

# Dynamic Programming

Textbook Reading  
Chapters 15, 24 & 25

# Overview

## Design principle

- Recursively break the problem into smaller subproblems.
- Avoid repeatedly solving the same subproblems by caching their solutions.

## Important tool

- Recurrence relations

## Problems

- Weighted interval scheduling
- Sequence alignment
- Optimal binary search trees
- Shortest paths

# Weighted Interval Scheduling

## Given:

A set of activities competing for time intervals on a certain resource (E.g., classes to be scheduled competing for a classroom)

## Goal:

Schedule non-conflicting activities so that the **total time** the resource is in use is maximized.



# W. I. S.: A Naïve Solution

- Try all possible subsets.
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**Cost:**  $O(2^n \cdot n^2)$

# W. I. S.: Towards a Better Solution

## General idea:

- Try to make **one choice at a time**, just as in a greedy algorithm.
- In each step, what are the options we can choose from?
- What can we say about the subproblem we obtain after choosing each option?

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If the maximal-length subset of  $\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n\}$  does not include  $I_n$ , then it must be a maximal-length subset of  $\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{n-1}\}$ .

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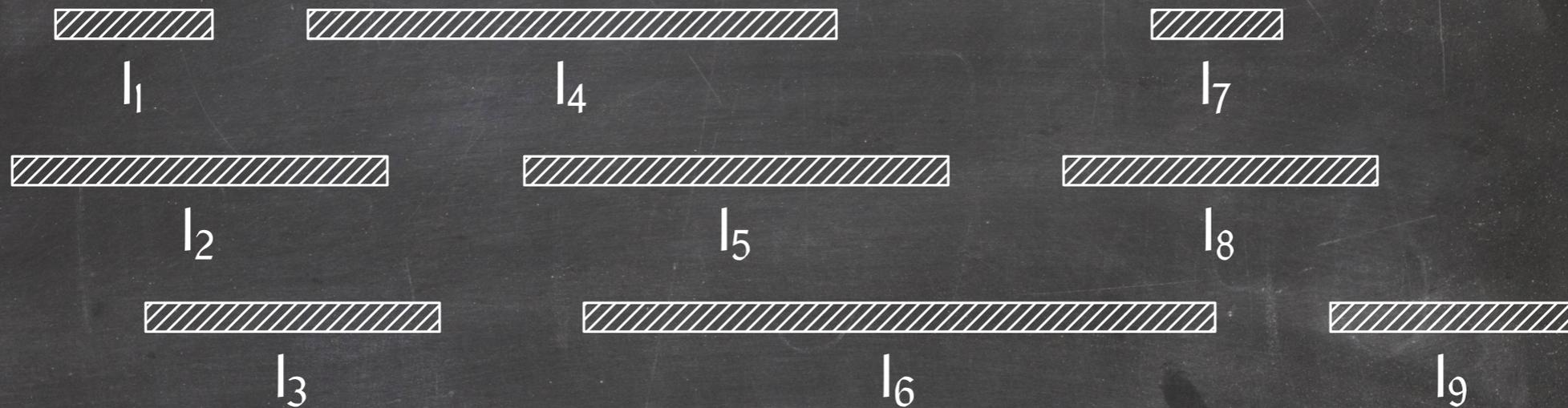
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If the maximal-length subset of  $\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n\}$  includes  $I_n$ , then it must be  $O \cup \{I_n\}$ , where  $O$  is a maximal-length subset of all intervals in  $\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n\}$  that do not overlap  $I_n$ .

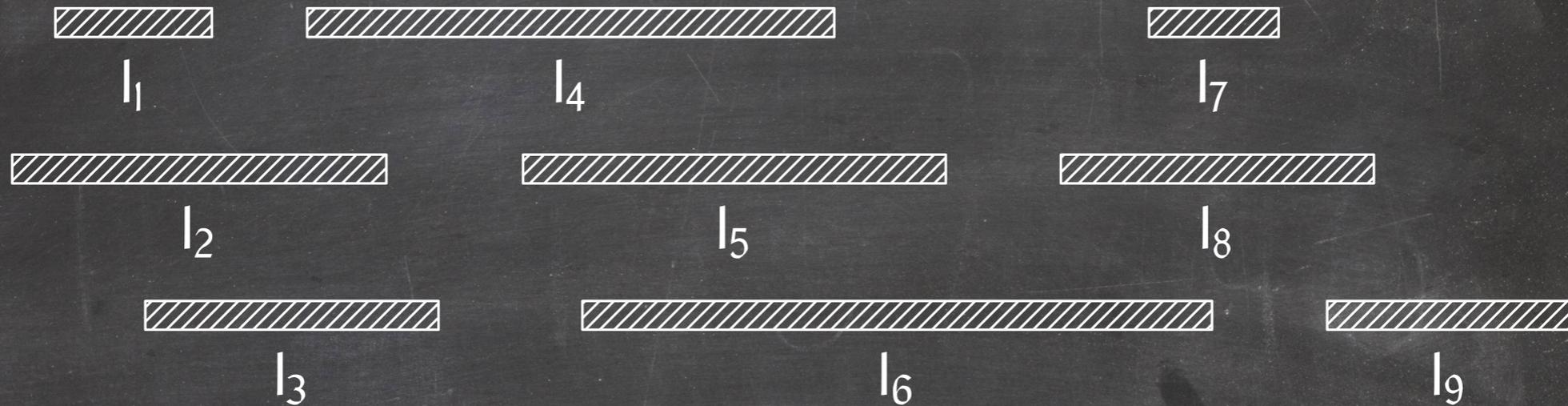
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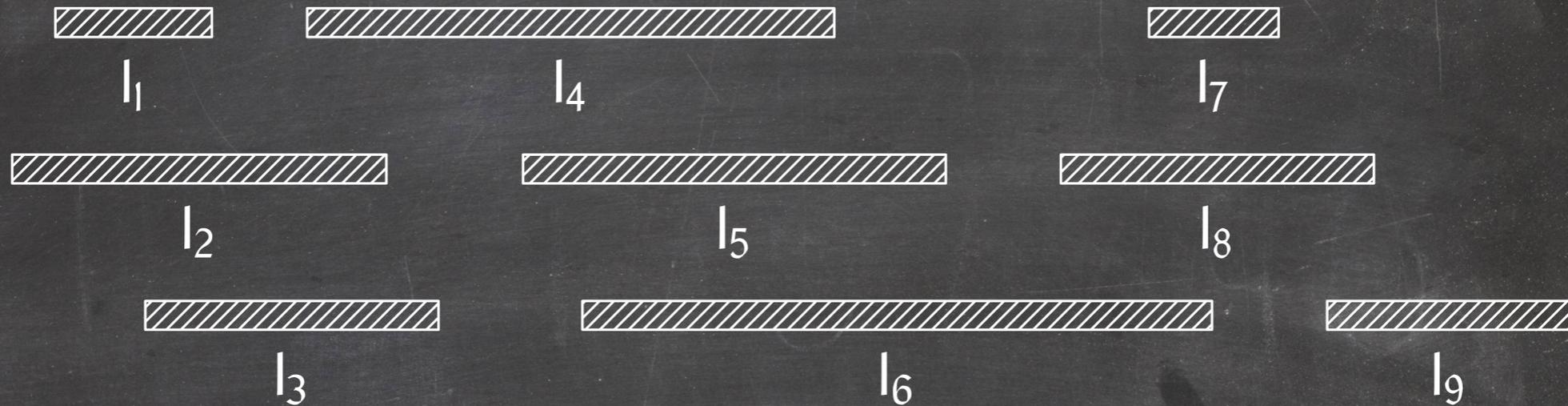


For  $1 \leq j \leq n$ , let  $p_j = \max(\{0\} \cup \{k \mid 1 \leq k < j \text{ and } I_k \text{ does not overlap } I_j\})$ .

$j$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$p_j$	0	0	0	1	3	3	5	5	7

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If the maximal-length subset of  $\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n\}$  includes  $I_n$ , then it is  $O_{p_n}$ , where  $O_{p_n}$  is a maximal-length subset of the intervals  $\{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{p_n}\}$ .

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$$\ell(j) = \begin{cases} 0 & j = 0 \\ \max(\ell(j-1), |I_j| + \ell(p_j)) & j > 0 \end{cases}$$

# W. I. S.: A Recursive Algorithm

FindScheduleLength( $l, p, j$ )

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1  if  $j = 0$   
2  then return 0  
3  else return  $\max(\text{FindScheduleLength}(l, p, p[j]) + |l[j]|,$   
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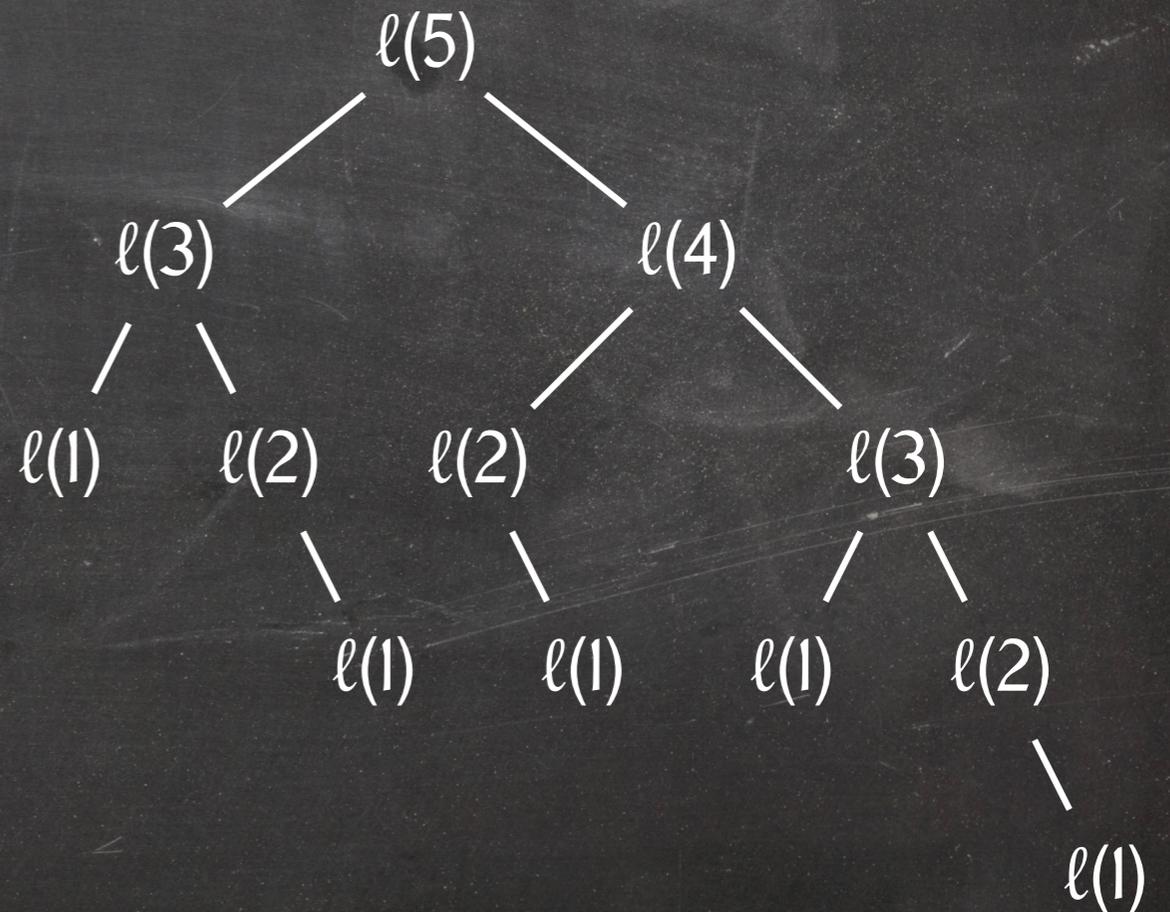
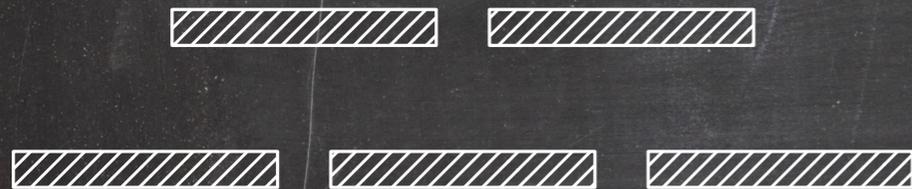
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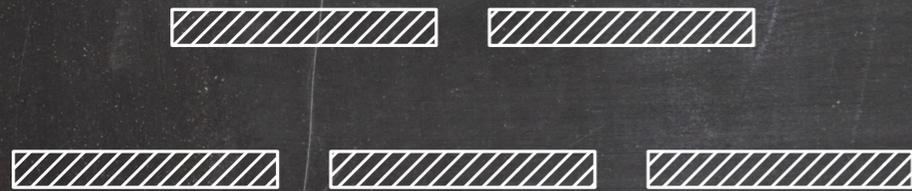


