

# **Introduction to Algorithms and Data Structures**

Dynamic Programming - Weighted Interval  
Scheduling

# Dynamic Programming

- An technique for solving **optimisation problems**.
- Term attributed to Bellman (1950s).
  - “Programming” as in “Planning” or “Optimising”.

# Dynamic Programming

- The paradigm of dynamic programming:
  - Given a **problem P**, define a sequence of subproblems, with the following properties:
    - The subproblems are ordered from the smallest to the largest.
    - The largest problem is our original problem **P**.
    - The optimal solution of a subproblem can be constructed from the optimal solutions of **sub-sub-problems**. (*Optimal Substructure*).
  - Solve the subproblems from the smallest to the largest. When you solve a subproblem, **store the solution** (e.g., in an array) and use it to solve the larger subproblems.

# Recall: Interval Scheduling

- A set of requests  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .
  - Each request has a starting time  $s(i)$  and a finishing time  $f(i)$ .
  - Alternative view: Every request is an interval  $[s(i), f(i)]$ .
- Two requests  $i$  and  $j$  are **compatible** if their respective intervals do not overlap.
- **Goal:** Output a schedule which maximises the number of compatible intervals.

# Weighted Interval Scheduling

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# Greedy Approaches

- Which one of the following Greedy Algorithms might have a chance to work?
  - Earliest starting time.
  - Smallest interval.
  - Minimum number of conflicts.
  - Earliest finishing time.

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  - Minimum number of conflicts.
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# Does it work?

No approach that ignores the values can work!

value=1



value=3



value=1





# Greedy Approaches

- Which one of the following Greedy Algorithms might have a chance to work?
  - Earliest starting time.
  - Smallest interval.
  - Minimum number of conflicts.
  - Earliest finishing time.
  - Largest value.

# Does it work?

value=2



value=3



value=2



# A view of the input

- Consider the intervals in sorted order of non-decreasing finishing time, i.e.,  $f(1) \leq f(2) \leq \dots \leq f(n)$ .
- For an interval  $j = (s(j), f(j))$ , let  $p_j$  be the largest index  $i < j$  such that intervals  $i$  and  $j$  are disjoint.
  - i.e.,  $i$  is the last interval in the ordering that ends before  $j$  begins.
  - if no such interval exists, define  $p_j = 0$ .

# Example

$$v(1)=2, p_1 = 0$$

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$$v(2)=4, p_2 = 0$$

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$$v(3)=4, p_3 = 1$$

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$$v(4)=7, p_4 = 0$$

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$$v(5)=2, p_5 = 3$$

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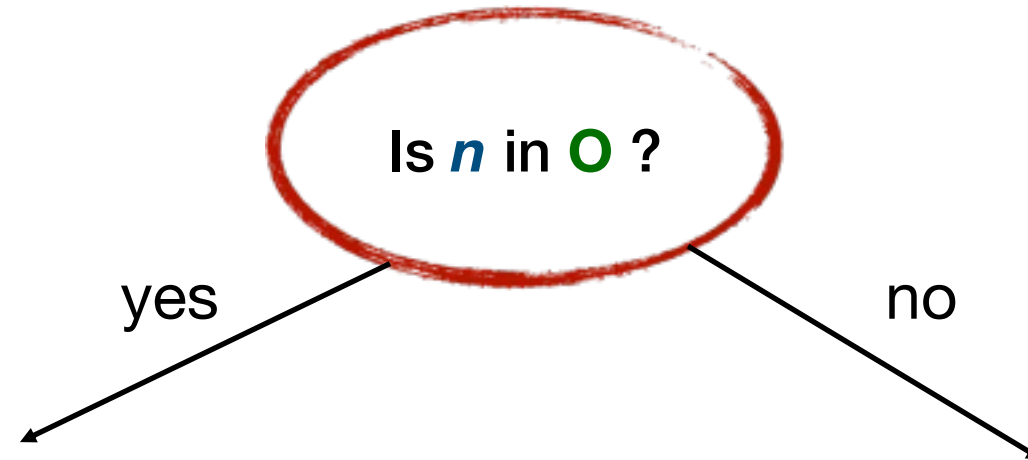
$$v(6)=1, p_6 = 3$$

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# Step-by-step?

- Let  $O$  be the optimal schedule.
- **Fact:**  $O$  either contains interval  $n$  or not.

