

Part II: Algorithm Design

General Strategies

- There is no general solution to all problems
- But there are various **general techniques** that can be applied successfully to solve many problems
 - Some of them we covered in our sorting algorithms but didn't stop to identify them
 - Here we will look at a few important techniques that you might find useful when you need to design algorithms (for computers or otherwise)

Coin Changing Problem

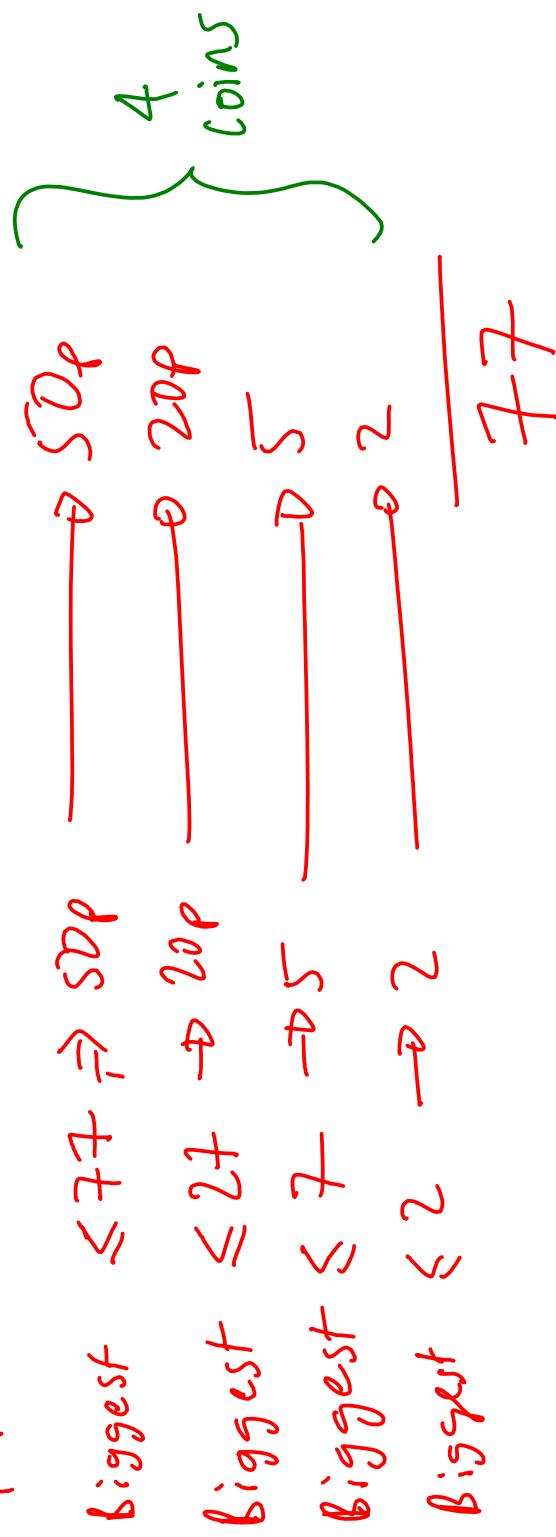
How can you make a value V using the fewest coins for some set of coin denominations?



How Would You Normally Do It?

- Make 77 from British coin denominations
 - (1,2,5,10,20,50,100,200)