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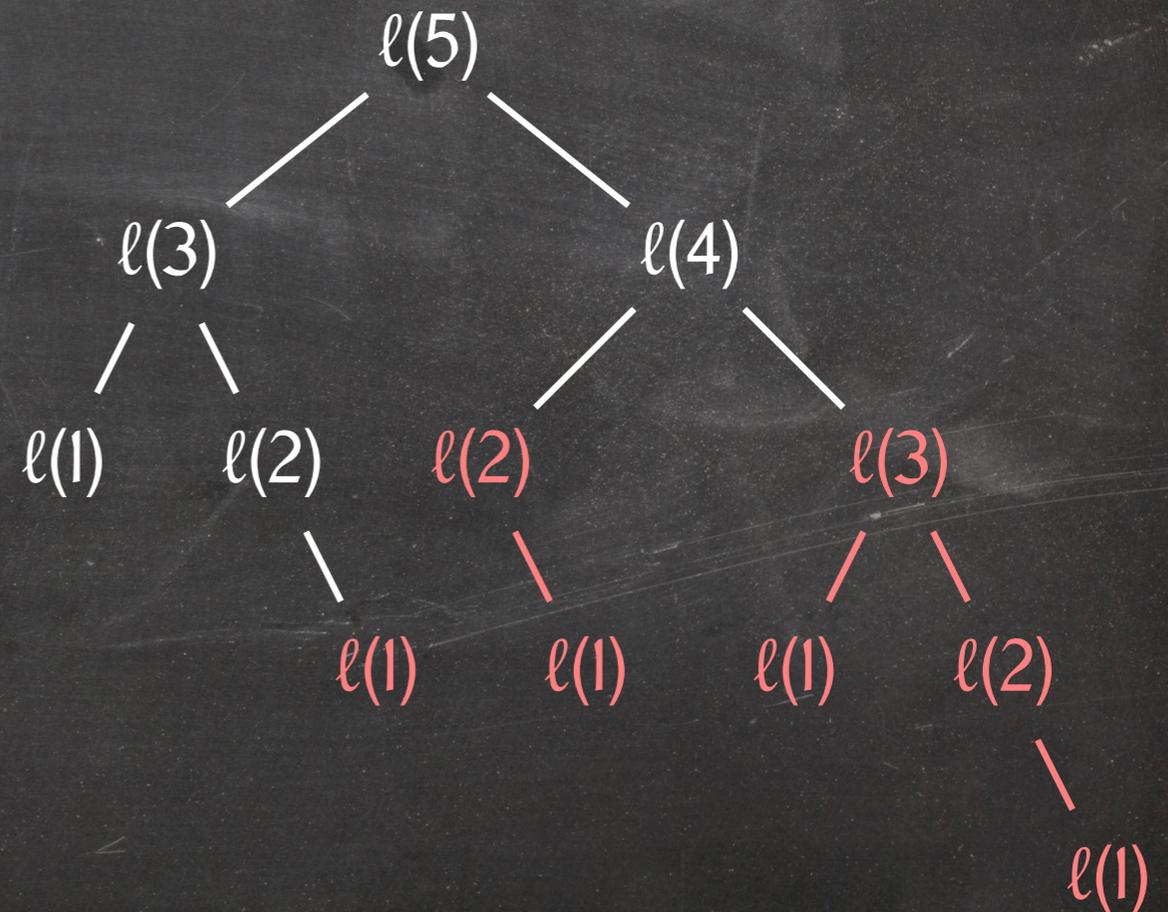
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The recursive algorithm computes many values repeatedly.

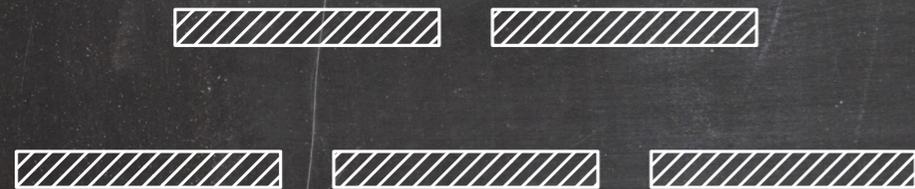


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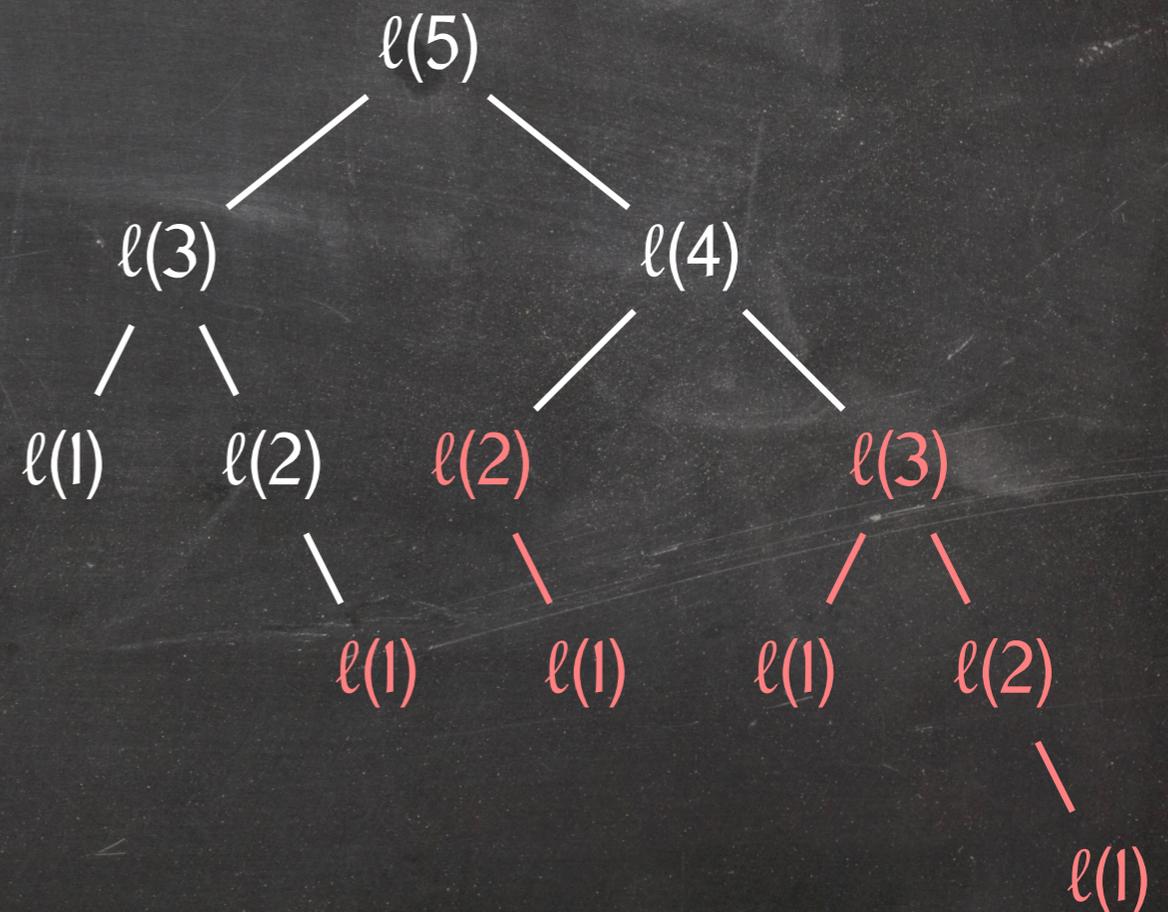
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There are only  $n$  values to compute!



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### Disadvantage over memoization:

- Need to worry about the order in which the table entries are computed:
  - All entries needed to compute the current entry need to be computed first.
- Memoization computes table entries as needed.

# W. I. S.: Computing the Set of Intervals

## FindSchedule(I, p)

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1   $\ell[0] = 0$ 
2   $S[0] = []$ 
3  for  $j = 1$  to  $n$ 
4      do if  $\ell[j - 1] > \ell[p[j]] + |I[j]|$ 
5          then  $\ell[j] = \ell[j - 1]$ 
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This computes the sequence of intervals ordered from last to first.

This list is of course easy to reverse in linear time.

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**Theorem:** The weighted interval scheduling problem can be solved in  $O(n \lg n)$  time.

# The Dynamic Programming Technique

## The technique:

- Develop a **recurrence** expressing the **optimal solution** for a given problem instance in terms of optimal solutions for smaller problem instances:
- Evaluate this recurrence
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A speed-up over the naïve recursive algorithm is achieved if the problem exhibits **overlapping subproblems**: The same subproblem occurs over and over again in the recursive evaluation of the recurrence.

# Developing a Dynamic Programming Algorithm

## Step 1: Think top-down:

- Consider an optimal solution (without worrying about how to compute it).
- Identify how the optimal solution of any problem instance decomposes into optimal solutions to smaller problem instances.
- Write down a recurrence based on this analysis.

## Step 2: Formulate the algorithm, which computes the solution bottom-up:

- Since an optimal solution depends on optimal solutions to smaller problem instances, we need to compute those first.

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What's a good similarity criterion?

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**Problem:** Given two strings  $X = x_1x_2 \cdots x_m$  and  $Y = y_1y_2 \cdots y_n$ , extend them to two strings  $X' = x'_1x'_2 \cdots x'_t$  and  $Y' = y'_1y'_2 \cdots y'_t$  of the same length by inserting gaps so that the following dissimilarity measure  $D(X', Y')$  is minimized:

$$D(X', Y') = \sum_{i=1}^t d(x'_i, y'_i)$$

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} \delta & x = \_ \text{ or } y = \_ \text{ (gap penalty)} \\ \mu_{x,y} & \text{otherwise (mismatch penalty)} \end{cases}$$

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**Another (more important?) application:**

DNA sequence alignment to measure the similarity between different DNA samples.

# Sequence Alignment: Problem Analysis

Assume  $(x'_1 x'_2 \cdots x'_t, y'_1 y'_2 \cdots y'_t)$  is an optimal alignment for  $(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m, y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n)$ .

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$$\sum_{i=1}^s d(x''_i, y''_i) < \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} d(x'_i, y'_i).$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^s d(x''_i, y''_i) < \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} d(x'_i, y'_i).$$

Then  $(x''_1 x''_2 \cdots x''_s x'_t, y''_1 y''_2 \cdots y''_s y'_t)$  is an alignment for  $(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m, y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n)$  with dissimilarity

$$\sum_{i=1}^s d(x''_i, y''_i) + d(x'_t, y'_t) < \sum_{i=1}^{t-1} d(x'_i, y'_i) + d(x'_t, y'_t) = \sum_{i=1}^t d(x'_i, y'_i),$$

a contradiction.

