

# CSE 42I: Intro Algorithms

Dynamic Programming, I  
Intro: Fibonacci & Stamps

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# Dynamic Programming

## Outline:

- General Principles

- Easy Examples – Fibonacci, Licking Stamps

- Meatier examples

  - Weighted interval scheduling

  - String Alignment

  - RNA Structure prediction

  - Maybe others

# Some Algorithm Design Techniques, I: Greedy

## Greedy algorithms

Usually builds something a piece at a time

Repeatedly make the greedy choice - the one that looks the best right away

e.g. closest pair in TSP search

Usually simple, fast if they work (but often don't)

# Some Algorithm Design Techniques, II: D & C

## Divide & Conquer

Reduce problem to one or more sub-problems of the same type, i.e., a recursive solution

Typically, sub-problems are disjoint, and at most a constant fraction of the size of the original

e.g. Mergesort, Quicksort, Binary Search, Karatsuba

Typically, speeds up a polynomial time algorithm

# Some Algorithm Design Techniques, III: DP

## Dynamic Programming

Reduce problem to one or more sub-problems of the same type, i.e., a recursive solution

Useful when the same sub-problems show up *repeatedly* in the solution

Often very robust to problem re-definition

Sometimes gives *exponential* speedups

# “Dynamic Programming”

Program – A plan or procedure for dealing with some matter

– Webster’s New World Dictionary

# Dynamic Programming History

Bellman. Pioneered the systematic study of dynamic programming in the 1950s.

## Etymology.

Dynamic programming = planning over time.

Secretary of Defense was hostile to mathematical research.

Bellman sought an impressive name to avoid confrontation.

“it’s impossible to use dynamic in a pejorative sense”

“something not even a Congressman could object to”

Reference: Bellman, R. E. *Eye of the Hurricane, An Autobiography*.

# A very simple case: Computing Fibonacci Numbers

Recall  $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  and  $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$

0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 89 144 233 ...

Recursive algorithm:

FiboR(n)

if  $n = 0$  then return(0)

else if  $n = 1$  then return(1)

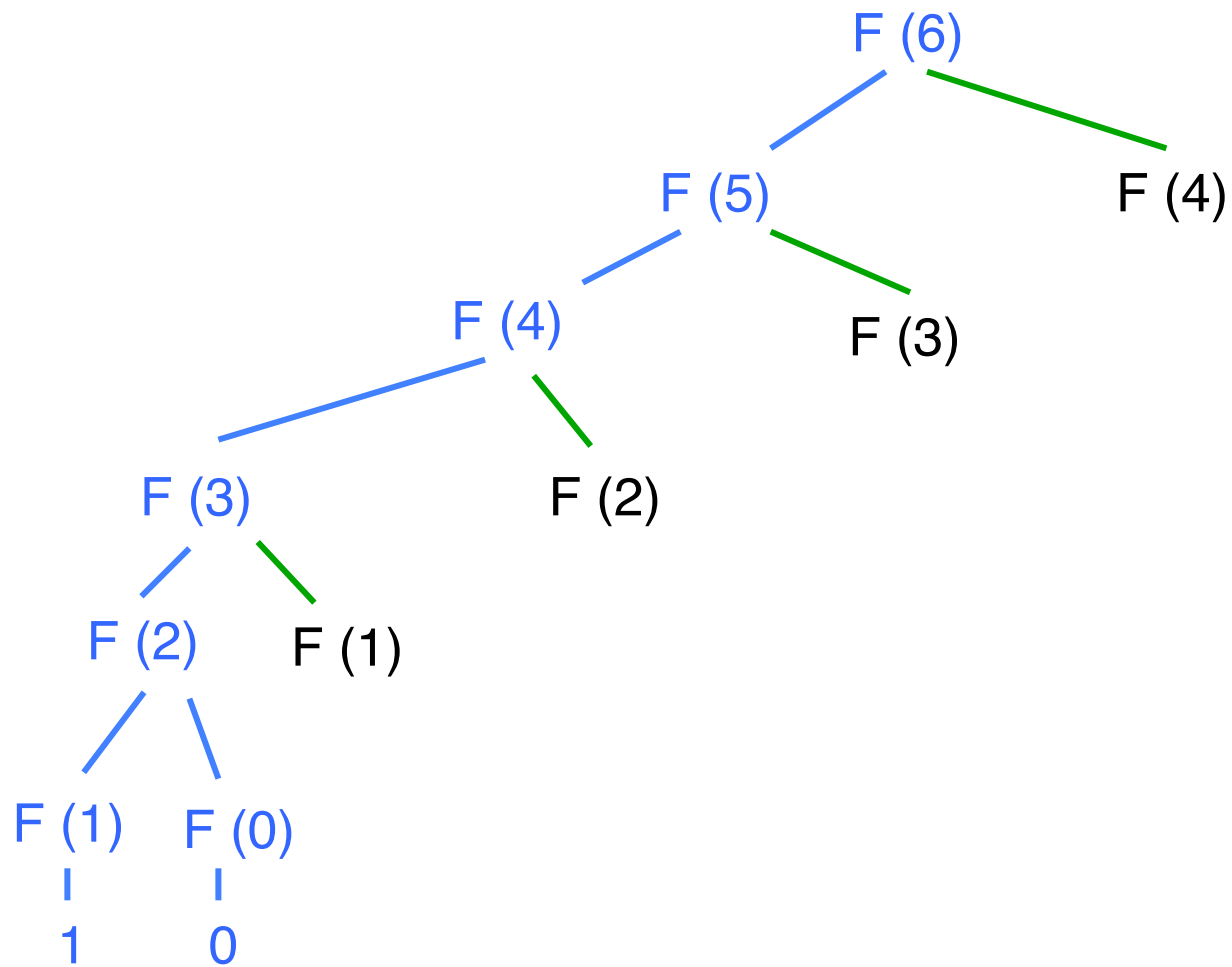
else return(FiboR(n-1)+FiboR(n-2))

