

[Chapter 3]DynamicProgramming



Dynamic Programming

- An instance of a problem into <u>one or more</u> smaller instances, like DAC
 - Solve small instances first.
 - Store the results.
 - Reuse the stored results, instead of re-computing.
- Bottom-up approach, unlike DAC.
 - Establish a recursive property that gives the solution to an instance of the problem.
 - Solve an instance of a problem in a bottom-up fashion by solving smaller instances first.

The Binomial Coefficient

Pascal's Triangle

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} & \text{if } 0 < k < n \\ 1 & \text{if } k = 0 \text{ or } k = n \end{cases}$$

Algorithm 3.1 Binomial Coefficient using Divideand-Conquer

```
Problem: Compute the binomial coefficient \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}
Inputs: nonnegative integers n and k, where k \le n.

Outputs: bin, the binary coefficient of n and k.

void bin (int n, int k) {

if (k == 0 // n == k)

return 1;

else

return bin(n-1, k-1) + bin(n-1, k);
}
```



Time Complexity for Algorithm 3.1

Basic operation: the number of terms to compute.

Input size: n k.

$$T(n,k) = 2 \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} - 1$$
Induction:

Proof by Induction:

Proof by Induction

$$T(n,k) = 2 \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} - 1$$

Induction Basis: If n = 1, $2 \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} - 1 = 2 \times 1 - 1 = 1$

Induction Hypothesis: Suppose the above formula is true.

Induction Step: Compute $\binom{n+1}{k}$.

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix} - 1 + 2 \begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} - 1 + 1$$

$$= 2 \left(\frac{n!}{(k-1)! (n-k+1)!} + \frac{n!}{k! (n-k)!} \right) - 1$$

$$= 2 \left(\frac{n!(k+n+1-k)}{k!(n+1-k)!} \right) - 1$$

$$= 2 \left(\frac{n!(n+1)}{k!(n+1-k)!} \right) - 1$$

$$= 2 \left(\frac{(n+1)!}{k!(n+1-k)!} \right) - 1$$

$$= 2 \begin{bmatrix} n + 1 \\ k \end{bmatrix} - 1$$



Dynamic Programming for Binomial Coefficient

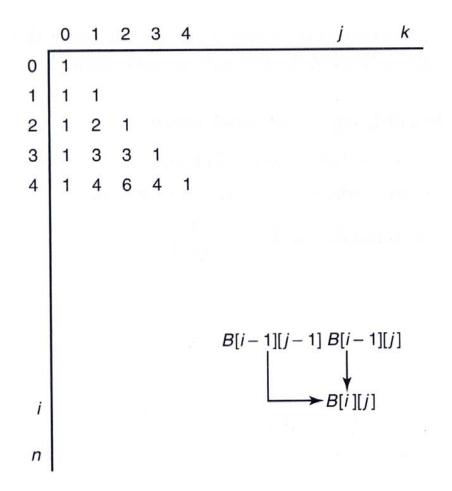
Establish a recursive property

$$B[i][j] = \begin{cases} B[i-1][j-1] + B[i-1][j] & \text{if } 0 < j < i \\ 1 & \text{if } j = 0 \text{ or } j = i \end{cases}$$

- Solve an instance in a bottom-up fashion
 - Solve, store and keep going until we get to the point by reusing the stored results.
 - See Fig. 3.1



Figure 3.1 The array *B* used to compute the binomial coefficient.





Algorithm 3.2 Binomial Coefficient using Dynamic Programming

```
Problem: Compute the binomial coefficient
Inputs: nonnegative integers n and k, where k \le n.
Outputs: bin2, the binary coefficient of n and k.
void bin2 (int n, int k) {
   index i, j;
   int B[0..n][0..k];
   for ( i = 0; i \le n; i++)
         for (j = 0; j \le min(i, k); j++)
           if (j == 0 || j == i) B[i][j] = 1;
            else B[i][j] = B[i-1][j-1] + B[i-1][j];
    return B[n][k];
```



Time Complexity for Algorithm 3.2

Basic operation: the number of terms to compute.

Input size: n k.

$$1+2+3+\dots+k+(k+1)+\dots+(k+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}+(n-k+1)(k+1)$$
$$= \frac{(2n-k+2)(k+1)}{2} \in \Theta(nk)$$

Jery good!!!