# Sequence Alignment: Problem Analysis

Assume  $(x'_1 x'_2 \cdots x'_t, y'_1 y'_2 \cdots y'_t)$  is an optimal alignment for  $(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m, y_1 y_2 \cdots y_n)$ .

What choices do we have for the final pair  $(x'_t, y'_t)$ ?

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Let  $D(i, j)$  be the dissimilarity of the strings  $x_1x_2 \cdots x_i$  and  $y_1y_2 \cdots y_j$ .

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Recurrence:

$$D(i, j) = \begin{cases} \delta \cdot j & i = 0 \\ \delta \cdot i & j = 0 \\ \min(D(i-1, j-1) + \mu_{x_i, y_j}, D(i, j-1) + \delta, D(i-1, j) + \delta) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Sequence Alignment: The Algorithm

SequenceAlignment( $X, Y, \mu, \delta$ )

```
1  D[0, 0] = 0
2  A[0, 0] = []
3  for i = 1 to m
4      do D[i, 0] = D[i - 1, 0] +  $\delta$ 
5          A[i, 0] = [(X[i],  $\_$ )] ++ A[i - 1, 0]
6  for j = 1 to n
7      do D[0, j] = D[0, j - 1] +  $\delta$ 
8          A[0, j] = [( $\_$ , Y[j])] ++ A[0, j - 1]
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Running time:  $O(mn)$

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Again, the sequence alignment is reported back-to-front and can be reversed in  $O(m + n)$  time.

