# Greedy can also beat pure dynamic programming* 

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#### Abstract

Many dynamic programming algorithms are "pure" in that they only use min or max and addition operations in their recursion equations. The well known greedy algorithm of Kruskal solves the minimum weight spanning tree problem on $n$-vertex graphs using only $O\left(n^{2} \log n\right)$ operations. We prove that any pure DP algorithm for this problem must perform $2^{\Omega(n)}$ operations. Since the greedy algorithm can also badly fail on some optimization problems, easily solvable by pure DP algorithms, our result shows that the computational powers of these two types of algorithms are incomparable.


Keywords: Spanning tree; arborescence; arithmetic circuit; tropical circuit; lower bound

## 1 Introduction and result

A dynamic programming (DP) algorithm is pure if it only uses min or max and addition operations in its recursion equations, and the equations do not depend on the actual values of the input weights. Notable examples of such DP algorithms include the Bellman-Ford-Moore algorithm for the shortest $s$ - $t$ path problem $[8,15,1]$, the Floyd-Warshall algorithm for the all-pairs shortest paths problem [6, 18], and the Held-Karp algorithm for the Travelling Salesman Problem [9].

It is well known and easy to show that, for some optimization problems, already pure DP algorithms can be much better than greedy algorithms. Namely, there are a lot of optimization problems which are easily solvable by pure DP algorithms (exactly), but the greedy algorithm cannot even achieve any finite approximation factor: maximum weight independent set in a path, or in a tree, the maximum weight simple $s$ - $t$ path in a transitive tournament problem, etc.

In this note, we show that the converse direction also holds: on some optimization problems, greedy algorithms can also be much better than pure dynamic programming. So, the computational powers of greedy and pure DP algorithms are incomparable. We will show that the gap occurs on the undirected minimum weight spanning tree problem, by first deriving an exponential lower bound on the monotone arithmetic circuit complexity of the corresponding polynomial.

Let $K_{n}$ be the undirected graph on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Assume that edges $e$ have their associated weights $x_{e}$, considered as formal variables. Let $\mathcal{T}_{n}$ be the family of all $\left|\mathcal{T}_{n}\right|=n^{n-2}$ spanning trees in $K_{n}$,

[^0]each viewed as its set of edges. It is well known that $\mathcal{T}_{n}$ is the family of bases of a matroid, known as graphic matroid; so, on this family of feasible solutions, both optimization problems (minimization and maximization) can be solved by standard greedy algorithms. On the other hand, the theorem below states that the polynomial corresponding to $\mathcal{T}_{n}$ has exponential monotone arithmetic circuit complexity.

The spanning tree polynomial (known also as the Kirchhoff polynomial of $K_{n}$ ) is the following homogeneous, multilinear polynomial of degree $n-1$ :

$$
f_{n}(x)=\sum_{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n}} \prod_{e \in T} x_{e} .
$$

For a multivariate polynomial $f$ with positive coefficients, let $L(f)$ denote the minimum size of a monotone arithmetic $(+, \times)$ circuit computing $f$. The goal of this note is to prove that $L\left(f_{n}\right)$ is exponential in $n$.

## Theorem.

$$
L\left(f_{n}\right) \geq \frac{1}{2 n}\left(\frac{9}{5}\right)^{n}
$$

A "directed version" of $f_{n}$ is the arborescences polynomial $\vec{f}_{n}$. An arborescence (known also as a branching or a directed spanning tree) on the vertex-set $[n]=\{1, \ldots, n\}$ is a directed tree with edges oriented away from vertex 1 such that every other vertex is reachable from vertex 1 . Let $\overrightarrow{\mathcal{T}}_{n}$ be the family of all arborescences on [n]. Jerrum and Snir [11] have shown that $L\left(\vec{f}_{n}\right) \geq n^{-1}\left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^{n-1}$ holds for the arborescences polynomial

$$
\vec{f}_{n}(x)=\sum_{T \in \overrightarrow{\mathcal{T}}_{n}} \prod_{\vec{e} \in T} x_{\vec{e}} .
$$

Note that here variables $x_{i, j}$ and $x_{j, i}$ are treated as distinct, and cannot both appear in the same monomial. This dependence on orientation was crucially utilized in the argument of [11, p. 892] to reduce a trivial upper bound $(n-1)^{n-1}$ on the number of monomials in a polynomial computed at a particular gate till a non-trivial upper bound $(3 n / 4)^{n-1}$. So, this argument does not apply to the undirected version $f_{n}$ (where $x_{i, j}$ and $x_{j, i}$ stand for the same variable). This is why we use a different argument to handle the undirected case; our argument works also in the directed case.