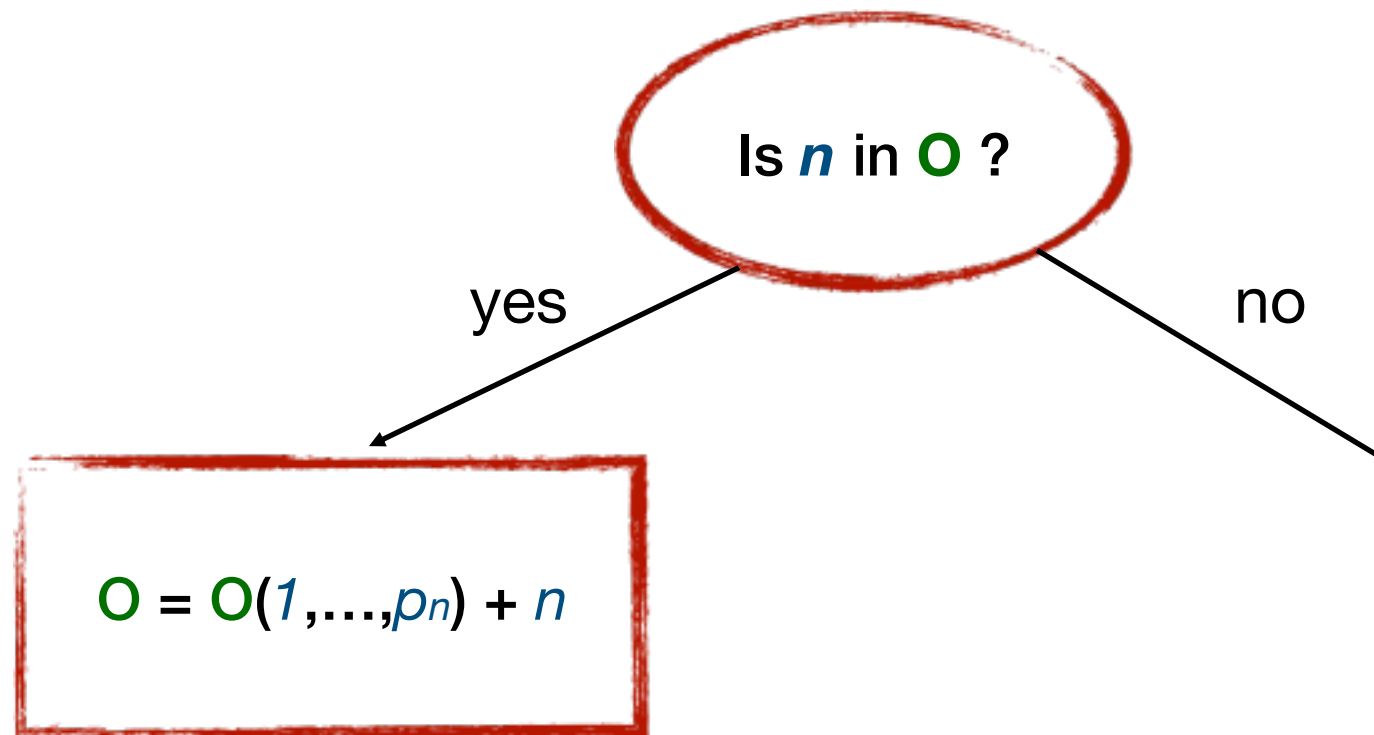
# Building up a solution



# If $n$ is in $O$

- What does that mean for the other intervals?
- Any interval that overlaps with  $n$  cannot be in  $O$ .
- Any interval  $j > p_n$  cannot be in  $O$ .
- $O$  contains an optimal solution  $O'$  of the subproblem  $\{1, 2, \dots, p_n\}$  (why?)
  - Because otherwise we could replace  $O$  with  $O' \cup \{n\}$  and obtain a better solution.
- Lets use  $O(i, \dots, j)$  to denote the optimal solution on (sorted) intervals  $i, \dots, j$ .

