# COT 6405 Introduction to Theory of Algorithms

Final exam review

#### About the final exam

- The final will cover everything we have learned so far.
- Closed books, closed computers, and closed notes.
- ENB 118 12:30pm to 2:30pm Dec 10
- The final grades will be curved

#### Question type

- Possible types of questions:
  - proofs
  - General questions and answer
  - Problems/computational questions
- The content covered by midterms I and II takes 50%
- The content we studied after midterm II takes
   50%

#### Quick summary of previous content

- How to solve the recurrences
  - Substitution method
  - Tree method
  - Master theorem
- Comparison based sorting algorithms
  - Merge sort, quick sort, and Heap sort
- Linear time sorting algorithms
  - Counting sort, Bucket sort, and Radix sort

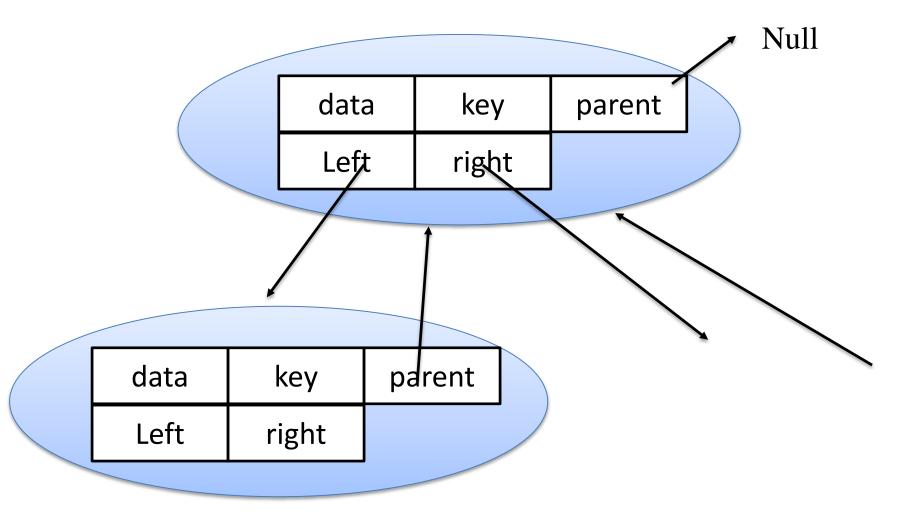
# Quick summary (cont'd)

- Basic heap operations:
  - Build-Max-Heap, Max-Heapify
- Order statistics
  - How to find the k-th largest element : BigFive algorithm
- Hash tables
  - The definition and how it works
  - Hash function h: Mapping from Universe U to the slots of a hash table T

#### Binary Search Trees

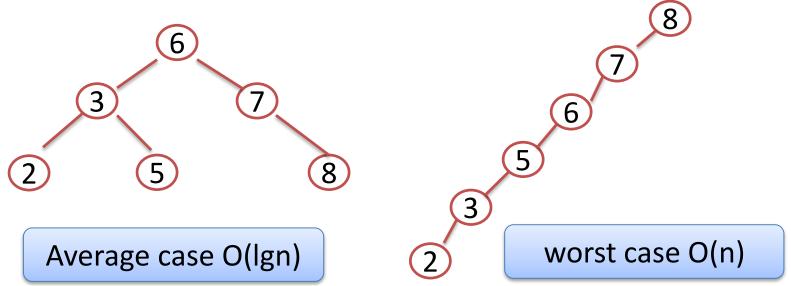
- Binary Search Trees (BSTs) are an important data structure for dynamic sets
- In addition to satellite data, nodes have:
  - key: an identifying field inducing a total ordering
  - left: pointer to a left child (may be NULL)
  - right: pointer to a right child (may be NULL)
  - p: pointer to a parent node (NULL for root)

# Node implementation



#### Binary Search Trees

BST property: Let x be a node in a binary search tree.
 If y is a node in the left subtree of x, then y.key < x.key. If y is a node in the right subtree of x, then y.key > x.key. Different BSTs can constructed to represent the same set of data



#### Walk on BST

A: prints elements in sorted (increasing) order
 InOrderTreeWalk (x)

```
InOrderTreeWalk(x.left);
print(x);
InOrderTreeWalk(x.right);
```

- This is called an inorder tree walk
  - Preorder tree walk: print root, then left, then right
  - Postorder tree walk: print left, then right, then root

#### Operations on BSTs: Search

 Given a key and a pointer to a node, returns an element with that key or NULL:

```
TreeSearch(x, k)
   if (x = NULL or k = x.key)
       return x;
   if (k < x.key)
       return TreeSearch(x.left, k);
   else
      return TreeSearch(x.right, k);</pre>
```

#### Operations on BSTs: Search

Here's another function that does the same

```
Iterative-Tree-Search(x, k)
    while (x != NULL and k != x.key)
        if (k < x.key)
            x = x.left;
    else
        x = x.right;
    return x;</pre>
```

#### **BST Operations: Minimum**

How can we implement a Minimum() query?
 TREE\_MINIMUM(x)

while x.lef <> NIL x = x.left

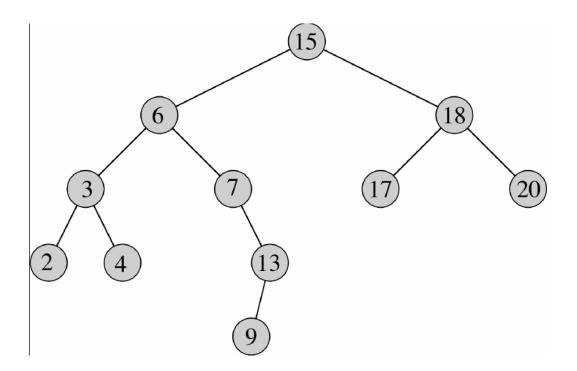
Return x

- What is the running time?
- Minimum > Find the leftmost node in tree
- Maximum 

  find the rightmost node in the tree

#### **BST Operations: Successor**

- Successor of x: the smallest key greater than key[x].
- What is the successor of node 3? Node 15? Node 13?
- What are the general rules for finding the successor of node x? (hint: two cases)



#### **BST Operations: Successor**

#### Two cases:

- x has a right subtree: its successor is minimum node in right subtree
- x has no right subtree: x must be on the left sub tree of the successor such that x <= successor. So the successor is the first ancestor of x whose left child is an ancestor of x (or x)
  - Intuition: As long as you move to the left up the tree, you're visiting smaller nodes.

