

**DP2PN2Solver: A flexible dynamic programming solver
software tool**

by

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Abstract: Dynamic programming (DP) is a very general optimization technique, which can be applied to numerous decision problems that typically require a sequence of decisions to be made.

The solver software DP2PN2Solver presented in this paper is a general, flexible, and expandable software tool that solves DP problems. It consists of modules on two levels. A level one module takes the specification of a discrete DP problem instance as input and produces an intermediate Petri net (PN) representation called *Bellman net* (Lew, 2002; Lew, Mauch, 2003, 2004) as output — a middle layer, which concisely captures all the essential elements of a DP problem in a standardized and mathematically precise fashion. The optimal solution for the problem instance is computed by an “executable” code (e.g. Java, Spreadsheet, etc.) derived by a level two module from the Bellman net representation.

DP2PN2Solver’s unique potential lies in its Bellman net representation. In theory, a PN’s intrinsic concurrency allows to distribute the computational load encountered when solving a single DP problem instance to several computational units.

Keywords: Bellman net, dynamic programming, matrix chain multiplication problem, optimization software, Petri net model, traveling salesman problem.

1. Introduction

Operations Research (OR) deals with the efficient or optimal allocation of resources and is thus of considerable importance in practice. For the optimization of multistage decision processes dynamic programming (DP) is a powerful technique to determine an optimal policy.

So far, software tools that would allow the user to conveniently state arbitrary DP problems using the terminology and techniques that have been established in the past in the DP field have not been developed. The solver software DP2PN2Solver presented in this paper tries to fill this gap.

One of the difficulties in designing a DP solver system is to come up with a specification language that is on the one hand general enough to capture the majority of DP problems arising in reality, and that is on the other hand structured enough to be parsed efficiently. For linear programming (LP) problems, it is very easy to achieve both of these goals. For DP problems, however, it is much harder to satisfy these conflicting goals. An intermediate problem representation in the form of a Petri net (PN) model turns out to be a useful device for this purpose. The model used is only applicable to “discrete” optimization problems for which a DP functional equation with a finite number of states and decisions can be obtained. Therefore, continuous DP problems cannot be solved with DP2PN2Solver. The term “optimal solution” is used in this paper not only for the optimal objective function value but also for the sequence of optimal decisions leading to it.

The computational requirements of DP2PN2Solver are asymptotically the same as the requirements for other DP codes implementing the DP functional equation directly, since the intermediate PN model may be regarded as just another representation of a DP functional equation. So for example, since a DP solution of the traveling-salesman problem is inefficient (exponential-time), so is a PN modeled solution.

The value of the DP2PN2Solver system becomes apparent when we survey currently existing software supporting the solution of DP problems in Section 2. There seems to be no system that can apply DP to a wide variety of problems. Current software systems can only solve a narrow class of DP problems with a rather simple DP functional equation.

DP2PN2Solver is illustrated by two typical DP problems. The interesting feature of the first example problem, matrix chain multiplication (MCM), is that there is not only one, but two successor states in its DP functional equation that have to be evaluated. The second problem is the traveling salesman problem (TSP), whose DP functional equation requires the use of set theoretic operators. It will be demonstrated that DP2PN2Solver has no problems in dealing with these problems which are slightly more complicated than finding, say, the shortest path in a multistage graph (the standard textbook example for DP).

The organization of the paper is to start with a brief survey of existing DP solver systems (Section 2), then to give the general architecture of our DP2PN2Solver software (Section 3), followed by a more detailed description of DP2PN2Solver’s modules (Sections 4 – 6) and to end with a short conclusion section.

2. Other DP software systems

We briefly survey existing software systems that support the user in solving instances of DP problems.

Attempts to develop general-purpose DP computer codes have been made in the early 70’s by Hastings (1974) and others. While Hasting’s “DYNACODE”

is frequently referenced (e.g. in Hastings, 1973), detailed information about this system is unavailable as of today. Sniedovich characterizes these codes as problem specific and concludes that “no general-purpose dynamic programming computer codes seem to be available commercially” (Sniedovich, 1992, p. 193).

Other, non-general DP codes have been developed in Hubert, Arabie, Meulman (2001), Lin and Bricker (1990), Sniedovich (1993, 1994). DP software accompanying textbooks such as Hillier and Lieberman (1990) does not generalize well either. The shortcoming of these attempts is that they are usually restricted to solve instances of one special problem.