# Optimal Binary Search Trees

Balanced binary search trees (red-black trees, AVL trees, ...) guarantee  $O(\lg n)$  time to find an element.

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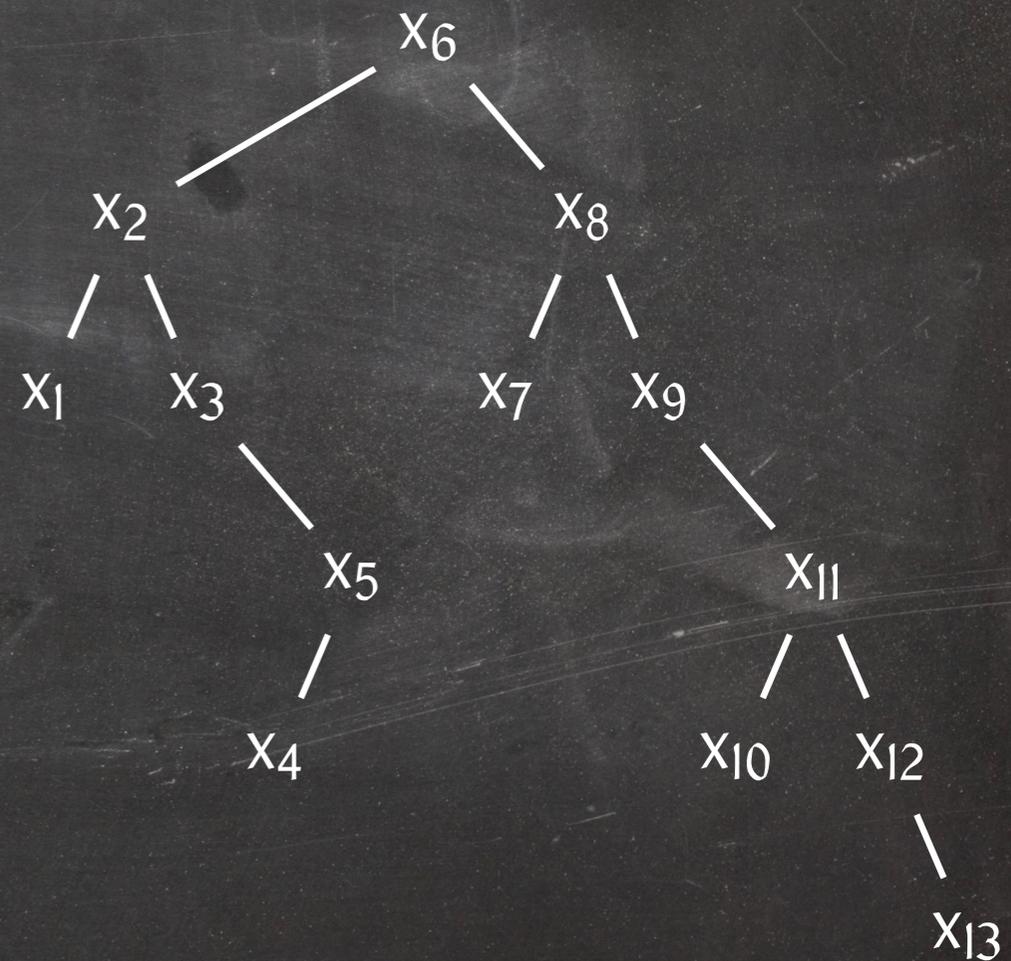
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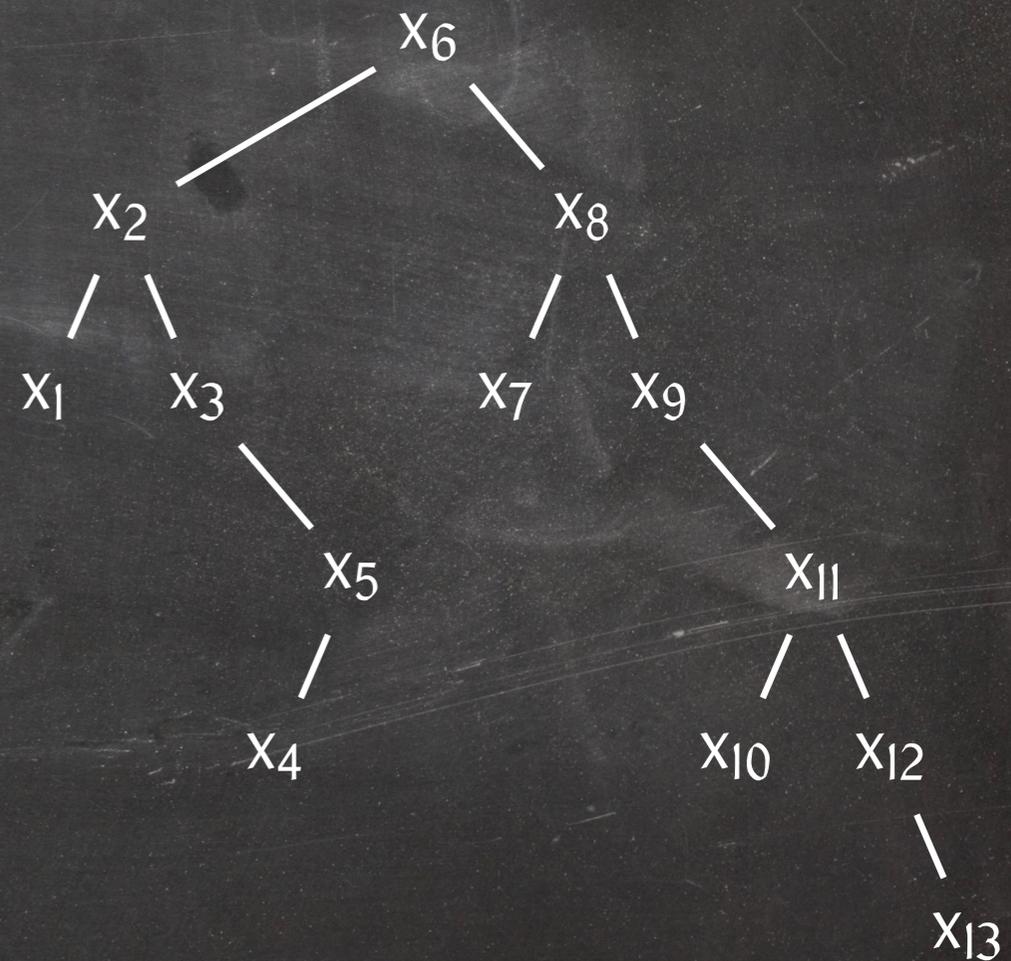
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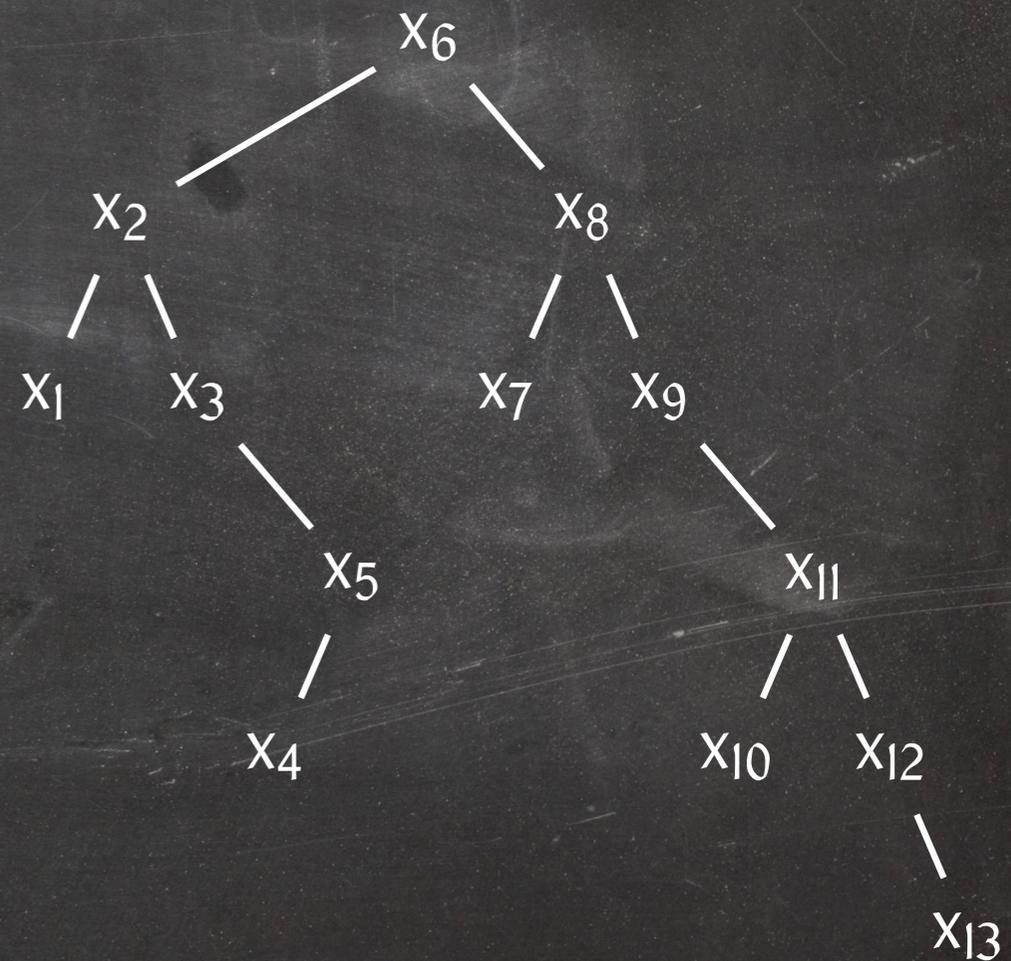
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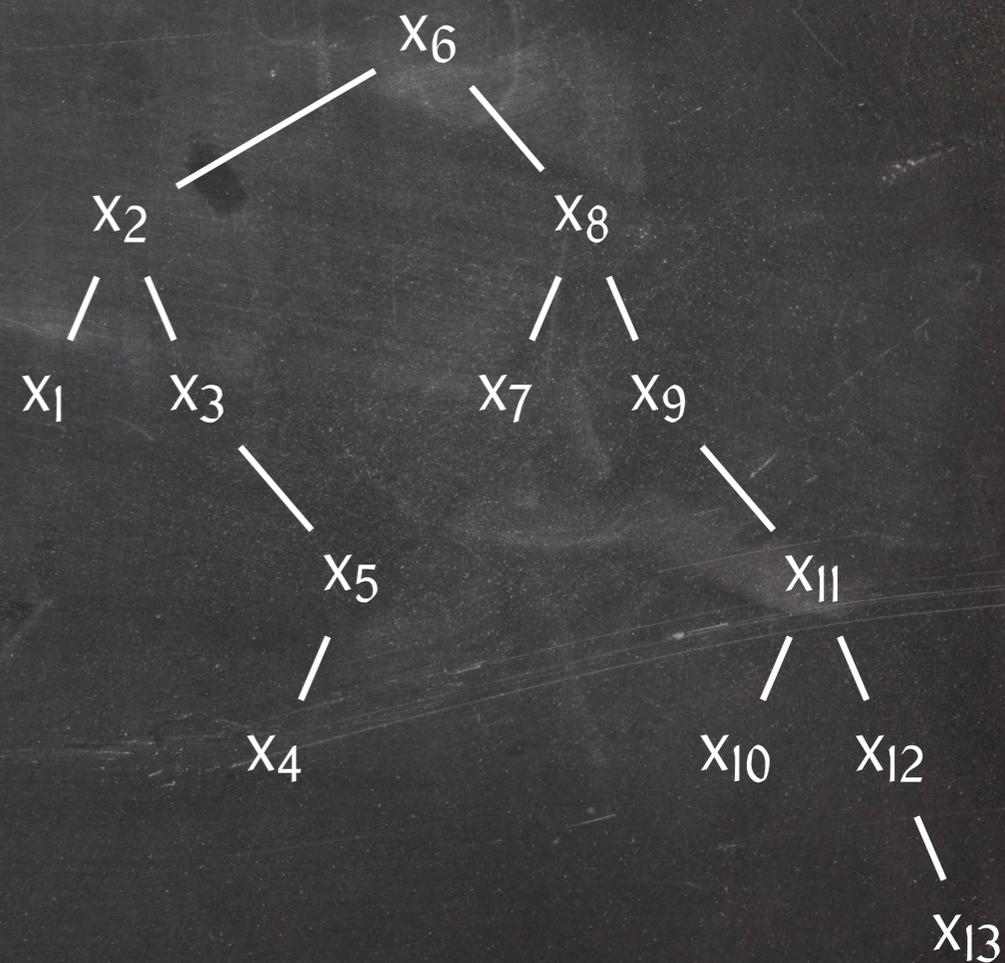
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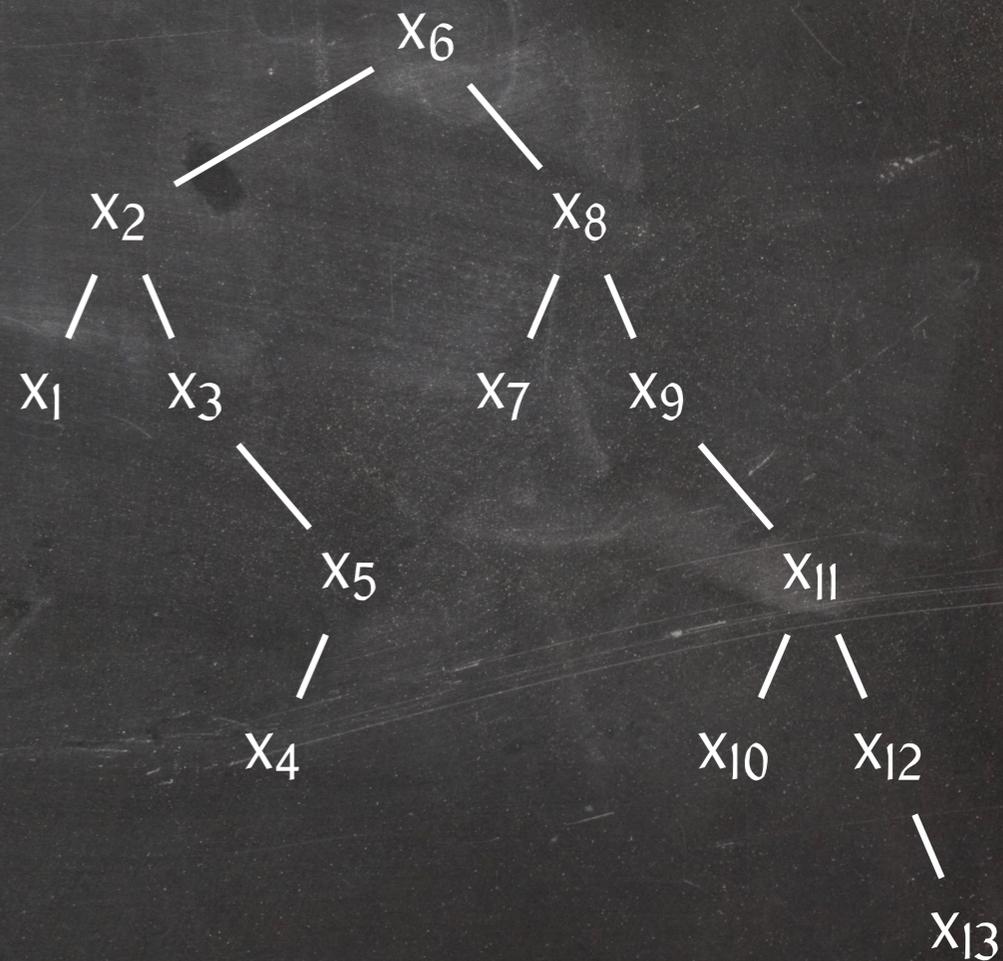
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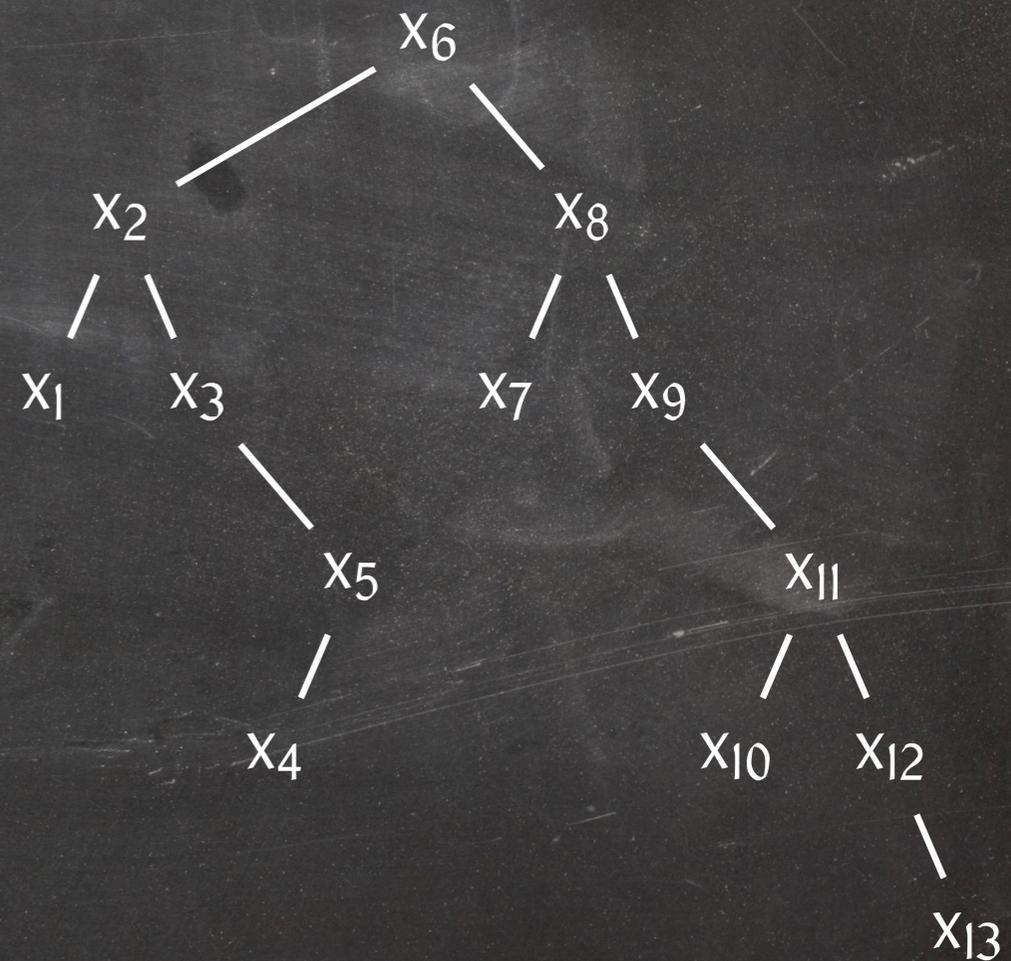
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An **optimal binary search tree** is a binary search tree  $T$  that minimizes  $C_P(T)$ .

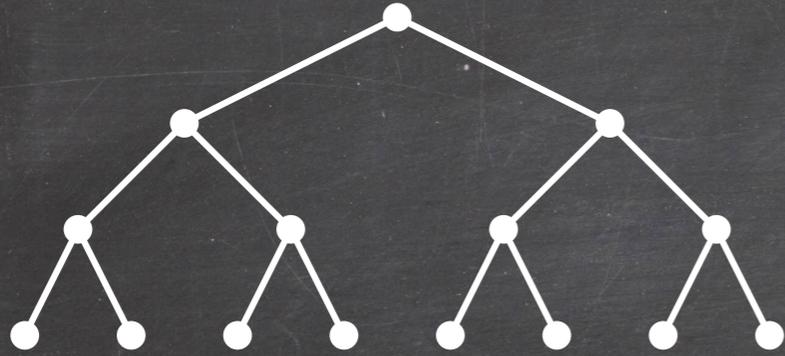


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Assume  $n = 2^k - 1$  and  $p_i = 2^{-i}$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq n - 1$  and  $p_n = 2^{-n+1}$ .

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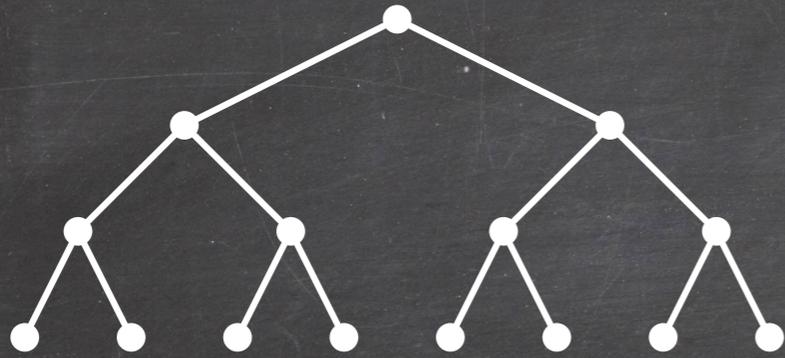