#### BST Operations: predecessor

#### Two cases:

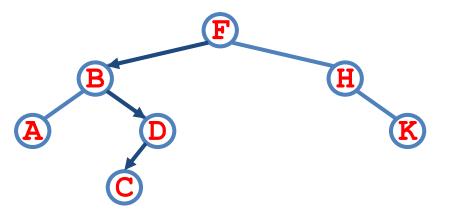
- x has a left subtree: its predecessor is maximum node in left subtree
- x has no left subtree: x must be on the right sub tree of the predecessor such that x >= predecessor. So the predecessor is the first ancestor of x whose right child is an ancestor of x (or x)

#### Operations of BSTs: Insert

- Adds an element x to the tree
  - the binary search tree property continues to hold
- The basic algorithm
  - Like the search procedure above
  - Use a "trailing pointer" to keep track of where you came from
    - like inserting into singly linked list

#### **BST Operations: Delete**

- Several cases:
  - x has no children:
    - Remove x
    - Set parent's link NULL
  - x has one child:
    - Replace x with its child
    - Set the child's link NULL
  - x has two children:
    - replace x with its successor
    - Perform case 0 or 1 to delete it



Example: delete K or H or B

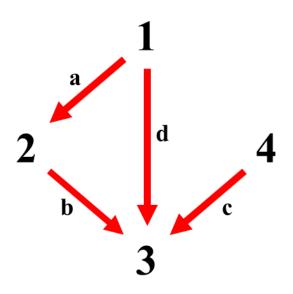
```
Tree-Delete (T, z ) // Deletes node z from BST T
        x = NIL
        if z.left == NIL or z.right == NIL
                then y = z
                else y = Tree-Successor(z)
        if y.left ≠ NIL
                then x = y.left
                else x = y.right
        if x \neq NIL
                then x.p = y.p
        if y.p == NIL
                then root[T] = x
        else if y == p[ y ] .left
                then p[y].left = x
                else p[y].right = x
        if y \neq z
                then z.key = y.key
        return y
```

#### **Elementary Graph Algorithms**

- How to represent a graph?
  - Adjacency lists
  - Adjacency matrix
- How to search a graph?
  - Breadth-first search
  - Depth-first search

# Graphs: Adjacency Matrix

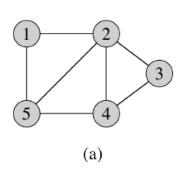
#### • Example:

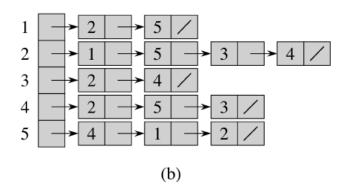


A	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	0
2	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	1	0

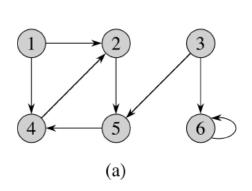
# Graphs: Adjacency List

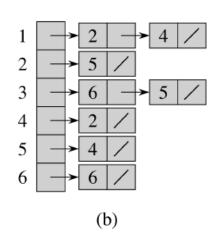
#### Undirected





#### Directed Graph





#### **Graphs: Adjacency List**

- How much storage is required?
  - The degree of a vertex v = # incident edges
    - Two edges are called incident, if they share a vertex
    - Directed graphs have in-degree, out-degree
  - For directed graphs, # of items in adjacency lists is  $\Sigma$  out-degree(v) = |E| takes  $\Theta(V + E)$  storage
  - For undirected graphs, # items in adjacency lists is  $\Sigma$  degree(v) = 2 |E| also  $\Theta$ (V + E) storage
- So: Adjacency lists take O(V+E) storage

#### Breadth-First Search (BFS)

- "Explore" a graph, turning it into a tree
  - One vertex at a time
  - Expand frontier of explored vertices across the breadth of the frontier
- Builds a tree over the graph
  - Pick a source vertex to be the root
  - Find ("discover") its children, then their children, etc.

#### **Breadth-First Search**

```
BFS(G, s) {
    initialize vertices;
    Q = \{s\};
    while (Q not empty) {
        u = Dequeue(Q);
        for each v \in G.adj[u] {
            if (v.color == WHITE)
                 v.color = GREY;
                 v.d = u.d + 1;
                 v.p = u;
                 Enqueue(Q, v);
        u.color = BLACK;
```

### Time analysis

- The total running time of BFS is O(V + E)
- Proof:
  - Each vertex is dequeued at most once. Thus, total time devoted to queue operations is O(V).
  - For each vertex, the corresponding adjacency list is scanned at most once. Since the sum of the lengths of all the adjacency lists is  $\Theta(E)$ , the total time spent in scanning adjacency lists is O(E).
  - Thus, the total running time is O(V+E)

#### Breadth-First Search: Properties

- BFS calculates the shortest-path distance to the source node
  - Shortest-path distance  $\delta(s,v)$  = minimum number of edges from s to v, or  $\infty$  if v not reachable from s
- BFS builds breadth-first tree, in which paths to root represent shortest paths in G
  - Thus, we can use BFS to calculate a shortest path from one vertex to another in O(V+E) time

#### Depth-First Search

- Depth-first search is another strategy for exploring a graph
  - Explore "deeper" in the graph whenever possible
  - Edges are explored out of the most recently discovered vertex v that still has unexplored edges
    - Timestamp to help us remember who is "new"
  - When all of v's edges have been explored,
     backtrack to the vertex from which v was discovered

### Depth-First Search: The Code

```
DFS(G)
 for each vertex u \in G.V
    u.color = WHITE
    u.\pi = NIL
 time = 0
 for each vertex u \in G.V
   if (u.color == WHITE)
      DFS_Visit(G, u)
```

```
DFS_Visit(G, u)
   time = time + 1
   u.d = time
   u.color = GREY
   for each v \in G.Adj[u]
    if (v.color == WHITE)
       v.\pi = u
       DFS_Visit(G, v)
   u.color = BLACK
   time = time + 1
   u.f = time
```

# DFS: running time (cont'd)

- How many times will DFS\_Visit() actually be called?
  - The loops on lines 1–3 and lines 5–7 of DFS take time Θ(V), exclusive of the time to execute the calls to DFS-VISIT.
  - DFS-VISIT is called exactly once for each vertex v
  - During an execution of DFS-VISIT(v), the loop on lines 4–7 is executed |Adj[v]| times.
  - $-\sum_{v\in V}|Adj[v]|=\Theta(E)$
  - Total running time is  $\Theta(V + E)$

# DFS: Different Types of edges

- DFS introduces an important distinction among edges in the original graph:
  - Tree edge: encounter new vertex
  - Back edge: from a descendent to an ancestor
  - Forward edge: from an ancestor to a descendent
  - Cross edge: between a tree or subtrees
- Note: tree & back edges are important
  - most algorithms don't distinguish forward & cross

# Minimum Spanning Tree

#### Problem:

- given a <u>connected</u>, <u>undirected</u>, <u>weighted</u> graphG = (V, E)
- find a spanning tree using edges that connects all nodes with a minimal total weight w(T)= SUM(w[u,v])
  - w[u,v] is the weight of edge (u,v)
- Objectives: we will learn
  - Generic MST
  - Kruskal's algorithm
  - Prim's algorithm

#### Growing a minimum spanning tree

- Building up the solution
  - We will build a set A of edges
  - Initially, A has no edges.
  - As we add edges to A, maintain a loop invariant
- Loop invariant: A is a subset of some MST
  - Add only edges that maintain the invariant
  - Definition: If A is a subset of some MST, an edge (u, v) is safe for A, if and only if A ∪ {(u, v)} is also a subset of some MST
  - So we will add only safe edges

### Generic MST algorithm

```
GENERIC-MST(G, w)

A = \emptyset

while A is not a spanning tree

find an edge (u, v) that is safe for A

A = A \cup \{(u, v)\}

return A
```

#### How do we find safe edges?

- Let edge set A be a subset of some MST
- (S, V −S) be a cut that respects edge set A
  - No edges in A crosses the cut
- (u, v) be a light edge crossing cut (S, V S).
- Then, (u, v) is safe for A.

