Midterm Review

Matching Residents to Hospitals

Goal. Given a set of preferences among hospitals and medical school students, design a self-reinforcing admissions process.

Unstable pair: applicant x and hospital y are unstable if:
- x prefers y to its assigned hospital.
- y prefers x to one of its admitted students.

Stable assignment. Assignment with no unstable pairs.
- Natural and desirable condition.
- Individual self-interest will prevent any applicant/hospital deal from being made.

Stable Matching Problem

Goal. Given n men and n women, find a "suitable" matching.

- Participants rate members of opposite sex.
- Each man lists women in order of preference from best to worst.
- Each woman lists men in order of preference from best to worst.

favorite → 1st; least favorite → 3rd

	1st	2nd	3rd
Xavier	Amy	Bertha	Clare
Yancey	Bertha	Amy	Clare
Zeus	Amy	Bertha	Clare

Men's Preference Profile

	1st	2nd	3rd
Amy	Yancey	Xavier	Zeus
Bertha	Xavier	Yancey	Zeus
Clare	Xavier	Yancey	Zeus

Women's Preference Profile

Propose-And-Reject Algorithm

Propose-and-reject algorithm. [Gale-Shapley 1962] Intuitive method that guarantees to find a stable matching.

```
Initialize each person to be free.
while (some man is free and hasn't proposed to every woman) {
    Choose such a man m
    w = 1st woman on m's list to whom m has not yet proposed
    if (w is free)
        assign m and w to be engaged
    else if (w prefers m to her fiancé m')
        assign m and w to be engaged, and m' to be free
    else
        w rejects m
}
```

Proof of Correctness: Stability

Claim. No unstable pairs.
Pf. (by contradiction)

- Suppose A-Z is an unstable pair: each prefers each other to partner in Gale-Shapley matching S*.

- Case 1: Z never proposed to A. ← men propose in decreasing order of preference
  - ⇒ Z prefers his GS partner to A.
  - ⇒ A-Z is stable.

S*
Amy-Yancey
Bertha-Zeus
. . .

- Case 2: Z proposed to A.
  - ⇒ A rejected Z (right away or later)
  - ⇒ A prefers her GS partner to Z. ← women only trade up
  - ⇒ A-Z is stable.

- In either case A-Z is stable, a contradiction. ▪

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Summary

Stable matching problem. Given n men and n women, and their preferences, find a stable matching if one exists.

Gale-Shapley algorithm. Guarantees to find a stable matching for any problem instance.

Q. How to implement GS algorithm efficiently?

Q. If there are multiple stable matchings, which one does GS find?

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Efficient Implementation

Efficient implementation. We describe $O(n^2)$ time implementation.

Representing men and women.

- Assume men are named 1, …, n.
- Assume women are named 1', …, n'.

Engagements.

- Maintain a list of free men, e.g., in a queue.
- Maintain two arrays `wife[m]`, and `husband[w]`.
  - set entry to `0` if unmatched
  - if m matched to w then `wife[m]=w` and `husband[w]=m`

Men proposing.

- For each man, maintain a list of women, ordered by preference.
- Maintain an array `count[m]` that counts the number of proposals made by man `m`.

Efficient Implementation

Women rejecting/accepting.

- Does woman `w` prefer man `m` to man `m'`?
- For each woman, create inverse of preference list of men.
- Constant time access for each query after O(n) preprocessing.

Amy	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th
Pref	8	3	7	1	4	5	6	2

Amy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Inverse	4th	8th	2nd	5th	6th	7th	3rd	1st

```
for i = 1 to n
   inverse[pref[i]] = i
```

Amy prefers man 3 to 6
since `inverse[3]` < `inverse[6]`
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Worst-Case Analysis

Worst case running time. Obtain bound on largest possible running time of algorithm on input of a given size N.

- Generally captures efficiency in practice.
- Draconian view, but hard to find effective alternative.

Average case running time. Obtain bound on running time of algorithm on random input as a function of input size N.

- Hard (or impossible) to accurately model real instances by random distributions.
- Algorithm tuned for a certain distribution may perform poorly on other inputs.

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RUNNING TIME ANALYSIS

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Asymptotic Order of Growth

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ such that for all $n \geq n_0$ we have $T(n) \leq c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is Ω(f(n)) if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ such that for all $n \geq n_0$ we have $T(n) \geq c \cdot f(n)$.

