

Lecture 12

Bellman-Ford, Floyd-Warshall,
and Dynamic Programming!

Announcements

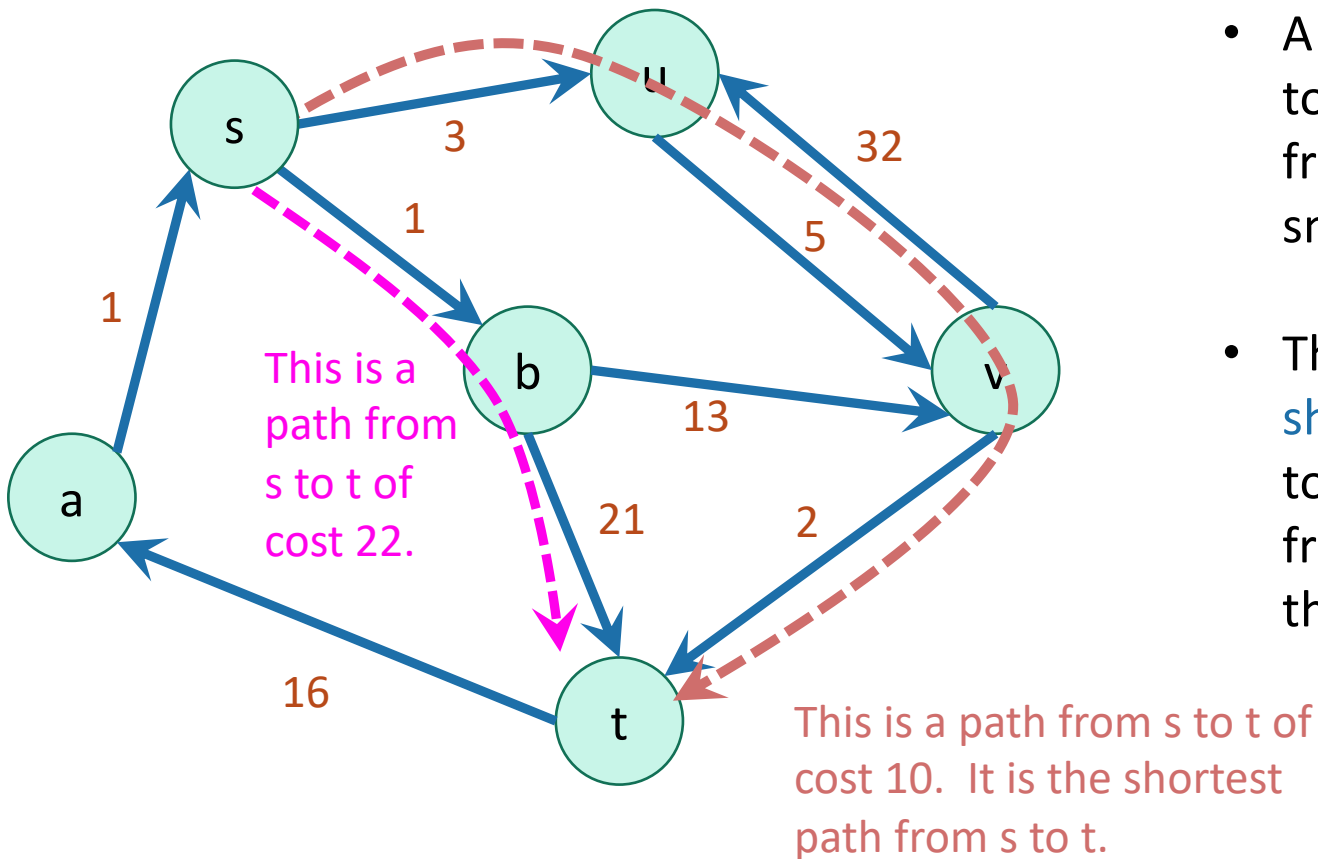
- Homework 5 due today

Today

- Bellman-Ford Algorithm
- Bellman-Ford is a special case of *Dynamic Programming!*
- What is dynamic programming?
 - Warm-up example: Fibonacci numbers
- Another example:
 - Floyd-Warshall Algorithm

Recall

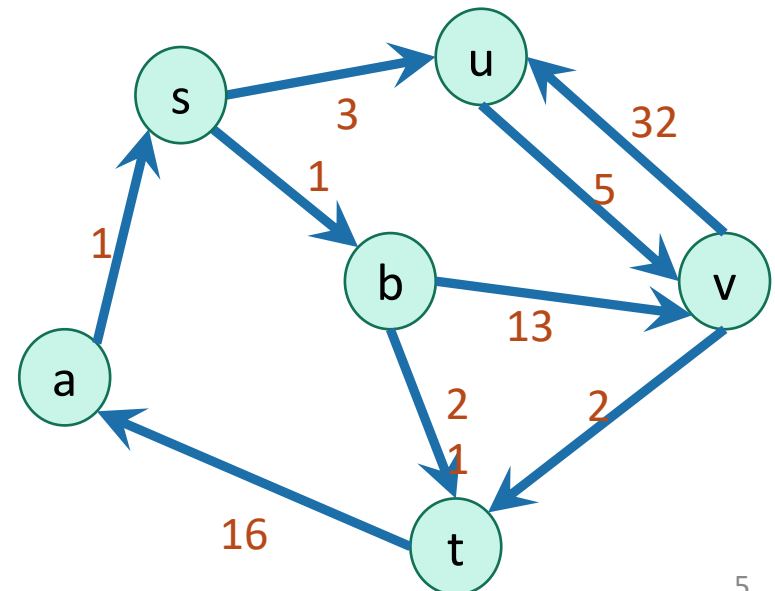
- A weighted directed graph:



- Weights on edges represent **costs**.
- The **cost of a path** is the sum of the weights along that path.
- A **shortest path** from s to t is a directed path from s to t with the smallest cost.
- The **single-source shortest path problem** is to find the shortest path from s to v for all v in the graph.

Last time

- Dijkstra's algorithm!
 - Solves the single-source shortest path problem in weighted graphs.



Dijkstra Drawbacks

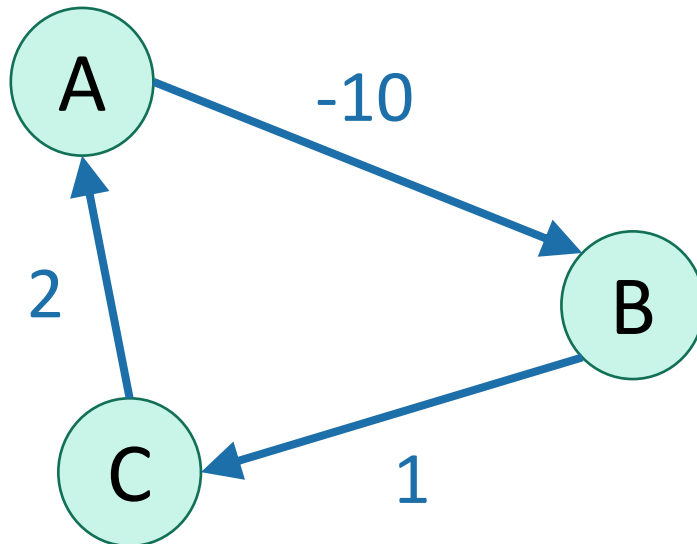
- Needs **non-negative edge weights**.
- If the weights change, we need to re-run the whole thing.

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

Aside: Negative Cycles

- A **negative cycle** is a cycle whose edge weights sum to a negative number.
- Shortest paths aren't defined when there are negative cycles!



The shortest path from A to B has cost...negative infinity?

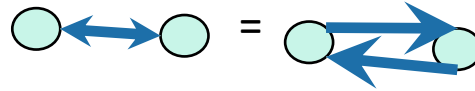
Bellman-Ford algorithm

- (-) Slower than Dijkstra's algorithm
- (+) Can handle negative edge weights.
 - Can **detect** negative cycles!
 - 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

Bellman-Ford vs. Dijkstra

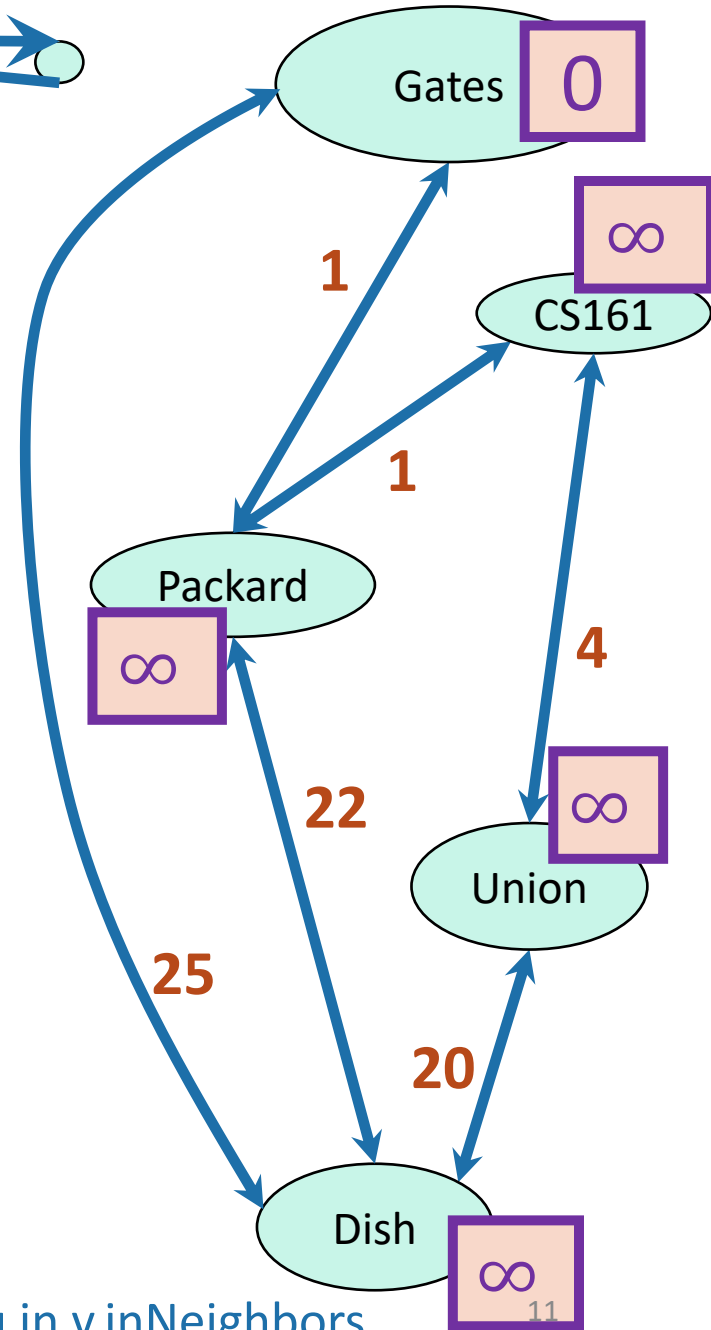
- Dijkstra:
 - Find the u with the smallest $d[u]$
 - Update u 's neighbors: $d[v] = \min(d[v], d[u] + w(u,v))$
- Bellman-Ford:
 - Don't bother finding the u with the smallest $d[u]$
 - Everyone updates!

Bellman-Ford



How far is a node from Gates?