#### MST: optimal substructure

- MSTs satisfy the optimal substructure property: an optimal tree is composed of optimal subtrees
  - Let T be an MST of G with an edge (u,v) in the middle
  - Removing (u,v) partitions T into two trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$
  - Claim:  $T_1$  is an MST of  $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ , and  $T_2$  is an MST of  $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$

#### Kruskal's algorithm

- Starts with each vertex being its own component
- Repeatedly merges two components into one by choosing the light edge that connects them
- Scans the set of edges in monotonically increasing order by weight
- Uses a disjoint-set data structure to determine whether an edge connects vertices in different components.

### Disjoint Sets Data Structure

- A disjoint-set is a collection  $C = \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_k\}$  of distinct dynamic sets
- Each set is identified by a member of the set, called representative.
- Disjoint set operations:
  - MAKE-SET(x): create a new set with only x
    - assume x is not already in some other set.
  - UNION(x,y): combine the two sets containing x and y into one new set.
    - A new representative is selected.
  - FIND-SET(x): return the representative of the set containing x.

## Kruskal's Algorithm

```
Kruskal(G, w)
   A = \emptyset;
   for each v \in G.V
      Make-Set(v);
   sort G.E by non-decreasing order by weight w
   for each (u,v) \in G.E (in sorted order)
      if FindSet(u) ≠ FindSet(v)
          A = A \cup \{\{u,v\}\};
          Union(u, v);
```

### Kruskal's Algorithm: Running Time

- Initialize A: O(1)
- First for loop: |V| MAKE-SETs
- Sort E: O(E lg E)
- Second for loop: O(E) FIND-SETs and UNIONs
- $O(V) + O(E \alpha(V)) + O(E \lg E)$ 
  - Since G is connected,  $|E| \ge |V| -1 \Rightarrow O(E α(V)) + O(E \lg E)$
  - $-\alpha(|V|) = O(\lg V) = O(\lg E)$
  - Therefore, the total time is O(E Ig E)
  - $|E| \le |V|^2 \Rightarrow |g|E| = O(2 |g|V) = O(|g|V)$
  - Therefore, O(E lg V) time

### Prim's algorithm

- Build a tree A (A is always a tree)
  - Starts from an arbitrary "root" r.
  - At each step, find a <u>light edge</u> crossing the cut  $(V_A, V V_A)$ , where  $V_A$  = vertices that A is incident on.
  - Add this light edge to A.
- GREEDY CHOICE: add min weight to A
- Use a priority queue Q to quickly find the light edge

## Prim's Algorithm

```
MST-Prim(G, w, r)
     for each u \in G.V
           u.key = \infty
           u.\pi = NIL
     r.key = 0
     Q = G.V
     while (Q not empty)
           u = ExtractMin(Q)
           for each v \in G.Adj[u]
                 if (v \in Q \text{ and } w(u,v) < v.\text{key})
                      \mathbf{v}.\boldsymbol{\pi} = \mathbf{u}
                     v.key = w(u,v)
```

## Prim's Algorithm: running time

- We can use the BUILD-MIN-HEAP procedure to perform the initialization in lines 1–5 in O(V) time
- EXTRACT-MIN operation is called |V| times, and each call takes O(lg V) time, the total time for all calls to EXTRACT-MIN is O(V lg V)

# Running time (cont'd)

- The for loop in lines 8–11 is executed O(E) times altogether, since the sum of the lengths of all adjacency lists is 2 | E |.
  - Lines 9 -10 take constant time
  - line 11 involves an implicit DECREASE-KEY
     operation on the min-heap, which takes O(lg V)
     time
- Thus, the total time for Prim's algorithm is  $O(V) + O(V \lg V) + O(E \lg V) = O(E \lg V)$ 
  - The same as Kruskal's algorithm

### Single source shortest path problem

- Problem: given a weighted directed graph G, find the minimum-weight path from a given source vertex s to another vertex v
  - "Shortest-path" -> Weight of the path is minimum
  - Weight of a path is the sum of the weight of edges

### Shortest path properties

- Optimal substructure property: any subpath of a shortest path is a shortest path
- In graphs with negative weight cycles, some shortest paths will not exist:
- Negative weight edges are ok for some cases
- Shortest paths cannot contain cycles

### Initialization

 All the shortest-paths algorithms start with INIT-SINGLE-SOURCE

INIT-SINGLE-SOURCE(G, s)

**for** each vertex  $v \in G.V$ 

$$v.d = \infty$$

$$v.\pi = NIL$$

$$s.d = 0$$

## Relaxation: reach v by u

```
Relax(u, v, w) {
  if (v.d > u.d + w(u,v))
                 v.d = u.d + w(u,v)
       v.\pi = u
          Relax
                               Relax
    decrease by
                           unchanged
```

# Properties of shortest paths

Triangle inequality

For all  $(u, v) \in E$ , we have  $\delta(s, v) \leq \delta(s, u) + w(u, v)$ .

Proof Weight of shortest path  $s \rightsquigarrow \nu$  is  $\leq$  weight of any path  $s \rightsquigarrow \nu$ . Path  $s \rightsquigarrow u \rightarrow \nu$  is a path  $s \rightsquigarrow \nu$ , and if we use a shortest path  $s \rightsquigarrow u$ , its weight is  $\delta(s,u) + w(u,\nu)$ .

u

## Upper-bound property

- Always have v.d  $\geq \delta(s,v)$ 
  - Once v.d =  $\delta(s,v)$ , it never changes
- Proof: Initially, it is true: v.d = ∞
- Supposed there is vertex such that v.d <  $\delta$ (s,v)
- Without loss of generality, v is the first vertex for this happens
- Let u be the vertex that causes v.d to change
- Then v.d = u.d + w(u,v)
- So, v.d  $< \delta(s,v) \le \delta(s,u) + w(u,v) < u.d + w(u,v)$
- Then v.d < u.d + w(u,v)</li>
- Contradict to v.d = u.d + w(u,v)

## No-path property

- If  $\delta(s,v) = \infty$ , then v.d =  $\infty$  always
- Proof:  $v.d \ge \delta(s,v) = \infty \rightarrow v.d = \infty$

## Convergence property

If  $s \rightsquigarrow u \rightarrow v$  is a shortest path,  $u. d = \delta(s, u)$ , and we call RELAX(u, v, w), then  $v. d = \delta(s, v)$  afterward.