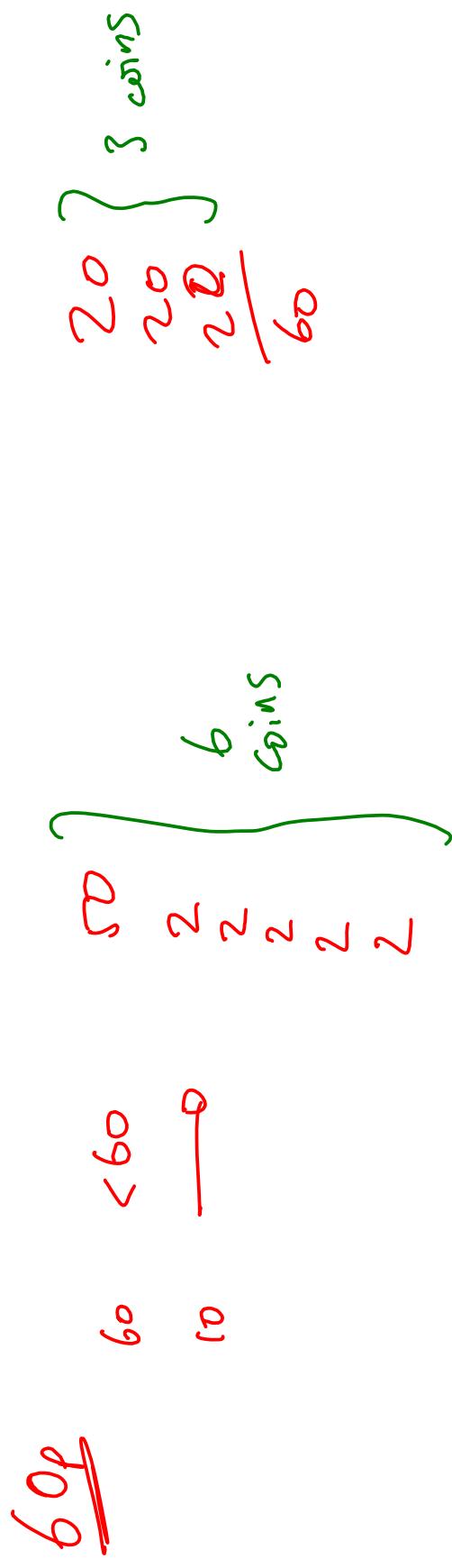
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Greedy Algorithms

- Always perform whatever operation contributes as much as possible in a single step
- Simple to implement and understand
- But it doesn't always optimize fully...

200, 100, 50, 20, 2, 1



Another Way ...

- Let $C[i]$ be the minimum number of coins needed to make value i .
- Let there be denominations $\{d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k\}$ available.
 $d_1 = 1$
 $d_2 = 5$
 $d_3 = 10$
 $d_4 = 20$
 $d_5 = 50$
 $d_6 = 100$
No. of coins to make i :

- Imagine that we knew d_j was part of the best solution for i .

- Then

$$C[7] = C[2+1] + 1$$

stop

left

$$C[i] = C[i-d_j] + 1$$

Another way...

- We could now define the optimal solution recursively:

$$C[i] = \begin{cases} \infty & i < 0 \\ 0 & i = 0 \\ 1 + \min_{j=1 \text{ to } k} \left\{ C[i - d_j] \right\} & i > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} C[7] &= 1 + \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} C[7-1] = C[6] = 2 \\ C[7-2] = C[5] = 1 \\ C[7-5] = C[2] = 0 \end{array} \right. = 1 + \min \left[\begin{array}{l} C[6] = 2 \\ C[5] = 1 \end{array} \right] = 2 \\ C[2] &= 1 + \min \left[\begin{array}{l} C[2-1] = 1 \\ C[2-2] = 0 \end{array} \right] = 1 \\ C[5] &= 1 + \min \left[\begin{array}{l} C[5-1] \\ C[5-2] \\ C[5-5] \end{array} \right] = 0 \end{aligned}$$
$$C[7] = 2$$

This is Dynamic Programming

- Don't try to understand the name – it's there for historical reasons
- It's like D&C but...
 - D&C splits the problem into a series of small, independent problems
 - DP splits the problem into a series of small, dependent problems (i.e. the subproblems overlap)
- DP assumes that a solution it needs for some subproblem is applicable for other subproblems so it 'saves' results