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

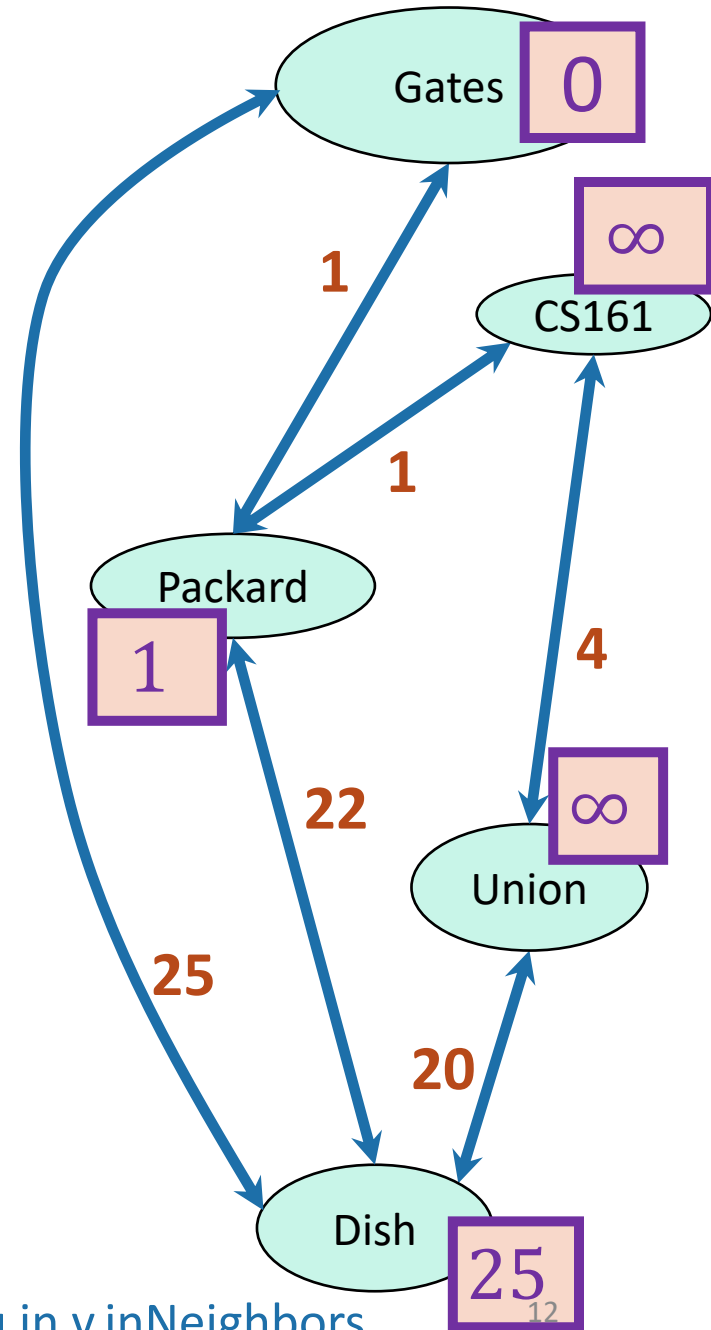


- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For v in V :
 - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v] , d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v))$
 where we are also taking the min over all u in $v.inNeighbors$

Bellman-Ford

How far is a node from Gates?

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|-----------|-------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| $d^{(0)}$ | 0 | ∞ | ∞ | ∞ | ∞ |
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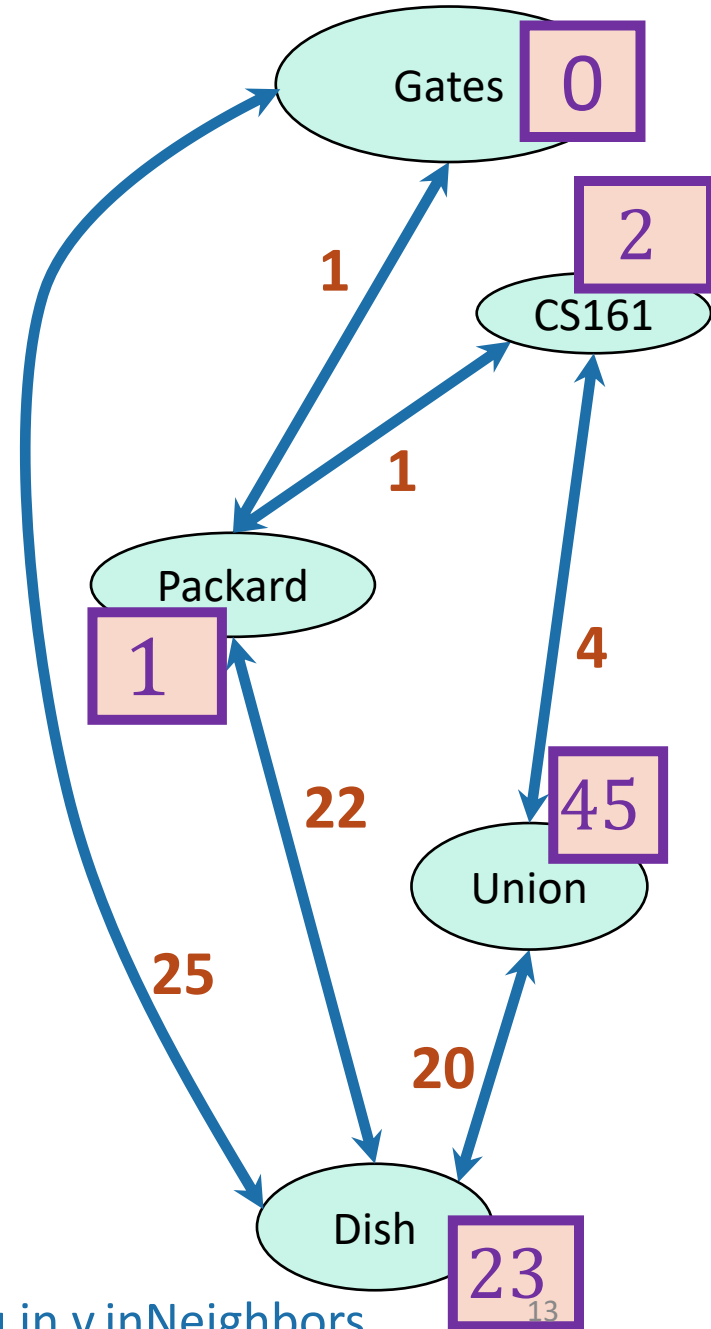


- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
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Bellman-Ford

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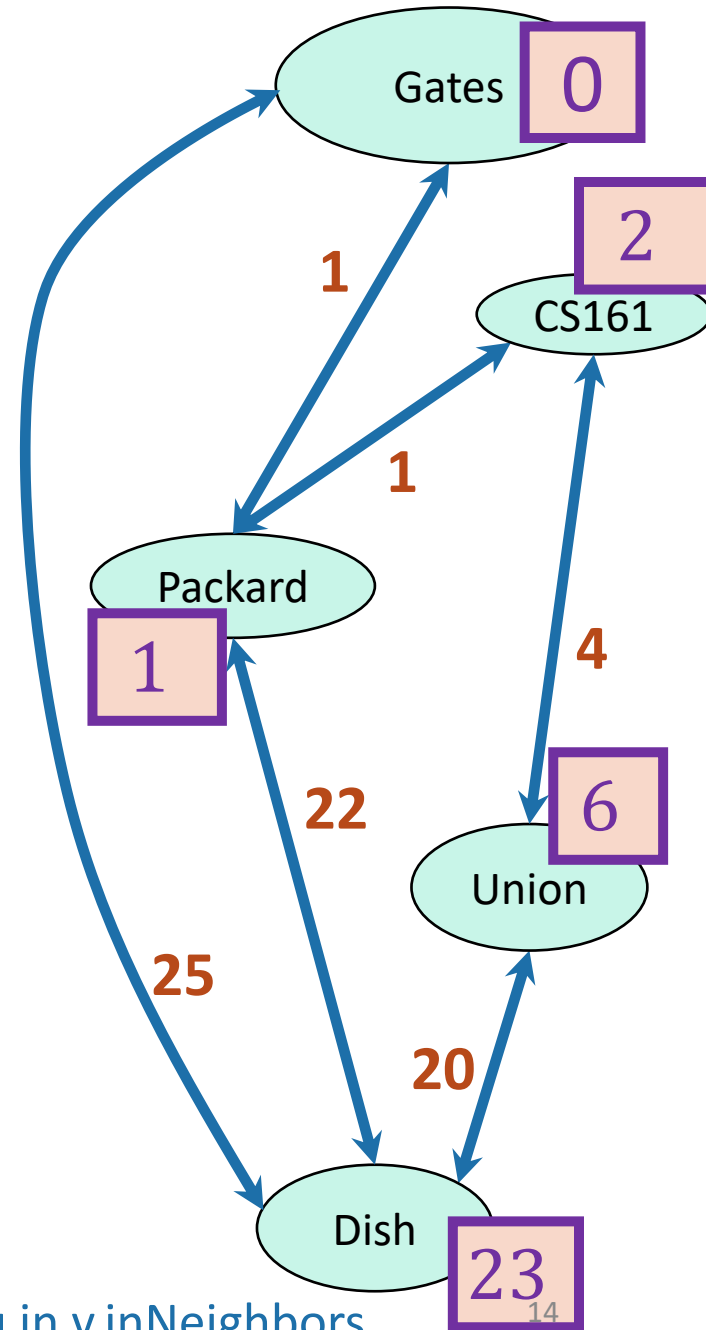


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Bellman-Ford

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- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For v in V :
 - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v] , d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v))$
 where we are also taking the min over all u in $v.inNeighbors$

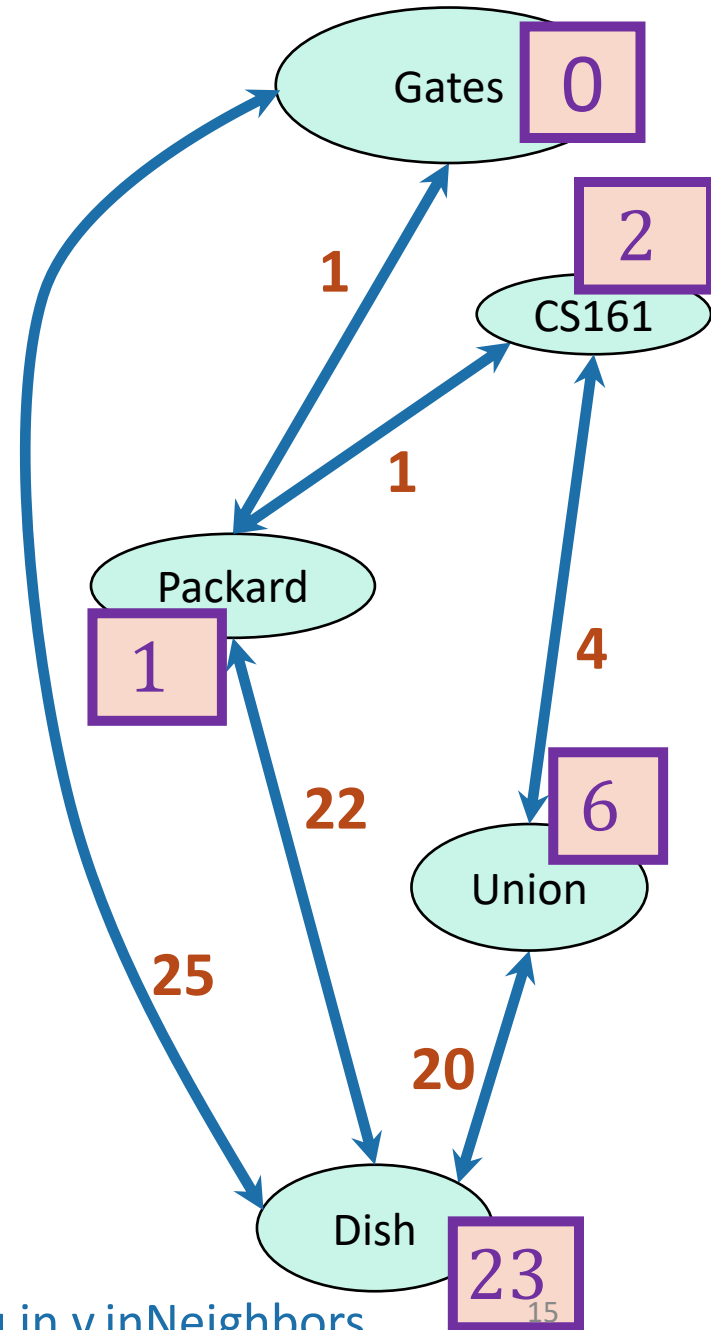
Bellman-Ford

How far is a node from Gates?

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These are the final distances!

