

## Dijkstra's Algorithm (continued)

We rewrite the formula in Corollary 1 (last Lecture) into an equivalent form by separating the minimization into two levels:

$$\text{distance}(s, v_{k+1}^*) = \min_{v \in V \setminus R_k} \min_{u \in R_k, (u,v) \in E} (\text{distance}(s, u) + l(u, v)).$$

Now we define the inner level of minimization with a new term  $\text{dist}_k(v)$ :

$$\text{dist}_k(v) := \min_{u \in R_k, (u,v) \in E} (\text{distance}(s, u) + l(u, v)).$$

Then we have

$$\text{distance}(s, v_{k+1}^*) = \min_{v \in V \setminus R_k} \text{dist}_k(v).$$

Intuitively,  $\text{dist}_k(v)$  gives the length of the shortest path from  $s$  to  $v$  by only using vertices in  $R_k$ . This means that  $\text{dist}_k(v)$  is always an upper bound of the distance, formally  $\text{dist}_k(v) \geq \text{distance}(s, v)$ . This is because,  $\text{dist}_k(v)$  represents the length of the optimal path of a subset of all possible paths from  $s$  to  $v$ , hence giving an upper bound.

With  $\text{dist}_k$  available, the next closest vertex, i.e.,  $v_{k+1}^*$  can be easily calculated by picking the one with smallest  $\text{dist}_k$  value. And the distance is equal to the corresponding dist value:  $\text{distance}(s, v_{k+1}^*) = \text{dist}_k(v_{k+1}^*)$ .

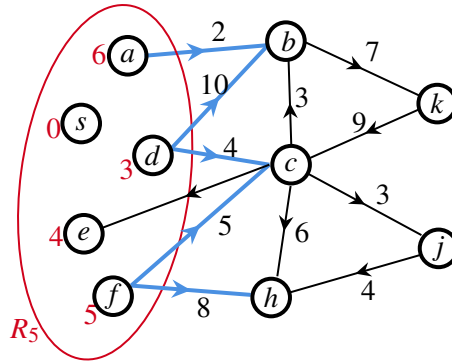


Figure 1: Assume that we already know  $R_5 = (s, d, e, f, a)$ ; the distance to each vertex in  $R_5$  is marked in red. Try above formulas in Figure 1. Answer:  $\text{dist}_5(b) = \min\{6 + 2, 3 + 10\} = 8$ ,  $\text{dist}_5(c) = \min\{3 + 4, 5 + 5\} = 7$ ,  $\text{dist}_5(h) = 5 + 8 = 13$ ,  $\text{dist}_5(k) = \infty$ ,  $\text{dist}_5(j) = \infty$ ; hence  $v_6^* = c$  and  $\text{distance}(s, v_6^*) = \text{dist}_5(c) = 7$ .

The reason we introduce  $\text{dist}_k$  is that,  $\text{dist}_{k+1}$  can be calculated in an incremental way by largely reusing  $\text{dist}_k$ . This is much more efficiently than directly calculating  $\text{dist}_{k+1}$  using the definition. To see the details, recall its definition, for any  $v \in V \setminus R_{k+1}$ , we have

$$\text{dist}_{k+1}(v) = \min_{u \in R_{k+1}, (u,v) \in E} (\text{distance}(s, u) + l(u, v)).$$

Note that  $R_{k+1} = R_k \cup \{v_{k+1}^*\}$ . Hence

$$\text{dist}_{k+1}(v) = \begin{cases} \min\{\text{dist}_k(v), \text{distance}(s, v_{k+1}^*) + l(v_{k+1}^*, v)\} & \text{if } (v_{k+1}^*, v) \in E \\ \text{dist}_k(v) & \text{if } (v_{k+1}^*, v) \notin E \end{cases}$$

In other words, when calculating  $\text{dist}_{k+1}$ , we only need to examine the out-edges of  $v_{k+1}^*$  and update only if the use of  $v_{k+1}^*$  leads to a shorter path. The pseudo-code of calculating  $\text{dist}_{k+1}$  from  $\text{dist}_k$  is given below.