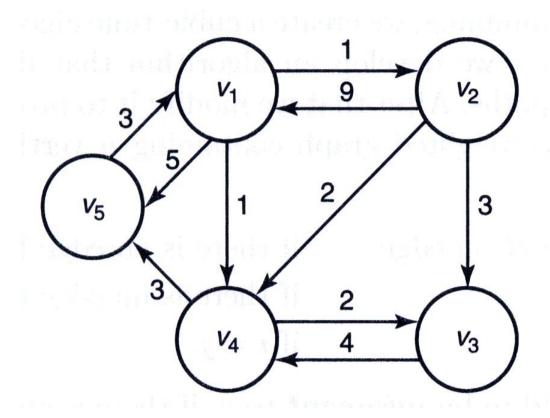
Graph Theory

Glossary

- Graph consists of two elements: G = (V, E).
- E is a set of edges. Every edge has two endpoints in V.
- If an edge in E can be defined as a set of ordered pairs, G is a directed graph or digraph in short.
- If the edges have values associated with them, the values are called weights and G is a weighted graph.
- In a digraph, a path is a sequence of vertices such that there is an edge from each vertex to its successor.
- A path from a vertex to itself is called a cycle.
- If G contains a cycle, G is cyclic, otherwise, it is acyclic.
- A path is simple, if it never passes through the same vertex twice.
- A *length* of a path in a weighted graph is the sum of the weights on the path.



Example: A weighted, directed graph.





Floyd's algorithm for Shortest Paths Problem

Problem: Compute the shortest paths from each vertex in a weighted graph to each of the other vertices.

Inputs: A weight digraph and *n*, the number of vertices. W[*i*][*j*] is the weight on the edge from the *i*-th vertex to the *j*-th vertex.

Outputs: A two dimensional array D, which has both its rows and columns indexed from 1 to n, where D[*i*][*j*] is the length of a shortest path from the *i*-th vertex to the *j*-th vertex.

The shortest paths problem is **an optimization problem**, which is to find a solution with an optimal value among multiple solutions to an instance of a problem.



Brute-force algorithm for Shortest Paths

Strategy

 Find all possible paths, compute their lengths, and select the path with a minimal length.

Analysis

- Suppose there are n vertices in the graph.
- The total number of paths from v_i to v_j is (n-2)!.
- This is much worse than exponential.
- Our goal is to find a more efficient algorithm.
 - Let's apply DP strategy instead.
 - The DP algorithm for SP is formed by Robert Floyd in 1962.
 - But it is essentially same as the algorithm by Bernard Roy in 1959, and by Stephen Warshall in 1962. for finding a transitive closure.
 - Floyd-Warshall algorithm.



Dynamic Programming Strategy for Shortest Paths

Adjacency matrix representation

$$W[i][j] = \begin{cases} weight & \text{If there is an edge from } v_i \text{ to } v_j \\ \infty & \text{If there is no edge from } v_i \text{ to } v_j \\ 0 & \text{If } i = j. \end{cases}$$

Distance matrix for establishing recursive property

$$D^{(k)}[i][j] = \{v_1, v_2, ..., v_k\}$$

Length of a shortest path from v_i to v_j using only vertices in the set $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_k\}$

as intermediate vertices.



Designing an algorithm for Shortest Paths

Establish a recursive property

$$D^{(k)}[i][j] = minimum(\underbrace{D^{(k-1)}[i][j]}_{Case\ 1}, \underbrace{D^{(k-1)}[i][k] + D^{(k-1)}[k][j]}_{Case\ 2})$$

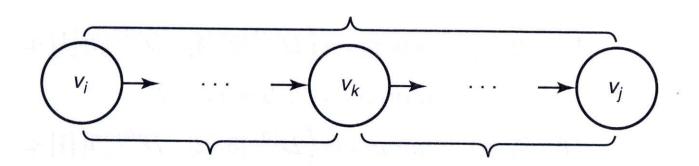
• Case 1: At least one shortest path from v_i to v_j , using only vertices in $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_k\}$ as intermediate vertices, does not use v_k . Then $D^{(k)}[i][j] = D^{(k-1)}[i][j]$.

• (e.g.)
$$D^{(5)}[1][3] = D^{(4)}[1][3] = 3$$

• Case 2: All shortest paths from v_i to v_j , using only vertices in $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_k\}$ as intermediate vertices, do use v_k .



Case 2: The shortest path uses V_k.



$$D^{(k)}[i][j] = D^{(k-1)}[i][k] + D^{(k-1)}[k][j]$$

Figure 3.3 W represents the graph in Figure 3.2 and D contains the lengths of the shortest paths. Our algorithm for the Shortest Paths problem computes the values in D from those in W.