Note:

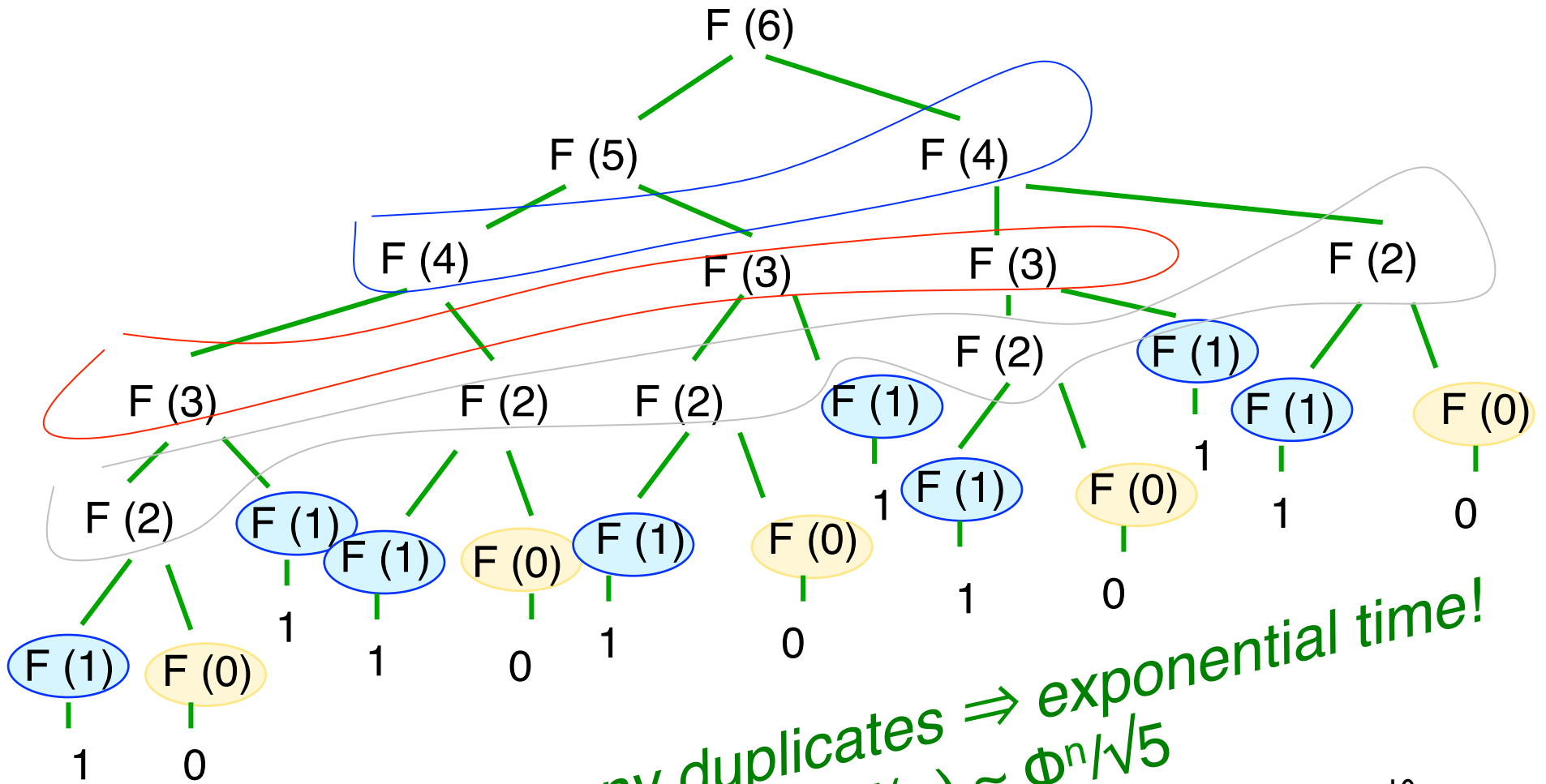
Exponential  $\uparrow$ :  $F(n) \approx \Phi^n / \sqrt{5}$ ,  $\Phi = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2 \approx 1.618...$