Tight bounds. T(n) is Θ(f(n)) if T(n) is both O(f(n)) and Ω(f(n)).

Ex: $T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$.

- T(n) is $O(n^2)$, $O(n^3)$, $\Omega(n^2)$, $\Omega(n)$, and $\Theta(n^2)$.
- T(n) is not $O(n)$, $\Omega(n^3)$, $\Theta(n)$, or $\Theta(n^3)$.

Notation

Slight abuse of notation. T(n) = O(f(n)).

- Asymmetric:
  - $f(n) = 5n^3$; $g(n) = 3n^2$
  - $f(n) = O(n^3) = g(n)$
  - but $f(n) \neq g(n)$.
- Better notation: $T(n) \in O(f(n))$.

Meaningless statement. Any comparison-based sorting algorithm requires at least O(n log n) comparisons.

- Statement doesn't "type-check."
- Use Ω for lower bounds.

Properties

Transitivity.
- If $f = O(g)$ and $g = O(h)$ then $f = O(h)$.
- If $f = \Omega(g)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(g)$ and $g = \Theta(h)$ then $f = \Theta(h)$.

Additivity.
- If $f = O(h)$ and $g = O(h)$ then $f + g = O(h)$.
- If $f = \Omega(h)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f + g = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(h)$ and $g = O(h)$ then $f + g = \Theta(h)$.

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Asymptotic Bounds for Some Common Functions

Polynomials. $a_0 + a_1 n + \ldots + a_d n^d$ is $\Theta(n^d)$ if $a_d > 0$.

Polynomial time. Running time is $O(n^d)$ for some constant d independent of the input size n.

Logarithms. $O(\log_a n) = O(\log_b n)$ for any constants $a, b > 0$.

↑ can avoid specifying the base

Logarithms. For every $x > 0$, $\log n = O(n^x)$.

↑ log grows slower than every polynomial

Exponentials. For every $r > 1$ and every $d > 0$, $n^d = O(r^n)$.

↑ every exponential grows faster than every polynomial

Survey of common running times: See examples

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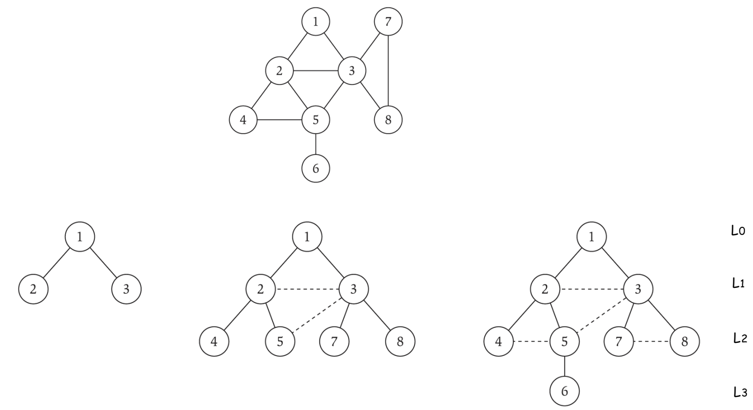
GRAPHS

Breadth First Search

Property. Let T be a BFS tree of G = (V, E), and let (x, y) be an edge of G. Then the level of x and y differ by at most 1.



(a) (b) (c)

Depth-First Search: The Code

Running time: There is a tighter bound O(V+E) or O(m + n)
n = |V| and m = |E|

```
DFS(G)
{
   for each vertex u ∈ G->V
   {
      Mark v unexplored ;
   }
   time = 0;
   for each vertex u ∈ G->V
   {
      if (u is UNEXPLORED)
         DFS_Visit(u);
   }
}
```

```
DFS_Visit(u)
{
   Mark u EXPLORED;
   add u to R;
   for each v ∈ u->Adj[]
   {
      if (v is
NOT_EXPLORED)
         DFS_Visit(v);
   }
}
```

Breadth First Search: Analysis

Theorem. The above implementation of BFS runs in O(m + n) time if the graph is given by its adjacency representation.

Pf.