Mailund’s DPROG system at www.daimi.au.dk/~mailund assumes that the user has a substantial amount of expertise in software engineering practice. As of today it seems that major parts of the system are still under construction.

The optimization package system LINGO / LINDO solves optimization problems across a wide problem domain with a variety of solution methods. While its strength lies in the areas of linear programming, and to some extent in integer programming and nonlinear programming, it is only of very limited use to tackle DP problems. In particular, it is not obvious at all how to retrieve the series of optimal decisions that lead to the optimal solution.

A disadvantage of this and many other optimization software systems is that they incorporate search mechanisms. This can in the best case be very efficient, but in the worst case not lead to the optimal solution at all.

The most common approach taken today for solving real-world DP problems is to start a specialized software development project for each and every problem. Even taking into account that a module-oriented development philosophy allows considerable reuse of components, this is still a rather expensive approach. A general solver solution like the DP2PN2Solver introduced here should be able to save software development costs for many DP problems arising in practice.

3. DP2PN2Solver architecture

Fig. 1 gives an overview of the architecture of the DP2PN2Solver software tool (in the form of a Petri net). The static components such as input files, intermediate representations and output files are depicted as places. The dynamic components such as compiler and code generator are shown as transitions. Solid arcs connect fully working components while dotted arcs connect components that are under construction and that should be available in future versions of DP2PN2Solver.

DP2PN2Solver consists of modules on two levels. Level one modules (gDP2PN, bDP2PN, etc.) take the specification of a discrete DP problem instance as input and produce an intermediate Petri net (PN) representation called *Bellman net* (Lew, 2002; Lew and Mauch, 2003, 2004) as output – a middle layer, which concisely captures all the essential elements of a DP problem in a standardized and mathematically precise fashion. Level two modules (PN2Java, PN2XML, PN2Spreadsheet, etc.) take the intermediate Bellman net

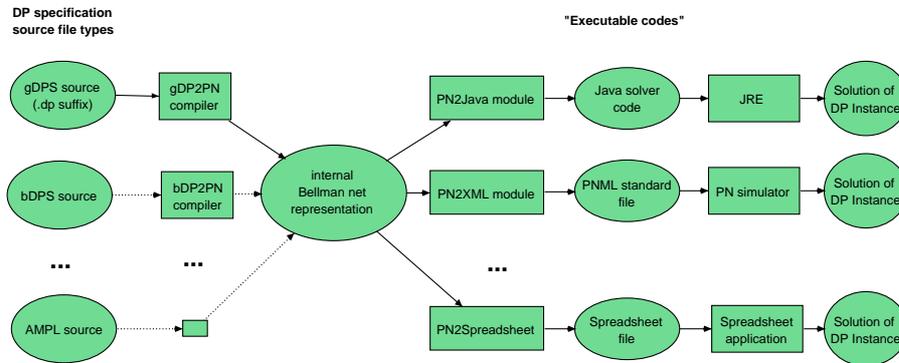


Figure 1. Architecture of the DP2PN2Solver Tool

representation as input and produce an “executable” solver code as output; that is any kind of code from which the solution can be obtained in the next step. E.g. a Java system could compile and interpret a Java source, a spreadsheet application could open a spreadsheet file and calculate all cells, or a PN system could simulate a PN provided in a standard XML-based PN file interchange format.

To summarize, the following are the steps that need to be performed to solve a DP problem instance; only step 1 is performed by the human DP modeler whereas all other steps are automatically performed by the DP2PN2Solver system.

1. Model the real-world problem and create the DP specification file, for example in the gDPS language (see Section 4).
2. The appropriate DP2PN module produces the intermediate Bellman net representation (see Section 5).
3. One of the PN2Solver modules produces runnable Java code, or a spreadsheet or another form of executable solver code, which is capable of solving the problem instance.
4. Run the resulting executable solver code and output the solution of the problem instance (see Section 6).

4. The DP specification language

DP problems can take on various forms and shapes. This is why it is hard to specify a strict and fixed specification format like for linear programming (LP). But there are common themes across all DP problems and those are captured in the general DP specification (gDPS) language.

A special purpose language should allow for both a convenient description

of a DP problem instance and efficient parsing of the specification. The gDPS language has been designed as a general source language that can describe a variety of DP problems. It offers the flexibility needed for the various types of DP problems that arise in reality. Sources in gDPS for the matrix chain multiplication and for the traveling salesman problem are given in Subsections 4.1 and 4.2, respectively. Other DP problems that have been successfully modelled with gDPS and solved by DP2PN2Solver include the shortest path problem (cyclic graphs allowed), reliability design problems (with multiplication operator in DP functional equation), the longest common subsequence problem, the optimal edit distance problem, the optimal binary search tree problem, and many more.

