

CSC 510 MILESTONE 2: BRUTE-FORCE ROUTING AND COMPLEXITY ANALYSIS

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1. INTRODUCTION

We previously introduced a brute-force method for our smart routing problem for our mission here at DriveBot Labs. More specifically, we identified the most efficient path between two vertices in a directed graph $G = (V, E)$ by exhaustively enumerating all simple paths and selecting the one that minimizes the sum cost. Though this approach is prohibitively expensive for larger graphs – it establishes an effective benchmark for evaluating more efficient algorithms.

Here, we extend beyond brute-force by exploring several classical graph algorithms that prioritize computational tractability without compromising accuracy. These include: Dijkstra’s algorithm, which identifies shortest paths in graphs with non-negative edge weights, and A* search – which enhances Dijkstra by including admissible heuristics to accelerate convergence toward the goal. For graphs that contain negative edge weights, we leverage the Bellman-Ford method to ensure the viability of our results.

We further investigate the use of quasi-metric spaces, wherein directional asymmetries are explicitly modeled. This allows us to encapsulate features of real-world road networks that are often neglected in purely symmetric models.

2. TIMELY ARRIVALS

To recap, let $G = (V, E)$ denote a directed graph where V represents intersections or road nodes in California, and E is the set of directed and traversable roads excluding major freeways. Let $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ be a weight function where $w(e)$ denotes the cost of edge e ; representing real-world quantities such as distance, traffic density, and energy expenditure.

Given a source $s \in V$ and a target $t \in V$, our goal is to find a simple path $P = (v_1 = s, v_2, \dots, v_k = t)$ that satisfies the following conditions:

- (1) $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ for all i (Path Validity)
- (2) $v_i \neq v_j$ for all $i \neq j$ (Simplicity)
- (3) The total edge weight is given by:

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

- (4) The route cost or pricing function $\pi(P)$ is computed by evaluating a pricing function $\pi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ over a feature vector x_P associated with path P , such that:

$$\pi(P) = a_1 x_1^{c_1} + a_2 x_2^{c_2} + \dots + a_n x_n^{c_n}$$

$x_P = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ includes features like $d(P)$ (total distance), traffic index, demand, and vehicle availability. This distinction separates the structural weight of the path from its economic cost.

We define the *distance* between two vertices $u, v \in V$ as:

$$d(u, v) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{S}(u, v)} d(P),$$

where $\mathcal{S}(u, v)$ is the set of all simple paths between u and v and $d(P)$ is the total weight (sum of edge weights) along path P .

This function satisfies:

- **Non-negativity:** $d(u, v) \geq 0$
- **Triangle inequality:** $d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w)$

However, in a directed graph, it generally lacks symmetry: $d(u, v) \neq d(v, u)$. Therefore, the pair (V, d) defines a *quasi-metric space*. The notion of a quasi-metric space is useful because it allows us to reason about distance-like relationships even when directionality is relevant. To begin, we introduce the following result:

Theorem 2.1 (Existence of Minimal Paths). *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a finite, directed graph with non-negative edge weights. Then, for any pair $u, v \in V$, there exists at least one simple path $P^* \in \mathcal{S}(u, v)$ achieving the minimal distance:*

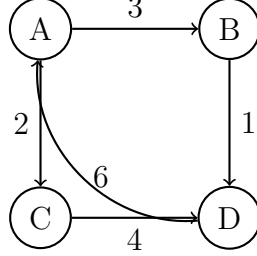
$$d(u, v) = d(P^*) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{S}(u, v)} d(P).$$

Proof. Because G is finite and all edge weights are non-negative, the set of all simple paths $\mathcal{S}(u, v)$ is finite. Each simple path P has an associated finite cost $d(P)$. Since the set $\{d(P) \mid P \in \mathcal{S}(u, v)\}$ is a finite subset of $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, it has a minimum. Therefore, there exists at least one path P^* achieving the minimum distance $d(u, v)$.

Moreover, because we only consider simple (loop-free) paths, we avoid pathological cases like negative-weight cycles, and thus the minimal value is well-defined and realizable. \square

Remark 2.2. In the presence of negative edge weights (but no negative cycles), the result still holds, but algorithms like Dijkstra's no longer apply, and Bellman-Ford or Johnson's algorithm may be required. Negative cycles render $d(u, v)$ undefined.