- Easy to prove $O(n^2)$ running time:
  - at most n lists L[i]
  - each node occurs on at most one list; for loop runs $\le$ n times
  - when we consider node u, there are $\le$ n incident edges (u, v), and we spend O(1) processing each edge
- Actually runs in O(m + n) time:
  - when we consider node u, there are deg(u) incident edges (u, v)
  - total time processing edges is $\Sigma_{u \in V} \deg(u) = 2m$ ▪

each edge (u, v) is counted exactly twice in sum: once in deg(u) and once in deg(v)

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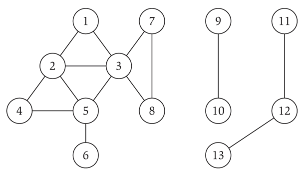
Connected Component

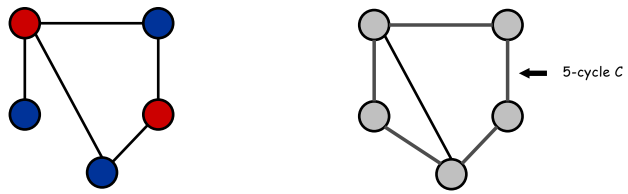
Connected component. Find all nodes reachable from s.



Connected component containing node 1 = { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 }.

Obstruction to Bipartiteness

Corollary. A graph G is bipartite iff it contains no odd length cycle.



bipartite
(2-colorable)

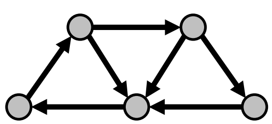
not bipartite
(not 2-colorable)

Strong Connectivity: Algorithm

Theorem. Can determine if G is strongly connected in O(m + n) time.
Pf.

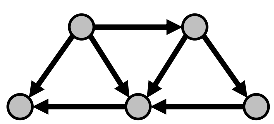
- Pick any node s.
- Run BFS from s in G.
- Run BFS from s in G^{rev}. (reverse orientation of every edge in G)
- Return true iff all nodes reached in both BFS executions.
- Correctness follows immediately from previous lemma. ▪

Example 1 (yes)



strongly connected

Example 2 (no)



not strongly connected

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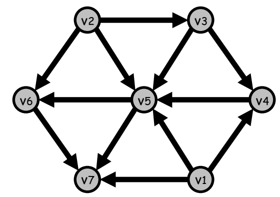
Directed Acyclic Graphs

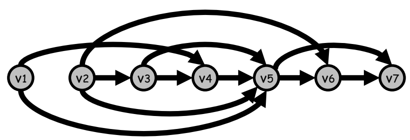
Def. An DAG is a directed graph that contains no directed cycles.

Ex. Precedence constraints: edge (v_i, v_j) means v_i must precede v_j.

Def. A topological order of a directed graph G = (V, E) is an ordering of its nodes as $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ so that for every edge (v_i, v_j) we have $i < j$.



a DAG



a topological ordering

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Topological Sorting Algorithm: Running Time

Theorem. Algorithm finds a topological order in O(m + n) time.

Pf.

- Maintain the following information:
  - `count[w]` = remaining number of incoming edges
  - S = set of remaining nodes with no incoming edges
- Initialization: O(m + n) via single scan through graph.
- Update: to delete v
  - remove v from S
  - decrement `count[w]` for all edges from v to w, and add w to S if c `count[w]` hits 0
  - this is O(1) per edge ▪

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GREEDY ALGS.

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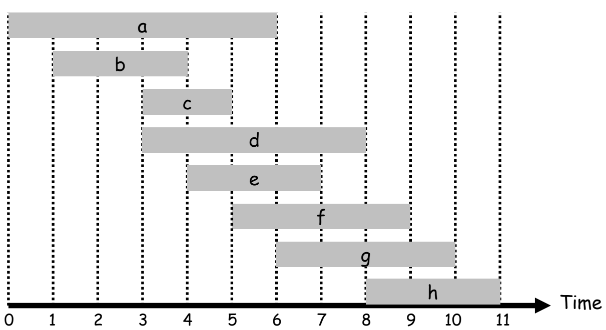
Interval Scheduling

Interval scheduling.

- Job j starts at s_j and finishes at f_j.
- Two jobs compatible if they don't overlap.
- Goal: find maximum subset of mutually compatible jobs.