A gDPS consists of several structured sections, which reflect the standard parts of every DP problem. To increase writability, additional information such as helper functions that ease the DP model formulation can be included into a gDPS source. Of particular importance are the following sections.

- The optional `GENERAL_VARIABLES` section allows the definition of variables (e.g. of type `int`, `double`, or `String`) in a C++/Java style syntax.
- The optional `SET_VARIABLES` section allows the definition of variables of type `Set` (which can take on a set of integers as value) in a convenient enumerative fashion the way it is written in mathematics. Ellipsis is supported with a subrange syntax.
- The optional `GENERAL_FUNCTIONS` section allows the definition of arbitrary functions in a C++/Java style syntax.
- The mandatory `STATE_TYPE` section. A state in a DP problem can be viewed as an ordered tuple of variables. The variables can be of heterogeneous types. The “stage” of a DP problem would, as an integer coordinate of its state, be one part of the ordered tuple.
- The mandatory `DECISION_VARIABLE` and `DECISION_SPACE` sections declare the type of a decision and the set of decisions from which to choose (the space of alternatives), which is given as a function of the state.
- The mandatory DP functional equation (DPFE). The recursive equation is described in the `DPFE` section and its base cases must either be expressed in conditional fashion in the `DPFE_BASE_CONDITIONS` or in an enumerative way in the `DPFE_BASE` section.
- The computational goal of the DP instance is given in the mandatory `GOAL` section.
- The reward function (cost function) is given as a function of the state and the decision in the mandatory `REWARD_FUNCTION` section.
- The transformation functions (one or more) are given as functions of the state and the decision in the mandatory `TRANSFORMATION_FUNCTION` section.

Set theoretic features in the gDPS language simplify the specification and improve its readability. A variable of the type `Set` can be declared in the

SET_VARIABLES section. Such variables and set literals (described using complete enumeration, or a subrange syntax) can be operands of set theoretic operations like SETUNION, SETINTERSECTION or SETMINUS.

Throughout a gDPS source it is legal to document it using C++/Java style block comments (between `/*` and `*/`) and line comments (starting with `//`).

Since the GENERAL_VARIABLES section allows the definition of arbitrary variables and the GENERAL_FUNCTIONS section allows the definition of arbitrary (computable) functions in a C++/Java style syntax, the gDPS language is powerful and flexible. Despite this power and flexibility, the other sections require a very structured format, which makes a gDPS very readable and produces a specification that resembles the mathematical formulation closely. The hybrid approach of flexible C++/Java style elements and strictly structured sections makes it easy to learn the gDPS language.

Input data that is specific to a DP instance is hardwired into the gDPS source in order to have a single gDPS source file that contains the complete specification of the DP instance. If it seems more desirable to keep separate files for the instance specific data and the problem specific data, this would require a conceptually straightforward modification which we will not elaborate on any further here.

DP2PN2Solver's architecture is expandable and open to alternative source DP specification languages (see figure 1). For example, if the user desires to solve only very basic DP problems that involve only integer types as states or decisions, so that declarations are not necessary, then a much simpler language, the basic DP specification (bDPS) language, is sufficient. By adding a compiler to DP2PN2Solver that translates the bDPS into the Bellman net representation it becomes possible to use the other parts of the DP2PN2Solver system without any further changes. Even compilers for established mathematical programming languages like AMPL, GAMS, OPL, or other languages mentioned in section 2 can be envisioned. Those could easily be integrated into DP2PN2Solver (even though the development of the compiler itself might require a substantial initial implementation effort), so that users can write the DP specification in their favorite language.

4.1. The matrix chain multiplication (MCM) problem example

Given a product $A_1 A_2 \cdots A_n$ of matrices of various (but still compatible) dimensions, the goal is to find a parenthesization, which minimizes the number of componentwise multiplications. The dimensions of A_i are denoted by d_{i-1} and d_i . The DP functional equation can be expressed as

$$f(i, j) = \begin{cases} \min_{k \in \{i, \dots, j-1\}} \{f(i, k) + f(k+1, j) + d_{i-1} d_k d_j\} & \text{if } i < j \\ 0 & \text{if } i = j. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

The total number of componentwise multiplications is computed as $f(1, n)$.

