

# Taking Stock

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- What's Left?
  - Graphs (Chapters 5 & 6).
  - Algorithmic Strategies (Chapters 7 (Comb Search) & 8 (Dynamic Programming))
  - Chapter 9 (NP Completeness)

# Algorithmic Strategies

- 1 Divide and Conquer.
- 2 Greedy.
- 3 Exhaustive Search.
- 4 **Dynamic Programming.**
- 5 Backtracking.

# Dynamic Programming

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- Once understood it is relatively easy to apply, it looks like magic until you have seen enough examples.

# Greedy Algorithms

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- In the absence of a correctness proof such greedy algorithms are very likely to fail.

# Greedy Strategy for TSP

A popular solution starts at some point  $p_0$  and then walks to its nearest neighbor  $p_1$  first, then repeats from  $p_1$ , etc. until done.



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Pick and visit an initial point  $p_0$

$$p = p_0$$

$$i = 0$$

While there are still unvisited points

$$i = i + 1$$

Let  $p_i$  be the closest unvisited point to  $p_{i-1}$

Visit  $p_i$

Return to  $p_0$  from  $p_i$

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- 1 Systematically search all possibilities (thus guaranteeing correctness) while
- 2 storing partial results to avoid recomputing (thus providing efficiency).

# Recurrence Relations

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Computer programs can easily evaluate the value of a given recurrence even without the existence of a nice closed form.

# Computing Fibonacci Numbers

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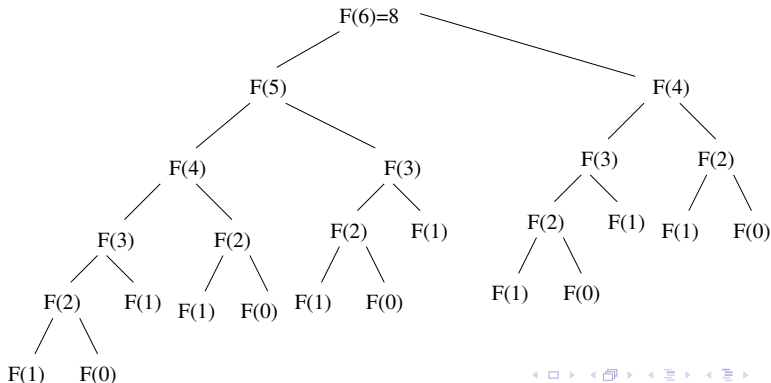
## Recursive Algorithm:

```
int F(int i) {  
    if (i == 0) return 0;  
    if (i == 1) return 1;  
    return F(i-1) + F(i-2);  
}
```

# Run Fibonacci code

# Perils of Recursive Algorithms

Implementing as a recursive procedure is easy, but slow because we repeat calculations.



# How Slow?



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- $F_n \approx 1.6^n$ .
- Since our recursion tree has 0 and 1 as leaves, computing  $F_n$  requires  $\gg 1.6^n$  calls!
- Each call is  $O(1)$ , so exp time algorithm!

# What about Dynamic Programming?

We can calculate  $F_n$  in **linear time** by storing values in array  $F[0..n]$ :

$$F[0] = 0$$

$$F[1] = 1$$

For  $i = 2$  to  $n$

$$F[i] = F[i - 1] + F[i - 2]$$

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$$F[i] = F[i - 1] + F[i - 2]$$