# Call tree - start



# Full call tree



# Two Alternative Fixes

## Memoization (“Caching”)

Compute on demand, but don’t re-compute:

- Save answers from all recursive calls

- Before a call, test whether answer saved

## Dynamic Programming (*not* memoized)

*Pre*-compute, don’t re-compute:

- Recursion become iteration (top-down → bottom-up)

- Anticipate and pre-compute needed values

DP usually cleaner, faster, simpler data structures

# Fibonacci - Memoized Version

initialize:  $F[i] \leftarrow \text{undefined for all } i > 1$

$F[0] \leftarrow 0$

$F[1] \leftarrow 1$

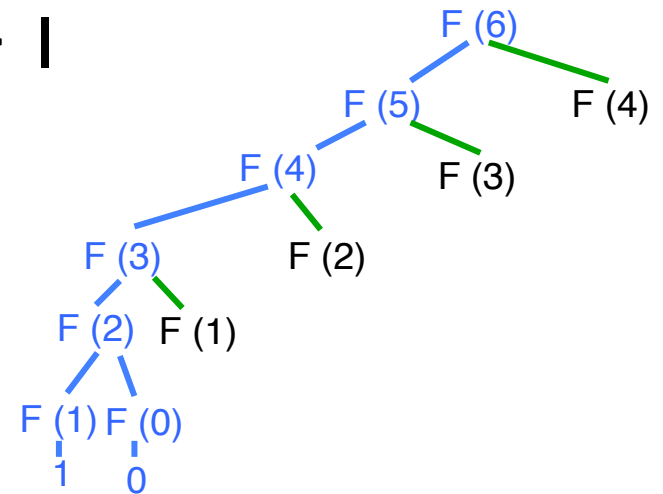
FiboMemo(n):