#### Proof After relaxation:

$$v. \mathbf{d} \leq u. \mathbf{d} + w(u, v)$$
 (RELAX code)  
=  $\delta(s, u) + w(u, v)$   
=  $\delta(s, v)$  (lemma—op timal substructure)

Since  $\nu$ .  $\mathbf{d} \geq \delta(s, \nu)$ , must have  $\nu$ .  $\mathbf{d} = \delta(s, \nu)$ .

When the "if" condition is true, v.d = u.d + w(u, v) When the "if" condition is false, v.d  $\leq$  u.d + w(u, v)

# Path relaxation property

Let  $p = \langle v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle$  be a shortest path from  $s = v_0$  to  $v_k$ . If we relax, in order,  $(v_0, v_1), (v_1, v_2), \dots, (v_{k-1}, v_k)$ , even intermixed with other relaxations, then  $v_k$  d =  $\delta(s, v_k)$ .

**Proof Induction to show that**  $v_i$  .  $\mathbf{d} = \delta(s, v_i)$  after  $(v_{i-1}, v_i)$  is relaxed.

Basis: i = 0. Initially,  $v_0$ .  $d = 0 = \delta(s, v_0) = \delta(s, s)$ .

Inductive step: Assume  $v_{i-1}$ .  $\mathbf{d} = \delta(s, v_{i-1})$ . Relax  $(v_{i-1}, v_i)$ . By convergence property,  $v_i$ .  $\mathbf{d} = \delta(s, v_i)$  afterward and  $v_i$ .  $\mathbf{d}$  never changes.

## Bellman-Ford algorithm

//Allows negative-weight edges BellmanFord(G, w, s) INIT-SINGLE-SOURCE(G, s) Relaxation: Make | V| -1 passes, for i=1 to |G.V|-1relaxing each edge for each edge  $(u,v) \in G.E$ Relax(u, v, w); Test for solution for each edge  $(u,v) \in G.E$ Under what condition if (v.d > u.d + w(u,v))do we get a solution? return "no solution"; Relax(u,v,w): if (v.d > u.d + w(u,v)) v.d = u.d + w(u,v)

## Running time

- Initialization: Θ(V)
- Line 2-4 : Θ(E) \* |V|-1 passes
- Line 5-7 : O(E)
- O(VE)

# Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Assumes no negative-weight edges.
- Maintains a vertex set S whose shortest path from s has been determined.
- Repeatedly selects u in V–S with minimum Shortest Path estimate (greedy choice).
- Store V–S in priority queue Q.

```
DIJKSTRA(G, w, s)
Initialize-SINGLE-SOURCE(G, s);
S = \emptyset;
Q = G.V;
while Q \neq \emptyset
u = Extract-Min(Q);
S = S \cup \{u\};
for each v \in G.Adj[u]
Relax(u, v, w)
```

# Dijkstra's Running Time

- Extract-Min executed |V| time
- Decrease-Key executed |E| time
- Time = |V| T<sub>Extract-Min</sub> + |E| T<sub>Decrease-Key</sub>
- Time = O(VlgV) + O (ElgV) = O(ElgV)

#### Classification of Problems

Which problems will we be able to solve in practice?

Yes
Shortest path
Minimum spanning tree
BFS
DFS
Sorting
Order statistics

Probably no
Longest path
Subset-sum
0/1 Knapsack
3CNF-SAT
Hamiltonian-cycle
Vertex cover

#### Classification of Problems

- 1. Tractable problems
- 2. Intractable problems
- 3. Impossible problems

## Polynomial time algorithms

- Most algorithms we have studied so far are polynomial time in the size of their inputs n
  - We call them "in P"
- Worst case running time is O(n<sup>k</sup>) for some constant k.
- Problems that are solvable by polynomial time algorithms are said to be tractable.

#### Do all problems have polynomial time solutions?

#### NO!

- Some problems are not solvable
  - Turing's Halting problem is an example
  - Cannot be solved by any computer no matter how much time is given
- There is a large class of important problems for which we do not know the answer.
- These are the NP complete problems.

## The Satisfiability Problem

- Given a Boolean formula containing variables whose value are 0 or 1, connected by the Boolean connectives
   ∧, ∨, and ¬.
- A Boolean formula is satisfiable if there is an assignment of values to variables that causes the formula to evaluate to 1
- k-CNF
  - Informal definition: A formula is in k-conjunctive normal form, if it is the AND of clauses of ORs of exactly k variables (or their negations)
- 3-CNF is NP-complete
  - $-(x1 \lor \neg x2 \lor x3) \land (\neg x1 \lor x2 \lor x3) \land (x1 \lor x2 \lor \neg x3)$

### Three Classes of Problems

- P (Polynomial)
  - Problems solvable in polynomial time
  - Can be solved in time O(n<sup>k</sup>) where k is a constant
- NP (Non-deterministic Polynomial)
  - Problems that are verifiable in polynomial time
  - Given a "<u>certificate</u>" of a solution, we can verify that the solution is correct in polynomial time
    - For Hamiltonian path, the certificate is a sequence of vertices
    - For 3-SAT (3-Conjunctive Normal Form Satisfiability), the certificate is an assignment of values to variables
- NPC (NP Complete)

### NP Complete Problems

- The complexity status of these problems is unknown
- There is no established lower bound
- But, it is known that if one of these problems can be solved in polynomial time, all of them can.

### **Proofs of NP-Completeness**

- Different from other proofs we have done
- Rather than show that a problem has an efficient algorithm, we will be demonstrating that it is <a href="hard">hard</a>
  - By mapping it to another 'hard' problem

### Some NP-complete Problems

- Summarization
  - CIRCUIT-SAT -- Cook-Levin theorem
  - SAT -- reduced from CIRCUIT-SAT
  - CNF-SAT reduced from SAT
  - 3SAT -- reduced from CIRCUIT-SAT
  - VERTEX-COVER reduced from 3SAT
  - CLIQUE reduced from VERTEX-COVER
- SET-COVER: Given a collection of m sets, are there K of these sets whose union is the same as the whole collection of m sets?
  - NP-complete by reduction from VERTEX-COVER

### Some Other NP-Complete Problems

- SUBSET-SUM: Given a set of integers and a distinguished integer K, is there a subset of the integers that sums to K?
  - NP-complete by reduction from VERTEX-COVER
- **0/1 Knapsack:** Given a collection of items with weights and benefits, is there a subset of weight at most W and benefit at least K?
  - NP-complete by reduction from SUBSET-SUM
- Hamiltonian-Cycle: Given an graph G, is there a cycle in G that visits each vertex exactly once?
  - NP-complete by reduction from VERTEX-COVER
- Traveling Salesman Tour: Given a complete weighted graph G, is there a cycle that visits each vertex and has total cost at most K?
  - NP-complete by reduction from Hamiltonian-Cycle.

## Theory of NP-Completeness

- Limited to one type of problems decision problems
  - Each element of S (the set of solutions) is an element of {yes, no} (or {0, 1})
  - Seems like a severe restriction, but it is not
  - Usually dealing with <u>optimization problems</u> that are easily restated as a decision problem.
  - We can show that if the decision problem is easy, then the optimization problem is easy.

