

Prograr Interview Problemen

Dynamic programming

Programming Interview Problems:

Dynamic Programming (with

solutions in Python)

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Dynamic Programming (with solutions in Python)

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Preface

Over the last decade, many companies have adopted the FANG-style interview process for software engineer positions: programming questions that involve an algorithm design step, and often require competitive programming solving techniques.

The advantages and disadvantages of this style of interview questions are highly debated, and outside the scope of this book. What is important is that the questions that are asked pose serious challenges to candidates, thus require thorough preparation.

The class of problems that are by far the most challenging is *dynamic programming*. This is due to a combination of dynamic programming being rarely used in day-to-day work, and the difficulty of finding a solution in a short amount of time, when not having prior experience with this method.

This book presents 25 dynamic programming problems that are most commonly encountered in interviews, and several of their variants. For each problem, multiple solutions are given, including a gradual walkthrough that shows how one may reach the answer. The goal is not to memorize solutions, but to understand how they work and learn the fundamental techniques, such that new, previously unseen problems can be solved with ease.

The solutions are very detailed, showing example walkthroughs, verbal explanations of the solutions, and many diagrams and drawings. These were designed in a way that helps both verbal and visual learners grasp the material with ease. The code implementation usually comes last, accompanied by unit tests and complexity/performance analysis.

A particular focus has been put on code clarity and readability: during the interview, we are expected to write code as we would on the job. This

means that the code must be tidy, with well-named variables, short functions that do one thing, modularity, comments describing why we do certain things etc. This is, sadly, unlike most other material on dynamic programming that one may find online, in competitive programming resources, or even in well-known algorithm design textbooks. In fact, the poor state of the material on this topic is the main reason I wrote this book.

I hope that you find this book useful for preparing to get the job you wish for. Whether you like the book or not, I would appreciate your feedback through a book review.

Good luck with your interviews!

General advice for the interview

Find out in advance what kind of questions will be asked. Usually, they are in one or more of the following categories: coding, algorithm design (with or without implementation), domain-specific questions, theoretical questions, behavioral questions, live coding, debugging, one-day assignments or pair programming. You should know what you need to prepare for.

For programming questions, do not jump directly to writing code, even if the solution looks obvious. First, ask clarification questions and go over some simple examples, to make sure you understand the requirements well. Then, you may sketch a solution and discuss it with the interviewer. Several iterations might be needed in case of correctness or performance issues. Only once they agree that the solution looks fine, proceed with implementing it.

Treat the interview questions not like problems, but real job assignments. Take them seriously and solve them thoroughly, like a professional.

Treat your interviewers as colleagues, with whom you must work together to solve the assignment. Shift into the mindset that you are already on the same team. Discuss and interact with them the same way you would with colleagues on the job.

Write tidy, clean code—as much as possible given the time you have. Try to follow typical coding style guidelines for your language. For Python, you can find good guidelines at www.python.org/dev/peps/pep-0008 and google.github.io/styleguide/pyguide.html.

Do not forget to ask about the size of the data your code needs to handle—this is important to determine the time complexity of your solution.

If you cannot find the fastest algorithm needed to solve the problem, propose a slower one. Sometimes you might get an idea (or a hint from the interviewer) to make it faster once you write it. But even if you do not, any solution is better than no solution.

Try to be quick in your answer. Interviewers usually plan to ask follow-up questions. If you do not have sufficient time left for these, your result may be poor, even if you answered the original question well.

The Fibonacci sequence

Return the n-th number in the Fibonacci sequence. The first two numbers in the Fibonacci sequence are equal to 1; any other number is equal to the sum of the preceding two numbers.

Example: for $n = 6$, the first 6 numbers of the sequence are [1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8] so the result is 8.

Solution 1: brute force, time

A straightforward solution is to implement the function recursively:

```
if n <= 2 return
def fibonacci(n): :
    return fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2)
)
```

The above code is correct but too slow due to redundancies. We can see this if we add logging to the function:

```
import inspect def stack_depth():
    return len(inspect.getouterframes(inspect.currentframe())) - 1

def fibonacci(n):
    print ("{}fibonacci({}) called"
    .format (

```

```

    indent=" " * stack_depth(), if n <= 2 return
n= n))
                                :
                                1

return fibonacci(n - 1 ) + fibonacci(n - 2
)
                                fibonacci(6 )

```

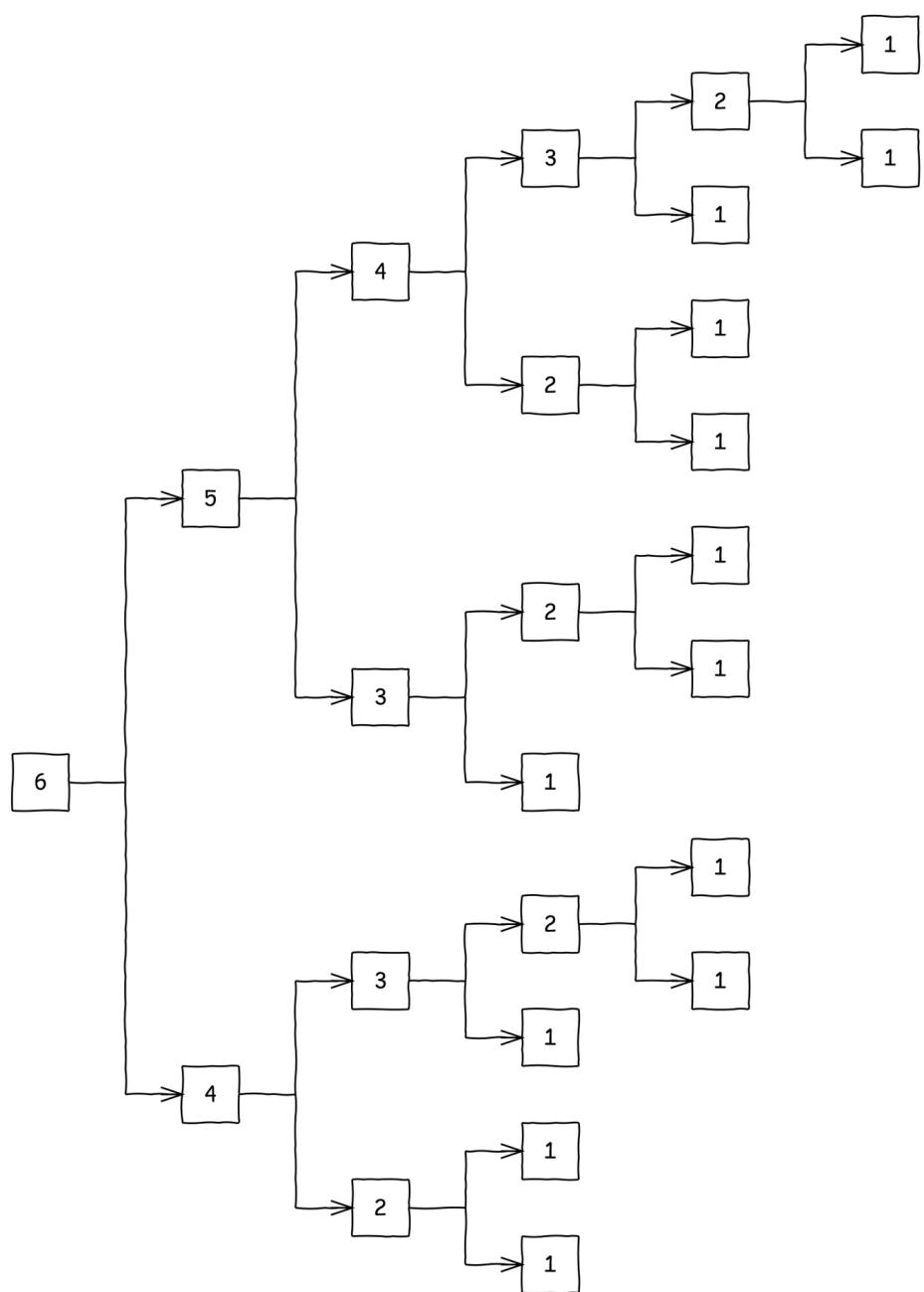
We changed the code to print the argument passed to the `fibonacci` function. The message is indented by the call stack depth, so that we can see better which function call is causing which subsequent calls. Running the above code prints:

```

fibonacci(6) called
fibonacci(5) called
fibonacci(4) called
fibonacci(3) called
fibonacci(2) called
fibonacci(1) called
fibonacci(2) called
fibonacci(3) called
fibonacci(2) called
fibonacci(1) called
fibonacci(4) called
fibonacci(3) called
fibonacci(2) called
fibonacci(1) called
fibonacci(2) called

```

That's a lot of calls! If we draw the call graph, we can see that it's an almost full binary tree:



Notice that the height of the binary tree is n (in this case, 6). The tree is

almost full, thus it has $2^n - 1$ nodes. Since each node represents a call of our function, our algorithm has exponential complexity.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, top-down

We can optimize the previous solution by avoiding redundant computations. These redundancies are visible in the call graph:

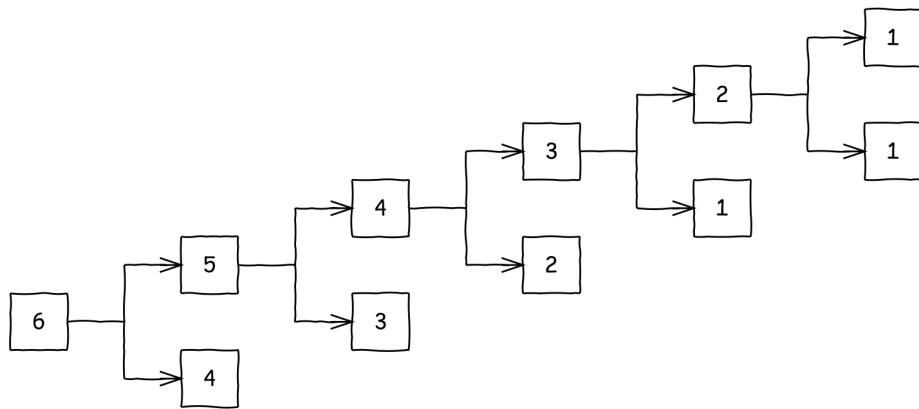
- `fibonacci(4)` is called twice, once by `fibonacci(5)` and once by `fibonacci(6)`;
- `fibonacci(3)` is called 3 times;
- `fibonacci(2)` is called 5 times;
- `fibonacci(1)` is called 3 times.

It does not make sense to compute, for example, the 4-th Fibonacci number twice, since it does not change. We should compute it only once and cache the result.

Let's use a dictionary to store the cache:

```
if n <= 2 return 1
fibonacci_cache = {}
def fibonacci(n):
    if n not in fibonacci_cache:
        fibonacci_cache[n] = fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2)
    return fibonacci_cache[n]
```

The call graph of the optimized code looks like this:



Notice how only the first call to `fibonacci(n)` recurses. All subsequent calls return from the cache the value that was previously computed.

This implementation has time complexity, since exactly one function call is needed to compute each number in the series.

This strategy of caching the results of subproblems is called *dynamic programming*.

While the above code is correct, there are some code style issues:

- We introduced the global variable `fibonacci_cache`; it would be great if we could avoid global variables, since they impact code readability;
- The code is more complicated than before due to the cache manipulations.

We can avoid adding the global variable by using instead an attribute called `cache` that is attached to the function:

```

        if n <= 2 return
def fibonacci(n): :           1

    if not hasattr (fibonacci, 'cache'  fibonacci.cache  =
)::                           {}

        if      n      not      in
fibonacci.cache:

            fibonacci.cache[n] = fibonacci(n - 1 ) + fibonacci(n
- 2 )

        return
fibonacci.cache[n]

```

The advantage is that the cache variable is now owned by the function, so no external code is needed anymore to initialize it. The disadvantage is that the code has become even more complicated, thus harder to read and modify.

A better approach is to keep the original function simple, and wrap it with a decorator that performs the caching:

```

            cache     = def         worker(*
def cached(f): {}           args):

    if   args   not   in   cache[args]   =   f(*
cache:                      args)

    return          return
cache[args]           worker          @cached def fibonacci(n):

```

```
if n <= 2 return
:
    1

return fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2
)
```

The good news is that Python 3 has built-in support for caching decorators, so there is no need to roll your own:

```
from functools import lru_cache @lru_cache (maxsize=None )

if n <= 2 return
def fibonacci(n): :
    1

return fibonacci(n - 1) + fibonacci(n - 2
)
```

By default `lru_cache` is limited to 128 entries, with least-recently used entries evicted when the size limit is hit. Passing `maxsize=None` to `lru_cache` ensures that there is no memory limit and all values are cached. In practice, it might be preferable to set a limit instead of letting memory usage increase without bounds.

Prefer standard library functionality to rolling your own

Using the standard `lru_cache` decorator makes the code easier to read, since it has well-known behavior. The advantage over using a custom caching method is that the reader does not need to spend time to understand its details.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up

While computing the Fibonacci sequence recursively is useful for pedagogical reasons, it is more intuitive to compute it iteratively starting from the smaller numbers, just like a human would do:

```
series = [1 , 1 while len (series) <
def fibonacci(n): ] n:
series.append(series[-1      ] + return series[-1
series[-2 ]) ]
```

The code has

time complexity, as

well as

space complexity. In practice

the performance is better than the recursive implementation, since there is no overhead due to extra function calls.

The space complexity can be reduced to

if we notice that we do not need to store the entire sequence, just the last two numbers:

```
previous = current =
def fibonacci(n): 1           1

for i in range (n - 2    next = current + 
):                           previous

    previous, current = current, return
    next               current
```

We have written an algorithm that starts from the smallest subproblem (the first two numbers in the sequence), then expands the solution to reach the original problem (the n-th number in the sequence). This approach is called *bottom-up* dynamic programming. By contrast, the previous approach of solving the problem recursively starting from the top is called *top-down* dynamic programming. Both approaches are equally valid; one or the other may be more intuitive, depending on the problem.

In the rest of the book, we will look at how we can apply dynamic programming to solving non-trivial problems. In general, we will show both top-down and bottom-up solutions. We will see that the top-down approach is often easier to understand and implement, however it offers less optimization opportunities compared to bottom-up.

Optimal stock market strategy

When evaluating stock market trading strategies, it is useful to determine the maximum possible profit that can be made by trading a certain stock. Write an algorithm that, given the daily price of a stock, computes the maximum profit that can be made by buying and selling that stock. Assume that you are allowed to own no more than 1 share at any time, and that you have an unlimited budget.

Example 1: The stock price over several days is [2, 5, 1] . The best strategy is to buy a share on the first day for price 2, then sell it on the second day for price 5, obtaining a profit of 3.

Example 2: The stock price over several days is [2, 5, 1, 3] . The best strategy is to buy a share on the first day for price 2, then sell it on the second day for price 5, obtaining a profit of 3; then buy it again on the third day for price 1, and sell it on the fourth day for price 3, obtaining an overall profit of 5.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

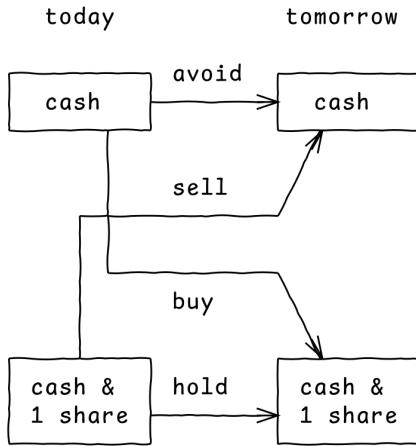
↵ time

The first idea that comes to mind while approaching this problem is using a state machine. This is because on any day, our state can be described by:

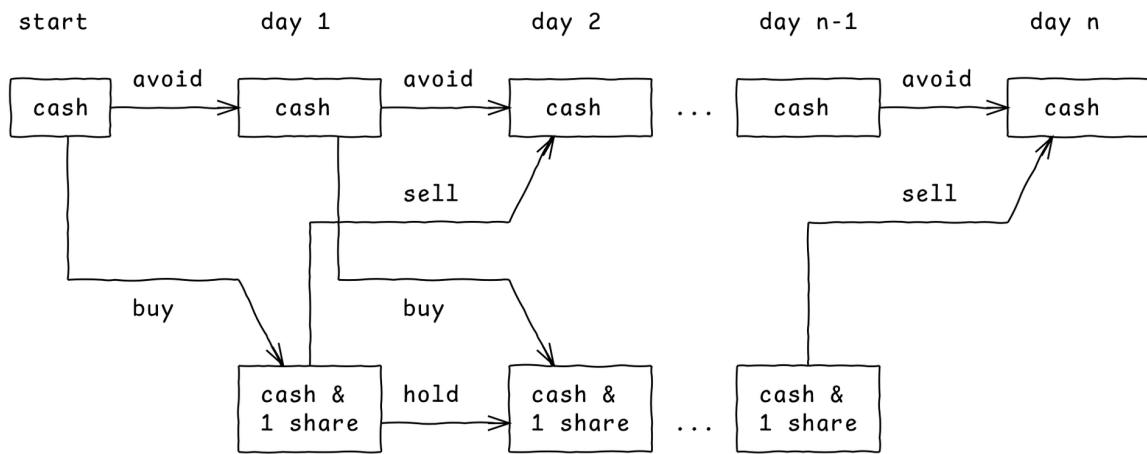
- whether we own the share or not;
- the amount of money we have.

Between the states of consecutive days, we have only four possible transitions:

- If at the end of the previous day we did not own the share:
 - buying the stock, so we now own it, but we have less money;
 - avoiding the stock, so we keep our money unchanged;
- If at the end of the previous day we owned the share:
 - selling the stock, so we no longer own it, and have more money;
 - holding the stock, so we keep both the stock and our money unchanged.



Knowing this, we can model the entire problem using a state machine. In our initial state, we have some amount of cash and no shares. In the final state, we have some other amount of cash (ideally higher), and no shares. In between, we have state transitions:



Solving the original problem can be reduced to finding a chain of transitions through this state machine, that yields the maximum profit.

Notice how our state during any day only depends on the state from the previous day. This is excellent: we can express our problem using a simple recurrence relation, just as we did for the Fibonacci sequence problem.

The structure of the solution using a recursive algorithm looks like this:

```

def max_profit(daily_price):

    def get_best_profit(day, ""
have_stock):                                     ""

        Returns the best profit that can be obtained by the
end of the day.

        At the end of the
day:

        * if have_stock is True, the trader must own the
stock;

        * if have_stock is False, the trader must not own the
stock.

    """ # TODO
    """
    ...

    # Final state: end of last day, no shares
owned.

    last_day = len(daily_price) - no_stock      =
1                                         False

    return          get_best_profit(last_day,
no_stock)

```

Note that we defined a helper function `get_best_profit` which takes as parameters the identifiers of a state: the day number and whether we own the stock or not at the end of the day. We use `get_best_profit` to compute the profit for a specific state in the state machine.

Let's now implement the helper using a recurrence relation. We need to consider the previous states that can transition into the current state, and choose the best one:

```
@lru_cache (maxsize=None )  
  
    """  
def get_best_profit(day, have_stock): "  
  
    Returns the best profit that can be obtained by the end of the day.  
  
    At the end of the day:  
  
        * if have_stock is True, the trader must own the stock;  
  
        * if have_stock is False, the trader must not own the stock.  
  
    """ if day < 0 if not  
    : have_stock:  
  
        # Initial state: no stock and no return else  
        # profit. 0 :  
  
        # We are not allowed to have initial stock.  
  
        # Add a very large penalty to eliminate this option.
```

```

    return - float price =  

('inf' ) daily_price[day]

if  

have_stock:

    # We can reach this state by buying or
holding.

    strategy_buy = get_best_profit(day - 1 , False ) -  

price

    strategy_hold = get_best_profit(day - 1 ,  

True )

    return max (strategy_buy, else
strategy_hold) :

    # We can reach this state by selling or
avoiding.

    strategy_sell = get_best_profit(day - 1 , True ) +  

price

    strategy_avoid = get_best_profit(day - 1 ,  

False )

    return max (strategy_sell,
strategy_avoid)

```

The first part of the helper implements the termination condition, i.e. handling the initial state, while the second part implements the recurrence. To simplify the logic of the recurrence we allow selling on any

day including the first, but we ensure that selling on the first day would yield a negative profit, so it's an option that cannot be chosen as optimal.

Handle the termination condition early

It is preferable to handle the termination condition of a recursive function in a single place, as opposed to wrapping each call of the function with a check like `if day < 0 ...`. Handling it early simplifies greatly the logic and makes the code easier to read.

Both the time and space complexity of this solution are

. Note that it is important to cache the results of the helper function, otherwise the time complexity becomes exponential instead of linear.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

↙ time

Once we have implemented the top-down solution, it is easy to rewrite it as bottom-up: we start from the initial state, and iterate day by day until we reach the final state:

```
def max_profit(daily_price):

    # Initial state: start from a reference cash
    # amount.

    # It can be any
    # value.

    # We use 0 and allow our cash to go below 0 if we need to
    # buy a share.

    cash_not_owning_share =
    0

    # High penalty for owning a stock
    # initially:

    # ensures this option is never
    # chosen.
```

```

    cash_owning_share = - float ('inf'
)

for      price      in
daily_price:

    # Transitions to the current day, owning the stock:

        strategy_buy = cash_not_owning_share - 
price

        strategy_hold           =
cash_owning_share

    # Transitions to the current day, not owning the stock:

        strategy_sell = cash_owning_share + 
price

        strategy_avoid          =
cash_not_owning_share

    # Compute the new states.

        cash_owning_share     =     max     (strategy_buy,
strategy_hold)

        cash_not_owning_share =     max     (strategy_sell,
strategy_avoid)

```

```
# The profit is the final cash amount, since we start  
from  
  
# a reference of return  
0.           cash_not_owning_share
```

At each step, we only need to store the profit corresponding to the two states of that day. This is due to the state machine not having any transitions between non-consecutive days: we could say that at any time, the state machine does not “remember” anything from the days before yesterday.

The time complexity is $O(n)$, but the space

complexity has been reduced to $O(1)$, since we only need to store the result for the previous day.

Bottom-up solutions often have smaller space complexity than top-down

It is very common (with some exceptions) that bottom-up solutions have lower memory requirements than top-down. This is due to the ability to control precisely what data we store and what data we discard: instead of a LRU cache policy, we can keep only the data we need. In addition, they do not suffer from the overhead of storing stack frames.

frames due to recursion, which is a hidden cost of the top-down solutions.

Variation: limited investment budget

In a variation of the problem, the investment budget is limited: we start with a fixed amount of money, and we are not allowed to buy a share if we cannot afford it (we cannot borrow money).

We can adjust the solution for this constraint:

```
#           Initial
def max_profit(daily_price, budget): state.

    cash_not_owning_share = budget

    # High penalty for owning a stock
    initially:

        # ensures this option is never
        chosen.

    cash_owning_share = - float ('inf')
)

for price in
daily_price:

    # Transitions to the current day, owning the
    stock:

        strategy_buy = cash_not_owning_share -
price
```

```
strategy_hold           =
cash_owning_share

    # Transitions to the current day, not owning the stock:

        strategy_sell = cash_owning_share +
price

        strategy_avoid           =
cash_not_owning_share

    # Compute the new states.

        cash_owning_share      =      max      (strategy_buy,
strategy_hold)

        if cash_owning_share <
0 :

            # We cannot afford to buy the share at this time.

            # Add a high penalty to ensure we never choose this option.

                cash_owning_share = - float
('inf' )
```

```
    cash_not_owning_share = max (strategy_sell,  
strategy_avoid)  
  
    return cash_not_owning_share -  
budget
```

Any time the optimal cash amount in a given state goes below zero, we replace it with negative infinity. This ensures that this path through the state machine will not be chosen. We only have to do this for the states where we own stock. In the states where we do not own stock, our cash amount never decreases from the previous day, so this check is not needed.

Expect follow-up questions

One of the most common mistakes candidates make is to assume that they have to solve a single problem during a time slot of the interview. Taking too long to solve it does not leave any time for follow-up questions, which puts the candidate at a disadvantage compared to others. An old Italian proverb applies here: perfect is the enemy of good . Do not get lost in too many details trying to make your solution perfect; reach an agreement with your interviewer on when it is good enough, so that you have time to take 1-2 follow-up questions such as this one.

Variation: limited number of transactions

In another variation of the problem, the total number of transactions that can be performed is bounded: the stock can only be sold up to a certain number of times `tx_limit`.

In this variation, the state machine needs to be adjusted so that it keeps track of multiple pieces of information:

- whether we own the stock or not at the end of the day;
- how many times we have sold the stock so far.

Instead of having only 2 states each day (for owning or not owning the stock), we now have up to $2 * \text{tx_limit}$ depending on how many times we have sold, per day. For each of these states, we have to compute the best amount of money we can earn.

The transitions between the states need to take into account the operation (buying, holding, selling, avoiding) and whether it leads to the next day state with the same transaction count or one higher.

We can write the following implementation:

```
def max_profit(daily_price, tx_limit):

    # cash_not_owning_share[k] = amount of cash at the end of
    # the day,
    # if we do not own the share, and we have sold k times so
    # far.

    # Initially we have sold 0 times and we start from a
    # reference

    # budget of 0. Any other state is
    # invalid.
```

```

    cash_not_owning_share = [- float ('inf' )] * (tx_limit +
1 )

    cash_not_owning_share[0 ] =
0

    # cash_owning_share[k] = amount of cash at the end of the day,

    # # if we own the share, and we have sold k times so far.

    # # Initially we do not own any stock, so set the state to invalid.

    cash_owning_share = [- float ('inf' )] * (tx_limit +
1 )

    for price in
daily_price:

        # # Initialize the next day's states with - Infinity,

        # # then update them with the best possible transition.

        cash_not_owning_share_next = [- float ('inf' )] *
(tx_limit + 1 )

        cash_owning_share_next = [- float ('inf' )] *
(tx_limit + 1 )

```

```

    for prev_tx_count in range
(tx_limit):

        # Transition to the current day, owning the
stock:

        strategy_buy = cash_not_owning_share[prev_tx_count]
- price

        strategy_hold = cash_owning_share[prev_tx_count]

        # Transitions to the current day, not owning
the stock:

        strategy_sell = cash_owning_share[prev_tx_count]
+ price

        strategy_avoid = cash_not_owning_share[prev_tx_count]

        # Compute the new if prev_tx_count <
states.
tx_limit:

        # Selling increases the
tx_count by 1.

        cash_not_owning_share_next[prev_tx_count + 1
] = max (
            cash_not_owning_share_next[prev_tx
_count + 1 ],

```

```

        strategy_s
ell)

    # All other transitions keep tx_count
the same.

    cash_not_owning_share_next[prev_tx_count]
= max (
    cash_not_owning_share_next[prev_      strategy_av
tx_count],                               oid)

    cash_owning_share_next[prev_tx_count] =
max (
    cash_owning_share_next[prev_t      strategy_b
x_count],                               uy,
    strategy_h
old)

    cash_not_owning_share           =
cash_not_owning_share_next

    cash_owning_share           =
cash_owning_share_next

    # We have multiple final states, depending on how many
times we sold.

    # The transaction limit may not have been
reached.

```

```
# Choose the most profitable final state.
```

```
return max  
(cash_not_owning_share)
```

Master state machines

While you are reading this book, take your time to understand well how to model problems using state machines. Almost all dynamic programming problems can be solved this way. This skill is useful not just for interviews, but also in general in your software engineer career.

Change-making

Given a money amount and a list of coin denominations, provide the combination of coins adding up to that amount, that uses the fewest coins.

Example 1: Pay amount 9 using coin denominations [1, 2, 5] . The combination having the fewest coins is [5, 2, 2] . A suboptimal combination is [5, 1, 1, 1, 1] : it adds up to 9, but is using 5 coins instead of 3, thus it cannot be the solution.

Example 2: Pay amount 12 using coin denominations [1, 6, 10] . The combination having the fewest coins is [6, 6] . A suboptimal combination is [10, 1, 1] .

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned for total amount 0?

A: The empty list [] .

Q: Is it possible that the amount cannot be paid with the given coins?

A: Yes. For example, 5 cannot be paid with coins [2, 4] . In such a situation, return `None` .

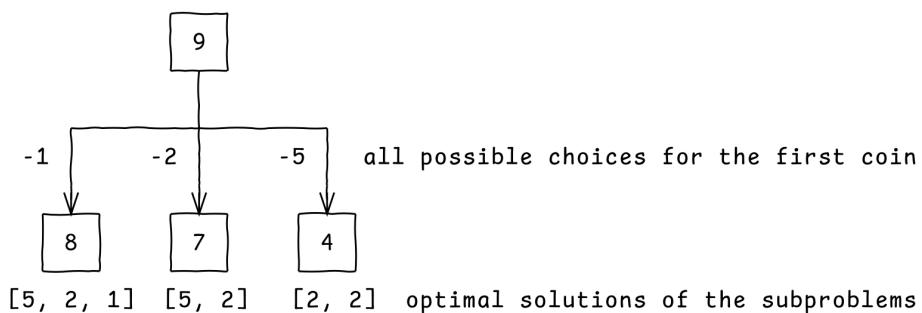
Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

» time

We can formulate a top-down dynamic programming solution if we model the problem as a recurrence. For any non-zero amount that has to be paid optimally using the given coins, we know that at least one of the coins has to be used. The problem is that we do not know which one. If we knew, we could use that as a starting point to reach a subproblem: we could subtract its value from the amount, then solve an instance of the problem for the remaining, smaller amount. We would continue in this way until the remaining amount becomes 0.

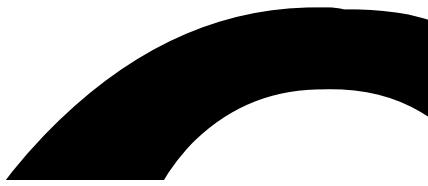
However, we do not know which coin to choose first optimally. In this situation, we have no other choice but try all possible options in brute-force style. For each coin, we subtract its value from the amount, then solve by recurrence the subproblem—this leads to a candidate solution for each choice of the first coin. Once we are done, we compare the candidate solutions and choose the one using the fewest coins.

Here is an example of how we would form the optimal change for amount 9, using coins [1, 2, 5]. We represent each amount as a node in a tree. Whenever we subtract a coin value from that amount, we add an edge to a new node with a smaller value. Please mind that the actual solution does not use trees, at least not explicitly: they are shown here only for clarity.



This diagram shows that for value 9, we have three options for choosing the first coin:

- We choose coin 1. We now have to solve the subproblem for value



. Suppose its optimal result is [5, 2, 1]. Then we add coin 1 to create the candidate solution [5, 2, 1] for 9.

- We choose coin 2. We now have to solve the subproblem for value



. Suppose the optimal result is [5, 2]. We add to it coin 2 to create the candidate solution [5, 2, 2] for 9.

- We choose coin 5. We now have to solve the subproblem for value

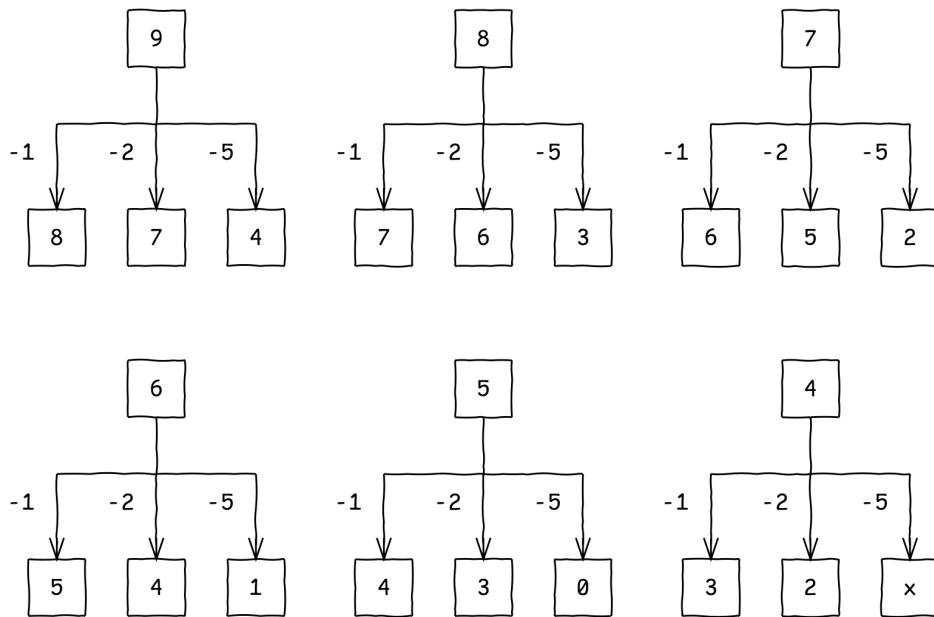


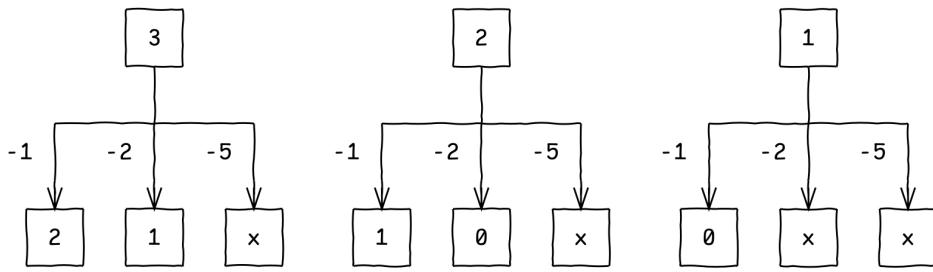
. The optimal result is [2, 2] .

We add to it coin 5 to create the candidate solution [5, 2, 2] for 9.

Now that we are done solving the subproblems, we compare the candidate solutions and choose the one using the fewest coins: [5, 2, 2] .

For solving the subproblems, we use the same procedure. The only difference is that we need to pay attention to two edge cases: the terminating condition (reaching amount 0), and avoiding choices where we are paying too much (reaching negative amounts). To understand these better, let's take a look at the subproblems:



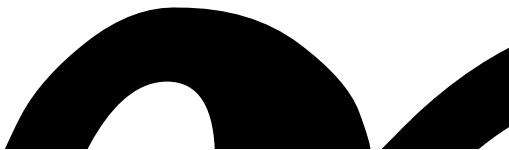


Drawing the subproblems helps us see clearly the edge cases:

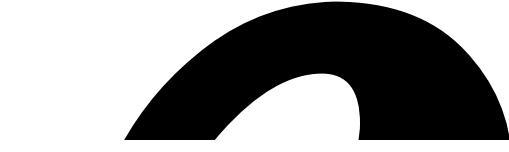
- When the amount becomes 0, we have to stop the iteration, since the subproblem is solved and there is nothing left to be paid. We can see the 0 node in several of the subproblem trees.
- When the amount goes below zero, the given amount cannot be formed with that coin. For example, trying to pay amount 3 using coin 5 would require solving the subproblem for amount -2, which does not make sense.

In addition to that, we can also notice that there are many redundancies among the subproblems. This is very important, as it affects the performance of the algorithm. We originally thought about solving the problem using brute force, which results in a slow algorithm:

, where



is the number of coins and



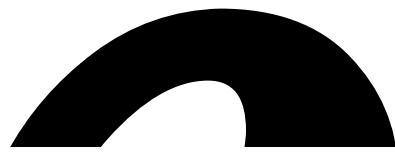
is the value of the amount we have to pay. In other words, the brute-force solution has exponential complexity, with very poor performance.

However, now that we know that there are redundancies among the subproblems, we can cache their results to reduce the complexity to only

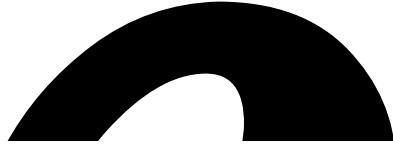
: in each step we must try



coins, and we have up to



steps (in the worst case, we pay



with



coins of value 1). This result is great: we reduced the time complexity from exponential to polynomial!

We are now ready to write a first implementation of the recurrence, without caching (the brute-force, exponential complexity solution). This is because we want to focus on the logic of the recurrence, without distractions; we will add caching afterwards.

```
"""  
def make_change(coins, amount): "
```

Given a list of coin values, and an amount to be paid,

returns the shortest list of coins that add up to that amount.

If the amount to be paid is zero, the empty list is returned.

If the amount cannot be paid using the coins, None is returned.

```

""" # Handle payment of amount if not
" zero.                                     amount:

return      # Negative amounts cannot be if amount < 0
[]          paid.                           :

return      optimal_result      =
None        None

# Consider all the possible ways to choose the last
coin.

for      coin      in
coins:

    # Solve a subproblem for the rest of the
amount.

    partial_result = make_change(coins, amount -
coin)

    # Skip this coin if the payment
failed:

    if      partial_result      is contin
None :                                ue

        candidate  =  partial_result  +
[coin]

    # Check if the candidate solution is better
than the

```

```

# optimal solution known so far, and update it if
needed.

if (optimal_result is None
or

    len(candidate) < len
(optimal_result)):

    optimal_result = return
candidate           optimal_result

```

This algorithm implements the recurrence relation as explained above. Notice how we handle the edge cases at the beginning of the function, before making any recursive calls, to avoid infinite recursion and to keep the recursion logic as simple as possible.