For instance, let $n = 4$ and $(d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4) = (3, 4, 5, 2, 2)$. Apply the DP functional equation (1) in a bottom up fashion to compute $f(1, 4) = 76$. By keeping track of which arguments minimize the min-expressions in each case, one arrives at the optimal parenthesization $((A_1(A_2A_3))A_4)$.

This DP problem instance can be coded in gDPS as follows:

```

BEGIN
  NAME MCM; //Matrix Chain Multiplication

  GENERAL_VARIABLES_BEGIN
    //dimensions in Matrix Chain Multiplication problem
    private static int[] dimension = {3, 4, 5, 2, 2};
    private static int n = dimension.length-1; //n=4 matrices
  GENERAL_VARIABLES_END

  STATE_TYPE: (int firstIndex, int secondIndex);

  DECISION_VARIABLE: int k;
  DECISION_SPACE: decisionSet(firstIndex,secondIndex)
    ={firstIndex,...,secondIndex - 1};

  GOAL: f(1,n);

  DPFE_BASE_CONDITIONS:
    f(firstIndex,secondIndex)=0.0 WHEN (firstIndex==secondIndex);

  DPFE: f(firstIndex,secondIndex)
    =MIN_{k IN decisionSet}
      { f(t1(firstIndex,secondIndex,k))
        +f(t2(firstIndex,secondIndex,k))
        +r(firstIndex,secondIndex,k)
      };

  REWARD_FUNCTION: r(firstIndex,secondIndex,k)
    =dimension[firstIndex - 1]
      *dimension[k]*dimension[secondIndex];

  TRANSFORMATION_FUNCTION: t1(firstIndex,secondIndex,k)
    =(firstIndex,k);
    t2(firstIndex,secondIndex,k)
    =(k+1,secondIndex);

END

```

4.2. The traveling salesman problem (TSP) example

Given a complete weighted directed graph $G = (V, E)$ with distance matrix $C = (c_{i,j})$ the optimization version of the traveling salesman problem asks to find a minimal Hamiltonian cycle (visiting each of the $n = |V|$ vertices exactly once). Without loss of generality assume $V = \{0, \dots, n-1\}$. The DP functional equation can be expressed as

$$f(v, S) = \begin{cases} \min_{d \notin S} \{f(d, S \cup \{d\}) + c_{v,d}\} & \text{if } |S| < n \\ c_{v,s} & \text{if } |S| = n \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where the length of the minimal cycle is computed as $f(s, \{s\})$, with $s \in V$. (The choice of the starting vertex s is irrelevant, since we are looking for a cycle, so arbitrarily pick $s = 0$.) In the above DP functional equation (2), a state is a pair (v, S) where v can be interpreted as the current vertex and S as the set of vertices already visited.

For instance, let

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 8 & 9 & 60 \\ 2 & 0 & 12 & 3 & 50 \\ 7 & 11 & 0 & 6 & 14 \\ 10 & 4 & 5 & 0 & 15 \\ 61 & 51 & 13 & 16 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Apply the DP functional equation (2) to compute $f(0, \{0\}) = 39$. By keeping track of which arguments minimize the min-expressions in each case, we find that the minimal cycle is $(0, 1, 3, 4, 2)$.

Note the convenient use of variables and literals of the type `Set` in the following gDPS example for this problem instance.

```
BEGIN
  NAME TSP; //TravelingSalesmanProblem;

  GENERAL_VARIABLES_BEGIN
    //adjacency matrix for TSP.
    private static int[][] distance =
    {
      { 0, 1, 8, 9, 60},
      { 2, 0, 12, 3, 50},
      { 7, 11, 0, 6, 14},
      {10, 4, 5, 0, 15},
      {61, 51, 13, 16, 0}
    };
    private static int n = distance.length;
    //number of nodes n=5. Nodes are named starting
    //at index 0 through n-1.
```

```

GENERAL_VARIABLES_END

SET_VARIABLES_BEGIN
  Set setOfAllNodes={0,..,n - 1};
  Set goalSet={0};
SET_VARIABLES_END

STATE_TYPE: (int currentNode, Set nodesVisited);

DECISION_VARIABLE: int d;
DECISION_SPACE: nodesNotVisited(currentNode,nodesVisited)
                =setOfAllNodes SETMINUS nodesVisited;

GOAL:
  f(0,goalSet); //that is: (0,{0});

DPFE_BASE_CONDITIONS:
  f(currentNode, nodesVisited)
  =distance[currentNode][0]
  WHEN (nodesVisited SETEQUALS setOfAllNodes);

DPFE: f(currentNode,nodesVisited)
      =MIN_{d IN nodesNotVisited}
      { cost(currentNode,nodesVisited,d)
        +f(t(currentNode,nodesVisited,d))};

REWARD_FUNCTION: cost(currentNode,nodesVisited,d)
                 =distance[currentNode][d];

TRANSFORMATION_FUNCTION: t(currentNode,nodesVisited,d)
                         =(d, nodesVisited SETUNION {d});

END

