CS 4102 – Algorithms

- Dynamic programming
 - Also, memoization
- -Examples:
 - Longest Common Subsequence
- -Readings: 8.1, pp. 334-335, 8.4, p. 361
 - Also, handout on 0/1 knapsack
 - Wikipedia articles

Dynamic programming

- Old "bad" name (see Wikipedia or Notes, p. 361)
 It is used, when the solution can be recursively described in terms of solutions to subproblems (*optimal substructure*)
- Algorithm finds solutions to subproblems and stores them in memory for later use
- More efficient than "brute-force methods", which solve the same subproblems over and over again

Optimal Substructure Property

Definition on p. 334

If S is an optimal solution to a problem, then the components of S are optimal solutions to subproblems

Examples:

- True for knapsack
- True for coin-changing (p. 334)
- True for single-source shortest path
- Not true for longest-simple-path (p. 335)

Dynamic Programming

- Works "bottom-up"
 - Finds solutions to small sub-problems first
 - Stores them
 - Combines them somehow to find a solution to a slightly larger subproblem
- Compare to greedy approach
 - Also requires optimal substructure
 - But greedy makes choice first, then solves

Problems Solved with Dyn. Prog.

- Coin changing (Section 8.2, we won't do)
- Multiplying a sequence of matrices (8.3, we might do if we have time)
 - Can do in various orders: (AB)C vs. A(BC)
 - Pick order that does fewest number of scalar multiplications
- Longest common subsequence (8.4, we'll do)
- All-pairs shortest paths (Floyd's algorithm)

– Remember from CS216?

- Constructing optimal binary search trees
- Knapsack problems (we'll do 0/1)





Remember Fibonacci numbers?

Recursive code: long fib(int n) { assert(n >= 0); if (n == 0) return 0; if (n == 1) return 1; return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);

What's the problem?

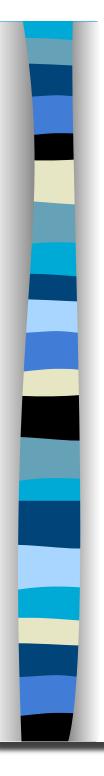
- Repeatedly solves the same subproblems
- "Obscenely" exponential (p. 326)



Memoization

Before talking about dynamic programming, another general technique: **Memoization**

- -AKA using a memory function
- Simple idea:
 - Calculate and store solutions to subproblems
 - Before solving it (again), look to see if you've remembered it



Memoization

Use a Table abstract data type

- Lookup key: whatever identifies a subproblem
- Value stored: the solution
- Could be an array/vector
 - E.g. for Fibonacci, store fib(n) using index n
 - Need to initialize the array
- Could use a map / hash-table

Memoization and Fibonacci

Before recursive code below called, must initialize results[] so all values are -1

long fib_mem(int n, long results[]) {
 if (results[n] != -1)
 return results[n]; // return stored value
 long val;
 if (n == 0 || n ==1) val = n; // odd but right
 else
 val = fib_mem(n-1, results)
 + fib_mem(n-2, results);
 results[n] = val; // store calculated value
 return val;

Observations on fib_mem()

 Same elegant top-down, recursive approach based on definition
 Without repeated subproblems

Memory function: a function that remembers

-Save time by using extra space

Can show this runs in $\Theta(n)$

Memoization and Functional Languages

- Languages like Lisp and Scheme are functional languages
- How could memoization help?
- What could go wrong? Would this always work?
 - Side effects
 - Haskell does this (call-by-need)

General Strategy of Dyn. Prog.

- Structure: What's the structure of an optimal solution in terms of solutions to its subproblems?
- 2. Give a recursive definition of an optimal solution in terms of optimal solutions to smaller problems
 - Usually using min or max
- 3. Use a data structure (often a table) to store smaller solutions in a <u>bottom-up</u> fashion
 - Optimal value found in the table
- 4. (If needed) Reconstruct the optimal solution
 - I.e. what produced the optimal value

Dyn. Prog. vs. Divide and Conquer

Remember D & C?

- Divide into subproblems. Solve each.
 Combine.
- Good when subproblems do not overlap, when they're independent

- No need to repeat them

- Divide and conquer: top-down
 - Dynamic programming: bottom-up



LCS: Section 8.4

- A "significant" exampleLots of detail
 - Look at example here and the one in the book

Longest Common Subsequence (LCS)

Application: comparison of two DNA strings Ex: $X = \{A B C B D A B \}, Y = \{B D C A B A\}$ Longest Common Subsequence: X = A B C B D A B

Y = B D C A B A

Brute force algorithm would compare each subsequence of X with the symbols in Y

LCS Algorithm

- if |X| = m, |Y| = n, then there are 2^m subsequences of X; we must compare each with Y (n comparisons)
- So the running time of the brute-force algorithm is O(n 2^m)
- Notice that the LCS problem has optimal substructure: solutions of subproblems are parts of the final solution.
 - Subproblems: "find LCS of pairs of *prefixes* of X and Y"

