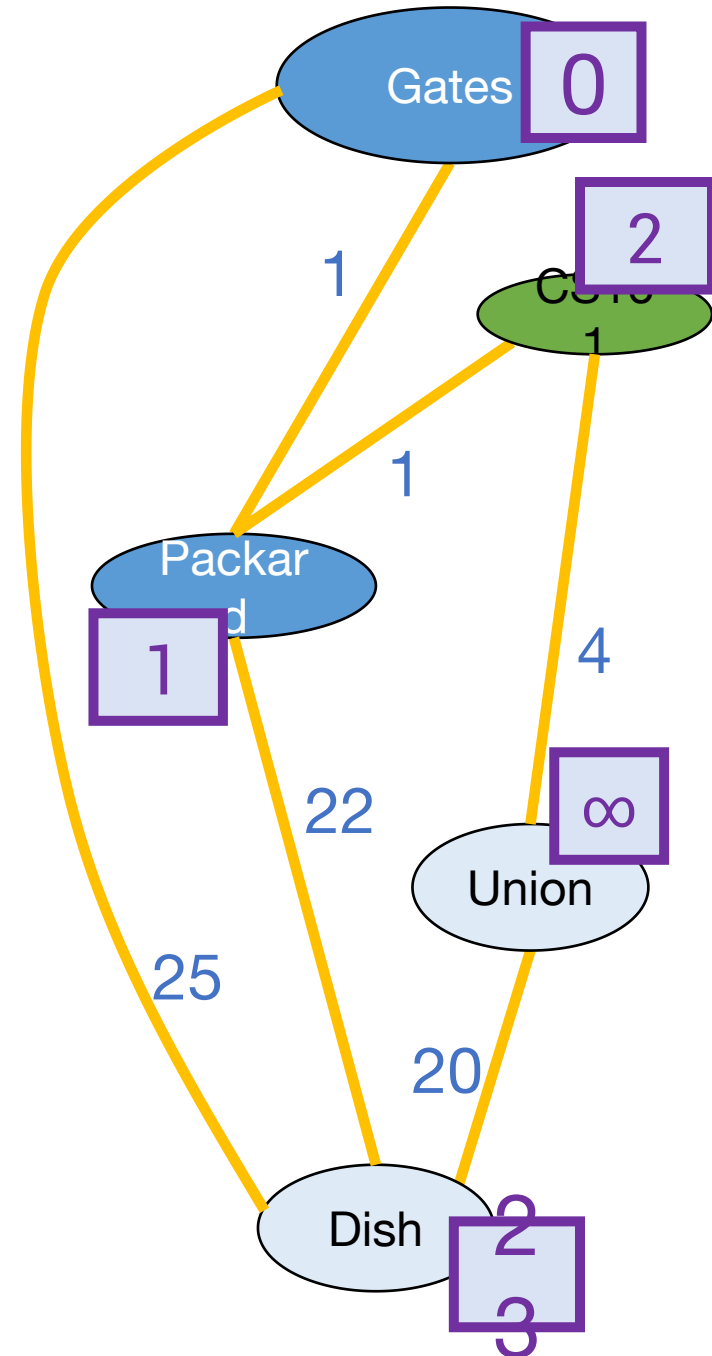


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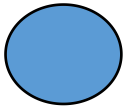


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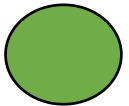
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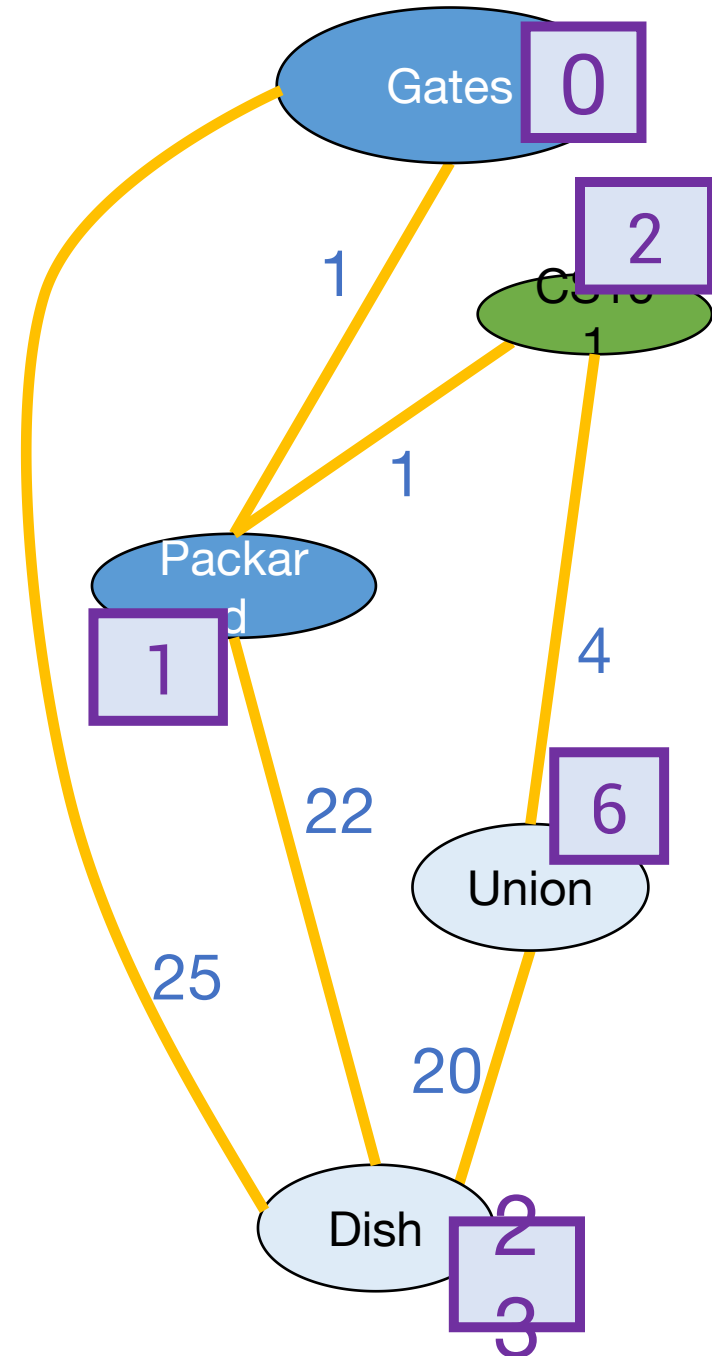


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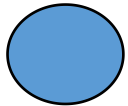


Dijkstra by example

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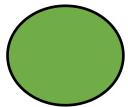
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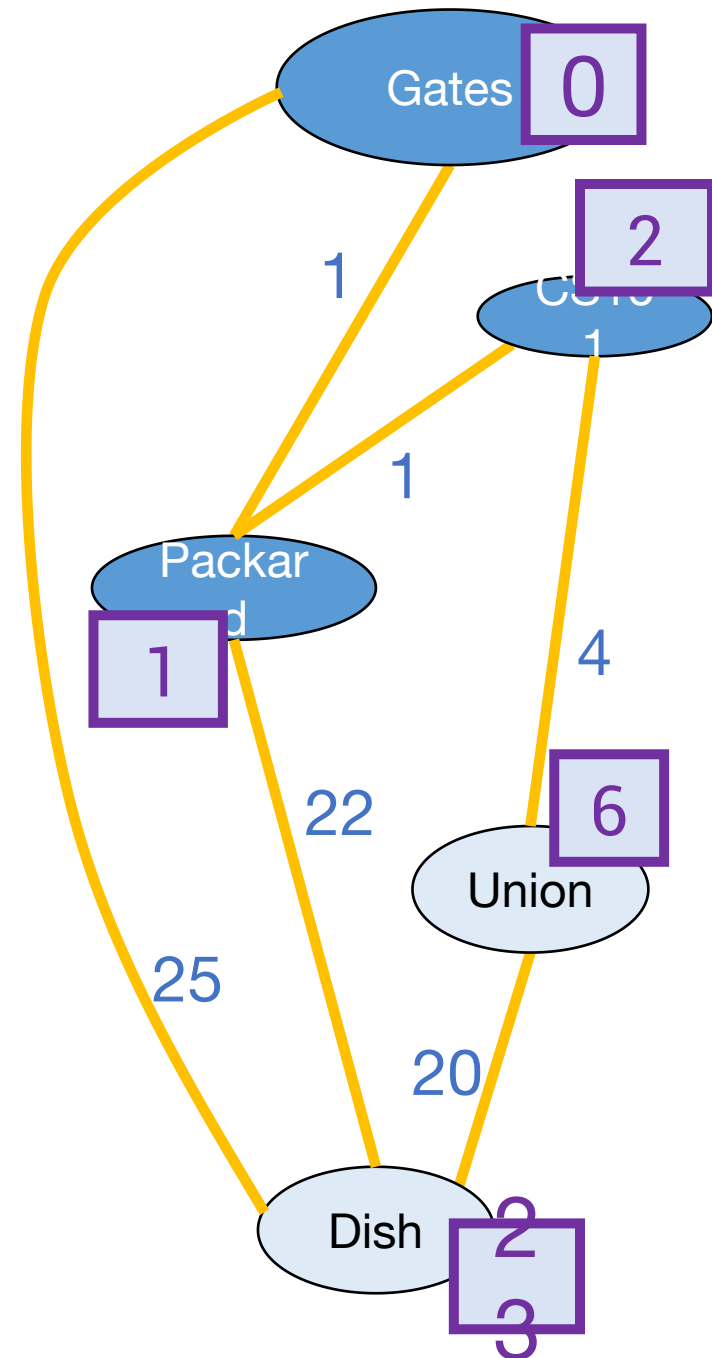


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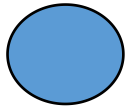


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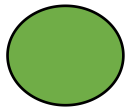
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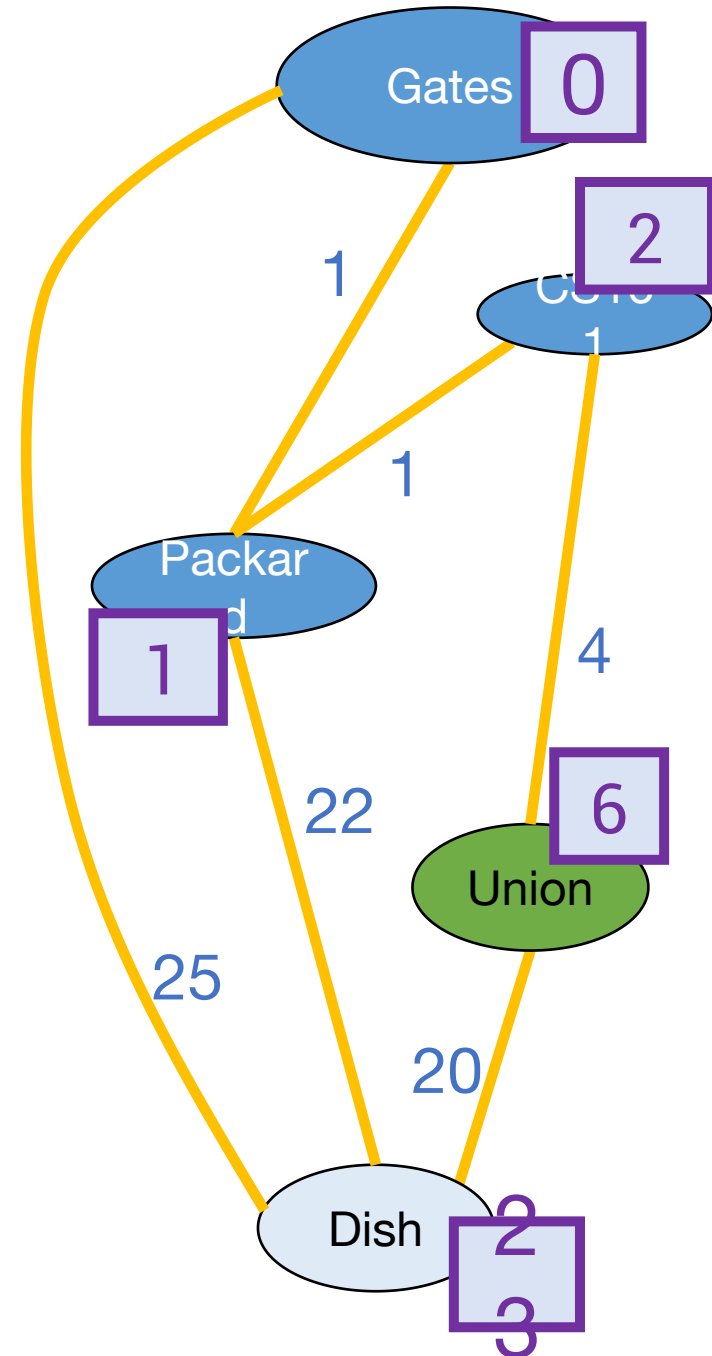


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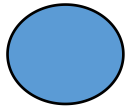


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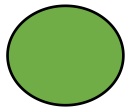
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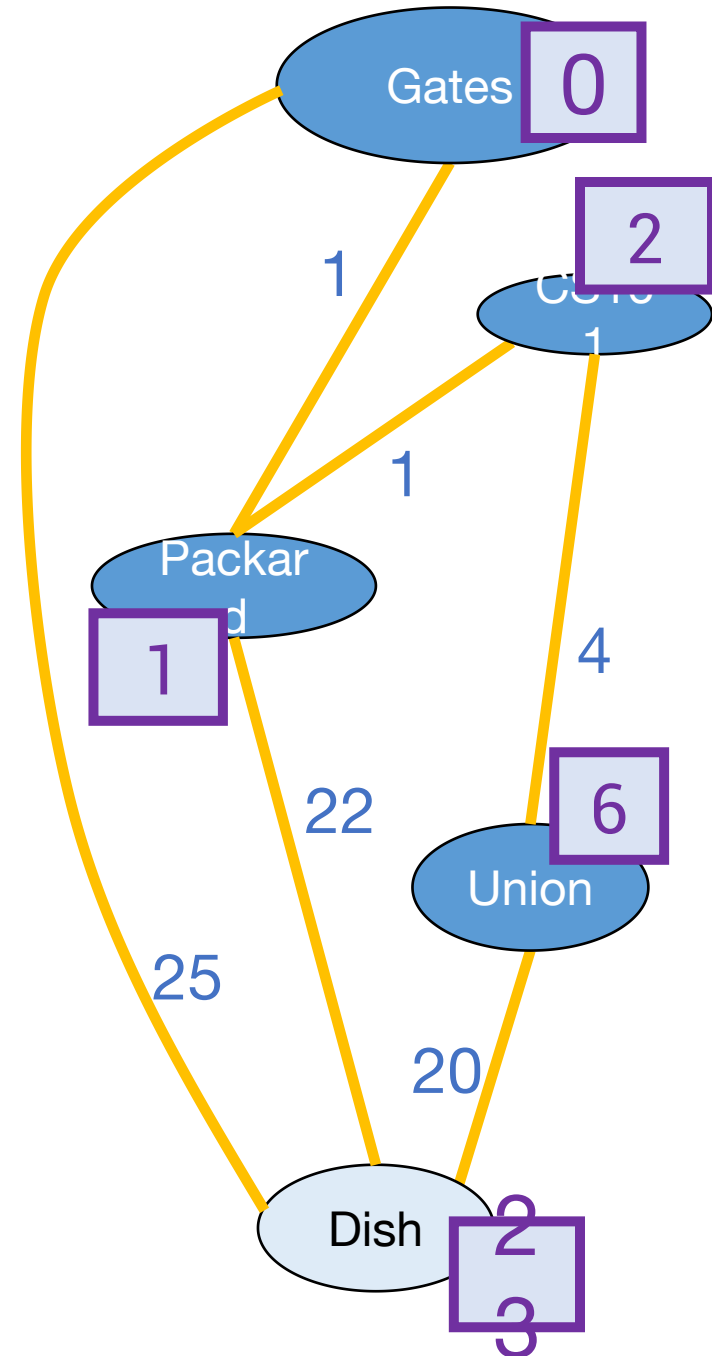


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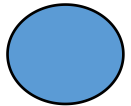


Dijkstra by example

How far is a node from Gates?