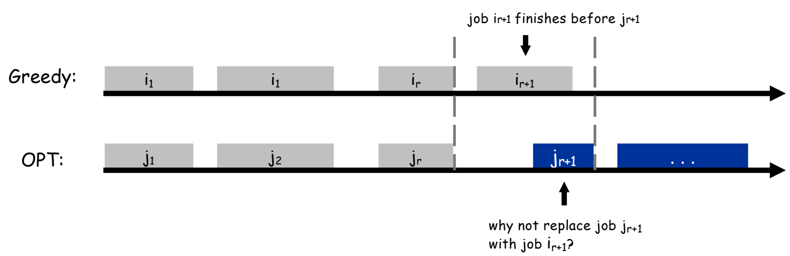


Interval Scheduling: Analysis

Theorem. Greedy algorithm is optimal.

Pf. (by contradiction)

- Assume greedy is not optimal, and let's see what happens.
- Let $i_1, i_2, \ldots i_k$ denote set of jobs selected by greedy.
- Let $j_1, j_2, \ldots j_m$ denote set of jobs in the optimal solution with $i_1 = j_1, i_2 = j_2, \ldots, i_r = j_r$ for the largest possible value of r.

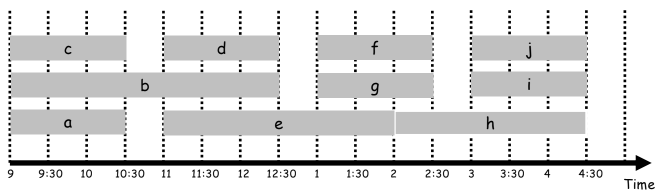


Interval Partitioning

Interval partitioning.

- Lecture j starts at s_j and finishes at f_j.
- Goal: find minimum number of classrooms to schedule all lectures so that no two occur at the same time in the same room.

Ex: This schedule uses only 3.



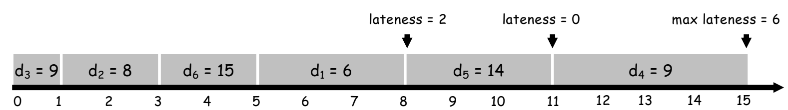
Scheduling to Minimizing Lateness

Minimizing lateness problem.

- Single resource processes one job at a time.
- Job j requires t_j units of processing time and is due at time d_j.
- If j starts at time s_j, it finishes at time $f_j = s_j + t_j$.
- Lateness: $\ell_j = \max \{ 0,\ f_j - d_j \}$.
- Goal: schedule all jobs to minimize maximum lateness $L = \max \ell_j$.

Ex:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
t_j	3	2	1	4	3	2
d_j	6	8	9	9	14	15

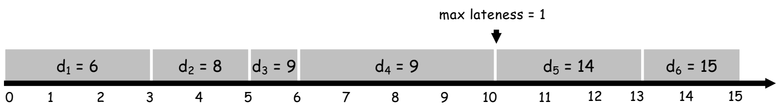


Minimizing Lateness: Greedy Algorithm

Greedy algorithm. Earliest deadline first.

```
Sort n jobs by deadline so that d1 ≤ d2 ≤ … ≤ dn

t ← 0
for j = 1 to n
   Assign job j to interval [t, t + tj]
   sj ← t, fj ← t + tj
   t ← t + tj
output intervals [sj, fj]
```



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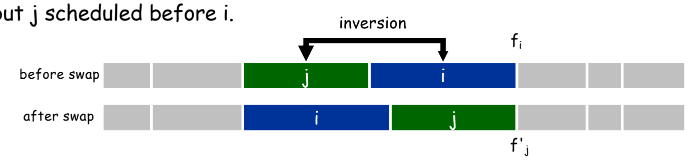
Minimizing Lateness: Inversions

Def. An inversion in schedule S is a pair of jobs i and j such that: i < j but j scheduled before i.



Claim. Swapping two adjacent, inverted jobs reduces the number of inversions by one and does not increase the max lateness.

Pf. Let ℓ be the lateness before the swap, and let ℓ' be it afterwards.

