CS 2500: Algorithms

Lecture 23: Dynamic Programming: Introduction

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Problem: Calculating Binomial Coefficient

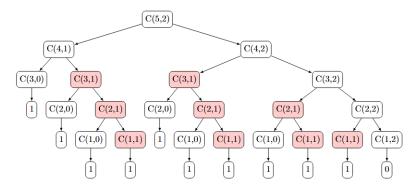


Figure: Recursion tree for calculating the binomial coefficient. We notice that same subproblem is being solved multiple times.

Problem: Calculating Binomial Coefficients

- To calculate the binomial coefficient C(n, k), we can divide the problem into subproblems, calculating C(n-1, k-1) and C(n-1, k), and then combine these to obtain the original solution C(n, k) = C(n-1, k-1) + C(n-1, k).
- This recursive approach often results in overlapping subproblems, as many values of C(i,j) are computed multiple times across different branches of the recursion tree.
- For example, calculating C(5,2) requires calculating C(4,1) and C(4,2), which themselves require calculations for C(3,1) multiple times, leading to redundant calculations.
- If we ignore this duplication, the algorithm becomes inefficient, with exponential time complexity.

Solution: Dynamic Programming

Dynamic programming (DP): A method for solving complex problems by breaking them down into simpler, smaller subproblems and solving each subproblem only once.

Key Idea: Avoid calculating the same thing twice, usually by keeping a table of known results that fills up as subinstances are solved.

What is Dynamic Programming?

Overlapping Subproblems:

- Dynamic programming (DP) is effective when a problem can be divided into subproblems that are solved multiple times.
- Example: In the binomial coefficient calculation, calculating C(5,2) involves calculating C(3,1) multiple times, as it appears in different branches of the recursion tree.
- DP saves the results of each subproblem in a table (or memoization) to avoid re-computing them, reducing the time complexity from exponential to polynomial.

What is Dynamic Programming?

Optimal Substructure:

- A problem exhibits optimal substructure if an optimal solution to the problem can be constructed from optimal solutions to its subproblems.
- Example: In the binomial coefficient problem, to compute C(n, k), we can use the formula:

$$C(n,k) = C(n-1,k-1) + C(n-1,k)$$

which means the optimal solution C(n,k) depends on the optimal solutions to the subproblems C(n-1,k-1) and C(n-1,k).

 DP leverages this property to build solutions from previously computed optimal solutions to subproblems, ensuring each subproblem is only solved once.

Dynamic Programming Approach for Binomial Coefficients

	0	1	2	3	• • •	k-1	\boldsymbol{k}
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
÷	:	:	÷	:	٠.		
n-1	1	C(n-1,1)	C(n-1,2)			C(n-1,k-1)	1
\boldsymbol{n}	1	C(n,1)	C(n,2)		C(n, k-2)	C(n-1,k-1) + C(n-1,k)	C(n,k)

Figure: To calculate binomial coefficients efficiently, we can use a table of intermediate results. This table can be filled line by line, where each entry C(n,k) is the sum of C(n-1,k-1) and C(n-1,k). By storing only the current line, we reduce space complexity to O(k) and time complexity to O(nk)

Dynamic Programming Approach for Binomial Coefficients

	0	1	2	3	4	5	
0	1						
1	1	1	1 3 6 10				
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	

Figure: Suppose we want to calculate C(5,2). Start by filling in the first few rows up to n=5. Use the recursive relation: C(5,2)=C(4,1)+C(4,2). Calculate C(4,1) and C(4,2) similarly,

filling in the values step-by-step. From the table, C(5,2) = 10.

Making Change Problem

- The goal is to devise an algorithm to make change for a given amount N using the minimum number of coins.
- Previously, we considered a greedy approach to this problem.
- However, the greedy algorithm may fail to find an optimal solution in cases where:
 - Some coin denominations are missing.
 - There is a shortage of certain coins.
- For example, with coins of 1, 4, and 6 units, to make change for 8 units:
 - Greedy algorithm uses one 6-unit coin and two 1-unit coins (total 3 coins).
 - Optimal solution uses two 4-unit coins (total 2 coins).
- Dynamic programming can be used to guarantee the optimal solution.