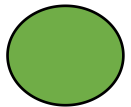
I'm not sure yet



I'm sure

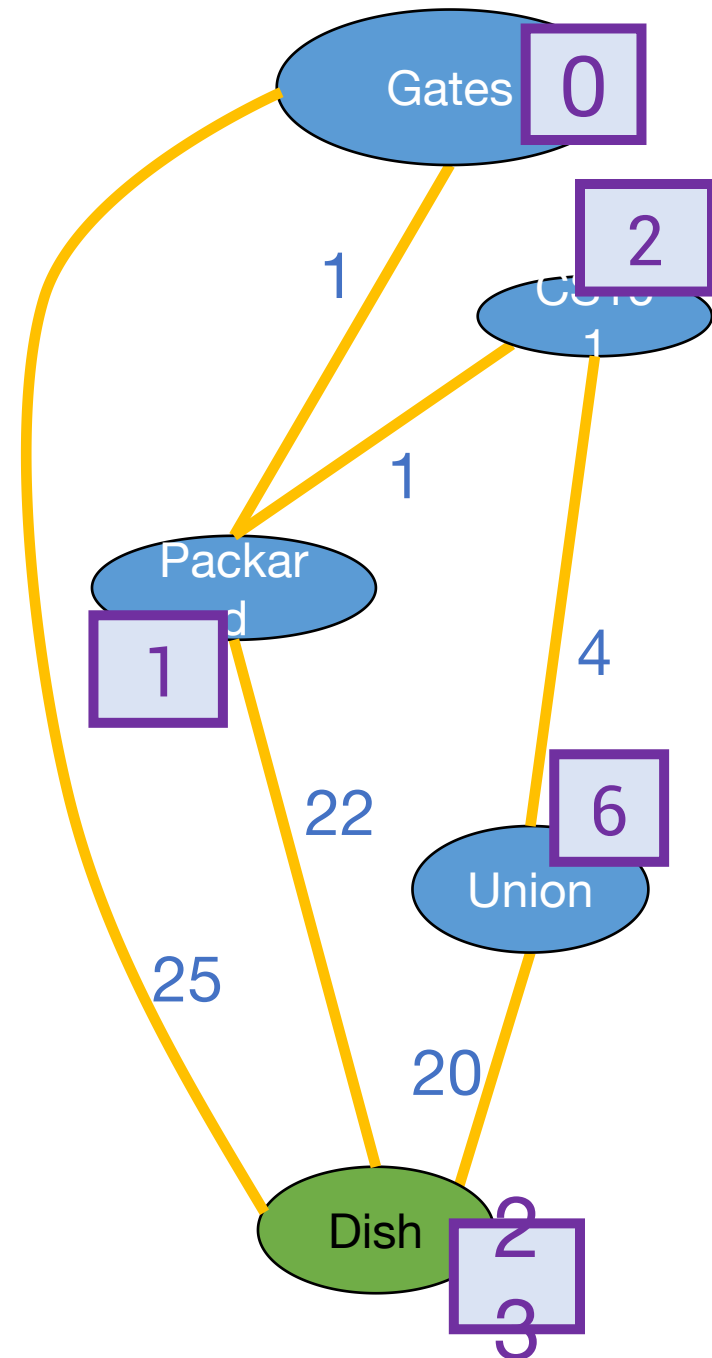


$x = d[v]$ is my best **over-estimate** for $\text{dist}(\text{Gates}, v)$.



Current node u

- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
- Update all u 's neighbors v :
 - $d[v] = \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u, v))$
- Mark u as **sure**.
- Repeat

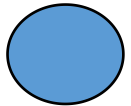


Dijkstra by example

How far is a node from Gates?



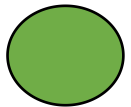
I'm not sure yet



I'm sure

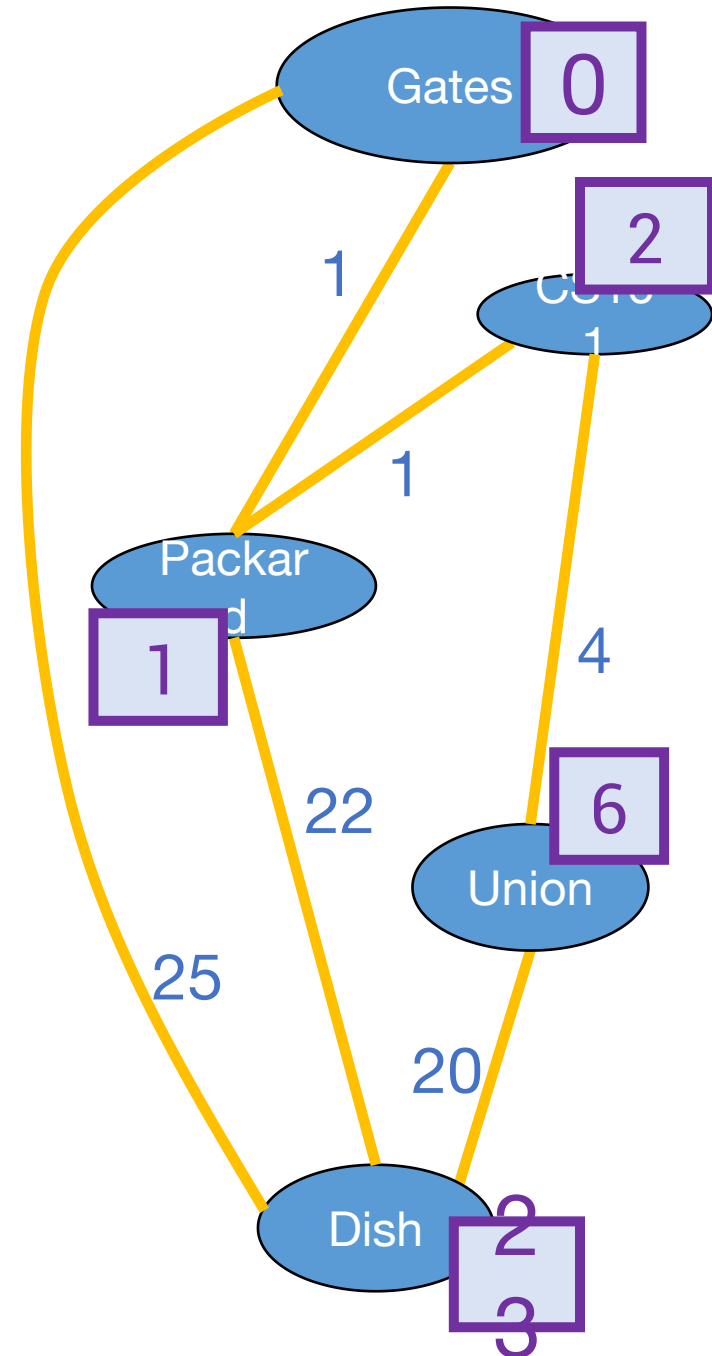


$x = d[v]$ is my best **over-estimate** for $\text{dist}(\text{Gates}, v)$.



Current node u

- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
- Update all u's neighbors v:
 - $d[v] = \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u, v))$
- Mark u as **sure**.
- Repeat

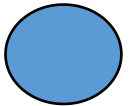


Dijkstra by example

How far is a node from Gates?



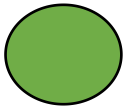
I'm not sure yet



I'm sure

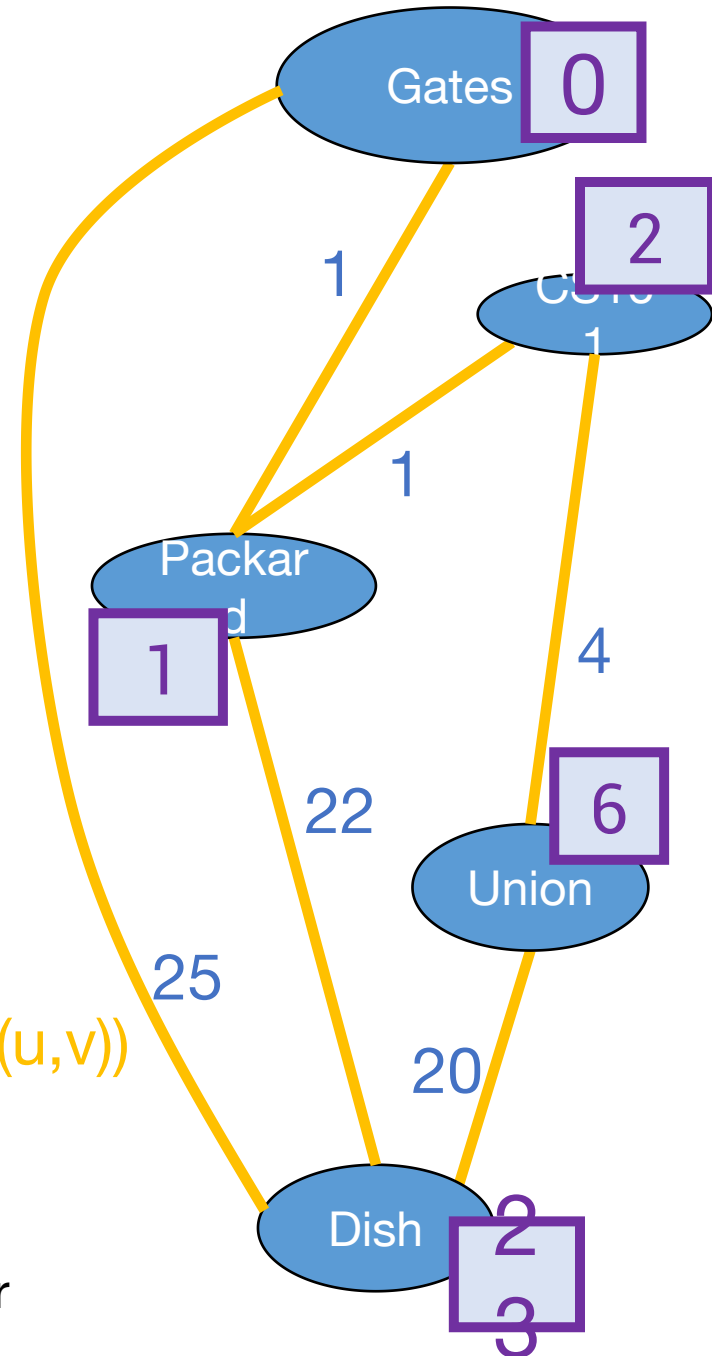


$x = d[v]$ is my best **over-estimate** for $\text{dist}(\text{Gates}, v)$.



Current node u

- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
- Update all u 's neighbors v :
 - $d[v] = \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u, v))$
- Mark u as **sure**.
- Repeat
- After all nodes are **sure**, say that $d(\text{Gates}, v) = d[v]$ for all v



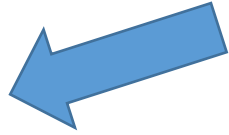
Dijkstra's algorithm

Dijkstra(G,s):

- Set all vertices to **not-sure**
- $d[v] = \infty$ for all v in V
- $d[s] = 0$
- While there are **not-sure** nodes:
 - Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
 - For v in u .neighbors:
 - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
 - Mark u as **sure**.
- Now $d(s, v) = d[v]$

Lots of implementation details left unexplained. We'll get to that!

As usual



- Does it work?
 - Yes.
- Is it fast?
 - Depends on how you implement it.

Why does this work?

- **Theorem:**

- Suppose we run Dijkstra on $G=(V,E)$, starting from s .
- At the end of the algorithm, the estimate $d[v]$ is the actual distance $d(s,v)$.

Let's rename "Gates"
to " s ", our starting
vertex.

- **Proof outline:**

- **Claim 1:** For all v , $d[v] \geq d(s,v)$.
- **Claim 2:** When a vertex v is marked **sure**, $d[v] = d(s,v)$.

- **Claims 1 and 2 imply the theorem.**

- When v is marked **sure**, $d[v] = d(s,v)$.
- $d[v] \geq d(s,v)$ and never increases, so after v is **sure**, $d[v]$ stops changing.
- This implies that at any time after v is marked **sure**, $d[v] = d(s,v)$.
- All vertices are **sure** at the end, so all vertices end up with $d[v] = d(s,v)$.

Claim 2

Claim 1 + def of
algorithm

Next let's prove the claims!

Claim 1

$d[v] \geq d(s,v)$ for all v .

Informally:

- Every time we update $d[v]$, we have a path in mind:

$$d[v] \leftarrow \min(\text{d}[v] , d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$

Whatever path we
had in mind before

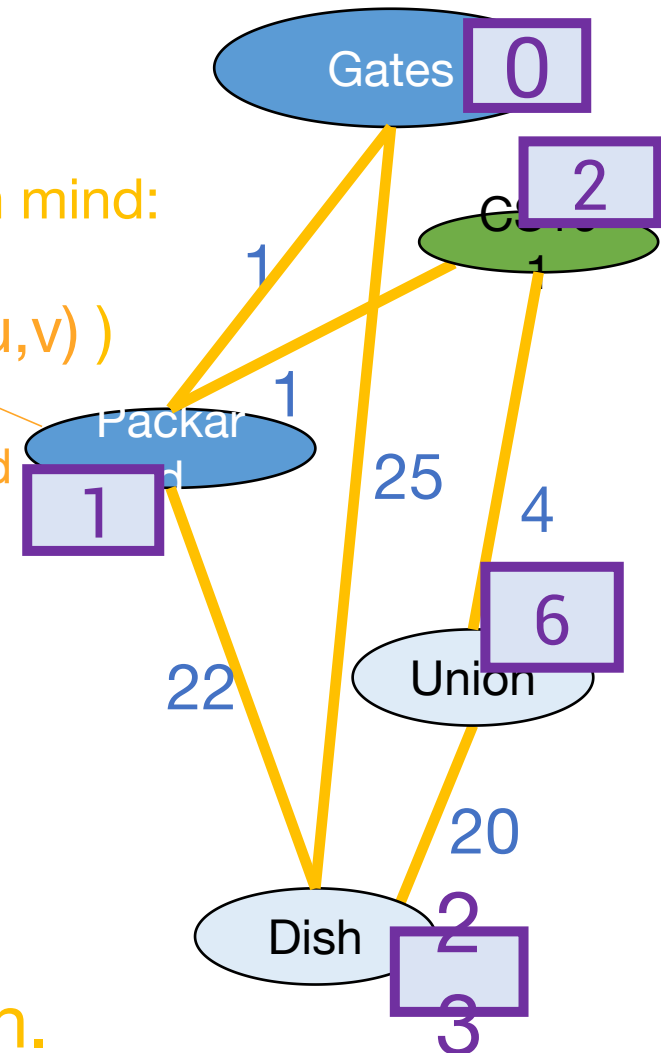
The shortest path to u , and
then the edge from u to v .