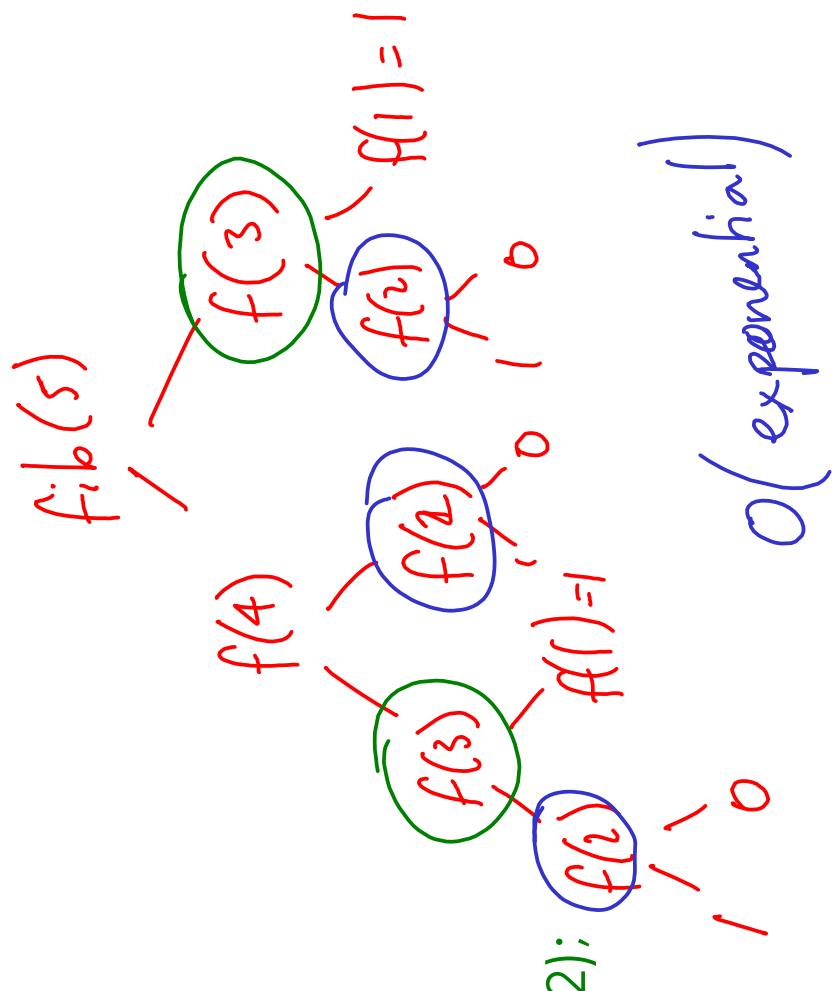
Dynamic Programming

- Ideal when we have lots of possible solutions and we need to find an optimal one (i.e. optimization problems)
- Steps:
 - Characterise the structure of an optimal solution
 - Recursively define the optimal solution
 - Compute the value of the optimal solution bottom-up (DP) or top-down (memoized DP)
 - Figure out the optimal solution

Another Example: Fibonacci Numbers

- $F(0) = 0$ (different in notes)
 $F(1) = 1$
 $F(n) = F(n-2) + F(n-1)$ $n > 1$

■ Recursive:



```
int fib (int a) {  
    if (a==0) return 0;  
    if (a==1) return 1;  
    else return fib(a-1) + fib(a-2);  
}
```

() () () ()

$O(\text{exponential})$

Example: Fibonacci Numbers

- Top-down (memoized DP)

```
map saved = { (0,0), (1,1) }  
int fib (int a) {  
    if (saved contains a) return saved[a];  
    else saved[a] = fib(a-1) + fib(a-2);  
    return saved[a];  
}
```