To illustrate our point, consider the following small network:



Here:

$$d(A, D) = \min(3 + 1, 2 + 4) = 4$$

$$d(D, A) = 6$$

$$d(A, D) \neq d(D, A)$$

Since a route generally consumes more battery going uphill (D to A) than downhill (A to D), battery usage is encapsulated with this model. Further considerations like traffic constraints are also adequately represented; here, a one-way road from D to A but not A to D changes feasible paths. Incorporating quasi-metric reasoning into our algorithms allows us to avoid waste by caching directional costs in addition to developing heuristics aware of asymmetric penalties.

The brute-force enumeration can, in principle, identify the globally optimal path. Its factorial time complexity; however, renders it infeasible for real-time systems. To overcome this limitation, we propose an optimized algorithm based on the Dijkstra algorithm, extended with dynamic edge weights that reflect live traffic conditions. At each iteration, edge weights are updated using data retrieved from external traffic APIs or onboard sensors, ensuring that the priority queue that we will be using always reflects the most current road situation.

For time-critical routes, we further propose a heuristic enhancement via the A* search algorithm. By incorporating an admissible heuristic, such as the estimated remaining travel time or geographic straight-line distance, A* reduces the search space by prioritizing promising paths. Given the volatile nature of urban traffic, the algorithm periodically reevaluates the current path during transit. If a significant event is detected, the system recalculates the optimal route – allowing the vehicle to dynamically adjust its course to maintain timely arrivals.

3. FAIR PRICING

Contemporary design requires integration of environmental, social, governance (ESG) principles, ensuring that pricing models promote not only profitability but also social responsibility and environmental stewardship. Though the efficacy and relevance of ESG is a heavily debated topic, we shall integrate these concerns to mimic other potential externalities.

Let P be a simple path in $G = (V, E)$ from source s to target t . We define our pricing function:

$$\pi(P) = a_1 d(P)^{c_1} + a_2 \tau(P)^{c_2} + a_3 \delta(P)^{c_3} + a_4 \eta(P)^{c_4} + \lambda_e e(P) + s(P),$$

with system-tuned parameters $a_i, c_i, \lambda_e, \lambda_s \geq 0$. Where

- $d(P) = \sum_{(u,v) \in P} w(u, v)$: total distance,
- $\tau(P) = \sum_{(u,v) \in P} \frac{w(u,v)}{v(u,v)}$: estimated travel time, where $v(u, v)$ is expected speed,
- $\delta(P)$: time-varying demand factor, $\delta : [0, T] \rightarrow [1, \infty)$,
- $\eta(P) = \frac{1}{1+\rho(P)}$: availability score, inverse of fleet congestion, where $\rho(P)$ is local vehicle density,
- $e(P) = \sum_{(u,v) \in P} e(u, v)$: estimated CO₂ emissions,
- $s(P) = -\lambda_s \cdot \mathbf{1}_{P \cap Z \neq \emptyset}$: social equity subsidy, for $Z \subset V$ underserved zones.

Definition 3.1. A pricing equilibrium is a fixed point π^* such that no local adjustment (within a region or time) improves social utility without violating operational constraints.

Theorem 3.2. *Assuming the pricing function $\pi(P)$ is continuous and monotonically increasing in $d(P)$, $\tau(P)$, and $\delta(P)$, and monotonically decreasing in $\eta(P)$, there exists at least one global minimum pricing configuration π^* satisfying fairness constraints under bounded demand.*

Proof. Let $G = (V, E)$ be a finite directed graph, and $\mathcal{S}(s, t)$ the finite set of simple paths from s to t . Define the feature map:

$$\varphi : \mathcal{S}(s, t) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^4, \quad P \mapsto (d(P), \tau(P), \delta(P), \eta(P)),$$

and the pricing function:

$$\pi(P) = a_1 d(P)^{c_1} + a_2 \tau(P)^{c_2} + a_3 \delta(P)^{c_3} + a_4 \eta(P)^{c_4},$$

with $a_i, c_i \geq 0$.

Since $\mathcal{S}(s, t)$ is finite and each feature component is bounded on G , the image set $\varphi(\mathcal{S}(s, t))$ is finite and thus compact in \mathbb{R}^4 (discrete sets are trivially compact). Define the feasible price set:

$$\Pi := \{\pi(P) \mid P \in \mathcal{S}(s, t), \pi_{\min} \leq \pi(P) \leq \pi_{\max}\},$$

where π_{\min}, π_{\max} are policy-imposed caps.