### General Approach

To change an optimization problem to a decision problem, we can usually just impose a bound on the value to be optimized.

- minimization problem example:
  - length of shortest path <u>at most k</u>
- maximization problem example:
  - length of longest path <u>at least k</u>

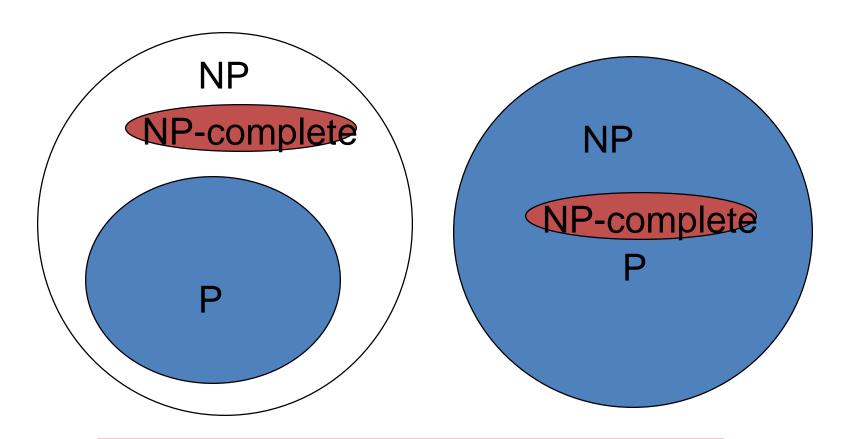
#### General statements

- Usually, if we can solve the optimization problem quickly, we can solve the decision problem quickly.
- Also, if we can provide evidence that the decision problem is <u>hard</u>, we also provide evidence that the optimization problem is hard.

## Nondeterministic Polynomial (NP)

- Let an oracle guess an answer to the problem (certificate).
- If we can find an algorithm that can verify that the answer is correct in polynomial time, then this problem is in the class NP
- P is clearly a subset of NP
  - The complexity class P is the set of concrete decision problems that are solvable in polynomial time.

### P = NP?



If any NP-complete problem is polynomial-time solvable, then P = NP.

### Showing Problems to be NP- Complete

- Restate a problem as a decision problem
- Demonstrate that the decision problem is in the class NP
- Show that a problem known to be NP-Complete can be reduced to the current problem\_in polynomial time.

# NP-Completeness and Reducibility

- NP-complete problems
  - informally they are the hardest problems in the class
     NP
  - no polynomial time algorithm is known to solve any of them
  - but every NP-complete problem is reducible to every other NP-complete problem in polynomial time

## Dynamic Programming (DP)

- Like divide-and-conquer, solve problem by combining the solutions to sub-problems.
- Divide-and-conquer vs. DP:
  - divide-and-conquer: Independent sub-problems
    - solve sub-problems independently and recursively, (→ so same sub-problems solved repeatedly)
  - DP: Sub-problems are dependent
    - sub-problems share sub-sub-problems
    - every sub-problem is solved just once
    - solutions to sub-problems are stored in a table and used for solving higher level sub-problems.

### Overview of DP

- Not a specific algorithm, but a technique (like divide-and-conquer).
- Doesn't really refer to computer programming
- Application domain of DP
  - Optimization problem: find a solution with the optimal (maximum or minimum) value

## Matrix-chain multiplication problem

- Given a chain  $\langle A_1, A_2, ..., A_n \rangle$  of *n* matrices
  - where for i = 1,..., n, matrix  $A_i$  has dimension  $p_{i-1} \times p_i$
  - fully parenthesize the product  $A_1A_2\cdots A_n$  in a way that minimizes the number of scalar multiplications.
- What is the minimum number of multiplications required to compute  $A_1 \cdot A_2 \cdot ... \cdot A_n$ ?
- What order of matrix multiplications achieves this minimum? This is our goal!

## Step 1: Find the structure of an optimal parenthesization

 Finding the optimal substructure and using it to construct an optimal solution to the problem based on optimal solutions to subproblems.

Both must be **Optimal** for sub-chain  $((A_1A_2\cdots A_k)(A_{k+1}A_{k+2}\cdots A_n))$  Then combine them for the original problem

The key is to find k; then, we can build the global optimal solution

## Step 2: A recursive solution to define the cost of an optimal solution

- Define m[i, j] = the minimum number of multiplications needed to compute the matrix  $A_{i..j} = A_i A_{i+1} \cdots A_j$
- Goal: to compute *m*[1, *n*]
- Basis: m(i, i) = 0
  - Single matrix, no computation
- Recursion: How to define m[i, j] recursively?

$$-((A_{i}A_{2}\cdots A_{k})(A_{k+1}A_{k+2}\cdots A_{j}))$$

## Step2: Defining m[i,j] Recursively

- Consider all possible ways to split  $A_i$  through  $A_j$  into two pieces:  $(A_i \cdot ... \cdot A_k) \cdot (A_{k+1} \cdot ... \cdot A_i)$
- Compare the costs of all these splits:
  - best case cost for computing the product of the two pieces
  - plus the cost of multiplying the two products
  - Take the best one
  - $-m[i,j] = \min_{k} \{ m[i,k] + m[k+1,j] + p_{i-1}p_{k}p_{j} \}$

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#### Identify Order for Solving Subproblems

 Solve the subproblems (i.e., fill in the table entries) along the diagonal

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0				
2	n/a	0			
3	n/a	n/a	0		
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0	
5	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

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## An example

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1200		
2	n/a	0	400	
3	n/a	n/a	0	10000
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

A1 is 30x1 A2 is 1x40 A3 is 40x10 A4 is 10x25 p0 = 30, p1 = 1 p2 = 40, p3 = 10 p4 = 25

m[1,2] = A1A2 : 30X1X40 = 1200,

m[2,3] = A2A3 : 1X40X10 = 400,

m[3,4] = A3A4: 40X10X25 = 10000

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1200	700	
2	n/a	0	400	
3	n/a	n/a	0	10000
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

$$m[i,j] = \min_{k} \{ m[i,k] + m[k+1,j] + p_{i-1}p_{k}p_{j} \}$$

m[1,3]: i = 1, j = 3, k = 1, 2 = min{ m[1,1]+m[2,3]+p0\*p1\*p3, m[1, 2]+m[3,3]+p0\*p2\*p3} = min{0 + 400 + 30\*1\*10, 1200+0+30\*40\*10} = 700

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	1	2	3	4
1	0	1200	700	
2	n/a	0	400	650
3	n/a	n/a	0	10000
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

$$m[i,j] = \min_{k} \{ m[i,k] + m[k+1,j] + p_{i-1}p_{k}p_{j} \}$$

m[2,4]: i = 2, j = 4, k = 2, 3

=  $min\{m[2,2]+m[3,4]+p1*p2*p4, m[2,3]+m[4,4]+p1*p3*p4\}$ 

 $= min\{0 + 10000 + 1*40*25, 400+0+1*10*25\} = 650$ 

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1200	700	1400
2	n/a	0	400	650
3	n/a	n/a	0	10000
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

$$m[i,j] = \min_{k} \{ m[i,k] + m[k+1,j] + p_{i-1}p_{k}p_{j} \}$$

m[1,4]: i = 1, j = 4, k = 1, 2, 3 = min{ m[1,1]+m[2,4]+p0\*p1\*p4, m[1,2]+m[3,4]+p0\*p2\*p4, m[1,3]+m[4,4]+p0\*p3\*p4} = min{0+650+30\*1\*25, 1200+10000+30\*40\*25, 700+0+30\*10\*25}