if( $F[n]$  undefined) {

$F[n] \leftarrow \text{FiboMemo}(n-2) + \text{FiboMemo}(n-1)$

}

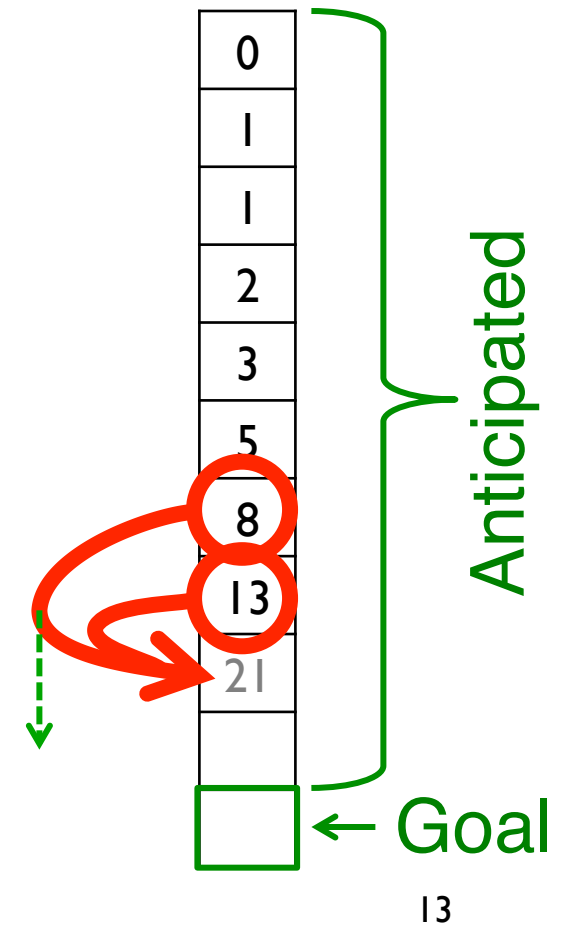
return( $F[n]$ )



# Fibonacci - Dynamic Programming Version

```
FiboDP(n):  
  F[0] ← 0  
  F[1] ← 1  
  for i = 2 to n do  
    F[i] ← F[i-1] + F[i-2]  
  end  
  return(F[n])
```

For this problem, suffices to keep only last 2 entries instead of full array, but about the same speed



# Dynamic Programming

Useful when

Same recursive sub-problems occur *repeatedly*

Parameters of these recursive calls *anticipated*

The solution to whole problem can be solved without knowing the *internal* details of how the sub-problems are solved

“principle of optimality” – more below, e.g. slide 19

# Example: Making change

Given:

Large supply of 1¢, 5¢, 10¢, 25¢, 50¢ coins

An amount  $N$

Problem: choose fewest coins totaling  $N$

Cashier's (greedy) algorithm works:

Give as many as possible of the next biggest denomination

# Licking Stamps

Given:

Large supply of 5¢, 4¢, and 1¢ stamps

An amount  $N$

Problem: choose fewest stamps totaling  $N$



## A Few Ways To Lick 27¢

# of 5¢ stamps	# of 4 ¢ stamps	# of 1¢ stamps	total number
5	0	2	7
4	1	3	8
3	3	0	6

Morals: Greed doesn't pay; success of "cashier's alg" depends on coin denominations

# A Simple Algorithm

At most  $N$  stamps needed, etc.

```
for a = 0, ..., N {  
  for b = 0, ..., N {  
    for c = 0, ..., N {  
      if (5a+4b+c == N && a+b+c is new min)  
        {retain (a,b,c);}}}  
output retained triple;
```

Time:  $O(N^3)$

(Not too hard to see some optimizations, but we're after bigger fish...)

## Better Idea

Theorem: If last stamp in an opt sol has value  $v$ , then previous stamps are *opt sol* for  $N-v$ .

Proof: if not, we could improve the solution for  $N$  by using opt for  $N-v$ .

Alg: for  $i = 1$  to  $n$ :

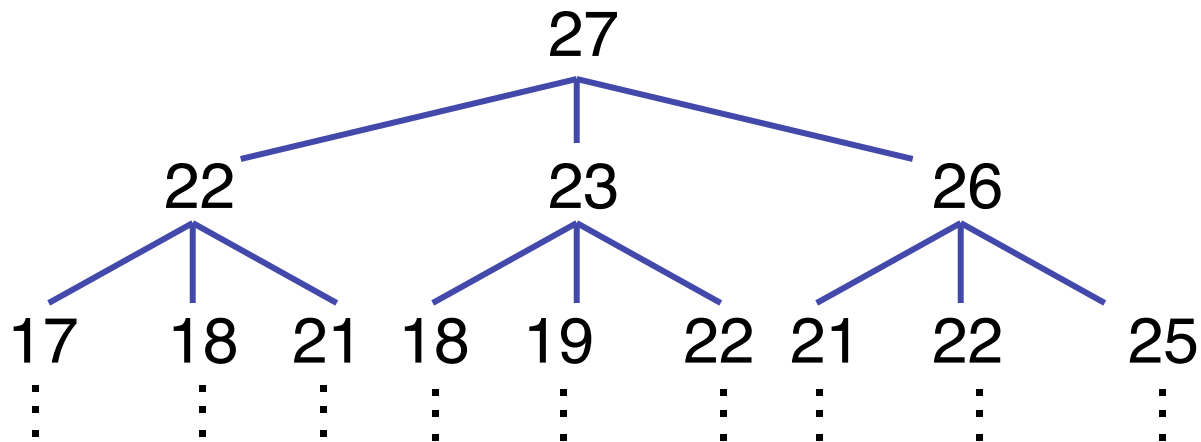
$$OPT(i) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & i=0 \\ 1+OPT(i-1) & i \geq 1 \\ 1+OPT(i-4) & i \geq 4 \\ 1+OPT(i-5) & i \geq 5 \end{array} \right\}$$