- To solve the making change problem with dynamic programming, we use a table to store intermediate results.
- Define c[i,j] as the minimum number of coins needed to make an amount j using the first i denominations.
- Assume:
 - There are n coin denominations, denoted by d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n .
 - We have an unlimited supply of coins for each denomination.
- The table c[i,j] is filled row by row:
 - Start from 0 up to the target amount *N*.
 - For each denomination, decide whether to include or exclude it in the current amount calculation.

Base Cases:

- Case j = 0:
 - c[i, 0] = 0 for all i.
 - Explanation: No coins are needed to make an amount of 0.
- Case i = 1 (Only the 1-unit coin is available):
 - If $j < d_1$: We cannot make the amount j using only the 1-unit coin, so $c[1, j] = \infty$.
 - If $j \ge d_1$: We can make the amount j using exactly j coins of the 1-unit denomination, so c[1,j]=j.

General Cases:

- For c[i,j], we have two choices:
 - **① Exclude** the *i*-th denomination d_i .
 - **2 Include** the *i*-th denomination d_i .

Case 1: Excluding the Current Coin:

- If we exclude the *i*-th denomination (d_i) :
 - The minimum number of coins needed to make amount j is the same as when we only consider the first i-1 denominations.
 - Thus, we have:

$$c[i,j] = c[i-1,j]$$

• This option is necessary when $j < d_i$, as we cannot use the i-th coin for amount j.

Case 2: Including the Current Coin:

- If we include the *i*-th denomination (d_i) :
 - We use one d_i -coin, so we add 1 to our solution.
 - The remaining amount to be made is $j d_i$.
 - Therefore, the recurrence relation becomes:

$$c[i,j] = 1 + c[i,j-d_i]$$

• This option is only possible if $j \ge d_i$, meaning the current denomination can contribute to the amount.

Combining the Two Cases:

- For each entry c[i,j], we want the minimum number of coins needed to make the amount j.
- Thus, we take the minimum of the two choices (including or excluding d_i):

$$c[i,j] = \min(c[i-1,j], 1 + c[i,j-d_i])$$

• This recurrence ensures that we always choose the option with the fewest coins.

Complete Recurrence Relation: The complete recurrence relation is:

$$c[i,j] = \begin{cases} j & \text{if } i = 1 \text{ and } j \geq d_1 \\ \infty & \text{if } i = 1 \text{ and } j < d_1 \\ c[i-1,j] & \text{if } j < d_i \\ \min(c[i-1,j], 1 + c[i,j-d_i]) & \text{if } j \geq d_i \text{ and } i > 1 \end{cases}$$

- This formula handles all cases for c[i,j]:
 - Base cases and initialization.
 - Minimum coin selection by combining choices.

Dynamic Programming Table Setup

- Define c[i,j]: Minimum number of coins needed to make amount j using the first i denominations.
- Table dimensions: n rows (one for each denomination) and N+1 columns (for each amount from 0 to N).
- Initialization:
 - c[i, 0] = 0 for all i, since no coins are needed to make amount 0.
 - Set $c[i,j] = \infty$ initially for all other values.