= 1400

## Step 3: Keeping Track of the Order

- We know the cost of the cheapest order, but what is that cheapest order?
  - Use another array s[]
  - update it when computing the minimum cost in the inner loop
- After m[] and s[] are done, we call a recursive algorithm on s[] to print out the actual order

## An example

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1		
2	n/a	0	2	
3	n/a	n/a	0	3
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

A1 is 30x1 A2 is 1x40 A3 is 40x10 A4 is 10x25 p0 = 30, p1 = 1 p2 = 40, p3 = 10 p4 = 25

m[1,2] = A1A2 : 30X1X40 = 1200, s[1,2] = 1

m[2,3] = A2A3 : 1X40X10 = 400, s[2,3] = 2

m[3,4] = A3A4: 40X10X25 = 10000, s[3,4] = 3

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	
2	n/a	0	2	
3	n/a	n/a	0	3
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

```
m[1,3]: i = 1, j = 3, k = 1, 2
= min{ m[1,1]+m[2,3]+p0*p1*p3, m[1, 2]+m[3,3]+p0*p2*p3}
= min{0 + 400 + 30*1*10, 1200+0+30*40*10} = 700
m[1,3] is the minimum value when k = 1, so s[1,3] = 1
```

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	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	
2	n/a	0	2	3
3	n/a	n/a	0	3
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

```
m[2,4]: i = 2, j = 4, k = 2, 3
= min{ m[2,2]+m[3,4]+p1*p2*p4, m[2, 3]+m[4,4]+p1*p3*p4}
= min{0 + 10000 + 1*40*25, 400+0+1*10*25} = 650
m[2,4] is the minimum value when k = 3, so s[2,4] = 3
```

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	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	1
2	n/a	0	2	3
3	n/a	n/a	0	3
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

# Step 4: Using S to Print Best Ordering (cont'd)

	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	1	1
2	n/a	0	2	3
3	n/a	n/a	0	3
4	n/a	n/a	n/a	0

A1 A2 A3 A4 s[1,4] = 1 - > A1 (A2 A3 A4) s[2,4] = 3 - > (A2 A3) A4 A1 (A2 A3 A4) -> A1 ((A2 A3) A4)

# Step 3: Computing the optimal costs

```
MATRIX-CHAIN-ORDER(p)
1 n = length[p] -1
2 Let m [1..n, 1..n] and s[1.. n-1, 2..n] be new tables
   for i = 1 to n
          m[i, i] = 0
   for l=2 to n
          for i = 1 to (n - l + 1)
6
                 j = i + l - 1
8
                     m[i,j] = \infty
9
                      for k = i to (j - 1)
10
                         q = m[i, k] + m[k + 1, j] + p_{i-1}p_kp_i
11
                         if q < m[i, j]
12
                               m[i, j] = a
13
                               s[i, i] = k
14
    return m and s
```

Complexity:  $O(n^3)$  Space:  $\Theta(n^2)$ 

## Step 4: Using S to Print Best Ordering

- s[i,j] is the split position for  $A_i A_{i+1} ... A_j \rightarrow A_i ... A_{s[i,j]}$  and  $A_{s[i,j]+1} ... A_j$
- Call Print-Optimal-PARENS(s, 1, n)

```
Print-Optimal-PARENS (s, i, j)

if (i == j) then

print "A" + i  //+ is string concatenation

else

print "("

Print-Optimal-PARENS (s, i, s[i, j])

Print-Optimal-PARENS (s, s[i, j]+1, j)

Print ")"
```

# 16.3 Elements of dynamic programming

#### Optimal substructure

- a problem exhibits optimal substructure if an optimal solution to the problem contains within its optimal solutions to subproblems.
- Example: Matrix-multiplication problem

#### Overlapping subproblems

- The space of subproblems is "small" in that a recursive algorithm for the problem solves the same subproblems over and over.
- Total number of distinct subproblems is typically polynomial in input size
- Reconstructing an optimal solution

## Optimal structure may not exist

- We cannot assume it when it is not there
- Consider the following two problems. in which we are given a directed graph G = (V, E) and vertices  $u, v \in V$ 
  - P1: Unweighted shortest path (USP)
    - Find a path from *u* to *v* consisting of the fewest edges. Good for Dynamic programming.
  - P2: Unweighted longest simple path (ULSP)
    - A path is simple if all vertices in the path are distinct
    - Find a simple path from *u* to *v* consisting of the most edges. Not good for Dynamic programming.

## Overlapping Subproblems

- Second ingredient: an optimization problem must have for DP is that the space of subproblems must be "small", in a sense that
  - A recursive algorithm solves the same subproblems over and over, rather than generating new subproblems.
  - The total number of distinct subproblems is polynomial in the input size
  - DP algorithms use a table to store the solutions to subproblems and look up the table in a constant time

## Overlapping Subproblems (Cont'd)

- In contrast, a problem for which a divide-andconquer approach is suitable when the recursive steps always generate new problems at each step of the recursion.
- Examples: Mergesort and Quicksort.
  - Sorting on smaller and smaller arrays (each recursion step work on a different subarray)

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#### A Recursive Algorithm for Matrix-Chain Multiplication

RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN(p,i,j), called with(p,1,n)

- 1. if (i == j) then return 0
- 2.  $m[i,j] = \infty$
- 3. **for** k = i to (j-1)
- 4. q = RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN(p,i,k)+ RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN $(p,k+1,j) + p_{i-1}p_kp_j$
- 5. **if** (q < m[i,j]) then m[i,j] = q
- 6. return m[i,j]

The running time of the algorithm is  $O(2^n)$ .

#### The recursion tree

```
for k=i to (j-1)

q = \text{RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN}(p,i,k)

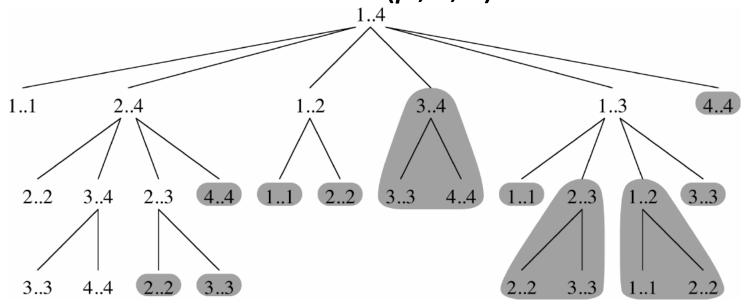
+ \text{RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN}(p,k+1,j) + p_{i-1}p_kp_i
```

#### RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN(p,1,4) i = 1, j = 4, k = 1, 2, 3 (i to j-1)needs to solve (1, k) (k+1, 4) k = 1 - > (1, 1) (2, 4)k = 2 - > (1, 2) (3, 4)

 $K = 3 \rightarrow (1, 3) (4, 4)$ 

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### Recursion tree of RECURSIVE-MATRIX-CHAIN(p,1,4)



- This divide-and-conquer recursive algorithm solves the overlapping problems over and over.
  - DP solves the same subproblems only once
  - The computations in darker color are replaced by table loop up in MEMOIZED-MATRIX-CHAIN(p,1,4).
- The divide-and-conquer is better for the problem which generates brand-new problems at each step of recursion.