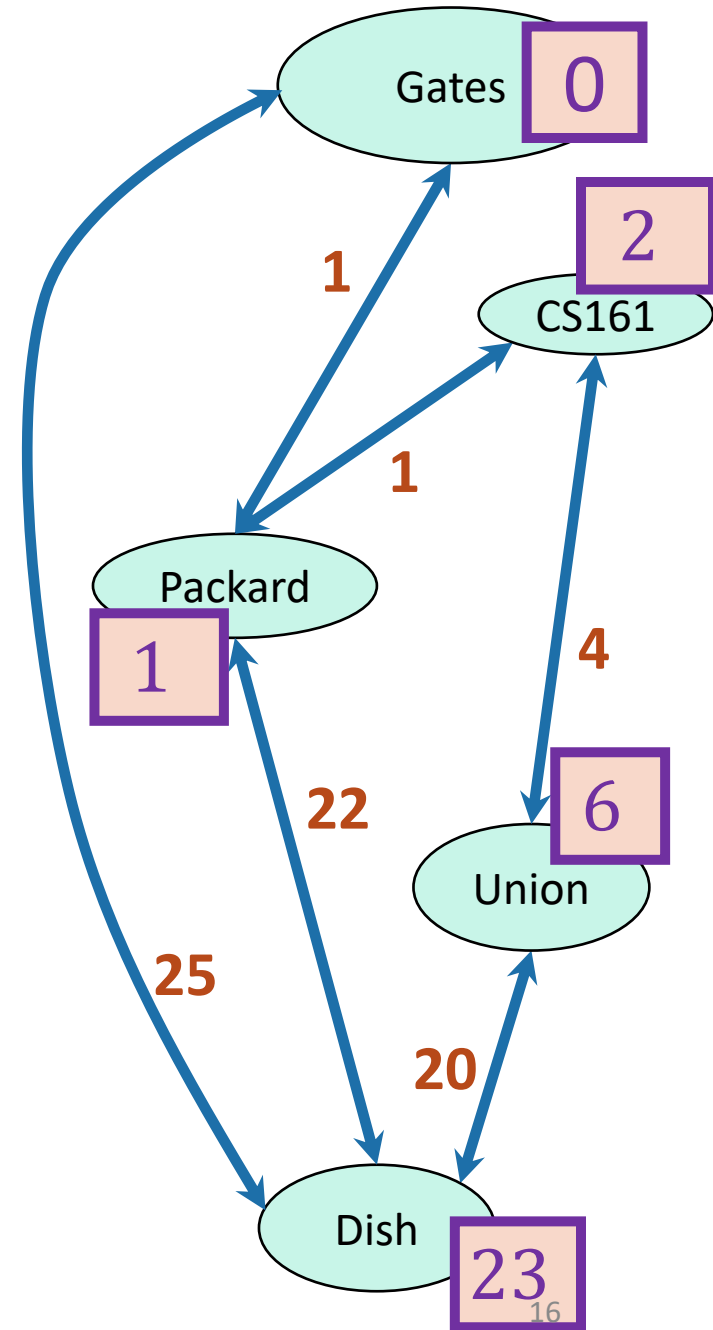
- For $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - For v in V :
 - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v] , d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v))$
 where we are also taking the min over all u in $v.inNeighbors$



Interpretation of $d^{(i)}$

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

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|-----------|-------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
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Why does Bellman-Ford work?

- 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 path between s and v **with at most $n-1$ edges**.

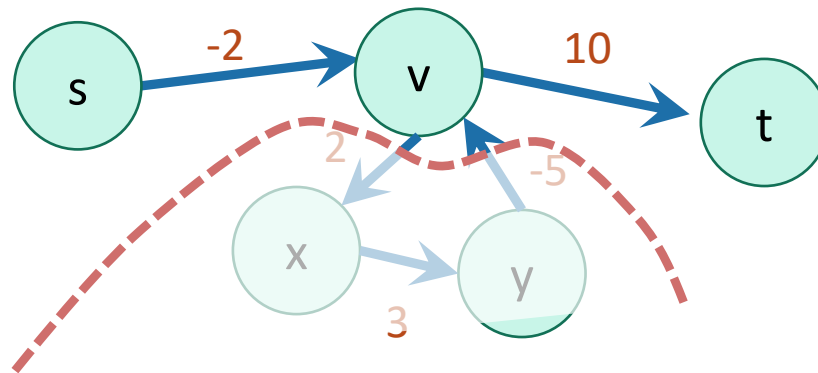
Do the base case and inductive step!



Aside: simple paths

Assume there is no negative cycle.

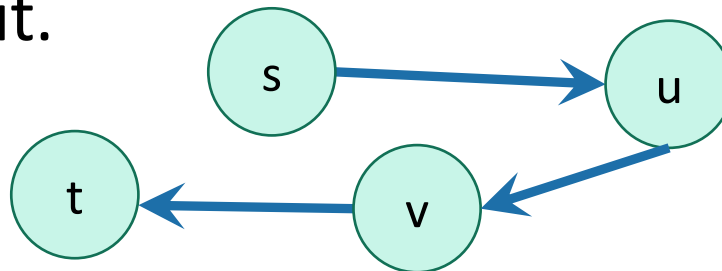
- Then there is a shortest path from s to t , and moreover there is a **simple** shortest path.



This cycle isn't helping. Just get rid of it.

- A **simple path** in a graph with n vertices has at most $n-1$ edges in it.

Can't add another edge without making a cycle!



"Simple" means that the path has no cycles in it.



- So there is a shortest path with at most $n-1$ edges

Why does it work?

- 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 path between s and v **with at most $n-1$ edges**.
 - **If there are no negative cycles**, $d^{(n-1)}[v]$ is equal to the cost of the shortest path.

Notice that negative edge **weights** are fine.
Just not negative cycles.

Bellman-Ford* algorithm

Bellman-Ford*(G,s):

- Initialize arrays $d^{(0)}, \dots, d^{(n-1)}$ of length n
- $d^{(0)}[v] = \infty$ for all v in V
- $d^{(0)}[s] = 0$
- **For** $i=0, \dots, n-2$:
 - **For** v in V :
 - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v] , \min_{u \text{ in } v.\text{inNbrs}} \{d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v)\})$
- Now, $\text{dist}(s,v) = d^{(n-1)}[v]$ for all v in V .
 - (Assuming no negative cycles)

Here, Dijkstra picked a special vertex u and updated u 's neighbors – Bellman-Ford will update all the vertices.

*Slightly different than some versions of Bellman-Ford...but this way is pedagogically convenient for today's lecture.

We don't even need two, just one array is fine. Why?



Note on implementation

- Don't actually keep all n arrays around.
- Just keep two at a time: "last round" and "this round"

| | Gates | Packard | CS161 | Union | Dish |
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Only need these two in order to compute $d^{(4)}$

Bellman-Ford take-aways

- Running time is $O(mn)$
 - For each of n rounds, update m edges.
- Works fine with negative edges.
- Does not work with negative cycles.
 - No algorithm can – shortest paths aren't defined if there are negative cycles.
- B-F can detect negative cycles!
 - See skipped slides to see how, or think about it on your own!
- For your own information: by now we have faster (but complicated) algorithms with runtime $\simeq O(m \log(n)^c)$ as long as weights are not too large in magnitude!

[Bernstein-Nanongkai-Wulff-Nilsen'2022]

Technically, the weights need to be integers, and then the runtime scales linearly with $\log(W)$ where W is the largest absolute value of the weights.

Bellman-Ford algorithm

Bellman-Ford*(G,s):

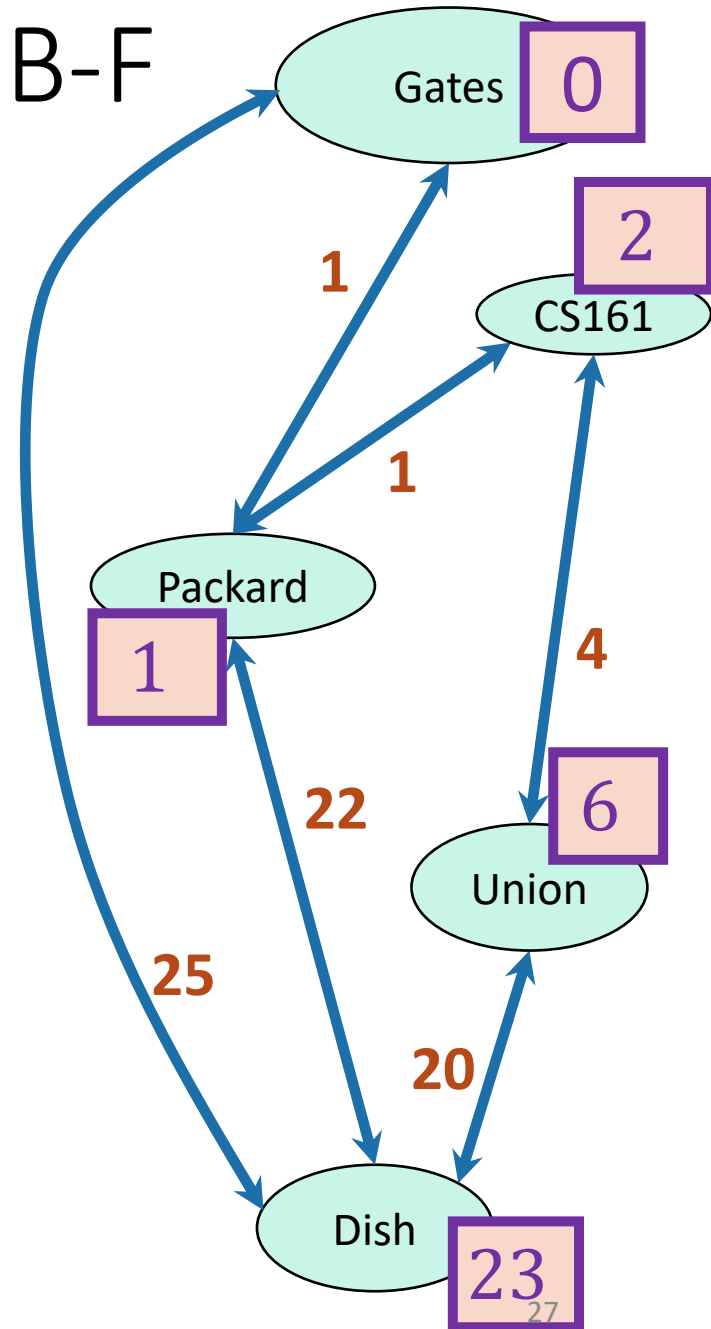
- $d^{(0)}[v] = U$ for all v , where U is a very large number
- $d^{(0)}[s] = 0$
- **For** $i=0, \dots, n-1$:
 - **For** v in V :
 - $d^{(i+1)}[v] \leftarrow \min(d^{(i)}[v] , \min_{u \text{ in } v.\text{inNeighbors}} \{d^{(i)}[u] + w(u,v)\})$
- **If** $d^{(n-1)} \neq d^{(n)}$:
 - **Return** **NEGATIVE CYCLE** 😞
- **Otherwise**, $\text{dist}(s,v) = d^{(n-1)}[v]$

Running time: $O(mn)$

Important thing about B-F for the rest of this lecture

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

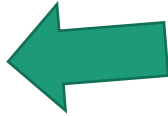
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Bellman-Ford is an example of...

Dynamic Programming!

Today:

- Example of Dynamic programming: 
 - Fibonacci numbers.
 - (And Bellman-Ford)
- What is dynamic programming, exactly?
 - And why is it called “dynamic programming”?
- Another example: Floyd-Warshall algorithm
 - An “all-pairs” shortest path algorithm

Pre-Lecture exercise:

How not to compute Fibonacci Numbers

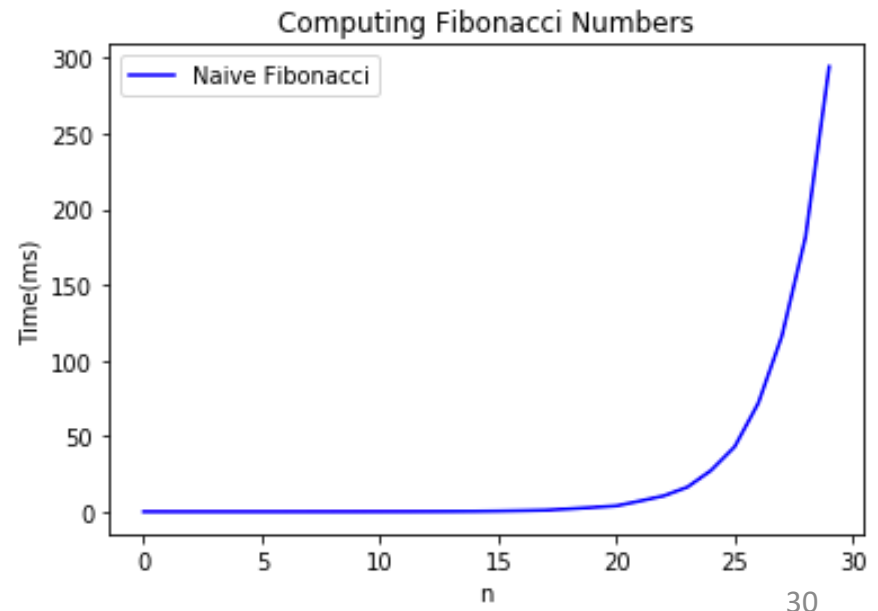
- Definition:
 - $F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)$, with $F(1) = F(2) = 1$.
 - The first several are:
 - 1
 - 1
 - 2
 - 3
 - 5
 - 8
 - 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144,...
- Question:
 - Given n , what is $F(n)$?