Handle and eliminate edge cases early

Generally, it is preferable to get edge cases out of the way as soon as possible, so that the rest of the implementation is kept simple. This improves substantially the readability of the code.

This implementation has exponential time complexity, since we have not implemented caching yet. Let's do that now.

Unfortunately, if we try to add caching simply adding the `lru_cache` decorator, we will have a nasty surprise:

```

from functools import lru_cache @lru_cache (maxsize=None )

..
def make_change(coins, amount): .

```

This code throws the exception: `TypeError: unhashable type: 'list'`. This is caused by the inability to cache the argument `coins`. As a list, it is mutable, and the `lru_cache` decorator rejects it. The decorator supports caching only arguments with immutable types, such as numbers, strings or tuples. This is for a very good reason: to prevent bugs in case mutable arguments are changed later (in case of lists, via `append`, `del` or changing its elements), which would require invalidating the cache.

A joke circulating in software engineering circles says that there are only two hard problems in computer science: cache invalidation, naming things, and off-by-one errors. To address the former, the design of the `lru_cache` decorator takes the easy way out: it avoids having to implement cache invalidation at all by only allowing immutable arguments.

Still, we need to add caching one way or another. We can work around the `lru_cache` limitation if we notice that we do not actually need to cache the `coins` list—that is shared among all subproblems. We only need to pass the remaining amount to be paid. So we write a helper function that solves the subproblem, taking as argument only the amount. The coin list is shared between invocations.

One way to implement this is to make the helper function nested inside the `make_change` function, so that it has access to the `coins` argument of the outer function:

```
@lru_cache (maxsize=None)
def make_change(coins, amount): )

    def .. return
    helper(amount): . helper(amount)
```

Another way is to transform the `make_change` function into a method of a class, that stores the list of coins in a class member. The helper could then be written as another method of the class, ideally a private one. I think

adding classes is overkill for what we have to do, so we will not discuss this approach.

Here is the full solution that uses nested functions:

```
"""
def make_change(coins, amount): """

    Given a list of coin values, and an amount to be
    paid,

    returns the shortest list of coins that add up to that
    amount.

    If the amount to be paid is zero, the empty list is
    returned.

    If the amount cannot be paid using the coins, None is
    returned.

    """
    @lru_cache (maxsize=None)
    def helper(amount):

        # Handle payment of amount if not return
        zero.                                amount: []
                                                []

        # Negative amounts cannot be paid.
        if amount < 0:
            return None

        optimal_result = None

        for coin in coins:
            remainder = amount - coin
```

```

    # Consider all the possible ways to choose the last
    coin.

    for     coin     in
coins:

        # Solve a subproblem for the rest of the
        amount.

        partial_result = helper(amount -
coin)

        # Skip this coin if the payment
        failed:

        if     partial_result     is     contin
None :                         ue

            candidate = partial_result +
[coin]

        # Check if the candidate solution is better
        than the

        # optimal solution known so far, and update it if
        needed.

        if     (optimal_result     is
None or

            len     (candidate)     <     len
(optimal_result)):
```

```
    optimal_result      =  return  
candidate                optimal_result  
  
return  
helper(amount)
```

How many comments should we write?

Well-written comments improve code readability, however there is a trade-off: too many comments can be distracting, are a maintainability burden, and a sign that the code might not be clear enough. However, for interviews, I prefer leaning towards more verbosity, since we normally do not have time to refactor the code to perfection. Comments can compensate for that.

A good rule of thumb is to use comments to explain why the code is doing something. If you feel the need to explain what it is doing, it might be time to refactor that piece of code into an appropriately-named function. If you do not have time to refactor during the interview, you can add a comment like: “TODO: refactor into helper function.”

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

↙ time

Once we have implemented the top-down solution, we can rewrite it as bottom-up: we start from the amount 0, and keep adding coins in all possible ways until reaching the amount to be paid:

```
def make_change(coins, amount):

    # solutions[k] = optimal list of coins that add up to
    k,
    #
    # or None if no solution is known
    for k

        solutions = [None] * (amount + 1
    )

    # Initial state: no coins needed to pay
    # amount 0

    solutions[0] =
    []

    # Starting from amount 0, find ways to pay higher
    # amounts
```

```

# by adding paid = while paid <
coins.          0           amount:

    if solutions[paid] is not for coin in
None :                           coins:

        next_paid = paid +     if next_paid > contin
coin                   amount:             ue

        if (solutions[next_paid] is
None or

            len(solutions[paid]) > + 1 ):

            solutions[next_paid] = paid += 1
            solutions[paid] + [coin]

    return
solutions[amount]

```

This solution is iterative, which is an advantage compared to the top-down solution, since it avoids the overheads of recursive calls. However, for certain denominations, it wastes time by increasing the amount very slowly, in steps of 1 unit. For example, if `coins = [100, 200, 500]` (suppose we use bills), it does not make sense to advance in steps of 1.

In addition, a lot of space is wasted for amounts that cannot be paid. Let's see if we can come up with a better solution.

Solution 3: dynamic programming + BFS, bottom-up,

time

We can optimize the bottom-up solution by using a queue of amounts to be handled, instead of an array. This helps in two ways: Firstly, it allows us to skip amounts that cannot be formed, thus reducing execution time. Secondly, by not having to store amounts that cannot be paid, memory usage is reduced.

Let's implement it:

```
def simplest_change(coins, amount):  
  
    # solutions[k] = optimal list of coins that add up to  
    # amount k  
  
    # Amounts that cannot be paid are not  
    # stored.  
  
    solutions = {0 : []}  
  
    # List of amounts that can be paid but have not been  
    # handled yet.  
  
    amounts_to_be_handled = collections.deque([0])
```

```

# Iterate over amounts in breadth-first
order.

while amounts_to_be_handled:

    paid = amounts_to_be_handled.popleft()

    solution = if paid == solutions[paid]:
                amount:

        # Due to BFS order, the first path
        reaching the

        # required amount is the one using the
        smallest number

        # of coins. Thus it is the optimal return
        solution.

        for coin in next_paid = paid +
                     coins:
            coin

            if next_paid >
            amount:

                # We can safely ignore amounts
                overshooting the

                # target amount to be contin
                ue

```

```

    if next_paid not in
solutions:

        solutions[next_paid] = solution
+ [coin]

        amounts_to_be_handled.append(next_paid)

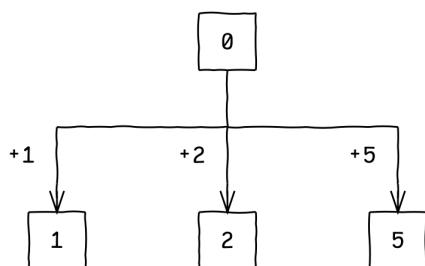
# No combination of coins could match the required amount,

# thus it cannot be returned.           None

```

Notice how we are treating the (sub)problem space as a graph, which is explored in breadth-first order (BFS). We start from the subproblem of forming the amount 0. From there, we keep expanding using all the possible coin choices until we reach the required amount.

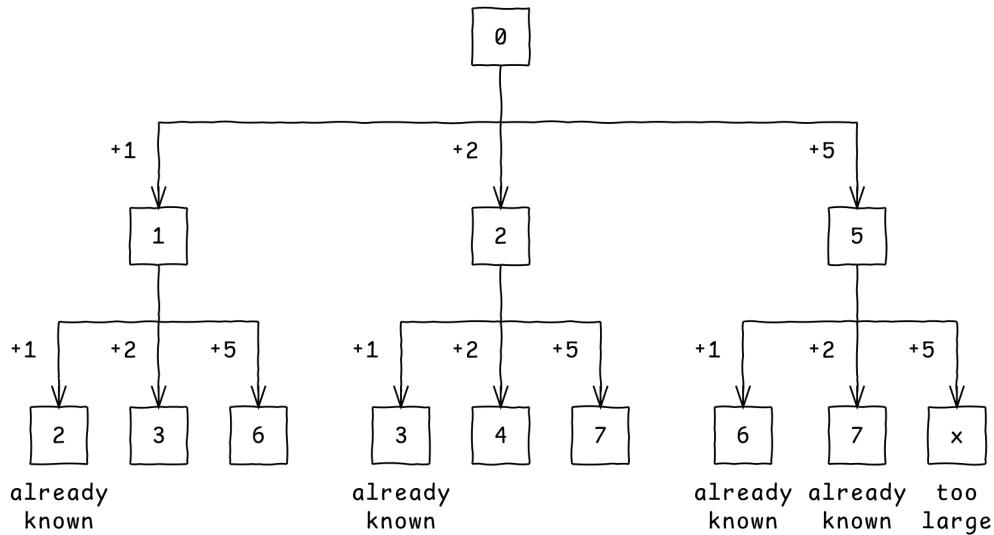
Let's look at an example showing how the problem space exploration works for paying amount 9 with coins [1, 2, 5]. We start with amount 0 and explore by adding a coin in all possible ways. Here is the first level of the problem space graph:



The first level contains all amounts that can be paid using a single coin. After this step, we have [1, 2, 5] in our BFS queue, which is exactly the list

of nodes on the first level—hence the name of breadth-first search.

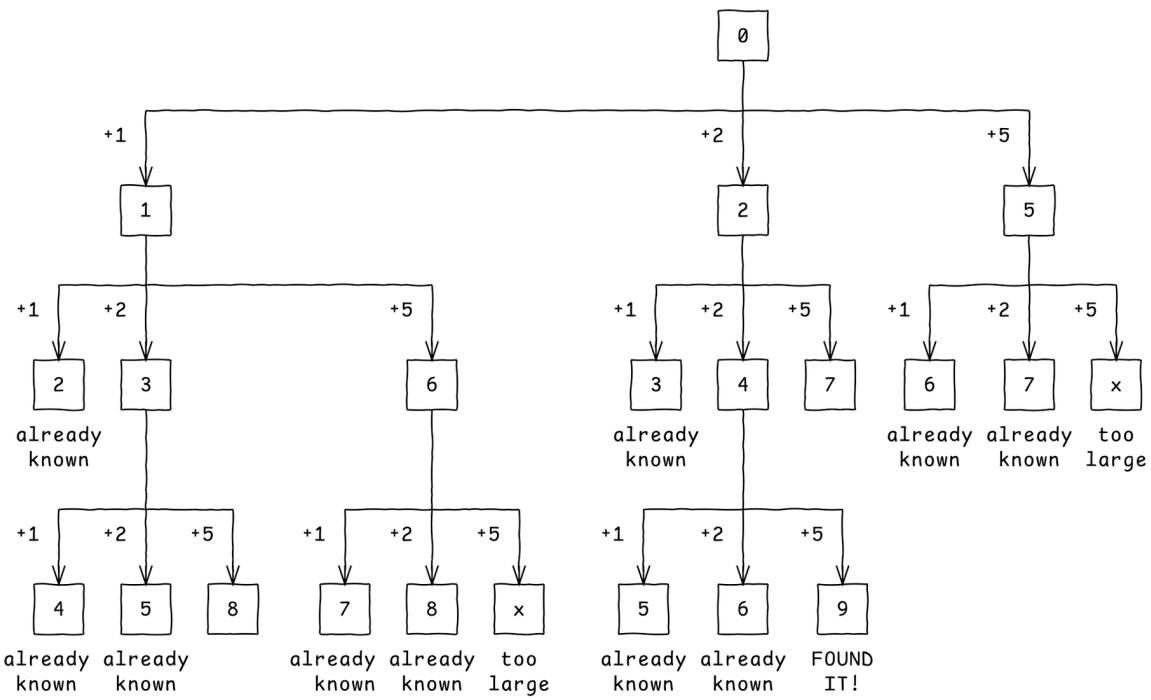
To fill in the second level of the problem space graph, we continue the exploration a step further for amounts 1, 2 and 5:



The second level contains all possible amounts that can be paid with 2 coins. After this step, we have [3, 6, 4, 7] in our BFS queue.

Notice that we discarded nodes corresponding to already known amounts, since these can be paid with a similar or better solution (fewer coins). We have also discarded amounts that exceed the value we have to pay (such as 10). This ensures that the graph size is bounded and that it contains only valid/optimal nodes.

We still have not found a way to pay our target amount, 9. Let's explore further, adding the third level of the problem space graph:



Note that as we reached the target amount 9, we stopped drawing the rest of the level. As it is on the third level of the tree, the amount can be paid with 3 coins. The combination is 2, 2 and 5, which can be found by walking the path from 0 to 9. This is the solution to the problem.

Note that the exploration order was important: the breadth-first order guarantees that each time we reach a new amount, the path we followed is the shortest possible in terms of number of coins used. Had we used instead another graph search algorithm, such as depth-first search, the solution might not have been optimal.

Variant: count the number of ways to pay (permutations)

Given a money amount and a list of coin denominations, count in how many ways it is possible to pay that amount. The order matters, i.e. paying with a coin of 1 followed by a coin of 2 is considered distinct from paying with a coin of 2 followed by a coin of 1.

Example: To pay amount 3 with coins [1, 2] , there are 3 possible ways: 1 + 2 , 2 + 1 and 1 + 1 + 1 .

Solution: dynamic-programming, top-down,



Let's analyze a slightly more complicated example: paying amount 6 with coins [1, 2, 5] . Here are all the possible ways to pay the amount:

- $6 = 5 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 5$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 2$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 2 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 2 + 2 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 2 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 2$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$

- $6 = 1 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$

From this list we do not see any particular rule, other than enumerating all the permutations of the combinations of coins that add up to 6 ($1 + 5$, $2 + 2 + 2$, $2 + 2 + 1 + 1$, $2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$ and $1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$). This is not very helpful.

Let's list the payments again but sorted in lexicographic order:

- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 2 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 2 + 2 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 5$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 2 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 2$
- $6 = 5 + 1$

We can now see a pattern we can use to generate the list:

- Choose 1 as the first coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (5) in all possible ways:

- $5 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $5 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 2$

- $5 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 1$
- $5 = 1 + 2 + 1 + 1$
- $5 = 1 + 2 + 2$
- $5 = 2 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $5 = 2 + 1 + 2$
- $5 = 2 + 2 + 1$
- $5 = 5$

- Then choose 2 as the first coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (4) in all possible ways:

- $4 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $4 = 1 + 1 + 2$
- $4 = 1 + 2 + 1$
- $4 = 2 + 1 + 1$
- $4 = 2 + 2$

- Finally, choose 5 as the first coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (1) in all possible ways:

- $1 = 1$

We found a rule that reduces the problem to a smaller subproblem. The subproblems can be solved using the same pattern. Let's show the second iteration:

- Choose 1 as the first coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (5) in all possible ways:

- Choose 1 as the second coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (4) in all possible ways:

- $4 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $4 = 1 + 1 + 2$
- $4 = 1 + 2 + 1$
- $4 = 2 + 1 + 1$
- $4 = 2 + 2$

- Choose 2 as the second coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (3) in all possible ways:
 - $3 = 1 + 1 + 1$
 - $3 = 1 + 2$
 - $3 = 2 + 1$
- Choose 5 as the second coin to pay and pay it. There is nothing left to be paid.
- Then choose 2 as the first coin and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (4) in all possible ways:
 - Choose 1 as the second coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (3) in all possible ways:
 - $3 = 1 + 1 + 1$
 - $3 = 1 + 2$
 - $3 = 2 + 1$
 - Choose 2 as the second coin to pay and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (2) in all possible ways:
 - $2 = 1 + 1$
 - $2 = 2$
- Finally, choose 5 as the first coin and pay it. Then pay the rest of the amount (1) in all possible ways:
 - Choose 1 as the second coin to pay and pay it. There is nothing left to pay.

Notice that this method computes the number of ways to pay certain amounts, such as 4 or 3, several times. We have to cache the results to avoid exponential complexity due to the redundancies.

Now that we found a recursive rule, we can implement a top-down dynamic programming solution as follows:

```

        @lru_cach
def count_ways_to_pay(coins, amount): e

    def
count_ways_helper(amount):

        # Nothing more left to pay: a single way if amount == 0
        : amount == 0

    return
1

        # Invalid payment: we paid too much so the amount
that

        # remains is if amount < 0 return num_ways =
negative. amount < 0 0 0

        # Consider all the possible ways to choose the first
coin:

    for first in
coins:

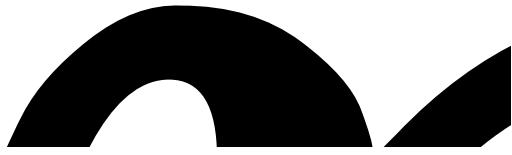
        # Count the ways to pay the rest of the
amount.

        num_ways += count_ways_helper(amount -
first)

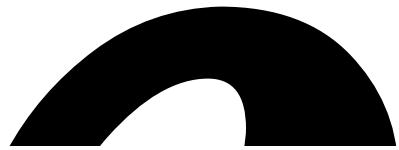
    return
num_ways helper(amount)

```

The time complexity is $O(n^m)$, where



is the number of coins and



is the amount we have to pay.

Variant: count the number of ways to pay (combinations)

Given a money amount and a list of coin denominations, count in how many ways it is possible to pay that amount. The order does not matter, i.e. paying with a coin of 1 followed by a coin of 2 is considered the same as paying with a coin of 2 followed by a coin of 1, so it should be only counted once.

Example: To pay amount 3 with coins [1, 2], there are 2 possible ways: 1 + 2 and 1 + 1 + 1.

Counting combinations vs. permutations

Please pay attention and take your time to understand the difference between this problem and the permutation counting variant.

Solution: dynamic-programming, top-down,



The given example is too short to find a clear pattern. Let's analyze a slightly more complicated example: paying amount 6 with coins [1, 2, 5]. There are 5 ways to pay the amount:

- $6 = 5 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 2$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 2 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$

- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$

Let's sort them in lexicographic order:

- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 2$
- $6 = 1 + 5$
- $6 = 2 + 2 + 2$

Sorting solutions

Notice the solution sorting trick once again. This is very helpful to extract visually patterns that could be then generated through a recursive algorithm.

We can formulate the following rule that generates these payments:

- Consider coin 1. It can appear in the payment between 0 and 6 times. Consider each option:
 - Do not pay with 1 at all. Count the number of ways to pay 6 with [2, 5] :
 - $6 = 2 + 2 + 2$
 - Pay with 1 once. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (5) with [2, 5] :
 - $5 = 5$
 - Pay with 1 twice. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (4) with [2, 5] :
 - $4 = 2 + 2$
 - Pay with 1 three times. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (3) with [2, 5] :
 - Impossible.

- Pay with 1 four times. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (2) with [2, 5] :
 - 2 = 2
- Pay with 1 five times. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (1) with [2, 5] :
 - Impossible.
- Pay with 1 six times. There is nothing left to pay => $1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$.

We found a rule that allows us to reduce the problem to several smaller subproblems: choose a coin, and use it some number of times to pay a part of the amount; then pay the remaining amount with a smaller set of coins.

If it's not clear yet, let's look at the first two iterations when applying this rule:

Consider coin 1. It can appear in the payment between 0 and 6 times. Consider each option:

- Do not pay with 1 at all. Count the number of ways to pay 6 with [2, 5] :
- Consider coin 2. It can appear in the payment between 0 and 3 times. Consider each option:
 - Do not pay with 2 at all. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (6) with [5] :
 - Impossible.
 - Pay with 2 once. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (4) with [5] :
 - Impossible.
 - Pay with 2 twice. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (2) with [5] :

- Impossible.
 - Pay with 2 three times. There is nothing left to pay =>

$$2 + 2 + 2 .$$
- Pay with 1 once. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (5) with [2, 5] :
 - Consider coin 2. It can appear in the payment between 0 and 2 times. Consider each option:
 - Do not pay with 2 at all. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (6) with [5] :
 - $5 = 5$
 - Pay with 2 once. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (3) with [5] :
 - Impossible.
 - Pay with 2 twice. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (1) with [5] :
 - Impossible.
 - Pay with 1 twice. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (4) with [2, 5] :
 - Consider coin 2. It can appear in the payment between 0 and 2 times. Consider each option:
 - Do not pay with 2 at all. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (4) with [5] :
 - Impossible.
 - Pay with 2 once. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (2) with [5] :
 - Impossible.
 - Pay with 2 twice. There is nothing left to pay => $1 + 1 + 2 + 2 ;$

- Pay with 1 three times. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (3) with [2, 5] :
 - Impossible.
- Pay with 1 four times. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (2) with [2, 5] :
 - $2 = 2$
- Pay with 1 five times. Count the number of ways to pay the remaining amount (1) with [2, 5] :
 - Impossible.
- Pay with 1 six times. There is nothing left to pay $\Rightarrow 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$.

We can implement this rule using a helper function that takes as parameters the amount left to be paid and the index of the next coin to be considered (assuming coins are stored in a list).

We can see from the examples above that there are a lot of redundant computations, so we cache the results to reduce the time complexity. We will analyze how much after we write the solution.

We can write the solution as:

```

@lru_cach
def count_ways_to_pay(coins, amount): e

def count_ways_helper(index,
amount):
    # Nothing more left to pay: a single way. if amount == 0
    :  


```

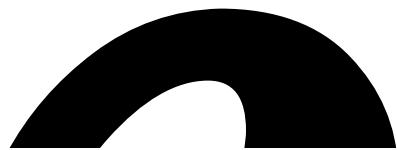
```
return  
1  
  
    # Invalid payment: we either paid too much so the  
    # amount that  
  
    # remains is negative, or we still have something to  
    # pay but  
  
    # we ran out of  
    # coins.  
  
    if amount < 0 or index == len(coins):  
        return 0  
  
    coin = coins[index]  
  
    # Consider all the possible amounts to pay with the  
    # coin:  
  
    for repeats in range(amount // coin + 1):  
  
        payment = coin *  
repeats  
  
        # Count the ways to pay the rest of the  
        # amount.
```

```
    num_ways += count_ways_helper(index + 1 , amount -  
payment)  
  
    return  
    num_ways  
        return  
        helper(amount)
```

The time complexity is $O(n^m)$, where



is the number of coins and



is the amount we have to pay.

Number of expressions with a target result

Given a list of integers and a target result, count the number of ways in which we can add + or - operators between the integers such that the expression that is formed is equal to the target result.

Example: Given numbers [1, 2, 2, 3, 1] and target result 3, we can form three expressions:

- $1 + 2 + 2 - 3 + 1 = 3$
- $1 + 2 - 2 + 3 - 1 = 3$
- $1 - 2 + 2 + 3 - 1 = 3$

Therefore the answer is 3.

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned if the list contains a single number?

A: No operators can be added in this case, so the only expression that can be formed is the given number itself. Return 1 if the number is equal to the result, 0 otherwise.

Q: What result should be returned if the list contains no numbers?

A: The result should be zero, since no expressions can be formed.

Q: How long can the list be?

A: It may contain up to 30 numbers.

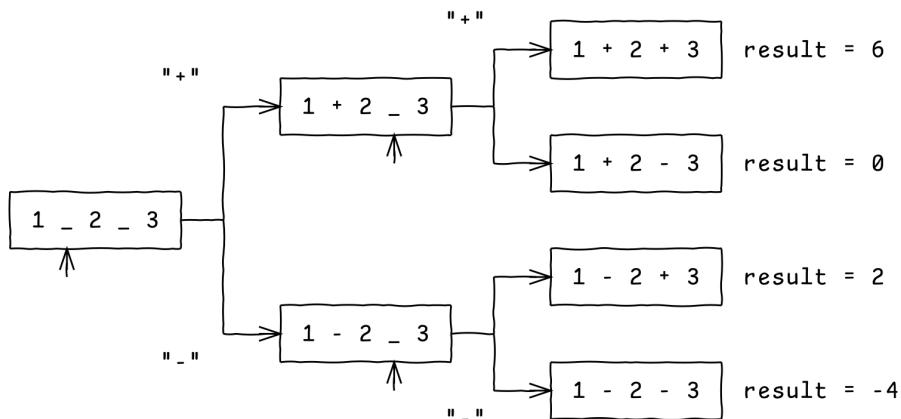
Solution 1: brute-force, time

A straightforward solution is to generate all possible expressions, keep only the ones that are equal to the target result, and count them.

We can generate expressions incrementally, assigning operators one by one. For each operator, we have 2 choices: either use + or - . To generate all expressions, we first use + for the first operator, then continue assigning the other operators recursively; then we revisit the first operator and use - this time, then assign the other operators recursively once more. We apply the same rule to the other operators.

Whenever we form a full expression, we check if its result is equal to the target, and if it is, we count it.

Here is an example of using this method on numbers [1, 2, 3] :



The solution can be implemented as:

```

def count_expressions(numbers, target_result):

    def count(index, ""
partial_result):
        """
Counts the number of expressions equal to
`target_result`,

given that the first `index` operators have been
assigned,
thus the left part of the expression is equal to
`partial_result`.

        "" if index == len
        numbers:

            # We formed a full expression. Count it if we hit
            the target.

            if partial_result == target_result:
                return 1
                0

            # For the operator before `numbers[index]`, we have
            two options:

            # Add the `+` sign:
            count_add = count(index + 1, partial_result +
numbers[index])

            # Add the `-` sign:

```

```

    count_sub = count(index + 1, partial_result -
numbers[index])

# Each option may yield some valid expressions. Sum up
the counters.

    return count_add + first_index =
count_sub
                                1

    partial_result = numbers[0
]

    return count(first_index,
partial_result)

```

The complexity is $O(n^2)$, where $n = \text{len(numbers)}$. This can be proved by induction: if we increase the input number list length by 1 (by appending a number), the number of steps we make doubles.

The complexity can also be determined graphically from the tree we have drawn for the example. It is a complete binary tree, where each node represents a step in the execution of the algorithm. The height of the tree is

n , thus the number of nodes is



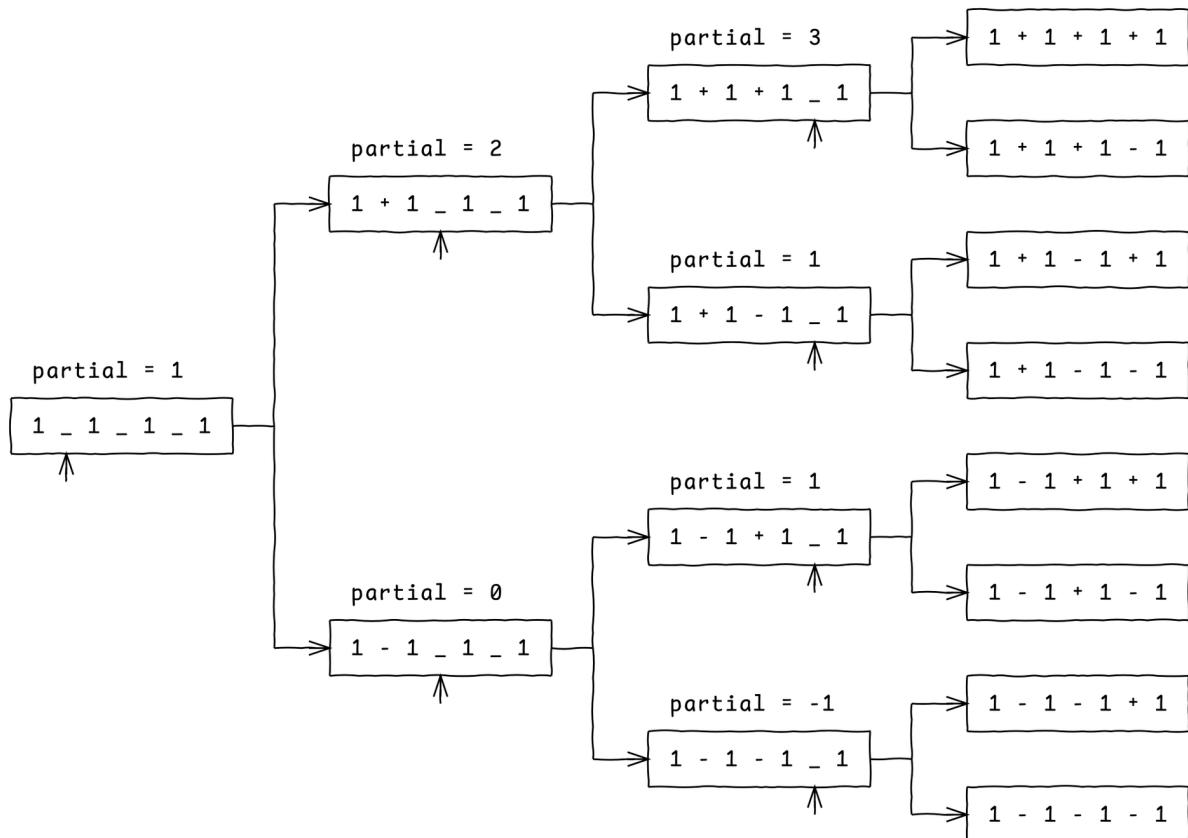
which gives steps.

Since we have to handle up to 30 numbers, the brute-force algorithm has to make 1 billion steps, which is too slow.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, top-down,

» time

We can speed up our computation if we notice that we are doing redundant computations. The previous example is too small to see any redundancies, since there are no two expressions with the same sum. Let's consider another example where the list of numbers is $[1, 1, 1, 1]$:



We find two subtrees that are redundant: the prefixes $1 + 1 - 1$ and $1 - 1 + 1$ have the same partial result 1. Therefore it does not make sense to compute

the expression count for subtrees twice, since it is the same.

To avoid redundant computations, we can add a cache for the helper function:

```
from functools import lru_cache

def count_expressions(numbers, target_result):

    @lru_cache (maxsize=None)
    def count(index, partial_result):
        """
        Counts the number of expressions equal to `target_result`,
        given that the first `index` operators have been assigned,
        thus the left part of the expression is equal to `partial_result`.

        if index == len
        (numbers):

            # We formed a full expression. Count it if we hit
            the target.

            if partial_result == target_result:
                return 1
                0
            else:
                return 0
        else:
            return count(index + 1, partial_result * numbers[index])
    return count(0, 1)
```

```

    # For the operator before `numbers[index]`, we have
    two options:

    # Add the `+` sign:
    count_add = count(index + 1, partial_result + numbers[index])

    # Add the `-` sign:
    count_sub = count(index + 1, partial_result - numbers[index])

    # Each option may yield some valid expressions. Sum up
    the counters.

    return count_add + first_index =
    count_sub           1

    partial_result = numbers[0
    ]

    return count(first_index,
    partial_result)

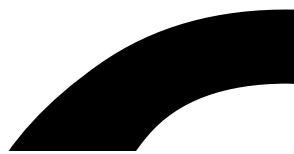
```

To analyze how caching affects the time complexity, let's think about the worst-case scenario: how many times the `count` function may execute without having the result cached. The answer is

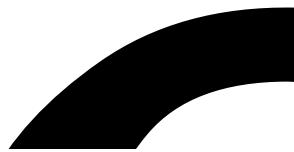


,

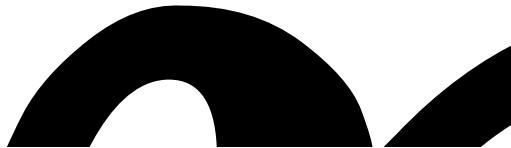
where



is the number of possible distinct results of the partial expressions (we don't know its value yet, but we will look at that in a moment). Note that we multiply



by

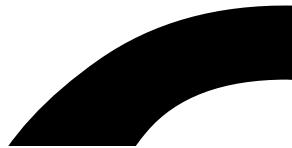


since we may reach the same partial result for different operators (partial expressions of different lengths).

Looking at this from another perspective,

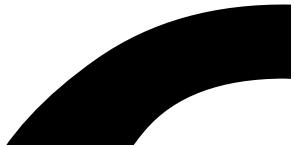
 is the upper bound for the number of distinct input argument values passed to the function `count(index, partial_result)`.

Computing



is tricky, but we can

compute its bounds instead.



is a number in the interval $[-s, s]$ with $s = \sum(\text{abs}(x) \text{ for } x \text{ in numbers})$. Therefore the time complexity of the solution using caching is

.

This may be an overestimate of the actual number of steps when the input numbers are all large (for example: [1000, 2000, 3000]). For small numbers, it is a tight bound.

Thinking about the worst-case scenario and upper bounds

When it is hard to reason about the complexity of a solution, it is often easier to focus on the worst-case scenario. But sometimes, even analyzing that is difficult. In these cases it may help to think about an upper bound. Upper bounds are useful in practice, especially for capacity planning, since they provide guarantees about the maximum resource usage of a system.

Solution 3: dynamic programming + BFS, bottom-up,

time

We can rewrite the solution in non-recursive form, using similar expression generation rules.

We start with a simple expression containing only the first number. We then extend this expression with an operator and the next number, in all possible ways, obtaining expressions having two numbers. We store these new expressions in a list. At this point, we can discard the expression containing just one number, and start further expansions from the expressions containing two numbers. We repeat the procedure until we obtain a list of complete expressions.

The problem with this approach is that the memory requirements are very

large, since we have to store up to
expressions.



To improve memory efficiency, we do not store the partial expressions, only their results. We can make the storage even more efficient by eliminating duplicate values: we maintain a counter for each partial result; by default it is 1, and we increment it each time we find a new expression having the same result. These counters can be stored in a dictionary, or the Python `collections.Counter` type.

To understand this approach better, consider an example where `numbers = [1, 1, 1, 1]`. At each step, we compute the dictionary `partial_result_count`, where `partial_result_count[value]` stores the number of expressions formed from `numbers[:index]` having the result equal to `value`.

Here are all the steps performed by the algorithm:

- Initially the only expression is "1". Then `partial_result_count = {1: 1}` (i.e. value 1 can be formed in one way).
- We add the second number to the known expressions, once as "`value + 1`" and once as "`value - 1`". We can obtain two possible partial results:
 - 2 from the previous value 1 by adding 1;
 - 0 from the previous value 1 by subtracting 1.

We update `partial_result_count = {2: 1, 0: 1}`. Note that we keep counters only for values obtained for expressions with 2 numbers.

- We add the third number to the known expressions, once as "`value + 1`" and once as "`value - 1`". We can obtain the following partial results:
 - 3 from the previous value 2 by adding 1;
 - 1 from the previous value 0 by adding 1;
 - 1 from the previous value 2 by subtracting 1;
 - -1 from the previous value 0 by subtracting 1.

We update `partial_result_count = {3: 1, 1: 2, -1: 1}`. We keep counters only for values obtained for expressions with 3 numbers. Note that the counter for value 1 is 2, since there are two possible expressions that generate it. This is the first redundancy encountered so far.

- We add the fourth number to the known expressions, once as "`value + 1`" and once as "`value - 1`". We can obtain the following partial results:
 - 4 from the previous value 3 by adding 1;
 - 2 from the previous value 1 by adding 1;
 - 0 from the previous value -1 by adding 1;

- 2 from the previous value 3 by subtracting 1;
- 0 from the previous value 1 by subtracting 1;
- -2 from the previous value -1 by subtracting 1.

We update `partial_result_count = {4: 1, 2: 3, 0: 3, -2: 1}`.

- Since we exhausted all numbers, `partial_result_count` stores the final result count. We simply return `partial_result_count[target_result]`.

This solution can be implemented as:

```
import collections

def count_expressions(numbers, target_result):

    # The offset reached in the list of index = numbers.
    # partial_result_count[value] = count of expressions formed
    # from numbers[:index] having the result equal to `value`.

    partial_result_count = collections.Counter({ numbers[0]: 1 })

    while index < len
        (numbers):

            next_result_count = collections.Counter()

            for prefix_result, count in
                partial_result_count.items():
```

```

    # For each prefix, we extend the
expression with

    # + numbers[index] and - numbers[index].

    new_result_add      =      prefix_result      +
numbers[index]

    new_result_sub      =      prefix_result      -
numbers[index]

    # Propagate the counters to the new
expressions.

    next_result_count[new_result_add] += count

    next_result_count[new_result_sub] += count

    # Advance to the next
number.

    partial_result_count          = index += 1
next_result_count

    return
partial_result_count[target_result]

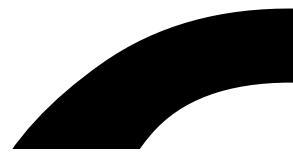
```

The time complexity is , since we

iterate over

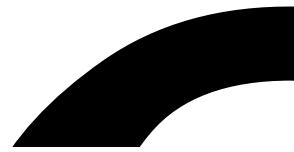
numbers, and at each

iteration we process

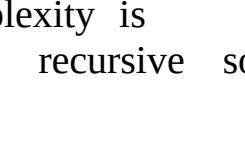


partial results. As

previously discussed,
interval $[-s, s]$ where $s = \sum([abs(x) for x in numbers])$.



a number in the

The space complexity is . This is better than the recursive solution, which had space complexity

, due to the cache. The solution is also likely faster due to the lack of function call overheads.

Unit tests

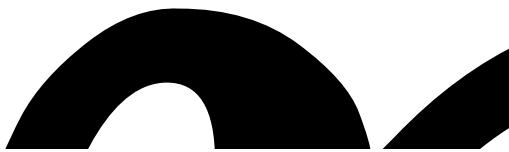
We propose three unit tests:

The first test handles a few short lists of numbers, for which the expressions can be computed by hand, thus it is easy to verify that the result is correct.

