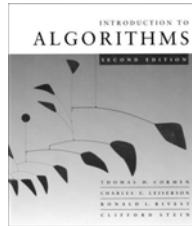




CS 5633 -- Spring 2008



Dynamic Programming

Carola Wenk

Slides courtesy of Charles Leiserson with small changes by Carola Wenk

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

1



Dynamic programming

- Algorithm design technique (like divide and conquer)
- Is a technique for solving problems that have
 - overlapping subproblems
 - and, when used for optimization, have an optimal substructure property
- **Idea:** Do not repeatedly solve the same subproblems, but solve them only once and store the solutions in a **dynamic programming table**

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

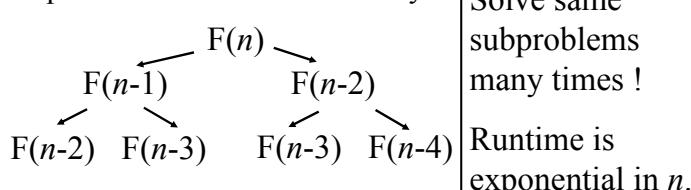
2



Example: Fibonacci numbers

- $F(0)=0; F(1)=1; F(n)=F(n-1)+F(n-2)$ for $n \geq 2$

- Implement this recursion naively:



- Store 1D DP-table and fill bottom-up in $O(n)$ time:

F:	0	1	1	2	3	5	8			
----	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--	--	--

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

3

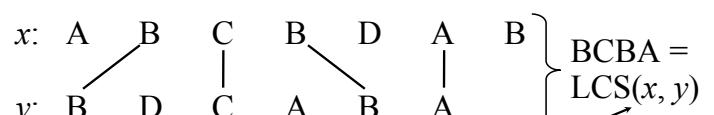


Longest Common Subsequence

Example: Longest Common Subsequence (LCS)

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

“a” not “the”



functional notation,
but not a function

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

4



Brute-force LCS algorithm

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

Analysis

- 2^m subsequences of x (each bit-vector of length m determines a distinct subsequence of x).
- Hence, the runtime would be exponential !

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

5



Towards a better algorithm

Two-Step Approach:

1. Look at the *length* of a longest-common subsequence.
2. Extend the algorithm to find the LCS itself.

Notation: Denote the length of a sequence s by $|s|$.

Strategy: Consider *prefixes* of x and y .

- Define $c[i, j] = |\text{LCS}(x[1 \dots i], y[1 \dots j])|$.
- Then, $c[m, n] = |\text{LCS}(x, y)|$.

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

6

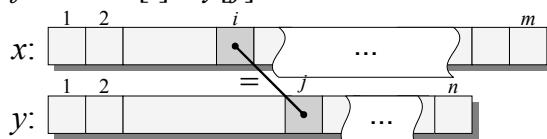


Recursive formulation

Theorem.

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

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



Let $z[1 \dots k] = \text{LCS}(x[1 \dots i], y[1 \dots j])$, where $c[i, j] = k$. Then, $z[k] = x[i]$, or else z could be extended. Thus, $z[1 \dots k-1]$ is CS of $x[1 \dots i-1]$ and $y[1 \dots j-1]$.

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

7



Proof (continued)

Claim: $z[1 \dots k-1] = \text{LCS}(x[1 \dots i-1], y[1 \dots j-1])$.

Suppose w is a longer CS of $x[1 \dots i-1]$ and $y[1 \dots j-1]$, that is, $|w| > k-1$. Then, **cut and paste**: $w \parallel z[k]$ (w concatenated with $z[k]$) is a common subsequence of $x[1 \dots i]$ and $y[1 \dots j]$ with $|w \parallel z[k]| > k$. Contradiction, proving the claim.

Thus, $c[i-1, j-1] = k-1$, which implies that $c[i, j] = c[i-1, j-1] + 1$.

Other cases are similar. \square

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

8



Dynamic-programming hallmark #1

Optimal substructure

An optimal solution to a problem (instance) contains optimal solutions to subproblems.

→ Recurrence

If $z = \text{LCS}(x, y)$, then any prefix of z is an LCS of a prefix of x and a prefix of y .

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

9



Recursive algorithm for LCS

$\text{LCS}(x, y, i, j)$

if $x[i] = y[j]$

then $c[i, j] \leftarrow \text{LCS}(x, y, i-1, j-1) + 1$

else $c[i, j] \leftarrow \max \{ \text{LCS}(x, y, i-1, j), \text{LCS}(x, y, i, j-1) \}$

Worst-case: $x[i] \neq y[j]$, in which case the algorithm evaluates two subproblems, each with only one parameter decremented.

3/4/08

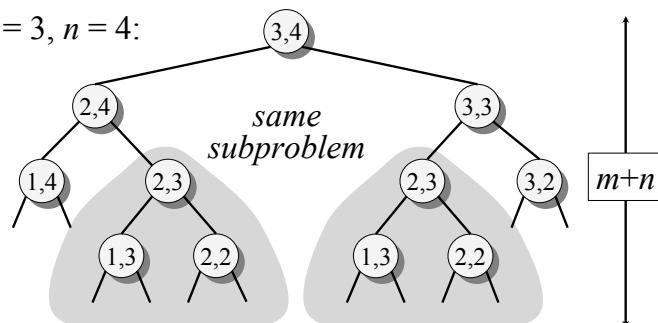
CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

10



Recursion tree

$m = 3, n = 4$:



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

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

11



Dynamic-programming hallmark #2

Overlapping subproblems

A recursive solution contains a “small” number of distinct subproblems repeated many times.

The number of distinct LCS subproblems for two strings of lengths m and n is only mn .

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

12



Dynamic-programming

There are two variants of dynamic programming:

1. Memoization
2. Bottom-up dynamic programming
(often referred to as “dynamic programming”)

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

13



Memoization algorithm

Memoization: After computing a solution to a subproblem, store it in a table. Subsequent calls check the table to avoid redoing work.

```

for all  $i, j$ :  $c[i, 0] = 0$  and  $c[0, j] = 0$ 
LCS( $x, y, i, j$ )
  if  $c[i, j] = \text{NIL}$ 
    then if  $x[i] = y[j]$ 
      then  $c[i, j] \leftarrow \text{LCS}(x, y, i-1, j-1) + 1$ 
    else  $c[i, j] \leftarrow \max \{ \text{LCS}(x, y, i-1, j),$ 
       $\text{LCS}(x, y, i, j-1) \} \}^{as before}_{same}$ 
```

Time = $\Theta(mn)$ = constant work per table entry.
Space = $\Theta(mn)$.

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

14



Memoization

	$x: A$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$y:$	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
$LCS(x, y, 7, 6)$								
$(6,6)$	1	B	0	0	1	nil	nil	nil
$(5,5)$	2	D	0	0	1	nil	nil	nil
$(4,5)$	3	C	0	0	2	nil	nil	nil
$(5,4)$	4	A	0	1	nil	nil	nil	nil
$(5,3)$	5	B	0	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil
\vdots	6	A	0	nil	nil	nil	nil	nil

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

15



Bottom-up dynamic-programming algorithm

IDEA:

Compute the table bottom-up.

Time = $\Theta(mn)$.

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

3/4/08

CS 5633 Analysis of Algorithms

16



Bottom-up dynamic-programming algorithm

IDEA:

Compute the table bottom-up.

Time = $\Theta(mn)$.

Reconstruct LCS by back-tracing.

Space = $\Theta(mn)$.

Exercise:
 $O(\min\{m, n\})$.

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