





#### **ZPR PWr – Zintegrowany Program Rozwoju Politechniki Wrocławskiej**

# Data Structures and Algorithms – W12

Fundamental Techniques

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#### **Contents**

- Fundamental techniques for solving problems:
  - "Devide and conquer"
  - Dynamic programming
  - Greedy algorithm
  - Other techniques
- Interesting problems

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# Divide and conquer

- A problem input (instance) is divided according to some criteria into a set of smaller inputs to the same problem. The problem is then solved for each of these smaller inputs, either recursively by further division into smaller inputs or by invoking an ad hoc or a priori solution. Finally, the solution for the original input is obtained by expressing it in some form as a combination of the solution for these smaller inputs.
- Ad hoc solution are often invoked when the input size is smaller than some preassigned threshold value.
- Subproblems are independent!

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# Divide and conquer – common alg.

```
procedure Divide and conquer(I, J)
  Input: I (an input to the given problem)
  output: J (a solution to the given problem
  corresponding to the input I)
  if I is Known then
     assign the a priori or ad hoc solution for I to J
  else
     Divide (I, I_1, ..., I_m) // m may depend on the input I
     for i=1 to m do
        Divide and conquer (I_i, J_i)
     endfor
     Combine (J_1, ..., J_m, J)
  endif
end Divide and conquer
```

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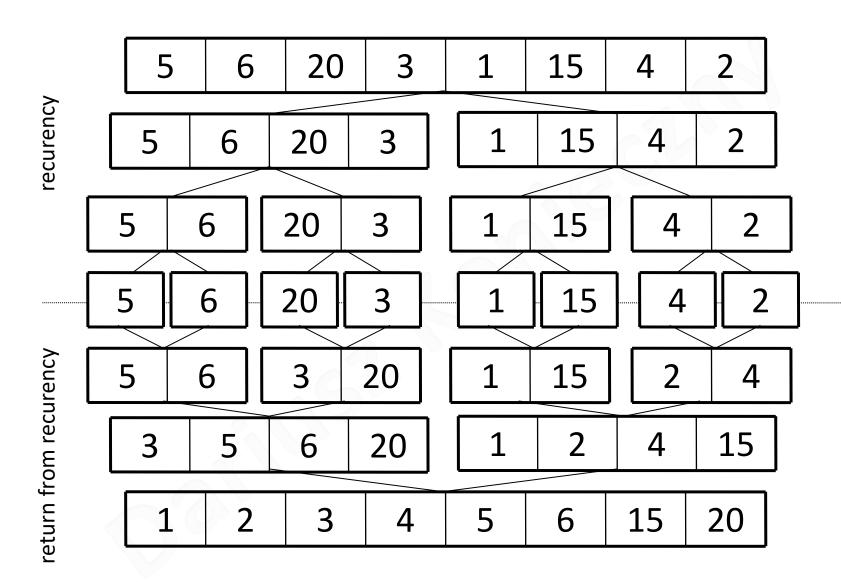
# Divide and conquer – mergesort

#### Merge-sort idea:

- 1. Divide the input part of table into two equal (equally likely) parts A and B
- 2. Sort part A
- Sort part B
- 4. Merge parts A and B, knowing that this part are sorted
- Stop the recurrence if size of an input part is equal
  - 1. The table with only one element is always sorted.

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### Mergesort – an example



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## Dynaming programming

- Dynamic programming is similar to divideand-conquer in the sense, that it is based on recursive division of problem instances into smaller or simpler problem instances... However, whereas divide-and-conquer algorithms often use a top-down resolution method, DP algorithms invariably proceed by solving all the simplest problem instances before combining then into more complicated problem instances in a bottom-up fashion.
- Unlike in divide-and-conquer the subproblems share a subsubproblems

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# Dynaming programming – LCS problem Longest common subsequence (LCS)

- Let A be a sequence  $A=a_0a_1...a_{n-1}$ . A subsequence of A is a sequence  $T=a_{i_0}a_{i_1}...a_{i_{k-1}}$  where  $0 \le i_0 < i_1 < ... < i_{k-1} < n$
- example "samples" -> "sms","ss", "mp"
- If we have two sequence  $A=a_0a_1...a_{n-1}$  and  $B=b_0b_1...b_{m-1}$  we a looking for a longest common substring C, which is a subsequence of A and B.