$\pi(P)$ is continuous over $\varphi(\mathcal{S}(s, t))$ because it is a composition of continuous functions (polynomials) over a finite domain. Thus, Π is a finite, bounded subset of \mathbb{R} .

By the extreme value theorem, any continuous function over a compact set attains its minimum and maximum. Therefore, there exists at least one $P^* \in \mathcal{S}(s, t)$ such that:

$$\pi(P^*) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{S}(s, t)} \pi(P),$$

and $\pi_{\min} \leq \pi(P^*) \leq \pi_{\max}$.

Because $\pi(P)$ is strictly monotonic in its components, any local change increasing $d(P), \tau(P), \delta(P)$ or decreasing $\eta(P)$ without compensation raises $\pi(P)$. Thus, the minimizer P^* is locally stable: no infinitesimal variation can reduce the price further, ensuring the configuration is not only globally minimal but also a local minimum.

Fairness is assumed to be enforced by bounding $\pi(P)$ or embedding constraints in $\mathcal{S}(s, t)$. Therefore, the minimal path P^* satisfies these constraints by construction.

Hence, there exists at least one path P^* achieving the minimal fair price, respecting bounded demand and fairness constraints, and stable under local perturbations. \square

Our algorithmic approach begins with a preprocessing step in which we compute or estimate key path features, including total distance $d(P)$, estimated travel time $\tau(P)$, demand factor $\delta(P)$, availability score $\eta(P)$, CO₂ emissions $e(P)$, social equity adjustments $s(P)$, and operational costs $c(P)$. Once these quantities are available, we identify the fair pricing path P^* as the one minimizing the pricing function $\pi(P)$ over all feasible simple paths $\mathcal{S}(s, t)$, subject to policy-imposed bounds $\pi_{\min} \leq \pi(P) \leq \pi_{\max}$.

We also define the profit-optimal path P^\dagger as the one maximizing realized profit $\Pi(P) = \pi(P) - c(P)$ across the same set of feasible paths. In scenarios where a single-objective optimization is insufficient, we introduce a multi-objective tradeoff formulation, maximizing a weighted combination $\alpha \cdot \Pi(P) - \beta \cdot \pi(P)$, where the weights α and β are tuned to reflect specific business or policy priorities.

4. PROFITABILITY

While the preceding section ensures prices remain socially and environmentally fair, the platform must also remain financially sustainable. We thus formalise the fleet-level *profit-maximisation* objective and describe the mechanisms that underpin it.

Let

$$\Pi(P) = \pi(P) - c(P)$$

denote the realised *profit* of a completed trip, where $\pi(P)$ is the customer-facing price from Section 03 and $c(P)$ captures operating expenses. For a time horizon H with trip set $\mathcal{T}_H = \{P_1, \dots, P_m\}$, fleet profit is

$$\text{Profit}(H) = \sum_{P \in \mathcal{T}_H} \Pi(P).$$

Our system must operate under several constraints to ensure both feasibility and compliance. First, there is a **capacity constraint**: each vehicle v is subject to a battery-limited range R_v , and the total distance traveled across its assigned trips, expressed as $\sum_{P \in \mathcal{T}_H(v)} d(P)$, must not exceed R_v . Second, a **demand satisfaction constraint** is imposed, requiring that at least a minimum fraction γ of customer requests in each service zone are fulfilled – this prevents regulatory penalties and ensures equitable service distribution. Finally, a **freeway exclusion constraint** applies, as detailed in Section 03, mandating that all computed routes strictly avoid the set of freeway edges F , such that only edges in the reduced set $E \setminus F$ are utilized.

We formalize the dispatching challenge as a mixed-integer programming (MIP) problem. The objective is to maximize the total profit across all vehicles and assigned paths, expressed as:

$$\max_{x_{P,v}} \sum_{P,v} x_{P,v} \Pi(P),$$

where the binary decision variable $x_{P,v} = 1$ if vehicle v is assigned to path P , and $\Pi(P)$ denotes the profit associated with that trip. This optimisation is subject to several constraints. For each vehicle v , the total distance covered across all its assigned paths must not exceed its battery-limited range R_v , that is, $\sum_P x_{P,v} d(P) \leq R_v$. For each service zone z , the system must satisfy at least a fraction γ of local demand, ensuring $\sum_{P \in \mathcal{T}_H(z)} x_{P,v} \geq \gamma D_z$, where D_z is the total demand in zone

z. Finally, all assignment variables $x_{P,v}$ are binary.