Saved map

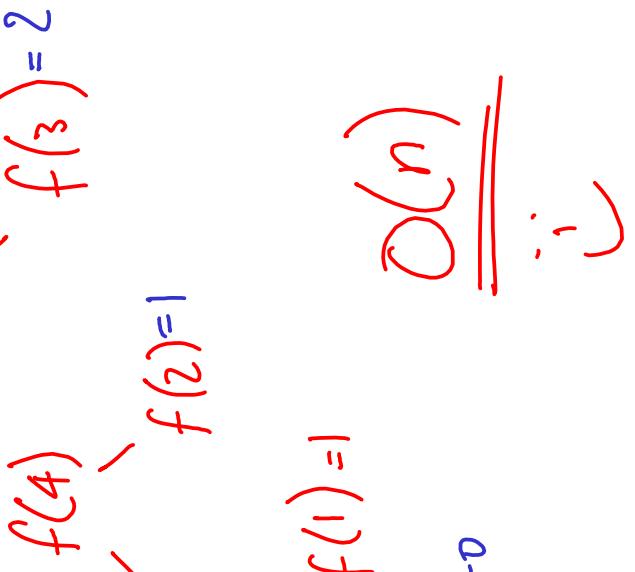
0 → 0

1 → 1

2 → 2

3 → 3

4 → 5



O(n) →
space
↓

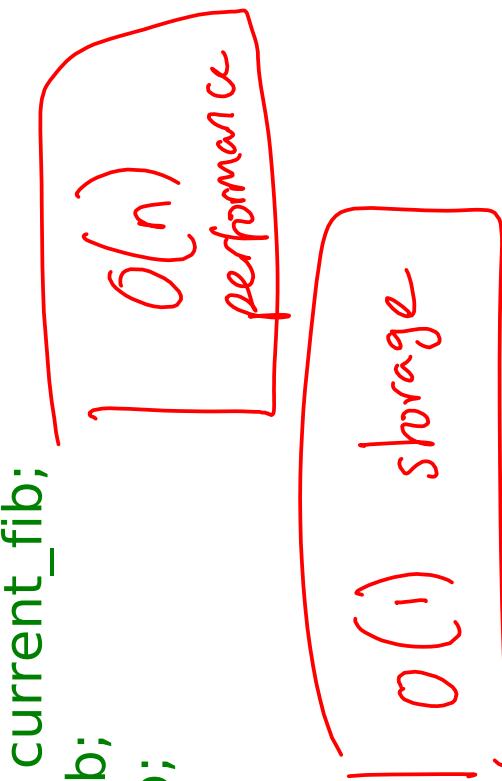
Example: Fibonacci Numbers

- Bottom-up (normal DP)

```
int fib (int a) {  
    if (a==0) return 0;  
    if (a==1) return 1;  
  
    → [ prev_fib = 0; → f[a-2] ]  
    → [ current_fib=1; → f[a-1] ]  
    for ( i = 1 to (a-1) ) {  
        this_fib = prev_fib + current_fib;  
        prev_fib = current_fib;  
        current_fib = this_fib;  
    }  
}
```

Computation
↓ ↗ Remembered

$$\begin{aligned}f(2) &= \underline{f(1)} + \underline{f(0)} \\f(3) &= \underline{f(2)} + \underline{f(1)} \\f(4) &= \underline{f(3)} + \underline{f(2)} \\f(5) &= \underline{f(4)} + \underline{f(3)}\end{aligned}$$



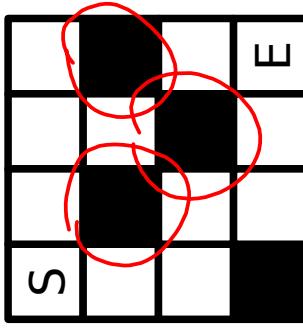
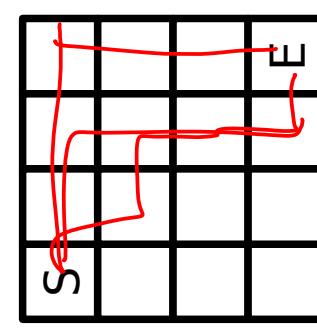
Dynamic Prog: When To Use