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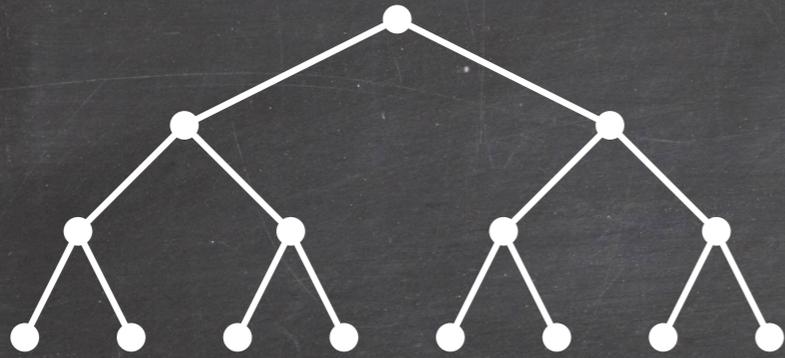
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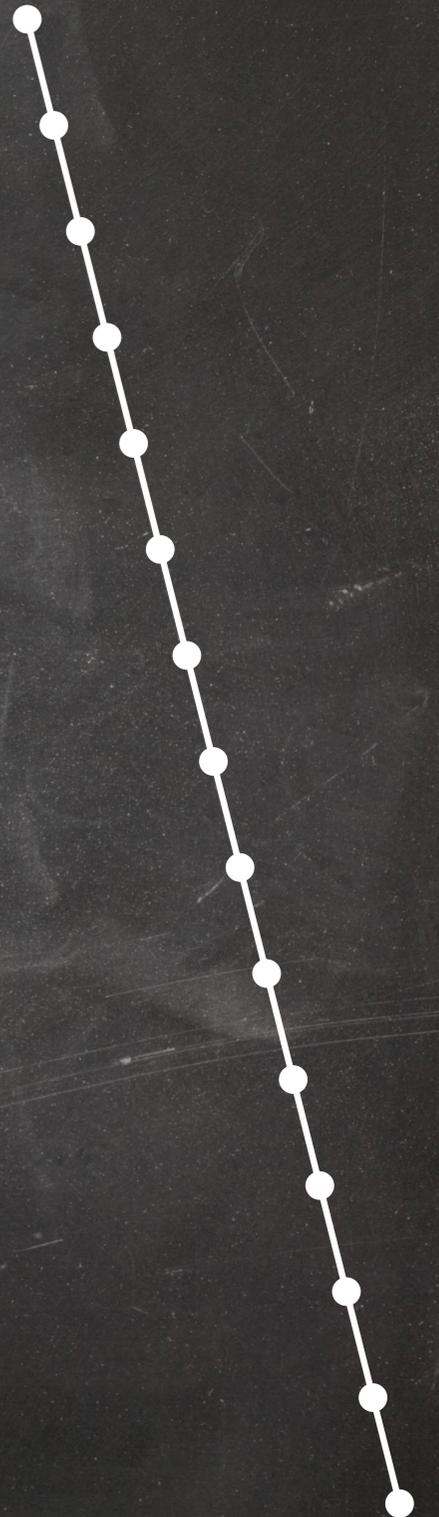


Balanced tree:

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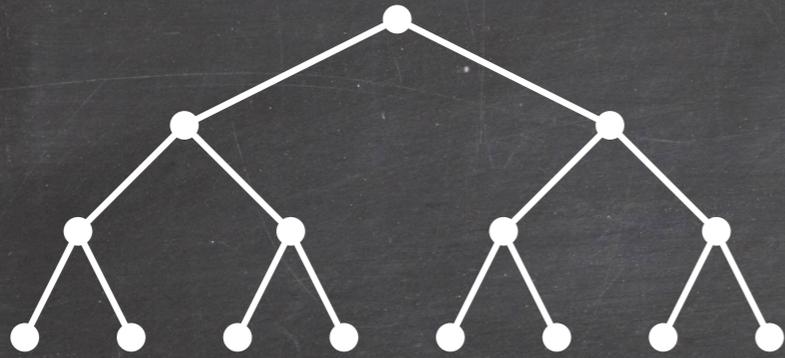
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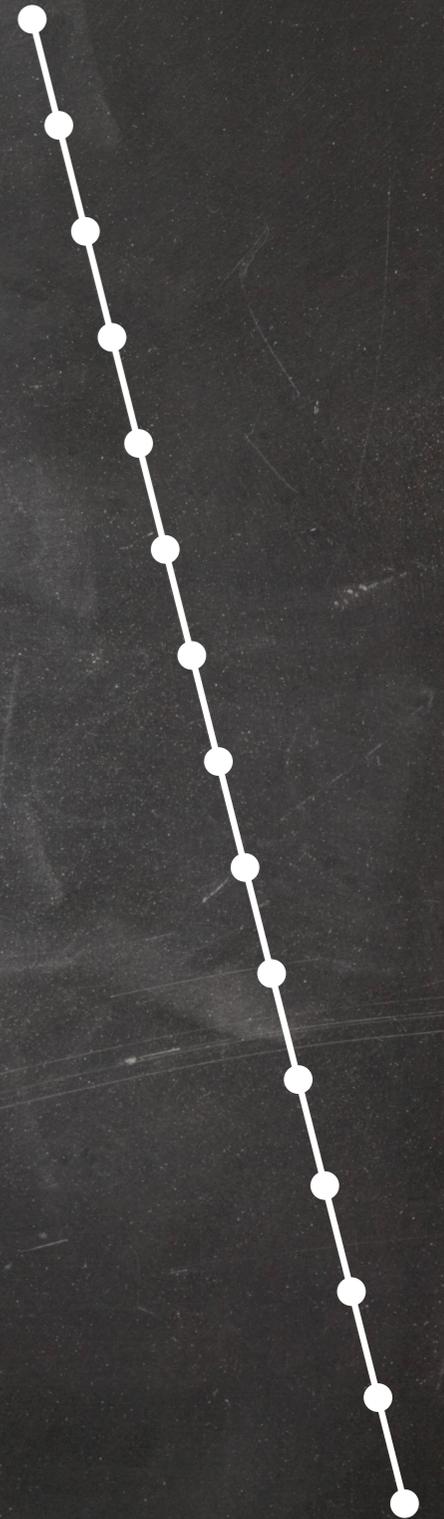
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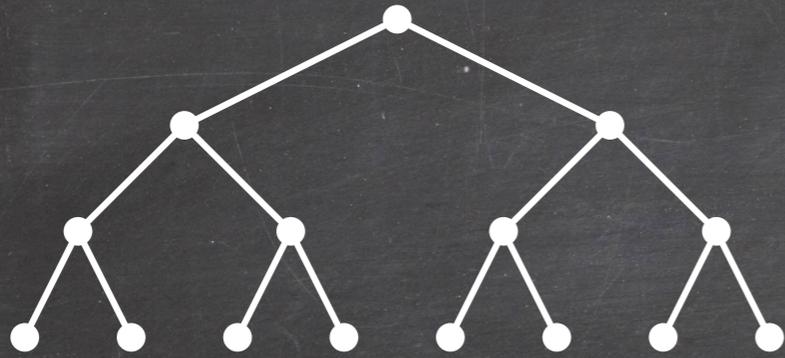
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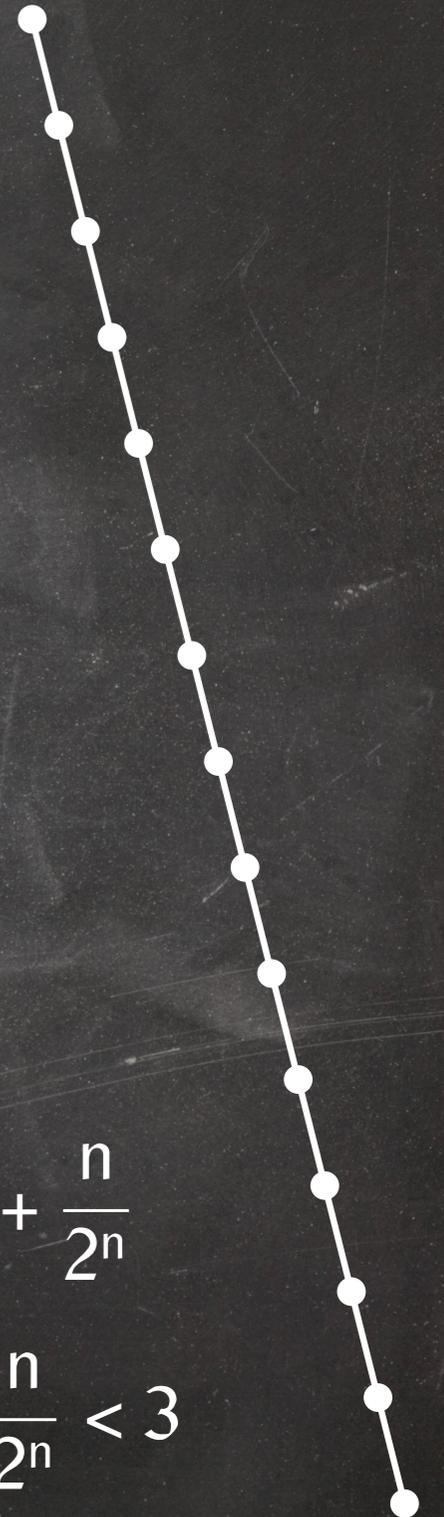
$$\Rightarrow \text{Expected cost} \geq \frac{\lg n}{2}.$$

**Long path:**

Depth of  $x_i$  is  $i$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Expected cost

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{2^i} + \frac{n}{2^n} < \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^i} + \frac{n}{2^n} \\ &= \frac{1/2}{(1 - 1/2)^2} + \frac{n}{2^n} = 2 + \frac{n}{2^n} < 3 \end{aligned}$$



# Optimal Binary Search Trees: Problem Analysis

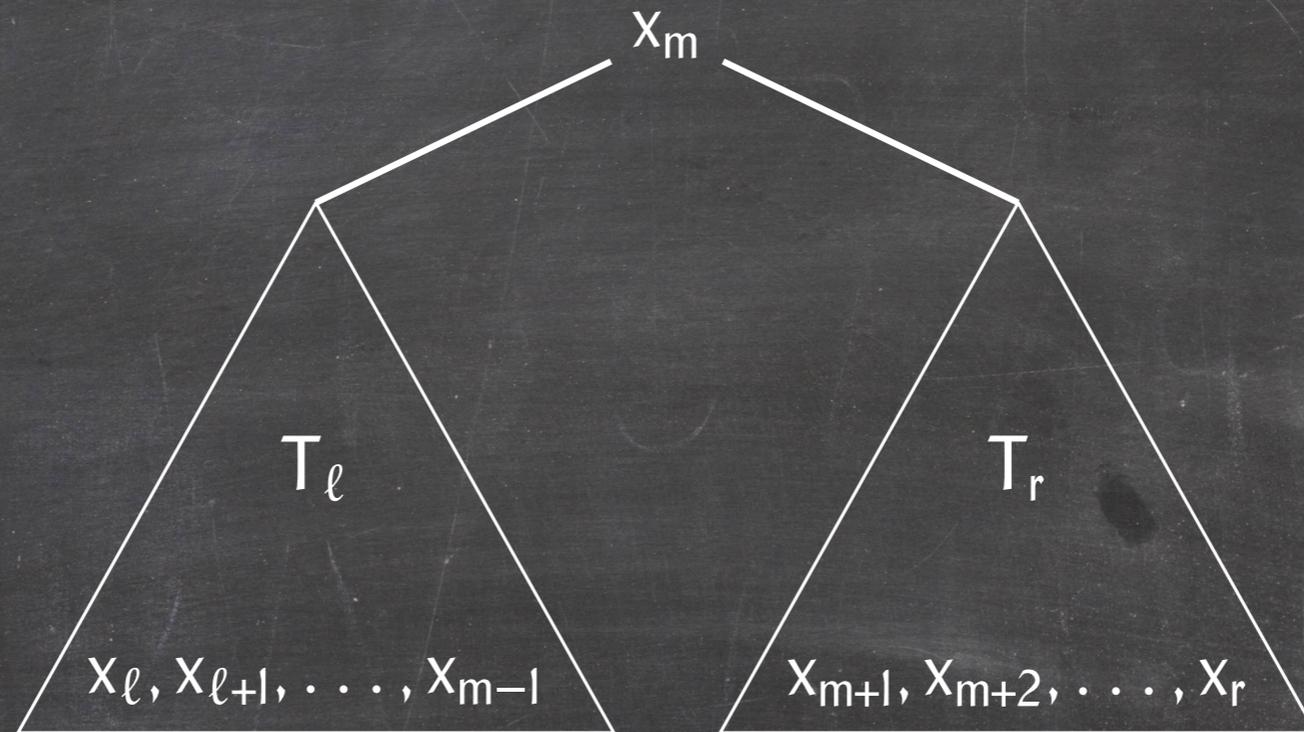
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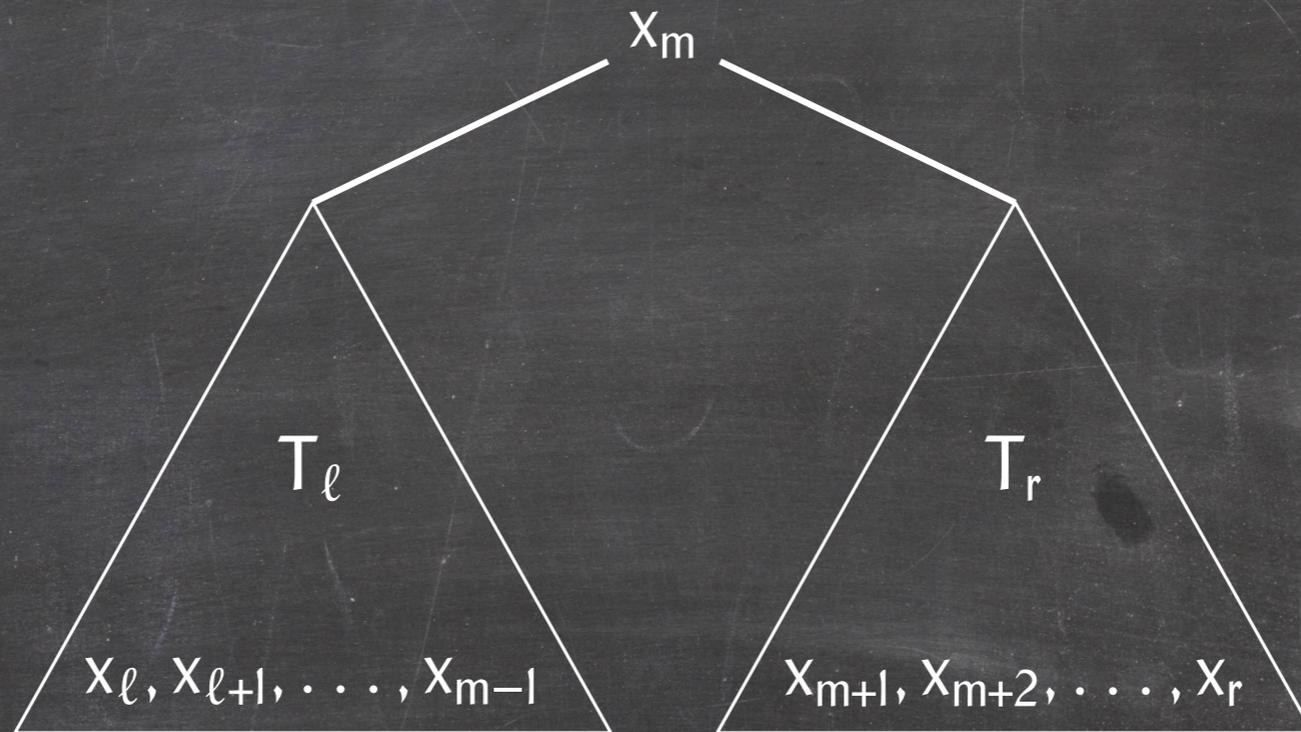