**Moral:** we traded space for time.

# But “I LIKE Recursive Algorithms”

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```
int F(int i) {  
    if F[i] has “already been computed”, return F[i];  
    if (i == 0) F[i] = 0;  
    if (i == 1) F[i] = 1;  
    F[i] = F(i-1) + F(i-2); // recursive calls  
    return F[i];  
}
```

# Avoiding Recomputation by Storing Partial Results

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- The trick to dynamic programming is to see that the naive recursive algorithm computes the same subproblems over and over again.
- If so, storing the answers in a table instead of recomputing can lead to an efficient algorithm.
- Thus we must first hunt for a correct recursive algorithm – later we can worry about speeding it up by using a results matrix.

# Binomial Coefficients

An important class of counting numbers are the *binomial coefficients*, where  $\binom{n}{k}$  counts the number of ways to choose  $k$  things from  $n$  possibilities.

- *Committees* – How many ways are there to form a  $k$ -member committee from  $n$  people? By definition,  $\binom{n}{k}$ .

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- *Committees* – How many ways are there to form a  $k$ -member committee from  $n$  people? By definition,  $\binom{n}{k}$ .
- *Paths Across a Grid* – How many ways are there to travel from the upper-left corner of an  $n \times m$  grid to the lower-right corner by walking only down and to the right?

# Number of Paths in a Grid

Every path must consist of  $n + m$  steps,  $n$  downward and  $m$  to the right, so there are  $\binom{n+m}{n}$  such sets/paths.

# Computing Binomial Coefficients

Since

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you can, in principle, compute them straight from factorials.

However, intermediate calculations can *easily* cause arithmetic overflow even when the final coefficient fits comfortably within an int.

# Pascal's Recurrence

A more stable way to compute binomial coefficients is using the recurrence relation:

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

It works because the  $n$ th element either appears or does not appear in one of the  $\binom{n}{k}$  subsets of  $k$  elements.



# Basis Cases

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- How many ways are there to choose 0 things from a set?
- The right term of the sum drives us up to  $\binom{k}{k}$ . How many ways are there to choose  $k$  things from a  $k$ -element set?

# Binomial Coefficient Worksheet

# Implementation: Demo on Board

```
int binomial_coefficient(int n,int k)
{
    int bc[n+1][k+1]; // table of binomial coefficients

    for (int i=0; i<=n; i++) bc[i][0] = 1;
    for (int j=0; j<=k; j++) bc[j][j] = 1;

    for (i=1; i<=n; i++)
        for (j=1; j<i and j <= k; j++)
            bc[i][j] = bc[i-1][j-1] + bc[i-1][j];

    return( bc[n][k] );
}
```

# Three Steps to Dynamic Programming

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- 2 Show that the number of different instances of your recurrence is bounded by a polynomial.
- 3 Specify an order of evaluation for the recurrence so you always have what you need.

# What's Next?

Next, we will study the application of dynamic programming to **optimization** problems.



# Edit Distance

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If we are to deal with inexact string matching, we must first define a cost function telling us how far apart two strings are, i.e., a distance measure between pairs of strings.

A reasonable distance measure minimizes the cost of the *changes* which have to be made to convert source string to target.

# String Edit Operations

There are three natural types of changes:

- **Substitution/Match:** Change a single character from source  $s$  to a different character in text  $t$ , such as changing “shot” to “spot”.

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- **Insertion**: Insert a single character into source  $s$  to help it match target  $t$ , such as changing “ago” to “agog”.
- **Deletion**: Delete a single character from source  $s$  to help it match target  $t$ , such as changing “hour” to “our”.

# Visualization Examples

# Why is this an Optimization Problem?

Convert IAGO to AGOG



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Solution 1					Solution 2			
I	A	G	O	-	I	A	G	O
D	M	M	M	I	S	S	S	S
-	A	G	O	G	A	G	O	G

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D	M	M	M	I	S	S	S	S
-	A	G	O	G	A	G	O	G

$\text{Cost}(\text{Solution 1}) = 2$

$\text{Cost}(\text{Solution 2}) = 4$

# Recursive Algorithm

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**If we knew the cost** of editing the three pairs of smaller strings, we could decide which option leads to the best solution and choose that option accordingly.

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**If we knew the cost** of editing the three pairs of smaller strings, we could decide which option leads to the best solution and choose that option accordingly.

We **can learn this cost**, through the magic of recursion.

# Recursive Edit Distance Code