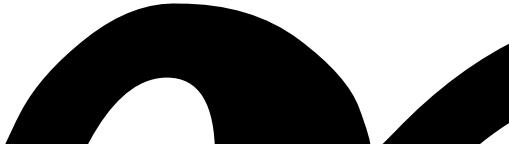
The second test handles the edge case where there is a single number in the list. We check two subcases: one where the number matches the target result, and another one where it does not.

The third test handles large inputs, thus checking if the solution has good performance. In this case, it is too difficult to check the result by hand.

We use instead a very simple input: all numbers equal to one, and target result zero. For this input, the number of expressions having a target result can be computed using combinatorics. To generate expressions with



ones, with



even, and target sum zero, half of the operators must be "-" and the other half must be "+" , such that they cancel each other out. The number of such expressions is

, since there are

operators in an expression, out of

which have to be chosen as "-" .

The tests can be written as:

```
class TestCountExpressions(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_simple(self):
        self.assertEqual(count_expressions([2, 1, 1], 2), 2)
        self.assertEqual(count_expressions([1, 2, 2, 3, 3], 7), 2)
        self.assertEqual(count_expressions([1, 2, 2, 3, 1], 3), 3)
```

```
def test_2_single_number(self):
    self .assertEqual(count_expressions([3  ],  2
), 0 )

    self .assertEqual(count_expressions([3  ],  3
), 1 )

def test_3_perf(self):
    self .assertEqual(count_expressions([1  ] * 20 , 0 ),
math.comb(19 , 10 ))

    self .assertEqual(count_expressions([1  ] * 30 , 0 ),
math.comb(29 , 15 ))
```

Partitioning a set into equal-sum parts

Given a set of positive integers, determine if it can be partitioned into two parts having equal sum.

Example 1: `numbers = [2, 3, 5, 6]` can be partitioned into `[2, 6]` and `[3, 5]` , which both have sum 8.

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned for the empty set?

A: The set is guaranteed not to be empty.

Q: How large may the set be?

A: Up to 50 elements.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

» time

A straightforward brute-force solution is to enumerate all possible subsets s_1 ; for each one, compute the complement $s_2 = \text{numbers} - s_1$; then check if $\text{sum}(s_1) == \text{sum}(s_2)$.

The problem with this approach is its performance: if there are n numbers,

this solution has time complexity

since there are computing the sum of each set requires



possible subsets, and

operations. This is too slow: the algorithm does not scale to the given upper limit of 50 numbers.

Nevertheless, the brute-force idea is useful, since we notice an interesting property: if two subsets s_1 and s_2 form an equal-sum partition, then the following are true:

- $\text{sum}(s_1) == \text{sum}(s_2)$;
- $\text{sum}(s_1) + \text{sum}(s_2) == \text{sum}(\text{numbers})$.

This means that $\text{sum}(s_1) == \text{sum}(s_2) == \text{sum}(\text{numbers}) / 2$. Therefore we can reduce the problem to finding subset s_1 having sum $s = \text{sum}(\text{numbers}) / 2$.

The search can be formulated using recursion. For the first element of numbers $\text{numbers}[0]$, we have two choices:

- Do not include $\text{numbers}[0]$ into s_1 . Try to form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[1:]$, with the target sum s .
- Include $\text{numbers}[0]$ into s_1 . Form the rest of s_1 from $\text{numbers}[1:]$, with the target sum $s - \text{numbers}[0]$.

Here is an example of the steps we make to solve $\text{numbers} = [2, 3, 5, 6]$, with recursion depth shown up to 2:

- Form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[0:]$ with $\text{target_sum} 8$:
 - Try without including $\text{numbers}[0] == 2$ into s_1 . Form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[1:]$ with $\text{target_sum} 8$:
 - Try without including $\text{numbers}[1] == 3$ into s_1 . Form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[2:]$ with $\text{target_sum} 8$: ...
 - Try including $\text{numbers}[1] == 3$ into s_1 . Form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[2:]$ with $\text{target_sum} 8 - 3 = 5$: ...
 - Try including $\text{numbers}[0] == 2$ into s_1 . Form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[1:]$ with $\text{target_sum} 8 - 2 = 6$:
 - Try without including $\text{numbers}[1] == 3$ into s_1 . Form s_1 from $\text{numbers}[2:]$ with $\text{target_sum} 6$: ...

- Try including `numbers[1] == 3` into `s1`. Form `s1` from `numbers[2:]` with `target_sum 6 - 3 = 3: ...`

Let's analyze the time complexity of this solution. Suppose we define a function `find_subset(index, target_sum)` that implements the recursion.

Naively, it would seem that we have to make

 calls of `find_subset`, since the recursion depth is `n` and each call makes 2 deeper calls.

However, the number of possible parameter combinations that can be passed to `find_subset` is only `n * s` (`n` values for `index` and up to `s` values for

 `target_sum`). This means that out of the calls, many are redundant, so we can cache the results to achieve time

complexity of only

Computing an upper bound for the cache size

Notice how easy it was to reason about the time complexity once we found an upper bound for the cache size. This is often the most

straightforward way to compute not only the time complexity of dynamic programming solutions, but also their memory requirements.

We can implement the solution as:

```
from functools import lru_cache def can_partition(numbers):

    @lru_cache (maxsize=None
    )

    def find_subset(index, """
target_sum):
        Searches for a subset of
numbers[index:]

        having sum "" if target_sum == 0
target_sum. " :

            # If we hit the target_sum, we found a valid
subset.

    return if target_sum < 0 or index >= len
True (numbers):

        # We either overshot the target
sum,

        # or ran out of return
numbers. False
```

```

        number          =
numbers[index]

    # Search numbers[index+1:], either using the current
number

# or without using
it.

    return (find_subset(index + 1, target_sum -
number) or

        find_subset(index + 1, total = sum
target_sum))

if total % 2
:

    # Impossible to split it into subsets of equal
sum.

return      return find_subset(0, total // 2
False       )

```

Notice the similarity to the solution of the change-making problem. The main difference is that for the change-making problem, we were allowing the use of each number (a coin) multiple times; for this problem, it can only be used once. To enforce this constraint, the recursive function requires the argument `index`, in addition to the remaining sum.

Identify similarities and differences between problems

A good way to improve your understanding of dynamic programming problems and their solutions is to think about how they relate to each other, as there are often many similarities between them.

Splitting a string without spaces into words

Certain languages, such as Thai or classical Latin, do not use spaces to separate words within sentences. This creates some challenges to text-processing software that has to handle words.

Given a sentence recorded as a string without spaces and a dictionary (a list of words), split the sentence into words. In case multiple results are possible, return any of them.

Example 1: Split sentence "helloworld" , given the dictionary ["hello", "goodbye", "world"] . Result: ["hello", "world"] .

Example 2: Split sentence "catseatmice" , given the dictionary ["cat", "cats", "eat", "mice", "seat"] . Result: ["cats", "eat", "mice"] or ["cat", "seat", "mice"] .

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned for the empty sentence?

A: The empty list [] .

Q: Is it possible that the sentence cannot be split into words?

A: Yes. In such a situation, return `None` .

Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

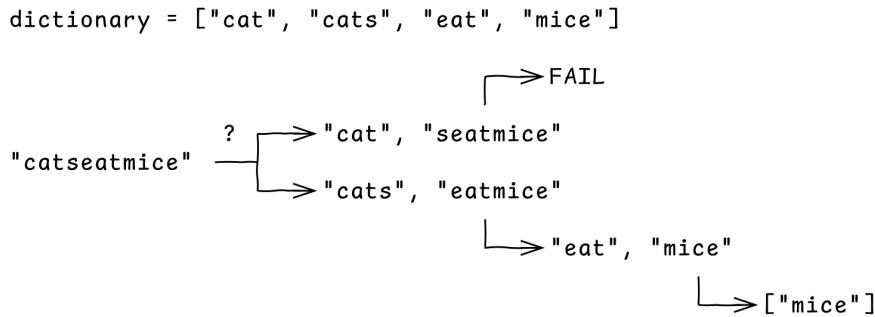
» time

This problem is similar to the change-making problem, except that we use strings instead of numbers, and concatenation instead of addition. Instead of paying a target amount, we have to split a sentence into words.

We can start from a side of the sentence, either the start or the end. Let's choose the start. We look at all the words in the dictionary, and check which ones are prefixes of the sentence.

For example, for the sentence "catseatmice" , we find two possible prefixes in the dictionary: "cat" and "cats" . Since we do not know which one may lead to a correct split, we test both of them. In each case, we remove the prefix, then check if the suffix may be split into valid words. Splitting the suffix is a subproblem of the original problem, so we can solve it with a recursive call of the same algorithm.

Let's sketch how the algorithm works on the example "catseatmice" , if the dictionary is ["cat", "cats", "eat", "mice"] :



We first find that the word "cat" is a prefix of "catseatmice" . We split the string into "cat" and the suffix "seatmice" . Now we try to find a way to split the suffix. We do not find any words in the dictionary that are a prefix of "seatmice" , so we abandon the search.

Next, we look at the other prefix of "catseatmice" : "cats" . We split the string into "cats" and the suffix "eatmice" .

Now we try to find a way to split the string "eatmice" . The only word that is a prefix of this string is "eat" . We split the string into "eat" and the suffix "mice" , then try to split the suffix.

We find that the suffix "mice" is in the dictionary, so we complete the split as ["mice"] .

Walking in reverse over the splits we made, we prepend the prefixes to obtain the solution ["cats", "eat", "mice"] .

We can implement this algorithm as:

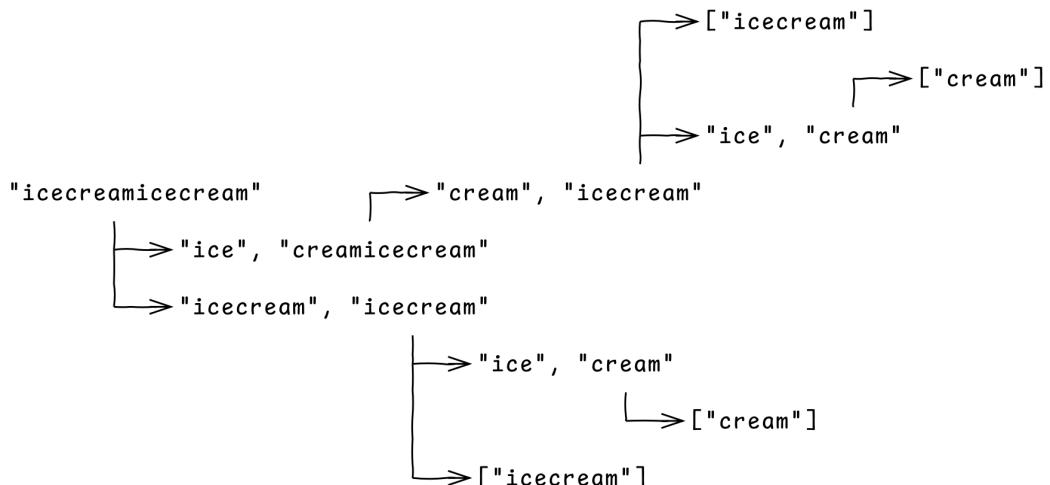
```
def split_sentence(dictionary, sentence): sentence:  
    if not  
        return []  
    for word in dictionary:  
        if sentence.startswith(word):  
            suffix = sentence[len(word):]  
            split = split_sentence(dictionary,  
                                   suffix)  
            if split is not None :  
                return [word] + split
```

Any solution works: return the first found.

```
    return [word] + return  
split None
```

This algorithm has exponential complexity, since it performs redundant computations. This is not obvious from the given example, but noticeable when splitting a sentence like: "icecreamicecreamicecream" when the dictionary is `["ice", "cream", "icecream"]`:

```
dictionary = ["ice", "cream", "icecream"]
```



We can see that the suffix "icecream" has been split multiple times, so redundant work has been done. This number keeps doubling for each "icecream" we add to the input.

We can avoid redundant work by caching the results of the splits:

```
from functools import lru_cache

def split_sentence(dictionary, sentence):
```

```

@lru_cache (maxsize=None def
)
                    helper(sentence):

if not return for word in
sentence: [] dictionary:

if suffix = sentence[len
sentence.startswith(word): (word):]

split = if split is not
helper(suffix) None :

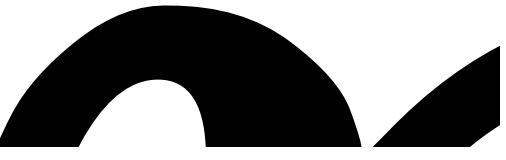
# Any solution works: return the
first found.

return [word] + return
split None return
helper(sentence)

```

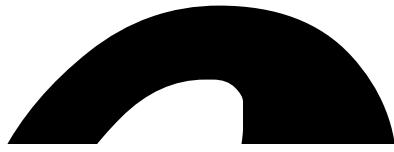
Just as in the change-making problem solution, we had to write a helper function to avoid caching the `dictionary` parameter, which is not supported by `lru_cache`, since it is mutable.

To analyze the complexity, we need to think about how deep the recursive calls may be, and how much work is done in each call. The depth of the call stack is limited by the length of the string



, since in the worst case we split into short words of 1 character each. In each call we must iterate over the

dictionary, in



steps. Overall, the time

complexity is

.

Solution 2: dynamic programming + BFS/DFS,

bottom-up,

↙ time

Once we have implemented the top-down solution, we can rewrite it as bottom-up: we start from the empty string, and keep adding words as suffixes in all possible ways that match the sentence:

```
def split_sentence(dictionary, sentence):

    # splits[prefix] = list of words that form the
    # prefix

    splits = {"": []
              }

    # prefixes of the sentence that we have not processed
    # yet

    prefixes_to_process = collections.deque([""])

    while prefixes_to_process:
        prefix = prefixes_to_process.popleft()

        for word in dictionary:
            if prefix + word in sentence:
                splits[prefix + word].append(word)
```

```
if      prefix      ==
sentence:

    # Any split works. Return the first
    # found.

    return
splits[prefix]

    # Try to extend the prefix with a word matching the
    # sentence.

    for      word      in
dictionary:

        if                      sentence[len
(prefix):].startswith(word):

            next_prefix = prefix +
word

            # Only add the new prefix to be processed if
            # it is not

            # already known, to avoid doing
            # redundant work.

        if next_prefix not in
splits:
```

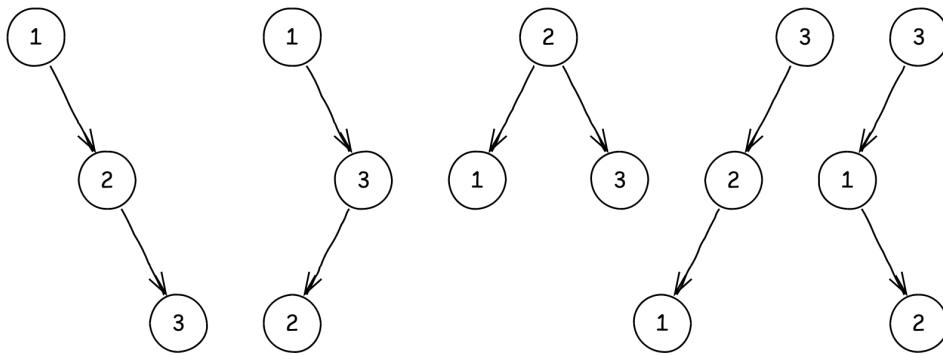
```
    splits[next_prefix] =  
splits[prefix] + [word]  
  
    prefixes_to_process.append(next_prefix)  
    return None
```

This method is treating the subproblem space as a graph, which is explored in breadth-first order (BFS). We start from the subproblem of extending the prefix "" . For each such prefix, we keep expanding using all the possible word suffixes that match the contents of the sentence. The BFS order guarantees that we choose the split with the fewest number of words, although this is not a requirement of the problem; we could have used as well any other search method.

The number of binary search trees

Given a list of distinct numbers, count how many distinct binary search trees can be formed to store the numbers.

Example: Given the numbers [1, 2, 3] , we can form 5 distinct binary search trees:

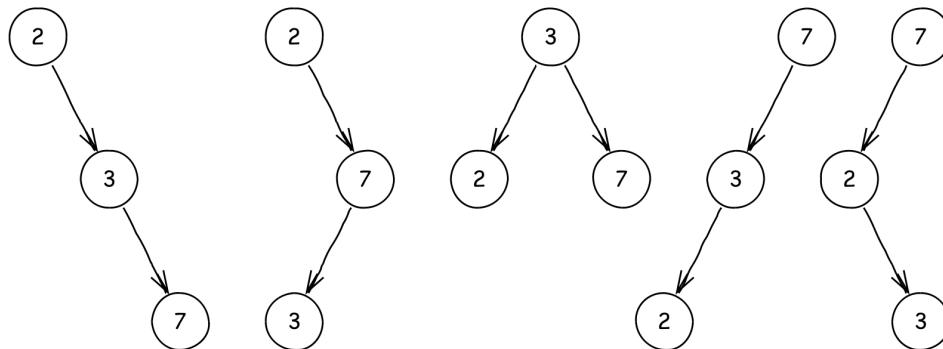


Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

time

An important observation we can make is that the number of unique trees does not depend on the values of the numbers in the list, just on their count.

For example, the number of unique binary search trees (BSTs) that can be formed to store [2, 3, 7] is 5 as well:



This is easy to prove: suppose that we have an algorithm to generate all the unique binary trees for a list of distinct numbers $[a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$. For any other list of distinct numbers $[b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n]$ with the same length, we can use the same trees and just relabel the nodes: a_1 becomes b_1 , a_2 becomes b_2 etc. We can relabel the nodes uniquely since we know that there are no duplicates in either list. Thus the number of unique BSTs depends only on the number of elements to be stored.

A second observation that we can make is that we can split the problem into smaller subproblems if we fix a small piece of the problem that is otherwise variable. Note that this is the same approach we used for the change-making

problem (choosing the first coin) and the sentence-splitting problem (choosing the first word).

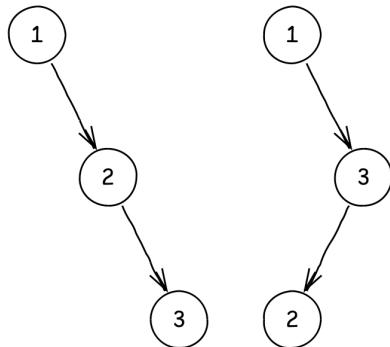
In case of the BSTs, the natural variable to fix is the item to be placed at the root of the tree.

Consider again the example of items [1, 2, 3]. It is not clear which one should be placed at the root—in fact, any of the numbers is a valid choice. So we split the problem into 3 subproblems:

- a subproblem where 1 is placed at the root;
- a subproblem where 2 is placed at the root;
- a subproblem where 3 is placed at the root.

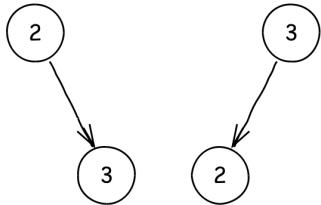
In each case, we need to count the number of ways in which we can place the other nodes to construct the full tree. Let's take the cases one by one.

Consider the case where 1 is chosen as the root of the tree. We need to place the other items, 2 and 3. In the end we would like to form the following trees:

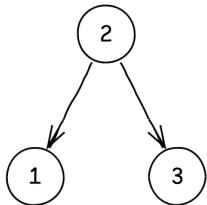


Since both 2 and 3 are greater than the root 1, they must be placed in the right subtree. In other words, the number of unique BSTs with 3 items and having the smallest item at the root is equal to the number of ways we can form unique BSTs from 2 items (and have each BST become the right subtree of the root).

We have just reduced case 1 of our problem to a smaller subproblem. The solution of the subproblem is computed as 2, since there are only 2 possible trees that can be formed with 2 items:

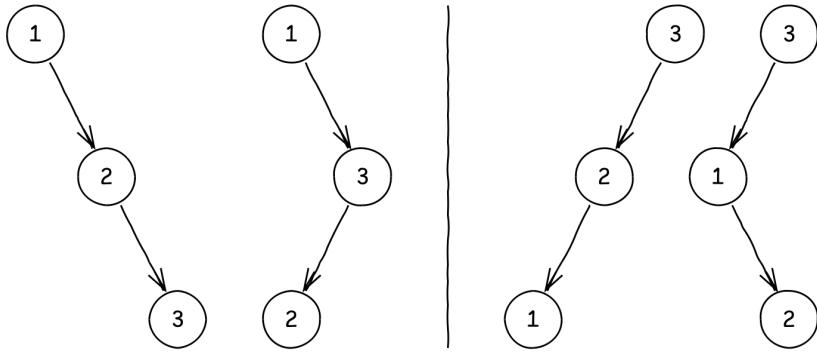


Consider now the case where 2 is chosen as the root of the tree. We need to place the other items, 1 and 3, to form the following trees:



Item 1 must be part of the left subtree of 2, while item 3 must be part of the right subtree. In this case there is only one way to place them. In general, we should count the number of BSTs that can be formed by the items in the left subtree, and the number of BSTs that can be formed by the items in the right subtree. The total number of trees that can be formed is the product of the two numbers (since we can choose any combination to pair them when we construct the full tree).

Finally, consider the case where 3 is chosen as the root of the tree. We need to place items 1 and 2 on the left subtree. This case is symmetrical to the first case (1 fixed at the root), as we can see in the following diagram, so we will not discuss it:



We can now write the implementation of the algorithm. Given that the items are not important for solving the problem, only their count, we can start by defining a helper function that only takes as parameter the number of items:

```

"""
def count_bsts(items): """

    Returns the number of unique binary search trees
    that

        can be formed using the given
        items.

    The items must be """
    def
    distinct.                                     ..
                                         " helper(num_items): . .

    return helper(len
        (items))

```

The helper function should return 1 if the number of items is 1. Otherwise, it should compute how many trees can be formed by placing at the root one of the items, then return the sum of all these numbers:

```
"""
def count_bsts(items): """

    Returns the number of unique binary search trees
    that

        can be formed using the given
        items.

    The items must be """
    def
    distinct.                               " helper(num_items):

        # A single item can be placed in a BST in exactly 1
        way:

        # at the
        root.

        # No items form an empty tree, which is also
        unique.

    if num_items <= 1 return result =
    :                           1           0

        # Consider all the possible choices of having 1 item
        at the root,

        # and the rest in the left and right
        subtrees.

    for num_items_left in range
    (num_items):
```

```

        num_bsts_left           =
helper(num_items_left)

        num_items_right = num_items - 1 -
num_items_left

        num_bsts_right           =
helper(num_items_right)

        result += num_bsts_left * return
num_bsts_right           result

return helper(len
(items))

```

The final piece we need for solving this problem efficiently is to cache the result of the helper function (to avoid exponential complexity due to redundant computations):

```

"""
def count_bsts(items):
    Returns the number of unique binary search trees
    that

    can be formed using the given
    items.

    The items must be "" @lru_cache (maxsize=None
    distinct.          " )

```

```

def
helper(num_items):

    # A single item can be placed in a BST in exactly 1 way:

    # at the root.

    # No items form an empty tree, which is also unique.

    if num_items <= 1 return result =
    :
                1          0

    # Consider all the possible choices of item at the root.

    for num_items_left in range
(num_items):

        # Fixing the root, compute how many possible left subtrees

        # we can form.           num_bsts_left = helper(num_items_left)

        # Now compute how many possible right subtrees

        # we can form.

```

```

        num_items_right = num_items - 1 -
num_items_left

        num_bsts_right = helper(num_items_right)

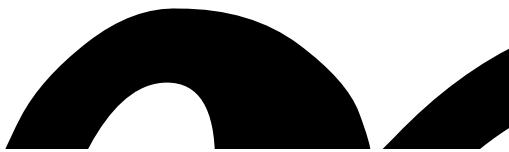
# This is the number of trees having the root
fixed to

# the current result += num_bsts_left * item.
        num_bsts_right

return return helper(len
result (items))

```

Since the maximum number of non-cached calls of the function is



(the number of items), and at each

call we make operations, the time

complexity of the solution is .

The maximum-sum subarray

Given an array of integers, find the contiguous subarray having the largest sum. Return its sum.

Example: for [-1, 1, 2, 3, -2] , the sum is 6 for the subarray [1, 2, 3] .

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned for an empty array?

A: The result is 0.

Q: What result should be returned when all elements are negative?

A: The result is the largest negative element, corresponding to a subarray of length 1 containing that element.

Q: What is the maximum length of the input?

A: 1,000,000 elements.

We asked the clarification questions to learn how to handle the edge cases, as well as find out what are the time complexity constraints for the solution. To handle 1 million elements, we must look for an algorithm with time

complexity below , such as

or

Solution 1: dynamic programming,

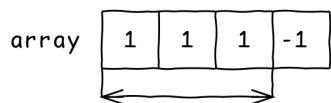
» time,

» space

The problem involves a search combined with an optimization (maximizing the sum of the subarray), which points to the possibility of a dynamic programming solution. In order to propose such a solution, we need to formulate the problem in terms of smaller subproblems; or the other way around: starting from a smaller subproblem, find a way to extend it to arrive to the original problem.

To find out if this is possible, we first need to understand the properties of the maximum sum subarray. In particular, we are looking for ways of either growing it element by element; or of building it from smaller chunks. Let's analyze some simple examples to find out how this could work.

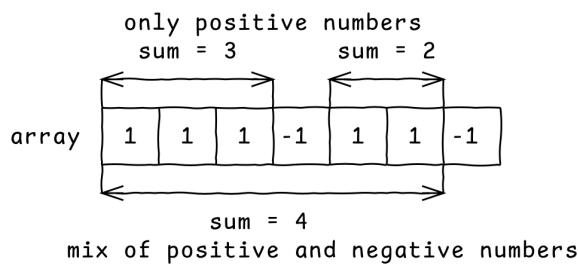
Firstly, it is clear that when a positive element is part of the maximum-sum subarray, all the positive elements around it should also be part of the maximum-sum subarray. Consider the following example:



All of the first three elements form the maximum-sum subarray, with sum 3. It does not make sense to take fewer (such as the first two), since the sum would be suboptimal.

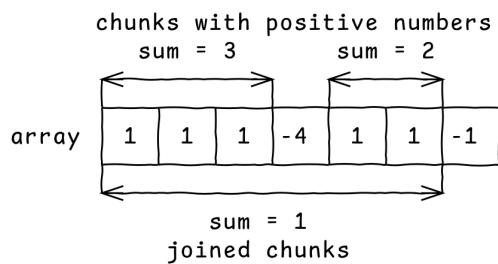
Similarly, it does not make sense to expand to neighboring negative numbers: taking also the fourth element would decrease the sum from 3 to only 2, which is suboptimal.

Does it ever make sense to have negative numbers as part of the solution? Yes, it does, as we can see from the following example:



If we use only positive numbers, the best subarray we can find has sum 3. However, if we allow using the -1 element from the middle, we can pay a small penalty to join the two chunks, to obtain a better sum of 4.

Does it always make sense to pay the penalty to join chunks containing positive numbers? Not when the penalty exceeds the benefit of joining the chunks, as we can see from the following example:



Here the negative number is smaller (-4 instead of -1 from before), so joining the chunks does not pay off.

Let's see if we can take advantage of this property when growing the solution element by element. We consider again the example where it

makes sense to join the two chunks, and show how the sum of the subarray evolves as we add new elements:

array	1	1	1	-1	1	1	-1
prefix sum	1	2	3	2	3	4	

The prefix sum grows as we add elements from the first chunk, then it decreases slightly when we add the -1 in the middle, after which it increases again as we add elements from the second chunk. So far everything works as expected.

Let's see what is different when the negative element in the middle is heavier:

array	1	1	1	-4	1	1	-1
prefix sum	1	2	3	-1	0	1	

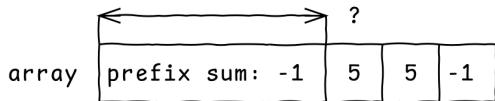
Here we see that the prefix sum goes below zero when adding the -4, after which it grows again but to less than it was before. In other words, when we reach the chunk on the right of -4, we have a prefix with negative sum. It does not make sense to keep it: dropping it and startig a new chunk instead is preferable.

Let's change the example so that the chunk on the right becomes the final solution, to demonstrate the reasoning behind starting a new chunk when the prefix sum is negative:

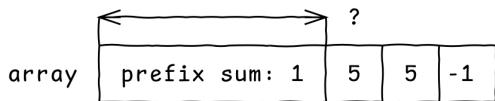
array	1	1	1	-4	5	5	-1
prefix sum	1	2	3	-1	5	10	

sum = 3 sum = 10

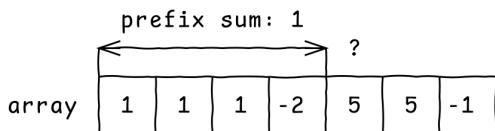
Indeed we see that the solution is formed by the chunk on the right with sum 10. Had we included the chunk on the left as well, the sum would have been only 9. We can say that the prefix sum abstracts away the details of the current growing chunk, keeping only what matters: the sum of the numbers in the chunk:



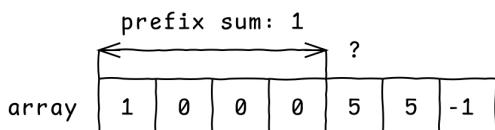
Here is another example where the sum of the prefix is positive:



It does not matter what actual elements were part of the prefix. It could have been the following:



Or it could have been the following:



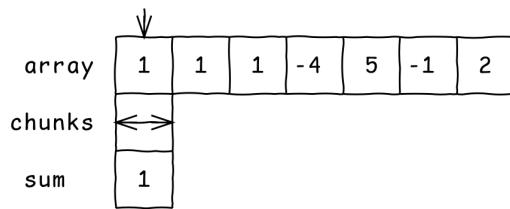
In either case, the outcome is the same: we append 5 to a prefix having sum 1, to obtain a subarray with sum 6.

To summarize what we have learned so far:

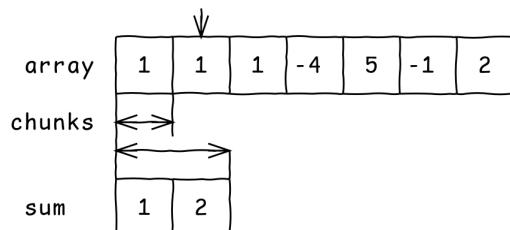
- To find the maximum-sum subarray, we can examine smaller chunks of the array;

- A bigger chunk can be formed by appending an item to the chunk preceding it; this should be done only when the sum of the preceding chunk is positive;
- When the sum of the preceding chunk is negative, we should start a new chunk containing a single element;
- The maximum-sum subarray is the chunk with the largest sum.

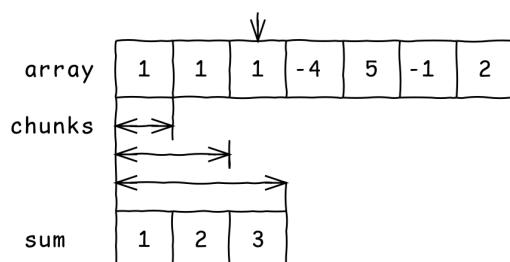
Let's see a full search running step by step, applying these rules:



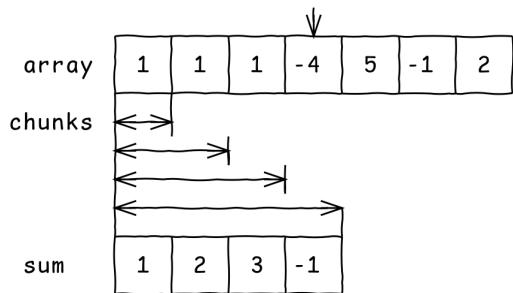
We start with a chunk containing the first element, having sum 1.



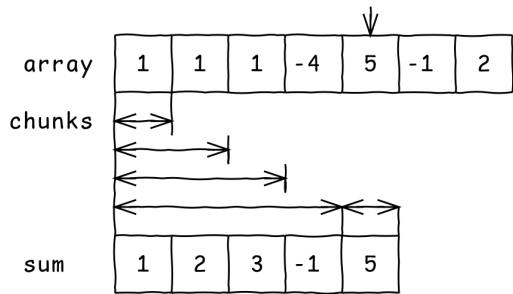
Then we examine the second element. Since the previous chunk has positive sum, we grow it to form a new chunk.



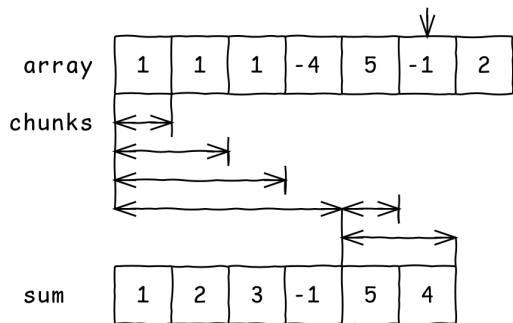
The same for the third element: we grow the chunk again.



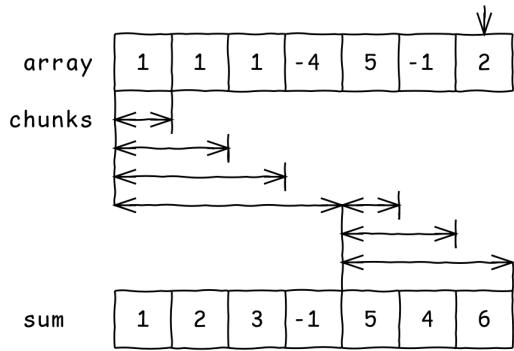
We add element **-4** to form a chunk with sum **-1**. We record it even if we will discard it at the next step.



We examine element **5**, and we discard the preceding chunk since it has negative sum. We start a new chunk containing only **5**.



We reach element **-1**, and we create new chunk with sum **4**.



We reach element 2, and we grow the preceding chunk to form a new chunk with sum 6.

We finished examining all the elements of the array. We now simply choose the chunk with the largest sum, which is 6.

This algorithm can be implemented as:

```
def find_max_sum_subarray(array):

    # chunks[i] = sum of the optimal chunk ending at array[i].

    chunks = for item in if not []
                array:           chunks:

        # Start a new chunk containing the first element.

        chunks.append(it else if chunks[-1] < em)
                           :      0 :

        # Start a new chunk = else chunk.
                           item :
```

```
# Grow the previous      chunk = chunks[-1] +
chunk.                  item

# Record the    chunks.append(chu
chunk.                 nk)

# Choose the best
chunk.

return max (chunks) if chunks else
0
```

The running time is linear; the space is linear as well, due to having to store the `chunks` array.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

• time,

• space

We can improve the previous algorithm by reducing its memory requirements. Notice that at each step, only the last element of the array `chunks` is examined, representing the previous chunk. The only reason to keep the whole array is to compute `max(chunks)` at the end of the search. We can avoid this by computing a running maximum instead, by keeping track of the best chunk ever seen. Then the `chunks` array can be replaced with a variable storing the sum of the last chunk, `previous_chunk`.

This is called Kadane's algorithm, and can be implemented as follows.

```
def find_max_sum_subarray(array):

    # Handle the edge case here to simplify the code handling
    # normal cases.

    if not array: return 0

    best_chunk = -float('inf')
    previous_chunk = -float('inf')

    for item in array:
```

```
if previous_chunk < # Start a new chunk      =
0 :                               item

else      # Grow the previous
:       chunk.

chunk = previous_chunk + # Update the running
item                         maximum.

best_chunk = max (best_chunk, # Record the
chunk)                         chunk.

previous_chunk = return
chunk                         best_chunk
```

Unit tests

For testing, we would first like to cover simple cases to make sure the algorithm works at all. We choose short arrays, so that troubleshooting is easy in case of a bug.

We must also cover the edge cases. We think about not just possible weak points of our implementation, but also cases that could be tricky to handle in general by other implementations, so that we catch regressions in case the code is changed in the future. Some ideas that come to mind are:

- the empty array;
- arrays that contain only negative numbers;
- arrays that contain only positive numbers;
- arrays that contain only zeroes;
- arrays that contain multiple subarrays with positive sum.

Finally, we should have performance tests with large inputs, to benchmark the implementation as well as to catch performance regressions.

The unit tests can be written as:

```
class TestMaxSumSubarray(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_simple(self):
        self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([-1, 1, 2, 3, -2]), 6)

    def test_2_negative_elements(self):
        self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([-1, 1, 2, 3, -2, 3]), 7)
```

```
def test_3_local_optimum(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([-1, 1, 2, -9, 4, -1]), 4)

    self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([-1, 4, -9, 1, 2, -1]), 4)

def test_4_all_positive(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([1] * 10), 10)

def test_5_all_negative(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([-1] * 10), -1)

def test_6_empty_input(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([]), 0)
```

```
def test_7_perf(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_sum_subarray([1] * 1000000
), 1000000 )
```

How much time to spend on unit tests

During an interview you are usually not expected to write a full implementation of the unit tests, unless you are applying for a testing position. However, it is common to be asked for a verbal description of the tests, along with a justification of your reasoning. If on top of that you are able to show that you can write correctly a sample test, or at least mention typical tools you would use such as a unit testing framework or the assertion predicates, this may put you slightly ahead of other candidates.