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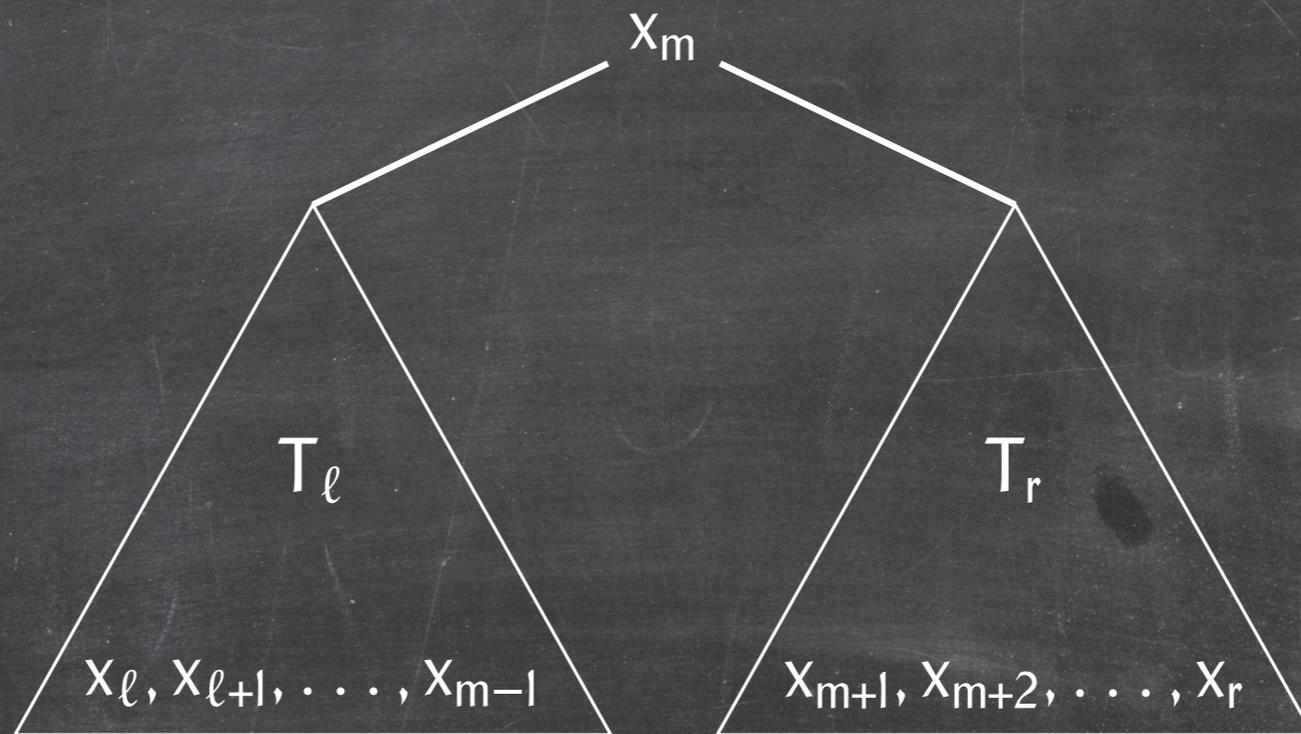
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$$C_P(T) = p_{\ell,r} + C_P(T_\ell) + C_P(T_r)$$

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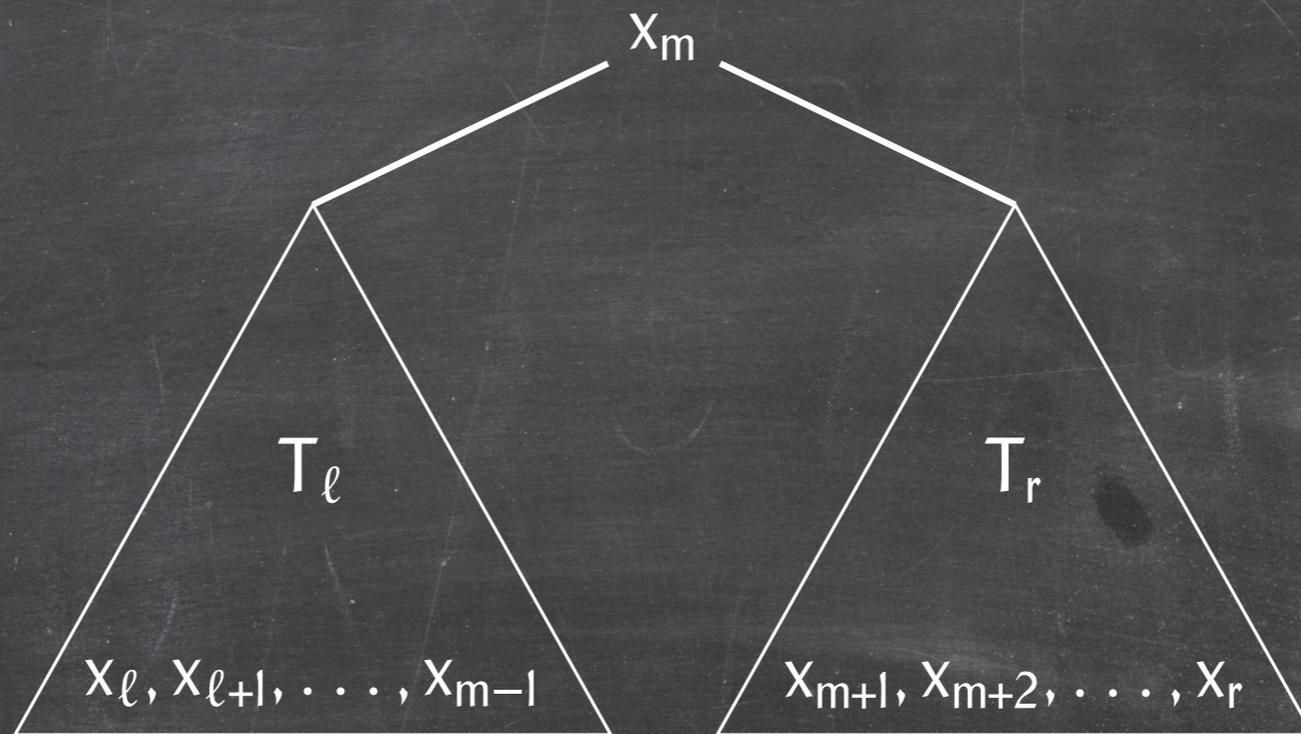
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$\Rightarrow T_\ell$  and  $T_r$  are optimal search trees for  $x_\ell, x_{\ell+1}, \dots, x_{m-1}$  and  $x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, \dots, x_r$ , respectively.

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We need to figure out which element to store at the root!

# Optimal Binary Search Trees: The Recurrence

Let  $C(l, r)$  be the cost of an optimal binary search tree for  $x_l, x_{l+1}, \dots, x_r$ .

We are interested in  $C(1, n)$ .

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Let  $C(\ell, r)$  be the cost of an optimal binary search tree for  $x_\ell, x_{\ell+1}, \dots, x_r$ .

We are interested in  $C(1, n)$ .

$$C(\ell, r) = \begin{cases} 0 & r < \ell \\ p_{\ell, r} + \min_{\ell \leq m \leq r} (C_{\ell, m-1} + C_{m+1, r}) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

# Optimal Binary Search Trees: The Algorithm

## OptimalBinarySearchTree(X, P)