	-	2		A STATE OF THE STA	STATE OF THE PARTY		1	2	3	4	5
1	0	\; .1 :	∞	1	5	. 1	0	1	3	1	4
2	9	0	3	2	∞	2	8	0	3	2	5
3	∞	∞	0	4	00	3	10	11	0	4	7
4	∞	œ	2	0	3	4	6	0 11 7	2	0	3
		00		00	0	5	3	4	6	4	0
			W						D		

Floyd's algorithm I

Algorithm

Every-Case Time Complexity

$$T(n) = n \times n \times n = n^3 \in \Theta(n^3)$$



Floyd's algorithm II

- Problem: Same as in Floyd's algorithm I, except shortest paths are also created.
- Additional outputs: an array P, which has both its rows and columns indexed from 1 to n, where

$$P[i][j] = \begin{cases} & \text{Highest index of an intermediate vertex on the} \\ & \text{shortest path from } v_i \text{ to } v_j, \text{ if at least one intermediate} \\ & \text{vertex exists.} \\ & \text{0, if no intermediate vertex exists.} \end{cases}$$

Floyd's algorithm II

```
void floyd2(int n, const number W[][],
        number D[][], index P[][]) {
   index i, j, k;
   for(i=1; i <= n; i++)
     for(j=1; j \le n; j++)
         P[i][j] = 0;
   D = W;
   for (k=1; k \le n; k++)
     for(i=1; i \le n; i++)
        for(j=1; j<=n; j++)
          if (D[i][k]+D[k][j] < D[i][j]) {
              P[i][j] = k;
              D[i][j] = D[i][k] + D[k][j];
```



Figure 3.5 The array *P* produced when Algorithm 3.4 is applied to the graph on Figure 3.2.

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	0	4	0	4
2	5	0	0	0	4
3	5	5	0	0	4
 2 3 4 5 	5	5	0	0	0
5	0	1	4	1	0

Print Shortest Path

```
void path(index q,r) {
   if (P[q][r] != 0) {
       path(q,P[q][r]);
       cout << " v" << P[q][r];
       path(P[q][r],r);
(e.g.) Using P, solve path(5, 3)
        path(5,3) = 4
            path(5,4) = 1
                path(5,1) = 0
                v1
                path(1,4) = 0
            \nabla 4
            path(4,3) = 0
 Result: v1 v4.
      I.e., the shortest path from v_5 to v_3 is v_5, v_1, v_4, v_3.
```

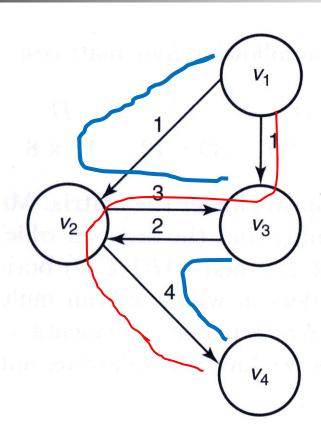


The Principle of Optimality

- The principle of optimality is said to apply in a problem if an optimal solution to an instance of a problem always contains optimal solutions to all substances.
 - Although it may seem that any optimization problem can be solved using dynamic programming, this is not the case.
 - The principle of optimality must apply in the problem.
- Longest Paths problem is to find the longest simple paths from each vertex to all other vertices.
 - Can we solve the problem using dynamic programming?



Figure 3.6 A weighted, directed graph with a cycle.



Chained Matrix Multiplication

- In general, to multiply an $i \times j$ matrix times a $j \times k$ matrix using the standard method, it is necessary to do $i \times j \times k$ elementary multiplications.
- (e.g.) $A_1 \times A_2 \times A_3$.
 - Suppose A_1 is 10×100 , A_2 is 100×5 , and A_3 is 5×50 .
 - $(A_1 \times A_2) \times A_3$ $10 \times 100 \times 5 + 10 \times 5 \times 50 = 7,500$
 - $A_1 \times (A_2 \times A_3)$ $100 \times 5 \times 50 + 10 \times 100 \times 50 = 75,000$

Chained Matrix Multiplication

Brute-force algorithm

- Consider all possible orders and take the minimum.
- Let t_n be the number of different orders in which we can multiply n matrices: $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$.
- $(A_1 ... A_{n-1}) A_n$ will have t_{n-1} different orders.
- $A_1 (A_2 ... A_n)$ will have t_{n-1} different orders.
- In other words, $t_n \ge t_{n-1} + t_{n-1} = 2 t_{n-1}$ and $t_2 = 1$.
- Therefore, $t_n \ge 2t_{n-1} \ge 2^2t_{n-2} \ge ... \ge 2^{n-2}t_2 = 2^{n-2} = \Theta(2^n)$

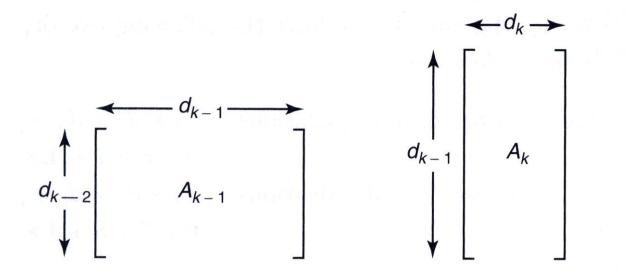
Chained Matrix Multiplication

- Dynamic Programming Design
 - Let d_k be the number of columns in A_k for $1 \le k \le n$.
 - Let d_0 be the number of rows in A_1 .
 - In other words, $A_1 A_2 ... A_n$ will have be represented as $d_0 \times d_1 \times ... \times d_n$.
 - Suppose $1 \le i \le j \le n$.
 - $M[i][j] = minimum number of multiplications needed to multiply <math>A_i$ through A_j , if i < j.

$$MIN_{i \le k \le j-1}(M[i][k] + M[k+1][j] + d_{i-1}d_kd_j)$$

M[i][i] = 0.