LCS Algorithm

- First we'll find the length of LCS. Later we'll modify the algorithm to find LCS itself.
- Define X_i , Y_j to be the prefixes of X and Y of length *i* and *j* respectively
- Define c[i,j] to be the length of LCS of X_i and Y_j
- Then the length of LCS of X and Y will be *c[m,n]*

 $c[i, j] = \begin{cases} c[i-1, j-1] + 1 & \text{if } x[i] = y[j], \\ \max(c[i, j-1], c[i-1, j]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$$LCS \text{ recursive solution}$$

$$c[i, j] = \begin{cases} c[i-1, j-1]+1 & \text{if } x[i] = y[j], \\ \max(c[i, j-1], c[i-1, j]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- We start with i = j = 0 (empty substrings of x and y)
- Since X_0 and Y_0 are empty strings, their LCS is always empty (i.e. c[0,0] = 0)

LCS of empty string and any other string is empty, so for every i and j: c[0, j] = c[i, 0] = 0

LCS recursive solution

$$c[i, j] = \begin{cases} c[i-1, j-1] + 1 & \text{if } x[i] = y[j], \\ \max(c[i, j-1], c[i-1, j]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

When we calculate c[i,j], we consider two cases:

First case: x[i]=y[j]: one more symbol in strings X and Y matches, so the length of LCS X_i and Y_j equals to the length of LCS of smaller strings X_{i-1} and Y_{i-1}, plus 1

$$LCS \text{ recursive solution}$$

$$c[i, j] = \begin{cases} c[i-1, j-1]+1 & \text{if } x[i] = y[j], \\ \max(c[i, j-1], c[i-1, j]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Second case: *x[i] != y[j]*

As symbols don't match, our solution is not improved, and the length of LCS(X_i, Y_j) is the same as before (i.e. maximum of LCS(X_i, Y_{j-1}) and LCS(X_{i-1},Y_j)

Why not just take the length of $LCS(X_{i-1}, Y_{j-1})$?

LCS Length Algorithm LCS-Length(X, Y)1. m = length(X) // get the # of symbols in X2. n = length(Y) // get the # of symbols in Y 3. for i = 1 to m c[i,0] = 0 // special case: Y₀ 4. for j = 1 to n c[0,j] = 0 // special case: X_0 5. for i = 1 to m // for all X_i 6. for j = 1 to n // for all Y_i if $(X_i = Y_i)$ 7. c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 18. else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])9. 10. return c[m,n] // return LCS length for X and Y

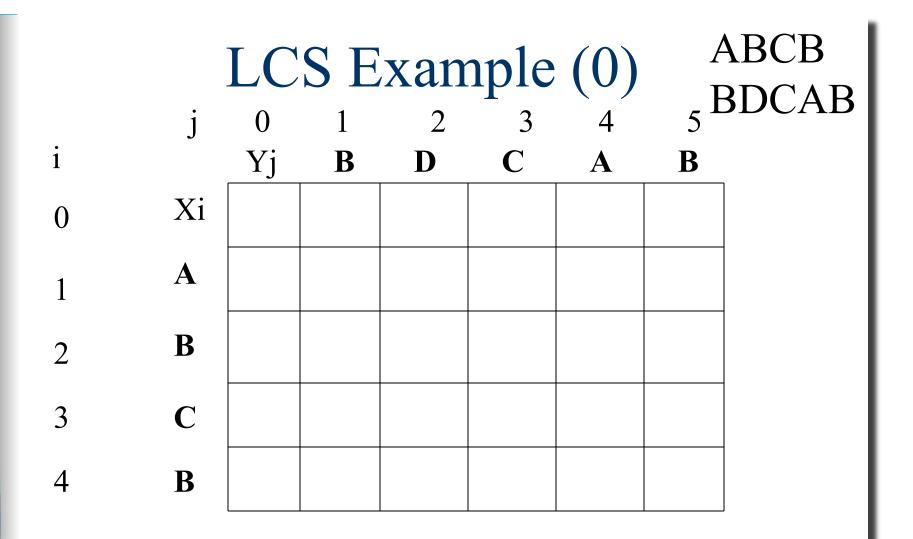
LCS Example

We'll see how LCS algorithm works on the following example:

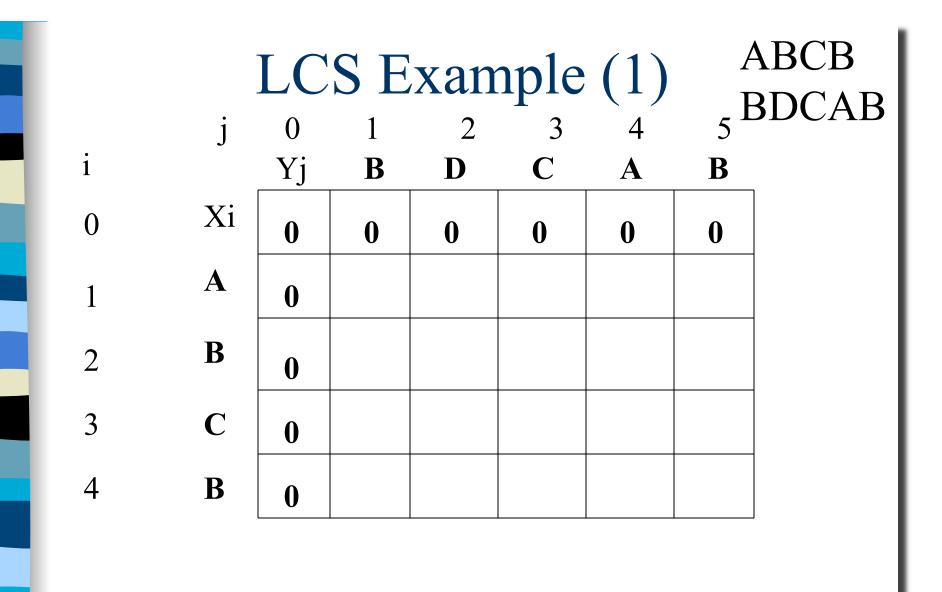
- \blacksquare X = ABCB
- \blacksquare Y = BDCAB

What is the Longest Common Subsequence of X and Y?

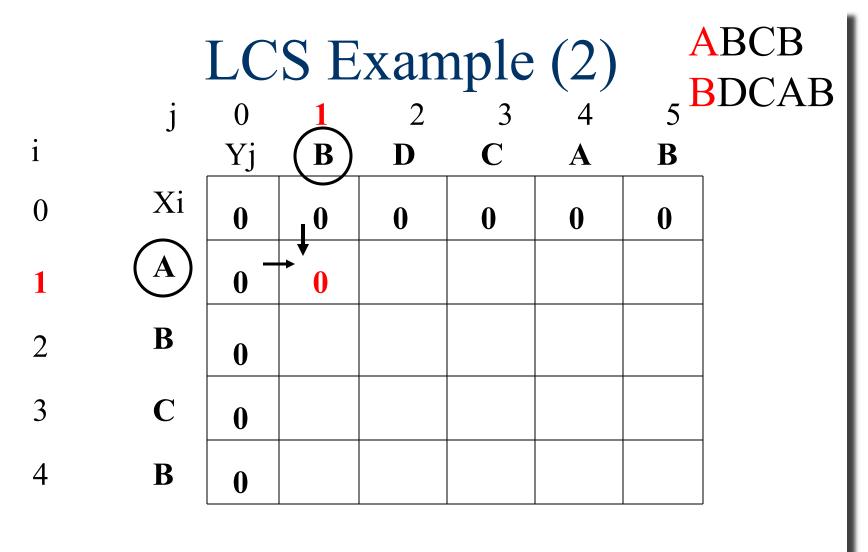
LCS(X, Y) = BCBX = A B C BY = B D C A B



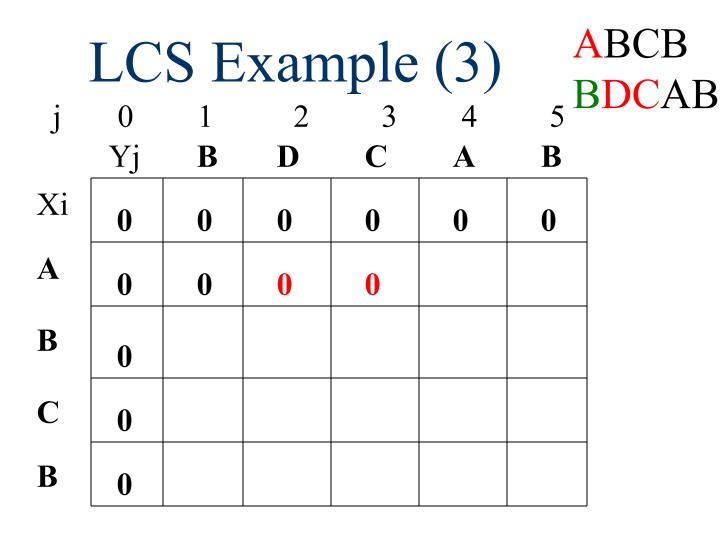
X = ABCB; m = |X| = 4Y = BDCAB; n = |Y| = 5Allocate array c[5,4]



for i = 1 to mc[i,0] = 0for j = 1 to nc[0,j] = 0



if $(X_i = Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])