- $d[v]$ = length of the path we have in mind
 \geq length of shortest path
 $= d(s,v)$

Formally:

- We should prove this by induction.
 - (See skipped slide or do it yourself)

Intuition!



Claim 1

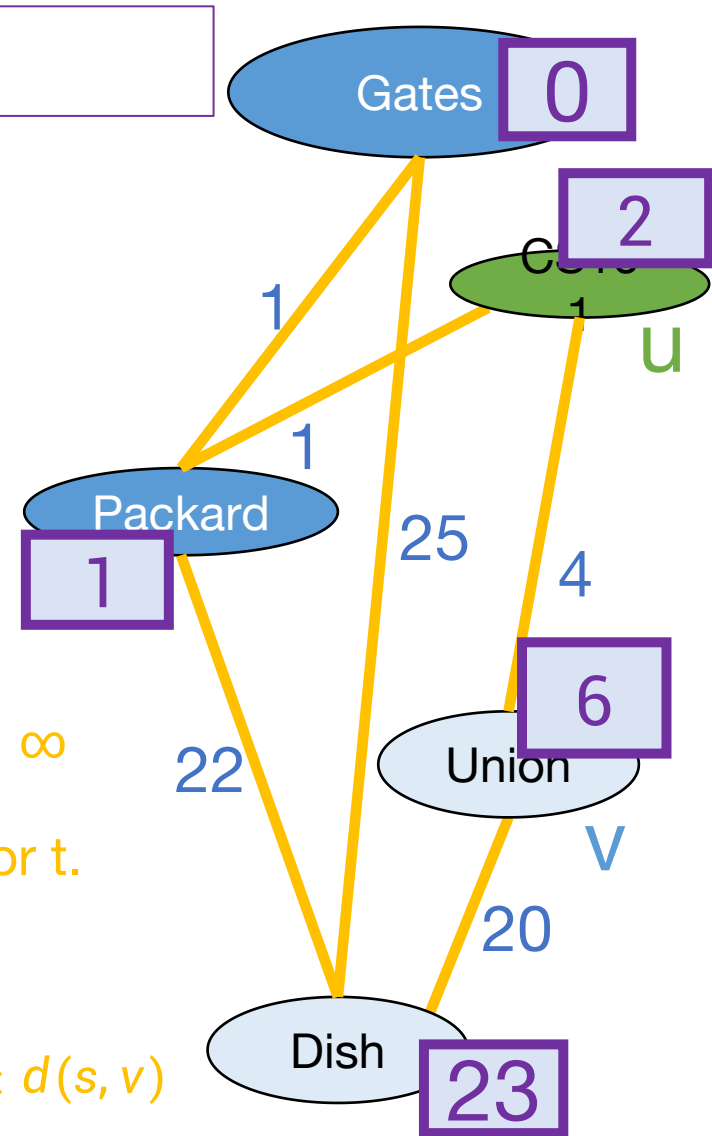
$d[v] \geq d(s,v)$ for all v .

- Inductive hypothesis.
 - After t iterations of Dijkstra, $d[v] \geq d(s,v)$ for all v .
- Base case:
 - At step 0, $d(s, s) = 0$, and $d(s, v) \leq \infty$
- Inductive step: say hypothesis holds for t .
 - At step $t+1$:
 - Pick u ; for each neighbor v :
 - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + w(u,v))$

By induction,
 $d(s, v) \leq d[v]$

$d(s, v) \leq d(s, u) + d(u, v)$
 $\leq d[u] + w(u, v)$
 using induction again for $d[u]$

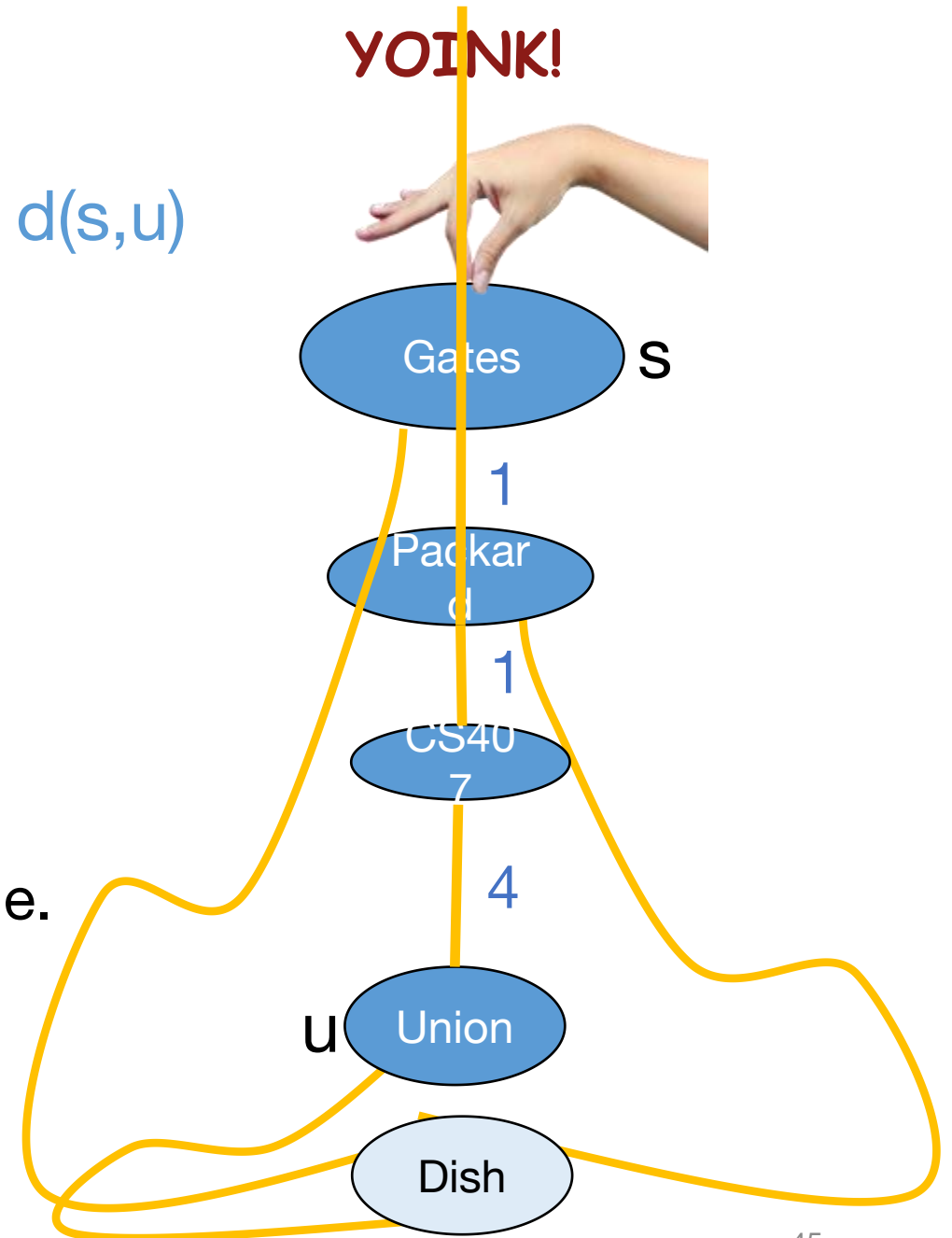
So the inductive hypothesis holds for $t+1$, and Claim 1 follows.



Intuition for Claim 2

When a vertex u is marked sure, $d[u] = d(s,u)$

- The first path that lifts u off the ground is the shortest one.
- Let's prove it!
 - Or at least see a proof outline.



Claim 2

When a vertex u is marked sure, $d[u] = d(s,u)$

- **Inductive Hypothesis:**
 - When we mark the t 'th vertex v as sure, $d[v] = \text{dist}(s,v)$.
- **Base case ($t=1$):**
 - The first vertex marked **sure** is s , and $d[s] = d(s,s) = 0$.
(Assuming edge weights are non-negative!)
- **Inductive step:**
 - Assume by induction that every v already marked **sure** has $d[v] = d(s,v)$.
 - Suppose that we are about to add u to the **sure** list.
 - That is, we picked u in the first line here:

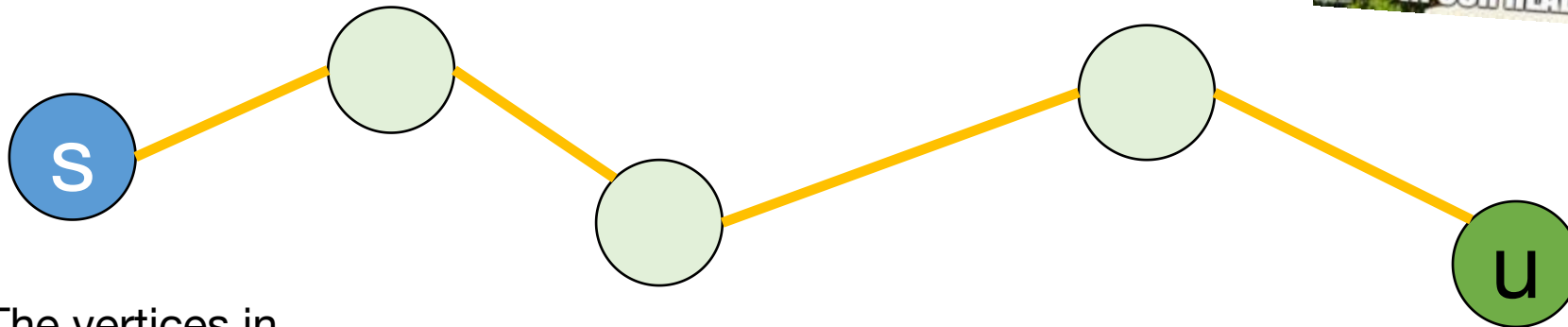
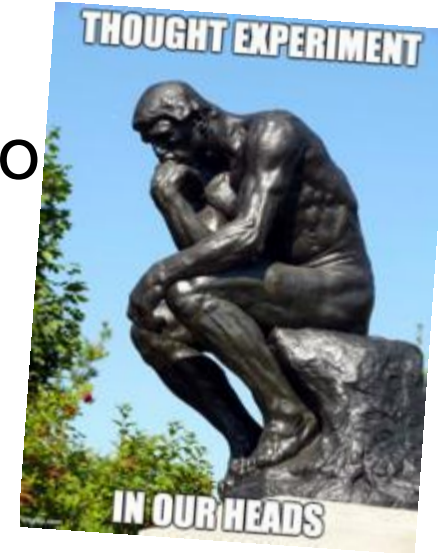
- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
 - Update all u 's neighbors v :
 - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
 - Mark u as **sure**.
 - Repeat
 - Want to show that $d[u] = d(s,u)$.

Claim 2

Inductive step

Temporary definition:
 v is “good” means that $d[v] = d(s, v)$

- Want to show that u is good.
- Consider a true shortest path from s to



The vertices in between are beige because they may or may not be **sure**.

True shortest path.

Claim 2

Inductive step

Temporary definition:
 v is “good” means that $d[v] = d^*(s, v)$



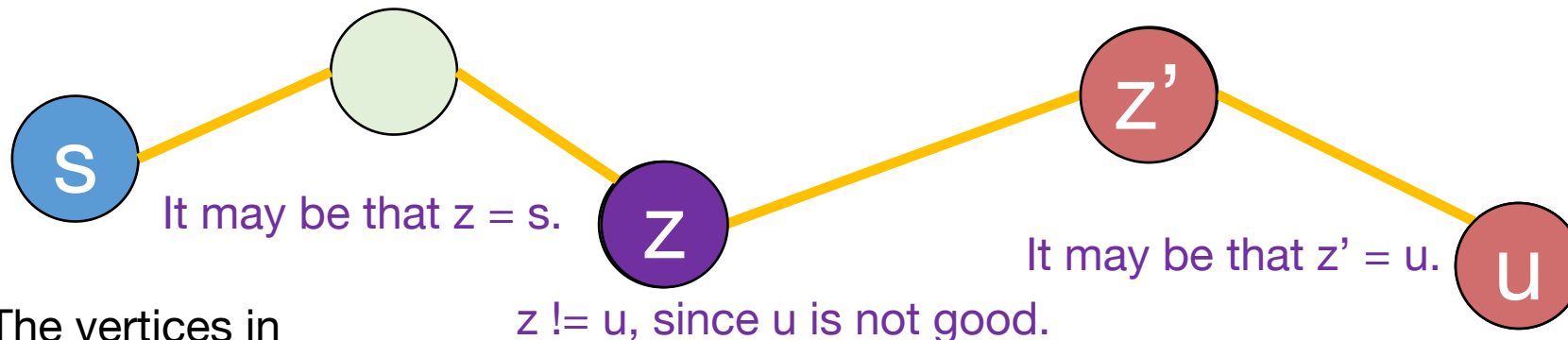
means
good



means not
good

“by way of contradiction”

- Want to show that u is good. **BWOC, suppose u isn't good.**
- Say z is the last good vertex before u (on shortest path to u).
- z' is the vertex after z .



The vertices in between are beige because they may or may not be **sure**.


True shortest path.

Claim 2

Inductive step

Temporary definition:
v is “good” means that $d[v] =$

 $d(s, v)$
means
good

 means not
good

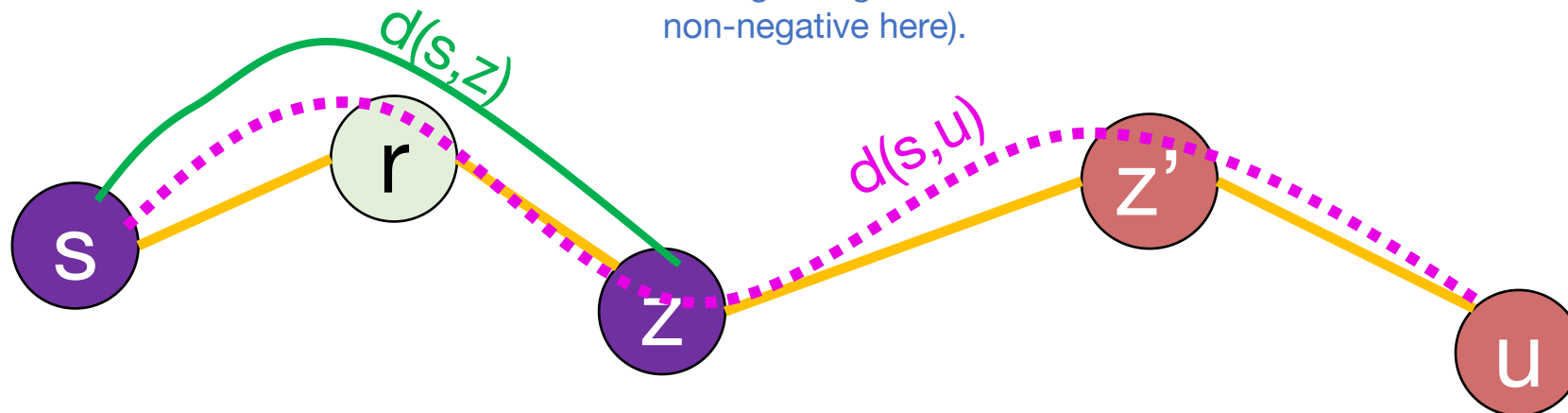
- Want to show that u is good. BWOOC, suppose u isn't good.

$$d[z] = d(s, z) \leq d(s, u) \leq d[u]$$

z is
good

Subpaths of
shortest paths
are shortest
paths.