## 2 Some consequences

Every pure DP algorithm is just a special (recursively constructed) tropical (min,+ ) or (max,+ ) circuit, that is, a circuit using only min (or max) and addition operations as gates; each input gate of such a circuit holds either one of the variables $x_{i}$ or a nonnegative real number. So, lower bounds on the size of tropical circuits yield the same lower bounds on the number of operations used by pure DP algorithms. For optimization problems, whose feasible solutions all have the same cardinality, this latter task can be solved by proving lower bounds of the size of monotone arithmetic circuits.

Recall that a multivariate polynomial is monic if all its nonzero coefficients are equal to 1 , multilinear if no variable occurs with degree larger than 1 , and homogeneous if all monomials have the same degree. Every monic and multilinear polynomial $f(x)=\sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} \prod_{i \in S} x_{i}$ defines two optimization problems: compute the minimum or the maximum of $\sum_{i \in S} x_{i}$ over all $S \in \mathcal{F}$.


Figure 1: Two arborescences $A$ and $B$ on $[3]=\{1,2,3\}$. The only edges in $B \backslash A$ are $b$ and $b^{\prime}$. But we cannot add any of them to $A \backslash\{a\}$ to get an arborescence. So, the basis exchange axiom fails.

Reduction Lemma ([11, 12]). If a polynomial $f$ is monic, multilinear and homogeneous, then every tropical circuit solving the corresponding optimization problem defined by $f$ must have at least $L(f)$ gates.

This fact was proved by Jerrum and Snir [11, Corollary 2.10]; see also [12, Theorem 9] for a simpler proof. The proof idea is fairly simple: having a tropical circuit, turn it into a monotone arithmetic $(+, \times)$ circuit, and use the homogeneity of $f$ to show that, after removing some of the edges entering +-gates, the resulting circuit will compute our polynomial $f$.

Greedy can beat pure DP The (weighted) minimum spanning tree problem $M S T_{n}(x)$ is, given an assignment of nonnegative real weights to the edges of $K_{n}$, compute the minimum weight of a spanning tree of $K_{n}$, where the weight of a graph is the sum of weights of its edges. So, this is exactly the minimization problem defined by the spanning tree polynomial $f_{n}$ :

$$
M S T_{n}(x)=\min _{T \in \mathcal{T}_{n}} \sum_{e \in T} x_{e}
$$

Since the family $\mathcal{T}_{n}$ of feasible solutions of this problem is the family of bases of the (graphic) matroid, the problem can be solved by the standard greedy algorithm. In particular, the well known greedy algorithm of Kruskal [14] solves $M S T_{n}$ using only $O\left(n^{2} \log n\right)$ operations. On the other hand, since the spanning tree polynomial $f_{n}$ is monic, multilinear and homogeneous, our theorem together with the Reduction lemma implies that any ( $\mathrm{min},+$ ) circuit solving the problem $M S T_{n}$ must use at least $L\left(f_{n}\right)=2^{\Omega(n)}$ gates and, hence, at least so many operations must be performed by any pure DP algorithm solving $M S T_{n}$. This gap between pure DP and greedy algorithms is our main result.
Remark (Directed versus undirected spanning trees). The arborescences polynomial $\vec{f}_{n}$ is also monic, multilinear and homogeneous, so that the Reduction lemma, together with the above mentioned lower bound on $L\left(\vec{f}_{n}\right)$ of Jerrum and Snir [11], also yields the same lower bound on the size of $(\min ,+)$ circuits solving the minimization problem on the family $\overrightarrow{\mathcal{T}}_{n}$ of arborescences. But this does not separate DP from greedy, because the downward closure of $\overrightarrow{\mathcal{T}}_{n}$ is not a matroid (see Fig. 1 for a simple counter-example). As observed by Edmonds [4], this family is an intersection of two matroids, meaning that unlike for $M S T_{n}$, the greedy algorithm can only approximate the minimization problem on $\overrightarrow{\mathcal{T}}_{n}$ within the factor 2 . Polynomial time algorithms solving this problem exactly were found by several authors, starting from Edmonds [5]. The fastest algorithm for the problem is due to Tarjan [16], and solves the problem in time $O\left(n^{2} \log n\right)$, that is, with the same time complexity as Kruskal's greedy algorithm for undirected graphs [14]. But these are no more greedy algorithms. So, $\overrightarrow{\mathcal{T}}_{n}$ does not separate greedy and pure DP algorithms.

