CH08-320201

Algorithms and Data Structures

ADS

Lecture 19

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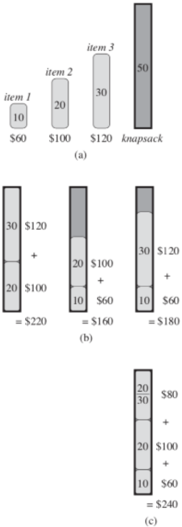
Conclusions: Greedy Approach for the Knapsack Problem

- As already mentioned, the locally optimal choice of a greedy approach does not necessary lead to a globally optimal one.
- For the knapsack problem, the greedy approach actually fails to produce a globally optimal solution.
- However, it produces an approximation, which sometimes is good enough.

0-1 vs. Fractional Knapsack Problem

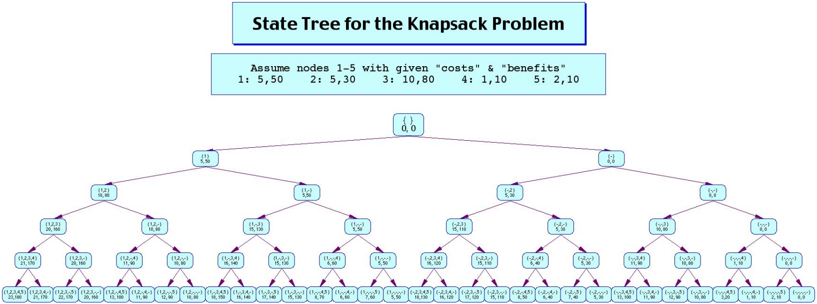
- 0-1 knapsack problem
  - Either take (1) or leave an object (0)
  - Greedy fails to produce global optimum
- fractional knapsack problem
  - You can take fractions of an object
  - Greedy strategy: value per weight v/w $\rightarrow$ begin taking as much as possible of item with greatest v/w , then with next greater v/w, ...
  - Leads to global optimum (proof by contradiction)
- What is the difference?



Alternatives for 0-1 Knapsack (1)

Brute-Force:

- Benefit: it finds the optimum
- Drawback: it takes very long - $O(2^n)$
- Because recomputing the results of the same subproblems over and over again



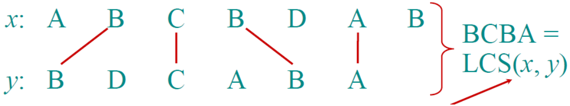
Alternatives for 0-1 Knapsack (2)

Dynamic programming:

- Optimal substructure:
  - optimal solution to problem consists of optimal solutions to subproblems
- Overlapping subproblems:
  - few subproblems in total, many recurring instances of each
- Main idea:
  - use a table to store solved subproblems

Dynamic Programming: Problem

- Given two sequences $x[1..m]$ and $y[1..n]$, find a longest subsequence common to both of them.
- Example:



Brute-Force Solution

Check every subsequence of $x[1..m]$ to see if it is also a subsequence of $y[1..n]$.

Analysis:

- Checking per subsequence is done in $O(n)$.
- As each bit-vector of m determines a distinct subsequence of x, x has 2^m subsequences.
- Hence, the worst-case running time is $O(n \cdot 2^m)$, i.e., it is exponential.

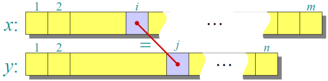
Strategy

- Look at length of longest-common subsequence.
- Let $|s|$ denote the length of a sequence s.
- To find $LCS(x, y)$, consider prefixes of x and y (i.e. we go from right to left)
- Definition: $c[i, j] = |LCS(x[1..i], y[1..j])|$.
  In particular, $c[m, n] = |LCS(x, y)|$.
- Theorem (recursive formulation):

$$c[i,j] = \begin{cases} c[i-1, j-1] + 1 & \text{if } x[i] = y[j], \\ \max\{c[i-1, j], c[i, j-1]\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Proof (1)

Case $x[i] = y[j]$:



Let $z[1..k] = LCS(x[1..i], y[1..j])$ with $c[i,j] = k$.
Then, $z[k] = x[i] = y[j]$ (else z could be extended).
Thus, $z[1..k-1]$ is CS of $x[1..i-1]$ and $y[1..j-1]$.
Claim: $z[1..k-1] = LCS(x[1..i-1], y[1..j-1])$.