```
1  for i = 1 to n
2    do  $P'[i, i] = P[i]$ 
3    for j = i + 1 to n
4      do  $P'[i, j] = P'[i, j - 1] + P[j]$ 
5  for i = 1 to n + 1
6    do  $C[i, i - 1] = 0$ 
7       $T[i, i - 1] = \emptyset$ 
8  for  $\ell = 0$  to n - 1
9    do for i = 1 to n -  $\ell$ 
10     do  $C[i, i + \ell] = \infty$ 
11       for j = i to i +  $\ell$ 
12         do if  $C[i, i + \ell] > C[i, j - 1] + C[j + 1, i + \ell]$ 
13           then  $C[i, i + \ell] = C[i, j - 1] + C[j + 1, i + \ell]$ 
14              $T[i, i + \ell] = \text{new node storing } X[j]$ 
15              $T[i, i + \ell].\text{left} = T[i, j - 1]$ 
16              $T[i, i + \ell].\text{right} = T[j + 1, i + \ell]$ 
17            $C[i, i + \ell] = C[i, i + \ell] + P'[i, i + \ell]$ 
18  return  $T[1, n]$ 
```

# Optimal Binary Search Trees: The Algorithm

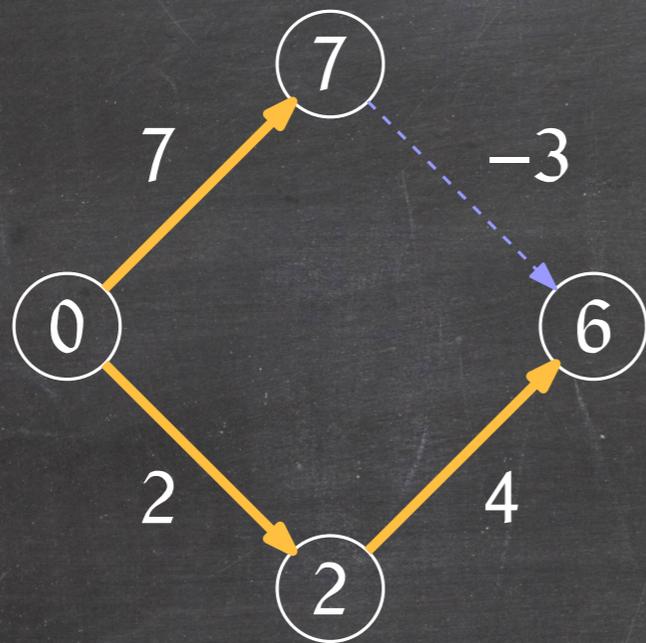
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5  for i = 1 to n + 1
6    do C[i, i - 1] = 0
7      T[i, i - 1] = ∅
8  for ℓ = 0 to n - 1
9    do for i = 1 to n - ℓ
10     do C[i, i + ℓ] = ∞
11     for j = i to i + ℓ
12       do if C[i, i + ℓ] > C[i, j - 1] + C[j + 1, i + ℓ]
13         then C[i, i + ℓ] = C[i, j - 1] + C[j + 1, i + ℓ]
14           T[i, i + ℓ] = new node storing X[j]
15           T[i, i + ℓ].left = T[i, j - 1]
16           T[i, i + ℓ].right = T[j + 1, i + ℓ]
17     C[i, i + ℓ] = C[i, i + ℓ] + P'[i, i + ℓ]
18  return T[1, n]
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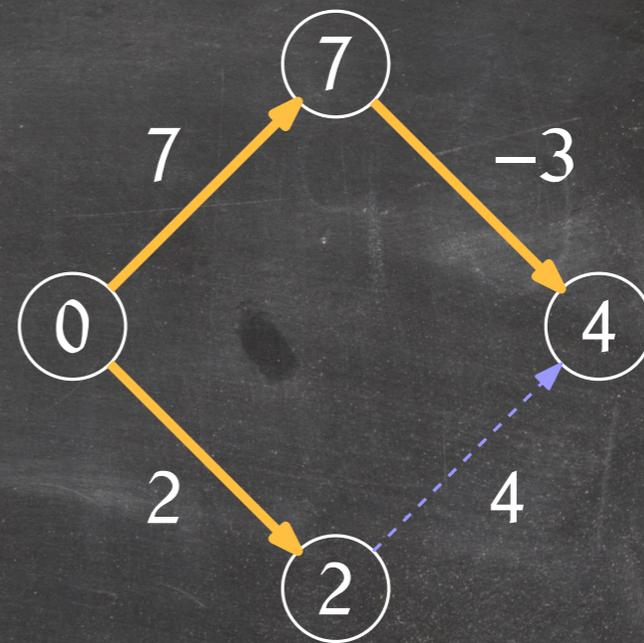
**Lemma:** An optimal binary search tree for  $n$  elements can be computed in  $O(n^3)$  time.

# Single-Source Shortest Paths

Dijkstra's algorithm may fail in the presence of negative-weight edges:



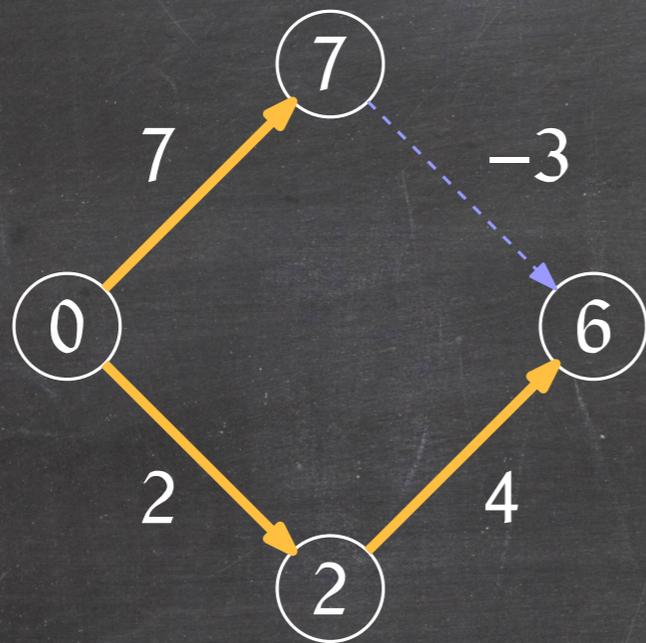
Dijkstra



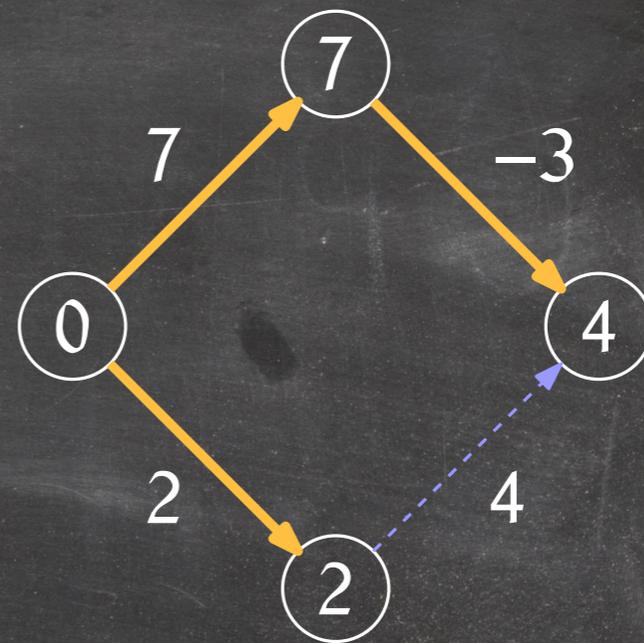
Correct

# Single-Source Shortest Paths

Dijkstra's algorithm may fail in the presence of negative-weight edges:



Dijkstra

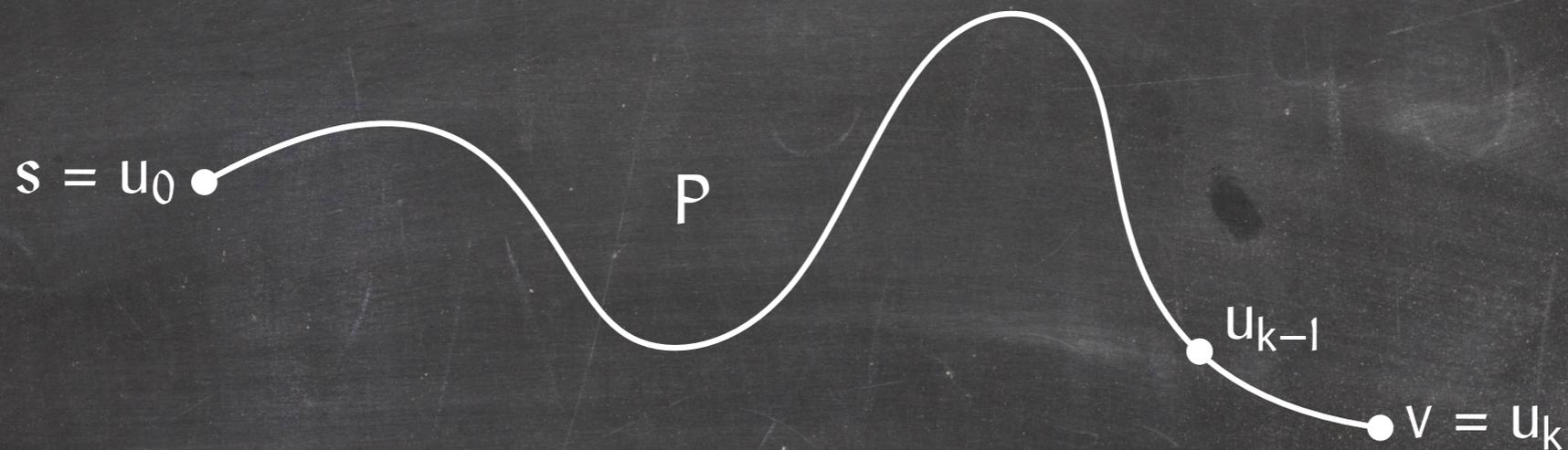


Correct

We need an algorithm that can deal with negative-length edges.

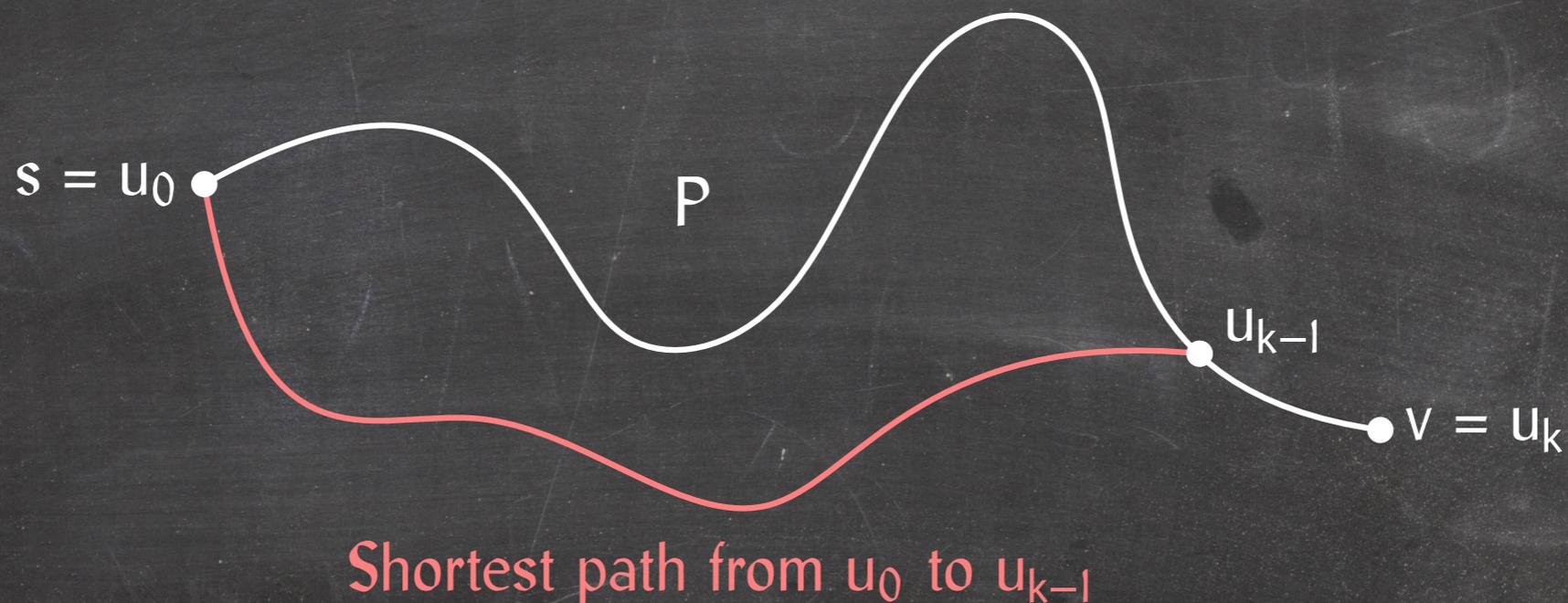
# Single-Source Shortest Paths: Problem Analysis

**Lemma:** If  $P = \langle u_0, u_1, \dots, u_k \rangle$  is a shortest path from  $u_0 = s$  to  $u_k = v$ , then  $P' = \langle u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{k-1} \rangle$  is a shortest path from  $u_0$  to  $u_{k-1}$ .



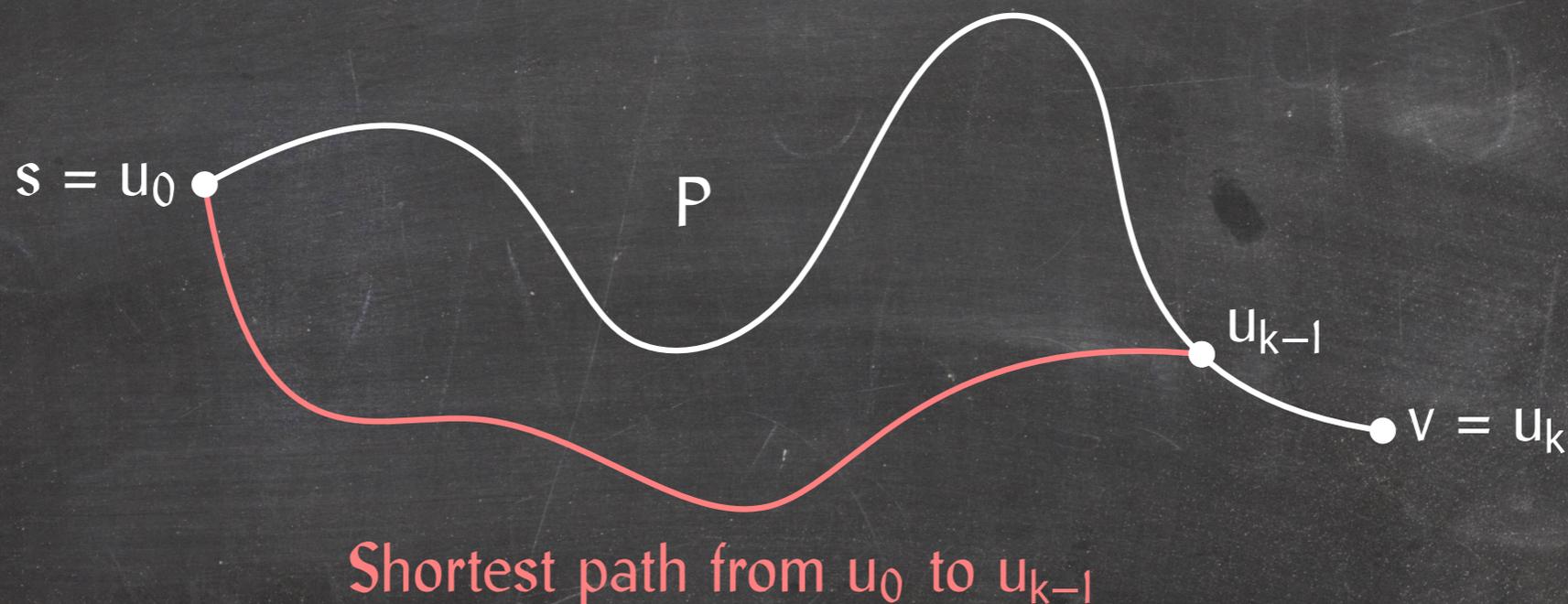
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**Observation:**  $P'$  has one less edge than  $P$ .