Subtraction can speed up $(+, \times)$ circuits There is a well-known determinantal formula, due to Kirchhoff [13] (see, e.g., [2, Theorem II.12]), known as the (weighted) matrix tree theorem. This formula provides a way to compute the spanning tree polynomial $f_{n}$ by an arithmetic $(+, \times,-)$ circuit of polynomial size. Together with our theorem, this gives yet another explicit example where the use of subtraction in arithmetic circuits leads to exponential saving in their size; that already one subtraction gate can lead to such saving was shown already by Valiant [17] using another polynomial corresponding to perfect matchings in planar graphs.

Division can speed up $(+, \times)$ circuits Fomin, Grigoriev and Koshevoy [7] have recently proved that the spanning tree polynomial $f_{n}$ can be computed by an arithmetic (,$+ \times, \div$ ) circuit using only $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ gates. Their recursion (given by Lemma 8.3 in [7]) turns to the following procedure for computing $f_{n}$ : in order to compute $f_{n}(x)$ on the vertex-set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with edge-weights $x_{i, j}$, first compute the sum $X_{n}:=x_{1, n}+\cdots+x_{n-1, n}$ of the weights of edges incident to the last vertex $n$, then compute $f_{n-1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ on the first $n-1$ vertices under the new edge-weights

$$
x_{i, j}^{\prime}:=x_{i, j}+\frac{x_{i, n} \cdot x_{j, n}}{X_{n}} .
$$

Lemma 8.3 in [7] shows that then $f_{n}(x)=X_{n} \cdot f_{n-1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ holds. Together with our theorem, this shows that, like subtraction gates, division gates in monotone arithmetic circuits can also lead to exponential savings. Actually, it is shown in [7] that also the arborescences polynomial $\vec{f}_{n}$ can be computed by an arithmetic $(+, \times, \div)$ circuit using $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ gates. So, the same gap between $(+, \times, \div)$ and $(+, \times)$ circuits follows also from the aforementioned lower bound of Jerrum and Snir [11] for $\vec{f}_{n}$.

Subtraction can speed up pure DP algorithms Since "division" in tropical (min, +) and (max,+ ) semirings corresponds to subtraction, the result of $[7]$ also implies that the minimum weight spanning tree problem can be solved using only $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ min, + , - gates. So, subtraction operation can exponentially speed-up pure DP algorithms: in order to compute $M S T_{n}(x)$ on the vertexset $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with edge-weights $x_{i, j}$, first compute the minimum $X_{n}:=\min \left\{x_{1, n}, \ldots, x_{n-1, n}\right\}$ of weights of edges incident to the last vertex $n$, then compute $M S T_{n-1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$ on the first $n-1$ vertices under the new edge-weights

$$
x_{i, j}^{\prime}:=\min \left\{x_{i, j}, x_{i, n}+x_{j, n}-X_{n}\right\},
$$

and output $\operatorname{MST}_{n}(x)=X_{n}+M S T_{n-1}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$.