- Assume w is a longer CS of $x[1..i-1]$ and $y[1..j-1]$, i.e., $|w| > k-1$.
- Then the concatenation $w++z[k]$ is a CS of $x[1..i]$ and $y[1..j]$ with length $> k$.
- This contradicts $|LCS(x[1..i], y[1..j])| = k$.
- Hence, the assumption was wrong and the claim is proven.

Hence, $c[i-1, j-1] = k-1$, i.e., $c[i,j] = c[i-1, j-1] + 1$.

Proof (2)

Case $x[i] \neq y[j]$:

Then, $z[k] \neq x[i]$ or $z[k] \neq y[j]$.

- $z[k] \neq x[i]$:
  Then, $z[1..k] = LCS(x[1..i-1], y[1..j])$.
  Thus, $c[i-1, j] = k = c[i, j]$.
- $z[k] \neq y[j]$:
  Then, $z[1..k] = LCS(x[1..i], y[1..j-1])$.
  Thus, $c[i, j-1] = k = c[i, j]$.

In summary, $c[i, j] = \max\{c[i-1, j], c[i, j-1]\}$.

Dynamic Programming Concept (1)

Step 1: Optimal substructure.
An optimal solution to a problem contains optimal solutions to subproblems.

Example:
If $z = LCS(x, y)$, then any prefix of z is an LCS of a prefix of x and a prefix of y.

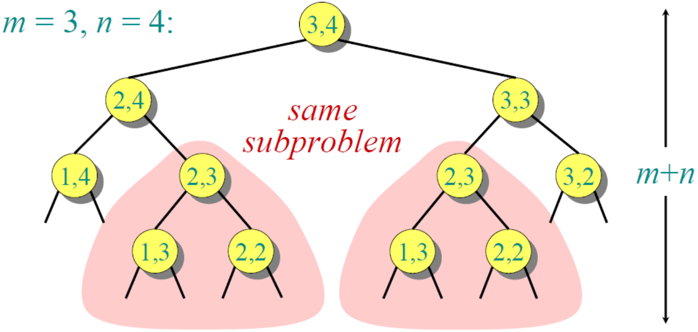
Recursive Algorithm

- Computation of the length of LCS:

```
LCSlength(x,y,i,j):
  if i=0 or j=0
    return 0
  else if x[i] = y[j]
    return LCSlength(x,y,i-1,j-1)+1
  else return max {LCSlength(x,y,i-1,j),
                   LCSlength(x,y,i,j-1)}
```

- Remark: if $x[i] \neq y[j]$, the algorithm evaluates two subproblems that are very similar.

Recursive Tree



Height $= m + n \Rightarrow$ work potentially exponential, but we're solving subproblems already solved!

Dynamic Programming Concept (2)

Step 2: Overlapping subproblems.
A recursive solution contains a "small" number of distinct subproblems repeated many times.

Example:
The number of distinct LCS subproblems for two prefixes of lengths m and n is only $m \cdot n$.

Memoization Algorithm

Memoization:

- After computing a solution to a subproblem, store it in a table.
- Subsequent calls check the table to avoid repeating the same computation.

Recursive Algorithm with Memoization

Computation of the length of *LCS*:

```
LCSlength (x,y,i,j):
  if c[i,j] = NIL
    then if i=0 or j=0
      c[i,j] = 0
    else if x[i] = y[j]
      c[i,j] = LCSlength (x,y,i-1,j-1)+1
    else c[i,j] = max {LCSlength (x,y,i-1,j),
                       LCSlength (x,y,i,j-1)}
  return c[i,j]
```

Dynamic Programming

Compute the table bottom-up:

		A	B	C	B	D	A	B
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
B	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
D	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2
C	0	0	1	2	2	2	2	2
A	0	1	1	2	2	2	3	3
B	0	1	2	2	3	3	3	4
A	0	1	2	2	3	3	4	4