Candidate algorithm

```
• def Fibonacci(n):  
    • if n == 0, return 0  
    • if n == 1, return 1  
    • return Fibonacci(n-1) + Fibonacci(n-2)
```

Running time?

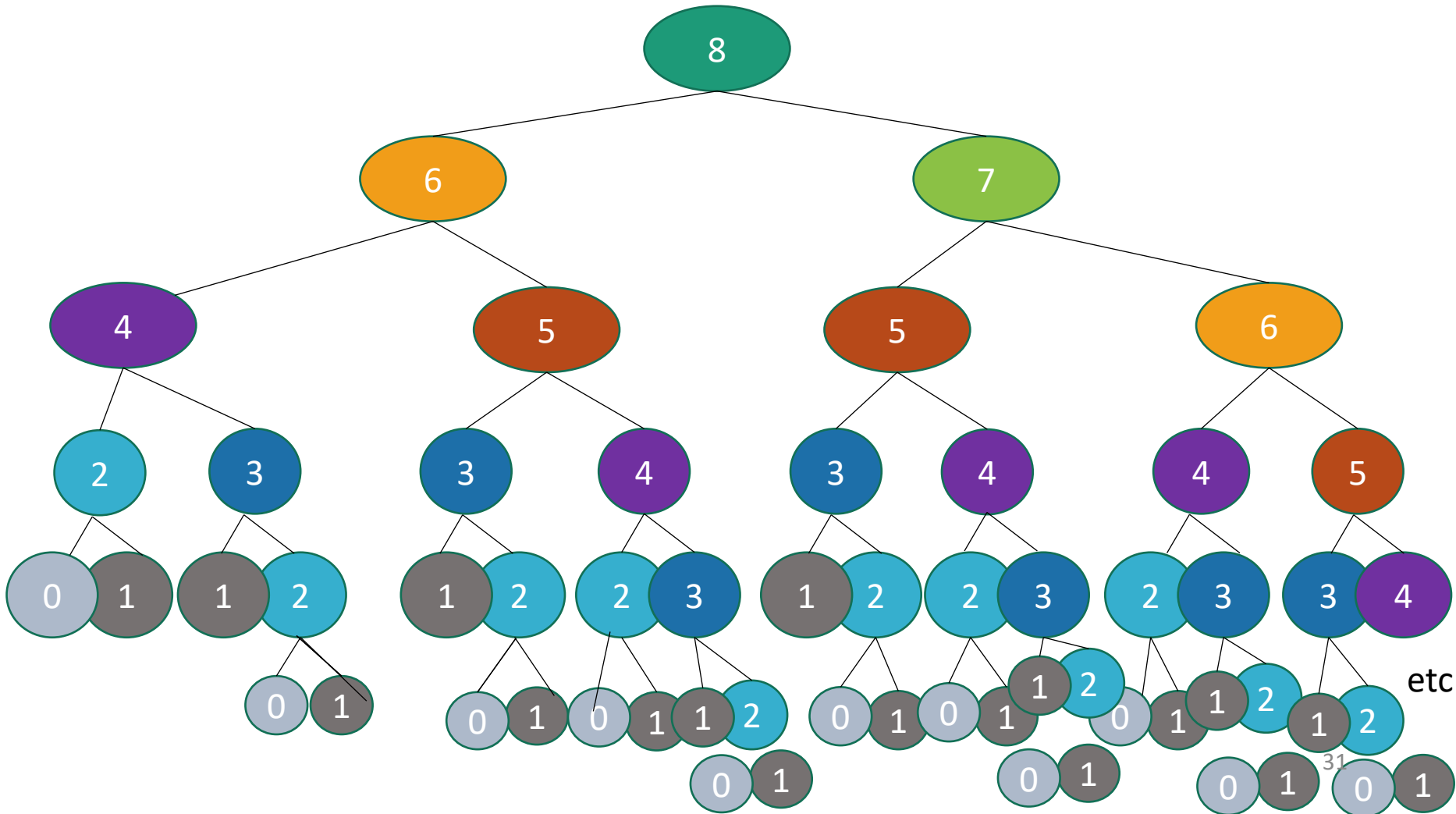
- $T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-2) + O(1)$
- $T(n) \geq T(n-1) + T(n-2)$ for $n \geq 2$
- So $T(n)$ grows *at least* as fast as the Fibonacci numbers themselves...
- This is **EXPONENTIALLY QUICKLY!**
 $T(n) \geq 2T(n-2)$ implies
 $T(n) \geq \Omega(2^{n/2})$.



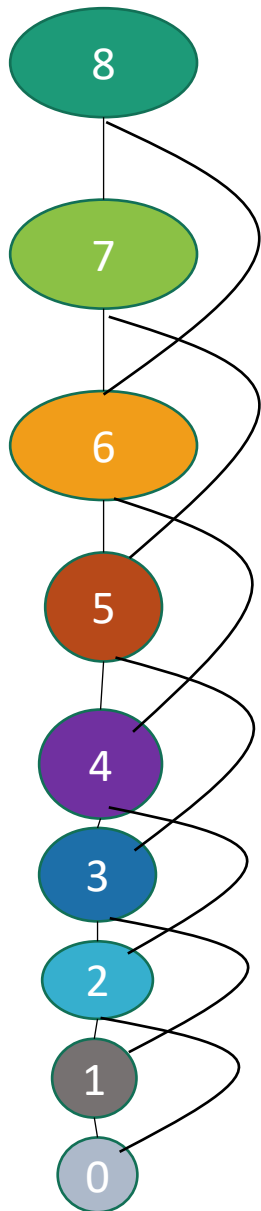
See IPython notebook for lecture 12

What's going on?
Consider $\text{Fib}(8)$

That's a lot of
repeated
computation!

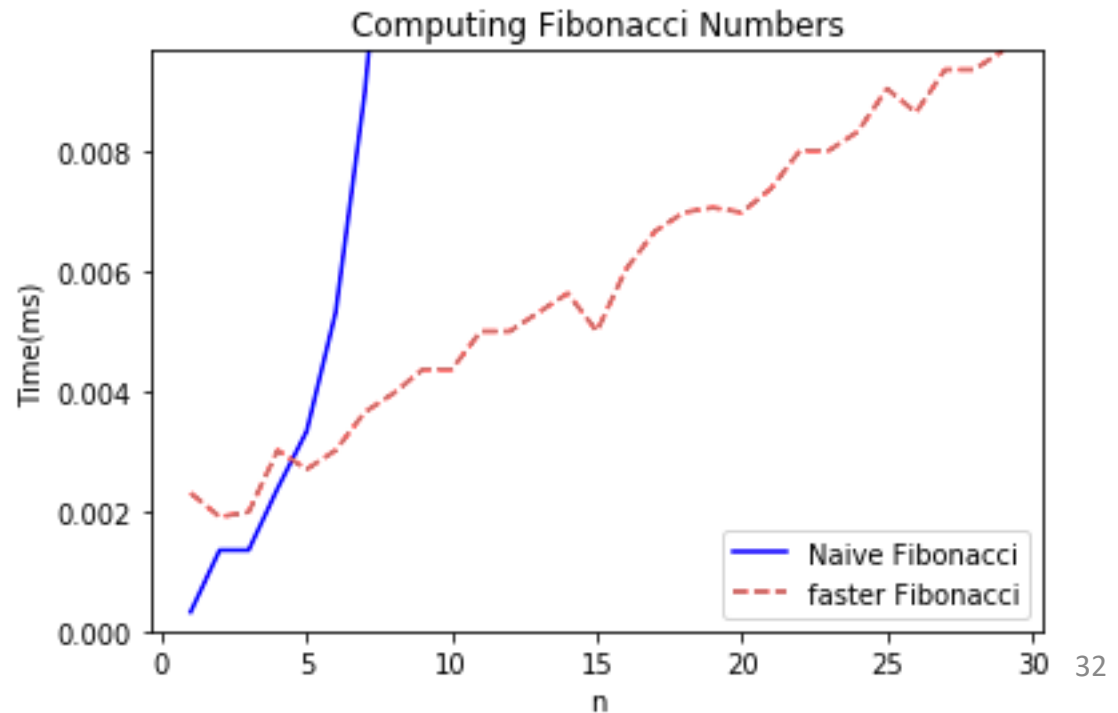


Maybe this would be better:



```
def fasterFibonacci(n):  
    • F = [0, 1, None, None, ..., None ]  
      • \\ F has length n + 1  
    • for i = 2, ..., n:  
      • F[i] = F[i-1] + F[i-2]  
    • return F[n]
```

Much better running time!



This was an example of...

*Dynamic
programming!*

What is *dynamic programming*?

- It is an algorithm design paradigm
 - like divide-and-conquer is an algorithm design paradigm.
- Usually, it is for solving **optimization problems**
 - E.g., *shortest* path
 - (Fibonacci numbers aren't an optimization problem, but they are a good example of DP anyway...)

Elements of dynamic programming

1. Optimal sub-structure:

- Big problems break up into sub-problems.
 - Fibonacci: $F(i)$ for $i \leq n$
 - Bellman-Ford: Shortest paths with at most i edges for $i \leq n$
- The solution to a problem can be expressed in terms of solutions to smaller sub-problems.
 - Fibonacci:

$$F(i+1) = F(i) + F(i-1)$$

- Bellman-Ford:

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

Shortest path with at most i edges from s to v

Shortest path with at most i edges from s to u .

Elements of dynamic programming

2. Overlapping sub-problems:

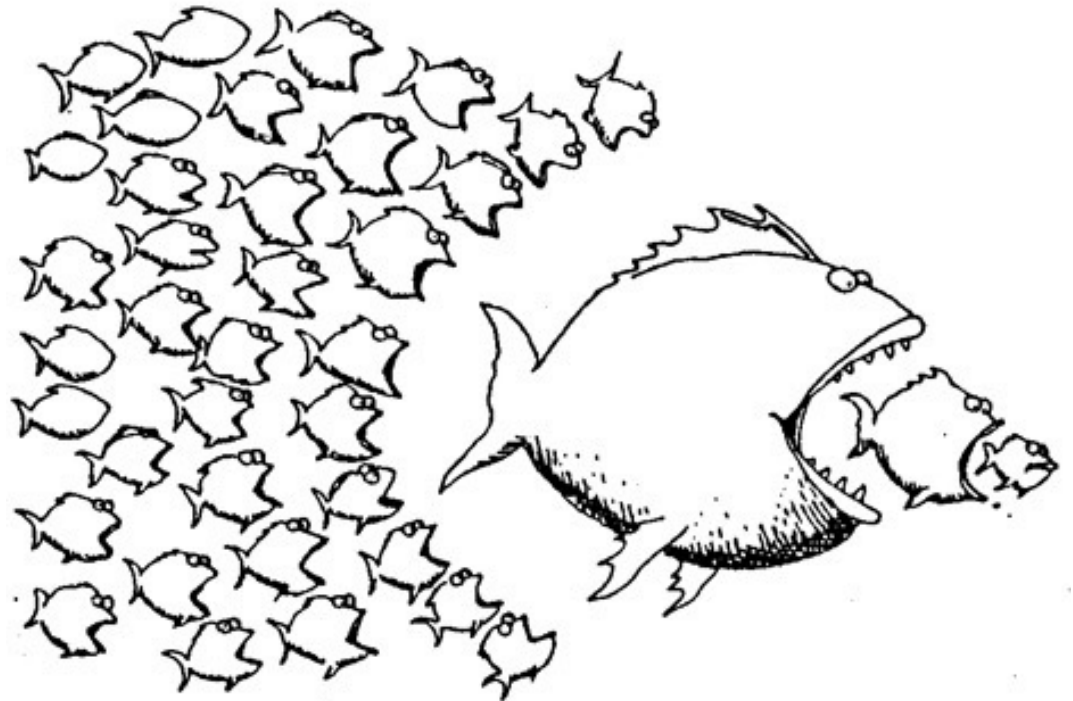
- The sub-problems overlap.
 - **Fibonacci:**
 - Both $F[i+1]$ and $F[i+2]$ directly use $F[i]$.
 - And lots of different $F[i+x]$ indirectly use $F[i]$.
 - **Bellman-Ford:**
 - Many different entries of $d^{(i+1)}$ will directly use $d^{(i)}[v]$.
 - And lots of different entries of $d^{(i+x)}$ will indirectly use $d^{(i)}[v]$.
- This means that we can save time by solving a sub-problem just once and storing the answer.