(We're also using that
the edge weights are
non-negative here).



Claim 2

Inductive step

Temporary definition:
v is “good” means that $d[v] =$



means
good



means not
good

- Want to show that u is good. B.W.O.C, suppose u isn't good.

$$d[z] = d(s, z) \leq d(s, u) \leq d[u]$$

z is
good

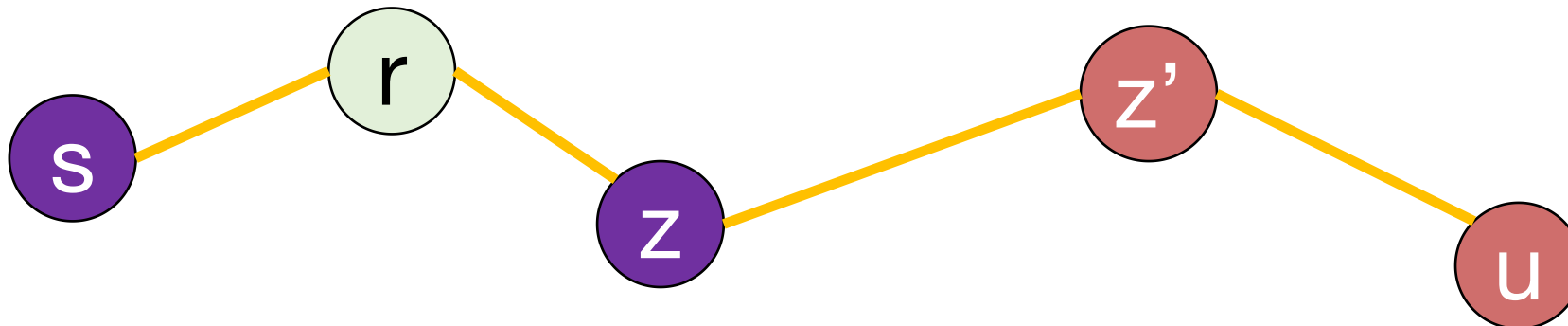
Subpaths of
shortest paths
are shortest

Claim 1

- Since u is not good, $d[z] \neq d[u]$.

- So $d[z] < d[u]$, so z is sure.

We chose u so that $d[u]$ was
smallest of the unsure vertices.




Claim 2

Inductive step

Temporary definition:
v is “good” means that $d[v] =$

 $d(s, v)$ means good

 means not good

- Want to show that u is good. BWOOC, suppose u isn't good.

$$d[z] = d(s, z) \leq d(s, u) \leq d[u]$$

z is good

Subpaths of shortest paths are shortest paths.

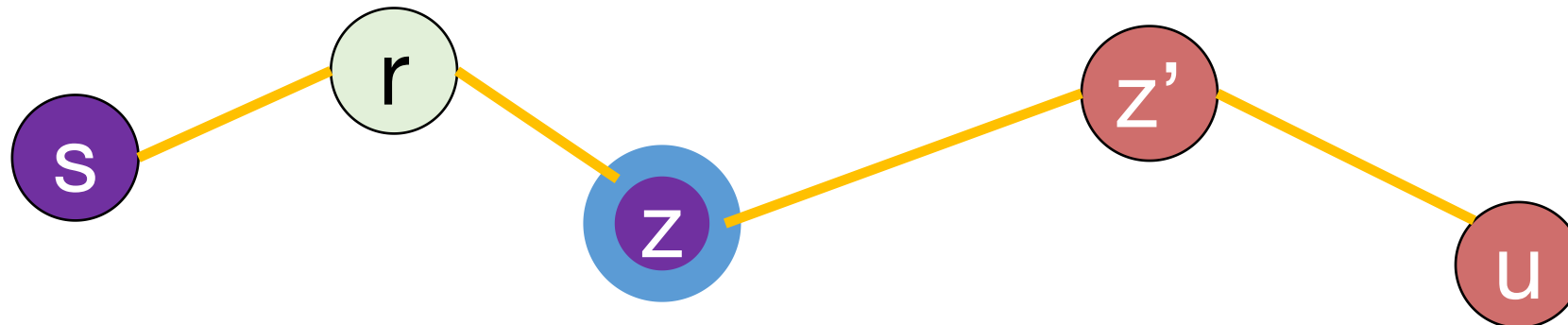
Claim 1

- If $d[z] = d[u]$, then u is good.

But u is not good!

- So $d[z] < d[u]$, so z is sure.

We chose u so that $d[u]$ was smallest of the unsure vertices.




Claim 2

Inductive step

Temporary definition:
v is “good” means that $d[v] =$

 $d(s,v)$
means
good

 means not
good

- Want to show that u is good. BWOC, suppose u isn't good.

- If z is **sure** then we've already updated z' :

- $d[z'] \leq d[z] + w(z, z')$ def of update
 $d[z'] \leftarrow \min\{d[z'], d[z] + w(z, z')\}$

That is, the value
of $d[z]$ when z
was marked
sure...

$$= d(s, z) + w(z, z')$$

By induction when z was added
to the sure list it had $d(s, z) = d[z]$

$$= d(s, z')$$

sub-paths of shortest paths are shortest
paths

Claim 1

$$\leq d[z']$$

So $d(s, z') = d[z']$ and so z' is good.



Claim 2

Back to this
slide

When a vertex u is marked sure, $d[u] = d(s,u)$

- **Inductive Hypothesis:**
 - When we mark the t 'th vertex v as sure, $d[v] = \text{dist}(s,v)$.
- **Base case:**
 - The first vertex marked **sure** is s , and $d[s] = d(s,s) = 0$.
- **Inductive step:**
 - Suppose that we are about to add u to the **sure** list.
 - That is, we picked u in the first line here:

- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
 - Update all u 's neighbors v :
 - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
 - Mark u as **sure**.
 - Repeat
 - Assume by induction that every v already marked **sure** has $d[v] = d(s,v)$.
 - Want to show that $d[u] = d(s,u)$.

Conclusion: Claim 2 holds!

Why does this work?

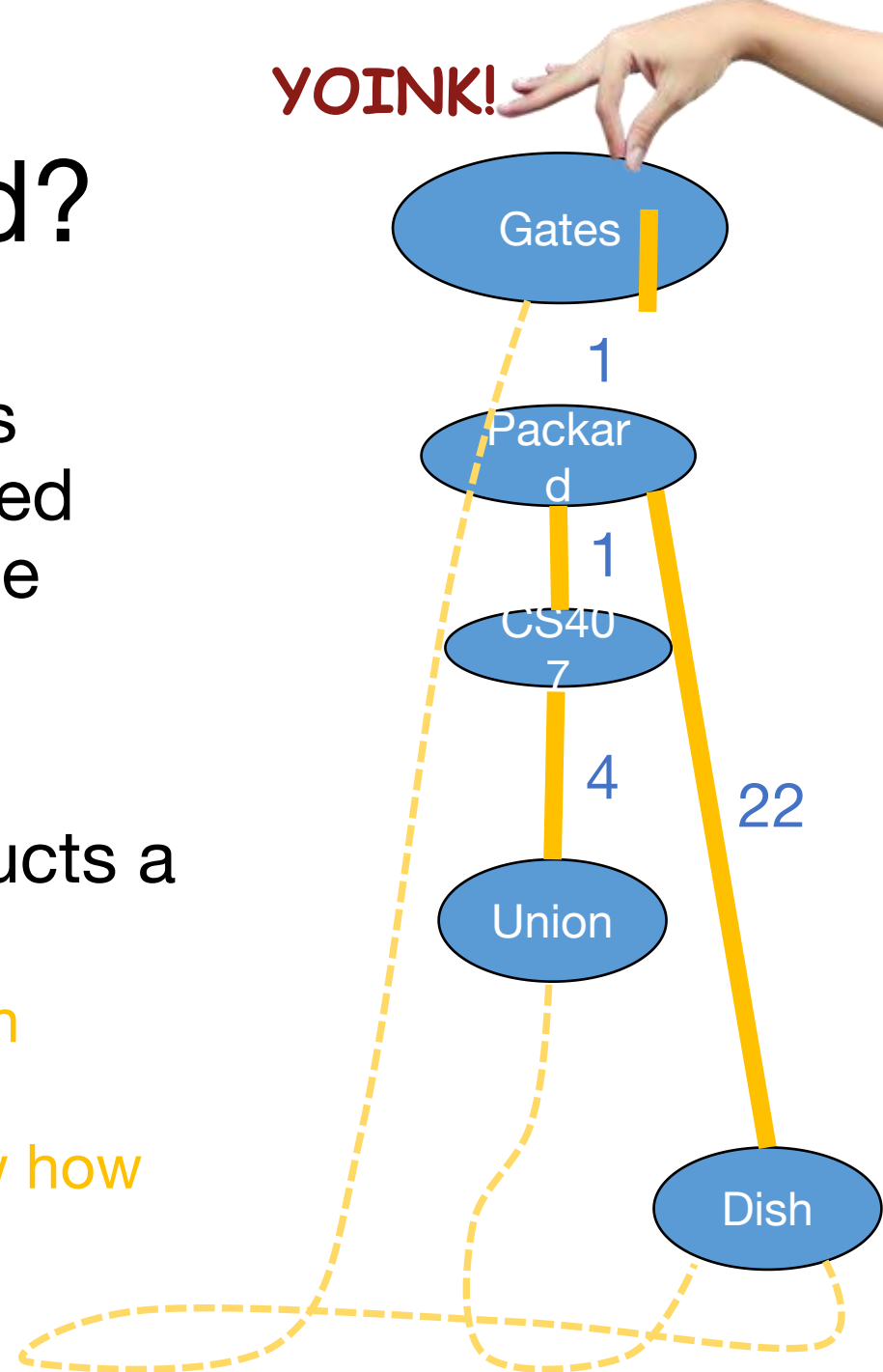
*Now back to
this slide*

- **Theorem:**
 - Run Dijkstra on $G=(V,E)$ starting from s .
 - At the end of the algorithm, the estimate $d[v]$ is the actual distance $d(s,v)$.
- **Proof outline:**
 - **Claim 1:** For all v , $d[v] \geq d(s,v)$.
 - **Claim 2:** When a vertex is marked **sure**, $d[v] = d(s,v)$.
- **Claims 1 and 2** imply the **theorem**.



What have we learned?

- Dijkstra's algorithm finds shortest paths in weighted graphs with non-negative edge weights.
- Along the way, it constructs a nice tree.
 - We could post this tree in Gates!
 - Then people would know how to get places quickly.



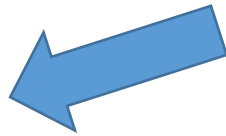
As usual

- Does it work?

- Yes.

- Is it fast?

- Depends on how you implement it.



Running time?

Dijkstra(G,s):

- Set all vertices to **not-sure**
- $d[v] = \infty$ for all v in V
- $d[s] = 0$
- While there are **not-sure** nodes:
 - Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
 - For v in u .neighbors:
 - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v] , d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
 - Mark u as **sure**.
- Now $\text{dist}(s, v) = d[v]$
- n iterations (one per vertex)
- How long does one iteration take?

Depends on how we implement

We need a data structure that:

- Stores unsure vertices v
- Keeps track of $d[v]$
- Can find u with minimum $d[u]$
 - `findMin()`
- Can remove that u
 - `removeMin(u)`
- Can update (decrease) $d[v]$
 - `updateKey(v,d)`

Just the inner

- loop:
- Pick the **not-sure** node u with the smallest estimate $d[u]$.
 - Update all u 's neighbors v :
 - $d[v] \leftarrow \min(d[v], d[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
 - Mark u as **sure**.

Total running time is big-oh of:

$$\sum_{u \in V} (T(\text{findMin}) + \left(\sum_{v \in u.\text{neighbors}} T(\text{updateKey}) \right) + T(\text{removeMin}))$$

$$= n(T(\text{findMin}) + T(\text{removeMin})) + m T(\text{updateKey})$$

If we use an array

- $T(\text{findMin}) = O(n)$
- $T(\text{removeMin}) = O(n)$
- $T(\text{updateKey}) = O(1)$
- Running time of Dijkstra
 - $= O(n(T(\text{findMin}) + T(\text{removeMin})) + m T(\text{updateKey}))$
 - $= O(n^2) + O(m)$
 - $= O(n^2)$

If we use a red-black tree

- $T(\text{findMin}) = O(\log(n))$
- $T(\text{removeMin}) = O(\log(n))$
- $T(\text{updateKey}) = O(\log(n))$
- Running time of Dijkstra
 - $= O(n(T(\text{findMin}) + T(\text{removeMin})) + m T(\text{updateKey}))$
 - $= O(n\log(n)) + O(m\log(n))$
 - $= O((n + m)\log(n))$

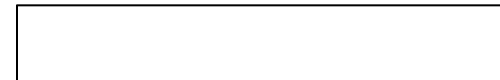
Better than an array if the graph is
sparse!

aka if m is much smaller than n^2

$$O(n(T(\text{findMin}) + T(\text{removeMin})) + m T(\text{updateKey}))$$

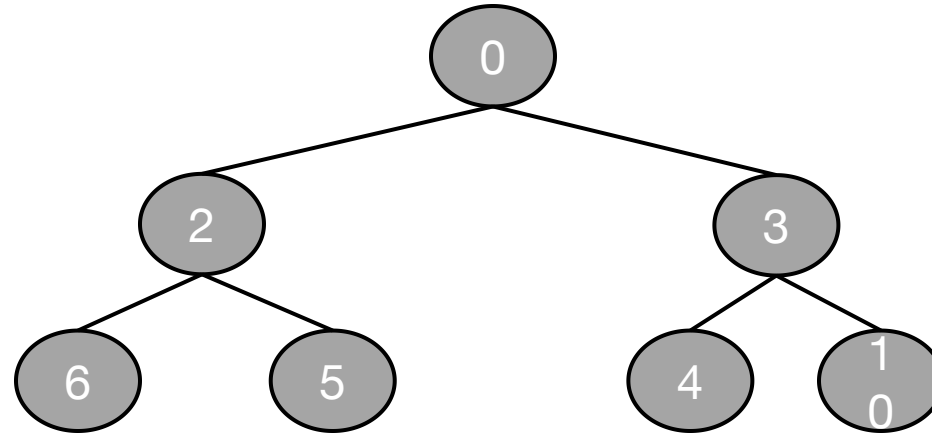
Is a hash table a good idea here?

