Chapter 5

Introduction to Dynamic Programming

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5.1 Introduction to Dynamic Programming

5.1.0.1 Recursion

Reduction: Reduce one problem to another

Recursion

Recursion is a special case of reduction, where:
(A) reduce problem to a smaller instance of itself, and
(B) self-reduction.
(A) Problem instance of size n is reduced to one or more instances of size n − 1 or less.
(B) For termination, problem instances of small size are solved by some other method as base cases.

5.1.0.2 Recursion in Algorithm Design

(A) Tail Recursion: problem reduced to a single recursive call after some work. Easy to convert algorithm into iterative or greedy algorithms. Examples: Interval scheduling, MST algorithms, etc.
(B) Divide and Conquer: Problem reduced to multiple independent sub-problems that are solved separately. Conquer step puts together solution for bigger problem. Examples: Closest pair, deterministic median selection, quick sort.
(C) Dynamic Programming: problem reduced to multiple (typically) dependent or overlapping sub-problems. Use memoization to avoid recomputation of common solutions leading to iterative bottom-up algorithm.

5.2 Fibonacci Numbers

5.2.0.3 Fibonacci Numbers

Fibonacci numbers defined by recurrence:

\[ F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2) \text{ and } F(0) = 0, F(1) = 1. \]
These numbers have many interesting and amazing properties. A journal *The Fibonacci Quarterly*!

It is known that

\[ F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[ \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + \left(\frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n \right] = \Theta(\phi^n), \]

(A) \( F(n) = (\phi^n - (1 - \phi)^n) / \sqrt{5} \) where \( \phi \) is the golden ratio \( \phi = (1 + \sqrt{5}) / 2 \simeq 1.618. \)

(B) \( \lim_{n \to \infty} F(n+1) / F(n) = \phi. \)

### 5.2.0.4 Recursive Algorithm for Fibonacci Numbers

**Question:** Given \( n \), compute \( F(n) \).

**Fib(n):**

```
if (n = 0) return 0
else if (n = 1) return 1
else return Fib(n - 1) + Fib(n - 2)
```

Running time? Let \( T(n) \) be the number of additions in Fib(n).

\[ T(n) = T(n - 1) + T(n - 2) + 1 \text{ and } T(0) = T(1) = 0 \]

Roughly same as \( F(n) \)

\[ T(n) = \Theta(\phi^n) \]

The number of additions is exponential in \( n \). Can we do better?

### 5.2.0.5 An iterative algorithm for Fibonacci numbers

**FibIter(n):**

```
if (n = 0) then return 0
if (n = 1) then return 1
F[0] = 0
F[1] = 1
for i = 2 to n do
    F[i] \leftarrow F[i-1] + F[i-2]
return F[n]
```

What is the running time of the algorithm? \( O(n) \) additions.
5.2.0.6  Recursion tree for Fibonacci
5.2.0.7 Recursion tree for Fibonacci

5.2.0.8 What is the difference?

(A) Recursive algorithm is computing the same numbers again and again.
(B) Iterative algorithm is storing computed values and building bottom up the final value. Memoization.

Dynamic Programming: Finding a recursion that can be effectively/efficiently memoized.
Leads to polynomial time algorithm if number of sub-problems is polynomial in input size.

5.2.0.9 Automatic Memoization

Can we convert recursive algorithm into an efficient algorithm without explicitly doing an iterative algorithm?

Fib(n):
if \( n = 0 \)
    return 0
if \( n = 1 \)
    return 1
if (Fib(n) was previously computed)
    return stored value of Fib(n)
else
    return Fib\((n - 1) + Fib(n - 2)\)

How do we keep track of previously computed values?
Two methods: explicitly and implicitly (via data structure)
5.2.0.10 Automatic explicit memoization

Initialize table/array $M$ of size $n$ such that $M[i] = -1$ for $i = 0, \ldots, n$.

\[
\text{Fib}(n):
\begin{align*}
\text{if } (n = 0) & \text{ return 0} \\
\text{if } (n = 1) & \text{ return 1} \\
\text{if } (M[n] \neq -1) \quad (* \ M[n] \text{ has stored value of } \text{Fib}(n) *) & \text{ return } M[n] \\
M[n] & \leftarrow \text{Fib}(n-1) + \text{Fib}(n-2) \\
\text{return } M[n]
\end{align*}
\]