```
const int MATCH = 0 // enumerated type symbol for match/substitute
const int INSERT = 1 // enumerated type symbol for insert
const int DELETE = 2 // enumerated type symbol for delete
```

```
int string_compare(char *s, char *t, int i, int j)
{
    int option[3]; // cost of the three options
    int lowest_cost;

    if (i == 0) return j; // DPM: explain
    if (j == 0) return i;

    option[MATCH] = string_compare(s,t,i-1,j-1) + match(s[i],t[j]);
    option[INSERT] = string_compare(s,t,i,j-1) + 1;
    option[DELETE] = string_compare(s,t,i-1,j) + 1;

    lowest_cost = option[MATCH];
    if (option[INSERT] < lowest_cost) lowest_cost = option[INSERT];
    if (option[DELETE] < lowest_cost) lowest_cost = option[DELETE];
    return( lowest_cost ); }
```

# Speeding it Up

- This program is absolutely correct but takes exponential time because it recomputes values again and again and again!

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# Speeding it Up

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- But there can only be  $|s| \cdot |t|$  possible unique recursive calls, since there are only that many distinct  $(i, j)$  pairs to serve as the parameters of recursive calls.
- By storing the values for each of these  $(i, j)$  pairs in a table, we can avoid recomputing them and just look them up as needed.

# The Dynamic Programming Table

The table is a two-dimensional matrix  $m$  where each cell contains the **cost** of the optimal solution of this subproblem, and a **parent** pointer explaining how we got to this location:

```
class cell {  
    public:  
        int cost; // cost of reaching this cell  
        int parent; // parent cell  
};  
  
cell m[MAXLEN+1][MAXLEN+1];
```

# Differences between Recursive & Dynamic Programming Versions

- First, it gets its intermediate values using table lookup instead of recursive calls.

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- First, it gets its intermediate values using table lookup instead of recursive calls.
- Second, it updates the parent field of each cell, which will enable us to reconstruct the edit-sequence later.

# Evaluation Order

- To determine the value of cell  $(i, j)$  we need three values to be sitting and waiting for us, namely, the cells  $(i - 1, j - 1)$ ,  $(i, j - 1)$ , and  $(i - 1, j)$ .

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- Any evaluation order with this property will do, including the row-major order used in this program.

# Dynamic Programming Edit Distance

```
int string_compare(char *s, char *t)
{
    int option[3]; // cost of the three options

    initialize zeroth column; // DPM: brief explanation
    initialize zeroth row;

    for (i=1; i<strlen(s); i++)
        for (int j=1; j<strlen(t); j++) {
            option[MATCH] = m[i-1][j-1].cost + match(s[i],t[j]);
            option[INSERT] = m[i][j-1].cost + 1;
            option[DELETE] = m[i-1][j].cost + 1;

            m[i][j].cost = option[MATCH]; // Rest is about finding min
            m[i][j].parent = MATCH;
            if (option[INSERT] < m[i][j].cost) {
                m[i][j].cost = option[INSERT];
                m[i][j].parent = INSERT;
            }
        }
    .... Repeat for DELETE
```

# Example

Check out

<http://www.planatscher.net/bioinfodemos/>

	T	a	g	o	g
S	0	1	2	3	4
i	1	1	2	3	4
a	2	1	2	3	4
g	3	2	1	2	3
o	4	3	2	1	2



# Reconstructing the Path

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- The dynamic programming implementation above returns the **cost** of the optimal solution, but **not the solution** itself.
- Solution is described by a path through the table, starting from the initial configuration (the pair of empty strings  $(0, 0)$ ) down to the final goal state (the pair of full strings  $(|s|, |t|)$ ).

# Reconstructing the Path (2)

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- Reconstructing these decisions is done by walking **backward** from the goal state, following parent pointers.
- The parent field for  $m[i, j]$  tells us whether the edit at  $(i, j)$  was MATCH, INSERT, or DELETE.
- if MATCH, look at  $m[i, j]$  and  $m[i - 1, j - 1]$  to determine if it's a match or a substitute.

# Difference between Optimization v/s Non-Optimization Problems

- The need to make **decisions** in addition to simple computations.
- Decision-making translates into an optimization construct (e.g., `min` or `max`) in the recurrence relation.
- The need to keep track of decisions and reconstruct solution from them.

# Longest Common Subsequence

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The *longest common subsequence* (not substring) between “democrat” and “republican” is eca.

A common subsequence is defined by all the identical-character matches in an edit trace.

To maximize the number of such matches, we must prevent substitution of non-identical characters.

