

## Matrix Chain Multiplication

The input to the following algorithm is  $p = (p_0, \dots, p_n)$ , where  $p_{i-1} \times p_i$  is the dimension of  $A_i$ .

- $s[i, j]$  is the best place to split the computation of  $A_{i..j}$  to  $A_{i..k}A_{k+1..j}$ .

MATRIX-CHAIN-ORDER( $p$ )

```
1   $n \leftarrow \text{length}[p] - 1$ 
2  for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
3       $m[i, j] \leftarrow 0$ 
4  for  $l \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$  do
5      for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - l + 1$  do
6           $j \leftarrow i + l - 1$ 
7           $m[i, j] \leftarrow \infty$ 
8          for  $k \leftarrow i$  to  $j - 1$  do
9               $q \leftarrow m[i, k] + m[k + 1, j] + p_{i-1}p_kp_j$ 
10             if  $q < m[i, j]$ 
11                 then  $m[i, j] \leftarrow q$ 
12                      $s[i, j] \leftarrow k$ 
13 return  $m$  and  $s$ 
```

Running time:  $O(n^3)$

- Key point: the same information ( $m[i, j]$ ) gets reused over and over.

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## Computing an optimal solution

MATRIX-CHAIN-ORDER computes the best place to split and the optimal number of scalar multiplications.

- From  $s[i, j]$ , it's easy to compute how to multiply

M-CHAIN-MULTIPLY( $A, s, i, j$ )

```
1  if  $j > i$ 
2      then  $X \leftarrow \text{M-CHAIN-MULTIPLY}(A, s, i, s[i, j])$ 
3            $Y \leftarrow \text{M-CHAIN-MULTIPLY}(A, s, s[i, j] + 1, j)$ 
4           return MATRIX-MULTIPLY( $X, Y$ )
5  else return  $A_i$ 
```

Get the right answer by calling M-CHAIN-MULTIPLY( $A, s, 1, n$ )

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## Longest Common Subsequence

Given two sequences, we want to find their longest common subsequence. This is a problem that comes up, for example, in gene sequencing (if we want to compare to genomes).

Formally, if  $Z = (z_1, \dots, z_k)$  is a subsequence of  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$  if there exist  $i_1, \dots, i_k$  such that  $i_1 < \dots < i_k$  and  $z_j = x_{i_j}$ .

Example: The longest common subsequence of  $(A, A, B, C, A, A, D, A)$  and  $(A, C, B, C, A, B, D, C, A)$  is  $(A, B, C, A, D, A)$ .

- There can be at most 3 A's in the lcs, so this is the best we can do.

The brute force approach to finding LCS of  $X$  and  $Y$  is to consider all subsequences of  $X$  and see which ones are subsequences of  $Y$ .

- The number of subsequences of  $X$  is exponential in  $\text{length}(X)$ .

We can do better using dynamic programming.

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## Characterizing an LCS

Given a sequence  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$ , if  $i \leq m$ , let  $X_i = (x_1, \dots, x_i)$ .

**Theorem:** Suppose that  $Z = (z_1, \dots, z_k)$  is an lcs for  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$  and  $Y = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$ .

1. If  $x_m = y_n$ , then  $z_k = x_m = y_n$  and  $Z_{k-1}$  is an lcs for  $X_{m-1}$  and  $Y_{n-1}$ .
2. If  $x_m \neq y_n$  and  $z_k \neq x_m$ , then  $Z$  is an lcs for  $X_{m-1}$  and  $Y_n$ .
3. If  $x_m \neq y_n$  and  $z_k \neq y_n$ , then  $Z$  is an lcs for  $X$  and  $Y_{n-1}$ .

Therefore, an lcs for  $X$  and  $Y$  contains within it an lcs for two smaller sequences.

- We can find  $\text{LCS}(X, Y)$  by first finding  $\text{LCS}(X_i, Y_j)$  for all the prefixes of  $X$  and  $Y$ .

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## Solving LCS Recursively

Let  $c[i, j]$  the length of an lcs of  $X_i$  and  $Y_j$ .

$$c[i, j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 0 \text{ or } j = 0 \\ c[i - 1, j - 1] + 1 & \text{if } i, j > 0, x_i = y_j \\ \max(c[i - 1, j], c[i, j - 1]) & \text{if } i, j > 0, x_i \neq y_j \end{cases}$$

LCS-LENGTH( $X, Y$ )

```
1   $n \leftarrow \text{length}[X]$ 
2   $m \leftarrow \text{length}[Y]$ 
3  for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $m$  do
4       $c[i, 0] \leftarrow 0$ 
5  for  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $n$  do
6       $c[0, j] \leftarrow 0$ 
7  for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $m$  do
8      for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
9          if  $x_i = y_j$ 
10             then  $c[i, j] \leftarrow c[i - 1, j - 1] + 1$ 
11             else  $c[i, j] \leftarrow \max(c[i - 1, j], c[i, j - 1])$ 
12 return  $c$ 
```

Running time (and space):  $O(nm)$

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## Greedy Algorithms

One approach to an optimization problem: make the choice that currently looks best.

- Sometimes this greedy approach is a bad idea
  - you can get caught in a trap
- Other times it works remarkably well.

Kruskal's algorithm for MST can be viewed as a greedy algorithm:

- Choose the edge of least weight that buys you something

So can Prim's algorithm:

- Choose the edge of least weight that extends the current tree and buys you something.

And so can Dijkstra's algorithm:

- Choose the node not yet chosen which is closest to the source.