Elements of dynamic programming

- Optimal substructure.
 - Optimal solutions to sub-problems can be used to find the optimal solution of the original problem.
- Overlapping subproblems.
 - The subproblems show up again and again
- Using these properties, we can design a *dynamic programming* algorithm:
 - Keep a table of solutions to the smaller problems.
 - Use the solutions in the table to solve bigger problems.
 - At the end we can use information we collected along the way to find the solution to the whole thing.

Two ways to think about and/or implement DP algorithms

- Top down
- Bottom up

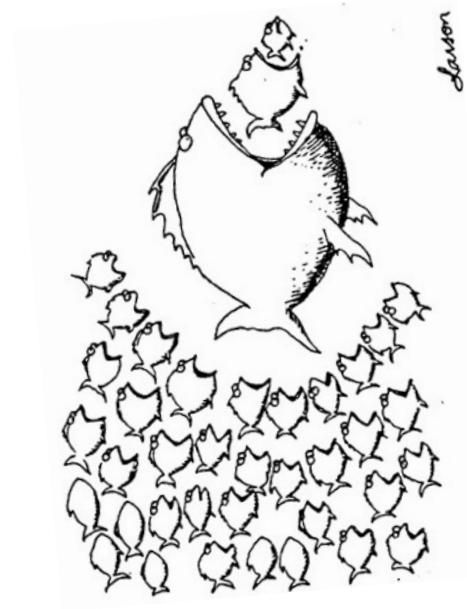


Larson

Bottom up approach

what we just saw.

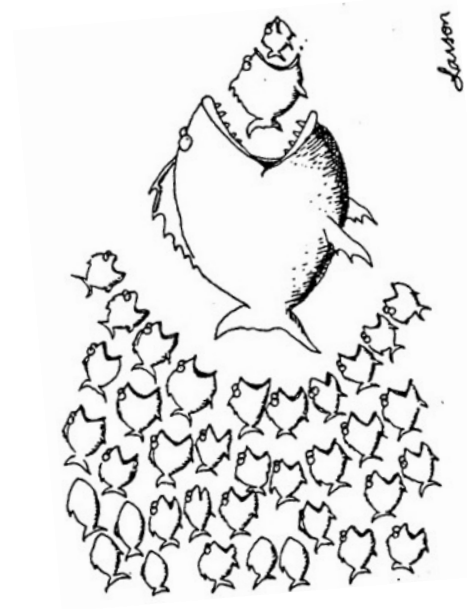
- For Fibonacci:
- Solve the small problems first
 - fill in $F[0], F[1]$
- Then bigger problems
 - fill in $F[2]$
- ...
- Then bigger problems
 - fill in $F[n-1]$
- Then finally solve the real problem.
 - fill in $F[n]$



Bottom up approach

what we just saw.

- For Bellman-Ford:
- Solve the small problems first
 - fill in $d^{(0)}$
- Then bigger problems
 - fill in $d^{(1)}$
- ...
- Then bigger problems
 - fill in $d^{(n-2)}$
- Then finally solve the real problem.
 - fill in $d^{(n-1)}$



Top down approach

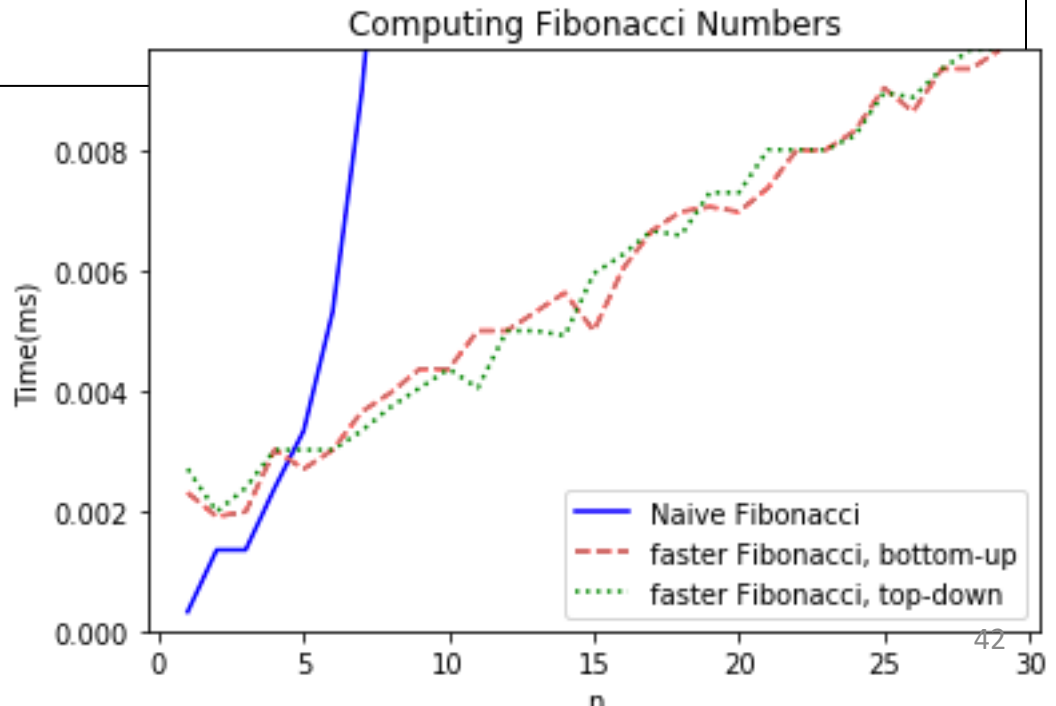
- Think of it like a recursive algorithm.
- To solve the big problem:
 - Recurse to solve smaller problems
 - Those recurse to solve smaller problems
 - etc..
- The difference from divide and conquer:
 - Keep track of what small problems you've already solved to prevent re-solving the same problem twice.
 - Aka, "**memo-ization**"



Example of top-down Fibonacci

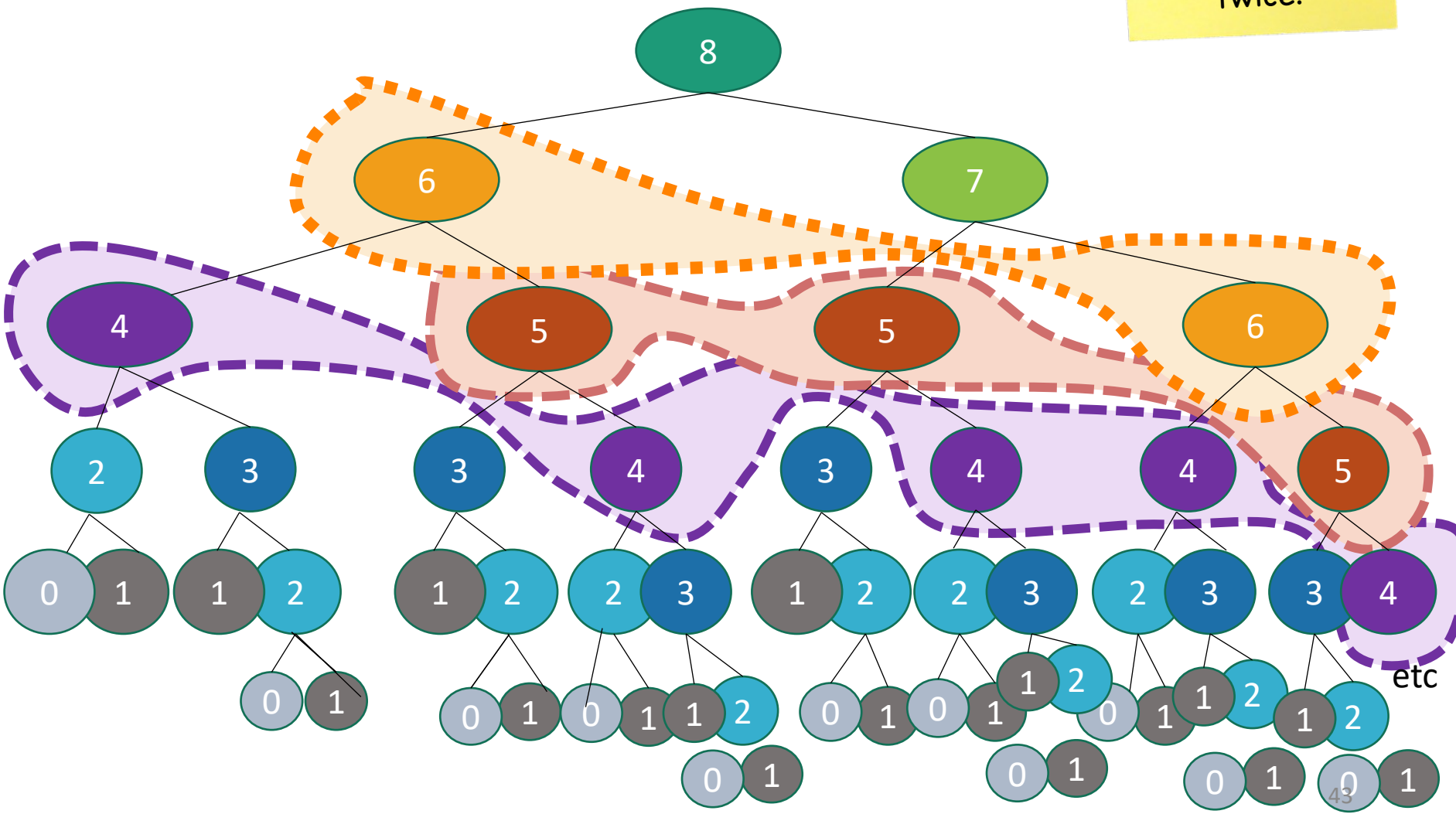
- define a global list `F = [0,1,None, None, ..., None]`
- **def** `Fibonacci(n)`:
 - **if** `F[n] != None`:
 - **return** `F[n]`
 - **else**:
 - `F[n] = Fibonacci(n-1) + Fibonacci(n-2)`
 - **return** `F[n]`

Memo-ization:
Keeps track (in F)
of the stuff you've
already done.



Memo-ization visualization

Collapse repeated nodes and don't do the same work twice!



etc

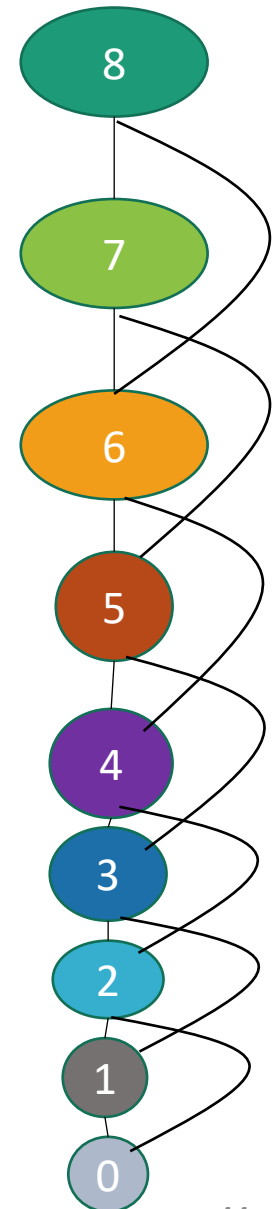
Memo-ization Visualization

ctd

Collapse
repeated nodes
and don't do the
same work
twice!

But otherwise
treat it like the
same old
recursive
algorithm.

- define a global list $F = [0, 1, \text{None}, \text{None}, \dots, \text{None}]$
- **def** Fibonacci(n):
 - **if** $F[n] \neq \text{None}$:
 - **return** $F[n]$
 - **else**:
 - $F[n] = \text{Fibonacci}(n-1) + \text{Fibonacci}(n-2)$
 - **return** $F[n]$



What have we learned?

- *Dynamic programming:*
 - Paradigm in algorithm design.
 - Uses **optimal substructure**
 - Uses **overlapping subproblems**
 - Can be implemented **bottom-up** or **top-down**.
 - It's a fancy name for a pretty common-sense idea:



Why “*dynamic programming*” ?