# Building up a solution

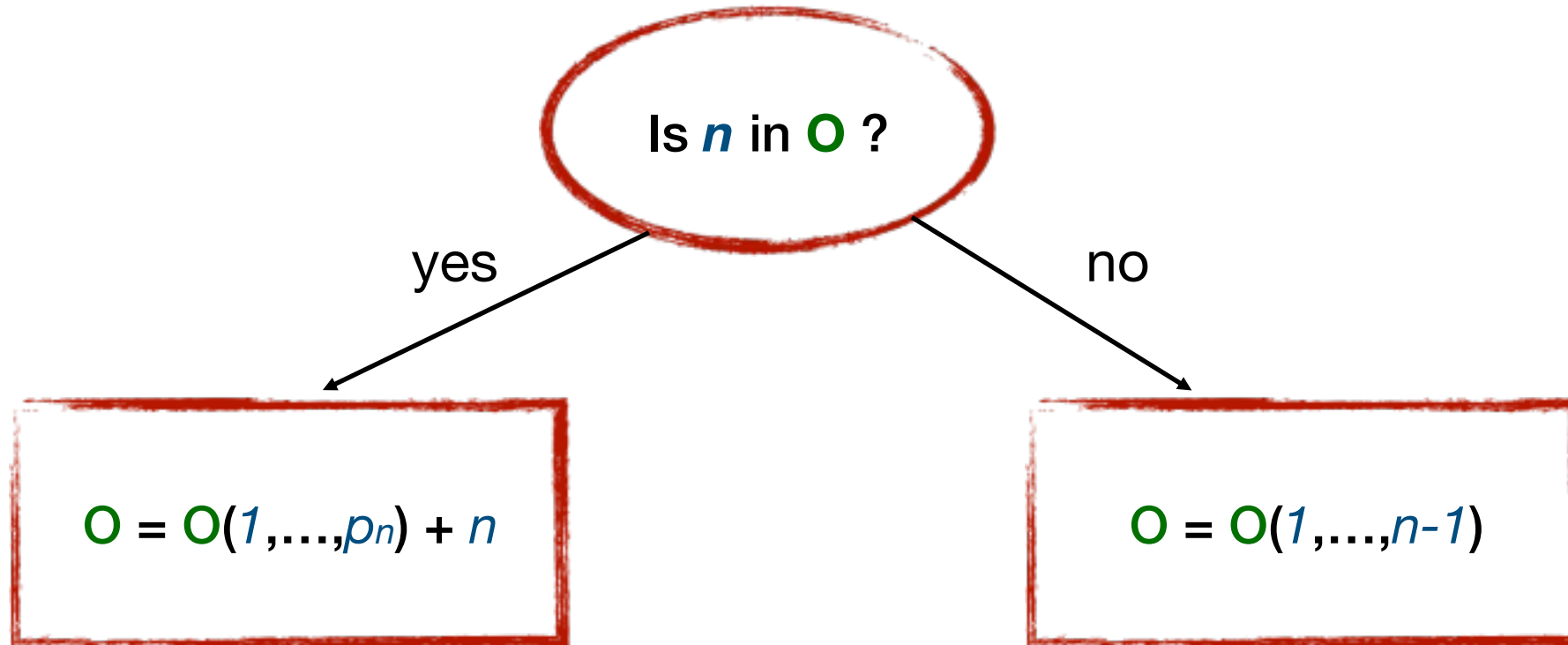




# If $n$ is not in $O$

- Then  $O = O(1, \dots, n-1)$
- Same argument: Since  $n$  is not chosen, all intervals  $1, \dots, n-1$  are “free” to be chosen.
- Not picking the optimal schedule for them would violate the optimality of  $O$ .