The maximum-product subarray

Given an array of integers, return the product of the contiguous subarray having the largest product.

Example 1: for [2, 3, 4] , the product is 24 for the subarray [2, 3, 4] .

Example 2: for [-2, 3, 4] , the product is 12 for the subarray [3, 4] .

Example 3: for [-2, 3, -4] , the product is 24 for the subarray [-2, 3, -4] .

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned for an empty array?

A: The result should be 0.

Q: Can some elements be zero?

A: Yes.

Q: What is the maximum length of the input?

A: 10,000 elements.

Solution 1: greedy, two-pass,

• time

Before we try to propose an algorithm, let's consider some examples to identify general cases depending on the sign of the elements in the array.

Firstly, if the array contains only positive numbers, the subarray with the maximum product is the whole array. This is since the numbers are integers,

so positive numbers are



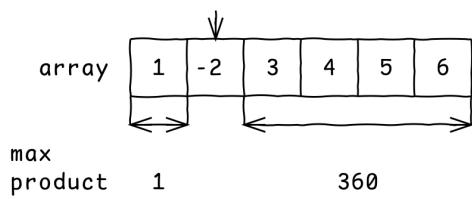
array	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4		
max product	24				

Secondly, we need to handle elements that are 0. Including any such element will cause the product to drop to zero, so we should avoid them. Consider an example:

array	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>0</td><td>5</td><td>6</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	0	5	6
1	2	3	0	5	6		
max product	6 30						

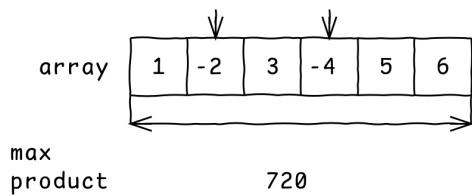
We could say that the 0 acts like a separator: the array can be split into subarrays at any point where it contains a zero. We can search for the solution in the resulting subarrays independently, after which we choose the one having the maximum product as the final solution of the problem.

Finally, we have to handle negative elements. Such elements complicate the search, since they can flip the sign of the product. Let's consider a few examples to understand this effect.



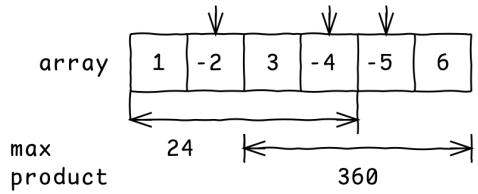
Here we see that we cannot include number -2 in the subarray, since the product will be negative. We have to choose either the left subarray of positive numbers having product 1, or the right subarray with positive numbers having product 360. The solution is the right subarray, since its product is larger.

Let's add a second negative number to see what happens:



With 2 negative numbers the logic changes: the two negative signs cancel each other out, so we can safely use both in the subarray, to obtain a product of 720.

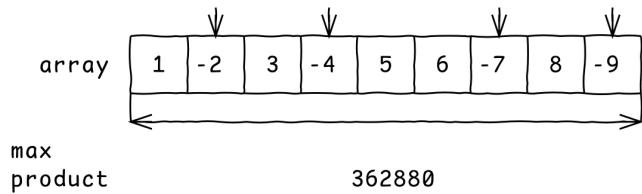
Let's add a third negative number:



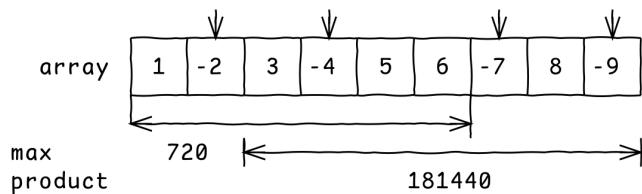
In this case, we can extend the subarray to include two of the negative numbers, so that the signs cancel out. The third negative number cannot be used, since the product would be negative.

We have two choices: either choose the left subarray, ending at -4, or the right subarray, starting after -2. We choose the right one since it has the largest product: 360.

In general, if we have an even number of negative numbers, we can choose the entire array (assuming that it does not contain any zeroes):



If we have an odd number k of negative numbers, we choose either the left subarray or the right subarray that contains $k-1$ negatives (note that $k-1$ is even, so the product is positive):



To summarize what we have learned so far:

- Every time we encounter a zero, we have to start a new search;
- If the number of negative numbers is even, we use all elements;

- If the number of negative numbers is odd, we use the biggest of the left or the right subarray that contains an even number of negatives and is maximal.

Let's sketch the implementation:

```
def find_max_prod_subarray(array):

    def #
    find_non_zero_chunks(array): TODO

        def #     max_product = 0
        find_max_prod_in_chunk(chunk): TODO 0

            for chunk in
            find_non_zero_chunks(array):

                max_product = max (max_product,
                find_max_prod_in_chunk(chunk))

        return
        max_product
```

We first extract the chunks of the array that do not contain zeroes. Then we search each chunk for the maximum product subarray. We return the overall maximum.

Let's implement the helper function `find_non_zero_chunks` :

```

                chunk    =
def find_non_zero_chunks(array): []

    for     value   in  if           chunk.append(val
array:                 value:    ue)

    elif      yield      chunk  = if       yield
chunk:        chunk      []         chunk:    chunk

```

We iterate over the values in the array, appending non-zero values to the current chunk. Each time we find a zero, we yield the current chunk and empty it. We are careful to return the last chunk as well, in case the array does not end with 0 so there are leftover values at the end.

The code can be simplified slightly by removing the need for the final check, by padding the array with a 0 at the end:

```

                chunk    =
def find_non_zero_chunks(array): []

    for value in array + [0 if       chunk.append(val
]:                  value:    ue)

    elif      yield      chunk  =
chunk:        chunk      []

```

Let's now implement `find_max_prod_in_chunk`:

```

        max_product = 0

def find_max_prod_forward_pass(chunk):
    product = 1
    for value in chunk:
        product *= value
        max_product = max(max_product, product)
    return max_product

def find_max_prod_in_chunk(chunk):
    return max(
        find_max_prod_forward_pass(chunk),
        find_max_prod_forward_pass(chunk[::-1]))

```

To handle the case where there are k negative numbers, with k odd, so that we need to keep only $k-1$ negatives, we must make two passes over the chunk: one in which we use the first $k-1$ negatives; and another one in which we use the last $k-1$ negatives. The two passes are symmetrical, but the logic is otherwise identical.

We take advantage of the symmetry to implement the logic in a single function: `find_max_prod_forward_pass`. This computes the maximum product by taking the maximum of the running product as we iterate over the array from left to right. In case of k negative numbers with k odd, it will use the first $k-1$ negatives.

To handle the case of choosing the last $k-1$ negatives in the chunk, we call the helper function again with the chunk reversed.

Thus we make two passes over the chunk, one in the forward direction by passing `chunk`, and the other in the reverse direction by passing `chunk[::-1]` (`chunk[::-1]` is the chunk reversed).

The way this works can be seen in the following example:

array	1	-2	3	-4	-5	6
product	1	-2	-6	24	-120	-720
max	1	1	1	24	24	24

Notice how keeping track of the maximum product allows us to avoid negative products.

The code is correct also when the number of negatives is even:

array	1	-2	3	-4	-5	-6
product	1	-2	-6	24	-120	720
max	1	1	1	24	24	720

Here is the full implementation:

```
def find_max_prod_subarray(array):

    def find_non_zero_chunks(array):
        chunk = []
        for value in array + [0]:
            if value != 0:
                chunk.append(value)
            else:
                yield chunk
                chunk = []

    return max((prod(max(chunk) ** len(chunk), 1) for chunk in find_non_zero_chunks(array)))
```

```

def max_product = 0
find_max_prod_forward_pass(chunk):
    product = for value in product *=
1           chunk:               value
    max_product = max(max_product, return
product)                                max_product

def max
find_max_prod_in_chunk(chunk):
    return
(find_max_prod_forward_pass(chunk),
     find_max_prod_forward_pass(chunk[max_product =
[:: -1 ]])                           0
                                         )
for chunk in
find_non_zero_chunks(array):
    max_product = max(max_product,
find_max_prod_in_chunk(chunk))
return
max_product

```

This code can be shortened by removing the split into non-zero chunks, and adding a zero product check in the forward pass:

```

def find_max_prod_subarray(array):

    def max_product = 0
    find_max_prod_forward_pass(array): 0

        product = for value in array:
            if not product:
                # Reset the search any time the running
                product is zero.

                product = else product *= value

            max_product = max(max_product, product)
            product = max_product

        return max(
            find_max_prod_forward_pass(array),
            find_max_prod_forward_pass(array[:-1]))

```

Let's see the forward pass in action on an example:

array	1	2	3	0	-5	-6
product	1	2	6	0	-5	30
max	1	2	6	6	6	30

The new implementation is shorter than before and uses less memory. The disadvantage is that the line `max_product = max(max_product, product)` now has dual purpose:

- It keeps track of the maximum across non-zero chunks;
- It keeps track of the maximum when the running chunk product goes below zero.

This is a tricky point that can make future changes to the code more difficult, so it can be seen as a disadvantage. The longer code may be preferable, even though it is somewhat slower.

Compact and clever code vs. longer but simpler

Making the code compact and clever may come at the expense of readability. Competitive programming resources are often biased towards short and clever implementations. In a software engineering position, these are usually frowned upon, since the code may become hard to understand and maintain. Avoid writing the code too cryptic/clever during the interview, since it may be seen as a negative point.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, one-pass,

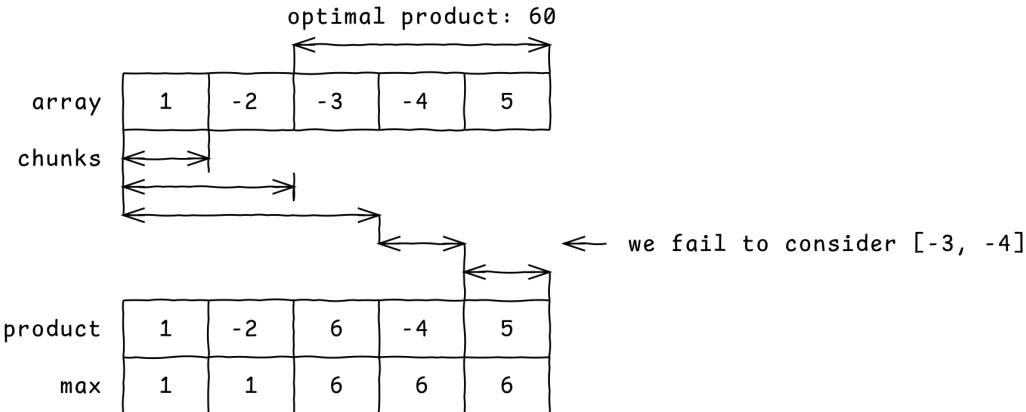
↙ time

We can convert the greedy solution into a one-pass dynamic programming algorithm using an approach similar to the solution for the maximum-sum subarray: for each index i , we compute the maximum product that can be obtained by a subarray ending at index i . To do that, we consider two choices: either extending the subarray ending at index $i-1$, or starting a new subarray consisting only of the element at index i .

This approach works well for arrays containing non-negative elements, including zeroes:

array	1	2	3	0	4	2
chunks	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔
product	1	2	6	0	4	8
max	1	2	6	6	6	8

However it fails when there are negative elements:



This is because we did not handle a case: when the element at index i is negative, we can also extend an array ending at $i-1$ that has negative product, to form an array with a positive product. To maximize the product, we must consider the array ending at $i-1$ that has the *minimum* possible *negative* product.

Therefore we need to keep track of not just the maximum-product subarray ending at index i , but also of the minimum-negative-product subarray.

The maximum-product subarray ending at index i is computed as the best option between the following choices:

- Starting a new subarray containing only the element at index i ;
- Extending the maximum-product subarray ending at index $i-1$, if it has a positive value and the current value is also positive;
- Extending the minimum-product subarray ending at index $i-1$, if it has a negative value and the current value is also negative;
- If not possible to obtain a product > 0 , we set it to an invalid value,

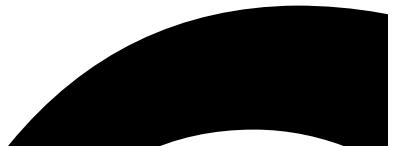
such as

.

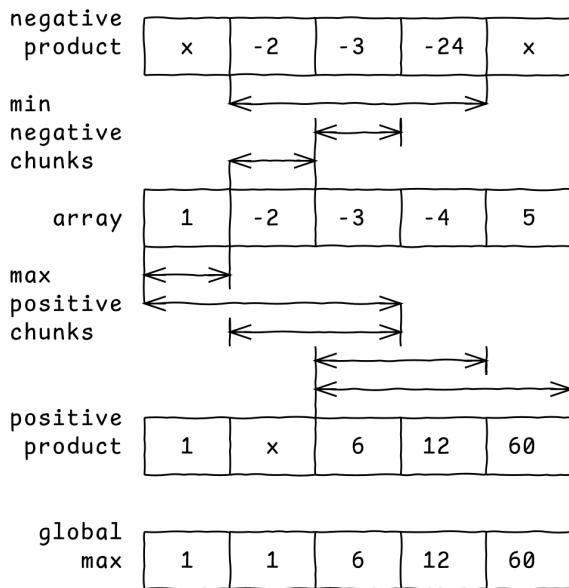
The minimum-negative-product subarray ending at index i is computed as the best option between the following choices:

- Starting a new subarray containing only the element at index i ;
- Extending the minimum-product subarray ending at index $i - 1$, if it has a negative value and the current value is positive;
- Extending the maximum-product subarray ending at index $i - 1$, if it has a positive value and the current value is negative;
- If not possible to obtain a product < 0 , we set it to an invalid value,

such as



Here is an example of the strategy in action:



This can be implemented as:

```

max_chunk      =
def find_max_prod_subarray(array): []

min_chunk      = global_max      = for      value      in
[]              0                  array:

    # Compute candidates for the max-product
    # subarray

    # ending with the current
    # element:

    # Candidate 1: start new max_new_chunk      =
    # subarray                                     value

    # Candidate 2: continue positive
    # subarray

    if max_chunk and max_chunk[-1] > 0 and value
    > 0 :

        max_continue_positive = max_chunk[-1] else
        * value                      :

        max_continue_positive = - float
        ('inf' )

    # Candidate 3: flip sign of negative
    # subarray

    if min_chunk and min_chunk[-1] < 0 and value
    < 0 :

```

```

        max_flip_negative = min_chunk[-1] * else
value                                :

        max_flip_negative = - float
('inf' )

# Compute candidates for the min-product
subarray

# ending with the current
element:

# Candidate 1: start new min_new_chunk      =
subarray                         value

# Candidate 2: continue negative
subarray

if min_chunk and min_chunk[-1] < 0 and value
> 0 :

    min_continue_negative = min_chunk[-1] else
* value                                :

    min_continue_negative = float
('inf' )

# Candidate 3: flip sign of positive
subarray

if max_chunk and max_chunk[-1] > 0 and value
< 0 :

```

```

        min_flip_positive = max_chunk[-1] * else
value                                :

        min_flip_positive = float
('inf' )

# Choose the best
candidate

max_chunk.append(max                  max_continue_p
(max_new_chunk,                      ositive,

        max_flip_neg      min_chunk.append(min
ative))                     (min_new_chunk,

        min_continue_n      min_flip_pos
egative,                         itive))

        global_max       =       max       (global_max,
max_chunk[-1])

return
global_max

```

Notice how at each step we first compute all the new candidates, then update the `max_chunk` and the `min_chunk` arrays. We cannot update `max_chunk` before computing the candidates for `min_chunk`, as we would compute the wrong value.

The time complexity is linear, and the space complexity is linear as well. We can reduce the space complexity to constant by noticing that we do not

need to store the entire array `max_chunk` and `min_chunk`, but only their last value:

```
def find_max_prod_subarray(array):

    max_chunk = - float ('inf')  min_chunk = float ('inf')
)                                     )

    global_max  =  for      value      in
0                  array:

        # Compute candidates for the max-product
        # subarray

        # ending with the current
        # element:

        # Candidate 1: start new max_new_chunk =
        # subarray                         value

        # Candidate 2: continue positive
        # subarray

        if max_chunk > 0 and value >
0 :

            max_continue_positive = max_chunk * else
            value                   :

            max_continue_positive = - float
            ('inf' )

        # Candidate 3: flip sign of negative
        # subarray
```

```

    if min_chunk < 0 and value <
0 :

        max_flip_negative = min_chunk * else
value
                           :

        max_flip_negative = - float
('inf' )

# Compute candidates for the min-product
subarray

# ending with the current
element:

# Candidate 1: start new min_new_chunk =
subarray           value

# Candidate 2: continue negative
subarray

if min_chunk < 0 and value >
0 :

    min_continue_negative = min_chunk * else
value
                           :

    min_continue_negative = float
('inf' )

# Candidate 3: flip sign of positive
subarray

```

```

    if max_chunk > 0 and value <
0 :

        min_flip_positive = max_chunk * else
value
:

        min_flip_positive = float
('inf' )

# Choose the best max_chunk = max
candidate (max_new_chunk,

        max_continue_pos max_flip_nega
itive, tive)

        min_chunk = min min_continue_neg
(min_new_chunk, ative,

        min_flip_posi global_max = max (global_max,
tive) max_chunk)

return
global_max

```

This solution is very fast, since it makes a single pass over the array. The disadvantage is that it is much less readable and more error-prone compared to the greedy solution. In a real situation, it should only be used if it is part of a critical path (so its performance matters) and if there are measurements showing that the greedy solution is performing significantly worse.

Unit tests

For testing, we start with simple test cases that cover:

- only positive numbers;
- even count of negative numbers;
- odd count of negative numbers;
- only zero or positive numbers;
- zeroes and positives and negative numbers (odd and even counts)

We also add some performance tests with large inputs, to benchmark the implementation as well as to catch performance regressions.

The unit tests can be written as:

```
class TestMaxProdSubarray(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_positives(self):
        self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, 2, 3]), 6)

    def test_2_even_count_negatives(self):
        self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, -2, -3]), 6)

        self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, -2, -3, -4, -5]), 120)
```

```
def test_3_odd_count_negatives(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, 2, -3]), 2)

    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, -2, -3, -4, 5]), 60)

def test_4_zeroes_positives(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, 2, 3, 0, 4, 1]), 6)

    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([1, 2, 3, 0, 4, 2]), 8)

    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([0]), 0)

    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([]), 0)

def test_5_zeroes_even_count_negatives(self):
    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([-2, -2, 0, -5, -1]), 5)
```

```
    self .assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([-2 , -3 , 0
, -4 , -1 ]), 6 )

def test_6_zeroes_odd_count_negatives(self
):
    self
.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray(
        [-2 , -2 , 0 , -3 , -1 ,
-2 ]), 4 )

    self
.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray(
        [-2 , -2 , -2 , 0 , -3 , -2
, -2 ]), 6 )

def test_7_perf(self n      =
):                      10000
    self .assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([2 , 3 ] *
n), 6 ** n)

    self .assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([-2 , -3 ] *
n), 6 ** n)

    self .assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([-2 , 3 ] *
n), 6 ** n)
```

```
    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([-7] + [-2, 3] * n),  
                    7 * 6 ** (n - 1))  
  
    self.assertEqual(find_max_prod_subarray([-2, 3] * n + [-7]),  
                    7 * 3 * 6 ** (n - 1))
```

Shortest pair of subarrays with target sum

Given an array of positive integers and a target sum, find two non-overlapping subarrays such that the sum of the elements of each array is equal to the given target sum, and their total length is minimal. Return their total length.

Example: For [1, 2, 1, 1, 1] and target sum 3, the two subarrays are [1, 2] and [1, 1, 1], with total length 5. There are also two shorter subarrays [1, 2] and [2, 1] having the target sum 3, but they cannot be considered since they overlap.

Clarification questions

Q: What result should be returned for an empty array, or if there is no solution?

A: The result should be 0.

Q: What is the maximum length of the input?

A: 1,000,000 elements.

Solution 1: dynamic programming + sliding

window,

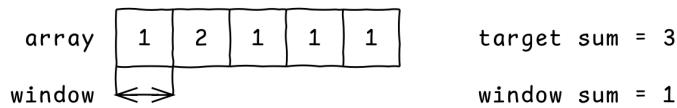
time,

space

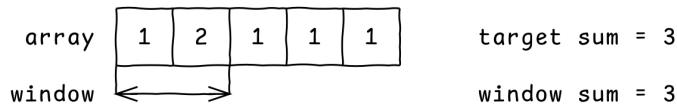
Let's try to solve an easier problem first: enumerate efficiently all the subarrays having the target sum, regardless of whether they overlap or not.

For arrays of positive numbers, there is an easy solution that involves advancing a sliding window:

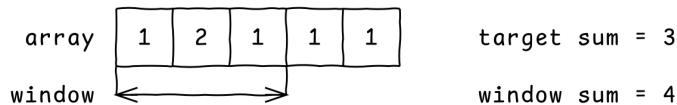
- We start with a window containing just the first element of the array:



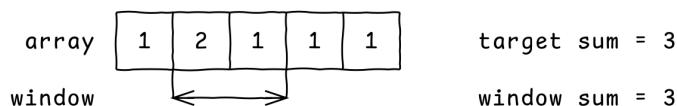
- The window sum is smaller than the target sum, so we expand the window to the right:



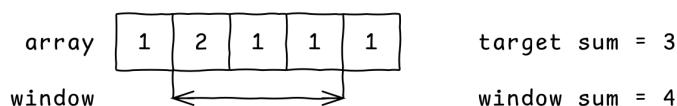
- We found the first subarray. We expand the window to the right again:



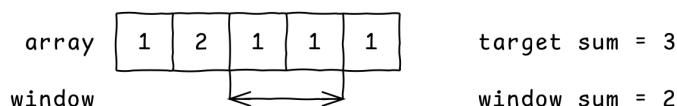
- The window sum is larger than the target sum. We need to shrink the window to reduce its sum. There is no point in shrinking from the right, since we would obtain the window from the previous step. So we shrink from the left, removing the leftmost element:



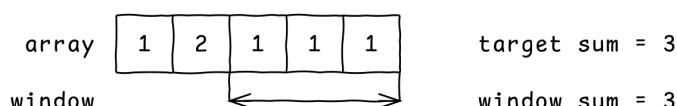
- We found the second subarray. We expand the window to the right again:



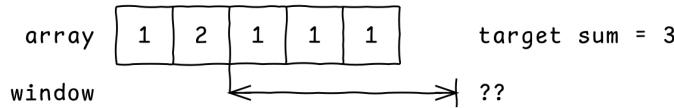
- The window sum is larger than the target sum, so we shrink from the left, removing the leftmost element:



- The window sum is smaller than the target sum, so we expand the window to the right:



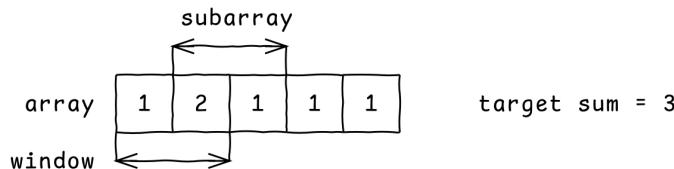
- We found the third subarray. We expand the window to the right again:



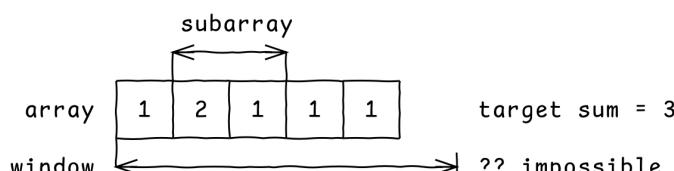
- We moved past the edge of the array, so we stop the search.

This method enumerates all possible windows that match the target sum. This can be proven in the following way:

- The search ends when the sliding window reaches the end of the array. This means that every element of the array is considered at least once as part of some sliding window.
- Consider a subarray matching the target sum. We want to show that our sliding window algorithm will consider it. From the previous point, it follows that the leftmost element of the subarray is considered at least once as part of some sliding window:

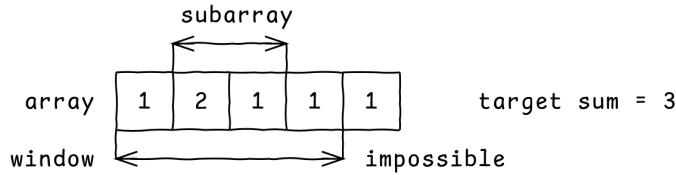


- There is at least one sliding window that starts with the leftmost element. This can be shown by contradiction: If there is no sliding window that starts with the leftmost element, it means that the last sliding window is starting before the leftmost element, and ends at the end of the array, then the search ends:

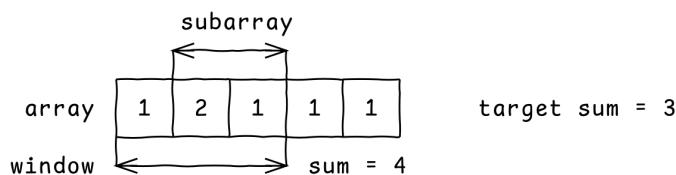


But this is impossible, since the sum of this window exceeds the target sum, so we can apply the shrinking rule to advance it. But then it cannot be the last window in the search, so we have a contradiction.

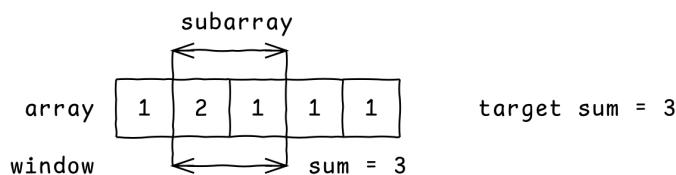
- The right edge of the sliding window will not advance past the rightmost element in the subarray before its left edge reaches the leftmost element. For example, the following is impossible:



This is because the sum of the window exceeds the target sum when its right edge reaches the rightmost element of the subarray:



Thus the next step must be a shrinking, not an expansion. The window will be shrunk until its left edge reaches the leftmost element of the subarray:



This proves that our solution will not miss any subarrays having the target sum, so it is correct. Note that the method only works if array elements are positive numbers.

Sliding window

There are many problems that can be solved using sliding windows. Not just algorithmic puzzles, but also fundamental problems in computer science, such as reliable data transmission. For example, TCP uses a sliding window to keep track of data that has been sent but not yet acknowledged by the receiver, thus may require retransmission.

Understand the concept well: there are many problems for which it can be used to obtain a natural and intuitive solution.

This method can be implemented as:

```
def enumerate_subarrays_with_sum(array, target_sum):

    window_sum = left = 0

    for right, value in enumerate(array):

        # Expand to the window_sum += array[right]

        # Contract from the while window_sum > target_sum:

        window_sum -= array[left] += 1

        if window_sum == target_sum: # Handle subarray.

            print(left, right)
```

Notice how we compute the window sum incrementally in

time at each step, instead of using

`sum(array[left:right+1])`, which takes time. This allows us to enumerate all windows in linear time.

The overall time complexity is , with $n = \text{len(array)}$, since the window expands up to



times and contracts up to



times.

Still, this does not solve our problem, just a part of it. We need to add a few more pieces: applying this to a pair of arrays; ensuring there are no overlaps; and minimizing the total length.

Let's start from minimizing the total length, since it is the easiest next step. We transform the code to solve the following problem: finding the *minimum length* subarray having a target sum.

To do this, we must keep track of the shortest window matching the target sum, when enumerating all possible windows:

```
def find_shortest_subarray_with_sum(array, target_sum):

    window_sum = left = min_length = float('inf')
    0           0           )

    for right, value in enumerate
    (array):

        # Expand to the window_sum += array[right]
```

```

# Contract from the while      window_sum      >
left.                         target_sum:

    window_sum      -= left +=  

array[left]                      1

    if      window_sum      ==      #      Handle
target_sum:                      subarray.

    length = right - left   #      Update
+ 1                           min_length.

    min_length = min (min_length,
length)

    if min_length == float ('inf') return result
):                                0      min_length

```

Let's now extend this solution to find pairs of subarrays having the smallest total length.

We can modify the search such that each time we find a matching window, we sum up its length with the minimum length among matching windows seen previously, and take the minimum overall:

```

..  min_length = float ('inf') result = float ('inf' ..
.  )                                         .

    if      window_sum      ==      #      Handle
target_sum:                      subarray.

    length = right - left   #      Update
+ 1                           result.

```

```

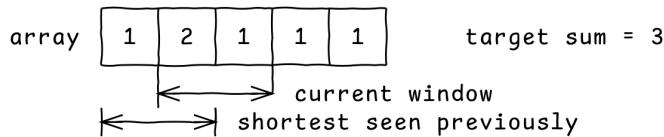
        result = min (result, length +
min_length)

#           Update      min_length = min (min_length,
min_length.                  length)

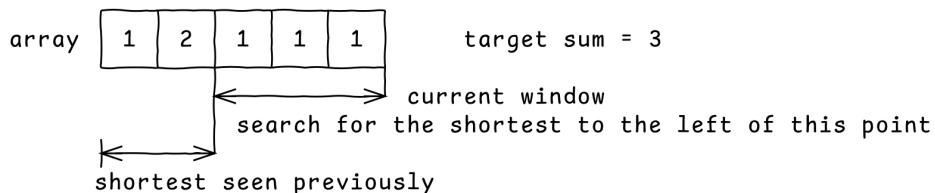
if result == float ('inf') return result
):
                                0          result

```

The last point to address is handling subarrays that overlap. The current solution may return overlapping pairs:



To find the pair of *non-overlapping* subarrays having the smallest total length, we have to sum up the current length with the minimum length seen so far *on the left of the current window*, and take the minimum overall:



To do this, for each possible left point 0, 1, 2, ..., we have to store the length of the shortest array seen with the right edge lower or equal than that left point. We can keep track of it in an array.

This algorithm can be implemented as:

```

def find_shortest_subarray_with_sum(array, target_sum):

    window_sum = left = result = float ('inf'
0 0)

        # min_length_up_to[i] = min. length of subarrays with target sum

        # having right index <= i.

    min_length_up_to = [float ('inf')] * len(arr)

    for right, value in enumerate(array):

        # Propagate min_len_up_to. We may update it later.

        min_length_up_to[right] = min_length_up_to[right - 1]

        # Expand to the window_sum += array[right].

        # Contract from the while window_sum > target_sum:

        window_sum -= array[left] += 1

        if window_sum == target_sum: # Handle subarray.

```

```

    length = right - left    #      Update
+ 1                         result.

    result     =      min           min_length_up_to[left - 1
(result,                      ] + length)

    #                  Update
min_length_up_to[right].

    min_length_up_to[right]        =      min
(min_length_up_to[right],

    len  if result == float ('inf') return  return
gth)  ):                      0          result

```

The time complexity is and the space

complexity is as well.

Longest palindromic substring

Given a string s , find the longest palindromic substring of s .

Example: for $s = "xabaycddcz"$, the longest palindromic substring is "cddc" of length 4. There is also another palindromic substring "aba" , but that is not the correct answer since it is shorter, having only length 3.

Clarification questions

Q: When there are multiple palindromic substrings of the same length, which one should be returned?

A: Any of them.

Q: Are we looking for palindromes of both odd lengths and even lengths?

A: Yes, both types of palindromes are possible.

Q: Suppose that no palindromic substring of length at least 2 exists. Is a substring of length 1 (i.e. a single character) a valid palindrome?

A: Yes.

Q: What answer should be returned when the input is the empty string?

A: The result should be the empty string.

Q: What is the maximum length of the input string?

A: Most inputs will have no more than a few hundred characters, but it would be great to be able to handle up to 10,000 characters.

We asked the clarification questions to learn how to handle the edge cases, as well as find out what are the time complexity constraints for the solution. For inputs of up to a few hundred characters, an

algorithm will work, and even

might be acceptable. However, to

handle 10k characters, we should look for an algorithm with time

complexity faster than

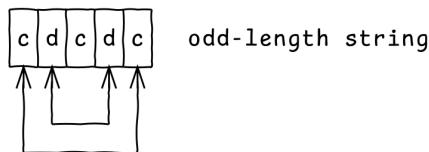
Solution 1: brute force,

Let's consider first a straightforward, but naive solution that we can try to optimize later. The idea is to split the problem into two simpler subproblems: searching for the substring and checking if a substring is palindromic.

Checking if a string is a palindrome

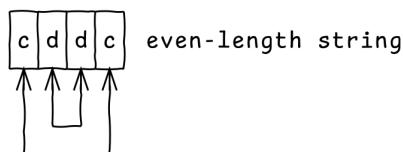
Let's first think about how we can check if a string is a palindrome. Essentially, we need to check if it is symmetrical. There are two cases:

The string has an odd length:



In this case we ignore the middle character, and check if every other character is equal to its mirror. Alternatively, we can consider the middle character as its own mirror to avoid having to give it special treatment.

The other case is when the string has even length:



In this case there is no middle character. We need to check for every character if it is equal to its mirror.

In both cases we need a helper function that given the index of a character, computes the index of the mirror character. Let's call this function `mirror`. Then the check for the palindrome property can be written as:

```
for i in range (len (s) / 2
def is_palindrome(s): ):
    if s[mirror(i)] != s[i]: return False
                                return True
```

Let's now see how we can write the `mirror` function. We can take advantage of the negative indexing in Python, which wraps around: the mirror of `s[0]` is `s[-1]`. Let's look at an example to see how we can extend this to the other indices:

s	c	d	d	c
i	0	1	2	3
negative indexing	-4	-3	-2	-1

↑ ↑ ↑ ↑
mirrors

We can take as reference `i = 0`, for which the mirror is `-1`. Any time `i` advances by 1, the mirror index has to decrease by 1. Therefore we can compute `mirror(i) = -(i + 1)`.

This formula applies to palindromes with odd length as well:

s	c	d	e	d	c
i	0	1	2	3	4
negative indexing	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1

↑
↑
↑
↑
↑

mirrors

Therefore, we can write the complete palindrome property check as:

```

def is_palindrome(s):
    def mirror(i):
        return - (i + 1)

    for i in range(len(s) / 2):
        if s[mirror(i)] != s[i]:
            return False
    return True

```

Checking if a string is a palindrome: a faster way

Another way of checking if a string is a palindrome is to check if it is equal to its reverse. Reversing a string `s` can be written in Python as `s[::-1]`. We can use this to implement a much simpler check:

```

def is_palindrome(s):
    return s == s[::-1]

```

Due to the way Python uses slices, as well as to the fact that the comparison executes in machine code (as part of the Python runtime) as opposed to

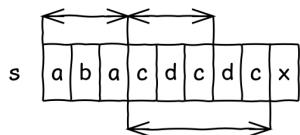
being interpreted, this method has better performance than the solution we have previously proposed.

Since this code is also quick to write, it is an useful trick in interviews. Taking advantage of it can shave off a few minutes off your answer, that you can use to improve your solution in other ways.

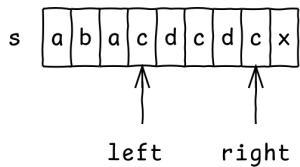
Putting it all together

Let's now look at how we can find the *longest* palindromic substring.

Suppose that we work on the following input, that contains three palindromic substrings:



The first method that comes to mind is to iterate over all substrings using two indices `left` and `right`:



For each substring, we call the `is_palindrome` helper to check if it's a palindrome. If it is, we need to check if it is longer than the one found so far.

The search can be written as:

```

        best    =
def longest_palindrome(s): ''

    for left in range (len
(s)):

        for right in range (left, len
(s)):

            substring          =
s[left:right+1 ]

            if is_palindrome(substring) and len (substring) >
len (best):

                best      = return
                substring      best

```

The time complexity of iterating over substrings is

. Additionally, the `is_palindrome`

helper has

complexity, so the overall

time complexity is $O(n^2)$. This answer is a bit slow given the expected size of the inputs.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

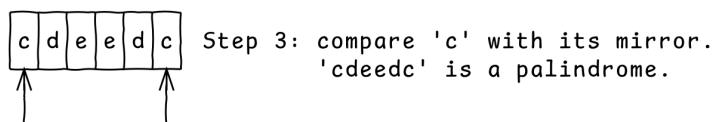
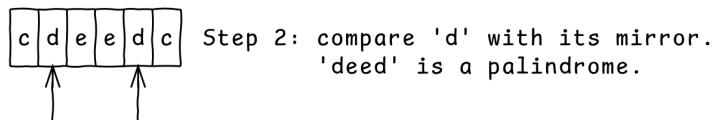
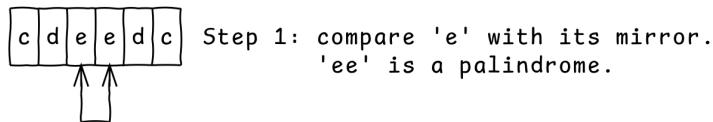
The reason why the naive solution is slow is that it performs too many character comparisons:

Note that comparisons are sufficient to cover all the possible pairs of characters in the string; anything beyond this number must include redundant comparisons. This is a signal that the complexity could be reduced by eliminating some of the redundancies.