```

5. The intermediate Bellman net representation

Familiarity with basic Petri net terminology is assumed in this paper. Detailed introductions to PNs are Reisig (1985) and Murata (1989). For colored PNs, see Jensen (1992).

The details for the Bellman nets used in DP2PN2Solver are described in Lew (2002), Lew and Mauch (2003, 2004). The most important features are summarized in this section.

A *Bellman net* is a special high-level colored Petri net with the following properties.

1. The color type is numerical in nature, tokens are real numbers. In addition, single black tokens, depicted \blacksquare in Fig. 2, are used to initialize *enabling places*, which are technicalities that prevent transitions from firing more than once.
2. A place contains at most one token at any given time.
3. The postset of a transition contains exactly one *designated output place*, which contains the result of the computational operation performed by the transition. (In the example Bellman nets shown in Figs. 2 and 3 designated output places are labeled **p1** through **p16**, base state places are labeled **p17** through **p20**, and enabling places are not labeled.)
4. There are two different types of transitions, namely *M-transitions* and *E-transitions*. An M-transition performs a minimization or maximization operation using the tokens of the places in its preset as operands and puts the result into its designated output place. An E-transition evaluates a basic arithmetic expression (involving operators like addition or multiplication) using fixed constants and tokens of the places in its preset as operands and puts the result into its designated output place. (In the example Bellman nets shown in Figs. 2 and 3 M-transitions are labeled **m1** through **m6**, E-transitions are labeled **s1** through **s10**.)
5. There are self-loops between an E-transition and all places in its preset. Their purpose is to conserve operands serving as input for more than one E-transition.

A numerical token as the marking of a place in a Bellman net can be interpreted as an intermediate value that is computed in the course of calculating the solution of a corresponding DP problem instance.

For example, the Bellman net of the MCM problem instance, in its initial marking, is depicted in Fig. 2.

To obtain the final marking of the Bellman net, fire transitions until the net is dead. The net in its final marking is depicted in Fig. 3. Note that the goal state place **p1** contains $f(1, 4) = 76$ tokens now, the correct value indeed. Also, the marking of an intermediate state place represents the optimal value for the associated subproblem. For example, the value of the intermediate state place **p6** is $f(2, 4) = 56$ which is the number of componentwise multiplications for the optimally parenthesized matrix product $A_2 \cdots A_4$.

Note that the order in which transitions fire is not relevant for the value of the final result $f(1, 4)$.

Note also how the intermediate Bellman net representation gives an illustrative graphical representation of the problem instance. Also, since there is an abundance of PN theory that allows to examine certain properties of PNs like circularity, liveness, etc. there is the chance for extensive automated consistency checks on the PN level which could unveil certain mistakes made by the DP modeler when giving the DP specification.