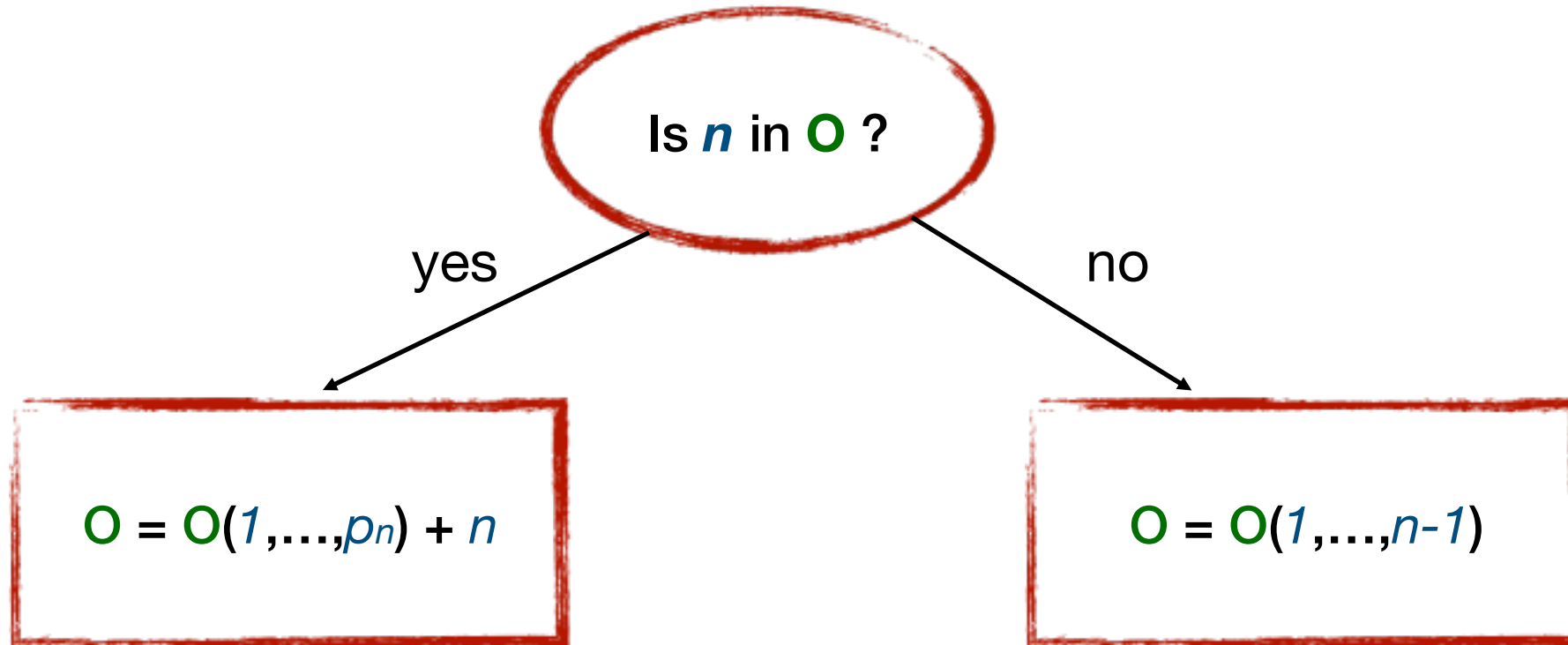
# Building up a solution



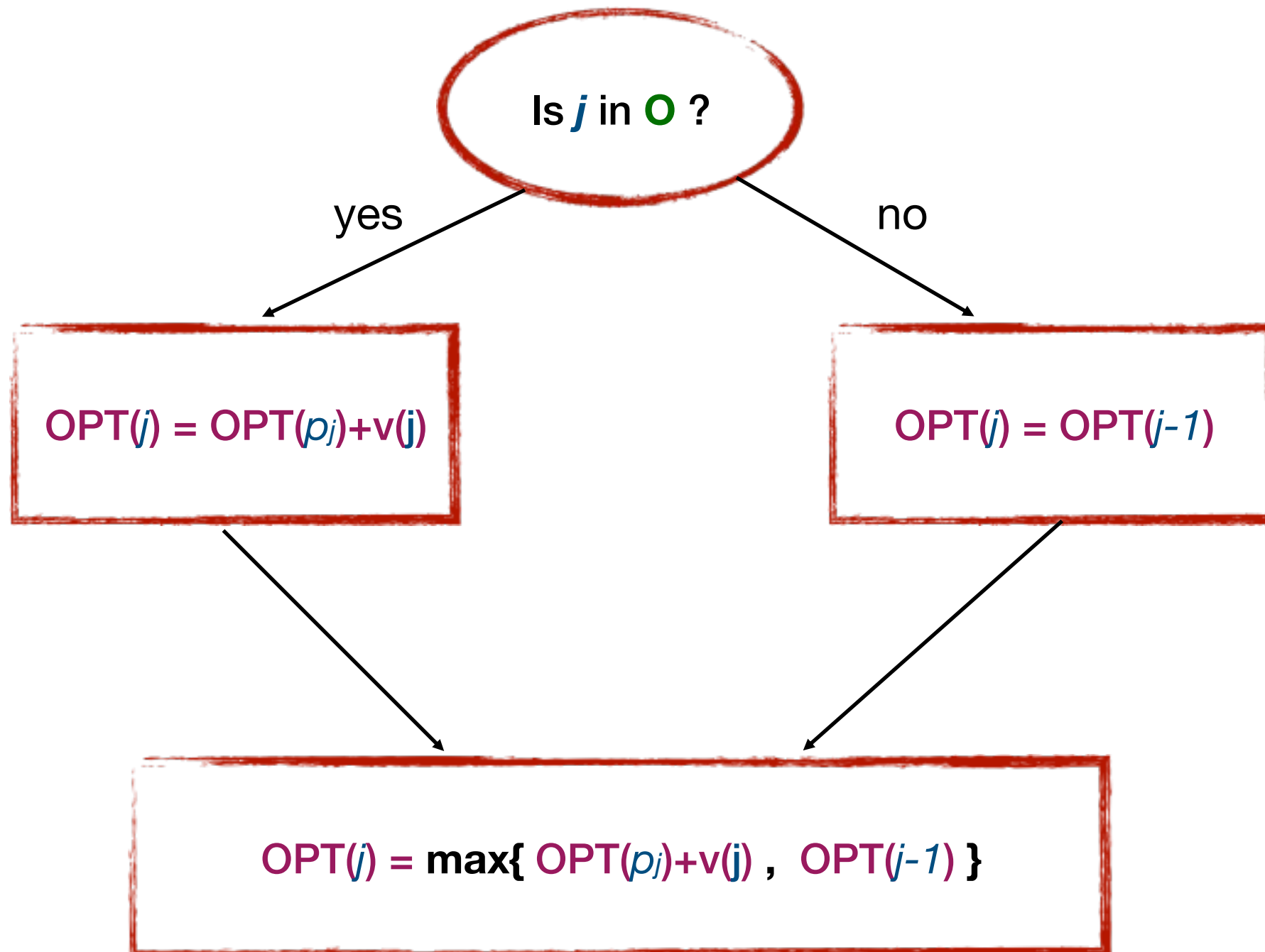
# Building up a solution

- So, in order to find  $O$ , it suffices to look at smaller problems and find  $O(1, \dots, j)$  for some  $j$ .
- Let  $O_j$  be a shorthand for  $O(1, \dots, j)$  and let  $OPT(j)$  be its total value.
- Define  $OPT(0) = 0$ .
- Then,  $O = O_n$  with value  $OPT(n)$ .