The idea behind the dynamic programming solution is to reorganize the search for palindromes in a way that we avoid redundant comparisons, by reusing previously computed results.

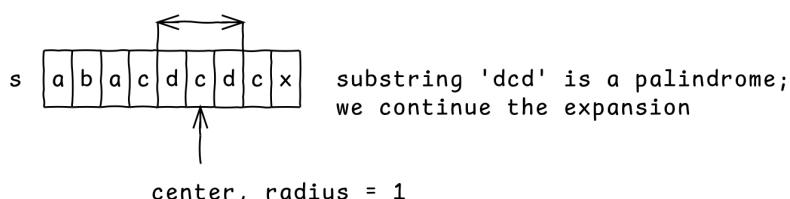
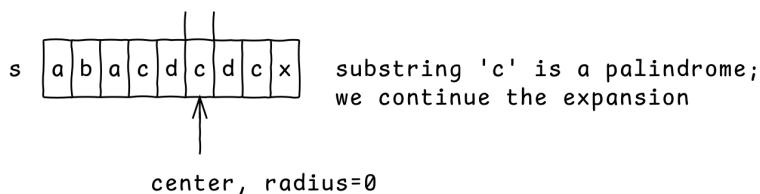
To perform fewer comparisons, we could change the palindrome property check to make it incremental. To achieve this, we must start from the center instead of the edge.

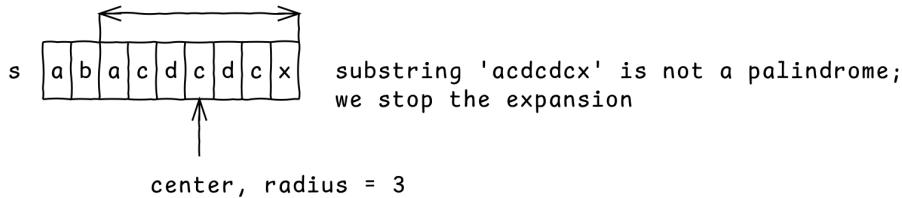
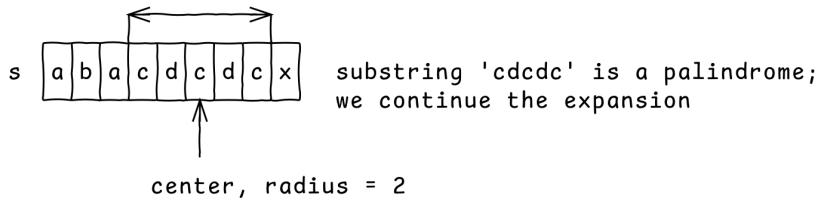
Consider as an example the test for checking if "cdeedc" is a palindrome. If we iterate over the string from the center, the steps look like this:



Notice that we computed not just that "cdeedc" is a palindrome, but also the same property for all its smaller substrings that have the same center. This is the key for reducing the time complexity of the solution.

To iterate over all substrings, we no longer use two pointers `left` and `right`. Instead, we use a pointer called `center`. For each value of the center, we expand symmetrically to the left and right as long as the substring is a palindrome:





The algorithm for searching the longest odd-length palindromic substring can be written as:

```

        best      =
def longest_palindrome(s): ''

  for center in range (len
(s)):

    # Expand symmetrically as long as the palindrome
    property holds

    left      = right      =
    center    center

    while left >= 0 and right < len (s) and s[left] ==
s[right]:

      left -= right +=
      1           1
  
```

```
# The last move broke the palindrome property,  
undo it
```

```
left += right -= palindrome  
1       1           s[left:right+1 ] =
```

```
# Record the palindrome if  
longest
```

```
if len (palindrome) > len best =  
(best):                           palindrome  
  
return  
best
```

It is easy to see that the time complexity is

The problem with this code is that implements the search only for odd-length substrings, not for even lengths. There are a lot of details that need to be adapted for even lengths (for example, the notion of center is ill-defined), so changing the code to handle both cases is not straightforward.

An option is to write two different functions, one handling odd lengths, the other handling even lengths.

Another option is to transform the input string in such a way that any palindromic substring has odd length. This can be done by adding an additional guard character between all characters.

For example, the string "abacdddc" can be transformed into "a!b!a!c!d!d!c" . Note that all palindromic substrings of the original string are now odd-length palindromes: "a!b!a" has length 5 (instead of 3 as in "aba") and "c!d!d!c" has length 7 (instead of 4 as in "cddc").

We can write the padding code as:

```
"""
def palindrome_pad(s): """
    Transforms a string such that all palindrome substrings
    have odd length:
    *   'aa'      -> *      'abba'      -> *      'aba'      -> ""
    'a!a'           'a!b!b!a'           'a!b!a'           "
    assert '!' not in return      '!'
    s               .join(s)
```

The reverse transformation that recovers the initial string is trivial:

```
def palindrome_unpad(padded):
    return padded.replace('!', '')
```

We also need a helper function that computes the length of the unpadded palindrome, so that we can compare the candidate with the best:

```

        if not return
def unpadded_length(padded): padded: 0

if padded[0] == '!' return (len(padded) - 1)
:
    / 2

return (len(padded) + 1) /
2

```

The final solution:

```

s = best =
def longest_palindrome(s): palindrome_pad(s) ''

for center in range(len(s)):

    # Expand symmetrically as long as the palindrome
    # property holds

    left = right =
    center center

    while left >= 0 and right < len(s) and s[left] ==
    s[right]:

        left -= right +=
        1 1

    # The last move broke the palindrome property,
    # undo it

```

```

left += right -= palindrome           =
1          1          s[left:right+1]

# Record the palindrome if
longest

if unpad_size(palindrome) >
unpad_size(best):

    best = return
palindrome = palindrome_unpad(best)

```

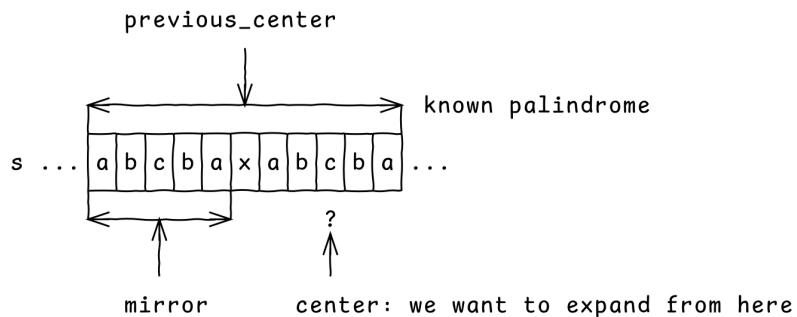
Two tricks for handling palindromes

In this solution, we have seen two tricks that help when dealing with palindromes: testing the palindrome property with `s == s[::-1]` ; and adding a guard character to transform the palindrome so that it has odd length.

Solution 3: dynamic programming,

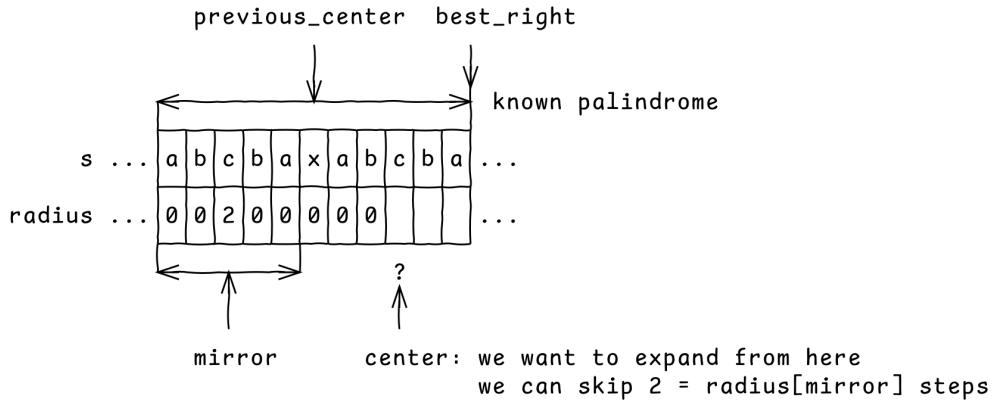
▲

There is a further optimization to the solution, called Manacher's algorithm. The intuition behind it is to eliminate redundant expansion steps when the current center is inside a bigger palindrome identified previously:



The substring "abcba" on the left is equal to the one we are currently expanding; redoing the expansion steps up to length 5 is redundant, so we can skip them.

We can do that by storing the expansion radius computed for the centers from which we expanded so far:



This can be implemented as:

```

s           = best      =
def longest_palindrome(s): palindrome_pad(s)      ''

best_right = best_center = -1

# radius[center] = best expansion radius found for that center

radius = [0 ] * len for center in range (len(s)):
          (s)):

if center <= # Manacher's best_right:           optimization:

# The new center is inside a bigger palindrome expansion

# from earlier. We can skip the first steps of the expansion,

```

```

# since they are equivalent to what we have already
computed

# for the center's
mirror.

    mirror = best_center - (center -
best_center)

    radius[center] = min (best_right - center,
radius[mirror])

else          # Normal case when we do not have any prior
:            knowledge

    radius[center]
= 1

# Expand symmetrically as long as the palindrome
property holds

    left      =      center      -
radius[center]

    right     =      center      +
radius[center]

    while left >= 0 and right < len (s) and s[left] ==
s[right]:

        left -= right += radius[center]
1           1           += 1

```

```

# The last move broke the palindrome property,
undo it

left += right -= radius[center] -=
1           1           1

palindrome = s[left:right+1]

# Record the palindrome if
longest

if unpadding_size(pali) >
unpadding_size(best):

    best = # Manacher's
palindrome optimization:

# Keep track of the rightmost palindrome seen
so far

if right > best_right =
best_right:             right

best_center = return
center          palindrome_unpad(best)

```

The consequence of Manacher's optimization is that each element of the string is examined at most once during the inner expansion loop, over the entire execution of the algorithm. This is because there are two cases:

- Either the current center is inside a bigger palindrome seen earlier, in which case it has been examined once before and it is now skipped;

- Or the current center has not been examined before since no palindrome has expanded to this point.

This brings the time complexity to $O(n^2)$, even if there are two nested loops.

Manacher's optimization is not likely to come up during an interview due to its complexity. Still, it is good to be aware of its existence.

Unit tests

For testing, we would first like to cover simple, normal cases to make sure the algorithm works at all. For this it makes sense to choose short strings that contain a palindrome among other characters, such as "XabaY" or "XabbaY". The inputs should be short so that troubleshooting is easy in case of a bug.

Then we should cover edge cases. We should think about not just possible weak points of our implementation, but also cases that could be tricky to handle in general by other implementations. This is to catch regressions in case the code is changed in the future. Some ideas that come to mind are:

- the empty string "" ;
- non-empty strings that do not contain a palindrome with length at least 2, such as "abc" ;
- the whole string being a palindrome, such as "aba" , to catch possible off-by-one errors;
- strings containing two palindromes of equal length;
- strings containing two palindromes of different lengths.

Finally, we should write performance tests with longer strings, to benchmark the implementation as well as to catch performance regressions. A simple test can consist of just a single, long palindrome. A more complex test can use multiple long palindromes, possibly of varying lengths. We can generate long palindromes either by repeating a short pattern, such as "aaaaa" and "abababa" ; or by mirroring a long random string.

The unit tests can be written as:

```
class TestLongestPalindrome(unittest.TestCase):  
  
    def test_1_odd_length(self  
    ):  
  
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('abaX' ),  
        'aba' )
```

```
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('Xaba' ),  
'aba' )  
  
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('XabaY' ),  
'aba' )  
  
  
def test_2_even_length(self  
):  
  
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('abbaX' ),  
'abba' )  
  
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('Xabba' ),  
'abba' )  
  
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('XabbaY' ),  
'abba' )  
  
  
def test_3_single_char(self  
):  
  
        self.assertIn(longest_palindrome('abc' ), [ 'a' , 'b'  
, 'c' ])  
  
  
def test_4_full_string(self  
):  
  
        self.assertEqual(longest_palindrome('aba' ),  
'aba' )
```

```
    self .assertEqual(longest_palindrome('abba' ),  
'abba' )  
  
  
def test_5_empty_string(self ):  
  
    self .assertEqual(longest_palindrome('' ),  
'')  
  
  
def test_6_two_solutions(self ):  
  
    self .assertIn(longest_palindrome('XabaYcbcZ' ),  
['aba' , 'cbc' ])  
  
  
def test_7_perf_simple(self chunk =  
):  
                    'abba'  
  
    max_len = s = 'X' + (chunk * max_len) +  
10000 'Y'  
  
    self .assertEqual(longest_palindrome(s), chunk *  
max_len)  
  
  
def test_8_perf_stress(self chunk = max_len =  
):  
                    'abba' 300
```

```
s = '' .join(str (i * 1337 ) + chunk * i for i in  
range (max_len + 1 ))  
  
self .assertEqual(longest_palindrome(s), chunk *  
max_len)
```

Longest valid parentheses substring

Given a string s that contains only the ‘{’ and ‘}’ characters, return the length of the longest substring of correctly closed parentheses.

Example: for $s = "()\{\}\{\}"$, the longest valid parentheses substring is "()" of length 6.

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the string be?

A: Up to 10,000 characters.

Q: What answer should be returned when the input is the empty string?

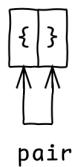
A: The result should be 0.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

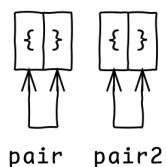
▲

Let's first think about the structure of valid parentheses strings, to see if there are any properties we can use in our advantage. Specifically, we are interested in anything that can help us reduce the problem to smaller subproblems—or the other way around: building valid parentheses strings incrementally starting from smaller ones.

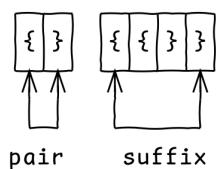
The smallest valid parentheses string is the pair:



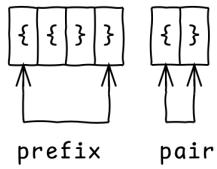
We can build a longer valid pararantheses string by appending another pair:



In general, we can build a longer valid pararantheses string by appending another valid pararantheses string:

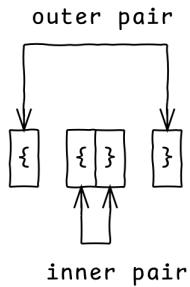


We can do the same by prepending a valid pararantheses string:

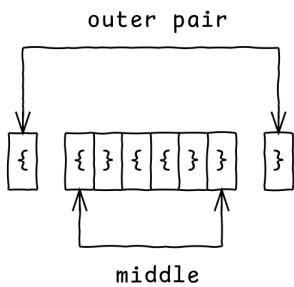


Prepending or appending are equivalent. We may use one or the other depending on the direction we use to build the string (left to right or right to left).

We can also build a longer valid pararantheses string by inserting a pair inside the outer pair:



In general, we can insert any valid parentheses substring inside a pair:



These operations are sufficient to build any valid parentheses substring.

For example, let's see how we can apply them incrementally to $s = \{\} \{\{\}\} \{ \cdot \}$.

We look at each character from s , starting from the left:

s [{]

No valid substring can be formed with the first character. Let's add the second character:

s [{ }]

Since the second character is ‘}’ , we look for a match to its left to form a pair. We obtain a valid substring of length 2. We continue by adding the third character:

s [{ } { }] [{ }

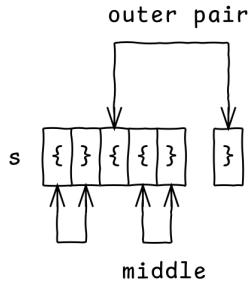
No new valid substring can be formed, since ‘{’ cannot match anything on its left. We add the fourth character:

s [{ } { } { }] [{ }

Once again, no new valid substring can be formed, since ‘{’ cannot match anything on its left. We add the fifth character:

s [{ } { } { } { }] [{ }

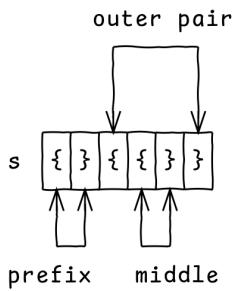
Since the new character is ‘}’ , we look for a match to the left to form a pair. We form another valid substring of length 2. We continue by adding the sixth character:



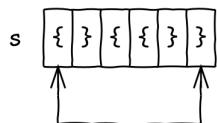
Since the new character is '}' , we look for a match to the left to form a pair. There is no '{' behind it, so we cannot form a simple pair.

Nevertheless, we can try applying the outer pair strategy. We see that there is a valid substring of length 2 behind it "{}" . We try to use it as the middle substring, and embed it into an outer pair. We succeed, since the character before the middle substring is '{', which allows us to form an outer pair.

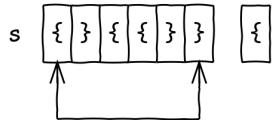
Naively, one would think that we formed a valid substring of length 4. However, before this substring, there is a valid substring prefix:



Thus we can apply the appending rule to form a longer valid substring:



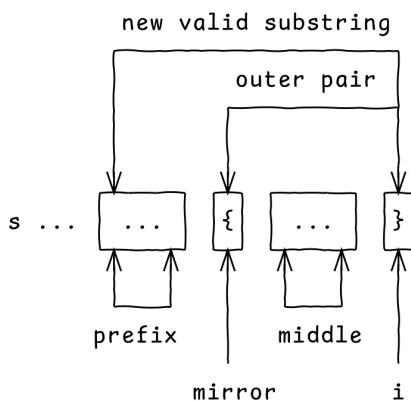
This is the maximal valid substring that can be obtained so far. We can now add the last character:



This character cannot be matched with anything, so the longest valid substring overall is 6.

Based on this example, we can design the algorithm that solves the problem. We process the input string s from left to right, character by character.

To advance from one index to the next, we try to find the following pattern:



This is sufficiently generic to cover more particular cases:

- a simple pair “{}” can be formed with an outer pair having an empty middle ;
- prefix may be empty if no valid prefix exists before the outer pair.

If no mirror can be found, or the current character is ‘{’, no valid substring can be formed that ends at the current index.

We keep track of the longest valid substrings found so far in a vector `best_ending_at` : `best_ending_at[i]` stores the length of the longest valid substring ending at index i . This allows us to find quickly the `mirror` index: we just need to skip `len(middle) == best_ending_at[i-1]` characters.

This algorithm can be implemented as:

```
        if      not return
def longest_parentheses(s): s:          0

    # best_endings[i] = length of longest valid
    # parentheses
    # substring ending at index i.

    best_endings = [None ] * len
(s)

    for i, c in enumerate  if c == '{' or i ==
(s):                      0 :

        # Impossible to form a valid substring
        # ending at i.

        best_endings[i]  contin
= 0                      ue

        # prefix { middle } where prefix and middle are
        # valid

        #           ^           ^   and maximal parentheses
        # substrings

        #     mirror           middle_len = best_endings[i -
i                  1 ]
```

```

    mirror = i - middle_len
    - 1

    if mirror < 0 or s[mirror] ==
    '}' :

        # Impossible to form a valid substring
        ending at i:

        # s = 'middle } ...      # s = ' } middle }
        ' or           ... '

        best_ending_at[i]    contin    if mirror > 0
        = 0                  ue       :
        ...
        # s = ' prefix { middle }
        ...

        prefix_len = best_ending_at[mirror else
        - 1 ]           :

        # s = ' { middle }  prefix_len =
        ... '             0

        best_ending_at[i]      =      prefix_len      +
        middle_len + 2

        # From all valid, maximal substrings, take the
        longest:

    return max
(best_ending_at)

```

The time complexity is $O(n^2)$, and the space complexity is the same. The space complexity cannot be reduced further, since we need the entire lookup table `best_ending_at` to find the length of the `prefix` substring.

Solution 3: dynamic programming, top-down,

▲

We can also write the above algorithm as top-down. We define a helper function `get_best_ending_at` which computes the length of the longest valid substring ending at a given index. The result of the function needs to be cached to avoid exponential complexity due to redundant calls:

```
from functools import lru_cache def longest_parentheses(s):

    if not return    @lru_cache (maxsize=None
s:          0        )

        def                  """
get_best_ending_at(i):      "

            Returns the length of the longest valid parentheses
substring

            ending at index ""    if i == 0 or s[i] ==
i.                " '{' :

                # Impossible to form a valid substring return
ending at i.                                0
```

```

# prefix { middle } where prefix and middle are
valid

#           ^
#           ^ and maximal parentheses
substrings

#      mirror      middle_len = get_best_ending_at(i -
i                  1 )

mirror = i - middle_len
- 1

if mirror >= 0 and s[mirror] == if mirror > 0
'{':                      :

# s = ' prefix { middle }
... '                        

prefix_len                  = else
get_best_ending_at(mirror - 1 )                      :

# s = ' { middle }   prefix_len
... '                  = 0

return      prefix_len      +
middle_len + 2

# Impossible to form a valid substring ending return
at i.                                0

```

```
# From all valid, maximal substrings, take the  
longest:  
  
    return max (get_best_ending_at(i) for i in range (len  
(s)))
```

The time and space complexities are both linear.

Unit tests

We first write test cases for very simple strings containing just one pair:

```
class Testparentheses(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_one_pair(self):
        self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{}'), 2)

        self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{}' + '{}'), 2)

        self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses('}' + '{}'), 2)

        self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{{}}'), 4)
```

We write a test case to make sure we take into account the appending/prepending expansion:

```
..    def test_2_neighbour_pairs(self):
..        self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{{}{}}'), 4)

        self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{'} + '{}{{}}'), 4)
```

```
        self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{}{}' + '{}'
), 4 )

        self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{}{}' + '}'
), 4 )
```

Another test case to cover the nesting expansion:

```
..   def  test_3_nested_pairs(self
.  ):

    self  .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{{}}'
), 4 )

    self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{ ' + '{{}}'
), 4 )

    self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{{}}' + '}'
), 4 )

    self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{{}}' + '{'
), 4 )
```

Some simple tests to check that we can handle multiple substrings:

```
..   def  test_4_multiple_substrings(self
.  ):

    self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{}' + '}' + '
{{}}' + '{' ), 4 )
```

```
        self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{{}}' + '}' + '}' + '{'), 4 )
```

We also cover the edge case where there are no valid substrings:

```
..     def test_5_no_valid_substring(self
..     ):
    self     .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('
), 0 )
    self     .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('}')
), 0 )
    self     .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('{'
), 0 )
    self     .assertEqual(longest_parentheses('}}}{{{'
), 0 )
```

Finally, a test with large input for performance benchmarking:

```
..     def test_6_perf(self n      = k      =
..     ):                                1000      10
    s = ')' .join(['{' * n + '}' * n]
* k)
    self .assertEqual(longest_parentheses(s), n
* 2 )
```

```
s = ')' .join(['{}' * n] *  
k)  
  
    self.assertEqual(longest_parentheses(s),  
* 2 )
```

Longest increasing subsequence

Given a vector of integers, return the longest subsequence that is monotonically increasing. If there are multiple such subsequences, return any one of them.

Example: For `numbers = [1, 4, 2, 1, 5]` , return `[1, 2, 5]` or `[1, 4, 5]` .

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the vector be?

A: Up to 1,000 elements.

Q: What answer should be returned when the vector is empty?

A: The empty list.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

time,

space

A brute-force solution is to enumerate all monotonically increasing subsequences through backtracking, keeping track of the longest one seen. We do not attempt to implement such a solution, since the complexity is probably exponential.

Instead, let's think about how increasing subsequences could be formed incrementally.

For example, suppose the input vector is `numbers = [1, 4, 2, 1, 5]`. We can form a one-element subsequence with the first element:

numbers	1	4	2	1	5
subsequences	1				

Let's now look at the second element, 4. We can either form a new subsequence with it, or extend the previous one:

numbers	1	4	2	1	5
subsequences	1				
new subsequences		4		1	4

Let's now look at the third element, 2. We can either form a new subsequence with it, or extend the previous ones where possible:

numbers	1	4	2	1	5
subsequences	1				
		4			
new subsequences	1	4			

Let's now look at the fourth element, 1. We can only form a new subsequence with it; it is not possible to extend any previous ones since it is smaller or equal to all numbers seen so far:

numbers	1	4	2	1	5
subsequences	1				
		4			
	1	4			
new subsequences	1		2		
	1	2			

Let's now look at the fifth element, 5. We can form a new subsequence with it, or extend previous ones:

numbers	1 4 2 1 5
subsequences	1 4 1 4 2 1 2 1
new subsequences	1 5 4 5 1 4 5 2 5 1 2 5 1 5

Among all the subsequences we computed, there are both of the longest increasing subsequences ($[1, 2, 5]$ and $[1, 4, 5]$). However, we have also computed a lot of smaller subsequences that are not useful.

For example, there is no point in storing subsequence $[4]$ when we know that there is a longer subsequence ending with 4: $[1, 4]$. They both have the same potential for future expansion, but the latter is longer, so preferable.

Let's look at the steps of the procedure again, with such redundant sequences removed:

numbers	1 4 2 1 5
subsequences	1 1 4 1 2 1
	step 1: subsequences ending with 1
	step 2: subsequences ending with 4
	step 3: subsequences ending with 2
	step 4: subsequences ending with 1
	step 5: subsequences ending with 5 (same length: we can store either one)

To summarize:

If there are n elements in the vector, there are n steps. In step i , we consider subsequences ending with `numbers[i]`. We have the following options:

- A subsequence consisting only of `numbers[i]`;
- Extending previous subsequences with `numbers[i]`.

We choose the longest one, and continue to the next step.

The overall longest increasing subsequence is the longest one seen.

We can implement this algorithm as:

```
def longest_increasing_subsequence(numbers):

    # Handle empty case straight if not return
    # away.
    numbers: [] = []

    # longest_ending_at[i] = longest sequence ending with
    # numbers[i].

    longest_ending_at = [None] * len(numbers)
    longest_ending_at[0] = [numbers[0]]  # Longest sequence ending with
    # `number`.

    # Initially we form just best_seq = [number]

    # Consider all the sequences found so far.

    for seq in longest_ending_at:
```

```

# Can we extend it monotonically with
`number`?

if seq[-1] < # Does it lead to a longer
number: sequence?

    if len(seq) + 1 > len(best_seq) = seq +
(best_seq): [number]

    # Store the longest_ending_at.append(best_
result. seq)

    # Return the longest
sequence.

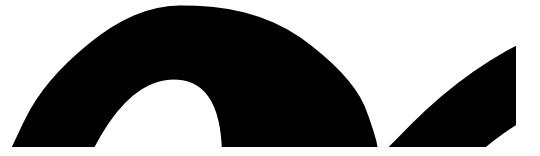
return max(longest_ending_at, key= len
)

```

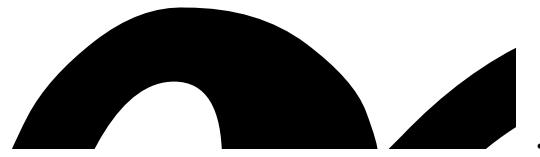
The time complexity of the algorithm is

and the space complexity is

as well, since we store



partial sequences of length up to



.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

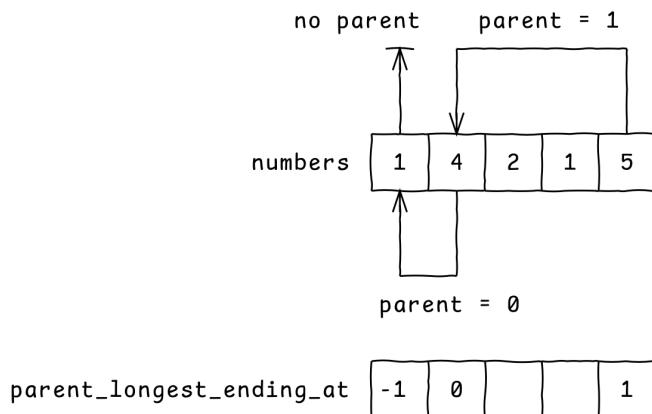
time,

▪ space

We can optimize the problem by reducing space complexity, using linked lists to store the subsequences in a compressed form.

Here is an approach that encodes the linked lists backwards using an array: Suppose that `parent_longest_ending_at[i]` stores the predecessor of `numbers[i]` in the sequence, or -1 if there is no predecessor.

For example, [1, 4, 5] can be stored as:



To reconstruct a sequence, we have to walk over the parent pointers in reverse.

Here is an optimized implementation:

```
def longest_increasing_subsequence(numbers):

    # Handle empty case straight if not return
    # away. numbers: []
    # len_longest_ending_at[i] = length of the longest
    # sequence ending with numbers[i].
    len_longest_ending_at = # Store sequences
    [] efficiently:
    # parent_longest_ending_at[i] = index of previous element
    # in the
    # longest sequence ending with numbers[i],
    # or -1 if numbers[i] is the first element in the
    # sequence.
    parent_longest_ending_at = for number in
    [] numbers:
        # Length of the longest sequence ending with
        `number`.
```

```

    # Initially we form just `number`, so the length
is 1.

best_len  =
1

    # Parent of `number` in the sequence. Initially there
is no parent.

best_parent =
-1

    # Consider all the sequences found so far ending
at i

    # (some element on the left of
`number`).

for      i,      seq_len      in      enumerate
(len_longest_ending_at):

    # Can we extend it monotonically with
`number`?

if      numbers[i]      <      # Does it lead to a longer
number:                                sequence?

    if best_len < seq_len      best_len      =
+ 1 :                                seq_len + 1

    best_parent  # Store the
= i          result.

```

```

    len_longest_ending_at.append(best_
len)

    parent_longest_ending_at.append(best_par
ent)

# Return the sequence ending with
`numbers[i]`,

# using `parent_longest_ending_at` to reconstruct
it.

def             if parent_longest_ending_at[i] !=
reconstruct(i): -1 :

    # Reconstruct the
prefix.

    prefix = else
reconstruct(parent_longest_ending_at[i]) :

    # We reached the first item, there is no prefix =
prefix.
[]

    # Append the current prefix.append(numbers[
item.
i])

return         # Reconstruct the longest
prefix        sequence.

```

```
best_len_overall = max
(len_longest_ending_at)

for i, seq_len in enumerate
(len_longest_ending_at):

    if seq_len == return
best_len_overall:        reconstruct(i)
```

The time complexity of the algorithm is

and the space complexity is now

reduced to .

Variant: count the number of solutions

Given a vector of integers, return the *number* of longest subsequences that are monotonically increasing.

Example: For `numbers = [1, 4, 2, 1, 5]` , since there are two possible longest subsequences: `[1, 2, 5]` and `[1, 4, 5]` , return 2.

Solution: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

time,

► space

We adapt the solution that finds the longest subsequence to compute for each element:

- The length of the longest subsequence ending with the element;
- The number of longest subsequence ending with the element.

We initialize the longest subsequence ending with the element with `[element]` , such that it has length of 1 and count of 1.

For example, this is the initial subsequence we would form for element 4:

subsequences	4	ending with 4: count = 1
--------------	---	--------------------------

When we find a longer previous subsequence that can be extended with the current element, we change the length and propagate the previous counter.

For example, if there are 3 subsequences ending with 2, and the current element is 4, we can form as well 3 subsequences ending with 4 by extending the previous ones:

subsequences	<table border="1" style="width: 100px; height: 50px; vertical-align: top;"> <tr><td>1</td><td>2</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>2</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>2</td></tr> </table>	1	2	0	2	-1	2	ending with 2: count = 3			
1	2										
0	2										
-1	2										
	<table border="1" style="width: 100px; height: 50px; vertical-align: top;"> <tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>4</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>2</td><td>4</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>2</td><td>4</td></tr> </table>	1	2	4	0	2	4	-1	2	4	ending with 4: count = 3
1	2	4									
0	2	4									
-1	2	4									

When we find a tie (another previous subsequence that can be extended with the current number to form a subsequence of length equal to the longest so far), we need to sum up the two counters:

subsequences	<table border="1" style="width: 100px; height: 50px; vertical-align: top;"> <tr><td>1</td><td>2</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>2</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>2</td></tr> </table>	1	2	0	2	-1	2	ending with 2: count = 3									
1	2																
0	2																
-1	2																
	<table border="1" style="width: 100px; height: 50px; vertical-align: top;"> <tr><td>2</td><td>3</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>3</td></tr> </table>	2	3	0	3	ending with 3: count = 2											
2	3																
0	3																
	<table border="1" style="width: 100px; height: 50px; vertical-align: top;"> <tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>4</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>2</td><td>4</td></tr> <tr><td>-1</td><td>2</td><td>4</td></tr> <tr><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr> <tr><td>0</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr> </table>	1	2	4	0	2	4	-1	2	4	2	3	4	0	3	4	ending with 4: count = 2 + 3 = 5
1	2	4															
0	2	4															
-1	2	4															
2	3	4															
0	3	4															

We can implement the algorithm as:

```

def count_longest_increasing_subsequences(numbers):
    # Handle empty case straight if not return
    # away.
    numbers: 0
  
```

```

# len_longest_ending_at[i] = length of the longest
sequence ending

# with
numbers[i].
```

```

len_longest_ending_at = []
[]
```

```

# count_longest_ending_at[i] = number of longest
sequences ending
```

```

# with
numbers[i].
```

```

count_longest_ending_at = [0] * len(numbers)
for number in numbers:
```

```

# Length of the longest sequence ending with
`number`.
```

```

# Initially we form just `[number]`, so the length
is 1.
```

```

best_len =
1
```

```

# Number of longest sequences ending with
`number`.
```

```

# Initially there is just best_count =
one.
1
```

```

# Consider all the sequences found so far ending
at i

# (some element on the left of
`number`).

for i, seq_len in enumerate
(len_longest_ending_at):

    # Can we extend it monotonically with
    `number`?

    if numbers[i] <         # Does it lead to a longer
number:                      sequence?

        if best_len < seq_len      best_len      =
+ 1 :                         seq_len + 1

            best_count           =      # Is it a
count_longest_ending_at[j]          tie?

        elif best_len == seq_len
+ 1 :

            best_count           +=
count_longest_ending_at[j]

        len_longest_ending_at.append(best_
len)

        count_longest_ending_at.append(best_co
unt)

```

```

# Length of the longest sequence.

    best_len_overall = max
    (len_longest_ending_at)

# Sum up all the counters for sequences of optimal length.

    return sum ([count for i, count in enumerate
(count_longest_ending_at)

        if len_longest_ending_at[i] == best_len_overall])

```

The time complexity is and the space

complexity is .

Longest arithmetic subsequence

Given a vector of integers `numbers` , return the length of the longest arithmetic subsequence.

A sequence is called arithmetic if the difference between any two consecutive numbers is the same, for example: [2, 4, 6, 8, 10] .

Example: For `numbers = [1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 7]` , return 4, which is the length of the subsequence [1, 3, 5, 7] .

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the vector be?

A: Up to 1,000 elements.

Q: What answer should be returned when the vector is empty?

A: Zero.

Q: What answer should be returned when the vector contains a single element?

A: One.

Q: Should we consider subsequences that are decreasing? Such as [5, 3, 1].

A: Yes, those are valid arithmetic subsequences.

Q: Should we consider subsequences that are constant? Such as [1, 1, 1].

A: Yes, those are valid arithmetic subsequences as well.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

time,

space

We suspect that this problem can be solved with dynamic programming, since it is similar to the longest increasing subsequence problem. We try to find a similar solution, based on forming subsequences incrementally.

Consider the example `numbers = [1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 7]`. For the first number, we can form a one-element subsequence:

numbers	1	2	3	5	8	7
subsequences	1					

Let's now look at the second element, 2. We can either form a new subsequence with it, or extend the previous one. If we extend, we obtain a sequence of length 2, so we can already compute the step of the sequence (the difference between consecutive elements):

numbers	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>5</td><td>8</td><td>7</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	5	8	7	
1	2	3	5	8	7			
subsequences	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td></tr></table>	1	step = ?					
1								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>2</td></tr></table>	2	step = ?					
2								

1 2

step = 1

Let's now look at the third element, 3. We can either form a new subsequence with it, or extend the previous ones where the step matches:

numbers	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>5</td><td>8</td><td>7</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	5	8	7	
1	2	3	5	8	7			
subsequences	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td></tr></table>	1	step = ?					
1								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>2</td></tr></table>	2	step = ?					
2								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td></tr></table>	1	2	step = 1				
1	2							
	<table border="1"><tr><td>3</td></tr></table>	3	step = ?					
3								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>2</td><td>3</td></tr></table>	2	3	step = 1				
2	3							
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>3</td></tr></table>	1	3	step = 2				
1	3							
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	step = 1			
1	2	3						

Notice that we have multiple subsequences with step 1 ending at 3: [2, 3] and [1, 2, 3]. Let's keep just the longest one, since the shorter one cannot be part of the final solution:

numbers	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>5</td><td>8</td><td>7</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	5	8	7	
1	2	3	5	8	7			
subsequences	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td></tr></table>	1	step = ?					
1								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>2</td></tr></table>	2	step = ?					
2								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td></tr></table>	1	2	step = 1				
1	2							
	<table border="1"><tr><td>3</td></tr></table>	3	step = ?					
3								
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>3</td></tr></table>	1	3	step = 2				
1	3							
	<table border="1"><tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td></tr></table>	1	2	3	step = 1			
1	2	3						

Let's now look at element 5. We can either form a new subsequence with it, or extend previous one where possible:

numbers	<table border="1"> <tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>5</td><td>8</td><td>7</td></tr> </table>	1	2	3	5	8	7	step = ?
1	2	3	5	8	7			
subsequences	1	step = ?						
	2	step = ?						
	1 2	step = 1						
	3	step = ?						
	1 3	step = 2						
	1 2 3	step = 1						
	5	step = ?						
	1 5	step = 4						
	2 5	step = 3						
	1 3 5	step = 2						

Note that we could not extend the one ending at 3 with step 1, since the difference between 3 and 5 is 2, so the step does not match.