if $(X_i = Y_i)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])

i

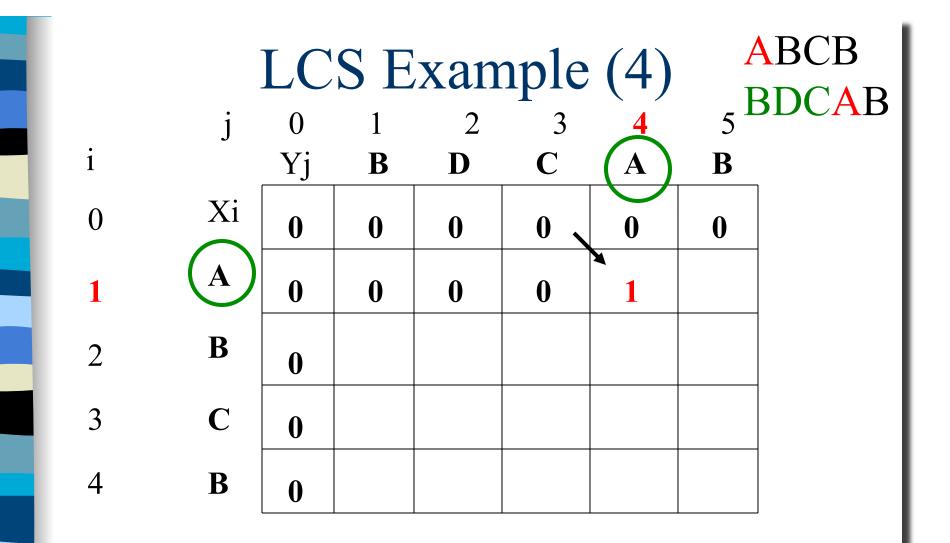
0

1

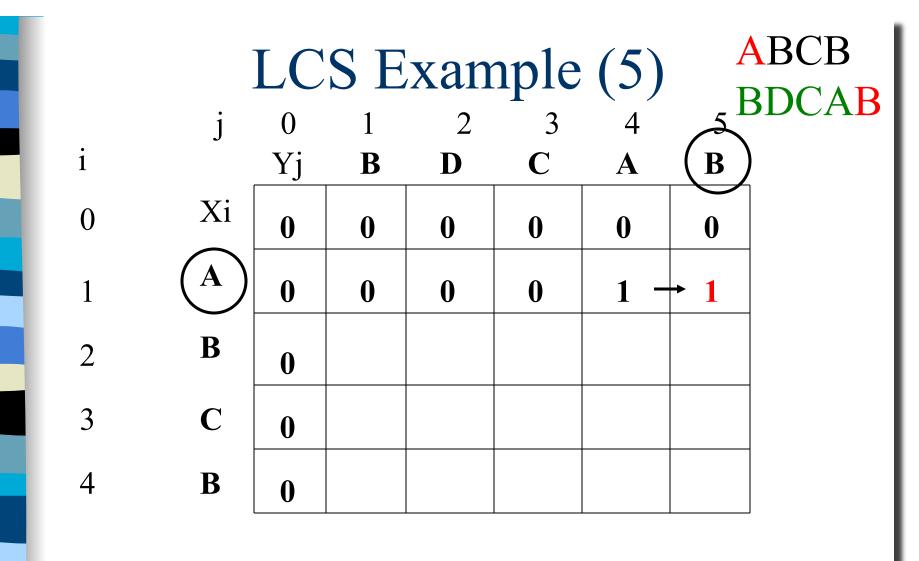
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3