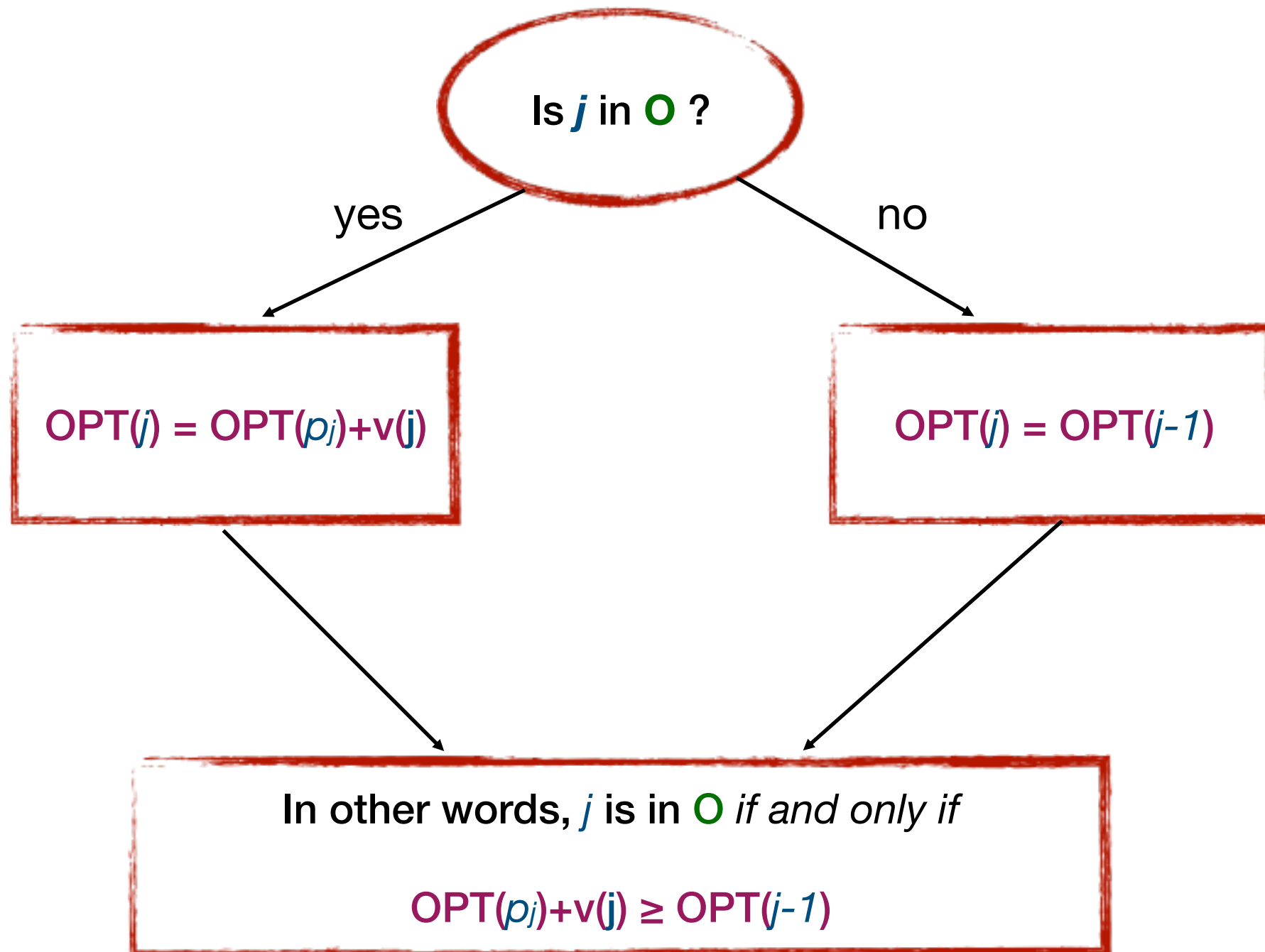
# Building up a solution



# Generalising



# Generalising



# Building up a solution

$$\text{OPT}(j) = \max\{ \text{OPT}(p_j) + v(j), \text{OPT}(j-1) \}$$

- What does this look like?
- Assume that there was an algorithm that inputted  $\{1, \dots, j\}$  and outputted  $\text{OPT}(j)$ .
- It's a recurrence relation!

# Building up a solution

- What does this look like?
- Assume that there was an algorithm that inputted  $\{1, \dots, j\}$  and outputted  $\text{OPT}(j)$ .
- It's a recurrence relation!

**ComputeOpt( $j$ )**

If  $j = 0$  then  
    Return 0

Else

    Return  $\max\{v(j) + \text{ComputeOpt}(p_j), \text{ComputeOpt}(j-1)\}$