- $\ell'_k = \ell_k$ for all $k \neq i, j$
- $\ell'_i \leq \ell_i$
- If job j is late:

$$\begin{aligned} \ell'_j &= f'_j - d_j && \text{(definition)} \\ &= f_i - d_j && \text{(j finishes at time f_i)} \\ &\leq f_i - d_i && (i < j) \\ &\leq \ell_i && \text{(definition)} \end{aligned}$$

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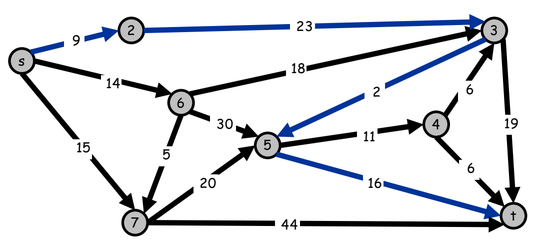
Shortest Path Problem

Shortest path network.
- Directed graph G = (V, E).
- Source s, destination t.
- Length ℓ_e = length of edge e.

Shortest path problem: find shortest directed path from s to t.

cost of path = sum of edge costs in path



Cost of path s-2-3-5-t
= 9 + 23 + 2 + 16
= 48.

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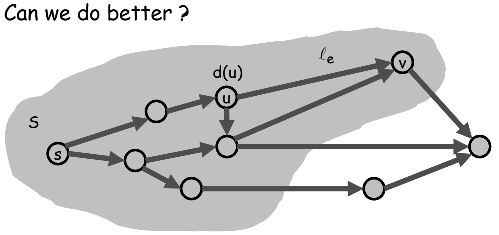
Dijkstra's Algorithm

Dijkstra's algorithm.
- Maintain a set of explored nodes S for which we have determined the shortest path distance d(u) from s to u.
- Initialize S = { s }, d(s) = 0.
- Repeatedly choose unexplored node v which minimizes

$$\pi(v) = \min_{e = (u,v) : u \in S} d(u) + \ell_e ,$$

shortest path to some u in explored part, followed by a single edge (u, v)

add v to S, and set d(v) = π(v).
- Running time **O(mn)**- simple implementation
- Can we do better ?



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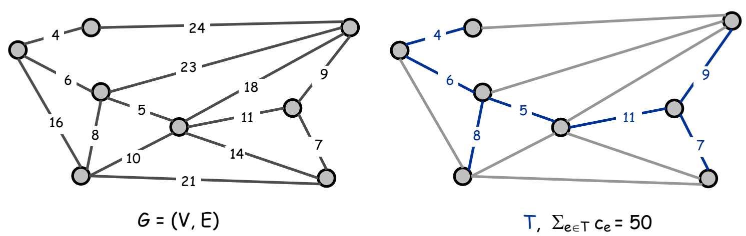
Minimum Spanning Tree

Minimum spanning tree. Given a connected graph $G = (V, E)$ with real-valued edge weights c_e, an MST is a subset of the edges $T \subseteq E$ such that T is a spanning tree whose sum of edge weights is minimized.



Cayley's Theorem. There are n^{n-2} spanning trees of K_n.

can't solve by brute force

Implementation: Prim's Algorithm

Implementation. Use a priority queue ala Dijkstra.
- Maintain set of explored nodes S.
- For each unexplored node v, maintain attachment cost a[v] = cost of cheapest edge v to a node in S.
- $O(n^2)$ with an array; $O(m \log n)$ with a binary heap.

```
Prim(G, c) {
   foreach (v ∈ V) a[v] ← ∞
   Initialize an empty priority queue Q
   foreach (v ∈ V) insert v onto Q
   Initialize set of explored nodes S ← ϕ

   while (Q is not empty) {
      u ← delete min element from Q
      S ← S ∪ { u }
      foreach (edge e = (u, v) incident to u)
          if ((v ∉ S) and (ce < a[v]))
             decrease priority a[v] to ce
}
```

Implementation: Kruskal's Algorithm

Implementation. Use the union-find data structure.
- Build set T of edges in the MST.
- Maintain set for each connected component.
- $O(m \log n)$ for sorting and $O(m\, \alpha(m, n))$ for union-find.