- Use when all apply:
 - You have many choices, each with a score and you need to find a max or min.
 - Brute forcing is exponentially tough !
 - The optimal solution is composed of optimal solutions to smaller problems
 - The optimal solutions top the smaller problems crop up multiple times when trying to solve the bigger problems (“overlap” of solutions)

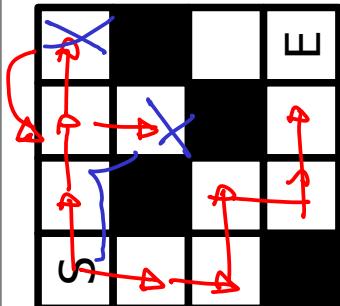
Dynamic Programming

- DP has turned out to be really important for many scientific problems
 - Science is often about optimizing very large quantities of data
- The notes and CLRS will give you some more examples (it's best understood through example)
 - Matrix multiplication
 - String matching

Brute Force

- Consider a maze where you need to find the path S to E
 - **Brute Force**
 - Generate every possible path from S to E ignoring the blocked squares
 - Now go through each path until you find one that does not pass through a blocked square
- 
- 

Backtracking



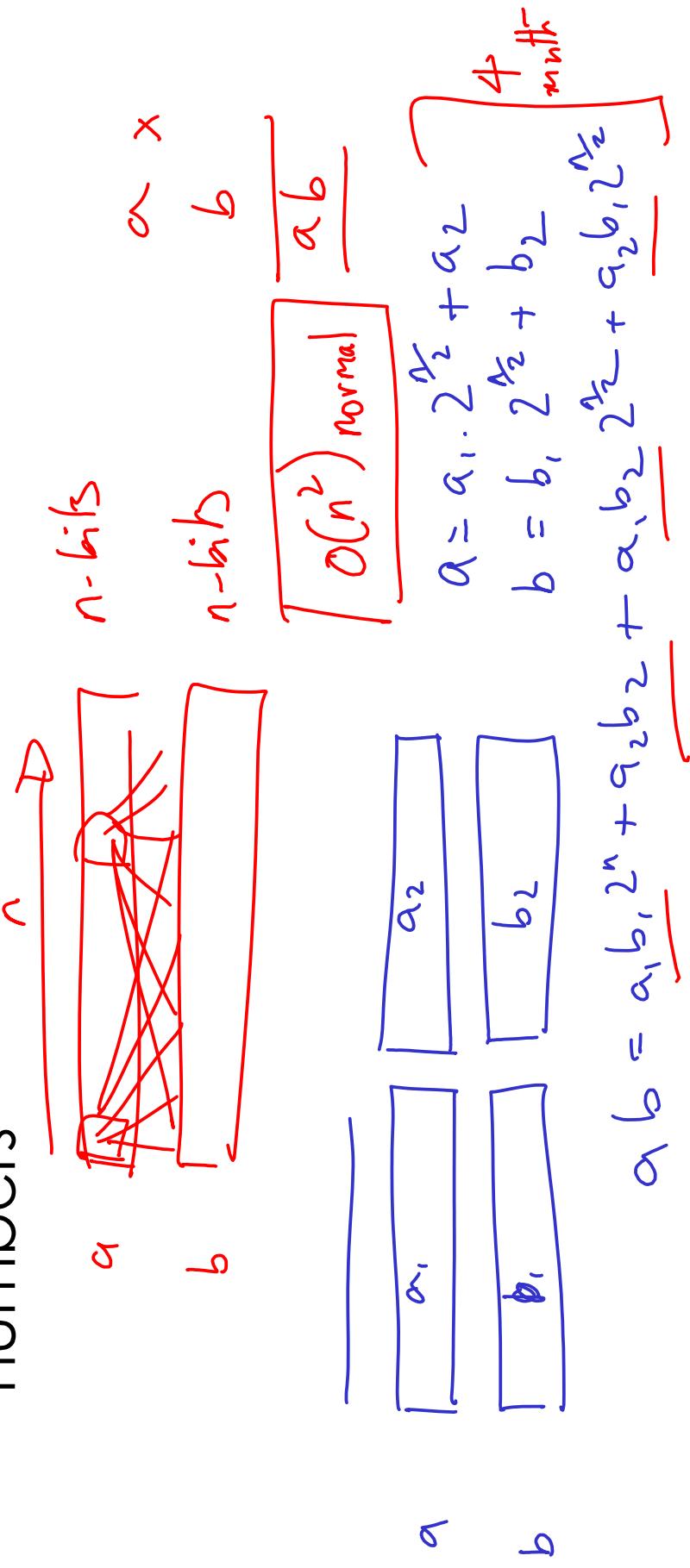
- Now we move one square at a time, recursively exploring each direction
- If we hit an end, we **backtrack** to where the last split was and continue from there
 - (Yes, this is basically what you would do naturally)