Need to know upfront the number of subproblems to allocate memory

5.2.0.11 Automatic implicit memoization

Initialize a (dynamic) dictionary data structure $D$ to empty

\[
\text{Fib}(n):
\begin{align*}
\text{if } (n = 0) & \text{ return 0} \\
\text{if } (n = 1) & \text{ return 1} \\
\text{if } (n \text{ is already in } D) & \text{ return value stored with } n \text{ in } D \\
val & \leftarrow \text{Fib}(n-1) + \text{Fib}(n-2) \\
\text{Store } (n, val) \text{ in } D \\
\text{return } val
\end{align*}
\]

5.2.0.12 Explicit vs Implicit Memoization

(A) Explicit memoization or iterative algorithm preferred if one can analyze problem ahead of time. Allows for efficient memory allocation and access.

(B) Implicit and automatic memoization used when problem structure or algorithm is either not well understood or in fact unknown to the underlying system.

(A) Need to pay overhead of data-structure.

(B) Functional languages such as LISP automatically do memoization, usually via hashing based dictionaries.

5.2.0.13 Back to Fibonacci Numbers

Is the iterative algorithm a \textit{polynomial} time algorithm? Does it take $O(n)$ time?

(A) input is $n$ and hence input size is $\Theta(\log n)$

(B) output is $F(n)$ and output size is $\Theta(n)$. Why?

(C) Hence output size is exponential in input size so no polynomial time algorithm possible!

(D) Running time of iterative algorithm: $\Theta(n)$ additions but number sizes are $O(n)$ bits long! Hence total time is $O(n^2)$, in fact $\Theta(n^2)$. Why?

(E) Running time of recursive algorithm is $O(n\phi^n)$ but can in fact shown to be $O(\phi^n)$ by being careful. Doubly exponential in input size and exponential even in output size.
5.2.0.14 More on fast Fibonacci numbers

\[
\begin{pmatrix} y \\ x + y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix}.
\]

As such,

\[
\begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-2} \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^2 \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-3} \\ F_{n-2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{n-3} \begin{pmatrix} F_2 \\ F_1 \end{pmatrix}.
\]

Thus, computing the \( n \)th Fibonacci number can be done by computing \( \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{n-3} \). Which can be done in \( O(\log n) \) time (how?). What is wrong?

5.3 Brute Force Search, Recursion and Backtracking

5.3.0.15 Maximum Independent Set in a Graph

Definition 5.3.1. Given undirected graph \( G = (V, E) \) a subset of nodes \( S \subseteq V \) is an independent set (also called a stable set) if for there are no edges between nodes in \( S \). That is, if \( u, v \in S \) then \( (u, v) \not\in E \).

Some independent sets in graph above:

5.3.0.16 Maximum Independent Set Problem

Input Graph \( G = (V, E) \)

Goal Find maximum sized independent set in \( G \)

5.3.0.17 Maximum Weight Independent Set Problem

Input Graph \( G = (V, E) \), weights \( w(v) \geq 0 \) for \( v \in V \)

Goal Find maximum weight independent set in \( G \)
5.3.0.18 Maximum Weight Independent Set Problem

(A) No one knows an efficient (polynomial time) algorithm for this problem
(B) Problem is NP-Complete and it is believed that there is no polynomial time algorithm

Brute-force algorithm: Try all subsets of vertices.

5.3.0.19 Brute-force enumeration

Algorithm to find the size of the maximum weight independent set.

```
MaxIndSet(G = (V, E)):
    max = 0
    for each subset S ⊆ V do
        check if S is an independent set
        if S is an independent set and w(S) > max then
            max = w(S)
    Output max
```

Running time: suppose G has n vertices and m edges
(A) 2^n subsets of V
(B) checking each subset S takes O(m) time
(C) total time is O(m2^n)

5.3.0.20 A Recursive Algorithm

Let V = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}.
For a vertex u let N(u) be its neighbors.

Observation 5.3.2. v_n: Vertex in the graph.
One of the following two cases is true

Case 1 v_n is in some maximum independent set.