## 3 Proof of the theorem

We will use the following well-known decomposition result, first proved by Hyafil [10, Theorem 1] and Valiant [17, Lemma 3]. A polynomial is nonnegative if it has no negative coefficients.

Decomposition Lemma (Hyafil, Valiant). Let $f$ be a nonnegative homogeneous polynomial of degree $m$. If $L(f) \leq t$, then $f$ can be written as a sum $f=g_{1} \cdot h_{1}+\cdots+g_{t} \cdot h_{t}$ of products of nonnegative homogeneous polynomials, each of degree at most $2 m / 3$.

Proof. (Due to Valiant [17].) Induction on the circuit size $t$. Since the polynomial $f$ is homogeneous, the polynomial $g_{v}$ computed at each gate $v$ must be also homogeneous. Starting from the output
gate, we walk backwards, by always choosing that of two input gates whose polynomial has larger degree. Proceeding in this way, we will arrive at a gate $v$ with $m / 3 \leq \operatorname{deg}\left(g_{v}\right) \leq 2 m / 3$. Let $f_{v}$ be the polynomial computed by the circuit, after the inputs of gate $v$ are replaced by zeroes. Then $f=g_{v} \cdot h+f_{v}$ for some polynomial $h$ of degree $\operatorname{deg}(h)=m-\operatorname{deg}\left(g_{v}\right) \leq 2 m / 3$. Since the (also homogeneous) polynomial $f_{v}$ is computable by a circuit of size $t-1$ (the need of the gate $v$ is already eliminated), we can apply the induction hypothesis to $f_{v}$.

The "combinatorial core" of our argument is the following property of forests, viewed as sets of their edges. Let $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$ be two nonempty families of forests in $K_{n}$ such that $\mathcal{A}$ contains a forest with $a$ edges, and $\mathcal{B}$ contains a forest with $b$ edges.

Forest Lemma. If the intersection of any two forests $A \in \mathcal{A}$ and $B \in \mathcal{B}$ is empty, and their union is a spanning tree of $K_{n}$, then the connected components of all forests in $\mathcal{A}$ have the same sets of vertices, and the same holds for forests in $\mathcal{B}$. Moreover, then $|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}| \leq a^{a} \cdot b^{b}$ and $a+b=n-1$ hold.

Proof. To prove the first claim, it is enough to show that every pair of vertices is either connected in all forests in $\mathcal{A}$, or is disconnected in all forests in $\mathcal{A}$.

To show this, suppose contrariwise that some two vertices $x$ and $y$ are disconnected in one forest $A \in \mathcal{A}$, but are connected in some other forest $A^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}$. Take an arbitrary forest $B \in \mathcal{B}$. Since $A \cup B$ must be a spanning tree of $K_{n}$, and vertices $x$ and $y$ are disconnected in the forest $A$, there must be a path between $x$ and $y$ in the forest $B$. But then the graph $A^{\prime} \cup B$ contains a cycle throughout vertices $x$ and $y$, a contradiction with this graph being a tree. This shows the claim for the forests in $\mathcal{A}$. The argument for the forests in $\mathcal{B}$ is the same.

So, let $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{p} \subset[n]$ be the sets of vertices of the connected components of forests in $\mathcal{A}$, and $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{q} \subset[n]$ be the sets of vertices of the connected components of forests in $\mathcal{B}$. Let also $u_{i}=\left|U_{i}\right|$ and $v_{i}=\left|V_{i}\right|$ be the numbers of vertices in these components. Then every forest in $\mathcal{A}$ has $a=\sum_{i=1}^{p}\left(u_{i}-1\right)$ edges, and every forest in $\mathcal{B}$ has $b=\sum_{i=1}^{q}\left(v_{i}-1\right)$ edges. Since the forests are disjoint and their unions must be spanning trees (with $n-1$ edges), we also have that $a+b=n-1$.