Divide and Conquer

- This is a familiar strategy now
 - Quicksort, mergesort
- **Divide:** cut the problem into parts (almost always two)
- **Conquer:** recursively solve the parts
- **Combine:** Use the part solutions to form a full solution

Example: Number Multiplication

- Take two n-bit numbers, a and b
 - Multiplying them together is $O(n^2)$
 - Consider splitting them into two $n/2$ bit numbers



Example: Number Multiplication

$$\begin{aligned} f(n) &= 4f\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + kn && \xrightarrow{\div 2} \exp - \\ f(2^m) &= 4f(2^{m-1}) + k2^m && \times 2 \Rightarrow \exp + 2 \\ &= 4^2 f(2^{m-2}) + 2^2 k 2^{m-1} + k2^m && \\ &= 4^m f(2^0) + \cancel{k2^m} + \cancel{k2^{m+1}} + \cancel{k2^{m+2}} + \dots k2^{2m-1} \\ &= 4^m f(1^0) + k \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} 2^i \\ &= 4^m f(2^0) + k 2^m \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} 2^i \\ &= 4^m f(i) + k \frac{2^m (2^m - 1)}{2^m - 1} \\ &= 4^m f(i) + k \underline{\underline{O(n^2)}} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Number Multiplication

$$ab = a_1 b_1 2^m + a_2 b_2 + \underline{\underline{a_1 b_2 2^n + a_2 b_1 2^n}}$$

$$A = a_1 b_1$$

$$B = a_2 b_2$$

$$C = (a_1 a_2) (b_1 + b_2) = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + a_2 b_1 + a_1 b_2$$

$$ab = 2^m A + B + \underline{\underline{(C - B - A) 2^n}} <<$$

Example: Number Multiplication

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(n) &= 3f\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + kn \\
 n = 2^m \Rightarrow f(2^m) &= 3f(2^{m-1}) + k2^m \\
 &= 3^2f(2^{m-2}) + 3k2^{m-1} + k2^m \\
 &= 3^m f(2^0) + k \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} 3^i 2^{m-i} \\
 &= 3^m f(1) + k 2^m \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^i
 \end{aligned}$$

~~$\frac{3}{2} - 1$~~ const Geometric progression S_n

$$\begin{aligned}
 O(3^m) &= O\left(3^{\log_2 n}\right) \\
 &= O\left(n^{\log_2 3}\right) \\
 &= O(n^{1.585})
 \end{aligned}$$

~~$2^m \left[\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^m - 1\right]$~~ const

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\log x \log y = (\log x)(\log y) \\
 &\log y^{\log x} = \log x^{\log y} \\
 &y^{\log x} = x^{\log y}
 \end{aligned}$$

~~$2^m \cdot \frac{3^m}{2^m}$~~ $O(3^m)$

~~$O(n^{1.585})$~~ $\underline{\underline{O(n^{1.585})}}$