Case 2 v_n is in no maximum independent set.

```
RecursiveMIS(G):
    if G is empty then Output 0
    a = RecursiveMIS(G − v_n)
    b = w(v_n) + RecursiveMIS(G − v_n − N(v_n))
    Output max(a, b)
```
5.3.1 Recursive Algorithms

5.3.1.1 .for Maximum Independent Set

Running time:

\[ T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-1 - \text{deg}(v_n)) + O(1 + \text{deg}(v_n)) \]

where \( \text{deg}(v_n) \) is the degree of \( v_n \). \( T(0) = T(1) = 1 \) is base case.

Worst case is when \( \text{deg}(v_n) = 0 \) when the recurrence becomes

\[ T(n) = 2T(n-1) + O(1) \]

Solution to this is \( T(n) = O(2^n) \).

5.3.1.2 Backtrack Search via Recursion

(A) Recursive algorithm generates a tree of computation where each node is a smaller problem (subproblem)
(B) Simple recursive algorithm computes/explores the whole tree blindly in some order.
(C) Backtrack search is a way to explore the tree intelligently to prune the search space
   (A) Some subproblems may be so simple that we can stop the recursive algorithm and solve it directly by some other method
   (B) Memoization to avoid recomputing same problem
   (C) Stop the recursion at a subproblem if it is clear that there is no need to explore further.
   (D) Leads to a number of heuristics that are widely used in practice although the worst case running time may still be exponential.

5.4 Longest Increasing Subsequence

5.4.1 Longest Increasing Subsequence

5.4.1.1 Sequences

Definition 5.4.1. Sequence: an ordered list \( a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \). Length of a sequence is number of elements in the list.

Definition 5.4.2. \( a_{i_1}, \ldots, a_{i_k} \) is a subsequence of \( a_1, \ldots, a_n \) if \( 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_k \leq n \).

Definition 5.4.3. A sequence is increasing if \( a_1 < a_2 < \ldots < a_n \). It is non-decreasing if \( a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \ldots \leq a_n \). Similarly decreasing and non-increasing.

5.4.2 Sequences

5.4.2.1 Example...

Example 5.4.4. (A) Sequence: 6, 3, 5, 2, 7, 8, 1, 9
(B) Subsequence of above sequence: 5, 2, 1
(C) Increasing sequence: 3, 5, 9, 17, 54
(D) Decreasing sequence: 34, 21, 7, 5, 1
(E) Increasing subsequence of the first sequence: 2, 7, 9.
5.4.2.2 Longest Increasing Subsequence Problem

Input A sequence of numbers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$

Goal Find an increasing subsequence $a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, \ldots, a_{i_k}$ of maximum length

Example 5.4.5. (A) Sequence: 6, 3, 5, 2, 7, 8, 1
(B) Increasing subsequences: 6, 7, 8 and 3, 5, 7, 8 and 2, 7 etc
(C) Longest increasing subsequence: 3, 5, 7, 8

5.4.2.3 Naïve Enumeration

Assume $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ is contained in an array $A$

\[
\text{algLISNaive}(A[1..n]):
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
    &\text{max} = 0 \\
    &\text{for each subsequence } B \text{ of } A \text{ do} \\
    &\quad \text{if } B \text{ is increasing and } |B| > \text{max} \text{ then} \\
    &\quad\quad \text{max} = |B|
\end{align*}
\]

Output max

Running time: $O(n^2)$. 
$2^n$ subsequences of a sequence of length $n$ and $O(n)$ time to check if a given sequence is increasing.

5.4.3 Recursive Approach: Take 1

5.4.3.1 LIS: Longest increasing subsequence

Can we find a recursive algorithm for LIS?

LIS$(A[1..n])$:
(A) Case 1: Does not contain $A[n]$ in which case LIS$(A[1..n]) =$ LIS$(A[1..(n-1)])$
(B) Case 2: contains $A[n]$ in which case LIS$(A[1..n])$ is not so clear.

Observation 5.4.6. if $A[n]$ is in the longest increasing subsequence then all the elements before it must be smaller.

5.4.3.2 Recursive Approach: Take 1

\[
\text{algLIS}(A[1..n]):
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
    &\text{if } (n = 0) \text{ then return } 0 \\
    &m = \text{algLIS}(A[1..(n-1)]) \\
    &B \text{ is subsequence of } A[1..(n-1)] \text{ with} \\
    &\quad \text{only elements less than } A[n] \\
    &\quad (* \text{ let } h \text{ be size of } B, h \leq n - 1 *) \\
    &m = \max(m, 1 + \text{algLIS}(B[1..h])) \\
    &\text{Output } m
\end{align*}
\]

Recursion for running time: $T(n) \leq 2T(n-1) + O(n)$.
Easy to see that $T(n)$ is $O(n2^n)$. 