Before calling this updating procedure, we assume  $dist_{k+1}$  is initialized as  $dist_k$ ; that is the update-dist procedure below just update for vertices whose dist values might be reduced. (In the complete algorithm, you will see that we will use one  $dist$  array for all  $k$ , hence such initialization is not necessary.)

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procedure update-dist ( $v_{k+1}^*$ )
  for  $(v_{k+1}^*, v) \in E$ 
    if  $(dist_k(v_{k+1}^*) + l(v_{k+1}^*, v) < dist_{k+1}(v))$ 
       $dist_{k+1}(v) = dist_k(v_{k+1}^*) + l(v_{k+1}^*, v)$ ;
    end if;
  end for;
end procedure;

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Try above procedure with the example below.

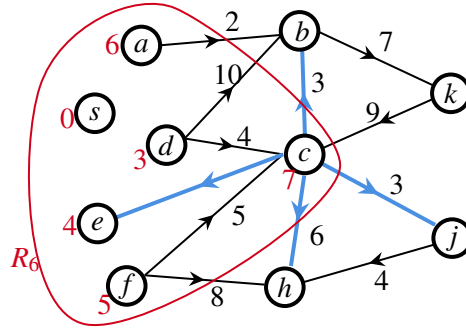


Figure 2: Following Figure 1, we have that  $v_6^* = c$ . We now want to calculate  $dist_6$  using  $dist_5$ . We consider the out-edges of  $c$ , marked as thick blue edges. We have,  $dist_6(b) = \min\{dist_5(b), 7 + 3\} = \min\{8, 10\} = 8$ ,  $dist_6(h) = \min\{dist_5(h), 7 + 6\} = \min\{13, 13\} = 13$ ,  $dist_6(k) = dist_5(k) = \infty$ ,  $dist_6(j) = \min\{dist_5(j), 7 + 3\} = \min\{\infty, 10\} = 10$ .

The last piece of Dijkstra's algorithm comes with the use of *priority queue* to quickly pick the next closest vertex, i.e., to calculate  $v_{k+1}^* = \arg \min_{v \in V \setminus R_k} dist_k(v)$ . To this end, the priority queue  $PQ$  always stores  $V \setminus R_k$ , and for each vertex  $v$  that is stored in  $PQ$ , its priority is  $dist_k(v)$ . In this way, every time we call  $\text{find-min}(PQ)$ , it gives us  $\min_{v \in V \setminus R_k} dist_k(v)$ .

The pseudo-code for complete Dijkstra's algorithm is given below. First, instead of maintaining a  $dist_k$  array for each separate  $k$ , we just need to maintain a single  $dist$  array (the index  $k$  will increase implicitly when the next closest vertex gets identified and removed from the priority-queue). Second, we do not need to implicitly maintain  $R_k$ , as  $PQ$  is always complement to  $R_k$ . In order to maintain this invariant, we delete the next closed vertex  $u$ , by calling  $\text{delete-min}$ , at the time of identifying  $u$ . In the update-list procedure, in order to guarantee that the priority of  $v$  is always  $dist(v)$ , we call  $\text{decrease-key}$  every time we update  $dist(v)$ .

Recall that Dijkstra's algorithm sequentially identifies the closests vertices from  $s$ . Formally, if  $u$  is removed from  $PQ$  before  $v$ , then  $distance(s, u) \leq distance(s, v)$ .

Where are the final distances from  $s$ ? They are in array  $dist$ . This is because, at the time a vertex  $u$  is picked by  $\text{find-min}$  and removed from  $PQ$ ,  $dist$  value for this vertex  $u$  is exactly its distance, i.e.,  $dist(u) = distance(s, u)$ . This  $dist$  value for  $u$  will remain unchanged till the end of the algorithm. Notice though, later in the algorithm, when  $v$  is picked by  $\text{find-min}$  (and removed from  $PQ$ ), there might be an edge  $(v, u)$  and therefore  $dist(v) + l(v, u)$  will be compared with  $dist(u)$  according to the algorithm, and if the former is

smaller than the later,  $dist(u)$  will be reduced/changed. (See an example in Figure 2, edge  $(c, e)$ .) But such change will never happen. This is because,  $u$  is picked before  $v$ , implying that  $distance(s, u) \leq distance(s, v)$ . Hence  $dist(v) + l(v, u) = distance(s, v) + l(v, u) > distance(s, v) \geq distance(s, u) = dist(u)$ . So, the update to  $dist(u)$  will not happen.