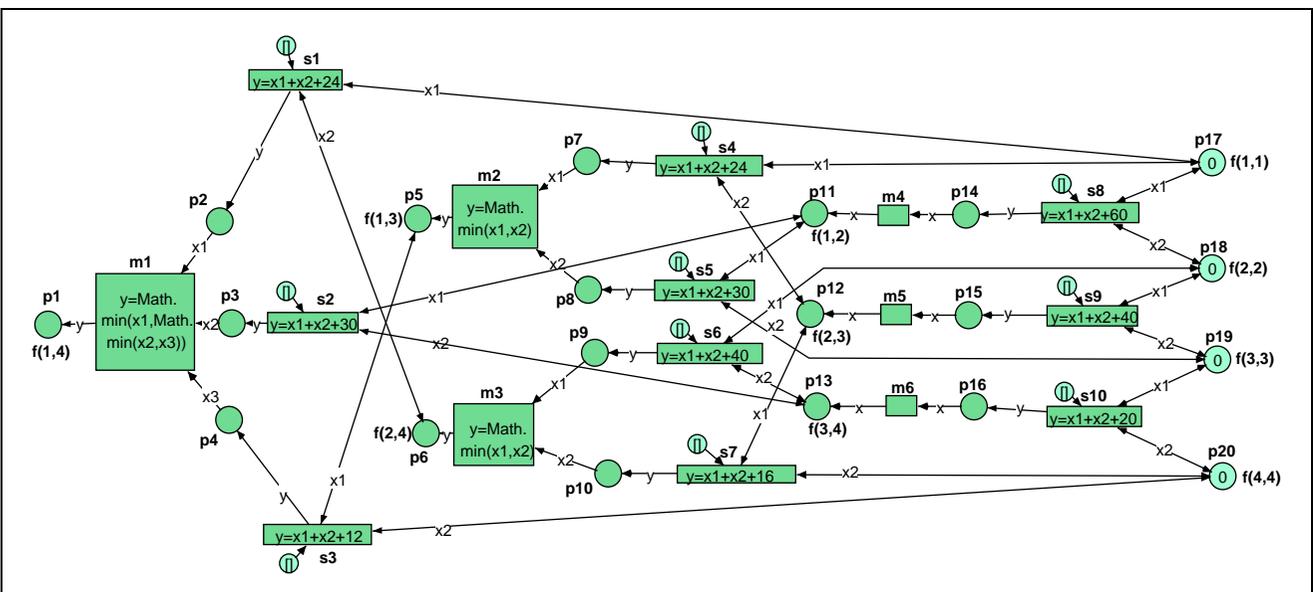


Figure 2. Bellman net in its initial marking for the MCM problem instance

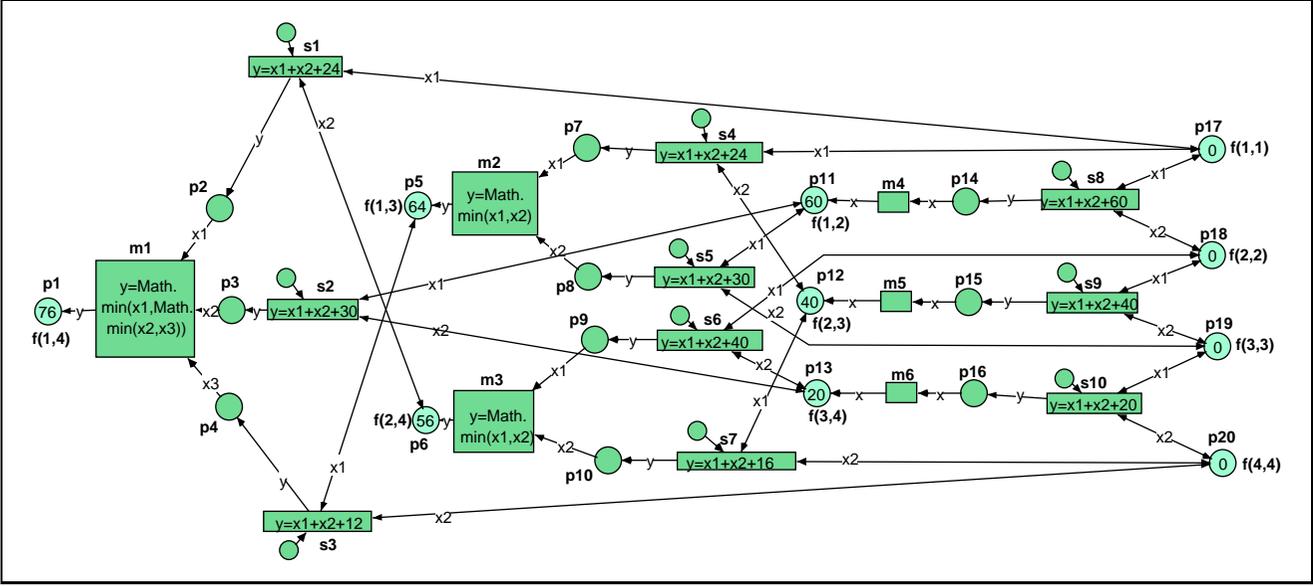


Figure 3. Bellman net in its final marking for the MCM problem instance

In contrast to the Bellman net model described here, Mauch (2004) describes a non-colored PN approach that can also be used as an intermediate representation of DP problem instances. While the expressional power of both approaches seems to be equivalent (no proof yet) it is easier to transform Bellman nets to executable computer code. However, the low level PN model introduced in Mauch (2004) is easier to examine with respect to consistency, and other net theoretic issues. If the equivalence of the two models can be shown, and a practical transformation algorithm between the two models can be designed, then one could take advantage of the benefits of both models.