- **Programming** refers to finding the optimal “program.”
 - as in, a shortest route is a *plan* aka a *program*.
- **Dynamic** refers to the fact that it’s multi-stage.
- But also it’s just a fancy-sounding name.



Manipulating computer code in an action movie?

Why “*dynamic programming*” ?

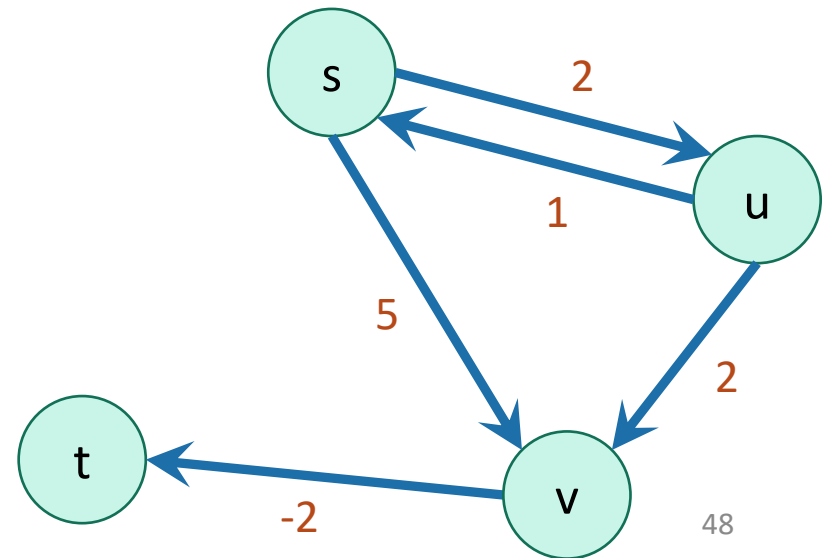
- Richard Bellman invented the name in the 1950's.
- At the time, he was working for the RAND Corporation, which was basically working for the Air Force, and government projects needed flashy names to get funded.
- From Bellman's autobiography:
 - “It's impossible to use the word, dynamic, in the pejorative sense...I thought dynamic programming was a good name. It was something not even a Congressman could object to.”

Floyd-Warshall Algorithm

Another example of DP

- This is an algorithm for **All-Pairs Shortest Paths (APSP)**
 - That is, I want to know the shortest path from u to v for **ALL** pairs u,v of vertices in the graph.
 - Not just from a special single source s .

| | | Destination | | | |
|--------|---|-------------|----------|----------|----|
| | | s | u | v | t |
| Source | s | 0 | 2 | 4 | 2 |
| | u | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| | v | ∞ | ∞ | 0 | -2 |
| | t | ∞ | ∞ | ∞ | 0 |



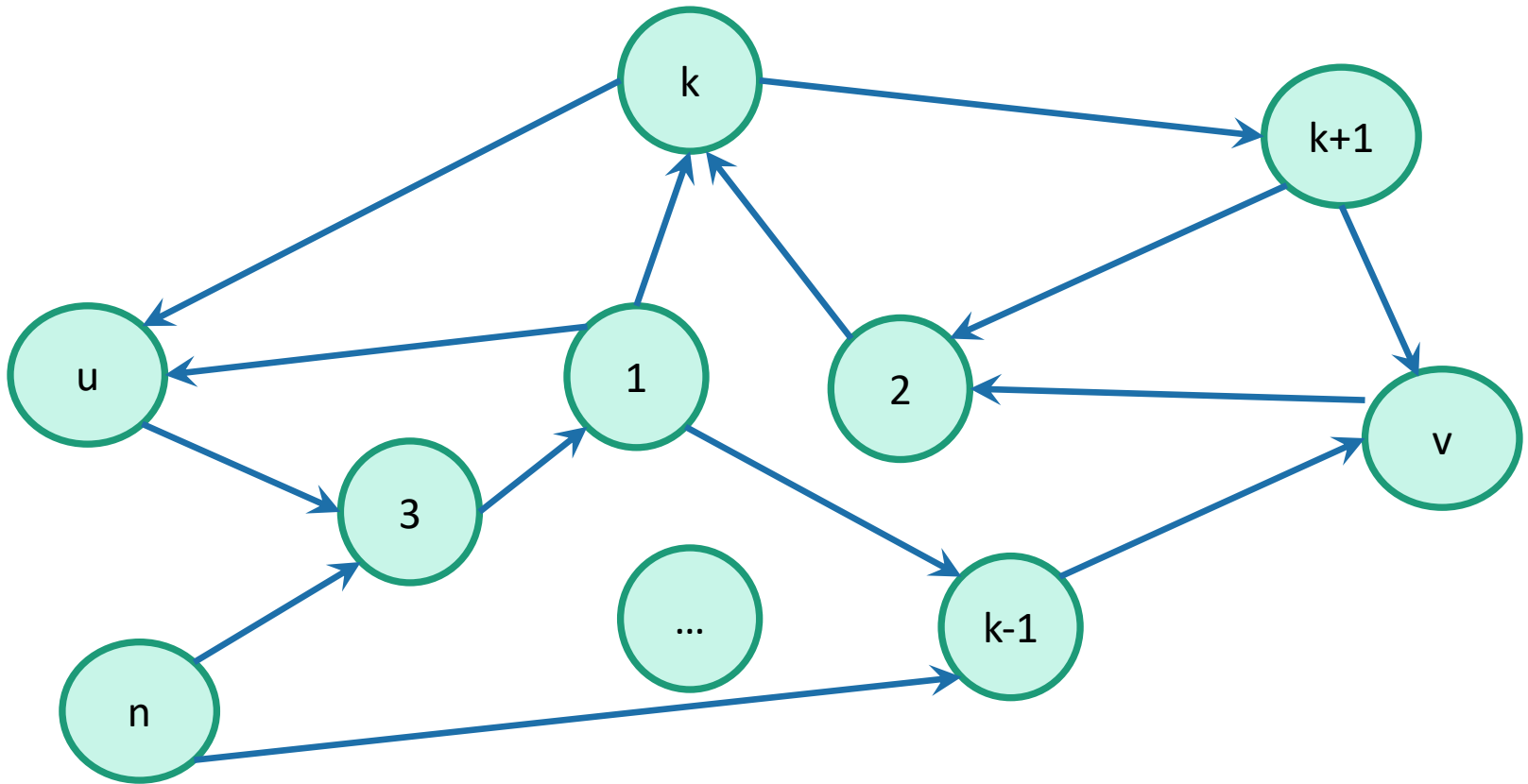
Floyd-Warshall Algorithm

Another example of DP

- This is an algorithm for **All-Pairs Shortest Paths (APSP)**
 - That is, I want to know the shortest path from u to v for **ALL pairs** u,v of vertices in the graph.
 - Not just from a special single source s .
- Naïve solution (if we want to handle negative edge weights):
 - For all s in G :
 - Run Bellman-Ford on G starting at s .
 - Time $O(n \cdot nm) = O(n^2m)$,
 - may be as bad as n^4 if $m=n^2$

Can we do better?

Optimal substructure



Optimal substructure

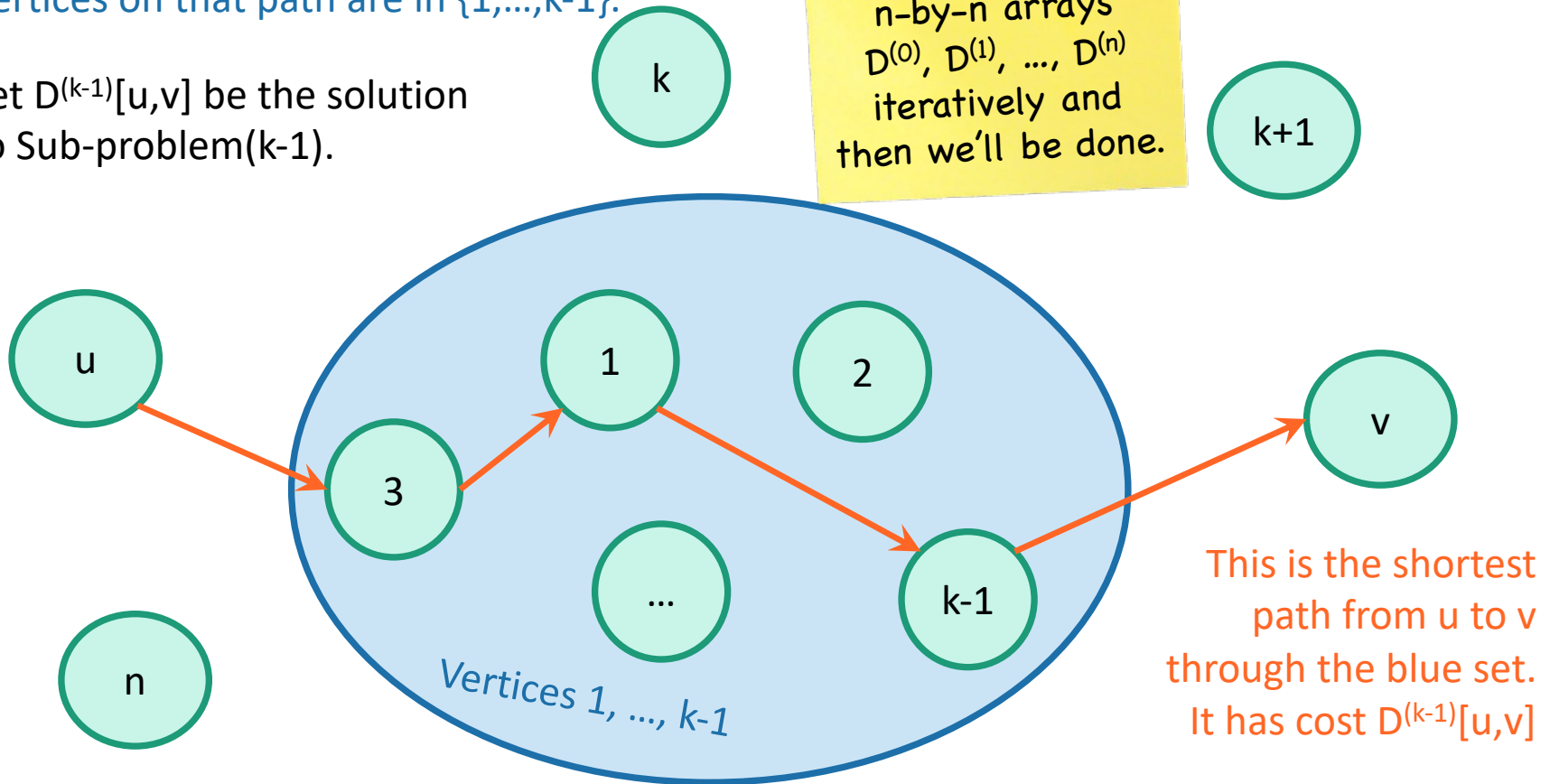
Label the vertices $1, 2, \dots, n$
(We omit some edges in the picture below – meant to be a cartoon, not an example).

Sub-problem(k-1):

For all pairs, u, v , find the cost of the shortest path from u to v , so that all the internal vertices on that path are in $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$.

Let $D^{(k-1)}[u, v]$ be the solution to Sub-problem(k-1).

Our DP algorithm will fill in the n -by- n arrays $D^{(0)}, D^{(1)}, \dots, D^{(n)}$ iteratively and then we'll be done.



Optimal substructure

Label the vertices $1, 2, \dots, n$
(We omit some edges in the picture below – meant to be a cartoon, not an example).