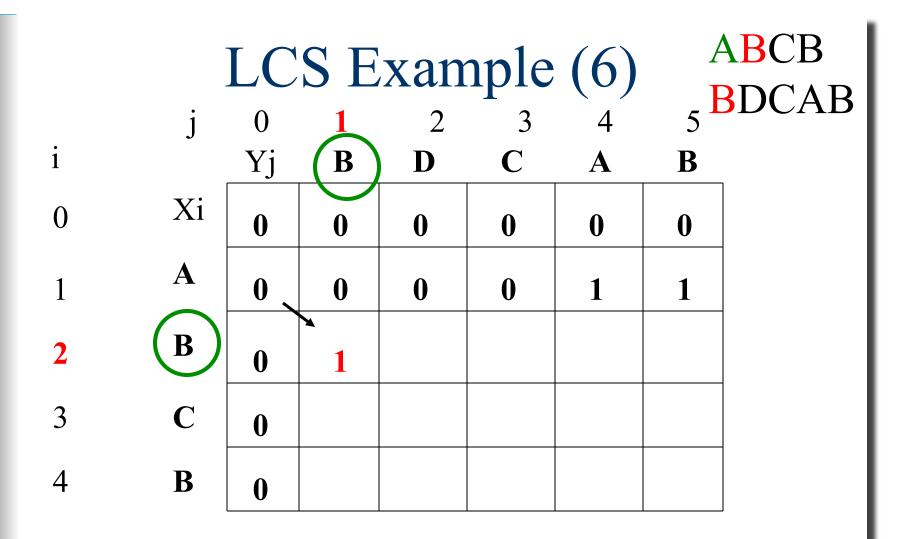
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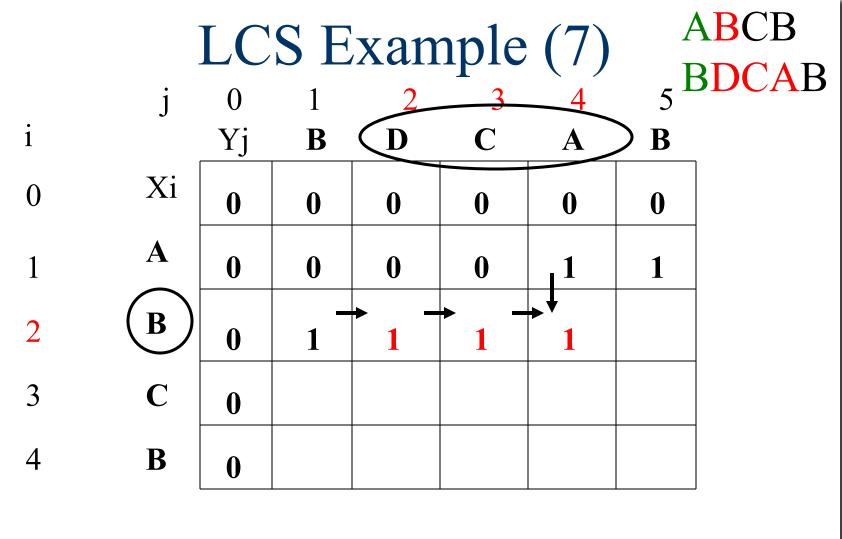
if $(X_i = Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])



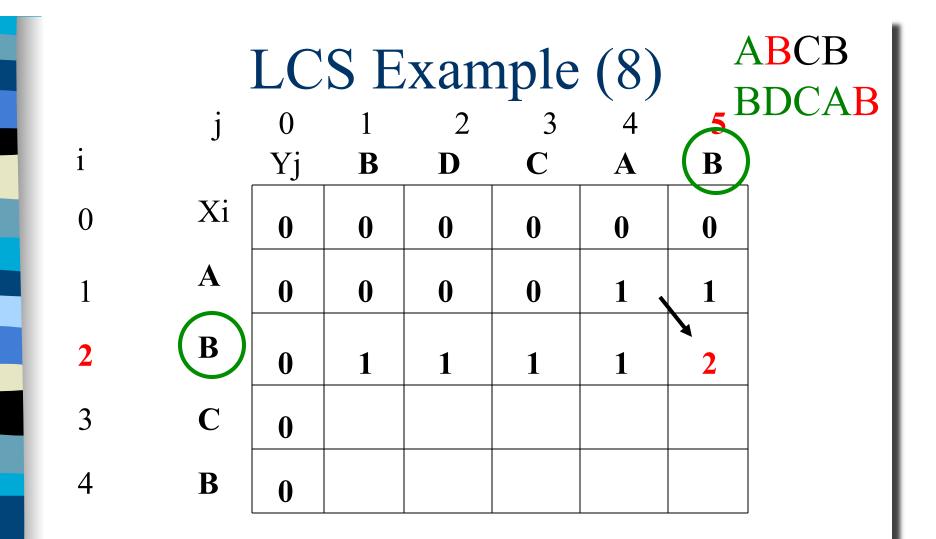
if $(X_i == Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])



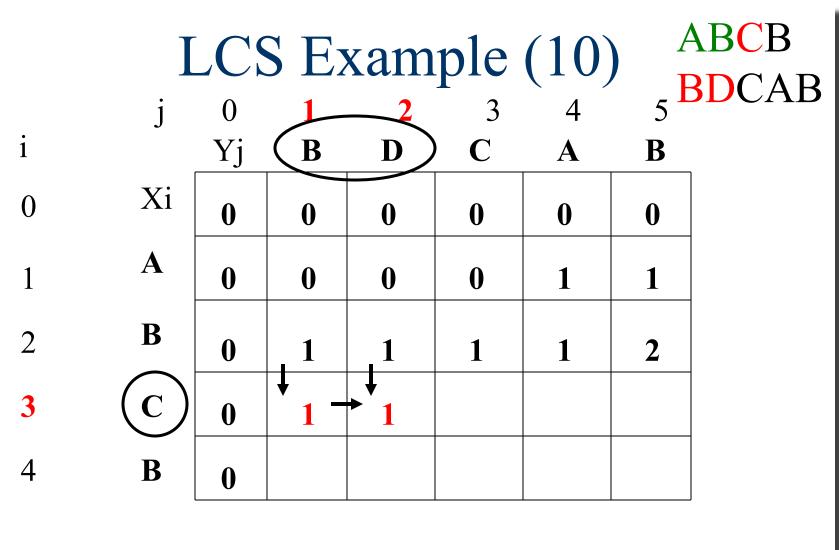
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if $(X_i == Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])