Another way to understand why such update to  $dist(u)$  will not happen is that  $dist(u)$  is always an upper bound of  $distance(s, u)$ . When  $u$  gets removed from  $PQ$ , this bound is reached, i.e.,  $dist(u) = distance(s, u)$ . Hence after that  $dist(u)$  will remain this minimized value and hence cannot get further reduced.

Algorithm Dijkstra ( $G = (V, E)$ ,  $l(e)$  for any  $e \in E$ ,  $s \in V$ )

```

 $dist[v] = \infty$ , for any  $v \in V$ ;
init an empty priority queue  $PQ$ ;
for any  $v \in V$ : insert ( $PQ, v$ ), where the priority of  $v$  is  $\infty$ ;
 $dist[s] = 0$ ;
decrease-key ( $PQ, s, 0$ );
while (empty ( $PQ$ ) = false)
     $u = \text{find-min} (PQ)$ ;
    delete-min ( $PQ$ );
    for each edge  $(u, v) \in E$ 
        if ( $dist[v] > dist[u] + l(u, v)$ )
             $dist[v] = dist[u] + l(u, v)$ ;
            decrease-key ( $PQ, v, dist[v]$ );
        end if;
    end for;
end while;
end algorithm;
```

The running time of Dijkstra's algorithm depends on the specific implementation of priority queue used. Consider using binary heap. The break-down of running time is given below. Note that each vertex will be picked from the  $PQ$  at most once and each edge will be examined at most once (for directed graph) or at most twice (for undirected graph). The total running time is  $O((|V| + |E|) \log |V|)$ .

1. initialization:  $\Theta(|V|)$ ;
2. insert ( $PQ$ ):  $|V| \times O(\log |V|)$ ;
3. empty ( $PQ$ ):  $|V| \times \Theta(1)$ ;
4. find-min ( $PQ$ ):  $|V| \times \Theta(1)$ ;
5. delete-min ( $PQ$ ):  $|V| \times O(\log |V|)$ ;
6. updating-dist:  $|E| \times \Theta(1)$ ;
7. decrease-key ( $PQ$ ):  $|E| \times O(\log |V|)$ ;

## Bellman-Ford Algorithm

Bellman-Ford algorithm can be used to solve the (single-source) shortest path problem with negative edge length, and its extension can also be used to detect if a graph contains negative cycle (reachable from the given source).

Bellman-Ford algorithm is quite simple. It only maintain an array,  $dist$  of size  $|V|$ , as its data structure. And it just does a bunch of “update” operations. An “update” function takes an edge  $e = (u, v)$  as input, and updates  $dist[v]$  as  $dist[u] + l(u, v)$  if the former is larger than the latter.

```
procedure update(edge  $(u, v) \in E$ )
    if ( $dist[v] > dist[u] + l(u, v)$ )
         $dist[v] = dist[u] + l(u, v)$ ;
    end if;
end procedure;
```

Bellman-Ford algorithm iterates  $(|V| - 1)$  rounds, and in each round, updates *all* edges, in an arbitrary order.

```
Algorithm Bellman-Ford ( $G = (V, E)$ ,  $l(e)$  for any  $e \in E$ ,  $s \in V$ )
    init an array  $dist$  of size  $|V|$ ;
     $dist[s] = 0$ ;  $dist[v] = \infty$  for any  $v \neq s$ ;
    for  $k = 1 \rightarrow |V| - 1$ 
        for each edge  $(u, v) \in E$ 
             $update(u, v)$ ;
        end for;
    end for;
end algorithm;
```

Since update function takes constant time, clearly, Bellman-Ford algorithm runs in  $\Theta(|V| \cdot |E|)$  time.