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5.4.3.3 Recursive Approach: Take 2

LIS(A[1..n]):
(A) Case 1: Does not contain A[n] in which case LIS(A[1..n]) = LIS(A[1..(n−1)])
(B) Case 2: contains A[n] in which case LIS(A[1..n]) is not so clear.

Observation 5.4.7. For second case we want to find a subsequence in A[1..(n−1)] that is restricted to numbers less than A[n]. This suggests that a more general problem is LIS smaller(A[1..n], x) which gives the longest increasing subsequence in A where each number in the sequence is less than x.

5.4.3.4 Recursive Approach: Take 2

LIS smaller(A[1..n], x) : length of longest increasing subsequence in A[1..n] with all numbers in subsequence less than x

```
LIS smaller(A[1..n], x):
    if (n = 0) then return 0
    m = LIS smaller(A[1..(n−1)], x)
    if (A[n] < x) then
        m = max(m, 1 + LIS smaller(A[1..(n−1)], A[n]))
    return m
```

Recursion for running time: T(n) ≤ 2T(n − 1) + O(1).
Question: Is there any advantage?

5.4.3.5 Recursive Algorithm: Take 2

Observation 5.4.8. The number of different subproblems generated by LIS smaller(A[1..n], x) is O(n^2).

Memoization the recursive algorithm leads to an O(n^2) running time!

Question: What are the recursive subproblem generated by LIS smaller(A[1..n], x)?
(A) For 0 ≤ i < n LIS smaller(A[1..i], y) where y is either x or one of A[i+1], . . . , A[n].

Observation 5.4.9. previous recursion also generates only O(n^2) subproblems. Slightly harder to see.

5.4.3.6 Recursive Algorithm: Take 3

Definition 5.4.10. LISEnding(A[1..n]): length of longest increasing sub-sequence that ends in A[n].

Question: can we obtain a recursive expression?

```
LISEnding(A[1..n]) = \max_{i: A[i] < A[n]} (1 + LISEnding(A[1..i]))
```

5.4.3.7 Recursive Algorithm: Take 3

```
LIS ending alg(A[1..n]):
    if (n = 0) return 0
    m = 1
    for i = 1 to n − 1 do
        if (A[i] < A[n]) then
            m = max(m, 1 + LIS ending alg(A[1..i]))
    return m
```

LIS(A[1..n]):
```
    return \max_{i=1}^n LIS ending alg(A[1..i])
```
Question: How many distinct subproblems generated by \( \text{LIS}_{\text{ending}}(A[1..n]) \)? \( n \).

5.4.3.8 Iterative Algorithm via Memoization

Compute the values \( \text{LIS}_{\text{ending}}(A[1..i]) \) iteratively in a bottom up fashion.

\[
\text{LIS}_{\text{ending}}(A[1..n]):
\begin{array}{l}
\text{Array } L[1..n] \quad (\ast \ L[i] = \text{value of } \text{LIS}_{\text{ending}}(A[1..i]) \ast) \\
\text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } n \text{ do} \\
\quad L[i] = 1 \\
\quad \text{for } j = 1 \text{ to } i - 1 \text{ do} \\
\quad \quad \text{if } (A[j] < A[i]) \text{ do} \\
\quad \quad \quad L[i] = \max(L[i], 1 + L[j]) \\
\text{return } L
\end{array}
\]

5.4.3.9 Iterative Algorithm via Memoization

Simplifying:

\[
\text{LIS}(A[1..n]):
\begin{array}{l}
\text{Array } L[1..n] \quad (\ast \ L[i] \text{ stores the value } \text{LIS}_{\text{ending}}(A[1..i]) \ast) \\
\quad m = 0 \\
\quad \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } n \text{ do} \\
\quad \quad L[i] = 1 \\
\quad \quad \text{for } j = 1 \text{ to } i - 1 \text{ do} \\
\quad \quad \quad \text{if } (A[j] < A[i]) \text{ do} \\
\quad \quad \quad \quad L[i] = \max(L[i], 1 + L[j]) \\
\quad \quad \quad m = \max(m, L[i]) \\
\quad \text{return } m
\end{array}
\]