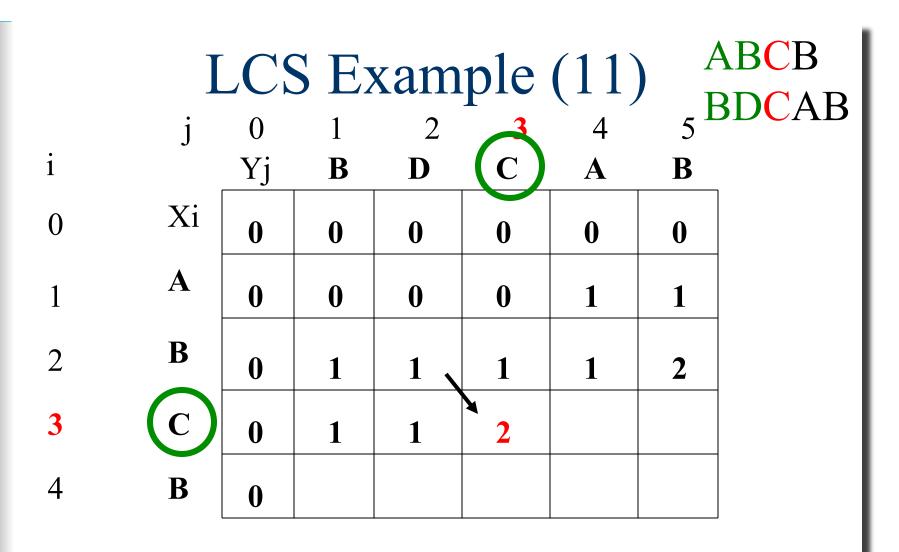


if $(X_i = Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])

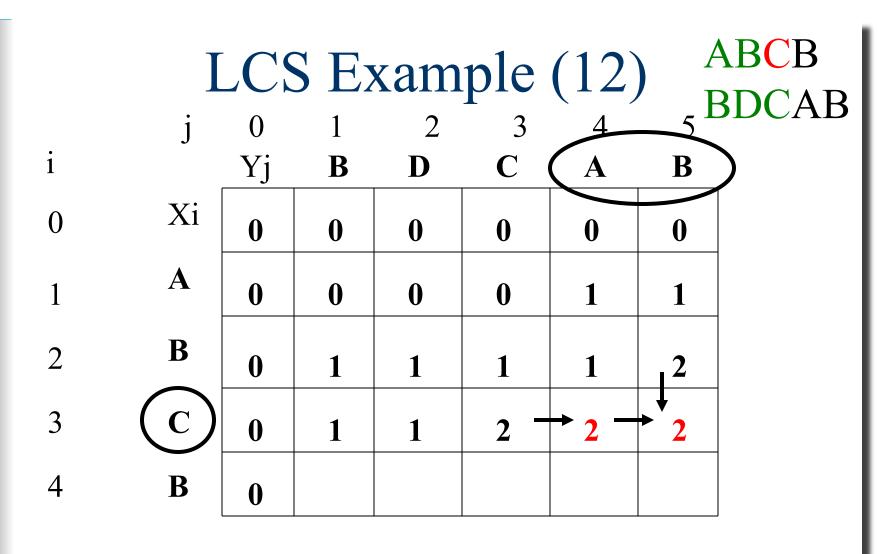


if
$$(X_i == Y_j)$$

 $c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1$
else $c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j],c[i,j-1])$



if $(X_i == Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j],c[i,j-1])