Step 1: Filling Row 1 (Using Only 1-Unit Coins)

- For i = 1 (using only the 1-unit coin):
 - For each amount j from 1 to 8:

$$c[1,j]=j$$

- This is because we can only use 1-unit coins, so j coins are needed to make amount j.
- The first row of the table becomes:

$$c[1,j] = [0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8]$$

Step 2: Filling Row 2 (Using Coins of 1 and 4 Units)

- For i = 2 (using coins of 1 and 4 units):
 - For j < 4: We can only use the 1-unit coin, so c[2, j] = c[1, j].
 - For $j \ge 4$: We have two choices:
 - **1** Exclude the 4-unit coin: Use c[1, j].
 - 2 Include the 4-unit coin: Use 1 + c[2, j 4].
 - Take the minimum of these two options.
- The second row of the table becomes:

$$c[2,j] = [0,1,2,3,1,2,3,2,3]$$

Step 2: Filling Row 2 (Using Coins of 1 and 4 Units)

- For i = 2, we consider both the 1-unit and 4-unit coins.
- We fill each column *j* in row 2 as follows:
 - For j = 0: No coins are needed to make 0, so c[2, 0] = 0.
 - For j=1: Only the 1-unit coin can be used (since j<4), so c[2,1]=c[1,1]=1.
 - For j = 2: Only the 1-unit coin can be used (since j < 4), so c[2,2] = c[1,2] = 2.
 - For j = 3: Only the 1-unit coin can be used (since j < 4), so c[2,3] = c[1,3] = 3.
 - For j = 4: We have two choices:
 - ① Exclude the 4-unit coin: Use the value from the previous row, c[1,4]=4.
 - ② Include the 4-unit coin: Use 1 + c[2,0] = 1 (one 4-unit coin plus the solution for the remaining amount 0).
 - Take the minimum: c[2, 4] = min(4, 1) = 1.

Step 2: Filling Row 2 (Using Coins of 1 and 4 Units)

- For i = 2, we consider both the 1-unit and 4-unit coins.
- We fill each column j in row 2 as follows:
 - For j = 5: Two choices:
 - **1** Exclude the 4-unit coin: c[1,5] = 5.
 - ② Include the 4-unit coin: 1 + c[2, 1] = 1 + 1 = 2.
 - Take the minimum: c[2,5] = min(5,2) = 2.
 - For j = 6: Two choices:
 - ① Exclude the 4-unit coin: c[1,6] = 6.
 - ② Include the 4-unit coin: 1 + c[2, 2] = 1 + 2 = 3.
 - Take the minimum: c[2, 6] = min(6, 3) = 3.
 - For j = 7: Two choices:
 - ① Exclude the 4-unit coin: c[1,7] = 7.
 - ② Include the 4-unit coin: 1 + c[2,3] = 1 + 3 = 4.
 - Take the minimum: c[2,7] = min(7,4) = 4.
 - For j = 8: Two choices:
 - **1** Exclude the 4-unit coin: c[1,8] = 8.
 - ② Include the 4-unit coin: 1 + c[2, 4] = 1 + 1 = 2.
 - Take the minimum: c[2,8] = min(8,2) = 2.

Step 3: Filling Row 3 (Using Coins of 1, 4, and 6 Units)

- For i = 3 (using coins of 1, 4, and 6 units):
 - For j < 6: We can only use the denominations 1 and 4, so c[3,j] = c[2,j].
 - For $j \ge 6$: We have two choices:
 - **1** Exclude the 6-unit coin: Use c[2, j].
 - 2 Include the 6-unit coin: Use 1 + c[3, j 6].
 - Take the minimum of these two options.
- The third row of the table becomes:

$$c[3,j] = [0,1,2,3,1,2,1,2,2]$$

		0								
Final Table	$d_1 = 1$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
rinai Table	$d_2 = 4$	0	1	2	3	1	2	3	4	2
Final Table	$d_3 = 6$	0	1	2	3	1	2	1	2	2

- The final answer is in the cell c[3,8] = 2.
- This indicates that the minimum number of coins needed to make 8 units is 2.