#### General idea of Memoization

- A variation of DP
- Keep the same efficiency as DP
- But in a top-down manner.
- Idea:
  - When a subproblem is first encountered, its solution needs to be solved, and then is stored in the corresponding entry of the table.
  - If the subproblem is encountered again in the future, just look up the table to take the value.

#### Memoized Matrix Chain

LOOKUP-CHAIN(p,i,j)

**if** (i == j) **then** m[i,j] = 0

else for k=i to j-1

return m[i,j]

4.

5.

6.

```
MEMOIZED-MATRIX-CHAIN(p)
                                    n \leftarrow length[p] - 1
                                2 for i \leftarrow 1 to n
                                          do for j \leftarrow i to n
                                                   do m[i, j] \leftarrow \infty
                                     return LOOKUP-CHAIN(p, 1, n)
if m[i,j] < \infty then return m[i,j]
               q = LOOKUP-CHAIN(p,i,k)+
                     LOOKUP-CHAIN(p,k+1,j) + p_{i-1}p_kp_i
                  if (q < m[i,j]) then m[i,j] = q
```

#### DP VS. Memoization

- MCM can be solved by DP or Memoized algorithm, both in  $O(n^3)$ 
  - Total  $\Theta(n^2)$  subproblems, with O(n) for each.
- If all subproblems must be solved at least once, DP is better by a constant factor due to no recursive involvement as in memorized algorithm
- If some subproblems may not need to be solved,
   Memoized algorithm may be more efficient
  - since it only solve these subproblems which are definitely required.

### Longest Common Subsequence (LCS)

- DNA analysis to compare two DNA strings
- DNA string: a sequence of symbols A,C,G,T
  - S = ACCGGTCGAGCTTCGAAT
- Subsequence of X is X with some symbols left out
  - -Z = CGTC is a subsequence of X = ACGCTAC
- Common subsequence Z of X and Y: a subsequence of X and also a subsequence of Y
  - Z = CGA is a common subsequence of X = ACGCTAC and Y = CTGACA
- Longest Common Subsequence (LCS): the longest one of common subsequences
  - -Z' = CGCA is the LCS of the above X and Y
- LCS problem: given  $X = \langle x_1, x_2, ..., x_m \rangle$  and  $Y = \langle y_1, y_2, ..., y_n \rangle$ , find their LCS

#### LCS DP step 2: Recursive Solution

- What the theorem says:
  - If  $x_m == y_{n,j}$  find LCS of  $X_{m-1}$  and  $Y_{n-1}$ , then append  $x_m$
  - If  $x_m \neq y_{n_n}$  find (1) the LCS of  $X_{m-1}$  and  $Y_n$  and (2) the LCS of  $X_m$  and  $Y_{n-1}$ ; then, take which one is longer
- Overlapping substructure:
  - Both LCS of  $X_{m-1}$  and  $Y_n$  and LCS of  $X_m$  and  $Y_{n-1}$  will need to solve LCS of  $X_{m-1}$  and  $Y_{n-1}$  first
- c[i,j] is the length of LCS of  $X_i$  and  $Y_j$

$$c[i,j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 0, \text{ or } j = 0 \\ c[i-1,j-1] + 1 & \text{if } i,j > 0 \text{ and } x_i = y_j \\ \max\{c[i-1,j], c[i,j-1]\} & \text{if } i,j > 0 \text{ and } x_i \neq y_j \end{cases}$$

#### LCS DP step 3: Computing the Length of LCS

$$c[i,j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i=0, \text{ or } j=0 \\ c[i-1,j-1]+1 & \text{if } i,j>0 \text{ and } x_i=y_j \\ \max\{c[i-1,j],c[i,j-1]\} & \text{if } i,j>0 \text{ and } x_i\neq y_j \end{cases}$$

- c[0..m, 0..n], where c[i,j] is defined as above.
  - -c[m,n] is the answer (length of LCS)
- b[1..m, 1..n], where b[i,j] points to the table entry corresponding to the optimal subproblem solution chosen when computing c[i,j].
  - From b[m, n] backward to find the LCS.

#### LCS DP Algorithm

```
LCS-LENGTH(X, Y)
      m \leftarrow length[X]
 2 n \leftarrow length[Y]
 3 for i \leftarrow 1 to m
            do c[i, 0] \leftarrow 0
 5 for j \leftarrow 0 to n
            do c[0, j] \leftarrow 0
 7 for i \leftarrow 1 to m
 8
            do for j \leftarrow 1 to n
 9
                      do if x_i = y_i
10
                             then c[i, j] \leftarrow c[i - 1, j - 1] + 1
                                    b[i, j] \leftarrow " \ "
11
12
                             else if c[i-1, j] \ge c[i, j-1]
13
                                       then c[i, j] \leftarrow c[i-1, j]
14
                                              b[i, j] \leftarrow "\uparrow"
                                       else c[i, j] \leftarrow c[i, j-1]
15
16
                                              b[i, j] \leftarrow "\leftarrow"
17
      return c and b
```

## LCS Example (0)

ABCB BDCAB

	j	0	1	2	3	4	5
i		Yj	B	D	$\mathbf{C}$	$\mathbf{A}$	В
0	Xi						
1	A						
2	В						
3	C						
4	В						

$$X = ABCB$$
;  $m = |X| = 4$   
 $Y = BDCAB$ ;  $n = |Y| = 5$   
Allocate array c[5,6]

## LCS Example (1)

BDCAB ABCB

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0					
2	В	0					
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

for 
$$i = 1$$
 to m  $c[i,0] = 0$   
for  $j = 1$  to n  $c[0,j] = 0$ 

## LCS Example (2)

ABCB RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> E
i		Yj	(B)	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0		0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0				
2	В	0					
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

### LCS Example (3)

RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0		
2	В	0					
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

### LCS Example (4)

ADCD RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0 、	0	0
1	(A)	0	0	0	0	1	
2	В	0					
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

# LCS Example (5)

ADCD RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	5 <b>D</b>
i	,	Yj	В	D	C	A	(B)
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1 -	<b>1</b>
2	В	0					
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (6)

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	B	D	$\mathbf{C}$	$\mathbf{A}$	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	B	0	1				
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

# LCS Example (7)

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> D
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	$\bigcirc$ B	0	1	1 -	1 -	1	
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

