11.1 Announcements

- Will hopefully have HW2 grades finalized by tomorrow, Midterm grades finalized tomorrow or over the weekend.

- I’m changing my office hours on Monday to be 9-11am. This is so I can attend the PhD defense of Dano Obenshain, who some of you may know. There’s a link on piazza to the announcement of his talk, “Intrusion-Tolerant Networking”. Anyone who’s interested in computer networking, distributed systems, or algorithms for networking/distributed systems should attend, and congratulate Dano!

11.2 Introduction

Dynamic programming can be very confusing until you’ve used it a bunch of times, so the best way to learn it is to simply do a whole bunch of examples. One way of viewing it is as a much more complicated version of divide-and-conquer a la mergesort or quicksort. In those cases, we could divide the problem into two subproblems, solve it optimally on each subproblem, and then combine the solutions (in the case of mergesort by a merge, in the case of quicksort trivially). This is great when it works, but in some cases it’s not so simple. Dynamic programming is a way of rescuing the divide-and-conquer ideas from cases where it seems like it shouldn’t work – for example, if the subproblems overlap.

Dynamic programming is used all over the place. It was originally developed in the context of control theory, and immediately found uses in economics. It was later realized that it was useful for a huge variety of combinatorial optimization problems. Nowadays, the most famous users of dynamic programming (particularly at JHU) tend to be people in bioinformatics and natural language processing. This is because dynamic programming tends to be a very good fit for algorithms on strings, which are fundamental objects in both bioinformatics (DNA/RNA) and NLP.

Quick diversion: Dynamic programming was invented by Richard Bellman (although there were people like von Neumann who had used similar ideas earlier). The first question people usually ask about dynamic programming is “why is it called dynamic programming”. The story goes that Bellman thought about dynamic programming in terms of multi-stage optimization: the decisions we make at some point in time are influenced by the decisions we made earlier. So he thought of it as “planning over time”. He worked for RAND corporation, which was basically a contractor for the Department of Defense, and at that time the Secretary of Defense was anti-mathematical research. Bellman thought that “dynamic programming” sounded impressive enough that even the Secretary couldn’t force him to stop working on it. It’s unclear (at least to me) how true this story is, but it could be true.

The first example we’ll see is Weighted Interval Scheduling.
11.3 Weighted Interval Scheduling

In this problem we are given a collection of $n$ requests, where each request $i$ has a start time $s_i$ and a finish time $f_i$. Each request also has a value $v_i$. The goal is to find a subset $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ such that no two intervals in $S$ overlap and the value $\sum_{i \in S} v_i$ is maximized. These requests are sometimes called “jobs”, due to the original scheduling motivation (we have one CPU that can process one job at a time, and we are trying to maximize the value of the jobs that we schedule).

Let’s assume that the requests come sorted by finish time, so $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \cdots \leq f_n$. Let’s set up a little bit more notation: for each $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$, we let $p(i)$ be the largest index $j < i$ such that intervals $i$ and $j$ are disjoint. In other words, we know that $j$ must finish before $i$ finishes, but we also require $j$ to finish before before $i$ even starts.

For example, our input might look like the following, where each job also has an arbitrary value (not pictured):

In this case $p(1) = 0, p(2) = 0, p(3) = 0$, and $p(5) = 0$ (by convention this means that it conflicts with all previous jobs). For the other jobs, $p(4) = 1, p(6) = 2, p(7) = 3$, and $p(8) = 5$.

How do we design an algorithm for this? It’s pretty clear that obvious techniques such as greedily picking the remaining interval of maximum value don’t work. (Good exercise to do at home: try to design a greedy algorithm and find an example where it doesn’t give the optimal solution). More specifically, the greedy algorithm where pick greedily by earliest finishing time does work in all values are 1, but works very poorly with arbitrary values:
Instead, let’s start by reasoning about the optimal solution \( S^* \). We don’t know what \( S^* \) is, but there are certainly some simple things we can say about it. For example: the last interval \( n \) is either in \( S^* \) or it’s not.

What happens if \( n \not\in S^* \)? Then clearly \( S^* \) is also the optimal solution for intervals \( \{1, 2, \ldots, n-1\} \). On the other hand, if \( n \in S^* \) then clearly \( S^* \) cannot contain any jobs between \( p(n) \) and \( n \), since they all interfere with job \( n \). Moreover, whatever choices are made in jobs \( \{1, 2, \ldots, p(n)\} \) do not affect job \( n \), so in fact we know that \( S^* \) is just job \( n \) together with the optimal solution for intervals \( \{1, 2, \ldots, p(n)\} \).

Let’s try to write this down a little more formally. Let \( OPT(i) \) denote the value of the optimal solution of jobs \( \{1, 2, \ldots, i\} \). We can define \( OPT(0) = 0 \) just by convention. With this notation, what we just said is that if \( n \in S^* \) then \( OPT(n) = v_n + OPT(p(n)) \), and if \( n \not\in S^* \) then \( OPT(n) = OPT(n-1) \). So whether \( n \in S^* \) depends only on whether \( v_n + OPT(p(n)) \geq OPT(n-1) \)!