$m \le n^2 \Rightarrow \log m$ is $O(\log n)$ — essentially a constant

```
Kruskal(G, c) {
   Sort edges weights so that c1 ≤ c2 ≤ ... ≤ cm.
   T ← φ

   foreach (u ∈ V) make a set containing singleton u

   for i = 1 to m          are u and v in different connected components?
      (u,v) = ei
      if (u and v are in different sets) {
         T ← T ∪ {ei}
         merge the sets containing u and v
      }                    merge two components
   return T
}
```

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DIVIDE AND CONQUER

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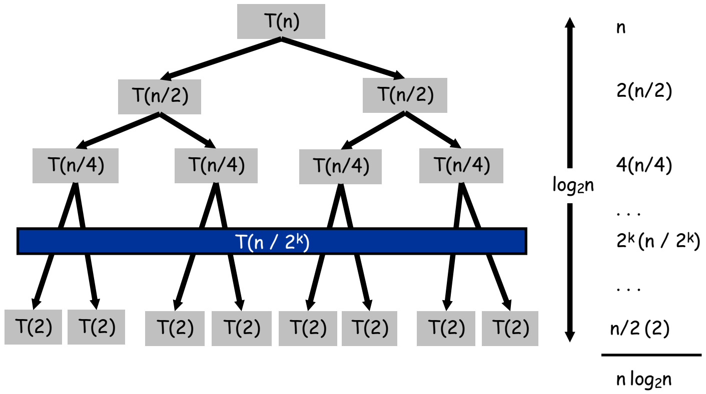
Proof by Recursion Tree

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \underbrace{2T(n/2)}_{\text{sorting both halves}} + \underbrace{n}_{\text{merging}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



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Proof by Telescoping

Claim. If T(n) satisfies this recurrence, then $T(n) = n \log_2 n$.

(assumes n is a power of 2)

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \underbrace{2T(n/2)}_{\text{sorting both halves}} + \underbrace{n}_{\text{merging}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Pf. For $n > 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{T(n)}{n} &= \frac{2T(n/2)}{n} + 1 \\ &= \frac{T(n/2)}{n/2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{T(n/4)}{n/4} + 1 + 1 \\ &\cdots \\ &= \frac{T(n/n)}{n/n} + \underbrace{1 + \cdots + 1}_{\log_2 n} \\ &= \log_2 n \end{aligned}$$

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Proof by Induction

Claim. If T(n) satisfies this recurrence, then T(n) = n $\log_2$ n.

↑ assumes n is a power of 2

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \underbrace{2T(n/2)}_{\text{sorting both halves}} + \underbrace{n}_{\text{merging}} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Pf. (by induction on n)

- Base case: n = 1.
- Inductive hypothesis: T(n) = n $\log_2$ n.
- Goal: show that T(2n) = 2n $\log_2$ (2n).

$$\begin{aligned} T(2n) &= 2T(n) + 2n \\ &= 2n\log_2 n + 2n \\ &= 2n(\log_2(2n) - 1) + 2n \\ &= 2n\log_2(2n) \end{aligned}$$

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Counting Inversions: Divide-and-Conquer

Divide-and-conquer.

- Divide: separate list into two pieces.

1	5	4	8	10	2	6	9	12	11	3	7

Divide: O(1).

1	5	4	8	10	2

6	9	12	11	3	7

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Counting Inversions: Divide-and-Conquer

Divide-and-conquer.
- Divide: separate list into two pieces.
- Conquer: recursively count inversions in each half.

1	5	4	8	10	2	6	9	12	11	3	7

Divide: O(1).

1	5	4	8	10	2		6	9	12	11	3	7

Conquer: 2T(n / 2)

5 blue-blue inversions

5-4, 5-2, 4-2, 8-2, 10-2

8 green-green inversions

6-3, 9-3, 9-7, 12-3, 12-7, 12-11, 11-3, 11-7

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Counting Inversions: Divide-and-Conquer

Divide-and-conquer.
- Divide: separate list into two pieces.
- Conquer: recursively count inversions in each half.
- Combine: count inversions where a_i and a_j are in different halves, and return sum of three quantities.

1	5	4	8	10	2	6	9	12	11	3	7

Divide: O(1).

1	5	4	8	10	2		6	9	12	11	3	7

Conquer: 2T(n / 2)

5 blue-blue inversions

8 green-green inversions

9 blue-green inversions
5-3, 4-3, 8-6, 8-3, 8-7, 10-6, 10-9, 10-3, 10-7

Combine: ???

Total = 5 + 8 + 9 = 22.