- Not really:
 - $\text{Search}(v)$ is fast (in expectation)
 - But $\text{findMin}()$ will still take time $O(n)$ without more structure.



Heaps support these operations

- findMin
- removeMin
- updateKey



- A heap is a tree-based data structure that has the property that **every node has a smaller key than its children.**
- Not covered in this class
- But! We will use them.

Many heap implementations

Nice chart on
Wikipedia:

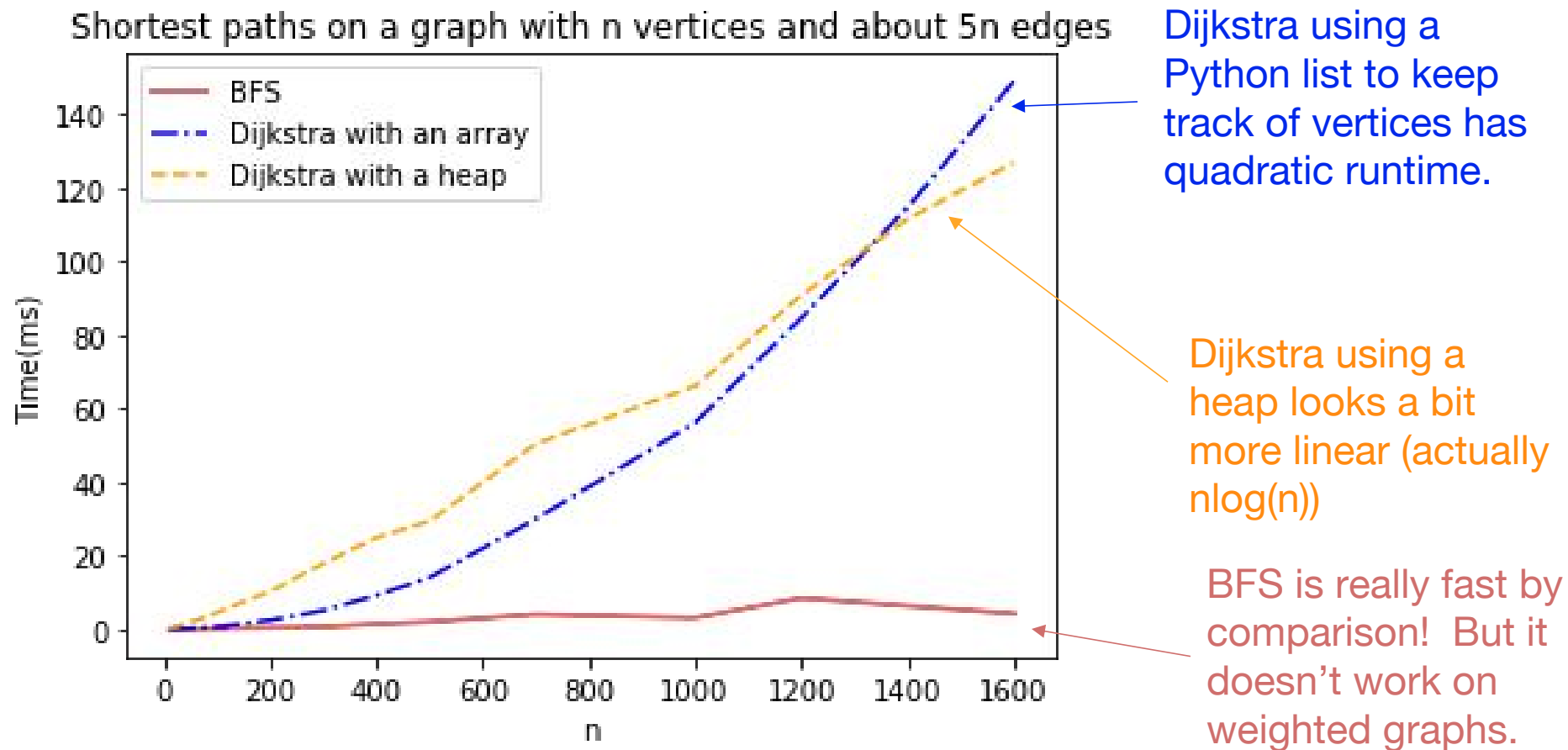
Operation	Binary ^[7]	Leftist	Binomial ^[7]	Fibonacci ^{[7][8]}	Pairing ^[9]	Brodal ^{[10][b]}	Rank-pairing ^[12]	Strict Fibonacci ^[13]
find-min	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$
delete-min	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$O(\log n)^{[c]}$	$O(\log n)^{[c]}$	$O(\log n)$	$O(\log n)^{[c]}$	$O(\log n)$
insert	$O(\log n)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(1)^{[c]}$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$
decrease-key	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$\Theta(1)^{[c]}$	$\alpha(\log n)^{[c][d]}$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)^{[c]}$	$\Theta(1)$
merge	$\Theta(n)$	$\Theta(\log n)$	$O(\log n)^{[e]}$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$	$\Theta(1)$

Say we use a Fibonacci Heap

- $T(\text{findMin}) = O(1)$ (amortized time*)
- $T(\text{removeMin}) = O(\log(n))$ (amortized time*)
- $T(\text{updateKey}) = O(1)$ (amortized time*)
- See Data Structure for more!
- Running time of Dijkstra
 - = $O(n(T(\text{findMin}) + T(\text{removeMin}))) + m T(\text{updateKey})$
 - = $O(n \log(n) + m)$ (amortized time)

*This means that any sequence of d removeMin calls takes time at most $O(d \log(n))$. But a few of the d may take longer than $O(\log(n))$ and some may take less time..

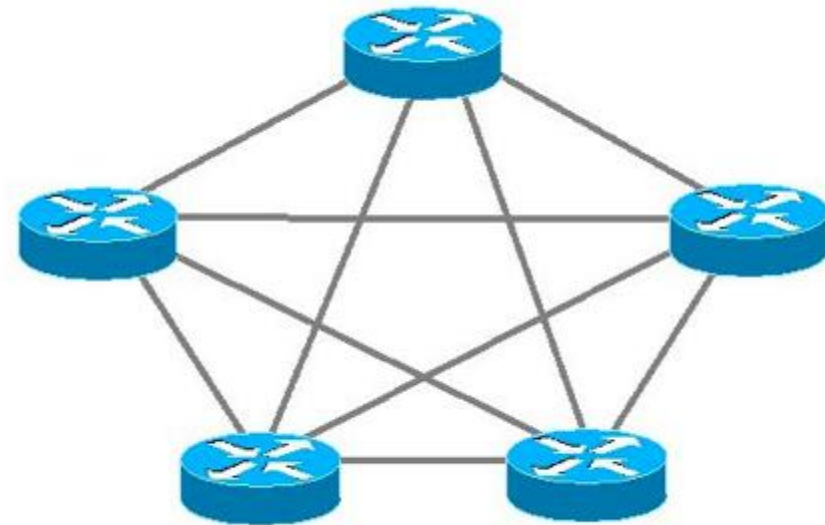
In practice



Dijkstra is used in practice

- eg, **OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)**, a routing protocol for IP networks, uses Dijkstra.

But there are
some things it's
not so good at.



Dijkstra Drawbacks

- Needs **non-negative edge weights**.
- If the weights change, we need to re-run the whole thing.
 - in OSPF, a vertex broadcasts any changes to the network, and then every vertex re-runs Dijkstra's algorithm from scratch.

Bellman-Ford algorithm

- (-) 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.
- (+) Allows for some flexibility if the weights change.
 - We'll see what this means later

Today: intro to Bellman-Ford

- We'll see a definition by example.
- We'll come back to it next lecture with more rigor.
 - Don't worry if it goes by quickly today.
 - There are some skipped slides with pseudocode, but we'll see them again next lecture.
- Basic idea:
 - Instead of picking the u with the smallest $d[u]$ to update, just update all of the u 's simultaneously.

Bellman-Ford algorithm

Bellman-Ford(G, s):

- $d[v] = \infty$ for all v in V
 - $d[s] = 0$
 - For $i=0, \dots, n-1$:
 - 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**.

For pedagogical reasons

which we will see next lecture

- 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 $i=0, \dots, n-1$
- $d^{(0)}[s] = 0$
- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in u .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.

Bellman-Ford

Start with the same graph,
no negative weights.

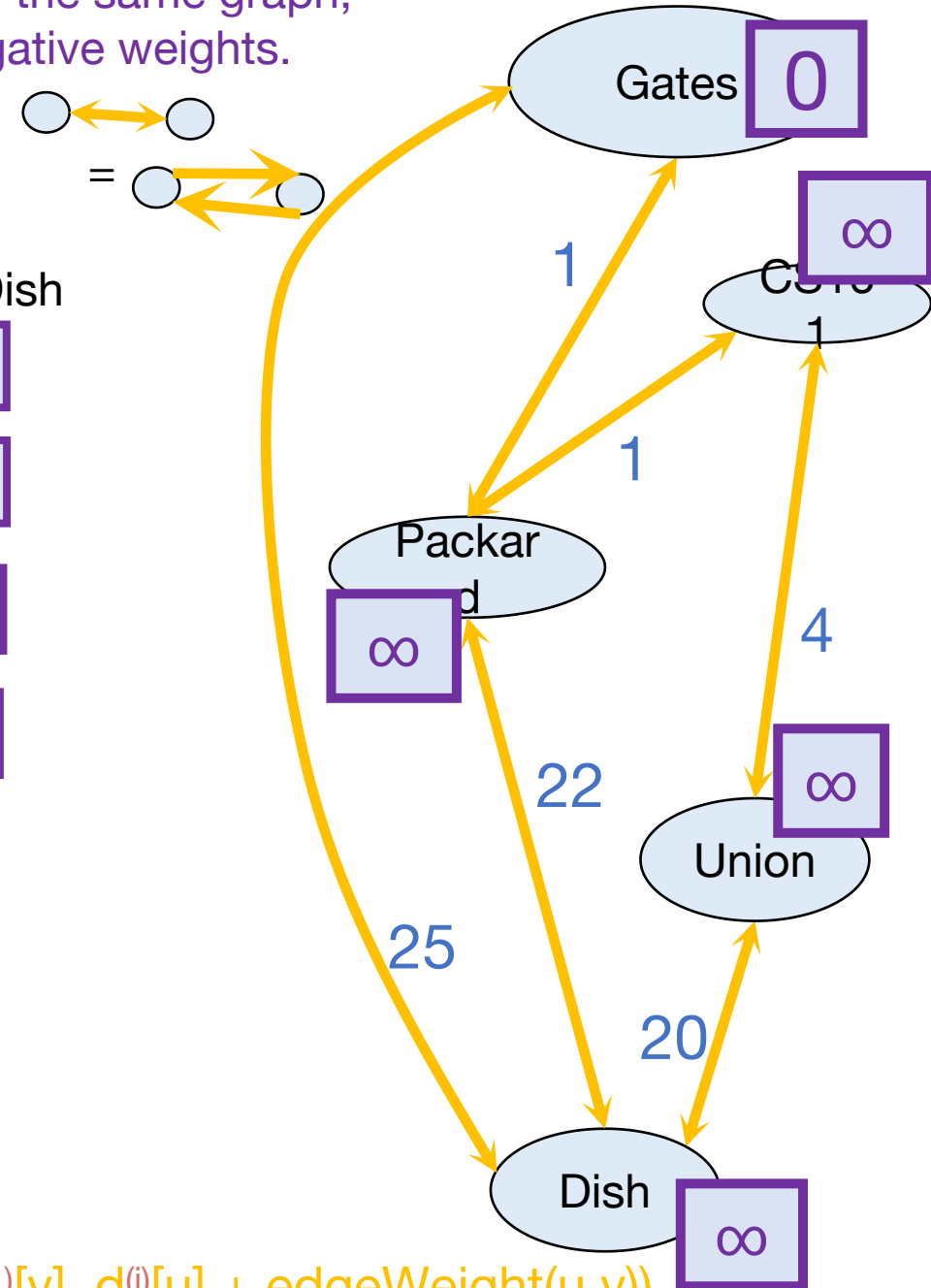
How far is a node from

Gates? Gates Packard CS407 Union Dish

$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
$d^{(1)}$					
$d^{(2)}$					
$d^{(3)}$					
$d^{(4)}$					

- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in u .neighbors:

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



Bellman-Ford

Start with the same graph,
no negative weights.

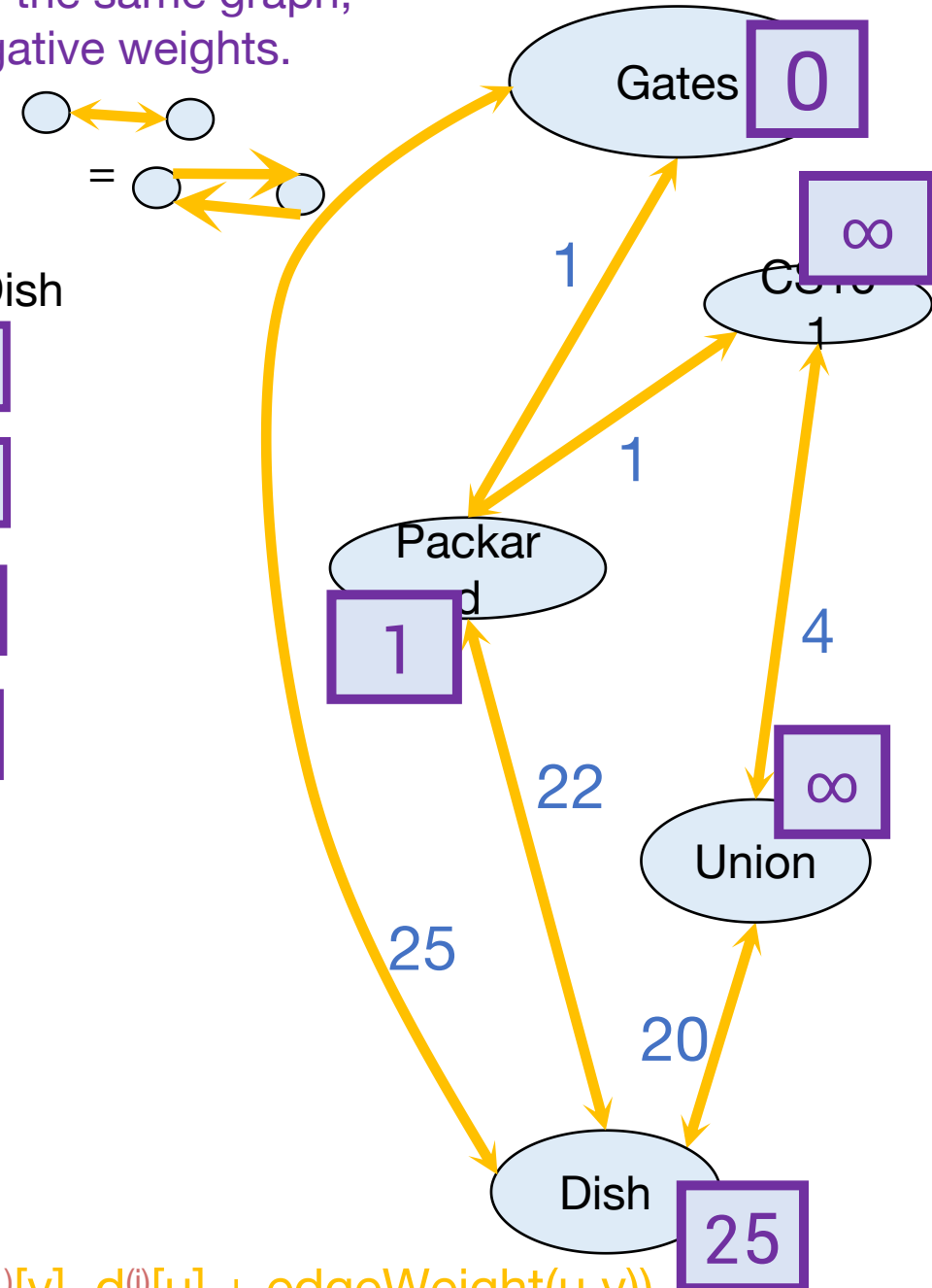
How far is a node from

Gates? Gates Packard CS161 Union Dish

$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
$d^{(1)}$	0	1	∞	∞	25
$d^{(2)}$					
$d^{(3)}$					
$d^{(4)}$					

- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in u .neighbors:

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



Bellman-Ford

Start with the same graph,
no negative weights.