Note that there was nothing special about \( n \) here. If we want to analyze \( OPT(j) \) the same analysis still holds. So we get the recurrence relation

\[
OPT(j) = \max\{v_j + OPT(p(j)), OPT(n-1)\}
\]

This suggest the following obvious algorithm:

\[
\text{Schedule}\ (j) \{
\text{ If } j = 0 \text{ return } 0;
\text{ else return } \max(\text{Schedule}\ (j-1), \ v_j + \text{Schedule}\ (p(j))
\}
\]

This algorithm clearly gives the correct solution, by our above argument (we can do this formally by induction on \( j \)). But what is its running time? It depends on the instance, but in the worst case its running time can be very bad. To see this, consider an instance where \( p(j) = j - 2 \) for all \( j \). Then the recursion tree grows like the Fibonacci numbers, since \( \text{Schedule}(j) \) calls both \( \text{Schedule}(j-1) \) and \( \text{Schedule}(j-2) \)!

This means that the number of recursive calls is exponential, so the running time for this algorithm is exponential.
Weighted interval scheduling: brute force

Observation 1: The recursive algorithm fails spectacularly because of redundant subproblems.

Result 2: Exponential algorithms grow like the Fibonacci sequence.

So it seems like we’re dead – there are a huge number of recursive calls. On the other hand, there are only \( n \) distinct recursive calls, since Schedule is always called with some parameter between 1 and \( n \). So the reason the recursive algorithm is bad is because it’s computing the exact same thing many, many times. For example, there are a huge number of calls to Schedule(3), each one of which makes more recursive calls. But once we’ve computed the answer for Schedule(3), why not just remember it and return it instead of recomputing it?

To implement this, we’ll have a table \( M \) with \( n \) locations. Initially each \( M[i] \) will be empty, but when we first compute Schedule(i) we’ll store the answer in \( M[i] \). Then on future calls we can just return the answer from the table.

Slightly more formally, we modify the algorithm as follows.

```java
Schedule ( j ) {
  If \( j = 0 \) then return 0;
  else if \( M[j] \) nonempty then return \( M[j] \);
  else {
    \( M[j] = \max( \text{Schedule}(j - 1) , v_j + \text{Schedule}(p(j)) ) \);
    return \( M[j] \);
  }
}
```

What’s the running time of this version? It’s definitely not immediately obvious, but we can analyze it by analyzing the progress made towards filling out the table. What happens on a single call to Schedule? We either return an existing value in the table \( (O(1) \) time \), or make two recursive calls and then fill in a table entry which was empty \( (O(1) \) time to make the calls, fill in a table entry, and return, although more time could be spent inside the recursive calls). So the running time is \( O(1) \) times the number of recursive calls. But every time we make two recursive calls we fill in a table entry, so the total number of recursive calls is at most \( 2n! \). Thus the total running time is \( O(n) \).

This is dynamic programming! We combined the optimal solutions of subproblems in order to find the optimal solution of a larger problem.
Side note: this was under the assumption that jobs are already sorted by finishing time. If they’re not, then we can spend $O(n \log n)$ time and sort them. Good exercise at home: what goes wrong if we try to use this algorithm on an unsorted instance?

11.3.1 Finding the Solution

As some of you may have noticed, the dynamic programming algorithm we just designed does not actually return the optimal solution: it returns the value of the optimal solution. This is essentially trivial to fix. One way would be to keep track of the solution as we go. This works, but is a little inelegant and takes up extra space (for each table entry $M[j]$ we essentially have to store not just the value of the optimal solution on job $\{1, 2, \ldots, j\}$ but also the solution itself). Another way, which is perhaps a little more elegant, is just to do a second pass once the table has been filled out. This algorithm would look like the following:

$$\text{Solution}(j)\begin{cases}
  \text{If } j = 0 \text{ then return } \emptyset; \\
  \text{else if } v_j + M[p(j)] > M[j-1] \text{ return } \{j\} \cup \text{Solution}(p(j)); \\
  \text{else return Solution}(j-1)
\end{cases}$$

11.4 Memoization vs Iteration

The above technique, where we simply remember the outcome of recursive calls, is called memoization. Sometimes the easiest way to think about dynamic programming is memoization. This is sometimes called a “top-down” dynamic programming algorithm, since we start from the full problem and make memoized recursive calls.

On the other hand, there is a completely equivalent “bottom-up” dynamic programming algorithm. We could simply fill up the table from the smallest to the largest values. This gives the following algorithm:

```plaintext
Schedule \{
  M[0] = 0;
  for (i = 1 to n) \{
    M[i] = \max(v_i + M[p(i)], M[i-1]);
  \}
  return M[n];
\}
```

Now the running time is obvious: it is simply the number of table entries times the time to compute each entry given the previous ones. While this is not always true, it is pretty common for it to be easy to design the algorithm using memoization, but then easy to compute the running time using a bottom-up algorithm. I personally tend to think about dynamic programming problems bottom-up, by first reasoning about the table, but whatever works for you.
11.5 Principles of Dynamic Programming (Section 15.3 of CLRS)

Informally, what are the properties that a problem needs to have to use dynamic programming? First, we have to be able to break it into subproblems. Usually these subproblems are determined by some choice, which we know we need to make but we don’t know how to make. For example, in weighted interval scheduling, the choice is whether or not to include the final job. Second, we need for this choice to lead to smaller subproblems, which look like smaller instances of the original problem.

We have this, we need the following.

1. There are only a polynomial number of subproblems (table entries)

2. The optimal solution to a subproblem can be easily computed from the optimal solutions to “smaller” subproblems. This is sometimes called the optimal substructure property: we can compute the optimum solution to one problem by computing the optimum solution to smaller subproblems. Note: this is very intuitive, but there are many interesting problems that do not have the optimal substructure property!

3. The solution to the original problem can be easily computed from the solution to the subproblems (usually, as in the above problem, it is in fact one of the subproblems itself).