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Counting Inversions: Combine

Combine: count blue-green inversions

- Assume each half is sorted.
- Count inversions where a_i and a_j are in different halves.
- Merge two sorted halves into sorted whole.

to maintain sorted invariant

3	7	10	14	18	19	2	11	16	17	23	25
						6	3	2	2	0	0

13 blue-green inversions: 6 + 3 + 2 + 2 + 0 + 0 — Count: O(n)

2	3	7	10	11	14	16	17	18	19	23	25

Merge: O(n)

$$T(n) \leq T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + O(n) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

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Closest Pair Algorithm

```
Closest-Pair(p1, …, pn) {
   Compute separation line L such that half the points      O(n log n)
   are on one side and half on the other side.

   δ1 = Closest-Pair(left half)                              2T(n / 2)
   δ2 = Closest-Pair(right half)
   δ  = min(δ1, δ2)

   Delete all points further than δ from separation line L   O(n)

   Sort remaining points by y-coordinate.                    O(n log n)

   Scan points in y-order and compare distance between       O(n)
   each point and next 11 neighbors. If any of these
   distances is less than δ, update δ.

   return δ.
}
```

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Closest Pair of Points: Analysis

Running time.

$$T(n) \le 2T(n/2) + O(n \log n) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log^2 n)$$

Q. Can we achieve O(n log n)?

A. Yes. Don't sort points in strip from scratch each time.
- Each recursive returns two lists: all points sorted by y coordinate, and all points sorted by x coordinate.
- Sort by merging two pre-sorted lists.

$$T(n) \le 2T(n/2) + O(n) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

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DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

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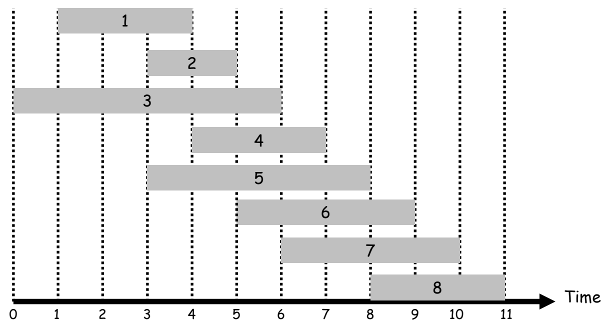
Weighted Interval Scheduling

Notation. Label jobs by finishing time: $f_1 \le f_2 \le \ldots \le f_n$.
Def. p(j) = largest index i < j such that job i is compatible with j.

Ex: p(8) = 5, p(7) = 3, p(2) = 0.



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Dynamic Programming: Binary Choice

Notation. OPT(j) = value of optimal solution to the problem consisting of job requests 1, 2, ..., j.

- Case 1: OPT selects job j.
  - can't use incompatible jobs { p(j) + 1, p(j) + 2, ..., j - 1 }
  - must include optimal solution to problem consisting of remaining compatible jobs 1, 2, ..., p(j)
- Case 2: OPT does not select job j.
  - must include optimal solution to problem consisting of remaining compatible jobs 1, 2, ..., j-1

optimal substructure

$$OPT(j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j = 0 \\ \max\left\{ v_j + OPT(p(j)),\ OPT(j-1) \right\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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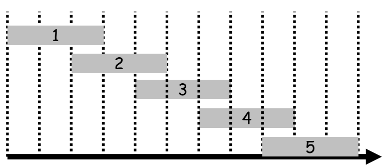
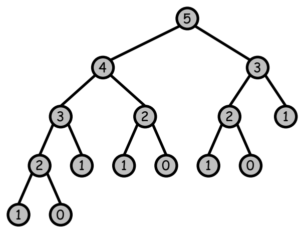
Weighted Interval Scheduling: Brute Force

Observation. Recursive algorithm fails spectacularly because of redundant sub-problems $\Rightarrow$ exponential algorithms.