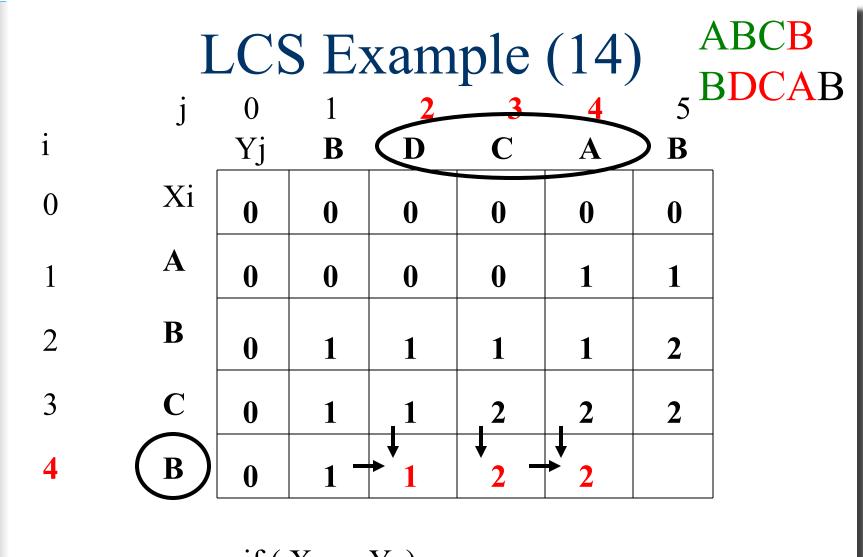


if
$$(X_i == Y_j)$$

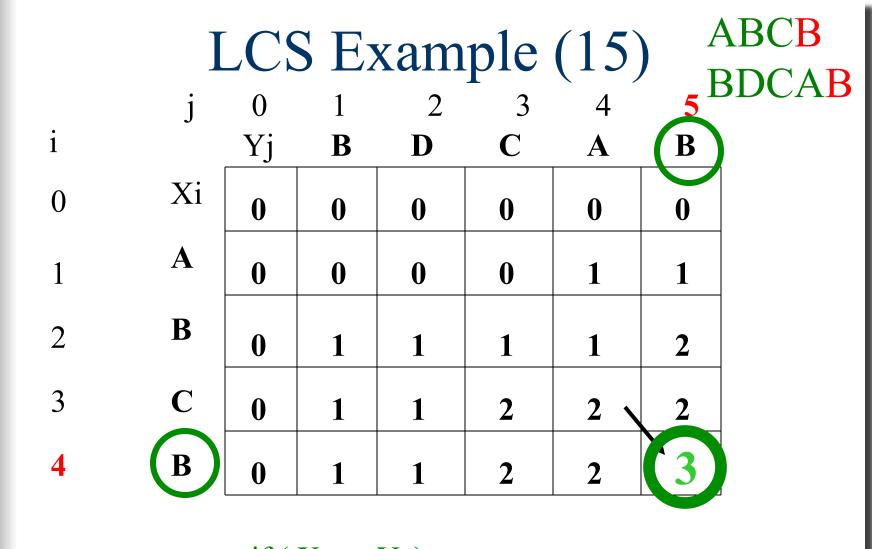
 $c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1$
else $c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j],c[i,j-1])$

LCS Example (13) ABCB								
	j	0	1	2	3	4	5	DUCAD
i		Yj	B	D	С	Α	B	
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0	
1	Α	0	0	0	0	1	1	
2	В	0	1	1	1	1	2	
3	C	0 、	1	1	2	2	2	
4	B	0	1					

if $(X_i = Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])



if $(X_i == Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])



if $(X_i == Y_j)$ c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1else c[i,j] = max(c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1])



LCS Algorithm Running Time

LCS algorithm calculates the values of each entry of the array c[m,n]
So what is the running time?

O(m*n)

since each c[i,j] is calculated in constant time, and there are m*n elements in the array

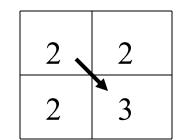
How to find actual LCS

- So far, we have just found the *length* of LCS, but not LCS itself.
- We want to modify this algorithm to make it output Longest Common Subsequence of X and Y

Each *c[i,j]* depends on *c[i-1,j]* and *c[i,j-1]*

or *c[i-1, j-1]*

For each c[i,j] we can say how it was acquired:



For example, here c[i,j] = c[i-1,j-1] + 1 = 2+1=3

How to find actual LCS - continued Remember that

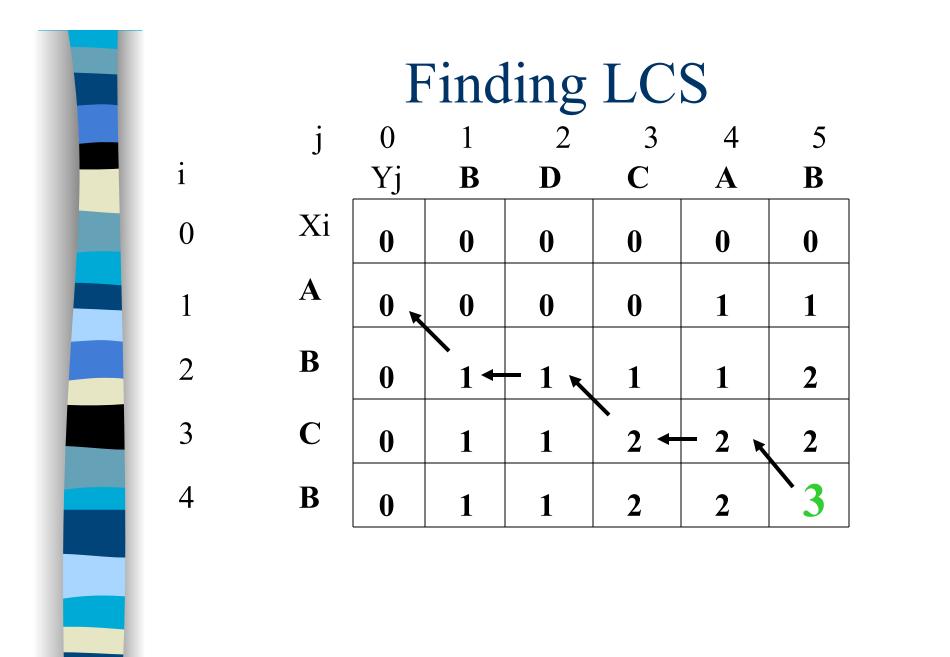
 $c[i, j] = \begin{cases} c[i-1, j-1] + 1 & \text{if } x[i] = y[j], \\ \max(c[i, j-1], c[i-1, j]) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

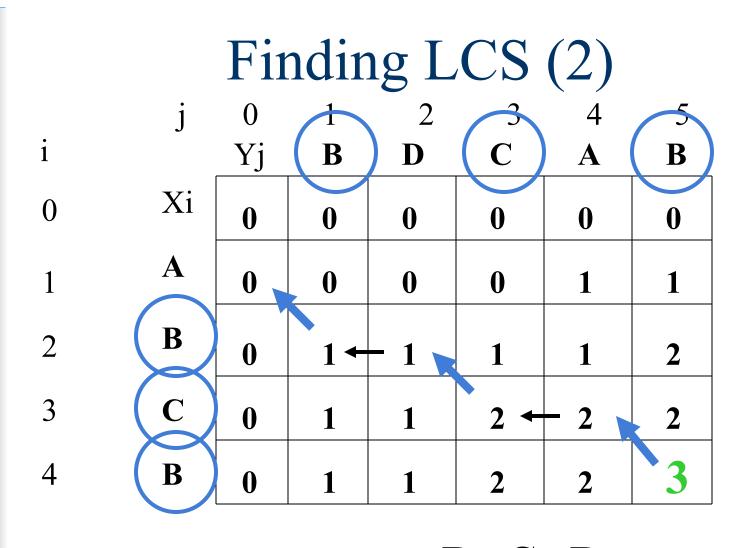
- So we can start from *c[m,n]* and go backwards
 Look first to see if 2nd case above was true
 If not, then *c[i,j] = c[i-1, j-1]+1*, so remember *x[i]* (because *x[i]* is a part of LCS)
 - When i=0 or j=0 (i.e. we reached the beginning), output remembered letters in reverse order

Algorithm to find actual LCS

• Here's a recursive algorithm to do this:

LCS_print(x, m, n, c) {
 if (c[m][n] == c[m-1][n]) // go up?
 LCS_print(x, m-1, n, c);
 else if (c[m][n] == c[m][n-1] // go left?
 LCS_print(x, m, n-1, c);
 else { // it was a match!
 LCS_print(x, m-1, n-1, c);
 print(x[m]); // print after recursive call
 }





LCS (reversed order): **B C B** LCS (straight order): **B C B** (this string turned out to be a palindrome) ⁴⁴



Review: Dynamic programming

- DP is a method for solving certain kind of problems
- DP can be applied when the solution of a problem includes solutions to subproblems
- We need to find a recursive formula for the solution
- We can recursively solve subproblems, starting from the trivial case, and save their solutions in memory
- In the end we'll get the solution of the whole problem

Properties of a problem that can be solved with dynamic programming

Simple Subproblems

 We should be able to break the original problem to smaller subproblems that have the same structure

• Optimal Substructure of the problems

- The solution to the problem must be a composition of subproblem solutions
- Subproblem Overlap
 - Optimal subproblems to unrelated problems can contain subproblems in common

Review: Longest Common Subsequence (LCS)

- Problem: how to find the longest pattern of characters that is common to two text strings X and Y
- Dynamic programming algorithm: solve subproblems until we get the final solution
- Subproblem: first find the LCS of *prefixes* of X and Y.
- this problem has optimal substructure: LCS of two prefixes is always a part of LCS of bigger strings

Conclusion

- Dynamic programming is a useful technique of solving certain kind of problems
- When the solution can be recursively described in terms of partial solutions, we can store these partial solutions and re-use them as necessary
- Running time (Dynamic Programming algorithm vs. naïve algorithm):
 - LCS: **O(m*n)** vs. **O(n * 2^m)**
 - 0-1 Knapsack problem: O(W*n) vs. O(2ⁿ)