Dynamic Programming Algorithm for Making Change

Algorithm 1 MakeChangeDP

```
1: Input: Amount N, denominations d = [d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n]
2: Output: Minimum number of coins needed to make change for N
3: Initialize a table c[i,j] with size n \times (N+1)
   for i = 1 to n do
       for j = 0 to N do
           if i = 1 and j < d[i] then
6:
               c[i,j] \leftarrow \infty
7:
           else if i = 1 and j \ge d[i] then
8:
               c[i,j] \leftarrow 1 + c[i,j-d[i]]
9:
           else if j < d[i] then
10:
               c[i,j] \leftarrow c[i-1,j]
11:
           else
12:
               c[i, j] \leftarrow \min(c[i-1, j], 1 + c[i, j - d[i]])
13:
14:
           end if
       end for
15:
16: end for
17: return c[n, N]
```

Dynamic Programming Algorithm for Making Change

Analysis of the Algorithm

- The algorithm fills up an $n \times (N+1)$ table, giving it a time complexity of $\Theta(nN)$.
- For each entry c[i,j], the algorithm makes a constant-time decision.
- By storing results in a table, the algorithm avoids redundant calculations.
- This approach ensures that we get the minimum number of coins needed to make any amount up to N.

- The solution to the making change problem obtained by dynamic programming is straightforward.
- However, it is important to understand that it relies on a fundamental concept called the principle of optimality.
- The principle of optimality states:
 In an optimal sequence of decisions or choices, each subsequence must also be optimal.
- This principle often appears natural in dynamic programming problems, but it is crucial to the correctness of the solution.

Applying the Principle of Optimality

• In the making change problem, we calculate c[i,j] as:

$$c[i,j] = \min(c[i-1,j], 1 + c[i,j-d_i])$$

- This calculation assumes:
 - If c[i,j] is the optimal way to make change for j units using coins of denominations d_1 to d_i ,
 - Then c[i-1,j] and $c[i,j-d_i]$ must also represent optimal solutions for their respective subproblems.
- In other words, each value in the table represents the optimal solution to the subproblem it addresses.

Optimality in Table Values

- The only value in the table that we are truly interested in is c[n, N] (the minimum coins needed for amount N using all denominations).
- However, for c[n, N] to be optimal, each other entry in the table must also represent optimal choices for their subproblems.
- Thus, we rely on the principle of optimality throughout the entire table.

When the Principle of Optimality Does Not Apply

- Although the principle of optimality may appear obvious, it does not apply to every problem.
- When the principle of optimality does not hold:
 - It may not be possible to solve the problem using dynamic programming.
- For example, if a problem concerns the optimal use of limited resources:
 - The optimal solution to an instance might not be achievable by combining optimal solutions of subproblems.

Example: Shortest Route Problem

- Consider the shortest route from Montreal to Toronto via Kingston.
- If the shortest route from Montreal to Toronto passes through Kingston:
 - Then the segment from Montreal to Kingston must be the shortest possible route.
 - Similarly, the segment from Kingston to Toronto must also be the shortest.
- In this case, the principle of optimality applies.

When the Principle Fails in Shortest Route Problems

- Suppose the fastest way from Montreal to Toronto passes through Kingston:
 - It does not necessarily follow that it's best to drive as fast as possible from Montreal to Kingston and then from Kingston to Toronto.
 - For example, if we use too much fuel on the first half, we may need to refill later, losing time overall.
- Here, the sub-trips from Montreal to Kingston and from Kingston to Toronto are not independent:
 - They share resources (fuel).
 - An optimal solution for one part may prevent an optimal solution for the other.
- In this case, the principle of optimality does not apply.

Why the Principle Often Applies in Dynamic Programming

- Despite some exceptions, the principle of optimality applies more often than not.
- Restatement of the principle:
 - The optimal solution to any nontrivial instance of a problem is a combination of optimal solutions to **some** of its subproblems.
- The difficulty in applying this principle lies in identifying which subproblems are relevant to the solution.

Example of Relevance in Shortest Route Problems

- In finding the shortest route from Montreal to Toronto, we may not need the shortest route from Montreal to Ottawa if it is not on the path.
- Dynamic programming avoids calculating irrelevant subproblems:
 - It calculates solutions only for subproblems relevant to the main problem.
- This is one of the strengths of dynamic programming.