Every forest in $\mathcal{A}$ consists of spanning trees of complete graphs on the sets $U_{1}, \ldots, U_{p}$, and similarly for forests in $\mathcal{B}$. By a classical result of Cayley [3], the number of trees on $n$ labeled vertices is $n^{n-2}$. This implies that there are only $u_{i}^{u_{i}-2}$ spanning trees of the complete graph on each $U_{i}$, and only $v_{j}^{v_{j}-2}$ spanning trees of the complete graph on each $V_{j}$. So, using the inequalities $r^{r-2} \leq(r-1)^{r-1}$ and $r^{r} \cdot s^{s} \leq(r+s)^{r+s}$ for integers $r, s \geq 2$, we obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}| & \leq \prod_{i} u_{i}^{u_{i}-2} \cdot \prod_{j} v_{j}^{v_{j}-2} \leq \prod_{i}\left(u_{i}-1\right)^{u_{i}-1} \cdot \prod_{j}\left(v_{j}-1\right)^{v_{j}-1} \\
& \leq\left[\sum_{i}\left(u_{i}-1\right)\right]^{\sum_{i}\left(u_{i}-1\right)} \cdot\left[\sum_{j}\left(v_{j}-1\right)\right]^{\sum_{j}\left(v_{j}-1\right)}=a^{a} \cdot b^{b} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof of the theorem. Let $t=L\left(f_{n}\right)$. The spanning tree polynomial $f_{n}$ is multilinear and homogeneous of degree $m=n-1$ : every spanning tree $T$ of $K_{n}$ has $|T|=n-1$ edges. By the Decomposition lemma, we can express this polynomial as a sum of at most $t$ products $g \cdot h$ of nonnegative homogeneous polynomials, where the degree of $g$ and of $h$ is at most $2 m / 3$. The polynomial $g \cdot h$ must be a homogeneous polynomial of degree $m$. So, if we denote the degrees of $g$ and $h$ by $a$ and $b$, then $a+b=m$ and $m / 3 \leq a, b \leq 2 m / 3$ must hold.

Every monomial of $f_{n}$ is a multilinear monomial of the form $\prod_{e \in T} x_{e}$ for some spanning tree $T$. Since the polynomials $g$ and $h$ in the decomposition of $f_{n}$ are nonnegative, there can be no cancellations. This implies that all the monomials of $g \cdot h$ must be also monomials of $f$, that is, must correspond to spanning trees. So, the monomials of $g$ and $h$ correspond to forests. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be the family of forests corresponding to monomials of the polynomial $g$, and $\mathcal{B}$ the family of forests corresponding to monomials of the polynomial $h$.

Since all monomials of $g \cdot h$ must also be monomials of $f_{n}$, the pair $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}$ fulfills the conditions of the Forest lemma for some $a$ between $m / 3$ and $2 m / 3$ (the disjointness property follows from the multilinearity of $g \cdot h$ ). So, the number of monomials in the polynomial $g \cdot h$ cannot exceed

$$
|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}| \leq a^{a}(m-a)^{m-a} \leq(m / 3)^{m / 3} \cdot(2 m / 3)^{2 m / 3}=m^{m}\left(2^{2 / 3} / 3\right)^{m}<m^{m}\left(\frac{5}{9}\right)^{m},
$$

where the second inequality holds because the function $x^{x}(1-x)^{1-x}$ is convex in the interval $(0,1)$. Since the polynomial $f_{n}$ has $n^{n-2}$ monomials, the desired lower bound on $t=L\left(f_{n}\right)$ follows:

$$
t \geq \frac{n^{n-2}}{|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|} \geq \frac{m^{m-1}}{|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|} \geq \frac{1}{m}\left(\frac{9}{5}\right)^{m}=\frac{1}{n-1}\left(\frac{9}{5}\right)^{n-1} \geq \frac{1}{2 n}\left(\frac{9}{5}\right)^{n} .
$$

Finally, note that the same argument works also for the arborescences polynomial $\vec{f}_{n}$ : in this case, the (directed) forests in $\mathcal{A}$ and $\mathcal{B}$ must fulfill an additional restriction: also the directions of "docking" edges must be consistent; so, the number $|\mathcal{A}| \cdot|\mathcal{B}|$ of monomials in each polynomial $g \cdot h$ can only be smaller.

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