Let's now look at element 8. Here we can form only subsequences of two elements:

numbers	<table border="1"> <tr><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>5</td><td>8</td><td>7</td></tr> </table>	1	2	3	5	8	7	step = ?
1	2	3	5	8	7			
subsequences	1	step = ?						
	2	step = ?						
	1 2	step = 1						
	3	step = ?						
	1 3	step = 2						
	1 2 3	step = 1						
	5	step = ?						
	1 5	step = 4						
	2 5	step = 3						
	1 3 5	step = 2						
	8	step = ?						
	1 8	step = 7						
	2 8	step = 6						
	3 8	step = 5						
	5 8	step = 3						

Finally, we look at element 7. Here we find a new global maximum, extending the subsequence of step 2 ending at 5, [1, 3, 5] :

numbers	1 2 3 5 8 7	
subsequences	1	step = ?
	2	step = ?
	1 2	step = 1
	3	step = ?
	1 3	step = 2
	1 2 3	step = 1
	5	step = ?
	1 5	step = 4
	2 5	step = 3
	1 3 5	step = 2
	8	step = ?
	1 8	step = 7
	2 8	step = 6
	3 8	step = 5
	5 8	step = 3
	7	step = ?
	1 7	step = 6
	2 7	step = 5
	3 7	step = 4
	1 3 5 7	step = 2
	8 7	step = -1

Based on the example, we propose the following procedure to find the longest arithmetic subsequence:

- Iterate over the vector from left to right. For each element in the vector, consider each element on its left:
 - Compute the step as the difference between the current element and the element on the left.
 - If a subsequence with that step exists ending at the element on the left, extend it with the current element. Store only the length of the longest subsequence of each step value.

We return the longest subsequence seen overall. We also need to be careful to handle the edge cases where there is just one element, or where there are no elements.

We can implement the solution as:

```

def longest_arithmetic_subsequence(numbers):

    # Handle the edge cases where there are less than 2
    # elements.

    # The rest of the code assumes that there are at least 2
    # elements,
    # so that we do not have undefined arithmetic subsequence
    # steps.

    if not numbers: return 0
    if len(numbers) == 1: return 1

    # best_length[i][step] = length of the longest arithmetic
    # subsequence
    # having step `step` and ending with the i-th
    # number.

    best_length = [{}) for _ in numbers]

    # Length of the longest arithmetic subsequence found
    # overall.

    best_length_global = max(best_length)

    for i, number in enumerate(numbers):
        # We try to extend previous
        # subsequences.

        # For each number on the left, we can form or continue
        # a different

```

```

#           for left in range
subsequence: (i):

    step      =      number      -
numbers[left]

        # Option 1: start a new subsequence from the pair of
numbers.

    new_sequence_length
= 2

        # Option 2: extend the previous subsequence, if one
exists.

    continuing_sequence_length      =      1      +
best_length[left].get(step, 0 )

        # We always choose the longest
subsequence.

    best_length[i][step]      =      max
(new_sequence_length,

        continuing_sequ      # Update      global
ence_length)                  result.

    best_length_global      =      max
(best_length_global,

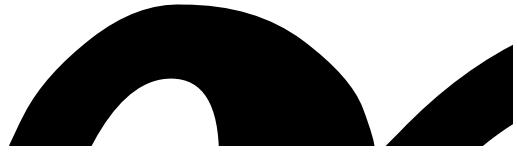
        best_length[  return
i][step])      best_length_global

```

The time complexity is clearly due to the two nested loops. The space complexity is

, since we create a dictionary with up

to



values for each number.

Unit tests

We propose three unit tests:

- A test to cover simple cases, where the result can be easily checked by hand.
- A test to cover edge cases:
 - The empty vector.
 - A vector with just one element.
 - A vector that is an arithmetic sequence.
- A test to check performance with large inputs, at the upper limit of the requirements.

```
def    test_1_simple(self
class Test(unittest.TestCase): ):

    self .assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence(range
(5 )), 5 )

    self
.assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence(
[1 , 2 , 3 , 5 , 8 , 7 def    test_2_edge_case(self
]), 4 )                               ):


    self     .assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence([1
]), 1 )

    self .assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence([1 ,
2 ]), 2 )
```

```
    self
.assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence(
        list (range (10 ))),
10 )

    self
.assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence(
        list  (range  (10   )[:: -1  def  test_3_perf(self
])], 10  ))

n      =  fwd  =  list  (range  rev = fwd[:: -1
500     (n))                      ]

numbers = [x for tuple in zip (fwd, rev) for x in
tuple  ]

    self
.assertEqual(longest_arithmetic_subsequence(numbers), n)
```

Dealing the best hand of cards

Given a deck of cards, we have to deal a hand containing a certain number of cards. Cards can be dealt from the top of the deck as well as from the bottom. Determine the best hand that can be dealt, in terms of the sum of the values of the cards, assuming each card has a specific value.

Example: for the deck [3, 1, 1, 6, 2] , we can deal the following hands of 3 cards: [3, 1, 1] , [3, 1, 2] , [3, 2, 6] , [2, 6, 1] . The best hand is [3, 2, 6] with sum 11.

Clarification questions

Q: Does the dealer know the values of the cards in the deck and their order?

A: Yes, assume complete knowledge of the deck.

Q: How large can a hand be?

A: The size limit is 1,000,000 cards.

Q: Can the hand be empty?

A: Yes. In that case, its value is 0.

Q: What if there are not enough cards in the deck to build a hand of the requested size?

A: Then the whole deck should be dealt.

We asked the clarification questions to learn how to handle the edge cases, as well as find out what are the time complexity constraints for the solution. To handle 1 million cards, we must look for an algorithm with time

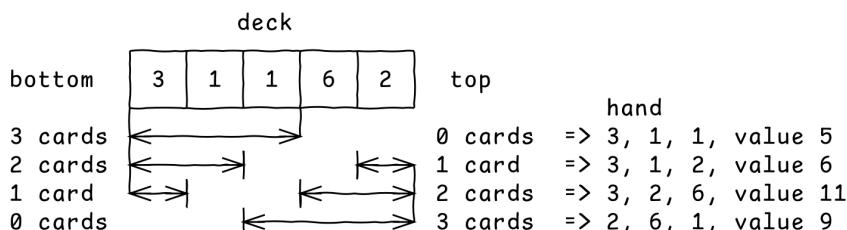
complexity around or

Solution 1: brute force, time

A straightforward solution is to enumerate all possible hands and choose the best one. Suppose the hand size is n . We can deal the following hands:

- all n cards from the bottom;
- $n - 1$ cards from the bottom and 1 from the top;
- $n - 2$ cards from the bottom and 2 from the top;
- ...
- all n cards from the top.

This can be also seen in the following figure:



This method can be implemented as:

```
def get_best_hand_from_deck(deck, hand_size):

    # Handle the case where the deck is too
    # small.

    if hand_size >= len(deck):
        return sum(deck)
```

```

# Keep track of the best known best_hand = hand.
best_hand = hand
for num_top in range(hand_size + 1):
    num_bottom = hand_size - num_top

    # Deal num_bottom cards from the bottom...
    bottom = sum(deck[0:num_bottom])

    # and num_top cards from the top.
    top = sum(deck[-num_top:]) if num_top
    else 0

    hand = bottom + top # Update the best hand if needed.

    best_hand = max(best_hand, hand)
return best_hand

```

The above code is correct but too slow: for a hand of size n , it performs n iterations, and in each one performs n steps to compute the value of the

hand. The overall time complexity is

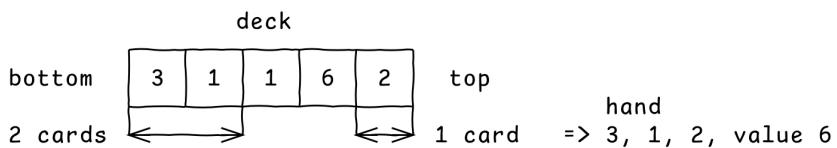
.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

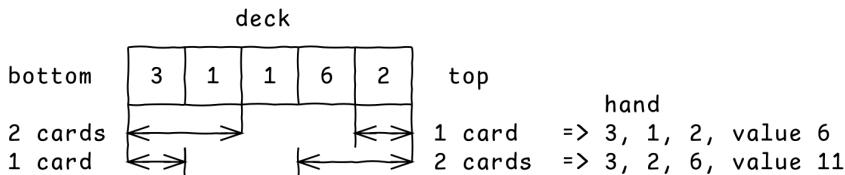
» time

We can optimize the previous solution by noticing that we can avoid redundant summation when computing the values of the hands, by reusing the sums that have already been computed.

For example, consider the following hand:



The next hand in the iteration differs from the current one in just 2 cards: the 1 to be removed and the 6 to be added:



The value of the new hand can be computed from the value of the previous

hand in
adding 6.

steps by subtracting 1 and

Based on this reasoning, we can rewrite the algorithm as:

```
def get_best_hand_from_deck(deck, hand_size):

    # Handle the case where the deck is too
    # small.

    if hand_size >= len(deck):
        return sum(deck)

    # Start with a hand dealing only from the bottom of the
    # deck.

    num_top = num_bottom = 0
    hand = sum(deck[0:num_bottom])

    # Keep track of the best known best_hand
    # hand.

    while num_top < hand_size:
        # Give up the deepest card from the
        # bottom,
        # replacing it with a card dealt from the
        # top.

        num_bottom -= num_top += hand
        hand -= deck[num_bottom]
        num_top += 1
```

```
hand      +=      deck[-      # Update the best hand if
num_top]                                needed.

best_hand = max (best_hand, return
hand)                                         best_hand
```

This has time complexity in terms of

the hand size .



Unit tests

For testing, we first cover simple, normal cases to make sure the algorithm works at all and to ease potential troubleshooting.

Then we cover edge cases, such as:

- the empty deck;
- a hand size covering the whole deck;
- a hand size larger than the deck.

Finally, we write a performance test using a large input, to ensure the implementation is fast enough given the requirements, as well as to catch possible future performance regressions.

The unit tests can be written as:

```
class TestBestHand(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_simple(self):
        self.assertEqual(get_best_hand_from_deck([2, 2, 1, 4, 1], 2), 5)

        self.assertEqual(get_best_hand_from_deck([2, 1, 1, 4, 1], 3), 7)

    def test_2_empty_hand(self):
        self.assertEqual(get_best_hand_from_deck([2, 2, 1, 4, 1], 0), 0)
```

```
def test_3_whole_deck(self):
    self.assertEqual(get_best_hand_from_deck([2, 2, 1, 4, 1], 5), 10)

def test_4_perf(self n      =
):                      200000

    deck = [3] * n + [2] * n + [1] * n + [5] * n + [4]
] * n

    self.assertEqual(get_best_hand_from_deck(deck, 3
* n),
                     (5 + 4 + 3 )
* n)
```

Number of ways to climb stairs

Count the number of ways to climb a staircase with n steps, if you are allowed to climb either one step or two steps at a time.

Example: For $n = 2$, there are 2 ways to climb the stairs:

- climb one step, then another step;
- climb two steps at a time directly to the second step.

Clarification questions

Q: How large can n be?

A: Up to 50.

Q: Can n be zero or negative? How should invalid values be handled?

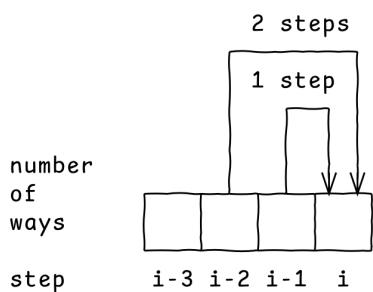
A: $n \geq 1$. You may assume that no invalid values are passed.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

» time

For any step $i \geq 2$, we can reach it in only two ways:

- climbing a step from step $i-1$;
- climbing two steps at a time from step $i-2$.



The total number of ways we can reach step i is thus the sum of the number of ways we can reach step $i-1$ and the number of ways we can reach step $i-2$.
.

We can implement this function recursively. We just need to handle the termination condition: $i \leq 1$. In these cases, the number of ways we can get there is 1:

- climbing to the first step can be done in just one way;
- climbing to the “zero” step means just standing on the starting position, which also can be achieved in one way.

We can now implement the function recursively with caching:

```
from functools import lru_cache @lru_cache (maxsize=None )

        if n <= 1 return
def count_num_paths_stairs(n): :           1

    num_paths_one_step = count_num_paths_stairs(n -
1 )

    num_paths_two_steps = count_num_paths_stairs(n -
2 )

    return          num_paths_one_step           +
num_paths_two_steps
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity.

Interestingly, this recursion matches exactly the formula for computing the Fibonacci sequence.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

↙ time

We can apply the same reasoning when starting from lower step counts and advancing to higher step counts, to find an iterative solution:

```
if n <= 1 return 1

def count_num_paths_stairs(n): : 1

# num_paths[i] = number of paths to climb to i-th
# step.

num_paths = [0] * (n + 1)
)

# Initial position: just one possible way to get
# there.

num_paths[0] =
1

# First step: just one possible way to get
# there.

num_paths[1] = for i in range (2 , n + 1
1
):
```

```
    num_paths_one_step = num_paths[i -  
1 ]  
  
    num_paths_two_steps = num_paths[i -  
2 ]  
  
    num_paths[i]      =      num_paths_one_step      +  
num_paths_two_steps  
  
return  
num_paths[n]
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity.

Solution 3: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

» time

The iterative solution does not require storing the entire vector `num_paths`, just the last two elements. We can rewrite it in a way that is more memory-efficient:

```
        if n <= 1 return
def count_num_paths_stairs(n): :           1

    # Initial position: just one possible way to get
    # there.

    num_paths_prev = 1

    # First step: just one possible way to get
    # there.

    num_paths_current = for i in range (2 , n + 1
                                         1):
        num_paths_one_step = num_paths_current
        num_paths_current = num_paths_one_step +
                            num_paths_two_steps
        num_paths_two_steps = num_paths_prev
```

```
    num_paths_prev           =
num_paths_current

    num_paths_current      =      num_paths_one_step      +
num_paths_two_steps

return
num_paths_current
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity.

Unit tests

For testing, we first cover simple cases to make sure the algorithm works and can be debugged easily:

```
class TestStairs(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_simple(self):
        self.assertEqual(count_num_paths_stairs(2), 2)

        self.assertEqual(count_num_paths_stairs(4), 5)
```

Then we address edge cases:

```
..  def test_2_edge_cases(self):
..  ):

    self.assertEqual(count_num_paths_stairs(1), 1)
```

Finally, we write a test for large values of n to ensure that the performance is satisfactory:

```
..  def test_3_perf(self):
..  ):

    self.assertEqual(count_num_paths_stairs(35), 14930352)
```

```
    self.assertEqual(count_num_paths_stairs(49      ),  
12586269025 )
```

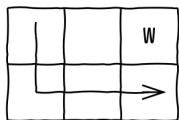
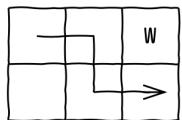
Number of paths through maze

You are given a maze represented as a matrix, where cells you may enter are marked with zeroes, and walls are marked with ones. You start at the top-left corner, and need to reach the bottom-right corner. You are only allowed to move to the right or down, without passing through walls. Count how many distinct paths exist.

Example:

```
maze = [ [0, 0, 1], [0, 0, 0] ]
```

There are two possible paths from the top-left corner to the bottom-right corner:



Clarification questions

Q: How large can the maze be?

A: Up to 50 rows and columns.

Q: Can there be walls in the starting or ending positions?

A: Yes. In that case the number of paths is zero.

Q: Can cells contain values other than 0 or 1?

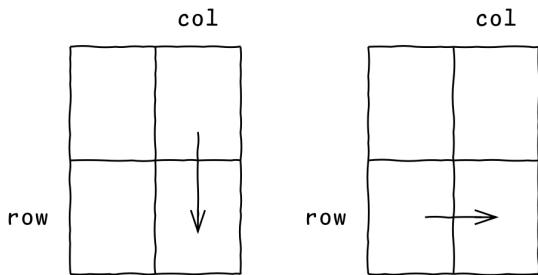
A: No.

Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

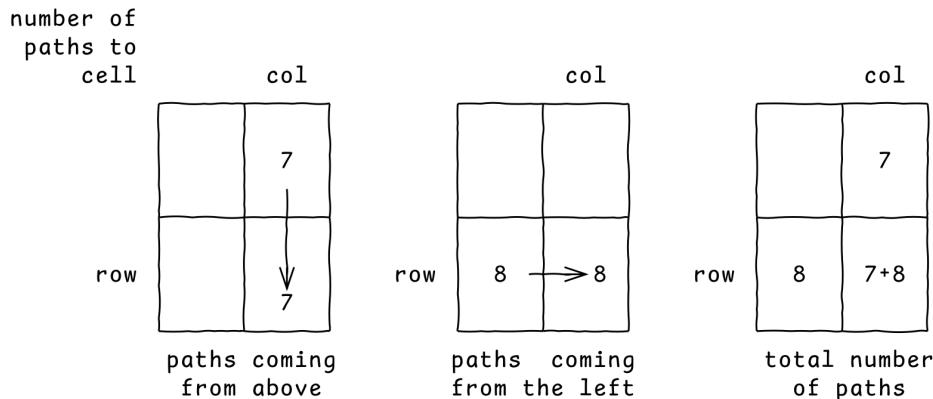
time

Consider an arbitrary cell (row, col) . We can reach it in only two ways:

- coming from above, unless there is a wall above or the cell is on the top row;
- coming from the left, unless there is a wall to the left or the cell is on the first column.

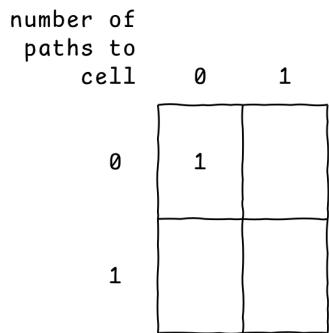


Suppose that there are 7 paths from the top-left corner to the cell above, and 8 paths from the top-left corner to the cell on the left. Then the number of distinct paths from the top-left corner to the cell is $7 + 8 = 15$. This is because we can take each of the 7 paths reaching the cell above and extend it by adding a step down; and similarly we can extend each of the 8 paths reaching the cell on the left, to form a total of 15 distinct paths that reach our cell:

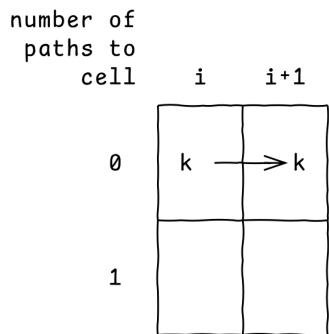


Based on this logic, we can implement a function that computes the count using recursion. We just need to handle the special cases:

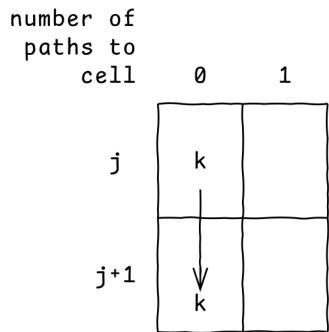
- The top-left corner is the starting position, so it can be reached in just one way:



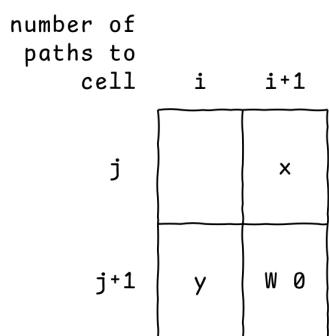
- Cells on the first row can only be reached from the left:



- Cells on the first column can only be reached from above:



- Cells that contain a wall cannot be reached:



We can now implement the function recursively with caching:

```
from functools import lru_cache def count_num_paths(maze):

    WALL = @lru_cache (maxsize=None
1           )

    def      count_num_paths_to_cell(row,
col):

        # Invalid cell: no
paths
```

```

    if row < 0 or col < 0 or maze[row][col] == WALL:
                                         0

        # Starting position: 1 if row == 0 and col ==
        option                           0 :

    return      # Sum up the number of paths incoming
1           from all

        #           possible
directions:

    num_from_above = count_num_paths_to_cell(row - 1 ,
col)

    num_from_left = count_num_paths_to_cell(row, col
- 1 )

    return      num_from_above      +  num_rows      =      len
num_from_left                               (maze)

    num_cols = len (maze[0
])

    # Return the number of paths reaching the bottom-right
cell.

    return count_num_paths_to_cell(num_rows - 1 , num_cols -
1 )

```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity, since the helper function `count_num_paths_to_cell` may be called at most once per cell.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

time

We can apply the same reasoning but in the opposite order:

- We start from the top-left corner, where we can have just 1 path;
- We propagate the number of paths reaching the current cell to the right and below;
- We set the number of paths to zero in cells that contain a wall;
- We iterate over cells in an order where the cell above and the cell on the left of the current cell have already had their paths counted.

```
WALL    = num_rows      = len
def count_num_paths(maze): 1      (maze)

num_cols = len (maze[0
])

# num_paths_to_cell[row][col] = number of paths that can
reach

#                                         cell (row, col).
Initially 0.

num_paths_to_cell = [[0 ] * num_cols for _ in range
(num_rows)]
```

```

for row in range(num_rows):
    for col in range(num_cols):

        if maze[row][col] == WALL:

            # No paths can pass through
            # this cell.

            num_paths_to_cell[row] = 0
            elif row == 0 and col == 0 :

                # Starting position: just 1
                # path.

                num_paths_to_cell[row] = 1
                else :
                    if row > 0 :

                        num_from_above = num_paths_to_cell[row - 1 ][col]
                        :
                        # Top row: nothing
                        # above.
                        num_from_above = 0
                        else :
                            num_from_left = num_paths_to_cell[row][col - 1 ]
                            :
                            # First column: nothing on
                            # the left.
                            num_from_left = 0
                            num_paths_to_cell[row][col] =
                            (num_from_above +

```

```
    num_fr  
om_left)  
  
    # Return the number of paths reaching the bottom-right  
cell.  
  
    return num_paths_to_cell[-1][-1]  
]
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity, since we are iterating over the entire matrix and storing the path count of each cell.

Solution 3: dynamic programming, bottom-up, time, linear space

The iterative solution does not require storing the entire matrix `num_paths_to_cell`, just the last row and the next one to be computed. We can rewrite it in a way that is more memory-efficient:

```
WALL = num_rows = len
def count_num_paths3(maze): 1 (maze)

num_cols = len(maze[0])
# npaths_prev_row[col] = number of paths that can reach  
the cells
# from the previous  
row.
npaths_prev_row = [0] * num_cols
# npaths_next_row[col] = number of paths that can reach  
the cells
# from the current  
row.
```

```

    npaths_next_row = [0] *
num_cols

    for row in range
(num_rows):

        # Use npaths_prev_row to compute
npaths_next_row.

        for col in range if maze[row][col] ==
(num_cols):           WALL:

            # No paths can pass through
this cell.

        npaths_next_row[col] elif row == 0 and col ==
] = 0          0 :

        # Starting position: just 1      npaths_next_row[col
path. ] = 1

        else if row > num_from_above = :
            0 :      npaths_prev_row[col]

        else      # Top row: nothing      num_from_above
:      above. = 0

        if col > num_from_left = :
            0 :      npaths_next_row[col - 1 ]

        else      # First column: nothing on
:      the left.

```

```

    num_from_left
= 0

        npaths_next_row[col] = num_from_above + 
num_from_left

#           Swap
buffers.

npaths_prev_row, npaths_next_row = npaths_next_row,
npaths_prev_row

# Return the number of paths reaching the bottom-right
cell.

return npaths_prev_row[-1]
]

```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity.

Unit tests

For testing, we first cover simple cases without walls:

```
class TestMaze(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_no_walls(self maze = [0 , 0 [0 , 0
):                                [           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), maze =
2 )                                [
[0 , 0 , 0 [0 , 0 , 0
],           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), maze =
3 )                                [
[0 , 0 [0 , 0 [0 , 0
],           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze),
3 )
```

Then we cover some simple cases with walls:

```
..  def test_2_walls(self maze = [0 , 1 [0 , 0
.  ):                                [           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), maze =
1 )                                [
```

```

        [0 , 1 , 0   [0 , 0 , 0
],           ],           ]

    self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), maze =
1 )                               [
[0 , 0  [1 , 0  [0 , 0
],       ],       ],
]

    self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), maze =
1 )                               [
[0 , 0 , 1   [0 , 0 , 0
],           ],           ]

    self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze),
2 )

```

We also cover some edge cases: a maze with just one cell, and a maze without any paths to the destination:

```

..  def  test_3_one_cell_maze(self  maze  =  [0
..  ):                                [       ],     ]

    self .assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze),
1 )



def  test_4_no_paths(self  maze  =  [1
):                                [       ],     ]

```

```

    self.assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), maze =
0 )
[

[0 , 1 [1 , 0
], ], ]
self.assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze),
0 )

```

Finally, we write a test for large values of n to ensure that the performance is satisfactory:

```

.. def test_5_perf(self n = maze = [0 ] * ] *
. ): 50 [ , n, n

# No walls: all paths have length  $N = 2 * n - 2$ 
# steps,
# out of which  $K = n - 1$  are
down.

# There are  $(N \text{ choose } K)$  distinct
choices.

self.assertEqual(count_num_paths(maze), math.comb(2*
n - 2 , n - 1 ))

```

Counting problems

We have seen a series of problems that involved counting; unlike previous problems that involved some form of optimization. Both are common applications of dynamic programming.

Maximum-score path through maze

You are given a maze represented as a matrix. Cells that you cannot enter are marked with -1; the rest of the cells contain a non-negative integer that represents a score. The score of a path through the maze is equal to the sum of the scores of the cells traversed by that path.

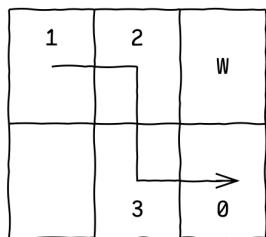
You start at the top-left corner, and need to reach the bottom-right corner, making moves only to the right or down.

Return the best possible score you can obtain.

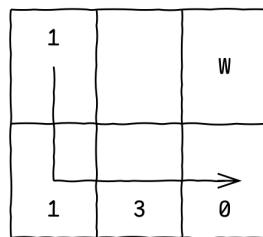
Example:

```
maze = [ [1, 2, -1], [1, 3, 0] ]
```

There are two possible paths from the top-left corner to the bottom-right corner, the best one having score 6:



score: $1 + 2 + 3 + 0 = 6$



score: $1 + 1 + 3 + 0 = 5$

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the maze be?

A: Up to 50 rows and columns.

Q: Is it possible that no path to the destination exists?

A: Yes. In that case, return -1.

Q: Can there be walls in the starting or ending positions?

A: Yes. In that case, return -1.

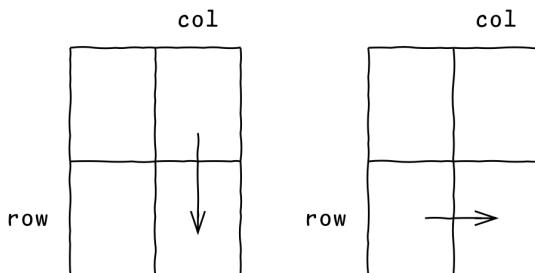
Solution 1: dynamic programming, top-down,

time

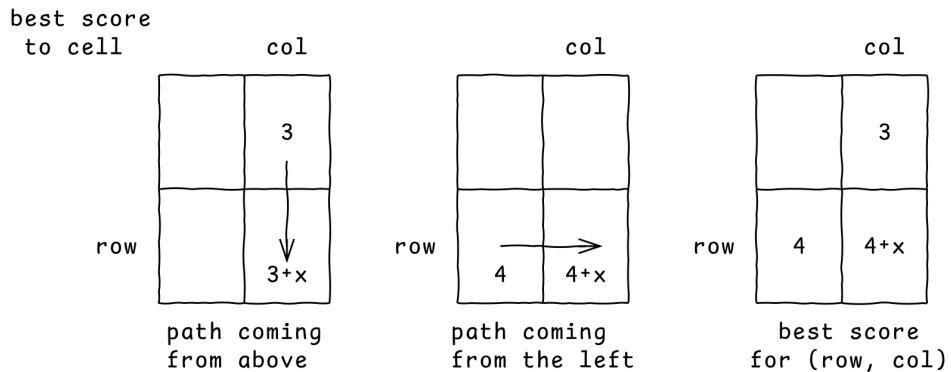
We can use a similar approach as to the problem of counting the number of possible paths through the maze.

Consider an arbitrary cell (`row`, `col`) with cell score $x \geq 0$. We can reach it in only two ways:

- coming from above, unless there is a wall above or the cell is on the top row;
- coming from the left, unless there is a wall to the left or the cell is on the first column.

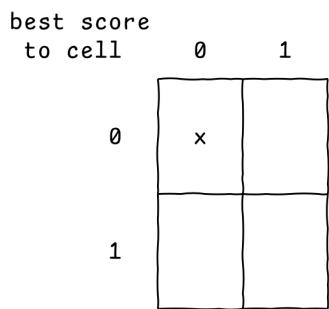


Suppose that the score of the best path reaching the cell above is 3, and the score of the best path reaching the cell to the left is 4. Then the best option to reach the current cell is extending the path from the left:

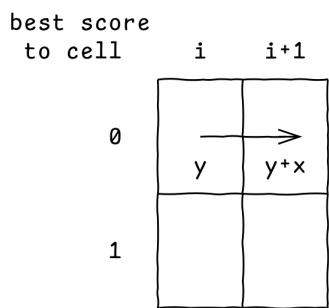


We can implement this function recursively. We just need to handle the special cases:

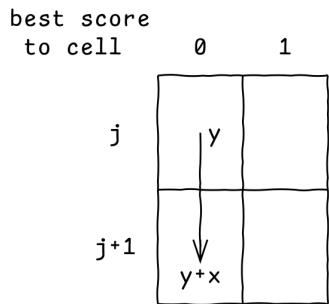
- The top-left corner is the starting position, so the path's score is the cell's score:



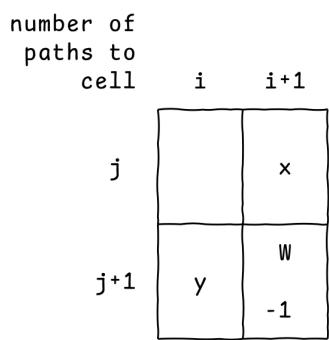
- Cells on the first row can only be reached from the left:



- Cells on the first column can only be reached from above:



- Cells that contain a wall cannot be reached:



We can implement this function recursively with caching:

```
from functools import lru_cache def find_best_path(maze):
    WALL = IMPOSSIBLE = @lru_cache (maxsize=None)
    -1 -1

    def find_best_score_to_cell(row,
        col):
        # Invalid cell: no
        # paths

        if row < 0 or col < 0 or maze[row][col] ==
        WALL:
```

```

    return
IMPOSSIBLE

    # Starting position: score of the first
cell.

if row == 0 and col == 0 :           return maze[row]
                                [col]

    # Find the best paths incoming from
all

    # possible
directions:

    best_from_above = find_best_score_to_cell(row - 1 ,
col)

    best_from_left = find_best_score_to_cell(row, col
- 1 )

    best_incoming      =      max      (best_from_above,
best_from_left)

    if      best_incoming      ==      # There is no incoming
IMPOSSIBLE:                         path.

    return
IMPOSSIBLE

    # Extend the best path with the current
cell.

```

```
    return best_incoming + maze[row]  num_rows      =      len
[ col ]                                (maze)

    num_cols = len (maze[0
])

# Return the score of the best path reaching the bottom-right cell.

    return find_best_score_to_cell(num_rows - 1 , num_cols -
1 )
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity, since the helper function `find_best_score_to_cell` may be called at most once per cell.

Solution 2: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

time

We can apply the same reasoning but in the opposite order:

- We start from the top-left corner, where we form a path of 1 cell;
- We extend the known paths to the right and below; for any cell, we choose the best path between the one incoming from above and the one incoming from left;
- We set the score to -1 in cells that contain a wall;
- We iterate over cells in an order where the cell above and the cell on the left of the current cell have already had their best score computed.

```
WALL      = IMPOSSIBLE      =
def find_best_path(maze): -1           -1

num_rows      = len num_cols = len (maze[0
(maze)                  ])

# best_score_to_cell[row][col] = score of the best path
that can reach

#                                                 cell (row, col).
Initially IMPOSSIBLE.

best_score_to_cell = [[IMPOSSIBLE] * num_cols for _ in
range (num_rows)]
```

```

for row in range(num_rows):
    for col in range(num_cols):

        if maze[row][col] == WALL:
            # No paths can pass through this cell.

            best_score_to_cell[row][col] = IMPOSSIBLE

        elif row == 0 and col == 0:
            # Starting position: score of the first cell.

            best_score_to_cell[row][col] = else maze[row][col] :

        if row > 0:
            best_from_above = else best_score_to_cell[row - 1 ][col] :

            # Top row: nothing above. best_from_above = IMPOSSIBLE

        if col > 0:

```

```

        best_from_left           = else
best_score_to_cell[row][col - 1] :


    # First column: nothing on
    the left.

    best_from_left      =
IMPOSSIBLE


    best_incoming     = max (best_from_above,
best_from_left)

    if   best_incoming ==      # There is no
IMPOSSIBLE:                      incoming path.

    best_score_to_cell[row][col] = else
IMPOSSIBLE :


    # Extend the best path with the
current cell.

    best_score_to_cell[row][col] =
(best_incoming +
maze[ow][col])

    # Return the score of the best path reaching the bottom-
right cell.

return best_score_to_cell[-1][-1]
]
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity, since we are iterating over the entire matrix and storing the best score of each cell.

Solution 3: dynamic programming, bottom-up,

The iterative solution does not require storing the entire matrix `best_score_to_cell`, just the last row and the next one to be computed. We can rewrite it in a way that is more memory-efficient:

```
WALL      = IMPOSSIBLE      =
-1          -1

def find_best_path(maze):
    num_rows      = len(maze)
    num_cols      = len(maze[0])

    # best_score_prev_row[col] = score of the best paths that
    # can reach
    # the cells on the previous
    # row.

    best_score_prev_row = [IMPOSSIBLE] * num_cols

    # best_score_next_row[col] = score of the best paths that
    # can reach
    # the cells on the current
    # row.
```

```

    best_score_next_row = [IMPOSSIBLE] *
num_cols

    for row in range
(num_rows):

        # Use best_score_prev_row to compute
best_score_next_row.

        for col in range if maze[row][col] ==
(num_cols): WALL:

            # No paths can pass through
this cell.

            best_score_next_row[col] =
IMPOSSIBLE

        elif row == 0 and col ==
0 :

            # Starting position: score of the
first cell.

            best_score_next_row[col] = else
maze[row][col] :

            if row > best_from_above =
0 : best_score_prev_row[col]

        else      # Top row: nothing
: above.

```

```

    best_from_above      =  if col >
IMPOSSIBLE                      0 :

    best_from_left           = else
best_score_next_row[col - 1]       :

# First column: nothing on
the left.

    best_from_left      =
IMPOSSIBLE

    best_incoming     = max (best_from_above,
best_from_left)

    if best_incoming ==      # There is no
IMPOSSIBLE:                      incoming path.

    best_score_next_row[col] = else
IMPOSSIBLE                      :

# Extend the best path with the
current cell.

    best_score_next_row[col] = maze[ro
(best_incoming +
w][col])

# Swap
buffers.

    best_score_prev_row,      best_score_next_row =
(best_score_next_row,

```

```
        best_sco  
re_prev_row)  
  
    # Return the score of the best path reaching the bottom-right cell.  
  
    return best_score_prev_row[-1  
]
```

This solution has time complexity

and space complexity.