EndIf



# Correctness

- **ComputeOPT(j)** correctly computes **OPT(j)** for each  $j=1, \dots, n$
- Proof by induction:
  - Base Case: **OPT(0) = 0** by definition.
  - Inductive step: Assume that it is true for all  $i < j$ . (inductive hypothesis).

Return **max**{**v(j) + ComputeOpt(p<sub>j</sub>)** , **ComputeOpt(j-1)**}

$$\text{OPT}(j) = \max\{ \text{OPT}(p_j) + v(j) , \text{OPT}(j-1) \}$$

# Example

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$$v(3)=4, p_3 = 1$$

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$$v(4)=7, p_4 = 0$$

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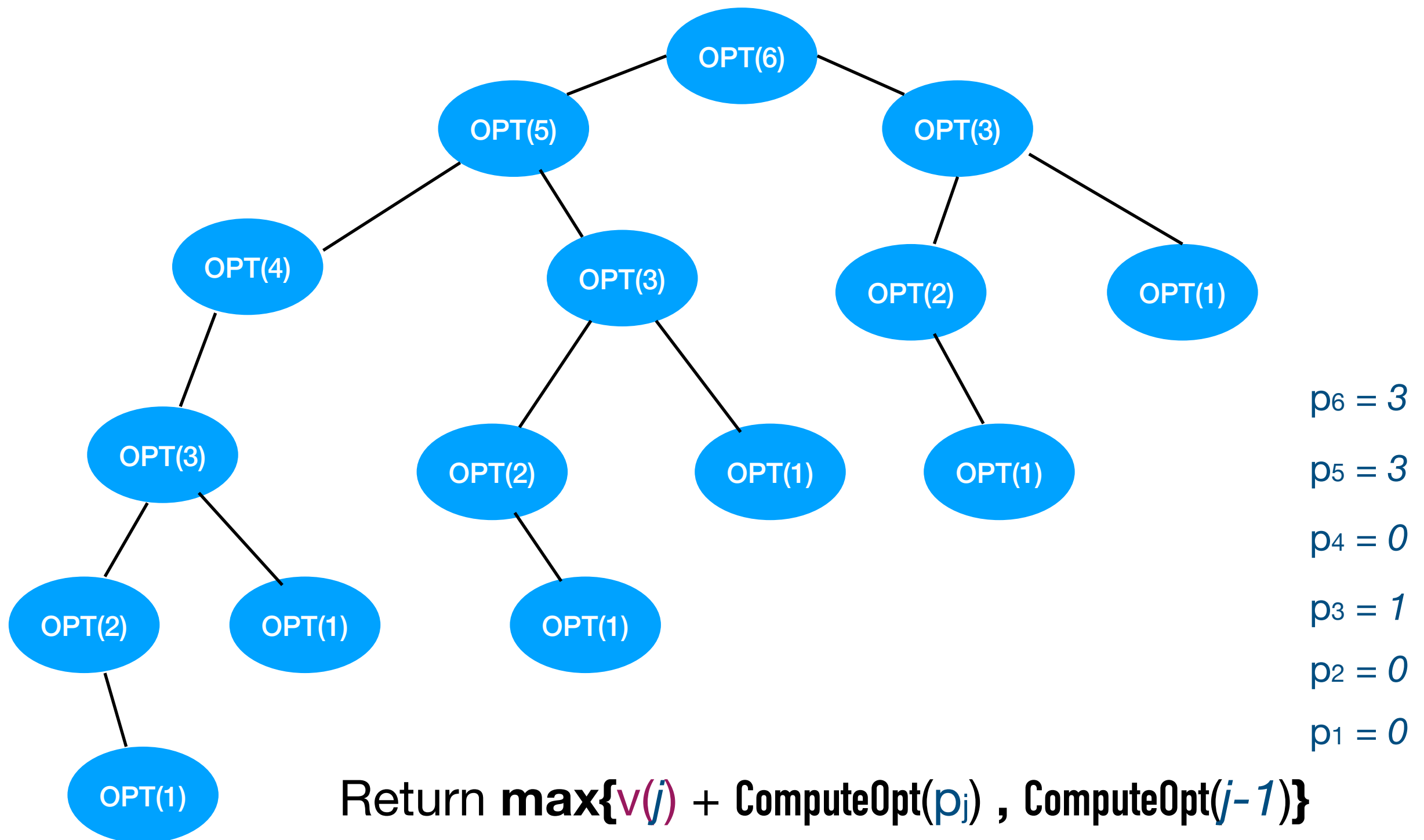
$$v(5)=2, p_5 = 3$$