# LCS Example (8)

ADCD RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	5 B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	(B)
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1 .	1
2	B	0	1	1	1	1	2
3	C	0					
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (10)

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	$\mathbf{A}$	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	В	0	1	_1	1	1	2
3	$\bigcirc$	0	<sup>†</sup> <sub>1</sub> -	<b>1</b>			
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (11)

RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	(C)	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	В	0	1	1	1	1	2
3	$\bigcirc$	0	1	1	2		
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (12)

RDCAR

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	В	0	1	1	1	1	2
3	$\bigcirc$	0	1	1	2 -	<b>2</b> -	<b>2</b>
4	В	0					

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (13)

ADCA BDCAB

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> E
i		Yj	B	D	$\mathbf{C}$	$\mathbf{A}$	B
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	$\mathbf{A}$	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	В	0	1	1	1	1	2
3	C	0 🗸	1	1	2	2	2
4	B	0	1				

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (14)

	j	0	1	2	3	4	<sub>5</sub> B
i		Yj	В	D	C	A	В
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	В	0	1	1	1	1	2
3	C	0	1	1	2	2	2
4	$oxed{B}$	0	1 -	<b>*</b> <sup>†</sup> 1	<b>*</b> 2 -	<b>2</b>	

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

#### LCS Example (15)

ABCB BDCAB

	j	0	1	2	3	4	5 B
i		Yj	В	D	C	$\mathbf{A}$	B
0	Xi	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	A	0	0	0	0	1	1
2	В	0	1	1	1	1	2
3	C	0	1	1	2	2 、	2
4	B	0	1	1	2	2	3

if ( Xi == Yj )  

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

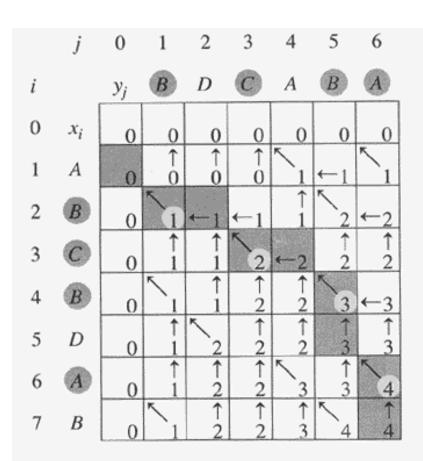


Figure 15.8 The c and b tables computed by LCS-LENGTH on the sequences  $X = \langle A, B, C, B, D, A, B \rangle$  and  $Y = \langle B, D, C, A, B, A \rangle$ . The square in row i and column j contains the value of c[i, j] and the appropriate arrow for the value of b[i, j]. The entry 4 in c[7, 6]—the lower right-hand corner of the table—is the length of an LCS  $\langle B, C, B, A \rangle$  of X and Y. For i, j > 0, entry c[i, j] depends only on whether  $x_i = y_j$  and the values in entries c[i-1, j], c[i, j-1], and c[i-1, j-1], which are computed before c[i, j]. To reconstruct the elements of an LCS, follow the b[i, j] arrows from the lower right-hand corner; the path is shaded. Each " $\kappa$ " on the path corresponds to an entry (highlighted) for which  $x_i = y_j$  is a member of an LCS.

#### **Greedy Algorithms**

- We have learned two design techniques
  - Divide-and-conquer
  - Dynamic Programming
- Now, the third 

  Greedy Algorithms
  - Optimization often goes through some choices
  - Make local best choices → hope to achieve global optimization
  - Many times, this works; Other times, does NOT!
    - Minimum spanning tree algorithms
  - We must carefully examine if we can apply this method

#### An activity-selection problem

- Activity set  $S = \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_n\}$
- n activities wish to use a single resource
- Each activity  $a_i$  has a start time  $s_i$  and a finish time  $f_i$ , where  $0 \le s_i < f_i < \infty$
- If selected, activity  $a_i$  take place during the half-open time interval  $[s_i, f_i)$
- Activities  $a_i$  and  $a_j$  are **compatible** if the intervals  $[s_i, f_i)$  and  $[s_i, f_j)$  do not overlap
  - $-a_i$  and  $a_j$  are compatible if  $s_i \ge f_j$  or  $s_j \ge f_i$

#### The greedy choice

- Intuition: Choose an activity that leaves the resource available for as many other activities as possible
- It must finish as early as possible: greedy
- Let  $S_k = \{a_i \in S : s_i > = f_k\}$  be the set of activities that start after activity  $a_k$  finishes
- If we make the greedy choice of activity  $a_1$  (i.e.,  $a_1$  is the first activity to finish), then  $S_1$  remains as the only subproblem to solve.
  - $a_1 + S_1$ , if  $S_1$  is the optimal solution for others  $\rightarrow a_1$  must be in the optimal solution
  - Is this correct?

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#### Optimal substructure

- $S_{ij}$  is the subset of activities that can
  - start after activity  $a_i$  finishes
  - and finish before activity  $a_i$  starts
  - $-S_{ij} = \{ a_k \in S: f_i \le s_k < f_k \le s_j \}$
  - $-f_0$ = 0 and  $s_{n+1}$  =  $\infty$ . Then  $S = S_{0,n+1}$ , and the ranges for i and j are given by  $0 \le i, j \le n+1$
- Define  $A_{ij}$  as the maximum set in  $S_{ij}$ 
  - Selecting a<sub>k</sub> in the optimal solutions generates two subproblems

$$-A_{ij} = A_{ik} \cup \{a_k\} \cup A_{kj} \qquad \cdots \qquad \xrightarrow{f_i} \qquad \xrightarrow{s_k} \qquad \xrightarrow{f_k} \qquad \xrightarrow{s_j} \qquad \cdots$$

$$- |A_{ij}| = |A_{ik}| + 1 + |A_{kj}|$$

# Converting a dynamic-programming solution to a greedy solution

- Theorem 16.1 Consider any nonempty subproblem  $S_k$ , and let  $a_m$  be the activity in  $S_k$  with the earliest finish time:  $f_m = \min$   $\{f_x : a_x \in S_k\}$ . Then  $a_m$  is used in some maximum-size subset of mutually compatible activities of  $S_k$
- Let  $A_k$  be the maximum-size subset of mutually compatible activities in  $S_k$
- Let  $a_j$  be the activity in  $A_k$  with the earliest finish time
- If  $a_i == a_m$ , we are done.
- Otherwise,  $A'_k = A_k \{a_i\} \cup \{a_m\}$
- We have new  $A_k$  with  $a_m$

#### An iterative greedy algorithm

GREEDY-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR(s, f)

```
1 n = s.length
2 A = \{a_1\}
3 k = 1
4 for m = 2 to n
      if s_m \geq f_k
              then A = A \cup \{a_m\}
6
                     k = m
   return A
```

#### Ingredients of Greedy ALs

- Greedy-choice property: A global optimal solution can be achieved by making a local optimal choice.
  - Without considering results of subproblems
- Optimal substructure: An optimal solution to the problem within its optimal solution to subproblem

#### The End



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