# Single-Source Shortest Paths: The Recurrence

Let  $d_i(s, v)$  be the length of the shortest path  $P_i(s, v)$  from  $s$  to  $v$  that has **at most  $i$  edges**.

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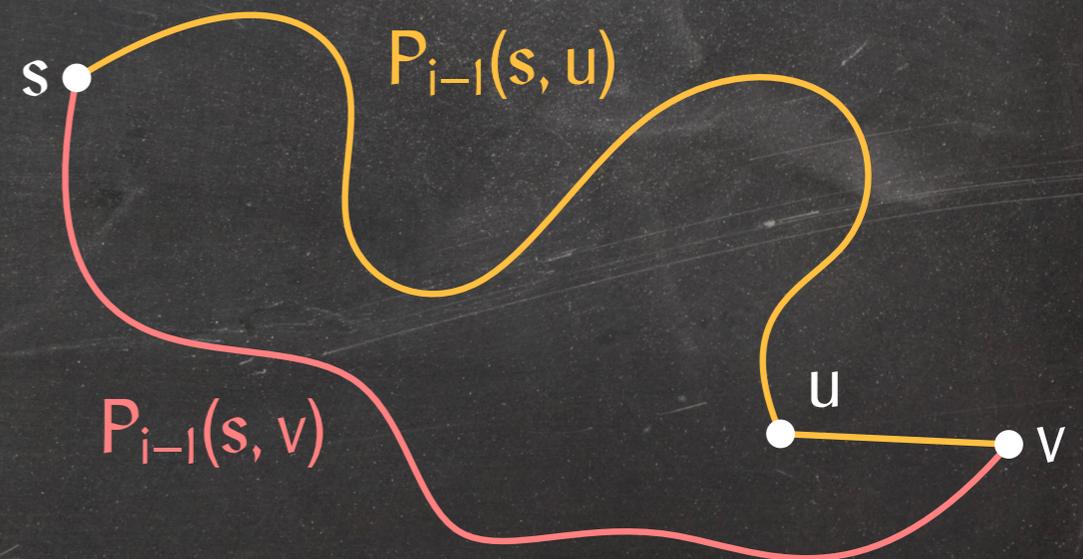
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# Single-Source Shortest Paths: The Bellman-Ford Algorithm

## BellmanFord( $G, s$ )

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1  for every vertex  $v \in G$ 
2    do  $d[v] = \infty$ 
3        $P[v] = \emptyset$ 
4   $d[s] = 0$ 
5   $P[s] = [s]$ 
6  for  $i = 1$  to  $n - 1$ 
7    do for every vertex  $v \in G$ 
8       do for every in-edge  $e$  of  $v$ 
9          do if  $d[e.tail] + e.weight < d[v]$ 
10             then  $d[v] = d[e.tail] + e.weight$ 
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**Lemma:** The single-source shortest paths problem can be solved in  $O(nm)$  time on any weighted graph, provided there are no negative cycles.

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**Improved algorithms:**

- **Floyd-Warshall:  $O(n^3)$**
- **Johnson:  $O(n^2 \lg n + nm)$  (really cool!)**
  - Run Bellman-Ford from an arbitrary vertex  $s$  in  $O(nm)$  time.
  - Change edge weights so they are all non-negative but shortest paths don't change!
  - Run Dijkstra  $n$  times.

# All-Pairs Shortest Paths: The Recurrence

Number the vertices  $1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Let  $d_i(u, v)$  be the length of the shortest path  $P_i(u, v)$  that visits only vertices in  $\{1, 2, \dots, i\} \cup \{u, v\}$ .

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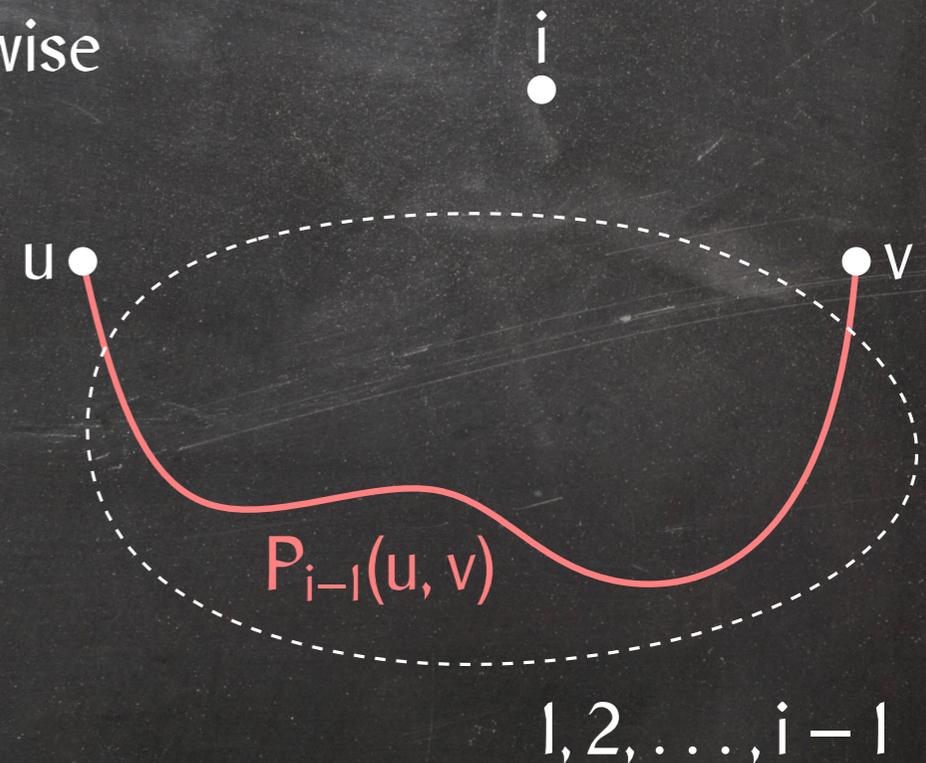
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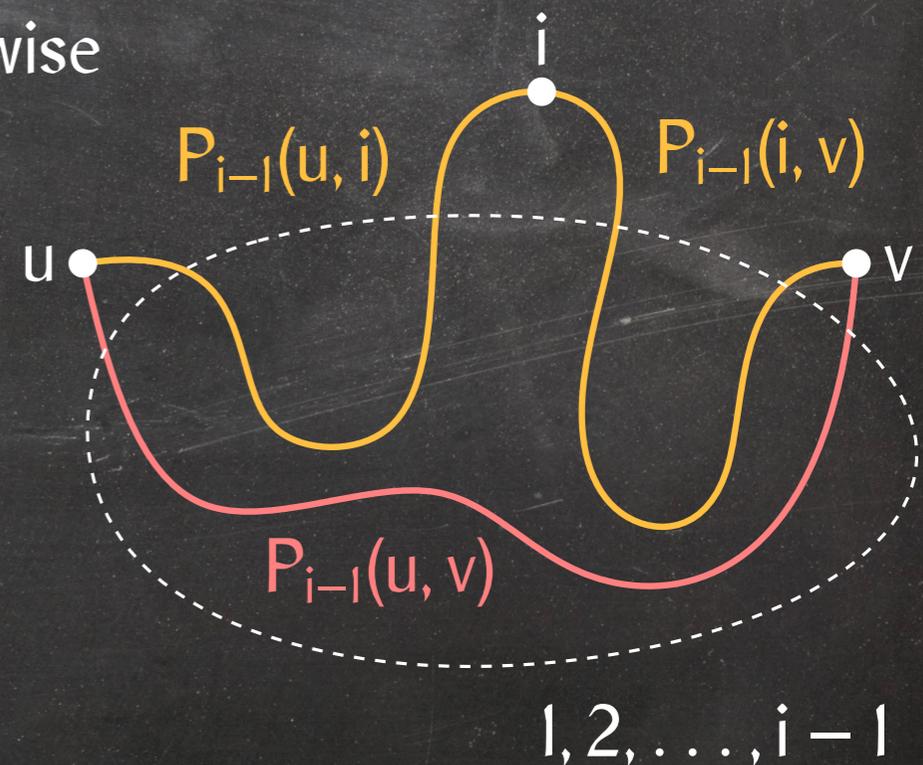
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1  for every pair of vertices  $u, v \in G$ 
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**Dynamic programming** exhaustively explores all possible choices and chooses the one that gives the best solution.

Dynamic programming yields a faster solution than the naïve recursive algorithm when there are lots of **overlapping subproblems**.

# Summary

The design of a dynamic programming algorithm proceeds in two phases:

1. Analyze the structure of an optimal solution to develop a recurrence for the cost of an optimal solution.
2. Develop an algorithm that uses the recurrence to compute an optimal solution
  - Recursively using memoization or
  - Iteratively by populating a table with the costs of the solutions to all possible subproblems.

Both types of algorithms compute optimal solutions bottom-up.