---

$$v(6)=1, p_6 = 3$$

---

# Example



# Another example

$$v(1)=1, p_1 = 0$$

---

$$v(2)=1, p_2 = 0$$

---

$$v(3)=1, p_3 = 1$$

---

$$v(4)=1, p_4 = 2$$

---

$$v(5)=1, p_5 = 3$$

---

$$v(6)=1, p_6 = 4$$

---

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ComputeOpt(6) requires ComputeOpt(5) and ComputeOpt(4)

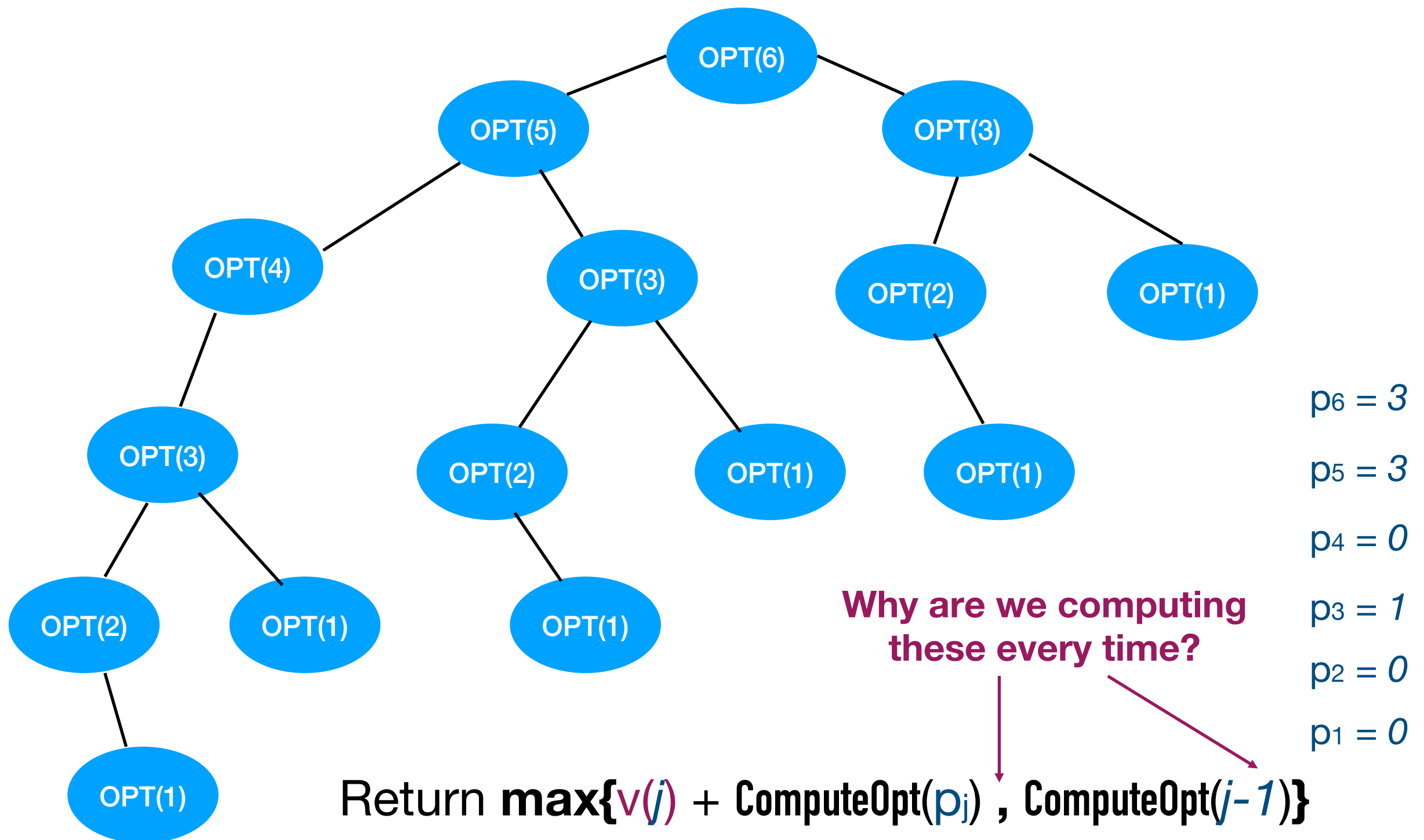
ComputeOpt(5) requires ComputeOpt(4) and ComputeOpt(3)