How far is a node from

Gates? Gates Packard CS161 Union Dish

$d^{(0)}$

0	∞	∞	∞	∞
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$d^{(1)}$

0	1	∞	∞	25
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$d^{(2)}$

0	1	2	45	23
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$d^{(3)}$

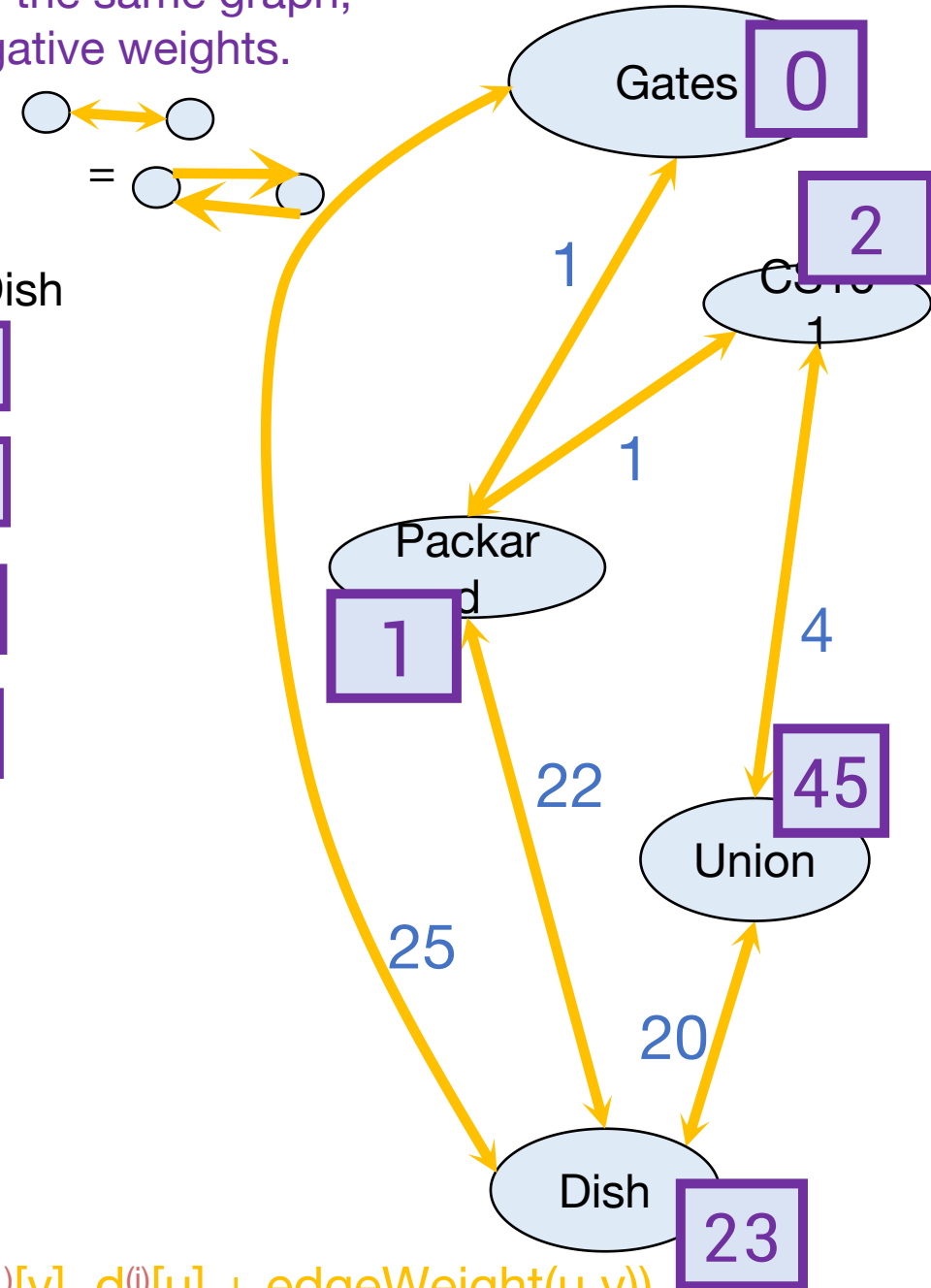
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$d^{(4)}$

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- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in $u.\text{neighbors}$:

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



Bellman-Ford

Start with the same graph,
no negative weights.

How far is a node from

Gates? Gates Packard CS161 Union Dish

$d^{(0)}$

0	∞	∞	∞	∞
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$d^{(1)}$

0	1	∞	∞	25
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$d^{(2)}$

0	1	2	45	23
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$d^{(3)}$

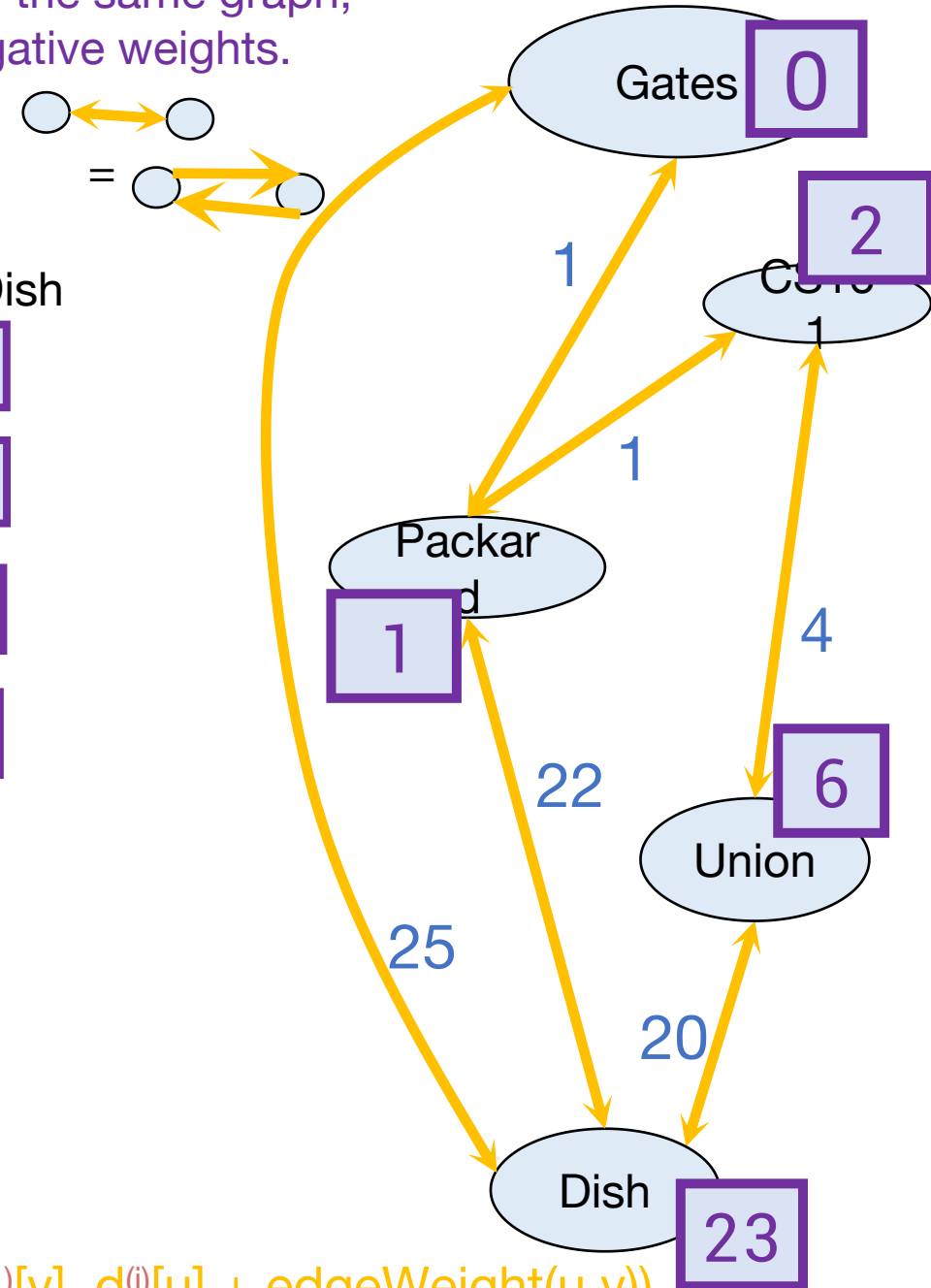
0	1	2	6	23
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$d^{(4)}$

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Bellman-Ford

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no negative weights.

How far is a node from

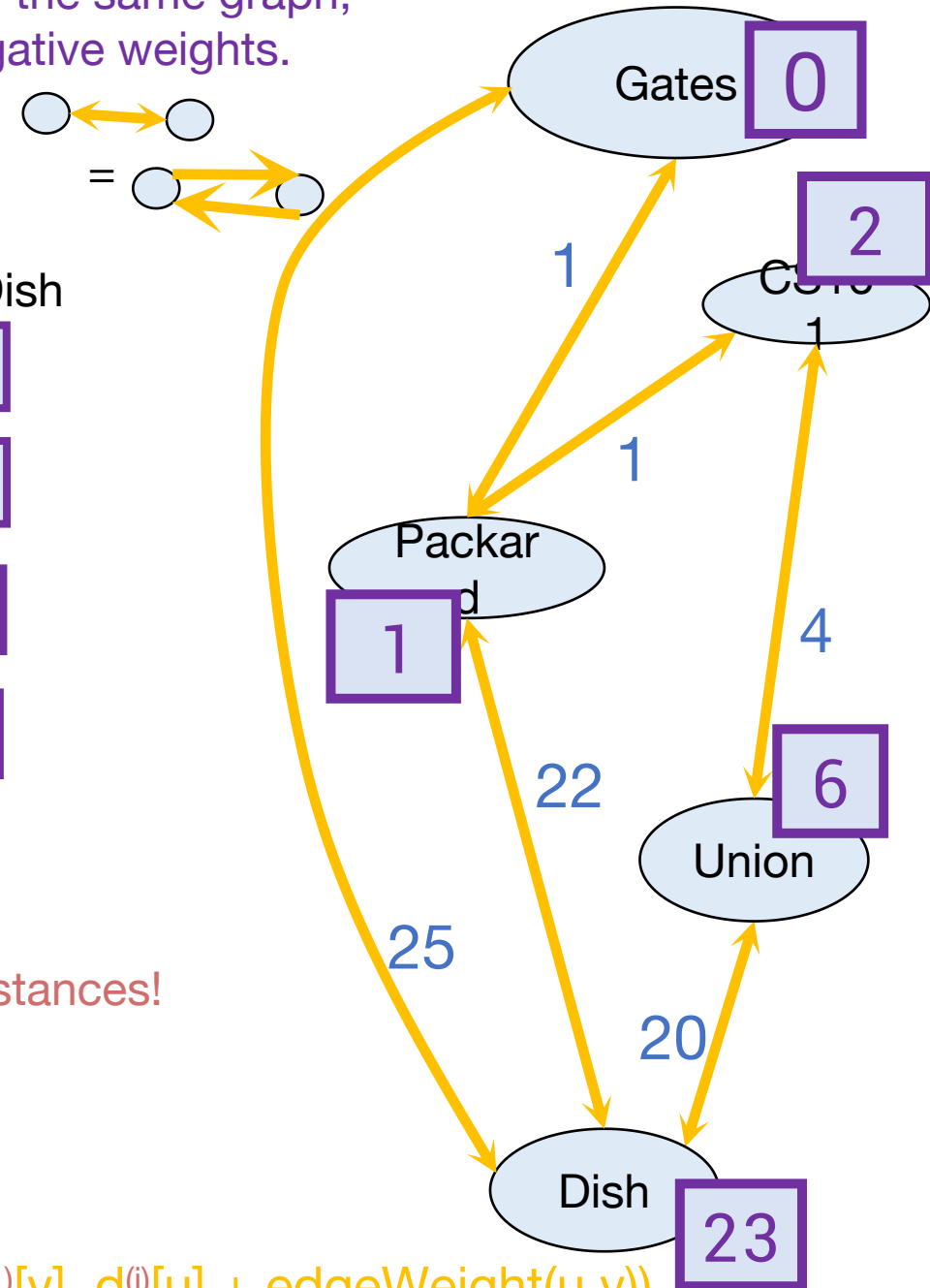
Gates? Gates Packard CS161 Union Dish

$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
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$d^{(3)}$	0	1	2	6	23
$d^{(4)}$	0	1	2	6	23

These are the final distances!

- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in $u.\text{neighbors}$:

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



As usual

- Does it work?
 - Yes
 - Idea to the right.
 - (See hidden slides for details)

- Is it fast?
 - Not really...

A simple path is a path with no cycles.

	Gates	Packard	CS407	Union	Dish
$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
$d^{(1)}$	0	1	∞	∞	25
$d^{(2)}$	0	1	2	45	23
$d^{(3)}$	0	1	2	6	23
$d^{(4)}$	0	1	2	6	23

Idea: proof by induction.

Inductive Hypothesis:

$d^{(i)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path between s and v with at most i edges.

Conclusion:

$d^{(n-1)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest simple path between s and v . (Since all simple paths have at most $n-1$ edges).