Unit tests

For testing, we first cover simple cases without walls:

```
class TestMaze(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_no_walls(self maze = [1 , 3 [2 , 3
):                                [           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), maze =
7 )                               [
[1 , 2 , 1 [1 , 2 , 1
],           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), maze =
6 )                               [
[1 , 1 [2 , 1 [2 , 1
],           ],           ]

        self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze),
6 )
```

Then we cover some simple cases with walls:

```
..  def test_2_walls(self maze = [1 , -1 [1 , 1
.   ):                                [           ],           ],

        self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), maze =
] 3 )                               [
```

```

[0 , -1 , 0  [0 ,  1 , 0
],           ],           ]

self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), maze =
1 )                               [
[ 0 , 0  [-1 ,  1  [ 1 , 1
],       ],       ],       ]

self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), maze =
2 )                               [
[1 , 2 , -1  [1 , 1 ,  1
],       ],       ]

self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze),
5 )

```

We also cover some edge cases: a maze with just one cell, and a maze without any paths to the destination:

```

..  def  test_3_one_cell_maze(self  maze  = [2
..  ):                                [      ],      ]

self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze),
2 )

def  test_4_no_paths(self  maze  = [-1
):                                [      ],      ]

```

```
    self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), maze =
-1 )
[ [ 1 , -1 [ -1 , 1
], ], ]
self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze),
-1 )
```

Finally, we write a test for large values of n to ensure that the performance is satisfactory:

```
.. def test_5_perf(self n = maze = [1 ] * ] *
. ): 50 [ n, n
# All paths pass through  $2 * n - 1$  cells, each of score 1:
self .assertEqual(find_best_path(maze), 2 * n
- 1 )
```

Subarray sum

You are given a vector of integers `numbers` , and a list of queries of the form `(start, end)` . For each query, you must compute the sum of the elements of `numbers` with indices in `[start, end)` . Return the result as a list.

Example: for `numbers = [2, 3, 5, 7, 9]` , and `queries = [(0, 2), (2, 5), (1, 4)]` , the result is `[5, 21, 15]` ($2 + 3, 5 + 7 + 9, 3 + 5 + 7$).

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the array of numbers be?

A: Up to 10,000 numbers.

Q: How many queries can we have?

A: Up to 10,000.

Q: Are the indices in the queries valid?

A: Yes, validation is not necessary.

Solution 1: brute-force,

The simplest solution is to iterate over the queries, and compute the sum for each query:

```
def subarray_sums(numbers, queries):  
  
    return [sum(numbers[start:end]) for start, end in  
            queries]
```

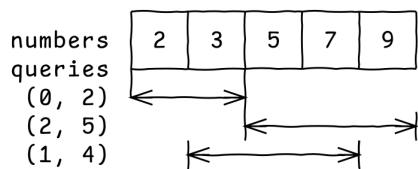
Assuming that there are up to n numbers and up to m queries, we have m iteration steps, and at each step we perform $n - 1$ additions. Thus the time

complexity is .

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

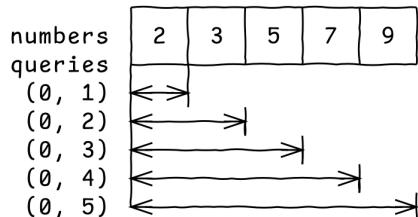
▲

We notice that the brute-force solution makes a lot of redundant computations when the subarrays from different queries are overlapping:

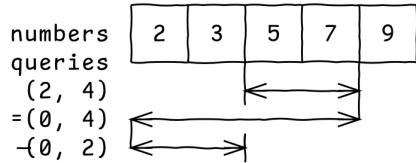


For example, the result of the query $(1, 4)$ can be computed from the result of the previous query $(2, 5)$ by adding 3 and subtracting 9.

This insight is potentially useful, but difficult to use directly, since it is not obvious how to decide efficiently which one of the past queries should be used to compute the current query. The decision would be much easier if we knew that all possible prefixes have been queried:



Then any query $(\text{start}, \text{end})$ can be computed from the result of $(0, \text{end})$ by subtracting the result of $(0, \text{start})$:



We can compute the prefix sums in advance, incrementally. Then we can compute each query with a single arithmetic operation:

```
def subarray_sums(numbers, queries):

    # prefix_sums[i] = sum of numbers[0:i], 0 <= i <= len(numbers)

    prefix_sums = [0 for number in numbers:

        prefix_sums.append(prefix_sums[-1] + number)

    return [prefix_sums[end] - prefix_sums[start]

            for start, end in queries]
```

Computing the prefix sums takes n steps, and solving the queries takes m

steps, so the time complexity is $.$

Prefix sums

Prefix sums are very useful: we can use them to compute the sum of a

subarray in , among other things. They are used so often that most numerical computing software provides a dedicated function for computing them, usually called `cumsum` (cumulative sum).

Submatrix sum

You are given a matrix of integers, and a list of queries of the form (`top`, `left`, `bottom`, `right`) . For each query, you must compute the sum of the elements of the rectangle formed by matrix cells with row indices in `[top, bottom)` and `[left, right)` . Return the result as a list.

Example:

```
matrix = [
    [ 1 , 2 , 3 , 4 , 5
     ],
    [ 6 , 7 , 8 , 9 , 10 [11 , 12 , 13 , 14 , 15
     ],
     ],
    [16 , 17 , 18 , 19 , 20 [21 , 22 , 23 , 24 , 25
     ],
     ]
]
```

For `queries = [(0, 0, 2, 2), (1, 2, 3, 5)]` , the result is `[1 + 2 + 6 + 7, 8 + 9 + 10 + 13 + 14 + 15]` .

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the matrix be?

A: Up to 100 rows/columns.

Q: How many queries can we have?

A: Up to 1000.

Q: Are the indices in the queries valid?

A: Yes. Input validation is not necessary.

Hint: this problem is a 2D-version of the subarray sum problem. It is useful to have a good understanding of that before attempting to solve this problem.

Solution 1: brute-force,

The simplest solution is to iterate over the queries, and compute the sum over the rectangle for each query:

```
        result      =
def rectangle_sum(matrix, queries): []

    for top, left, bottom, right in rectangle_sum =
queries:                      0

        for           row           in
matrix[top:bottom]:


            rectangle_sum      +=      sum
            (row[left:right])

        result.append(rectangle_s  return
um)                                result
```

Assuming that there are up to n rows and columns and up to m queries, we have m iteration steps, and at each step we perform

additions. Thus the time complexity

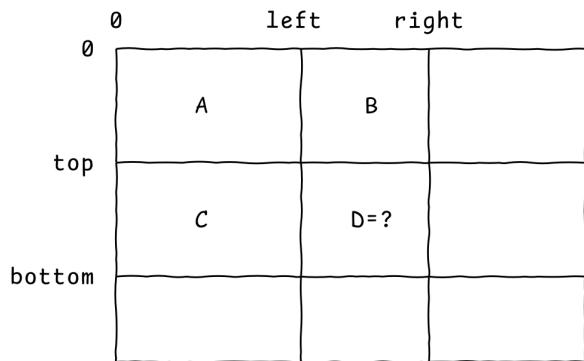
is

.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

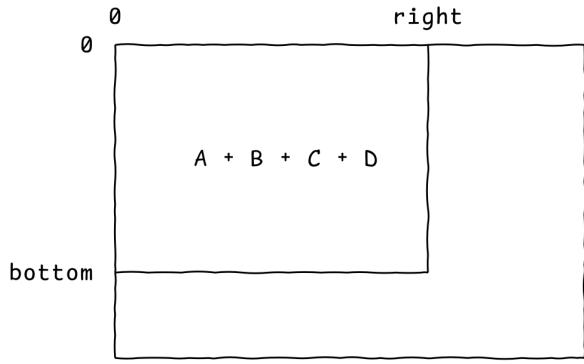
The brute-force solution makes a lot of redundant computations when the rectangles from different queries overlap.

We can compute rectangle sums efficiently if we precompute the sums of all the possible rectangles having top-left corner at $(0, 0)$. Consider an example:

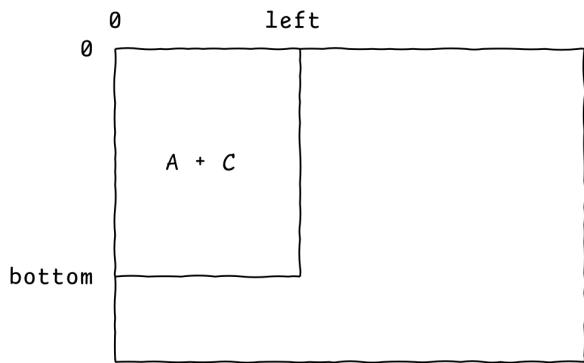


We need to answer the query $(\text{top}, \text{left}, \text{bottom}, \text{right})$. Thus we need to compute D from the figure. If we know the sums of the following rectangles having top-left corner at $(0, 0)$:

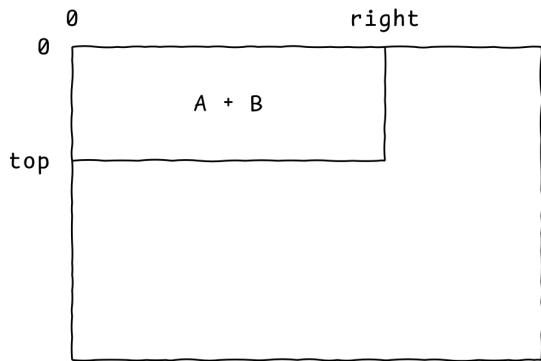
- $\text{sum}(0, 0, \text{bottom}, \text{right}) = A + B + C + D :$



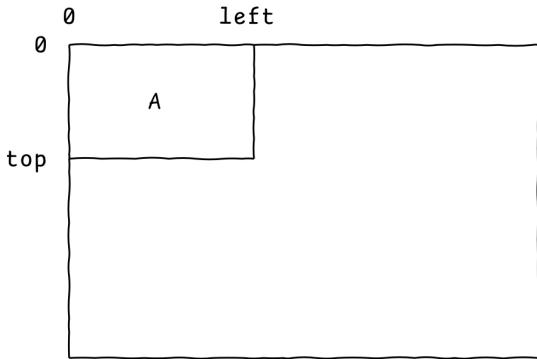
- $\text{sum}(0, 0, \text{bottom}, \text{left}) = A + C :$



- $\text{sum}(0, 0, \text{top}, \text{right}) = A + B :$



- $\text{sum}(0, 0, \text{top}, \text{left}) = A :$



Then we can compute D as `sum(0, 0, bottom, right) - sum(0, 0, bottom, left) - sum(0, 0, top, right) + sum(0, 0, top, left)`.

We store these sums in a matrix `prefix_sums` which is precomputed. We define `prefix_sums[row][col]` as the sum of the rectangle from $(0, 0, \text{row}, \text{col})$, open-ended, i.e. with indices up to `row-1` and `col-1` , for any `0 <= row <= num_rows` and `0 <= col <= num_cols` .

Let's take as example a very simple matrix:

`matrix`

1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	1

The procedure to compute `prefix_sums` is the following:

First, we initialize `prefix_sums` with 0. We reserve an extra row and column for queries of the form $(0, 0, \text{row}, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 0, \text{col})$:

`prefix_sums`

0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0

Then we add the elements of the matrix to the corresponding elements of `prefix_sums`:

`prefix_sums`

0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1

Then we compute running sums in place horizontally:

`prefix_sums`

0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	2	3	4	5
0	1	2	3	4	5
0	1	2	3	4	5
0	1	2	3	4	5
0	1	2	3	4	5

Finally, we compute running sums in place vertically:

prefix_sums	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	12	15
4	0	4	8	12	16	20
5	0	5	10	15	20	25

Let's consider a small example to check that it was computed correctly. We

answer the query $(1, 1, 4, 4)$, a square with sum 9. We compute it as $\text{sum}(0, 0, 4, 4) - \text{sum}(0, 0, 4, 1) - \text{sum}(0, 0, 1, 4) + \text{sum}(0, 0, 1, 1) = \text{prefix_sums}[4][4] - \text{prefix_sums}[4][1] - \text{prefix_sums}[1][4] + \text{prefix_sums}[1][1] = 16 - 4 - 4 + 1 = 9$, as expected.

We can implement this algorithm as:

```

num_rows      =      len
def rectangle_sum(matrix, queries): (matrix)

num_cols = len (matrix[0])
]

# prefix_sums[row][col] = Sum of the submatrix from (0, 0) to

# (row, col), open-ended, i.e. up to row-1 and

```

```

#           col-1 #           0 <= row <=
indices.                           num_rows,

#           0 <= col <=
num_cols.

# Initialize prefix_sums with
zeroes.

prefix_sums = [[0] * (num_cols + 1) for _ in range
(num_rows + 1)]

# Add the elements of the matrix to corresponding
elements

#       of for i in range
prefix_sums.      (num_rows):

for j in range
(num_cols):

    prefix_sums[i + 1][j + 1] +=
matrix[i][j]

# Compute prefix sums
horizontally.

for i in range for j in range
(num_rows):                  (num_cols):

    prefix_sums[i + 1][j + 1] += prefix_sums[i
+ 1][j]

```

```

# Compute prefix sums for i in range vertically.
for i in range(num_rows):

    for j in range(num_cols):
        prefix_sums[i + 1][j + 1] += prefix_sums[i][j + 1]

# Compute the query result =
results = []

for top, left, bottom, right in queries:

    # Ensure top <= bottom and left <=
    # right.

    bottom = max(bottom, right = max(right,
top)                               left)

    rectangle_sum = (prefix_sums[bottom]
[right] -

                  prefix_sums[bottom]           prefix_sums[top]
[left] -                               [right] +

                  prefix_sums[top]           result.append(rectangle_s
[right])                               um)

return
result

```

Computing the prefix sums takes
steps, and solving the queries takes m steps, so the time complexity is

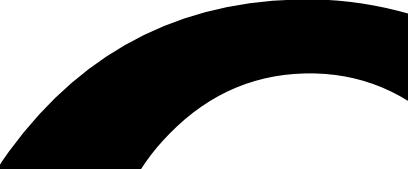
Unit tests

We propose several unit tests.

The first one tests the handling of a very simple example, to ease debugging in case of failure. For this, we use only the value 1 for all matrix elements.

We write a second test that uses distinct matrix elements, to ensure that the code is correct for general cases.

Finally, we write tests that cover edge cases, such as:

- 
- submatrix;
 - submatrix with height 0;
 - submatrix with width 0;
 - single-cell submatrix;
 - single-column submatrix;
 - single-row submatrix;
 - submatrix that is a full column of the matrix;
 - submatrix that is a full row of the matrix;
 - submatrix that equal to the whole matrix;
 - empty list of queries.

```
class TestRectangleSum(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_simple(self):
        matrix = [
            [1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
            [1, 1, 1, 1, 1],
            [1, 1, 1, 1, 1]
        ]
```

```

[1 , 1 , 1 , 1 , 1      [1 , 1 , 1 , 1 , 1
],                               ],
                                         ]
                                         (0 , 0 ,
self
.assertEqual(rectangle_sum(matrix,           [ 2 , 2 ),

(1 , 1 ,           (1 , 2 ,   ]           (1 + 1 +
4 , 4 ),           3 , 5 ),           ),   [ 1 + 1 ),

(1 + 1           1 + 1           1 + 1           (1 + 1
+ 1 +           + 1 +           + 1 ),           + 1 +


1 + 1 ]  def  test_2_simple(self  matrix =
+ 1 )       )  ):           [
[ 1 , 2 , 3 , 4      [ 6 , 7 , 8 , 9 ,
, 5 ],           10 ],

[11 , 12 , 13 , 14 ,      [16 , 17 , 18 , 19 ,
15 ],           20 ],

[21 , 22 , 23 , 24 ,
25 ],           ]

self
(0 , 0 ,
.assertEqual(rectangle_sum(matrix,           [ 2 , 2 ),

(1 , 1 ,           (1 , 2 ,   ]           (1 +       6 +
4 , 4 ),           3 , 5 ),           ),   [ 2 +       7 ),

(    7     +       12 + 13           17 + 18
8 + 9 +           + 14 +           + 19 ),,

```

```

        ( 8 + 13 + 14 ]
9 + 10 + + 15 ) )

```



```

def test_3_edge_cases(self matrix =
):
    [
        [ 1 , 2 , 3 , 4 [ 6 , 7 , 8 , 9 ,
, 5 ], 10 ],
        [11 , 12 , 13 , 14 , [16 , 17 , 18 , 19 ,
15 ], 20 ],
        [21 , 22 , 23 , 24 , # Empty
25 ], ] submatrix

```



```

    self (1 , 1 ,
.assertEqual(rectangle_sum(matrix, [ 1 , 1 ),
        (1 , 1 , (1 , 1 , (1 , 1 ,
2 , 1 ), 1 , 2 ), 0 , 0 ), ), [
0 0 0 ]
, , , 0 )

```



```

# Single-cell, single-column, single-row
submatrix

```



```

    self (2 , 1 ,
.assertEqual(rectangle_sum(matrix, [ 3 , 2 ),
        (2 , 1 , (2 , 1 , ] 12 12 +
4 , 2 ), 3 , 3 ), ), [ , 17 ,

```

```

    12 + ]      # Full-row, full-column, full-matrix
13 ,      ) submatrix

    self                                     (2 , 0 ,
.assertEqual(rectangle_sum(matrix,           [ 3 , 5 ),

        (0 , 2 ,          (0 , 0 ,   ]
5 , 3 ),          5 , 5 ),          ),  [
            11 + 12 + 13          3 + 8 + 13
+ 14 + 15 ,          + 18 + 23 ,

        25 * 26 ] # No
// 2 ,      ) queries

    self                                     []  [
.assertEqual(rectangle_sum(matrix,           ),  ])

```

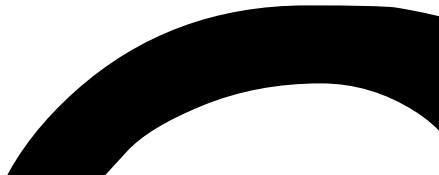
Largest square submatrix of ones

You are given a matrix where elements are either 0 or 1. Return the number of ones in the largest square-shaped region of the matrix which contains only ones.

Example:

```
matrix = [ [ 1 , 1 , 0 , 1 , 0
            [ 1 , 1 , 0 , 0 , 1 [ 0 , 1 , 1 , 1 , 0
        ],           ],           ],
            [ 0 , 1 , 1 , 1 , 0 [ 1 , 1 , 1 , 1 , 1
        ],           ]           ]
```

The answer is 9 for the top-left corner on the third row and second column.



square with

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the matrix be?

A: Up to 1000 rows/columns.

Q: What answer should be given if the matrix is empty?

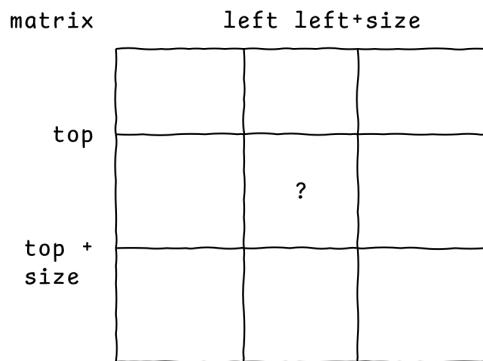
A: 0.

Q: Is a single 1 considered a square?

A: Yes.

Solution 1: brute-force,

The straightforward solution is to enumerate all the possible squares that contain only ones, computing the area for each one and keeping track of the maximum. We can enumerate all squares by first enumerating all the possible positions of their top-left corner, then iterating over all the possible sizes:



Suppose we write a helper function `square_has_only_ones(top, left, size)` to check if a square contains only ones. Then the search for the largest square can be written as:

```
def find_largest_square(matrix):

    def square_has_only_ones(top, left, ..
                           size):
        .
        .

    num_rows = len(matrix)
    num_cols = len(matrix[0])
```

```

largest = for top in range
0           (num_rows):

    for left in range
(num_cols):

        # Make sure we do not go past the edges of the
matrix.

        max_size = min (num_rows - top, num_cols
- left)

        for size in range (1 , max_size
+ 1 ):

            if square_has_only_ones(top,
left, size):

                largest = max (largest, size return
* size)                         largest

```

The helper function can be implemented as:

```

def find_largest_square(matrix):

    def square_has_only_ones(top,    left,
size):


        for row in range (top, top +
size):

```

```

    for col in range(left, left +
size):
        if matrix[row][col] == 0:
            return False
        return True
    ..

```

We also need to handle the special case of the empty matrix. Putting it all together:

```

def find_largest_square(matrix):
    if not matrix:
        return 0

    num_rows = len(matrix)
    num_cols = len(matrix[0])

    def square_has_only_ones(top, left, size):
        for row in range(top, top + size):
            for col in range(left, left + size):
                if matrix[row][col] == 0:
                    return False
                return True
        ..

```

```

for left in range
(num_cols):

    max_size = min (num_rows - top, num_cols
- left)

        for size in range (1 , max_size
+ 1 ):

            if square_has_only_ones(top,
left, size):

                largest = max (largest, size * size)
                                return largest

```

The time complexity is

due to the 5

nested loops that iterate up to



Solution 2: dynamic programming,

We can reduce complexity by checking if squares are filled with ones in a more efficient way. An idea is to do this incrementally:

s			
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

If we already checked that an  square is filled with ones, we can extend it by one row and column. We only have to check if the row and column are filled with ones to determine if the new larger square is also filled with ones. This reduces the complexity of checking that a new square is filled with ones from

to

However we can do better if we look at the structure of the larger square.

Any

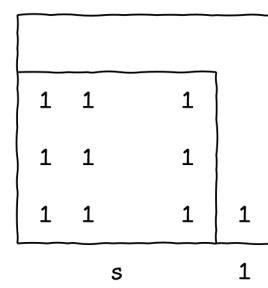
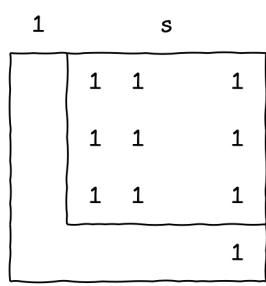
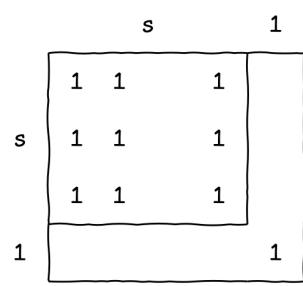


square contains three

overlapping



squares:



To check if an
ones, it is sufficient to:



square is filled with

- Check if the bottom-right corner contains a one;



square one row

- Check if the
above is filled with ones;



square one

- Check if the
column to the left is filled with ones;



square one row

- Check if the
above and one column to the left is filled with ones.

If the squares on rows above and on columns to the left have already been

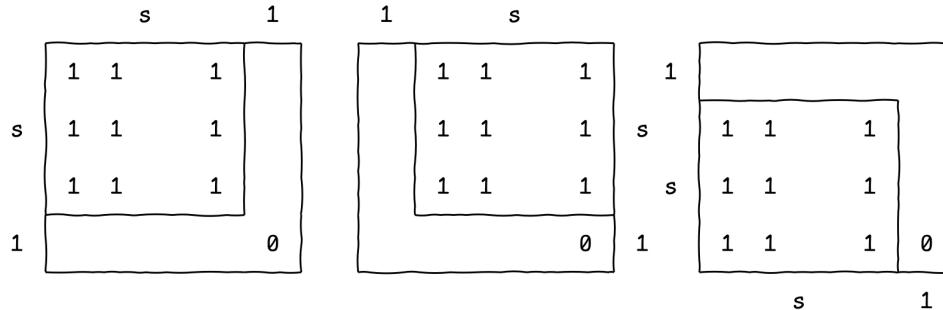
checked, we can check the



incrementally in just time.

We still have to decide how to handle the cases where some of the checks are failing.

If the bottom-right corner contains a zero, we cannot form a square filled with ones:



If one or more of the three smaller neighboring squares are not of the same size:

above-and-left size 2	above size 3	left size 3																																																
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In this case we cannot form a square of size 4 filled with ones, since the top-left corner contains a zero. However we can form a square of size 3:

0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

This is equivalent to growing incrementally squares of size 2:

above-and-left size 2	above size 3	left size 3																																																
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Given the above, let's refine the procedure:

- We iterate over the matrix elements row by row, column by column;
- If the current cell contains a zero, no square filled with ones can be formed there;
- If the current cell contains a one:
 - We read the size s_1 of the largest square with bottom-right corner above the cell;

- We read the size s_2 of the largest square with bottom-right corner to the left of the cell;
- We read the size s_3 of the largest square with bottom-right corner above and to the left of the cell;
- We compute the size of the largest square filled with ones that has bottom-right corner in the cell as $\min(s_1, s_2, s_3)$.

We can implement this as:

```

                if      not return
def find_largest_square(matrix): matrix:      0

    num_rows      =      len  num_cols = len (matrix[0
(matrix)           ])

    # largest_size[row][col] = size of the largest square
filled with ones

    #                                having bottom-right corner at
(row, col)

    largest_size = [[0 ] * len (row) for row in
matrix]

    largest  =  for      row      in      range
0          (num_rows):

        for      col      in      range      if matrix[row][col] ==
(num_cols):          0 :

            continue
            ue

```

```
        size_above = largest_size[row - 1][col] if
row else 0

        size_left = largest_size[row][col - 1] if
col else 0

        size_above_left = (largest_size[row - 1]
[col - 1]

        if row and col
else 0 )

        largest_size[row][col] = 1 + min size_
(size_above,
                           left,

        size_abo
ve_left)

        largest = max (largest,
largest_size[row][col])

    return largest * largest
```

The time complexity is $O(n^3)$. The space

complexity is $O(n^2)$ as well due to the additional matrix `largest_size` used to store square sizes. It is possible to

reduce space complexity to $O(n^2)$, since we only need to store the last row of `largest_size`.

Here is an example of `largest_size` computed for the sample input:

matrix	largest_size
1 1 0 1 0	1 1 0 1 0
1 1 0 0 1	1 2 0 0 1
0 1 1 1 0	0 1 1 1 0
0 1 1 1 0	0 1 2 2 0
1 1 1 1 1	1 1 2 3 1

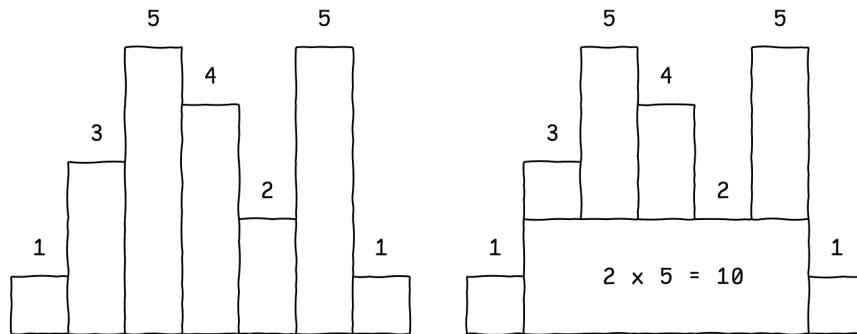
The largest cell of `largest_size` has value 3, giving a square size of 9.

Largest rectangle in skyline

You are given a skyline where all buildings are rectangular and have the same width. The skyline is encoded as an array of heights.

Return the area of the largest rectangle in the skyline that is covered by buildings.

Example: `skyline = [1, 3, 5, 4, 2, 5, 1]` . The largest rectangle has area 10:



Clarification questions

Q: How large can the array be?

A: Up to 100,000 rows/columns.

Q: What is the largest height?

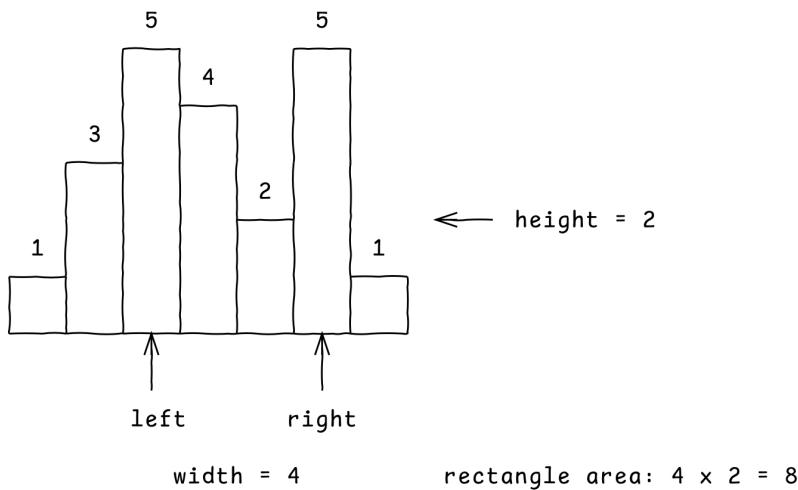
A: Up to 10,000.

Q: What answer should be given if the array is empty?

A: 0.

Solution 1: brute-force,

The simplest solution is to enumerate all possible rectangles, computing the area for each one and keeping track of the maximum. To enumerate all rectangles, we iterate over the left and right edge indices. We then need to compute the minimum height in `heights[left:right+1]` in order to compute the area of the rectangle:



This can be implemented as:

```
def find_largest_rectangle(skyline):  
  
    num_buildings      =      len largest  =  
    (skyline)           =          0  
  
    for      left      in      range  
    (num_buildings):
```

```
    for right in range(left,
num_buildings):

        # 0 <= left <= right < width = right - left
len(skyline)                                + 1

        height           =           min area = width *
(skyline[left:right+1])                      height

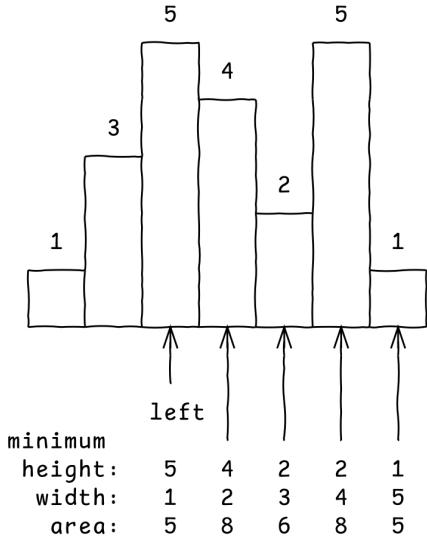
        largest = max (largest, return
area)                                         largest
```

The time complexity is , due to the two nested loops and the time needed to compute the minimum of a subarray at each step.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

We can reduce the time complexity of the previous solution if we reduce the amount of redundant computations we perform. Notice that for each value of `left`, we iterate to the right twice: once to advance the `right` index, and once again to compute `min(skyline[left:right+1])`.

We can reduce this to a single loop by computing the minimum height incrementally: we keep track of the minimum height seen so far in buildings starting from `left`:



This can be written as:

```

def find_largest_rectangle(skyline):

    num_buildings      =      len largest  =
(skyline)                      0

    for      left      in      range      height      =
(num_buildings):                  skyline[left]

    for      right     in      range     (left,
num_buildings):

        # 0 <= left <= right < width = right - left
        len(skyline)           + 1

        # Compute the new height
incrementally:

        height      =      min      (height,      area  =  width  *
skyline[right])                           height

        largest = max (largest, return
area)                                     largest

```

The time complexity is
nested loops.

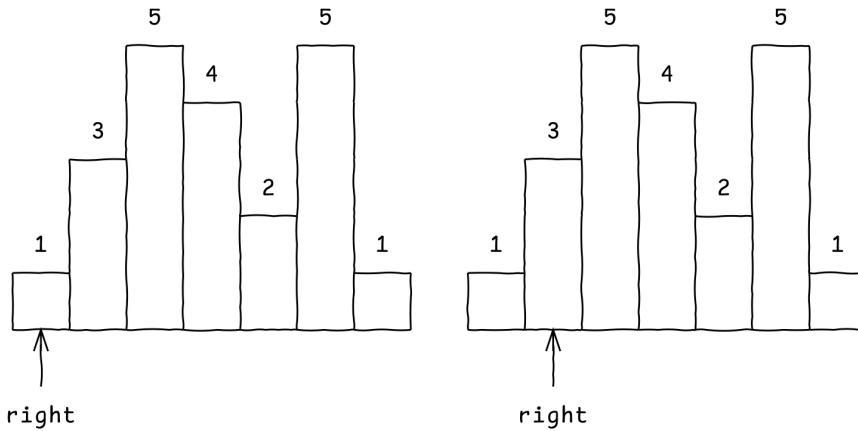
due to the two

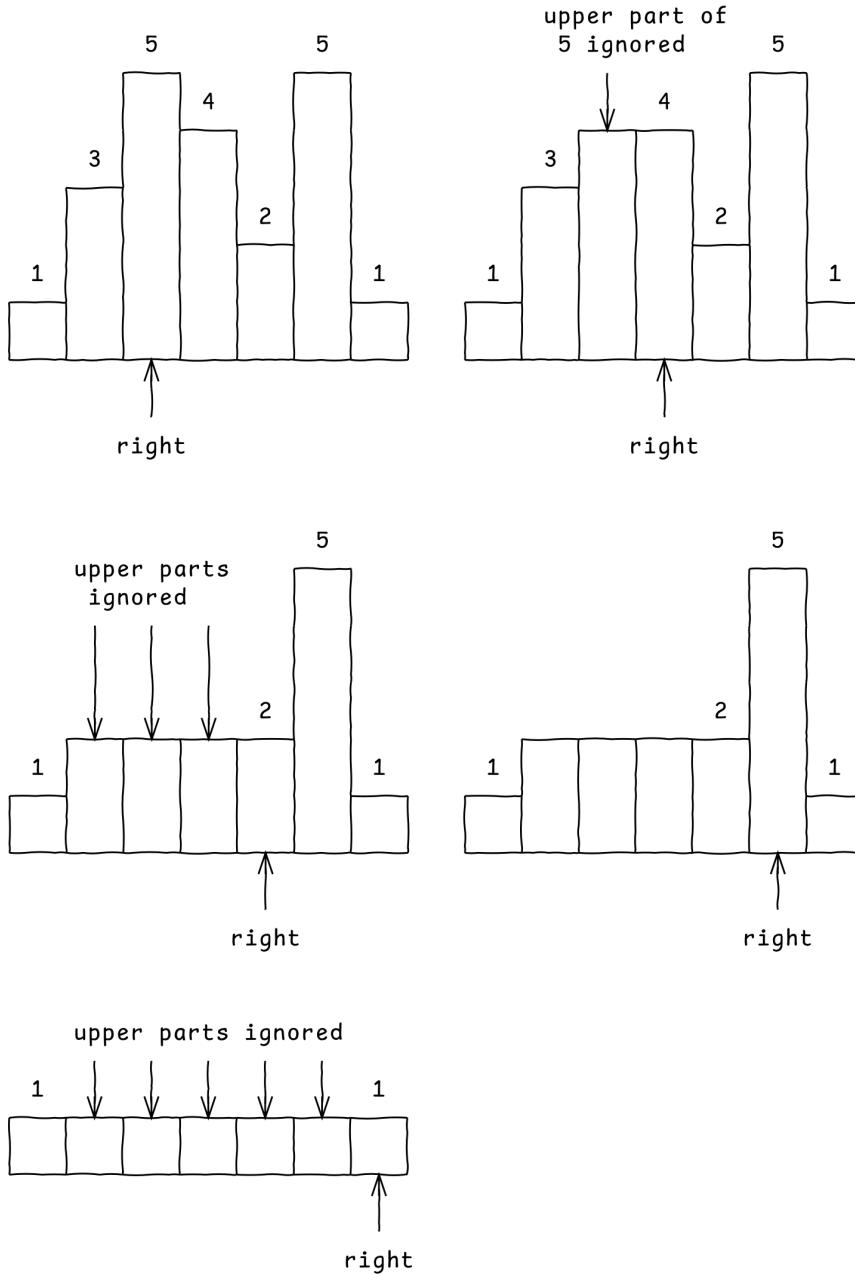
Solution 3: dynamic programming + stack,

▲

We can reduce the complexity further if we notice the following properties of the solution:

- Suppose we move the right pointer through the skyline. Any time the height increases we find a potentially taller rectangle;
- Any time the height decreases, taller buildings from the left cannot contribute to the current rectangle, so their upper parts can be ignored:

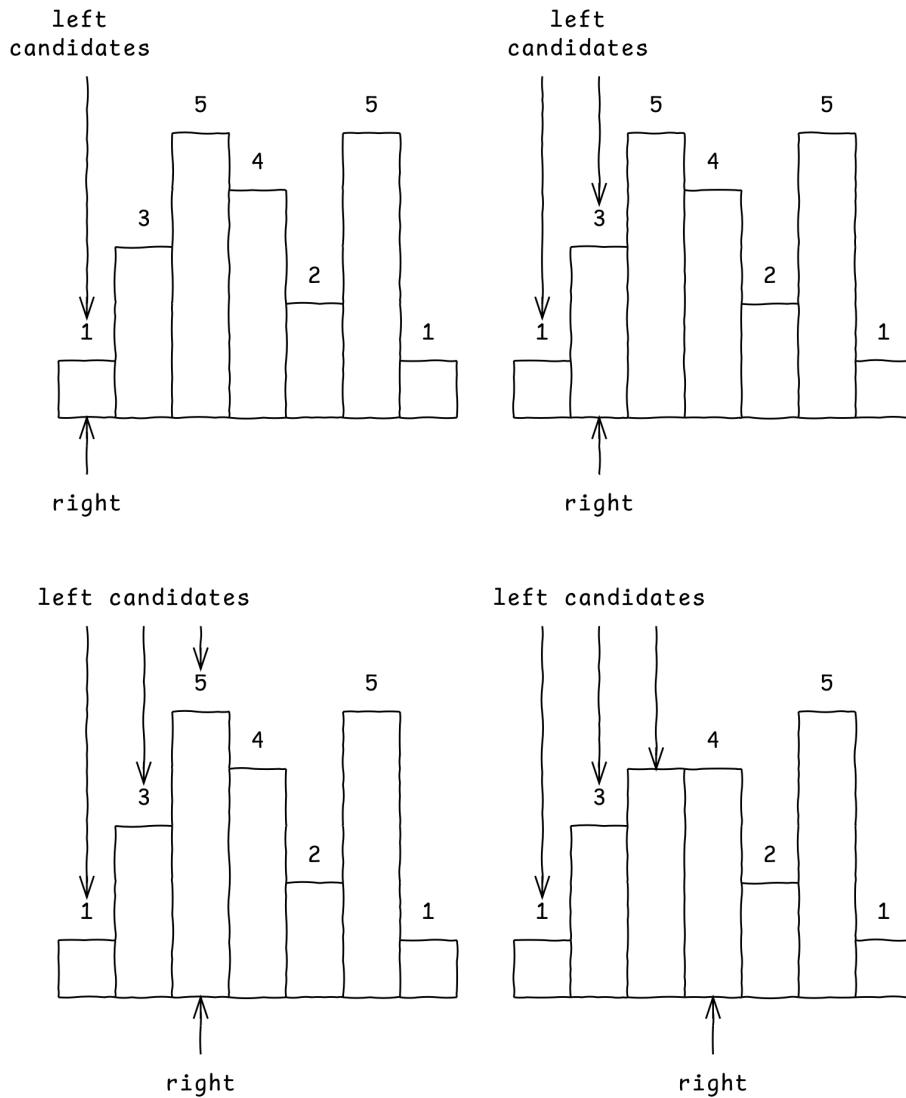




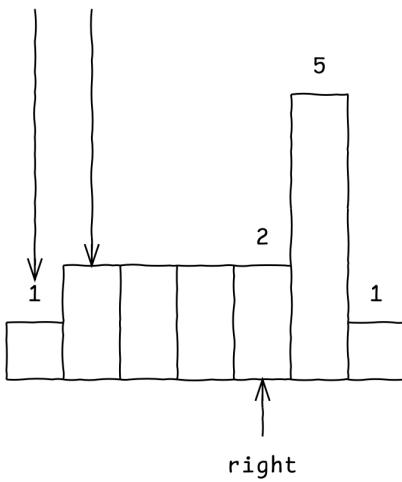
Based on this intuition, we can formulate the following solution:

- Iterate with the `right` pointer over the skyline.
- Every time the height increases, grow a list of candidate left pointers.
- When the height decreases, trim the left candidates and update the area on the fly.