While exact solutions via mixed-integer linear programming (MILP) are possible, they are computationally feasible only for small-scale instances. To handle realistic, large-scale networks, we instead adopt a heuristic approach based on priced flows. First, we construct a time-expanded graph in which arcs are annotated with the profit values $\Pi(P)$, effectively turning the dispatching problem into a network flow optimization. We then apply a minimum-cost flow algorithm, where profits are negated to fit into a cost-minimization framework, while respecting the operational constraints. To further refine the solution, we iteratively adjust the arc prices using dual variables through Lagrangian relaxation, continuing this process until no feasible path yields positive reduced profit.

The pricing model $\pi(P)$ is exogenous to this maximisation; however, the optimisation feeds back advisory signals to the pricing layer:

$$\text{if } \left. \frac{\partial \text{Profit}}{\partial \pi} \right|_P < 0 \implies \text{increase surge multiplier for similar trips.}$$

Remark 4.1. Because $\Pi(P)$ inherits continuity from $\pi(P)$ and differentiability from $c(P)$ (assumed smooth in energy usage and time), gradient-based fine-tuning is viable for real-time balancing between utilisation and margin.

5. AVOIDING STUCK SITUATIONS

A crucial consideration during routing is ensuring that vehicles do not get “stuck” due to obstructions. Unlike static graph traversal, real-time systems must handle dynamic graph states.

Formally, given a time-dependent graph $G_t = (V, E_t)$, where E_t reflects available edges at time t , the system must ensure that for any planned path P , there exists at least one feasible continuation or return route:

$$\forall v_i \in P, \quad \exists (v_i, v_j) \in E_t \quad \text{or} \quad v_i = t$$

To avoid getting stuck:

- (1) **Dynamic graph updates:** Continuously ingest live traffic data, road conditions, and closures.
- (2) **Redundant routing:** Prefer paths with multiple exits or alternative subpaths.
- (3) **Real-time replanning:** Upon detecting a blockage, invoke a fast rerouting algorithm (e.g., Dijkstra or A* on the updated graph).
- (4) **Constraint encoding:** Penalize paths traversing historically unreliable edges or choke points.

This transforms the routing problem into a robust optimization under uncertainty.

Introducing dynamic updates increases computational demand:

$$O(f \cdot (n \log n + m))$$

where f is the frequency of graph updates, n the number of vertices, and m the number of edges.

6. REAL-WORLD CONSTRAINT: FREEWAY EXCLUSION

A major challenge is the mandated exclusion of freeway segments from all routing computations. Unlike conventional navigation systems, which typically prioritize freeways to minimize travel time, DriveBot’s routing algorithms must respect regulatory constraints prohibiting freeway usage in certain California counties. This restriction introduces both mathematical and engineering complexity, transforming the routing problem from a pure optimization task into a constrained optimization problem embedded within a dynamic socio-technical environment.

Formally, let $G = (V, E)$ be a finite directed graph representing the road network, and let $F \subseteq E$ denote the set of freeway edges. We define the constrained edge set $E' := E \setminus F$ and the modified graph $G' = (V, E')$. Any feasible path $P = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k)$ from source s to target t is thus characterized by the property that for all i , $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E'$, guaranteeing that no freeway segments are traversed.

The implementation of freeway exclusion follows a layered approach. First, freeway edges are systematically pruned from the graph prior to any path computation, ensuring that all downstream algorithms operate exclusively on the reduced subgraph G' . In scenarios where complete exclusion would render G' disconnected, a soft-penalty mechanism is employed: freeway edges are retained but assigned prohibitively high weights, denoted $w'(e) = M$ with $M \gg \max_{e \in E} w(e)$, thereby disincentivizing but not strictly forbidding their use. After a candidate path is computed, an explicit validation check ensures that no freeway segments appear in the final solution, providing a fail-safe against potential data or implementation inconsistencies.

The exclusion of freeway segments fundamentally alters the routing landscape. Topologically, the removal of F increases the average path length, introduces potential connectivity challenges, and amplifies the combinatorial complexity of non-trivial paths. Computationally, while the reduction in edge count may decrease the raw search space, the need to explore longer or less direct alternatives can paradoxically increase the per-query computational burden.