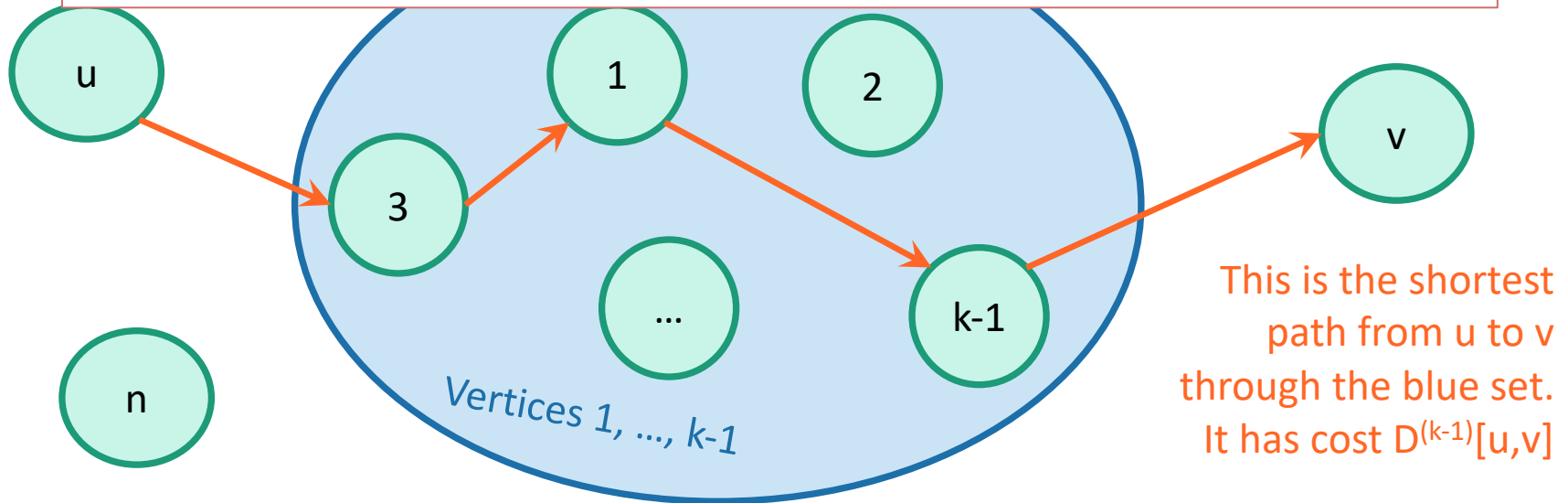
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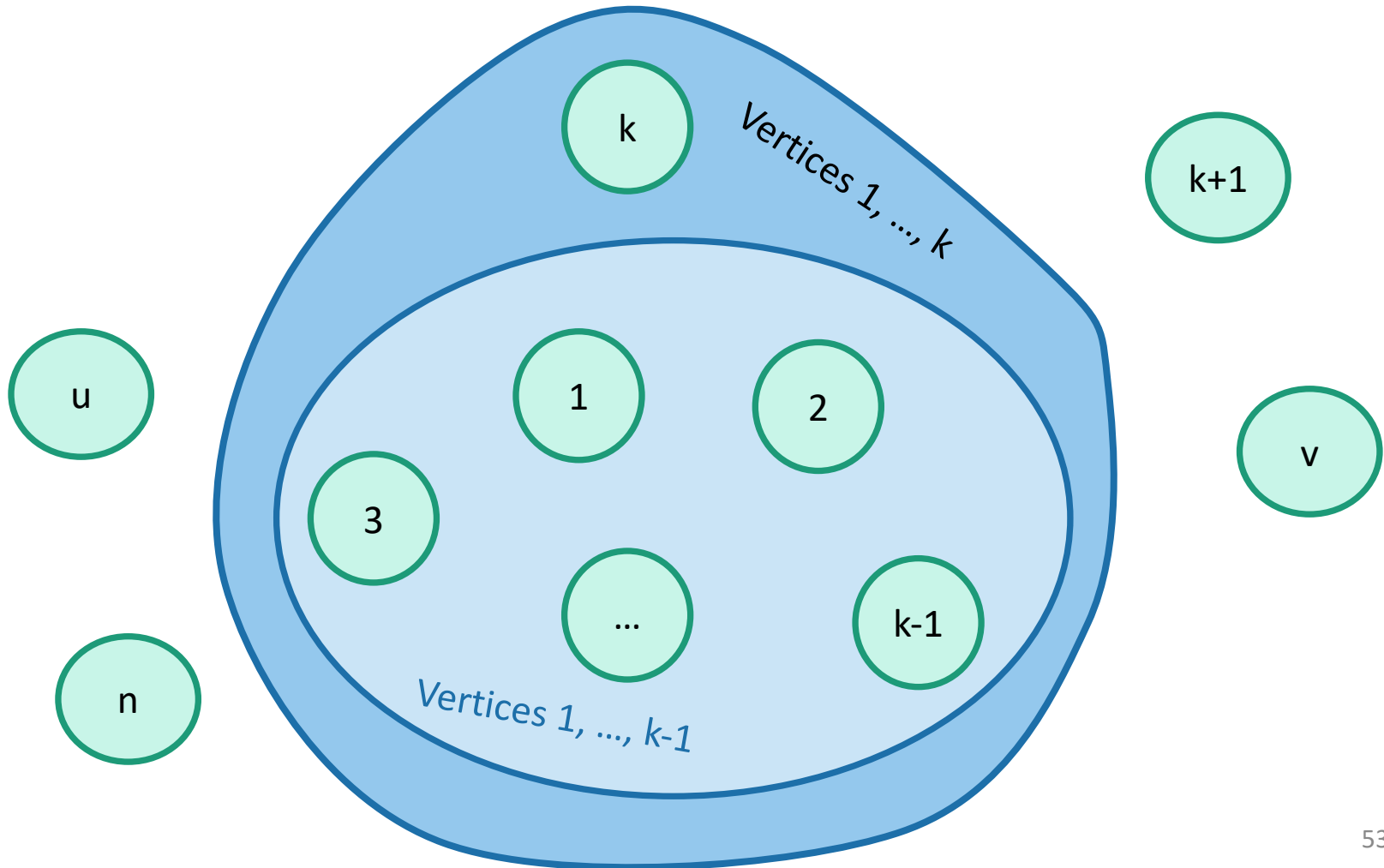
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Question: How can we find $D^{(k)}[u, v]$ using $D^{(k-1)}$?



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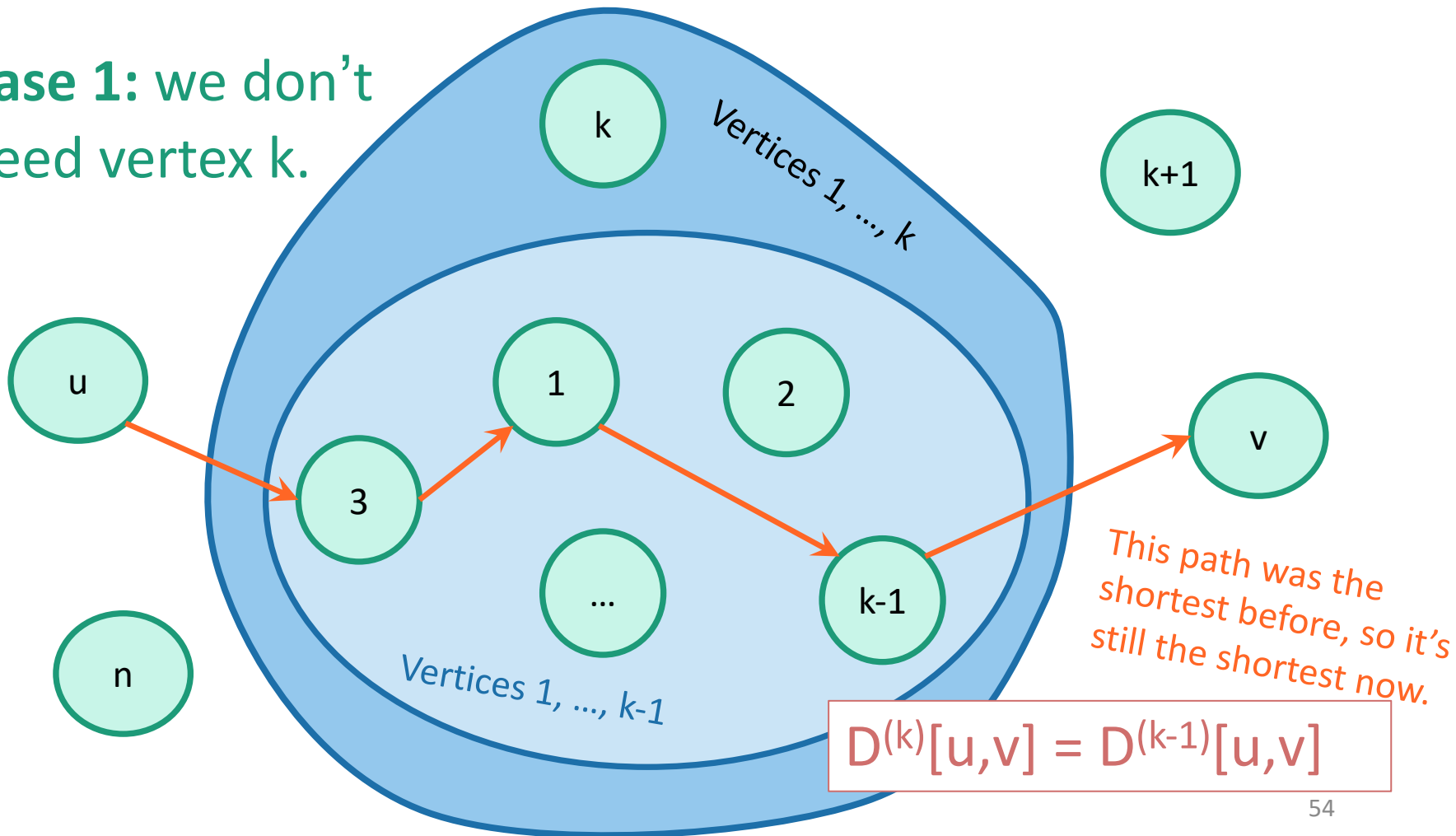
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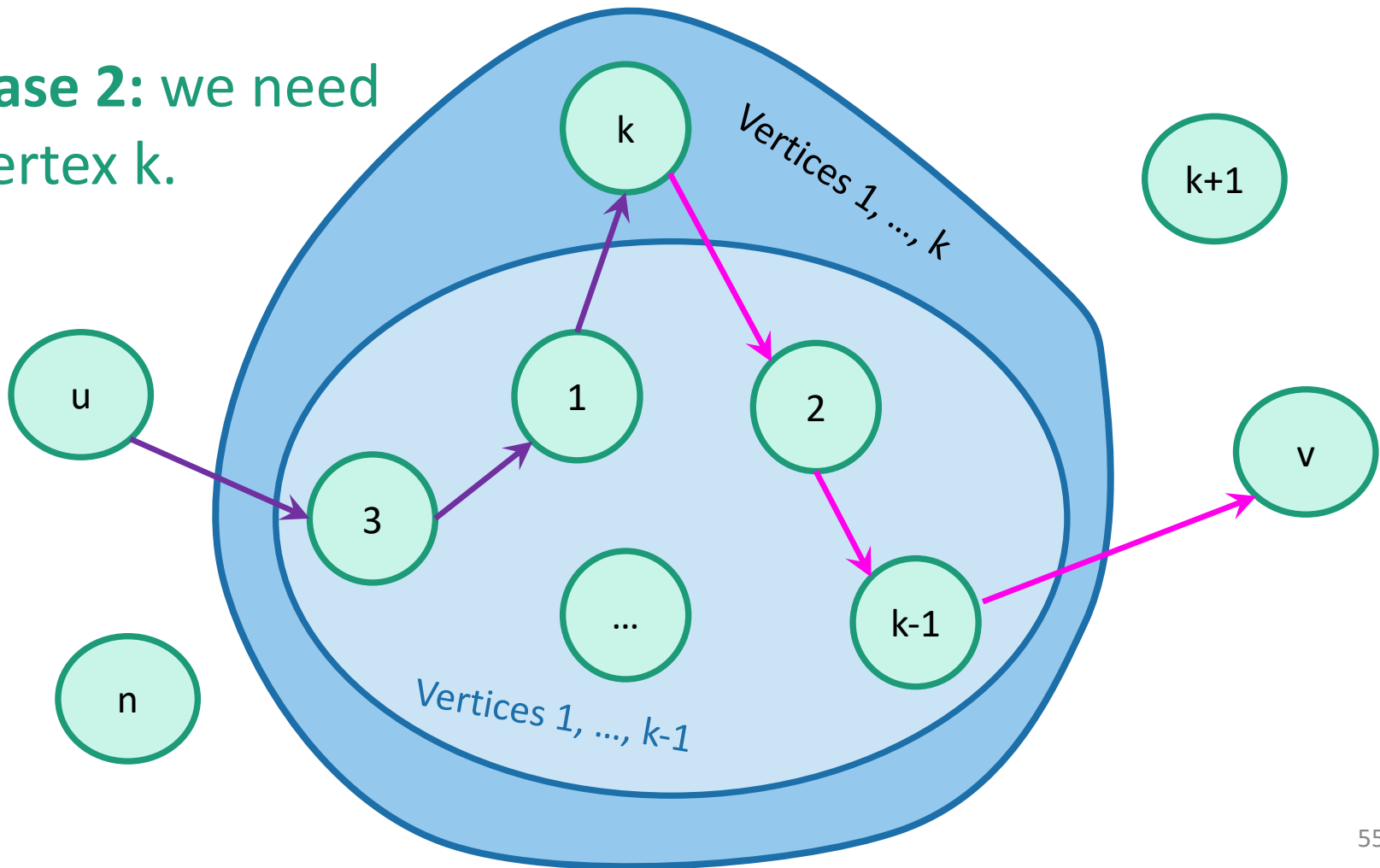
Case 1: we don't need vertex k .