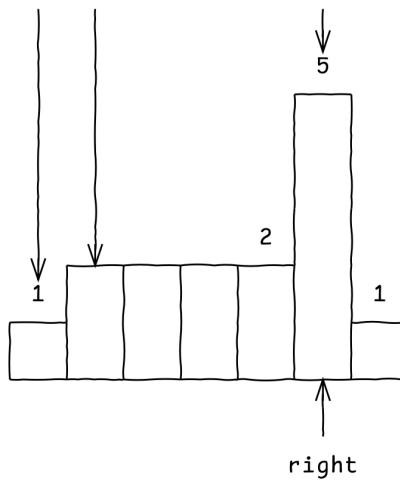
Let's see again the iteration as well as how the list of left candidates evolves:



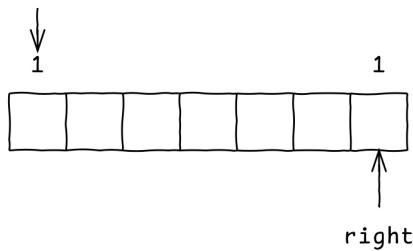
left candidates



left candidates



left candidates



Let's implement the code that manages the list of `left_candidates` :

```
import collections

def find_largest_rectangle(skyline):
    num_buildings = len(skyline)

    Candidate = collections.namedtuple('Candidate', ['index', 'height'])

    left_candidates = [for right in range(1, num_buildings):
```

```

    height          =
skyline[right]

    # Left pointer of the next candidate to be
created.

    next_left      =
right

    while left_candidates and left_candidates[-1 ].height
>= height:

        # TODO update
area

        # Possible next candidate by trimming down the
building.

        next_left = left_candidates[-1
].index

        del
left_candidates[-1 ]

        left_candidates.append(Candidate(index=
next_left,

        height= # TODO return
height))           result

```

We store each candidate as a named tuple with fields `index` and `height`. As we advance the right pointer, we remove left candidates taller than the

current building. We keep track of the last trimmed pointer so that we can replace the trimmed buildings with a shorter candidate.

The only thing that we need to do is to update the area. We have two choices: update the area when adding left candidates; or update it when removing left candidates. But when adding left candidates, we cannot do it, since we do not know yet the right pointer. So the only option left is to update it when removing left candidates.

Putting it all together, the code becomes:

```
import collections def find_largest_rectangle(skyline):  
  
    # Pad the skyline with zero, to avoid having to clean  
    up  
  
    # left_candidates at the end of the  
    # iteration.  
  
    skyline = skyline + [0 num_buildings = len  
    ] (skyline)  
  
    Candidate = collections.namedtuple('Candidate' , ['index'  
    , 'height'])  
  
    left_candidates = largest_area =  
    [] 0  
  
    for right in range height =  
    (num_buildings): skyline[right]  
  
        # Left pointer of the next candidate to be  
        # created.
```

```

    next_left      =
right

    while left_candidates and left_candidates[-1 ].height
>= height:

        #      Update
area.

        # We remove the rectangle starting at left
and ending

        #      at      right-1.      It      has      height
left_candidates[-1].height.

        left   =   left_candidates[-1]   width = right -
].index                               left

        area   =   width * left_candidates[-1
].height

        largest_area = max (largest_area,
area)

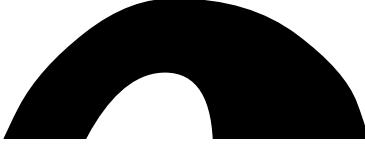
        # Possible next candidate by trimming down the
building.

        next_left      =   del
left           left_candidates[-1 ]

```

```
    left_candidates.append(Candidate(index=
next_left,
        height=      return
height))           largest_area
```

Although there are two nested loops, the list of `left_candidates` is changed

with no more than   appends/deletes during the entire execution of the algorithm. Thus the time complexity is

Largest submatrix of ones

You are given a matrix where elements are either 0 or 1.

Return the number of ones in the largest rectangular region in the matrix that contains only ones.

Example:

```
matrix = [[1, 1, 0, 1, 0],
          [1, 1, 1, 1, 1], [0, 1, 1, 1, 1],
          [0, 1, 1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1, 0, 1]]
```

The answer is 12 for the
with top-left corner at (1, 1).



rectangle

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the matrix be?

A: Up to 1,000 rows/columns.

Q: What answer should be given if the matrix is empty or if it does not contain ones?

A: 0.

Solution 1: brute-force,

We first note that a brute-force solution is straightforward:

- Iterate over all possible top-left corners;
 - For each one, iterate over all possible bottom-right corners;
 - Check if the rectangle contains only ones.

This can be implemented as:

```
def find_largest_rectangle(matrix):
    if not matrix:
        return 0

    num_rows = len(matrix)
    num_cols = len(matrix[0])

    def rectangle_has_only_ones(top, left, bottom, right):
        for row in range(top, bottom + 1):
            for col in range(left, right + 1):
```

```
    if matrix[row][col] == 0:
        return False
    return True

largest = for top in range(0, num_rows):
    for left in range(0, num_cols):
        for bottom in range(top, num_rows):
            for right in range(left, num_cols):
                if rectangle_has_only_ones(top, left, right):
                    width = right - left + 1
                    height = bottom - top + 1
                    area = width * height
                    largest = max(largest, area)
    return largest
```

Unfortunately the time complexity is a whopping

, which is too slow.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

We can reduce complexity by checking if rectangles are filled with ones in a more efficient way. An idea is to do this incrementally (similar to the problem of finding the largest square submatrix):

		width	
		1	1
height	1	1	1
	1	1	1
	1	1	1
	1	1	1

Unfortunately it is more complicated to extend rectangles than squares. For any bottom-right corner, there might be multiple rectangles, any of which could be extended onto the next row/column to form a larger rectangle:

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

It is too expensive to keep track of all the possible combinations. Therefore, we must find another strategy.

We consider instead smaller rectangles of width 1 (essentially, columns). Any rectangle can be formed by joining together columns of the same

height:

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

Columns can be computed incrementally vertically, row by row:

- Initially columns are formed by ones on the first row;
- When adding the other rows:
 - Each time we see a zero, we clear the column;
 - Each time we see a one, we extend the column.

For example:

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

← column sizes
0 1 0 1

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

← column sizes
1 2 1 2

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

column sizes

← 0 3 2 3

0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

column sizes

← 1 4 3 4

For each step, we try to join together adjacent columns, to form rectangles.

A possible idea is to use a pointer to iterate over columns:

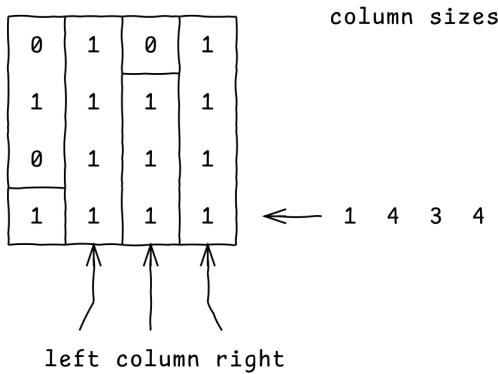
0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1

column sizes

← 1 4 3 4

↑
column

For the chosen column, we must find how far to the left and to the right we can extend it to form a rectangle. This can be done by comparing the heights of neighboring columns and extending as long as it is greater or equal than the height of the chosen column:



This algorithm can be implemented as:

```

        if          not return
def find_largest_rectangle(matrix): matrix:      0

    num_rows      =      len  num_cols = len (matrix[0
(matrix)           ])

    # column_heights[i] = height of i-th
    column

    column_heights = [0      ] * largest = 0
    num_cols

    for      row      in      range      #           Update
(num_rows):                           column_heights

        for      col      in      range      if matrix[row][col] ==
(num_cols):                      0 :

            #      Reset      column_heights[col      else
    column      ] = 0                      :

```

```

#      Extend      column_heights[col]
column        += 1

      # Find largest rectangle with lower edge on
      # the row

      for col in range height = column_heights[col]
(num_cols):

      # Find leftmost left = while (left - 1 >= 0
edge:           col and

                  column_heights[left-1 ] >= left -=
height):           1

      # Find rightmost right =
edge:           col

      while (right + 1 <
num_cols

                  and column_heights[right+1 ] >= right +=
height):           1

      # Compute rectangle's width = right - left
area           + 1

      area = width *      # Update maximum
height           overall

      largest = max (largest, return
area)           largest

```

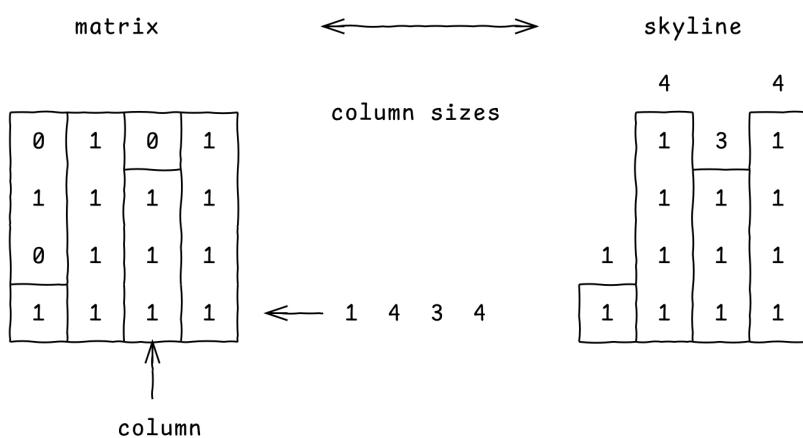
The time complexity is
three nested loops.

due to the

Solution 3: dynamic programming,

Notice that the step of finding the largest rectangle once we computed the column sizes is the same as the problem of finding the largest rectangle inside a skyline.

For example, the following are equivalent:



We can thus use the solution of the problem at each step, for an overall complexity of

:

```
                if         not return
def find_largest_rectangle(matrix): matrix:          0

    num_rows      =      len  num_cols = len (matrix[0]
(matrix)                  ])

    # column_heights[i] = height of i-th
    # column

    column_heights = [0      ] * largest = 0
    num_cols

    for row in range #           Update
(num_rows):           column_heights

        for col in range if matrix[row][col] == 0 :

            # Reset column_heights[col] else
            column      ] = 0           :

            # Extend column_heights[col]
            column      += 1

            # Find largest rectangle with lower edge on
            # the row
```

```
    area =  
find_largest_rectangle_skyline(column_heights)  
  
    # Update maximum largest = max (largest,  
overall           area)  
  
return  
largest
```

We will not repeat the code that implements `find_largest_rectangle_skyline` since it has been already solved and explained in the previous problem.

Interleaved strings

You are given two input strings and an output string. Check if the output string can be obtained by interleaving all the characters of the two input strings, maintaining the order in which they appear in the input strings.

Example 1: Given input strings "abc" and "def" , and output string "adbcef" , the output string can be obtained by interleaving in the following way:

- take character 'a' from the first string;
- take character 'd' from the second string;
- take characters 'b' and 'c' from the first string;
- take characters 'e' and 'f' from the second string.

Example 2: Given input strings "abc" and "def" , and output string "deabfc" , the output string can be obtained by interleaving in the following way:

- take characters 'd' and 'e' from the second string;
- take characters 'a' and 'b' from the first string;
- take character 'f' from the second string;
- take character 'c' from the first string.

Example 3: Given input strings "abc" and "def" , and output string "bacdef" , the output string cannot be obtained by interleaving. This is because characters 'b' and 'a' appear in the wrong order in the output string.

Example 4: Given input strings "abc" and "def" , and output string "aababcdef" , the output string cannot be obtained by interleaving. This is because there is an extra occurrence of 'a' in the output string.

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the strings be?

A: Up to 1,000 characters each.

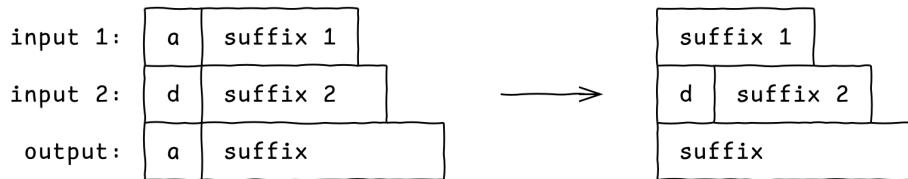
Q: What answer should be given if all strings are empty?

A: True.

Solution 1: brute-force,

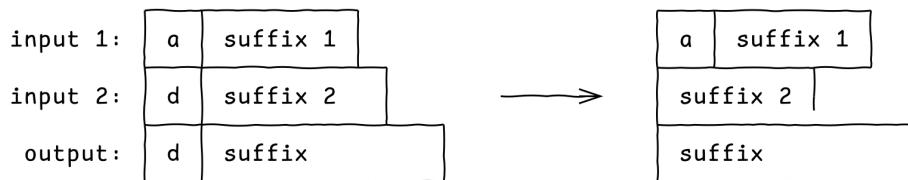
When the first characters of the input strings are distinct, it is straightforward to compute the interleaving. There are several cases:

- The output string starts with the first character of the first input string:



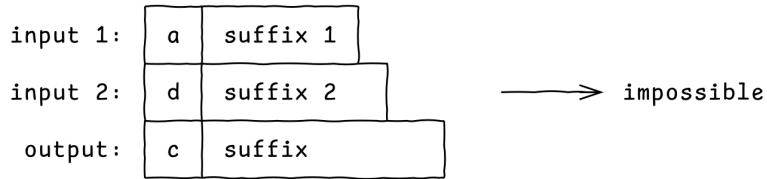
In this case we can consume the first character of the first input string and the first character of the output string, then continue the interleaving with the rest of the characters.

- The output string starts with the first character of the second input string:



In this case we can consume the first character of the second input string and the first character of the output string, then continue the interleaving with the rest of the characters.

- The output string does not start with the first character of either input string:



In this case we cannot form the output string by interleaving the input strings, so we can return the answer False.

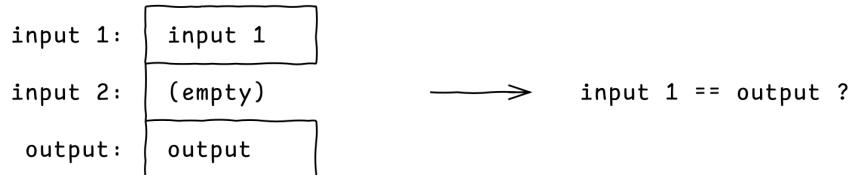
- The first input string is empty:



We consumed the first input string.

We have to check if the second input is equal to the output, since that is the only way to perform the rest of the interleaving.

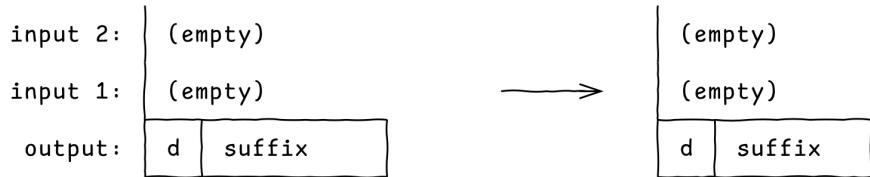
- The second input string is empty:



We consumed the second input string.

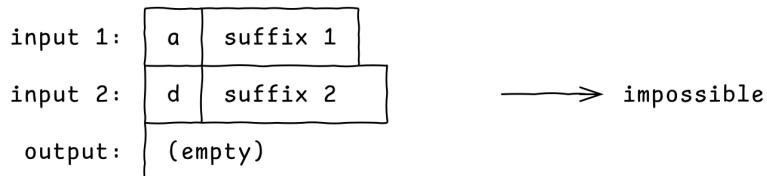
We have to check if the first input string is equal to the output string, since that is the only way to perform the rest of the interleaving.

- Both input strings are empty:



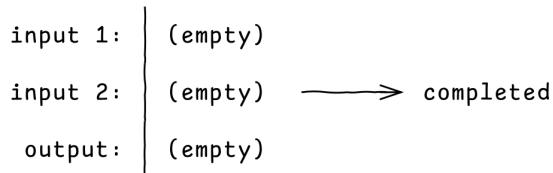
We consumed all characters from the input strings, but we still have to emit characters in the output string. This makes the interleaving impossible.

- The output string is empty:



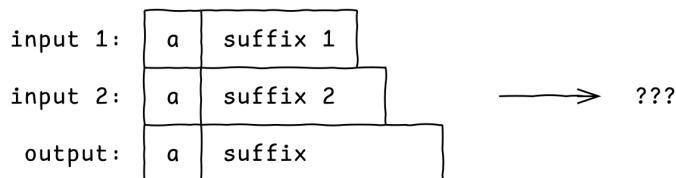
In this case the output string has more characters than the input strings taken together, so we cannot obtain it by interleaving.

- All strings are empty:



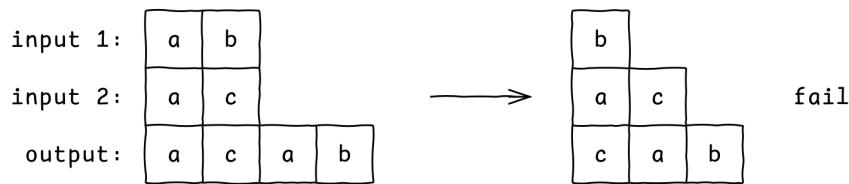
We consumed all characters from all three strings, in which case we return true, since the interleaving has been completed.

Unfortunately, there is one more case left in which the way to continue the interleaving is ambiguous:

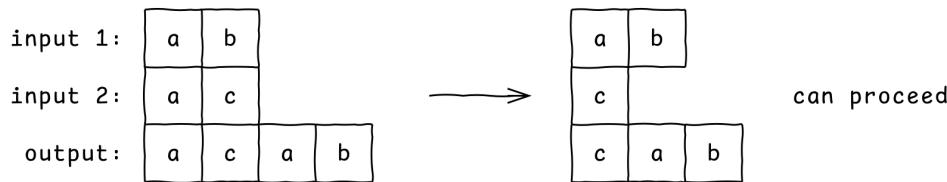


When the first character of both input strings are equal and match the first character of the output string, we do not know whether we should consume a character from the first input string or from the second one. Both choices are equally valid, but it is possible that only one of them may lead to a successful interleaving.

In the following example, if we consume 'a' from the first input string, we fail the interleaving:



However, if we consume it instead from the second input string, we can complete the interleaving:



Therefore, when the first character is the same in all three strings, we have no choice but to try both options.

This logic can be implemented as:

```
def can_interleave(input1, input2, output):

    def check(index_in1, index_in2,
index_out):

        if (index_in1 == len (input1)
and
```

```

    index_in2 == len index_out == len
(input2) and (output)):

        # We matched everything: interleaving return
        completed. True

        # We use string[i:i+1] to handle in one-shot also
empty strings.

        # If string is empty, then string[i:i+1] is also
empty.

        first_in1 =
input1[index_in1:index_in1+1 ]

        first_in2 =
input2[index_in2:index_in2+1 ]

        first_out =
output[index_out:index_out+1 ]

        if first_in1 == first_in2 == first_out:

            # We do not know which way to continue, try
both options:

            return (check(index_in1 + 1 , index_in2,
index_out + 1 ) or

                    check(index_in1, index_in2 + 1 ,
index_out + 1 ))

```

```

    if      first_in1      ==
first_out:

        # Consume the first character of
input 1.

        return  check(index_in1 + 1 , index_in2,
index_out + 1 )

    elif      first_in2      ==
first_out:

        # Consume the first character of
input 2.

        return  check(index_in1, index_in2 + 1 ,
index_out + 1 )

else          # First character mismatches in both
:           inputs.

    return      return check(0 , 0 , 0
False       )

```

The time complexity is due to the ambiguous check. For inputs where there are no ambiguous characters, the

running time is

.

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

The function `check(index_in1, index_in2, index_out)` takes three parameters, which are the current indices in the three strings.

The index in the output string is always the sum of the indices in the two input strings (due to the logic we use at each step to consume a character from exactly one of the inputs as well as consuming a character from the output).

Therefore, we can simplify the function call as `check(index_in1, index_in2)`.

The `check` function takes as parameters the two indices, which can take values from well defined intervals: `0 <= index_in1 <= len(input1)` , `0 <= index_in2 <= len(input2)` . So overall there can be only `len(input1) * len(input2)` different combinations of possible arguments in its calls.

Yet in the previous section we have seen that the time complexity of the

algorithm is , due to an exponential number of calls of the `check` function. Since the number of possible

arguments is only , this means that many of the calls are redundant.

In addition, the `check` function does not have any side effects: it does not change the contents of the strings. So it returns the same result when called repeatedly with the same arguments.

Therefore, we can simply cache the result of the function to achieve

complexity:

```
def can_interleave(input1, input2, output):

    @lru_cache (maxsize=None)
    def check(index_in1, index_in2):
        index_out = index_in1 + index_in2

        if (index_in1 == len (input1)
and
            index_in2 == len (input2) and
            index_out == len (output)):
```

```

        # We matched everything: interleaving return
completed.                                True

        # We use string[i:i+1] to handle in one-shot also
empty strings.

        # If string is empty, then string[i:i+1] is also
empty.

        first_in1                      =
input1[index_in1:index_in1+1]

        first_in2                      =
input2[index_in2:index_in2+1]

        first_out                      =
output[index_out:index_out+1]

        if first_in1 == first_in2 == first_out:
            # We do not know which way to continue, try
both options:

            return (check(index_in1 + 1,
index_in2) or

            check(index_in1,                  if first_in1 ==
index_in2 + 1 ))                     first_out:

            # Consume the first character of
input 1.

```

```
        return check(index_in1 + 1 ,  
index_in2)  
  
    elif first_in2 ==  
first_out:  
  
        # Consume the first character of  
input 2.  
  
        return check(index_in1, else  
index_in2 + 1 ) :  
  
        # First character mismatches in both return  
inputs. False  
  
    return check(0 , 0  
)
```

Regular expression matching

Check if a string matches a regular expression. The regular expression language must implement the '.' and '*' operators:

- '.' matches any character;
- '*' causes the matching rule before it to be applied any number of times (including zero).

Examples:

- "abc" matches the regular expression "abc" ;
- "abc" matches the regular expression "a.c" ;
- "abbc" matches the regular expression "ab*c" ;
- "ac" matches the regular expression "ab*c" ;
- "ac" matches the regular expression "a.*c" ;
- "abcd" matches the regular expression "a.*d" .

Clarification questions

Q: How large can the inputs be?

A: Both the input string and the regular expression can have up to 100 characters.

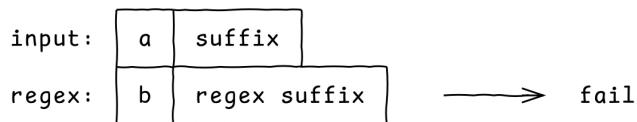
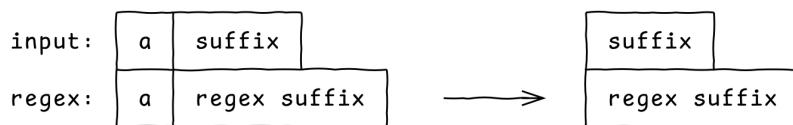
Q: How should we handle invalid regular expressions? For example, '*' or 'a**' .

A: You may choose to handle errors if you wish, but it is optional.

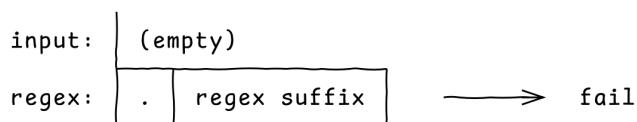
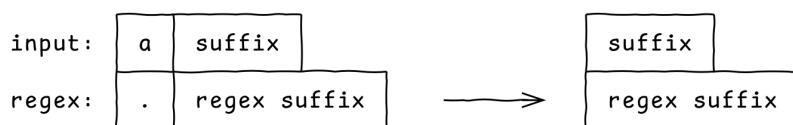
Solution 1: brute-force,

Let's look at how regular expression rules work with a few examples:

- When the regular expression starts with a character that is not followed by '*' , we must consume a character from the input if possible, while at the same time consuming the character from the regular expression:



- When the regular expression starts with a '.' that is not followed by '*' , we must consume a character from the input if possible, while at the same time consuming the '.' from the regular expression:



- When the input string and the regular expression are both empty, we have a match:

input:	(empty)
regex:	(empty)

—————> pass

- When the regular expression is empty and the input string is not empty, we fail the match:

input:	a
regex:	(empty)

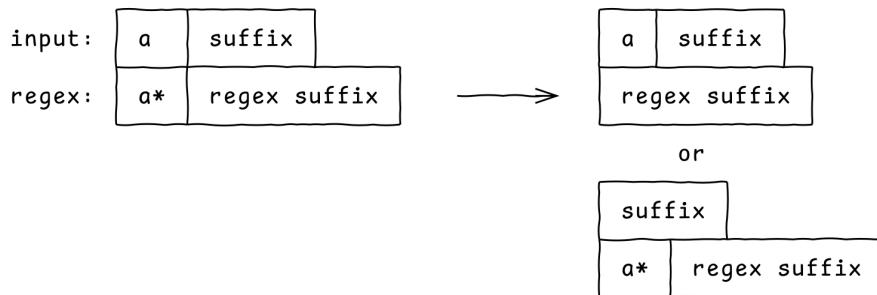
—————> fail

- When the input string is empty and the regular expression starts with a character, we fail the match:

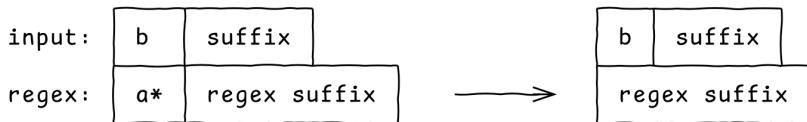
input:	
regex:	a regex suffix

—————> fail

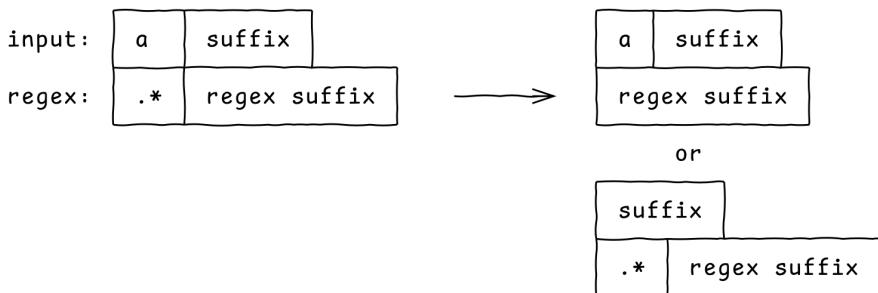
- When the regular expression starts with a character followed by '*' , we do not know how many occurrences of that character we should consume. So we have no choice but to try all possible options. We can reduce these to either consuming the regex prefix without consuming a character, or consuming a character (if it is matching) without consuming the regex prefix:



However when the input does not match, there is a single option, consuming the regular expression prefix:



- When the regular expression starts with '`.*`' , we have two options: consume the regular expression prefix without consuming anything from the string, or consume the first character of the string without consuming the regular expression prefix:



These rules can be implemented recursively with a helper function `match` that takes as parameters the offset in the input string and the offset in the regular expression:

```

def regex_match(s, regex):
```

TODO : implement helper parse_regex() to split regex into atomic parts

TODO : implement helper match_no_star() to check simple prefix match

```

    regex_tokens = def match(i_string,
        parse_regex()           i_regex):
```

```

        """ Checks if it is possible to match s[i_string:]
            with
```

```

    regex_tokens[i_regex] """
:].
                    """

    if i_string == len(s) and i_regex == len(regex_tokens):
        # We found a return
        match.           True

    if i_string < len(s) and i_regex == len(regex_tokens):
        # We cannot consume any more string return
        characters.      False

    # prefix = either the i_string-th
    character or

    #           the empty string (when we reach the end of
    # the string).
    prefix          =
s[i_string:i_string+1]

    regex_token          =
regex_tokens[i_regex]

    if regex_token[-1] !=
'*' :

        # Handle a token like 'a' or
        '.'.

```

```
# Consume 1 chars and the regex token.

    if           match_no_star(prefix,
regex_token):

        return  match(i_string + 1 , return
i_regex + 1 )                         False

else      # Handle a token like 'a*' or
:       '.*'.


# Try to consume 0 chars and the regex token.

    if match(i_string, i_regex + 1 ):          True

        # Try to consume 1 char, do not consume the regex token.

            # This is because we might want to use the token again to

# consume more chars.

    if           match_no_star(prefix,
regex_token[0 ]):
```

```

    return match(i_string + 1 , return
i_regex)                                False

return match(0 , 0
)

```

Let's implement the helper function that parses the regular expression:

```

def          """
parse_regex():      "

    Parse the regex into a list of tokens, each like
one of:

- - - - -      ""      tokens = for c in
'a' '.' 'a*' '.*' "  []           regex:

if c == '*'      if not tokens or tokens[-1][-1]
:                == '*' :

    raise ValueError ('* must be preceded by
character' )

tokens[-1] += else      tokens.append return
'*'                 :      (c)                  tokens

```

And here is the helper function that checks a simple prefix match:

```

def           match_no_star(c, """
regex_token):                      """

    Match a character to a regex_token that does not contain '*'.

    Handles also c == "" assert len(regex_token) == 1

    if  regex_token == '.':

        # Any character matches '.'. The empty string does not.

    return len(c)  # Match a character with another.
    == 1

    return c == regex_token

```

Let's perform the complexity analysis of the `match` function. For regular expressions without stars, the function advances in tandem the indices in the input string and the regular expression, so the running time is

, where $n = \max(\text{len}(s), \text{len}(\text{regex}))$.

However, for regular expressions containing the star operator, it may make up to 2 calls at each step, which causes the time complexity to reach

Solution 2: dynamic programming,

The `match(i_string, i_regex)` function takes as arguments the two indices, which can take values from well defined intervals: `0 <= i_string <= len(s)` , `0 <= i_regex <= len(regex_tokens)` . Overall, there can be only `len(s) * len(regex_tokens)` , thus

, different combinations of possible inputs.

Yet in the previous section we have seen that the time complexity of the

algorithm is , due to a potentially exponential number of calls of the `check` function on certain inputs. Since the

number of possible arguments is only , many of the calls are redundant.

For example, for the input string "aaaxyz" and regular expression "a*a*a*a*a*xyq" , there are a lot of different ways to reach the call that checks the match between "xyz" and "xyq" .

We must eliminate the redundant calls to reduce the time complexity. This can be achieved simply by caching the results. In this way, we guarantee

that no more than calls of the function are executed, reducing complexity to

2

```
from functools import lru_cache def regex_match(s, regex):  
  
    def parse_regex(): """  
        ...  
    return parse_regex()
```

Parse the regex into a list of tokens, each like one of:

```
-      -      -      -      ""  tokens = for c in
'a'  '.'  'a*'  '.*'  "  []           regex:
```

```
if c == '*'      if not tokens or tokens[-1][-1]
:                == '*' :
```

```
raise ValueError ('* must be preceded by
character' )
```

```
tokens[-1] += else tokens.append return
'*'          :      (c)             tokens
```

```
def          match_no_star(c, """
regex_token):           "
```

Match a character to a regex_token that does not contain ''.*

*Handles also c == "" assert len (regex_token)
'.'. " == 1*

```
if regex_token ==
'.' :
```

*# Any character matches '.'. The empty string
does not.*

```
return len (c) # Match a character with
== 1           another.
```

```

    return      c      ==  regex_tokens          =
regex_token           parse_regex()

@lru_cache (maxsize=10000  def          match(i_string,
)                  i_regex):


"""
"""

Checks if it is possible to match s[i_string:] to tokens[i_regex:].

"""
    if (i_string == len (s)
" and

        i_regex == len # We found a
(regex_tokens)):

    return      if      i_regex ==      len
True       (regex_tokens):

        # We cannot consume any more string return
characters.                                False

        # Prefix is either the i_string-th
character or

        # the empty string when we reach the end of the
string.

prefix          =
s[i_string:i_string+1 ]

```

```

    token                  = if token[-1] != '*'
regex_tokens[i_regex]      :

    # Handle a token like 'a' or
    '.'.

    # Consume 1 chars and the regex
    token.

    if      match_no_star(prefix,
token):

        return  match(i_string + 1 , return
i_regex + 1 )                         False

    else      # Handle a token like 'a*' or
:      '.*'.

    # Try to consume 0 chars and the regex
    token.

    if match(i_string, i_regex + return
1 ):                                True

        # Try to consume 1 char, do not consume the
        regex token.

        # This is because we might want to use the token
        again to

        # consume more      elif      match_no_star(prefix,
chars.                      token[0 ]):

```

```
        return match(i_string + 1 ,  return  
i_regex)                                False  
  
    return match(0 ,  0  
)
```

Unit tests

We propose the following unit tests:

- Simple tests that check matching with regular expressions containing only regular characters and wildcards (no stars);
- Tests that check matching with regular expressions containing a character star;
- Tests that check matching with regular expressions containing a '.*'
- Tests that check matching with regular expressions containing multiple stars;
- A performance test that uses large, problematic inputs.

```
class TestRegexMatching(unittest.TestCase):

    def test_1_simple(self):
        self.assertTrue(regex_match('abc'      ,
'abc' ))
        self.assertTrue(regex_match('abc'      ,
'a.c' ))
        self.assertTrue(regex_match('abc'      ,
'...' ))
        self.assertFalse(regex_match('abx'     ,
'abc' ))
        self.assertFalse(regex_match('abx'     ,
'a.c' ))
```



```
    self.assertFalse(regex_match('ba'      ,
'b*' ))  
  
  
def test_3_star_dot(self):  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('ac'      ,
'a.*c' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('abc'     ,
'a.*c' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('abbc'   ,
'a.*c' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('abxc'   ,
'a.*c' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('abcc'   ,
'a.*c' ))  
  
    self.assertFalse(regex_match('ax'     ,
'a.*c' ))  
  
  
def test_4_multiple_stars(self):  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match(''       ,
'a*b*c*' ))
```

```
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('a'      ,
'a*b*c*' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('ab'     ,
'a*b*c*' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('abc'   ,
'a*b*c*' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('xabcy' ,
'xa*b*c*y' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('zabcy' ,
'.a*b*c*y' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('xabcy' ,
'x.*.*y' ))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match(''       ,
'x*.*.*.*y*' ))  
  
    self.assertFalse(regex_match('xabcz' ,
'x.*.*y' ))  
  
  
def test_5_perf(self n      =
):  
    100  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('a' * n, 'a*' * n))  
  
    self.assertTrue(regex_match('a' * n, '.*' * n))
```

```
    self.assertFalse(regex_match('a' * n + 'x' , 'a*' * n  
+ 'y' ))  
  
    self.assertFalse(regex_match('a' * n + 'x' , '.*' * n  
+ 'y' ))
```