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#### LCS – solution rules

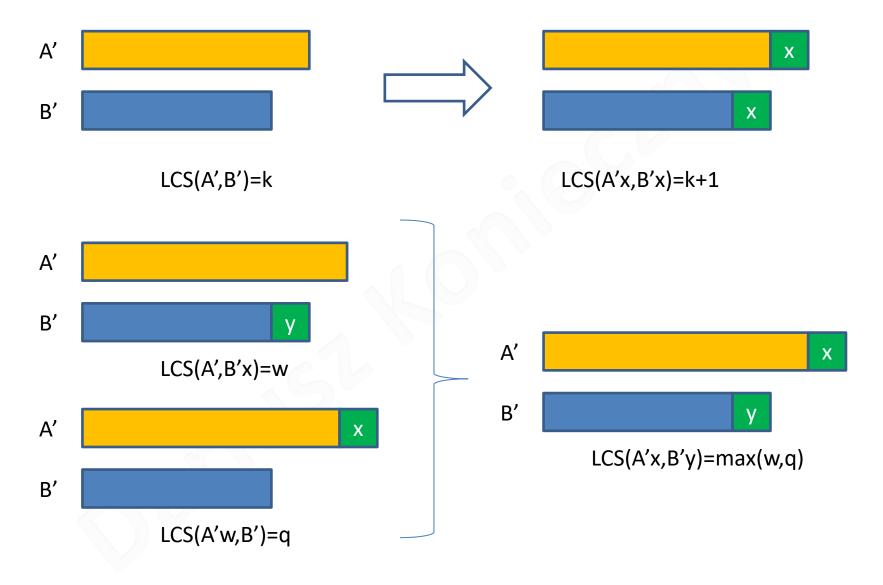
• In real we will compute **the length of the LCS**. Let LCS[i,j] will be the length of longest common subsequence of sequences  $A'=a_0a_1...a_{i-1}$  and  $B'=b_0b_1...b_{i-1}$ 

$$LCS[i, j] = \begin{cases} 0 & if & i = 0 \text{ or } j = 0 \\ LCS[i-1, j-1] + 1 & if & a_{i-1} = b_{j-1} \\ \max(LCS[i, j-1], LCS[i-1, j]) & otherwise \end{cases}$$

 We can compute the equation recursively, but better way is to use an array and compute the values of LCS row by row from 0 to m-1 and for every row cells from 0 to n-1

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#### LCS – solution rules



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# LCS – example 1/2

- A="abbaa"
- B="bababab"
- n=5
- m=7

LCS[n,m]=

			b	а	b	а	b	а	b	
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
а	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
b	2	0	1	1						
b	3									
а	4									
а	5									
					ı					I

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# LCS – example 2/2

- A="abbaa"
- B="bababab"
- n=5
- m=7

• LCS[n,m]=4

O(n\*m)

 $O(n^2)$ 

			b	а	b	а	b	а	b	
_		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
а	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	
b	2	0	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	
b	3	0	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	
а	4	0	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	
a	5	0	1	2	2	3	3	4	4	
										,

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# Greedy algorithm

The **greedy method** for solving optimization problems follows the philosophy of *greedily maximizing* (or minimizing) **short-term gain** and hoping for the best without regard to long term consequences.

- Making decision based on optimizing short-term gain may not lead to solution that is optimal. So that you always need to prove that greedy solutions are indeed optimal
- Advance: Algorithms based on the greedy method are usually very simple,
   easy to code, and efficient
- <u>Disadvance</u>: when we uses the greedy method in algorithm to solve a problem, we often end up with less-than-optimal result.
- <u>Advance</u>: for some important problem the greedy method does yield optimal results (it is proved)!
- <u>Advance</u>: in some <u>important problems</u>, the greedy method yields results that are <u>not optimal</u> but in some sense are <u>good approximations</u> to optimal results.

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# Greedy algorithm – common alg.

```
procedure Greedy(S, Solution)
input: S (base set) // it is assumed that there is an associated objective
                    // function f defined on (possibly ordered) subsets of S
output: Solution (an ordered subset of S that potentially optimizes
                  the objective function f, or a message that Greedy
                  doesn't even produce a solution, optimal or not)
  PartialSolution = \emptyset // initialize the partial solution to be empty
  R=S
  while PartialSolution is not a solution and R!=0 do
    x=GreedySelect(R)
    R=R \setminus \{x\}
    if PartialSolution U {x} is feasible then
        PartialSolution = PartialSolution \cup \{x\}
    endif
  endwhile
  if PartialSolution is a solution then
      Solution=PartialSolution
  else
      write("Greedy fails to produce a solution")
  endif
end Greedy
```

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## Greedy algorithm – making change

- Making change suppose we have just purchased something and the salesperson wishes to give back exact change using the *fewest number* of coins. We assume that there is a sufficient amount of coins to make a change in any manner whatsoever.
- A greedy algorithm for making changes uses as many coins of the largest denomination as possible, then uses as many coins of the next largest denomination, and so forth.