```
int match(char c, char d)
{
    if (c == d) return(0);
    else return(MAXLEN); // used to be 1
}
```

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Any ideas?

# Reduction to LCS

In fact, this is just a longest common subsequence problem, where the second string is the elements of  $S$  sorted in increasing order.

$$\text{MMS}(\text{"243517698"}) = \text{LCS}(\text{"243517698"}, \text{"123456789"})$$

# Dividing the Work

The job of scanning in a shelf of books is to be split between  $k$  workers. To avoid rearranging the books or separating them into piles, we divide the shelf into  $k$  regions and assign each region to a worker.

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What is the fairest way to divide the shelf up?

# Example: $k = 3$

If each book is the same length, partition equally:

100 100 100 | 100 100 100 | 100 100 100



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Which part would you volunteer to do?!!

How can we find the fairest possible partition, i.e.

100 200 300 400 500 | 600 700 | 800 900

# The Linear Partition Problem

**Input:** A given arrangement  $S$  of nonnegative numbers  $(s_1, \dots, s_n)$  and an integer  $k$ .

**Problem:** Partition  $S$  into  $k$  ranges, so as to minimize the maximum sum over all the ranges.

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Does taking the average value of a part  $\sum_{i=1}^n s_i / k$  from the left always work?

# Recursive Idea

Notice that the  $k$ th partition starts right after we place the  $(k - 1)$ st divider. But, where can we place this last divider?

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Notice that the  $k$ th partition starts right after we place the  $(k - 1)$ st divider. But, where can we place this last divider?

A: Between the  $i$ th and  $(i + 1)$ st books for some  $i$ .

What is the cost of this?

# Recursive Idea(2)

The total cost will be the larger of two quantities,

- 1 ( Easy) the cost of the last partition  $\sum_{j=i+1}^n s_j$
- 2 ( Not so easy) the cost of the largest partition formed to the left of  $i$ . How to proceed????



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To figure this, we need to partition the elements  $(s_1, \dots, s_i)$  as equitably as possible among  $k - 1$  ranges.

*But isn't this just a smaller instance of the same problem!*

# Dynamic Programming Recurrence

Define  $M[n, k]$  to be the minimum possible cost over all partitions of  $(s_1, \dots, s_n)$  into  $k$  ranges.

$$M[n, k] = \min_{i=1}^n \{ \max(M[i, k-1], \sum_{j=i+1}^n s_j) \}$$

with the basis cases of

$$M[1, k] = s_1 \text{ and } M[j, 1] = \sum_{i=1}^j s_i$$

# Run Time

- Number of cells  $\times$  run time per cell.
- A total of  $k \cdot n$  cells in the table.
- Each cell depends on  $n$  others (see recurrence), and can be computed in linear time, for a total of  $O(kn^2)$ .

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- DP computes recurrences efficiently by storing partial results; thus, it can only be efficient when there aren't too many partial results to compute!

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- DP computes recurrences efficiently by storing partial results; thus, it can only be efficient when there aren't too many partial results to compute!
- DP works best on objects which are linearly ordered and cannot be rearranged; e.g., chars in a string, row of books.
- Whenever your objects are ordered in a left-to-right way, you should smell DP!