Figure 3.7 The number of columns in A_{k-1} is the same as the number of rows in A_k .



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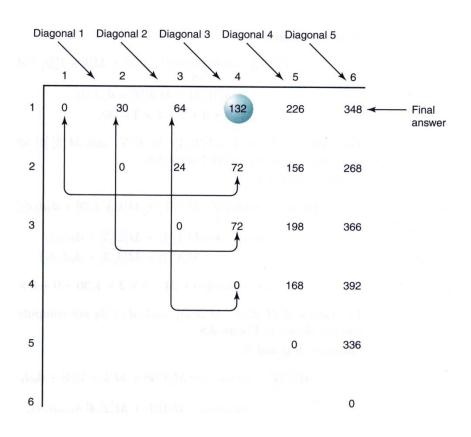
Example 3.5: Solving the recursive formula.

$$A_1$$
 A_2 A_3 A_4 A_5 A_6
 5×2 2×3 3×4 4×6 6×7 7×8

```
M [4][6] = minimum_{4 \le k \le 5} (M[4][4] + M[5][6] + 4 \times 6 \times 8, M[4][5] + M[6][6] + 4 \times 7 \times 8)
= minimum(0 + 6 \times 7 \times 8 + 4 \times 6 \times 8, 4 \times 6 \times 7 + 0 + 4 \times 7 \times 8)
= minimum(528,392) = 392
```

M[i][j]	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	0	30	64	132	226	348
2		0	24	72	156	268
3			0	72	198	366
4				0	168	392
5					0	336
6						0

Figure 3.8 The array M developed in Example 3.5. M [1] [4], which is circled, is computed from the pairs of entries indicated.





Minimum Multiplication

- Problem: Determine the minimum number of multiplications needed to multiply n matrices and an order that produces that minimum number.
- Inputs: The number of matrices n, and an array of integers d_k , indexed from 0 to n, where $d_{i-1} \times d_i$ is the dimension of the i-th matrix.
- Outputs: the minimum number of elementary multiplications needed to multiply the n matrices; a two-dimensional array P from which the optimal order can be obtained. P[i][j] is the point where matrices i through j are split in an optimal order for multiplying the matrices.
- See Algorithm 3.6 in p. 113.
- Check if the principle of optimality works for this case.

ı

Minimum Multiplication Algorithm

```
int minmult(int n, const int d[], index P[][]) {
   index i, j, k, diagonal;
   int M[1..n, 1..n];
      for(i=1; i <= n; i++)
        M[i][i] = 0;
      for(diagonal = 1; diagonal <= n-1; diagonal++)
        for(i=1; i <= n-diagonal; i++) {</pre>
           j = i + diagonal;
           M[i][j] = minimum(M[i][k]+M[k+1][j]+
                  d[i-1]*d[k]*d[j]);
                            where i \le k \le j-1
           P[i][j] = a value of k that gave the min;
      return M[1][n];
```



Figure 3.9 The array P produced when Algorithm 3.6 is applied to the dimensions in Example 3.5.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
1		1	1	1	1	1	
2			2	3	4	5	P[1][6] = 1
3	(223.0			3	4	5	
4					4	5	$(A_1((((A_2A_3)A_4)A_5)A_6)).$
5						5	



Every-Case Time Complexity: Minimum Multiplication

- Basic operation: The instructions executed for each value of n. Included is a comparison to test for the minimum.
- Input size: n, the number of matrices to be multiplied.
- Analysis:
 - j = i + diagonal
 - For a given values of diagonal and i, the number of passes through the k-loop =

$$(j-1)-i+1=i+diagonal-1-i+1=diagonal$$

- For a given values of diagonal, the number of passes through the i-loop = n diagonal
- Therefore,

$$\sum_{diagonal=1}^{n-1} [(n-diagonal) \times diagonal] = \frac{n(n-1)(n+1)}{6} \in \Theta(n^3)$$



Comments: Minimum Multiplication

- See Algorithm 3.7, which is to print the optimal order for multiplying n matrices.
 - Order(i, j) prints the optimal order for multiplying $A_i \times ... \times A_j$ with parentheses.
- Our algorithm $\Theta(n^3)$ for chained matrix multiplication is from Godbole (1973).
- Other algorithms
 - Yao(1982) $\Theta(n^2)$ by speeding up certain dynamic programming solutions.
 - Hu and Shing(1982, 1984) $\Theta(n \lg n)$