Current standardization efforts (see Billington et al., 2003) introduce the Petri Net Markup Language (PNML) as an XML-based interchange format for PNs. Although the PNML standard still undergoes changes, DP2PN2Solver contains a module PN2XML that is capable of producing a standard file format from a Bellman net. By importing the standard file into a PN simulator like Renew (Kummer, Wienberg, Duvigneau, 2002) this opens up the possibility to simulate the Bellman net with external PN systems. Now the user can watch how a DP problem instance is solved in an illustrative graphical fashion by observing the simulation progress. The shortcomings of solving DP problems in this way are performance penalties due to the overhead of the PN simulation system, and the fact that only the optimal *value* of the solution is observable, but not the decisions leading to the optimum. Therefore the following section discusses the PN2Java module of DP2PN2Solver which overcomes these problems.

6. The solution code

The PN2Java module of DP2PN2Solver generates Java sources that efficiently produce the optimal solution to the underlying DP problem instance, along with the series of optimal decisions leading to it. (Note the use of the term “efficient” in this context. If the underlying DP problem is inherently inefficient — as in the TSP example — then PN2Java will produce an inefficient output. The point made here is that the transformation process itself is efficient.) A Java-based solver code takes advantage of the ubiquitous and free availability of the Java compile and run-time system. PN2Java also ensures that the produced code is well commented and human-readable, so it is possible to verify its correctness, or use the code as a building block for a larger software development project. Executing the bare Java code without any further modifications leads to the following output for the two examples introduced earlier.

The solution for the MCM problem example:

```
The optimal value is: 76.0
The solution tree is:
State (1,4) has optimal value: 76.0
Decision k=3
```

```

State (1,3) has optimal value: 64.0
Decision k=1
  Base state (1,1) has initial value: 0.0
  State (2,3) has optimal value: 40.0
  Decision k=2
    Base state (2,2) has initial value: 0.0
    Base state (3,3) has initial value: 0.0
  Base state (4,4) has initial value: 0.0

```

The solution for the TSP problem example:

```

The optimal value is: 39.0
The solution tree is:
State (0,{0}) has optimal value: 39.0
Decision d=1
  State (1,{0,1}) has optimal value: 38.0
  Decision d=3
    State (3,{0,1,3}) has optimal value: 35.0
    Decision d=4
      State (4,{0,1,3,4}) has optimal value: 20.0
      Decision d=2
        Base state (2,{0,1,2,3,4}) has initial value: 7.0

```

The TSP is NP-complete, and the time complexity of DP2PN2Solver for TSP is exponential in the number n of vertices in the graph. This is inherent in the formulation of TSP as a DP problem.

As an alternative to the presented PN2Java module one could envision a module that transforms the Bellman net directly into machine code (for applications that require the utmost performance at the expense of machine independence). Another idea is to translate the Bellman net into a spreadsheet file. Spreadsheet formats are quite popular in the OR community and in management science, and a graphically appealing output of the optimal decisions within a spreadsheet should be a valuable tool for decision makers. Such a module (PN2Spreadsheet) is currently under construction.

7. Conclusion

With DP2PN2Solver it becomes possible to automatically solve many optimization problems of practical relevance with DP. This constitutes a considerable improvement of today's use of DP, where usually for each problem at hand specialized software development takes place. The DP2PN2Solver user no longer needs deep skills in software development to solve a problem. After gaining insight into the nature of the real-world problem to be solved, the user can focus on the important modeling process and come up with a precise DP specification (in particular the DP functional equation) of the problem. It is no longer

necessary to worry about the DP solution process itself, since DP2PN2Solver automates all other steps.

DP2PN2Solver guarantees that the optimal solution to a DP instance will be found, provided of course that the DP functional equation is correct and its solution does exist.

The gDPS language is easy to learn, so DP2PN2Solver should also be a great educational tool for teaching DP in a practical hands on approach, where students can work on case studies, model the underlying DP problem, and get an actual solution to the problem without the need to worry too much about the solution process itself.

The structured design of the gDPS language allows for the addition of a straightforward graphical user input mask as a frontend to make the modeling of the DP specification even more convenient in future versions.

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