ComputeOpt(4) requires ComputeOpt(3) and ComputeOpt(2)

# Running time

- What is the running time of the algorithm?
- A problem of size  $j$  requires solving problems of sizes  $j-1$  and  $j-2$ .
- Do you know any numbers for which  $F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)$  ?
  - Fibonacci numbers.
- The  $n$ th Fibonacci number is approximately  $\phi^n / \sqrt{5}$
- The running time of our algorithm is  $\Omega(2^n)$  !

# Example



# Memoization

- Compute  $\text{ComputeOpt}(j)$  **once** for every  $j$ .
- Store it in an accessible place to use again in the future.
- Keep an array  $M[0, \dots, n]$ .
  - Initially  $M[j] = \text{"empty"}$  for all  $j$ .
  - When  $\text{ComputeOpt}(j)$  is calculated,  $M[j] = \text{ComputeOpt}(j)$

# A more clever implementation

**M-ComputeOpt**( $j$ )

If  $j=0$  then  
Return 0

Else if  $M[j]$  is not empty then  
Return  $M[j]$

Else  
 $M[j] = \max\{v(j) + M\text{-ComputeOpt}(p_j) , M\text{-ComputeOpt}(j-1)\}$   
Return  $M[j]$

EndIf



# Running time

- In each call of **M-ComputeOpt**, there is a constant number of operations, besides the recursive calls. So the running time is bounded by the number of recursive calls.
- The two recursive calls only happen when  $M[j]$  is empty.
- But when they happens,  $M[j]$  is no longer empty.
- So the recursively calls only happen  $O(n)$  times.
- The running time of **M-ComputeOpt** is  $O(n)$ , assuming we are given the intervals as sorted by their finishing times, otherwise  $O(n \log n)$ , to sort them first.

# So our algorithm ...

- ... solved the main problem by solving subproblems of smaller sizes,
- stored the solutions to the smaller problems in an array,
- recalled them from the array every time they needed to used. (**memoization**).
- Anything else?

# What does **M-ComputeOpt**( $n$ ) actually find?

**M-ComputeOpt**( $j$ )

It finds the value of the optimal schedule  $O$ .

Is that what we were looking for?

If  $j=0$  then  
Return 0

Else if  $M[j]$  is not empty then  
Return  $M[j]$

Else  
 $M[j] = \max\{v(j) + \text{M-ComputeOpt}(p_j), \text{M-ComputeOpt}(j-1)\}$   
Return  $M[j]$

EndIf

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# From values to schedules

In other words,  $j$  is in  $O$  if and only if

$$\text{OPT}(p_j) + v(j) \geq \text{OPT}(j-1)$$

**FindSolution**( $j$ )

This can be done in  $O(n)$  time.

If  $j=0$ , no solution

Else

If  $v(j) + M(p_j) \geq M(j-1)$  then

Output  $j$  together with **FindSolution**( $p_j$ )

Else

Output **FindSolution**( $j-1$ )

EndIf

End If

# Dynamic Programming vs Divide and Conquer

- DP is an optimisation technique and is only applicable to problems with optimal substructure.
- DP splits the problem into parts, finds solutions to the parts and joins them.
  - The parts are not significantly smaller and are overlapping.
- In DP, the subproblem dependency can be represented by a DAG.
- DQ is not normally used for optimisation problems.
- DQ splits the problem into parts, finds solutions to the parts and joins them.
  - The parts are significantly smaller and do not normally overlap.
- In DQ, the subproblem dependency can be represented by a tree.