Proof by induction

- Inductive Hypothesis:
 - After iteration i , for each v , $d^{(i)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path between s and v with at most i edges.
- Base case:
 - After iteration 0...
- Inductive step:

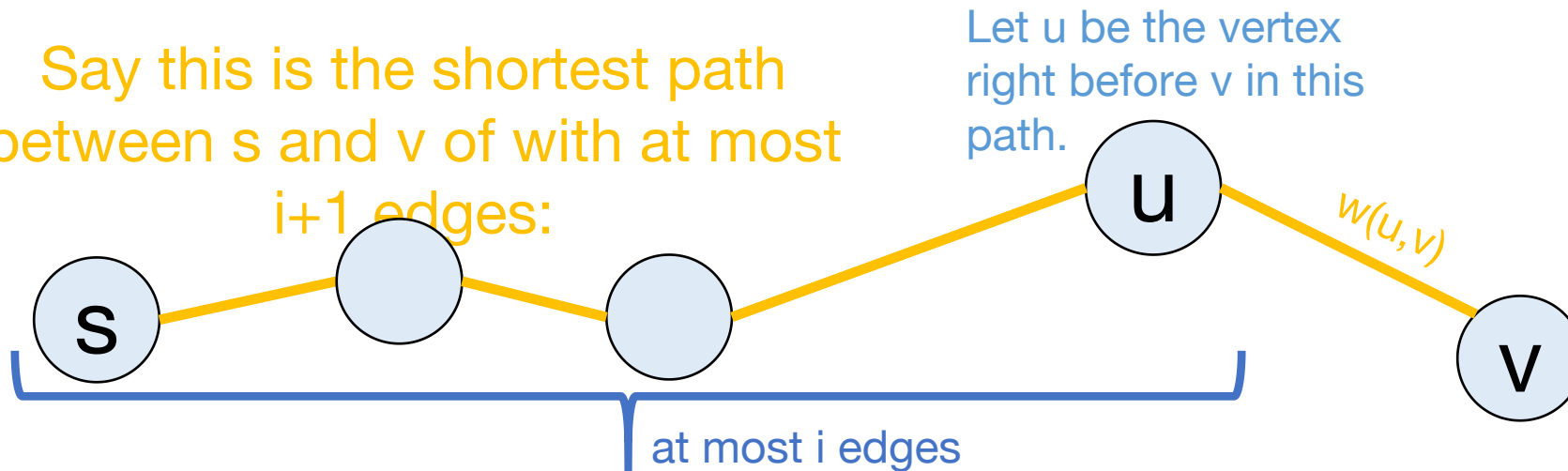


Inductive step

Hypothesis: After iteration i , for each v , $d^{(i)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path between s and v with at most i edges.




- Suppose the inductive hypothesis holds for i .
- We want to establish it for $i+1$.

Say this is the shortest path between s and v of with at most $i+1$ edges:



- By induction, $d^{(i)}[u]$ is the cost of a shortest path between s and u of i edges.
- By setup, $d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v)$ is the cost of a shortest path between s and v of $i+1$ edges.
- In the $i+1$ 'st iteration, we ensure $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leq d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v)$.
- So $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leq$ cost of shortest path between s and v with $i+1$ edges.
- But $d^{(i+1)}[v] =$ cost of a particular path of at most $i+1$ edges \geq cost of shortest path.
- So $d[v] =$ cost of shortest path with at most $i+1$ edges.

Proof by induction

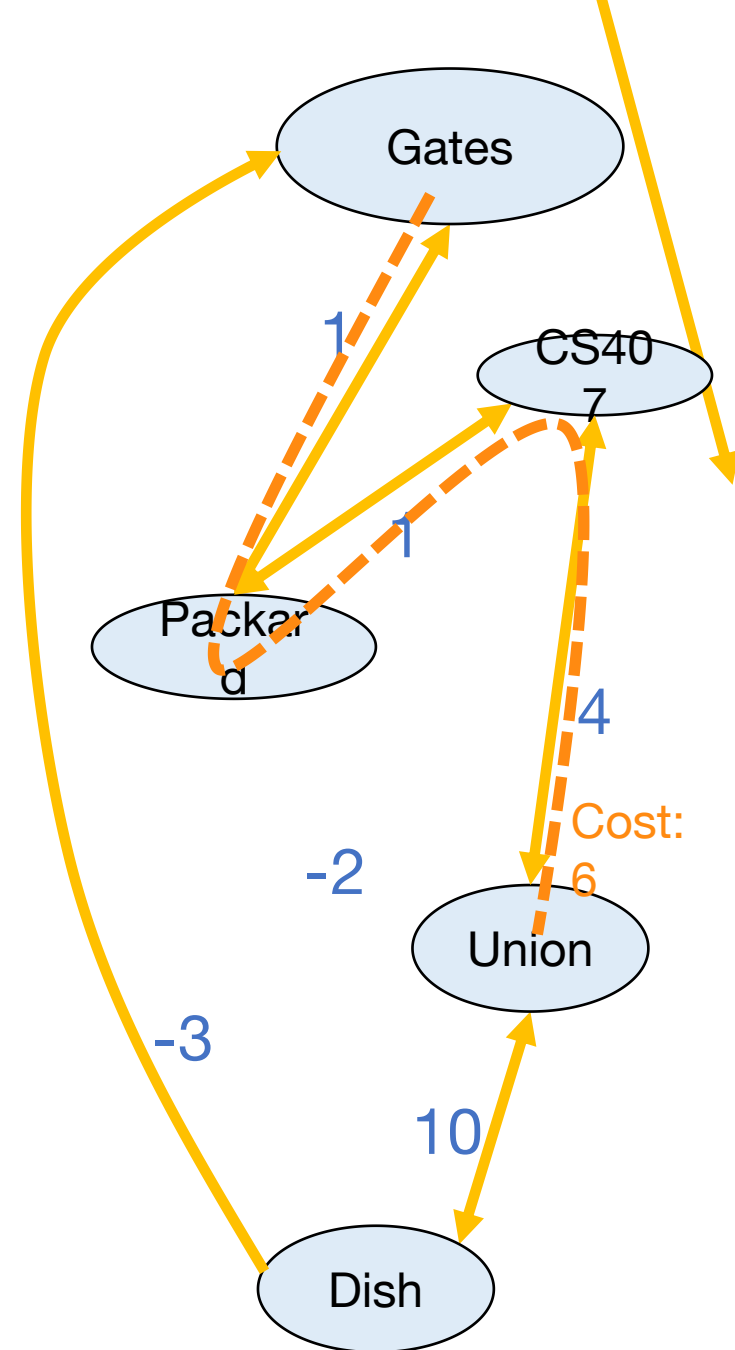
- **Inductive Hypothesis:**
 - After iteration i , for each v , $d^{(i)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path between s and v of length at most i edges.
- **Base case:**
 - After iteration 0... 
- **Inductive step:** 
- **Conclusion:**
 - After iteration $n-1$, for each v , $d[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path between s and v of length at most $n-1$ edges.
 - Aka, $d[v] = d(s,v)$ for all v as long as there are no negative cycles! 

Pros and cons of Bellman-Ford

- Running time: $O(mn)$ running time
 - For each of n 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.

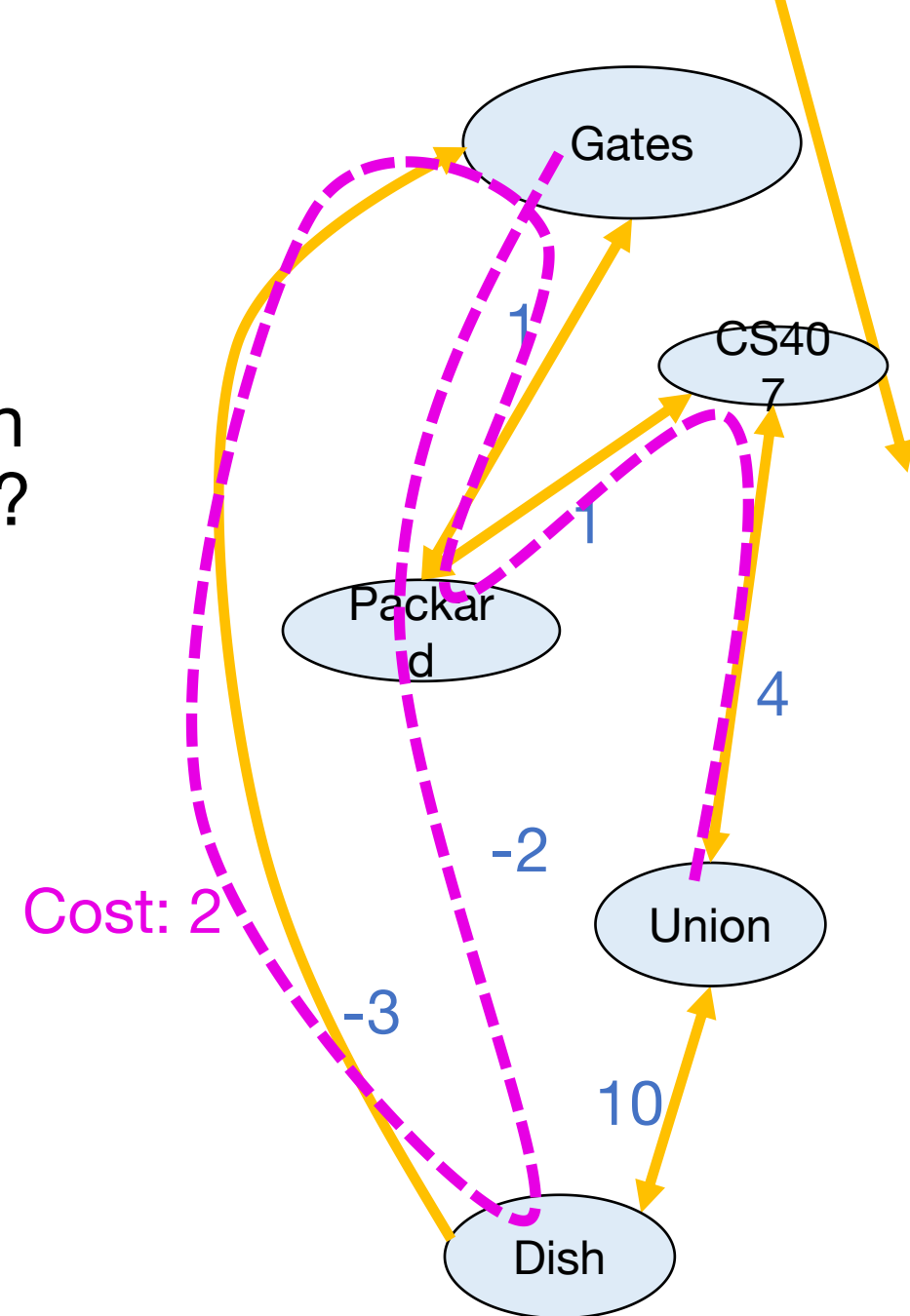
Wait a second...

- What is the shortest path from Gates to the Union?



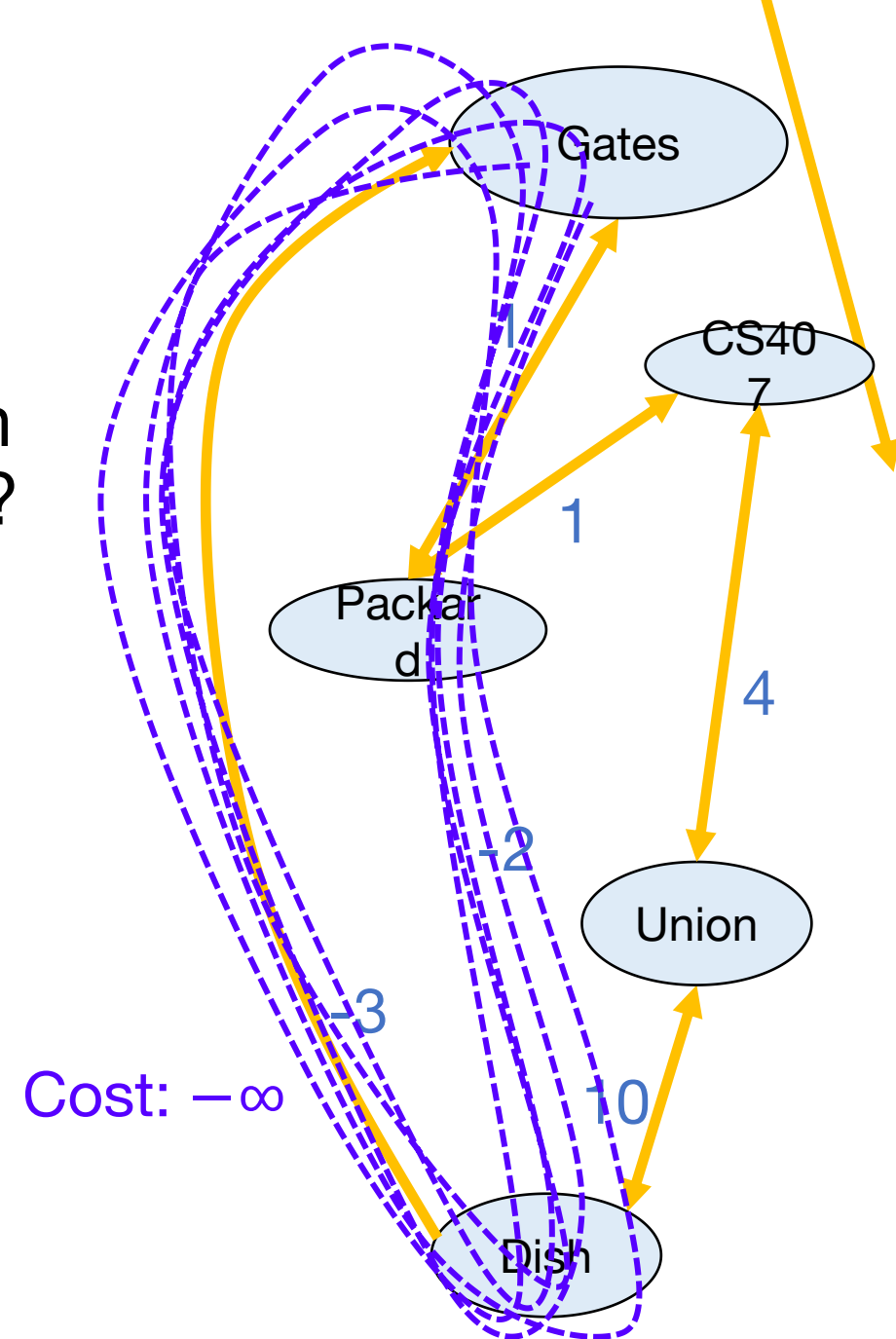
Wait a second...

- What is the shortest path from Gates to the Union?



Negative edge weights?

- What is the shortest path from Gates to the Union?
- Shortest paths aren't defined if there are negative cycles!



Bellman-Ford and negative edge weights

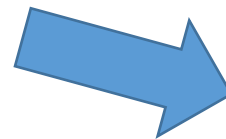
- B-F works with negative edge weights...as long as there are no negative cycles.
 - A negative cycle is a path with the same start and end vertex whose cost is negative.
- However, B-F can detect negative cycles.

Back to the correctness

- Does it work?
 - Yes
 - Idea to the right.

If there are negative cycles,
then non-simple paths
matter!

So the proof breaks for
negative cycles.



	Gates	Packard	CS161	Union	Dish
$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
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$d^{(3)}$	0	1	2	6	23
$d^{(4)}$	0	1	2	6	23

Idea: proof by induction.

Inductive Hypothesis:

$d^{(i)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path between s and v with at most i edges.