Claim:  $OPT(i)$  =  
min number of  
stamps totaling  $i$   
Pf: induction on  $i$ .

Optimality  
Principle

# New Idea: Recursion

$$OPT(i) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & i=0 \\ 1+OPT(i-1) & i \geq 1 \\ 1+OPT(i-4) & i \geq 4 \\ 1+OPT(i-5) & i \geq 5 \end{array} \right\}$$



Time:  $> 3^{N/5}$

# Another New Idea: Avoid Recomputation

Tabulate values of solved subproblems

Top-down: “memoization”

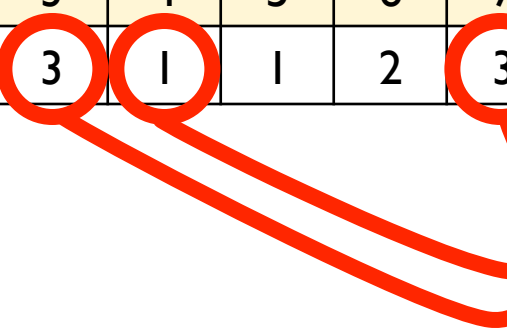
Bottom up (better):

$$\text{for } i = 0, \dots, N \text{ do } OPT(i) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & i=0 \\ 1+OPT(i-1) & i \geq 1 \\ 1+OPT(i-4) & i \geq 4 \\ 1+OPT(i-5) & i \geq 5 \end{array} \right\}$$

Time:  $O(N)$

# Finding *How Many* Stamps


i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
OPT[i]	0	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	2				



Goal

$$1 + \text{Min}(3, 1, 3) = 2$$

# Finding *Which* Stamps: Trace-Back



i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
OPT[i]	0	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	2				

$$\underline{1} + \text{Min}(3, \underline{1}, 3) = \underline{2}$$

$$OPT(i) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & i=0 \\ 1+OPT(i-1) & i \geq 1 \\ 1+OPT(i-4) & i \geq 4 \\ 1+OPT(i-5) & i \geq 5 \end{array} \right\}$$

# Trace-Back

## Way 1: tabulate all

add data structure storing back-pointers indicating which predecessor gave the min. (more space, *maybe* less time)

## Way 2: re-compute just what's needed

```
TraceBack(i):  
    if i == 0 then return;  
    for d in {1, 4, 5} do  
        if OPT[i] == 1 + OPT[i - d]  
            then break;  
    print d;  
    TraceBack(i - d);
```

$$OPT(i) = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 0 & i=0 \\ 1+OPT(i-1) & i \geq 1 \\ 1+OPT(i-4) & i \geq 4 \\ 1+OPT(i-5) & i \geq 5 \end{array} \right\}$$



# Complexity Note

$O(N)$  is better than  $O(N^3)$  or  $O(3^{N/5})$

But still *exponential* in input size ( $\log N$  bits)

(E.g., miserable if  $N$  is 64 bits –  $c \cdot 2^{64}$  steps &  $2^{64}$  memory.)

Note: can do in  $O(1)$  for fixed denominations, e.g., 5¢, 4¢, and 1¢ (how?) but not in general (i.e., when denominations and total are both part of the input). See “NP-Completeness” later.

# Elements of Dynamic Programming

What feature did we use?

What should we look for to use again?

## “Optimal Substructure”

Optimal solution contains optimal subproblems

A non-example:  $\min(\text{number of stamps mod } 2)$

## “Repeated Subproblems”

The same subproblems arise in various ways