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# Making change – an example(1)

possible coins: 1gr, 2gr, 5gr, 10gr, 20gr, 50gr

- total change=97gr
- change 50gr, rest=47gr
- change 20gr, rest=27gr
- change 20gr, rest=7gr
- change 5gr, rest=2gr
- change 2gr, rest=0gr
- number of coins = 5

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# Making change – an example(2)

possible coins: 1gr, 4gr, 5gr, 10gr, 40gr, 50gr

- total change=88gr
- change 50gr, rest=38gr
- change 10gr, rest=28gr
- change 10gr, rest=18gr
- change 10gr, rest=8gr
- change 5gr, rest=3gr
- change 1gr, rest=2gr
- change 1gr, rest=1gr
- change 1gr, rest=0gr
- number of coins = 8
- the best solution 88gr=40gr+40gr+4gr+4gr, number of coins = 4

By extension the **short-term** of gain we can improve the algorithm to be correct. Will it be still greedy algorithm...?

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# Other techniques

- Brute force exhaustive search
  - Generating all solutions, rejecting non-feasible and out of the other optimal selection.
  - If you are just looking for an algorithm, useful to create the correct tests.
- Search algorithms (of space of states)
  - Similar to the exhaustive search, however, it can reject sets of solutions that will never lead to a correct solution.
- Sweep line algorithm
  - Rather, in graphical algorithms, after the initial processing of data, information is gathered for solution by adding, for example, in order: from left to right, from bottom to top

• Etc.

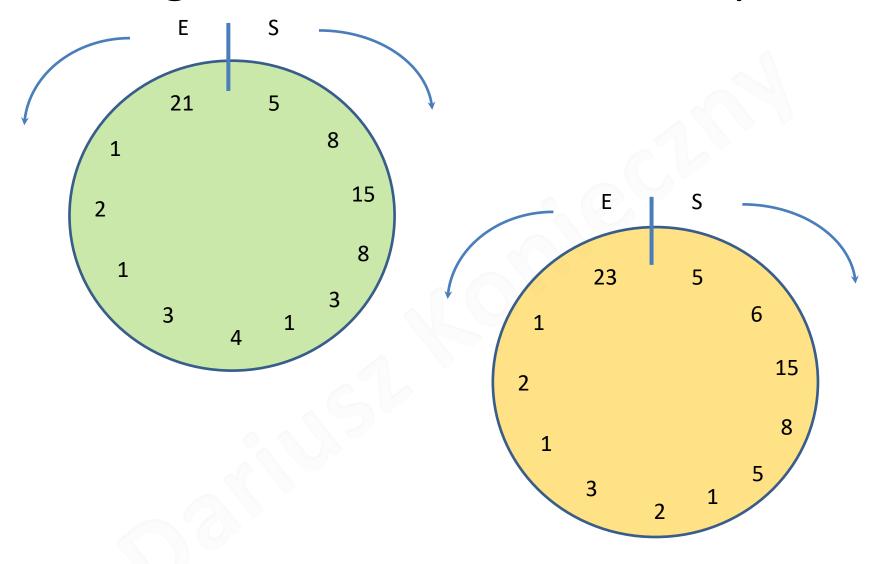
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### Example problems

- http://livearchive.onlinejudge.org/
- https://icpcarchive.ecs.baylor.edu/
- ->Browse Problems->ICPC Archive Volumes
  - 2535 Magnificent Meatballs
  - 2122 Recognizing S Expressions
  - <u>24</u>87 Lollies
  - <u>33</u>90 Pascal's Travels

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# Magnificent Meatballs - examples



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# S-expression examples

- Which are S-expressions?
  - t
  - #
  - tt
  - t,t
  - -(t,t)
  - -((a,b))
  - -(t,a,b)
  - -((A,a),b)
  - -((a,b),c
  - -((a,b),(c,g))
  - -(((t,u),w),h)
  - (q,(w,(e,r)))
  - -[x,y]

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# Lollies - examples

day	Iollies	delay	solution	
1	3	4		
2	5	8		
3	4	6		
4	2	3		
5	3	7		
6	4	3		
7	4	3		
8	3	1		
9	2	3		

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