We formalize the existence of optimal freeway-free solutions with the following result:

Theorem 6.1 (Existence of Freeway-Free Optimal Path). *Let $\mathcal{S}_{-F}(s, t)$ denote the set of all simple paths from s to t in G' and let $\pi(P)$ be a continuous cost function defined over paths. If $\mathcal{S}_{-F}(s, t)$ is non-empty, then there exists at least one path $P^* \in \mathcal{S}_{-F}(s, t)$ such that $\pi(P^*) = \min_{P \in \mathcal{S}_{-F}(s, t)} \pi(P)$.*

Proof. Since G is finite, the set $\mathcal{S}_{-F}(s, t)$ is finite. The function $\pi(P)$, being continuous over a finite domain, attains both a minimum and maximum by the extreme value theorem. Thus, the existence of P^* achieving the minimal cost over freeway-free paths is guaranteed. \square

7. OPTIMIZED ALGORITHM DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

We propose a hybrid graph-based strategy that leverages:

- **Dijkstra’s Algorithm:** For shortest-path computation on non-negative weighted graphs, ensuring minimal cost paths efficiently.
- **A* Search Algorithm:** When faster convergence is needed, we augment Dijkstra with an admissible heuristic $h(v)$ (e.g., straight-line distance or minimal time estimate), directing the search towards the target node.
- **Dynamic Programming (Bellman-Ford Algorithm):** In scenarios where edge weights can be negative (e.g., subsidies, discounts), we deploy Bellman-Ford, ensuring correctness even in the presence of negative weights while avoiding negative cycles.

Pseudocode.

```
FUNCTION ComputeOptimalRoute(Graph G, Node source, Node target):
```

```
  IF G has negative edge weights THEN
    paths = BellmanFord(G, source)
  ELSE IF heuristic h available THEN
    paths = AStarSearch(G, source, target, h)
  ELSE
    paths = Dijkstra(G, source)
  RETURN paths[target]
```

```
FUNCTION UpdateGraphWeights(Graph G):
```

```
  FOR each edge e in G:
    e.weight = BaseCost(e) * TrafficFactor(e) / AvailabilityFactor(e)
```

```
FUNCTION ReplanRouteIfNeeded(CurrentPath, G):
```

```
  IF SignificantEventDetected():
    UpdateGraphWeights(G)
    return ComputeOptimalRoute(G, CurrentNode(), Destination())
  ELSE
    return CurrentPath
```

Complexity Analysis. Dijkstra’s algorithm, when implemented with a binary heap, achieves a time complexity of $O((n + m) \log n)$, where n is the number of vertices and m is the number of edges. This accounts for efficient extraction of the minimum-distance node and edge relaxations. The associated space complexity is $O(n + m)$.

The A* search algorithm shares the same worst-case time complexity as Dijkstra’s— $O((n + m) \log n)$ —but generally performs faster in practice. By leveraging an admissible heuristic, A* prunes large parts of the search space, often converging faster to the target node. Its space complexity is similar to Dijkstra’s but may require additional storage for heuristic values.

In scenarios where negative edge weights exist, the Bellman-Ford algorithm is employed. Bellman-Ford guarantees correctness with a time complexity of $O(nm)$ and space complexity of $O(n + m)$, provided there are no negative-weight cycles. Although asymptotically slower, it is necessary to preserve correctness in such edge cases.

When factoring in real-time system dynamics—such as live traffic, demand fluctuations, or vehicle availability—the algorithm introduces additional complexity for updates. Updating all edge weights across the graph incurs $O(m)$ time per update cycle, with negligible extra space overhead beyond storing the updated weights.

The brute-force approach, which exhaustively enumerates all simple paths between source and target, suffers from factorial time complexity, specifically $O(k!)$ for k nodes along a path. This renders it computationally infeasible even for moderately sized graphs. By contrast, our optimized algorithms dramatically reduce the search space through several key strategies. Graph-based algorithms such as Dijkstra’s and A* inherently limit exploration to the most promising paths, rather than all possible permutations. Greedy methods further enhance efficiency by making locally optimal decisions at each step, which often leads to near-optimal global solutions with minimal overhead. Dynamic programming techniques, such as those embedded in Bellman-Ford, propagate minimal costs across the graph efficiently, avoiding redundant recalculations and leveraging previously computed sub-results. Additionally, heuristic-driven search, as exemplified by A*, accelerates convergence by guiding the search toward the goal node without exhaustively exploring the entire graph.

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