Conclusion:

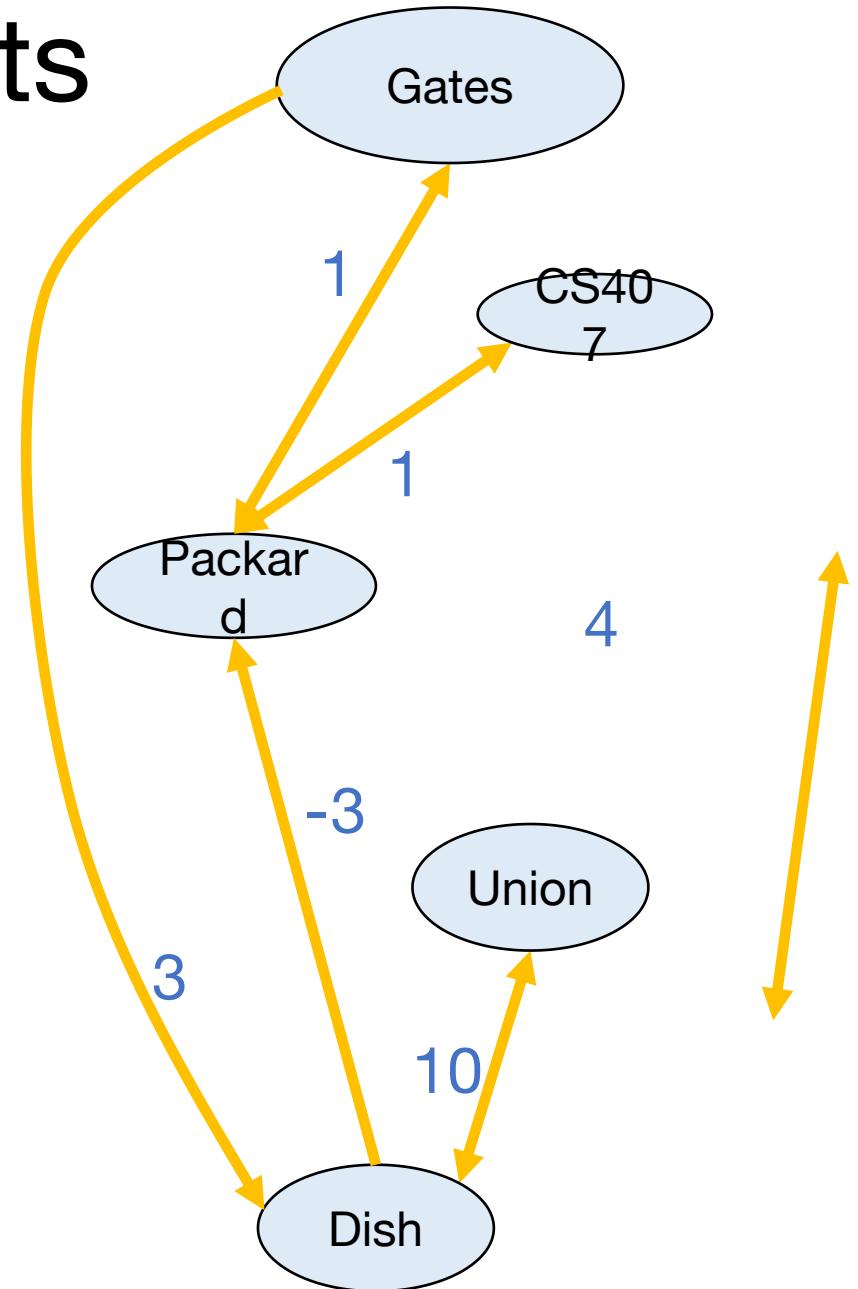
$d^{(n-1)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest simple path between s and v . (Since all simple paths have at most $n-1$ edges).

Negative edge weights

	Gates	Packard	CS161	Union	Dish
$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
$d^{(1)}$	0	1	∞	∞	3
$d^{(2)}$	0	0	2	13	3
$d^{(3)}$	0	0	1	6	3
$d^{(4)}$	0	0	1	5	3

- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in u .neighbors:

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



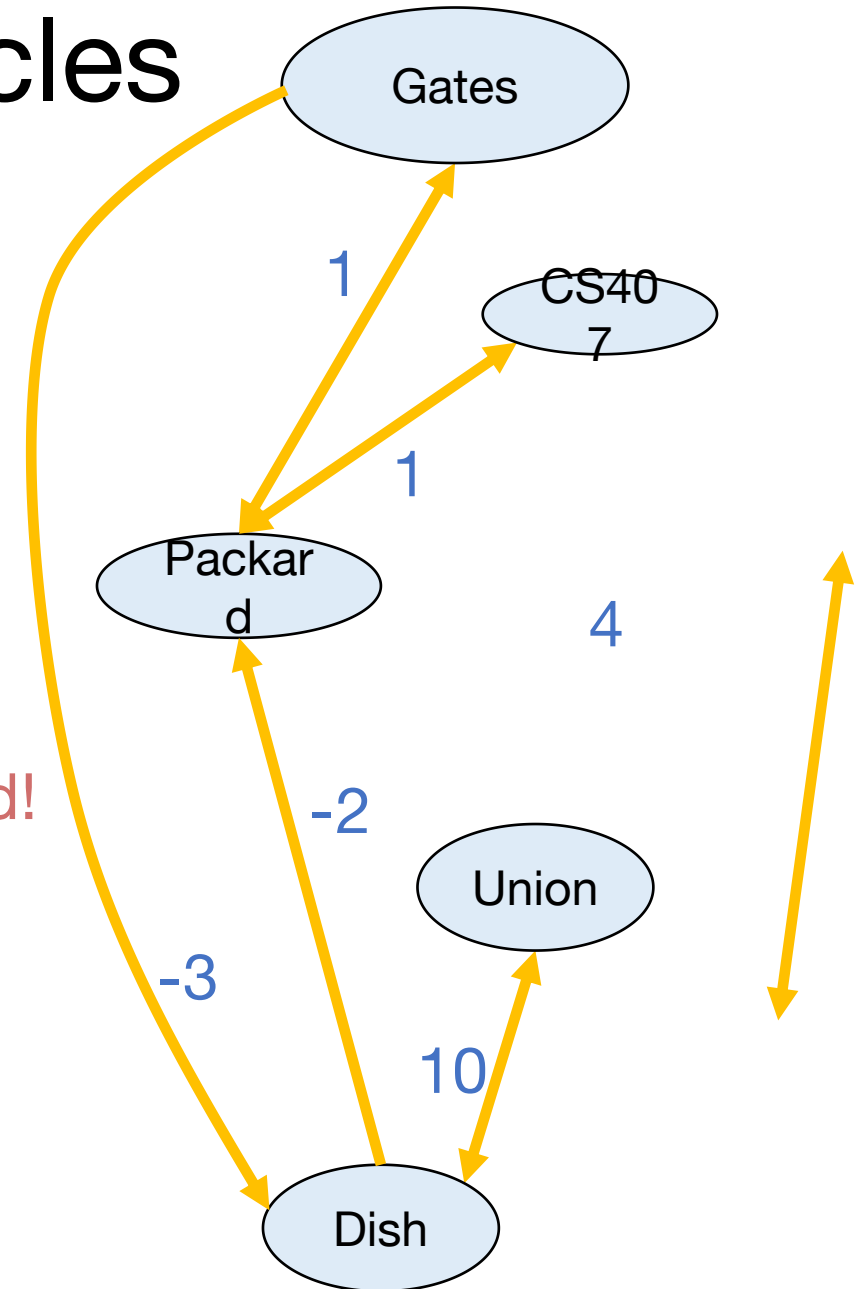
B-F with negative cycles

	Gates	Packard	CS161	Union	Dish
$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
$d^{(1)}$	0	1	∞	∞	-3
$d^{(2)}$	0	-5	2	7	-3
$d^{(3)}$	-4	-5	-4	6	-3

This is not looking good!

- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in $u.\text{neighbors}$:

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



B-F with negative cycles

	Gates	Packard	CS161	Union	Dish
$d^{(0)}$	0	∞	∞	∞	∞
$d^{(1)}$	0	1	∞	∞	-3
$d^{(2)}$	0	-5	2	7	-3
$d^{(3)}$	-4	-5	-4	6	-3
$d^{(4)}$	-4	-5	-4	6	-7

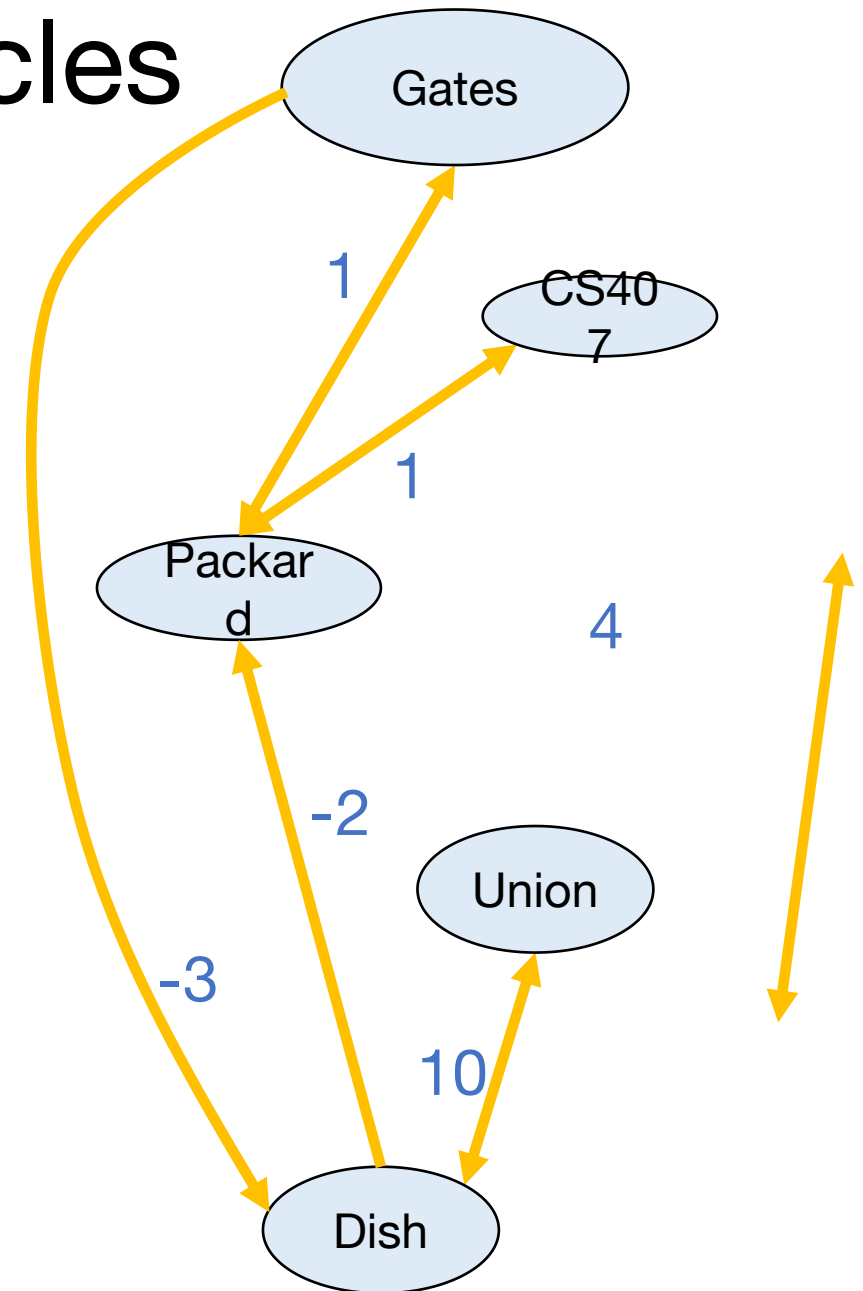
But **we can tell** that it's not looking good:

$d^{(5)}$	-4	-9	-4	3	-7
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- For $i=0, \dots, n-1$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in u .neighbors:

Some stuff changed!

$$d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$$



How Bellman-Ford deals with negative cycles

- If there are no negative cycles:
 - Everything works as it should.
 - The algorithm stabilizes after $n-1$ 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 ☹
 - (Pseudocode on skipped slide)

Bellman-Ford algorithm

Bellman-Ford*(G,s):

- $d^{(0)}[v] = \infty$ for all v in V
- $d^{(0)}[s] = 0$
- For $i=0, \dots, n-1$:
 - For u in V :
 - For v in u .neighbors:
 - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v], d^{(i+1)}[v], d^{(i)}[u] + \text{edgeWeight}(u,v))$
- If $d^{(n-1)} \neq d^{(n)}$:
 - Return NEGATIVE CYCLE ☹️
- Otherwise, $\text{dist}(s,v) = d^{(n-1)}[v]$

Summary

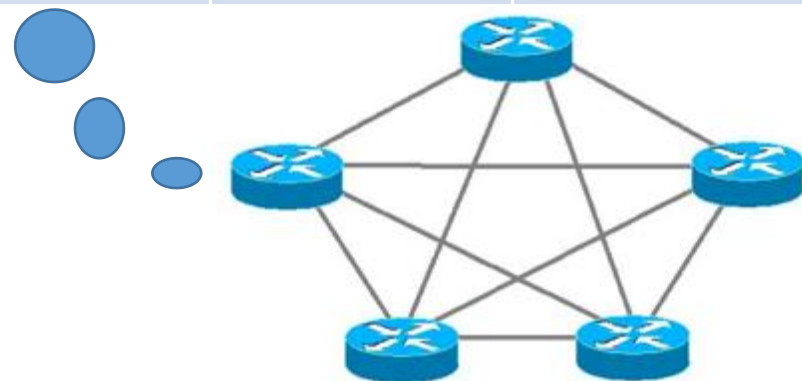
It's okay if that went by fast, we'll come back to Bellman-Ford

- The Bellman-Ford algorithm:
 - Finds shortest paths in weighted graphs with negative edge weights
 - runs in time $O(nm)$ on a graph G with n vertices and m edges.
- If there are no negative cycles in G :
 - the BF algorithm terminates with $d^{(n-1)}[v] = d(s,v)$.
- If there are negative cycles in G :
 - the BF algorithm returns negative cycle.

Bellman-Ford is also used in practice.

- eg, Routing Information Protocol (RIP) uses something like Bellman-Ford.
 - Older protocol, not used as much anymore.
- Each router keeps a table of distances to every other router.
- Periodically we do a Bellman-Ford update.
- This means that if there are changes in the network, this will propagate. (maybe slowly...)

Destination	Cost to get there	Send to whom?
172.16.1.0	34	172.16.1.1
10.20.40.1	10	192.168.1.2
10.155.120.1	9	10.13.50.0



Recap: shortest paths

- **BFS:**
 - (+) $O(n+m)$
 - (-) only unweighted graphs
- **Dijkstra's algorithm:**
 - (+) weighted graphs
 - (+) $O(n \log(n) + m)$ if you implement it right.
 - (-) no negative edge weights
 - (-) very “centralized” (need to keep track of all the vertices to know which to update).
- **The Bellman-Ford algorithm:**
 - (+) weighted graphs, even with negative weights
 - (+) can be done in a distributed fashion, every vertex using only information from its neighbors.
 - (-) $O(nm)$

Next Time

- Dynamic Programming!!!