Ex. Number of recursive calls for family of "layered" instances grows like Fibonacci sequence.



p(1) = 0, p(j) = j-2



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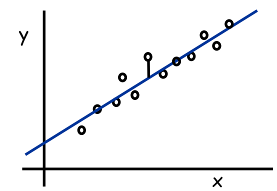
Segmented Least Squares

Least squares.
- Foundational problem in statistic and numerical analysis.
- Given n points in the plane: $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$.
- Find a line y = ax + b that minimizes the sum of the squared error:

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - ax_i - b)^2$$



Solution. Calculus $\Rightarrow$ min error is achieved when

$$a = \frac{n \sum_i x_i y_i - (\sum_i x_i)(\sum_i y_i)}{n \sum_i x_i^2 - (\sum_i x_i)^2}, \quad b = \frac{\sum_i y_i - a \sum_i x_i}{n}$$

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Segmented Least Squares

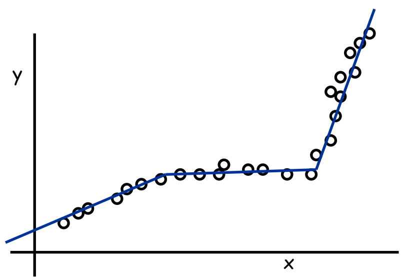
Segmented least squares.

- Points lie roughly on a sequence of several line segments.
- Given n points in the plane $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ with
- $x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_n$, find a sequence of lines that minimizes $f(x)$.

Q. What's a reasonable choice for $f(x)$ to balance accuracy and parsimony?

↑ goodness of fit (accuracy)

↑ number of lines (parsimony)



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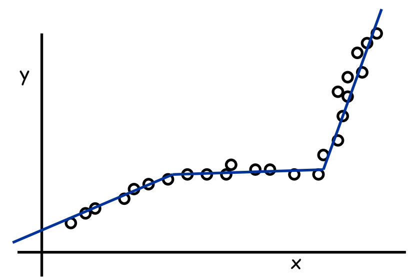
Segmented Least Squares

Segmented least squares.

- Points lie roughly on a sequence of several line segments.
- Given n points in the plane $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$ with
- $x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_n$, find a sequence of lines that minimizes:
  - the sum of the sums of the squared errors E in each segment
  - the number of lines L
- Tradeoff function: $E + c L$, for some constant $c > 0$.



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Dynamic Programming: Multiway Choice

Notation.

- OPT(j) = minimum cost for points $p_1, p_{i+1}, \ldots, p_j$.
- e(i, j) = minimum sum of squares for points $p_i, p_{i+1}, \ldots, p_j$.

To compute OPT(j):

- Last segment uses points $p_i, p_{i+1}, \ldots, p_j$ for some i.
- Cost = e(i, j) + c + OPT(i-1).

$$OPT(j) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } j = 0 \\ \min\limits_{1 \le i \le j} \{ e(i,j) + c + OPT(i-1) \} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Knapsack Problem

Knapsack problem.

- Given n objects and a "knapsack."
- Item i weighs $w_i > 0$ kilograms and has value $v_i > 0$.
- Knapsack has capacity of W kilograms.
- Goal: fill knapsack so as to maximize total value.

Ex: { 3, 4 } has value 40.

W = 11

Item	Value	Weight
1	1	1
2	6	2
3	18	5
4	22	6
5	28	7

Greedy: repeatedly add item with maximum ratio v_i / w_i.
Ex: { 5, 2, 1 } achieves only value = 35 $\Rightarrow$ greedy not optimal.

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Dynamic Programming: Adding a New Variable

Def. OPT(i, w) = max profit subset of items 1, …, i with weight limit w.

- Case 1: OPT does not select item i.
  - OPT selects best of { 1, 2, …, i-1 } using weight limit w
- Case 2: OPT selects item i.
  - new weight limit = $w - w_i$
  - OPT selects best of { 1, 2, …, i-1 } using this new weight limit

$$OPT(i,w) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i = 0 \\ OPT(i-1,w) & \text{if } w_i > w \\ \max\{\, OPT(i-1,w),\ \ v_i + OPT(i-1, w-w_i) \,\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Knapsack Algorithm

W + 1 →

n + 1 ↓

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
ϕ	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
{ 1 }	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
{ 1, 2 }	0	1	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
{ 1, 2, 3 }	0	1	6	7	7	18	19	24	25	25	25	25
{ 1, 2, 3, 4 }	0	1	6	7	7	18	22	24	28	29	29	40
{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 }	0	1	6	7	7	18	22	28	29	34	34	40

OPT: { 4, 3 }
value = 22 + 18 = 40

W = 11

Item	Value	Weight
1	1	1
2	6	2
3	18	5
4	22	6
5	28	7

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Also included:

Sequence alignment
Shortest Path with negative weights and cycles