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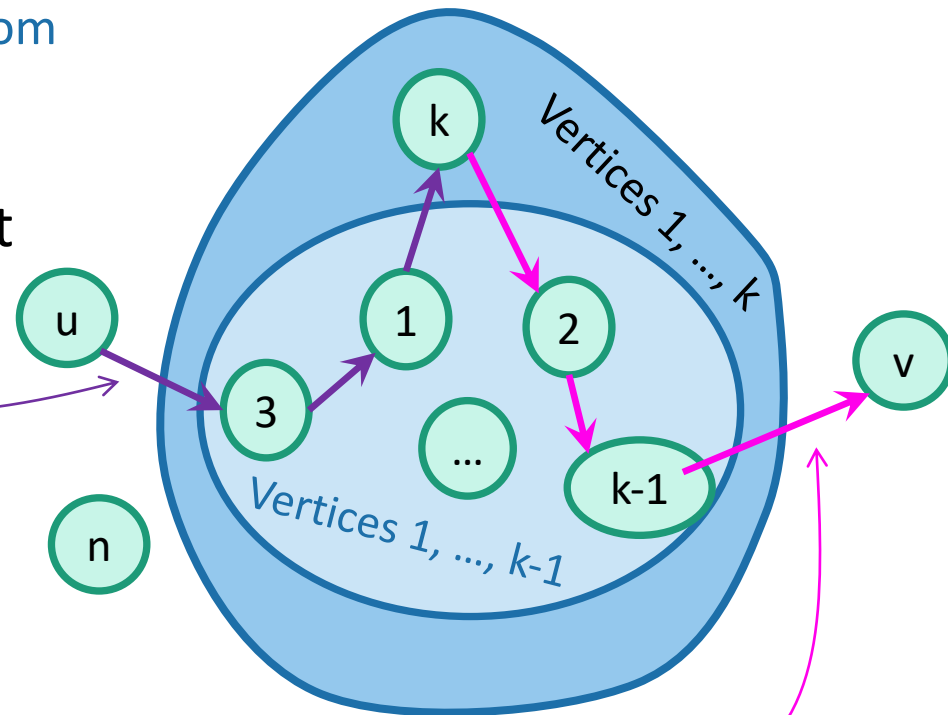
Case 2: we need vertex k .



Case 2 continued

- Suppose there are **no negative cycles**.
 - Then WLOG the shortest path from u to v through $\{1, \dots, k\}$ is **simple**.
- If **that path** passes through k , it must look like this: 
- **This path** is the shortest path from u to k through $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$.
 - sub-paths of shortest paths are shortest paths
- Similarly for **this path**. 

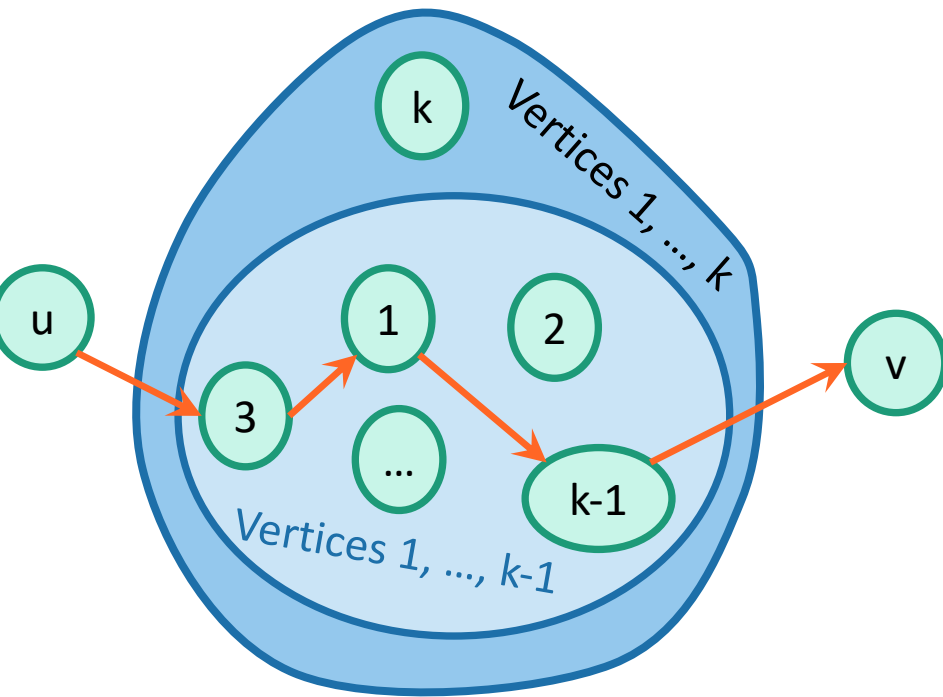
Case 2: we need vertex k .



$$D^{(k)}[u, v] = D^{(k-1)}[u, k] + D^{(k-1)}[k, v]_{56}$$

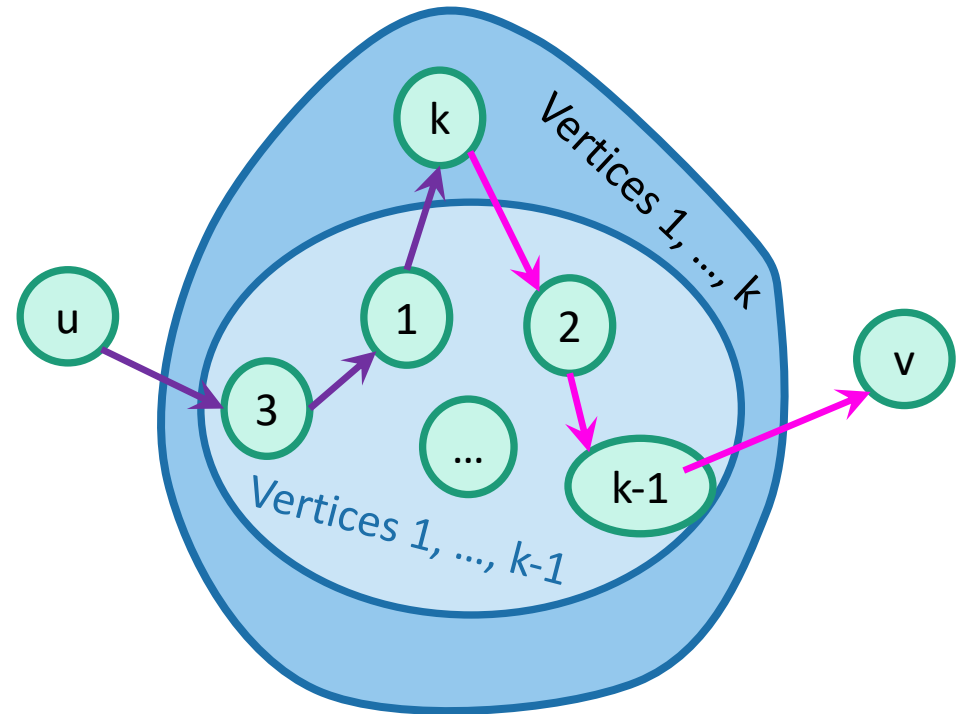
How can we find $D^{(k)}[u,v]$ using $D^{(k-1)}$?

Case 1: we don't need vertex k.



$$D^{(k)}[u,v] = D^{(k-1)}[u,v]$$

Case 2: we need vertex k.



$$D^{(k)}[u,v] = D^{(k-1)}[u,k] + D^{(k-1)}[k,v]$$

How can we find $D^{(k)}[u,v]$ using $D^{(k-1)}$?

- $D^{(k)}[u,v] = \min\{ D^{(k-1)}[u,v], D^{(k-1)}[u,k] + D^{(k-1)}[k,v] \}$

Case 1: Cost of shortest path through $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$

Case 2: Cost of shortest path from **u** to **k** and then from **k** to **v** through $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$

- Optimal substructure:
 - We can solve the big problem using solutions to smaller problems.
- Overlapping sub-problems:
 - $D^{(k-1)}[k,v]$ can be used to help compute $D^{(k)}[u,v]$ for lots of different u 's.

How can we find $D^{(k)}[u,v]$ using $D^{(k-1)}$?

- $D^{(k)}[u,v] = \min\{ D^{(k-1)}[u,v], D^{(k-1)}[u,k] + D^{(k-1)}[k,v] \}$

Case 1: Cost of shortest path through $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$

Case 2: Cost of shortest path from **u** to **k** and then from **k** to **v** through $\{1, \dots, k-1\}$

- Using our *Dynamic programming* paradigm, this immediately gives us an algorithm!



Floyd-Warshall algorithm

- Initialize n-by-n arrays $D^{(k)}$ for $k = 0, \dots, n$

- $D^{(k)}[u,u] = 0$ for all u , for all k
- $D^{(k)}[u,v] = \infty$ for all $u \neq v$, for all k
- $D^{(0)}[u,v] = \text{weight}(u,v)$ for all (u,v) in E .

The base case checks out: the only path through zero other vertices are edges directly from u to v .

- **For** $k = 1, \dots, n$:

- **For** pairs u,v in V^2 :

- $D^{(k)}[u,v] = \min\{ D^{(k-1)}[u,v], D^{(k-1)}[u,k] + D^{(k-1)}[k,v] \}$

- **Return** $D^{(n)}$

This is a bottom-up *Dynamic programming* algorithm.

We've basically just shown

- Theorem:

If there are **no negative cycles** in a weighted directed graph G , then the Floyd-Warshall algorithm, running on G , returns a matrix $D^{(n)}$ so that:

$$D^{(n)}[u,v] = \text{distance between } u \text{ and } v \text{ in } G.$$

- Running time: $O(n^3)$

- Better than running Bellman-Ford n times!

- Storage:

- Need to store **two** n -by- n arrays, and the original graph.

As with Bellman-Ford, we don't really need to store all n of the $D^{(k)}$.

Work out the details of a proof!



We don't even need two, just one array is fine. Why?



What if there *are* negative cycles?

- Just like Bellman-Ford, Floyd-Warshall can detect negative cycles:
 - “Negative cycle” means that there’s some v so that there is a path from v to v that has cost < 0 .
 - Aka, $D^{(n)}[v,v] < 0$.
- Algorithm:
 - Run Floyd-Warshall as before.
 - If there is some v so that $D^{(n)}[v,v] < 0$:
 - **return** negative cycle.

What have we learned?

- The Floyd-Warshall algorithm is another example of *dynamic programming*.
- It computes All Pairs Shortest Paths in a directed weighted graph in time $O(n^3)$.

Can we do better than $O(n^3)$?

Nothing on this slide is required knowledge for this class

- There is an algorithm that runs in time $O(n^3/\log^{100}(n))$.
 - *[Williams, “Faster APSP via Circuit Complexity”, STOC 2014]*
- If you can come up with an algorithm for All-Pairs-Shortest-Path that runs in time $O(n^{2.99})$, that would be a really big deal.
 - Let me know if you can!
 - See *[Abboud, Vassilevska-Williams, “Popular conjectures imply strong lower bounds for dynamic problems”, FOCS 2014]* for some evidence that this is a very difficult problem!

Recap

- Two shortest-path algorithms:
 - Bellman-Ford for single-source shortest path
 - Floyd-Warshall for all-pairs shortest path
- ***Dynamic programming!***
 - This is a fancy name for:
 - Break up an optimization problem into smaller problems
 - The optimal solutions to the sub-problems should be sub-solutions to the original problem.
 - Build the optimal solution iteratively by filling in a table of sub-solutions.
 - Take advantage of overlapping sub-problems!

Next time

- More examples of *dynamic programming*!

We will stop bullets with our action-packed coding skills, and also maybe find longest common subsequences.



- No pre-lecture exercise for next time