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## Printing out an LCS

PRINT-LCS( $c, X, i, j$ )

```
1  if  $i = 0$  or  $j = 0$ 
2      then return
3  if  $c[i - 1, j] = c[i, j]$ 
4      then PRINT-LCS( $c, X, i - 1, j$ )
5  else if  $c[i, j - 1] = c[i, j]$ 
6      then PRINT-LCS( $c, X, i, j - 1$ )
7  else PRINT-LCS( $c, X, i - 1, j - 1$ )
8      print  $x_i$ 
```

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## Activity Selection

Suppose that we have a set  $S = \{1, \dots, n\}$  of proposed *activities* that need to use the same resource

- only one can be active at a time
  - example: scheduling classes in a lecture hall
- Activity  $i$  has a *start time*  $s_i$  and a *finish time*  $f_i$ .

Problem: choose the maximum set of mutually compatible activities

- Don't want activities whose start-finish times overlap

Basic idea: keep choosing an activity as long as it's compatible with the ones you've already chosen.

- The actual algorithm suggests a particular way to choose.

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Order the activities by increasing finish time:

$$f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots \leq f_n$$

- This pre-processing step takes time  $O(n \log n)$

Assume the algorithm gets as input the sequence  $s$  of start times and the sequence  $f$  of finish times (in sorted order):

GREEDY-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR( $s, f$ )

```
1   $n \leftarrow \text{length}[s]$ 
2   $A \leftarrow \{1\}$       [ $A$  consists of selected activities]
3   $j \leftarrow 1$       [ $j$  is the last activity put into  $A$ ]
4  for  $j \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$  do
5      if  $s_i \geq f_j$       [if it's safe to add  $i$  to  $A$  ...]
6          then  $A \leftarrow A \cup i$ 
7               $j \leftarrow i$ 
8  return  $A$ 
```

Clearly this gives a set of compatible activities.

It's also efficient:

- After preprocessing, run in time  $\Theta(n)$ .

But why is it correct?

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If  $A$  is a maximum set of mutually compatible activities in  $S = \{1, \dots, n\}$  and  $1 \in A$ , then  $A - \{1\}$  is a maximum set of mutually compatible activities in  $S' = \{i \in S : s_i \geq f_1\}$ .

- $S'$  consists of activities that start after 1 ends.

Now by induction, the algorithm produces a maximum set on  $S'$ .

- But the action of algorithm on  $S'$  is exactly the same as the action of the algorithm on  $S$  after choosing 1.

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**Theorem:** GREEDY-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR chooses a maximum set of mutually compatible activities.

**Proof:** By strong induction on  $n$ , the number of activities in  $S$ .

Base case: clearly OK if  $S = 1$ .

Inductive step: First show that there is a maximum set that includes activity 1 (the one with earliest finish time).

Let  $A$  be a maximum set and let  $k$  be the activity in  $A$  with earliest finish time.

- If  $k = 1$ , we're done.
- If not, let  $B = A - \{k\} \cup \{1\}$ . The activities in  $B$  must be mutually compatible
  - activity 1 can't overlap with anything, since its finish time is earlier than  $k$ 's
- Thus,  $B$  is a maximum set that includes 1.

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## Greedy vs. Dynamic Programming

A greedy algorithm works only if making the greedy choice gives an optimal solution:

- That works in some cases, but not always.
- The hard part is often showing that it works

Example:

- The *0-1 knapsack problem*: there are  $n$  items
  - Item  $i$  has value  $v_i$  and weight  $w_i$ .

You can put at most  $W$  pounds into a knapsack. Which items do you take?

- For each item, you either take it or leave it (0-1)
- The *fractional knapsack problem*: same setup, but now you can take part of an item.
  - This means you have more flexibility

Key point:

- There's a greedy algorithm for the fractional knapsack problem, but not for the 0-1 knapsack problem

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For the fractional knapsack problem:

- First sort the items by value/pound ( $v_i/w_i$ )
- Pick the most valuable items that you can fit in, then the next one, etc., until there's no more room.
- Then put in as much of the last item as you can to get to weight  $W$ .
  - This is OK since you can take fractions of an item.

This approach doesn't work for the 0-1 knapsack problem:

- Suppose there are three items and the knapsack can hold 50 pounds:
  - Item 1 weighs 10 lb. and is worth \$60
  - Item 2 weighs 20 lb. and is worth \$100
  - Item 3 weighs 30 lb. and is worth \$120
- Item 1 is the most valuable, but the optimal solution is  $\{2, 3\}$ .

You can use dynamic programming to solve the 0-1 knapsack problem.

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## Prefix Code

If one code is a prefix of another, then decoding is harder

- if  $e$  is 0 and  $a$  is 01, when you see 0, is it an  $e$  or the beginning of an  $a$ .

It is best to assume a *prefix code*

- no codeword is the prefix of another codeword.

Decoding is simple with a prefix code:

- Keep running along string until you have a complete codeword, and continue
  - Note: this is a greedy decoding algorithm
- E.g., suppose  $e = 0$ ,  $a = 10$ ,  $b = 110$ 
  - then  $00110100 = eebae$

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## Huffman Codes

Suppose you have a large file, where only 6 different characters appear

- Not all characters appear equally often
- How do we represent the characters so as to get greatest compression?
  - Compression is critical in transmitting data over a modem
  - There are \*lots\* of coding algorithms

Assume each character is represented as a binary string. Example:

$a = 000000$      $b = 000001$     ...  
 $z = 011010$      $, = 011011$     ...

Is this a good encoding?

- This is a *fixed-length* code: all characters encoded by a 6-bit code word
- It's a better idea to use a *variable-length* code
- Greater frequency  $\Rightarrow$  shorter code word
  - Modern coding algorithms (based on Ziv-Lempel) adaptively choose length of code word

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