Correctness: Via induction following the recursion
Running time: \( O(n^2) \), Space: \( \Theta(n) \)

5.4.3.10 Example

Example 5.4.11. (A) Sequence: 6, 3, 5, 2, 7, 8, 1
(B) Longest increasing subsequence: 3, 5, 7, 8

(A) \( L[i] \) is value of longest increasing subsequence ending in \( A[i] \)
(B) Recursive algorithm computes \( L[i] \) from \( L[1] \) to \( L[i-1] \)
(C) Iterative algorithm builds up the values from \( L[1] \) to \( L[n] \)
5.4.3.11 Memoizing LIS_smaller

```plaintext
LIS(A[1..n]):
A[n + 1] = \infty (* add a sentinel at the end *)
Array L[(n+1),(n+1)] (* two-dimensional array *)
(* L[i, j] for j \geq i stores the value LIS_smaller(A[1..i], A[j]) *)
for j = 1 to n + 1 do
    L[0, j] = 0
for i = 1 to n + 1 do
    for j = i to n + 1 do
        L[i, j] = L[i-1, j]
        if (A[i] < A[j]) then
            L[i, j] = max(L[i, j], 1 + L[i-1, i])

return L[n, (n+1)]
```

**Correctness:** Via induction following the recursion (take 2)
**Running time:** \(O(n^2), \text{Space: } \Theta(n^2)\)

## 5.4.4 Longest increasing subsequence

### 5.4.4.1 Another way to get quadratic time algorithm

(A) \(G = \{\{s, 1, \ldots, n\}, \emptyset\}\): directed graph.
    (A) \(\forall i, j: \text{ If } i < j \text{ and } A[i] < A[j] \text{ then } \text{ add the edge } i \rightarrow j \text{ to } G.\)
    (B) \(\forall i: \text{ Add } s \rightarrow i.\)

(B) The graph \(G\) is a DAG. \(\text{LIS}\) corresponds to longest path in \(G\) starting at \(s.\)

(C) We know how to compute this in \(O(|V(G)| + |E(G)|) = O(n^2).\)
    Comment: One can compute \(\text{LIS}\) in \(O(n \log n)\) time with a bit more work.

### 5.4.4.2 Dynamic Programming

(A) Find a “smart” recursion for the problem in which the number of distinct subproblems is small; polynomial in the original problem size.

(B) Estimate the number of subproblems, the time to evaluate each subproblem and the space needed to store the value. This gives an upper bound on the total running time if we use automatic memoization.

(C) Eliminate recursion and find an iterative algorithm to compute the problems bottom up by storing the intermediate values in an appropriate data structure; need to find the right way or order the subproblem evaluation. This leads to an explicit algorithm.

(D) Optimize the resulting algorithm further

## 5.5 Weighted Interval Scheduling

### 5.5.1 Weighted Interval Scheduling

### 5.5.2 The Problem

#### 5.5.2.1 Weighted Interval Scheduling

**Input** A set of jobs with start times, finish times and *weights* (or profits).
**Goal** Schedule jobs so that total weight of jobs is maximized.

(A) Two jobs with overlapping intervals cannot both be scheduled!

![Diagram showing overlapping intervals]

### 5.5.3 Greedy Solution

### 5.5.4 Interval Scheduling

#### 5.5.4.1 Greedy Solution

**Input** A set of jobs with start and finish times to be scheduled on a resource; special case where all jobs have weight 1.

**Goal** Schedule as many jobs as possible.

(A) Greedy strategy of considering jobs according to finish times produces optimal schedule (to be seen later).

![Diagram showing scheduled jobs]

#### 5.5.4.2 Greedy Strategies

(A) Earliest finish time first
(B) Largest weight/profit first
(C) Largest weight to length ratio first
(D) Shortest length first
(E) ... 

None of the above strategies lead to an optimum solution.

**Moral:** Greedy strategies often don’t work!
5.5.5 Reduction to...

5.5.5.1 Max Weight Independent Set Problem

(A) Given weighted interval scheduling instance $I$ create an instance of max weight independent set on a graph $G(I)$ as follows.
   (A) For each interval $i$ create a vertex $v_i$ with weight $w_i$.
   (B) Add an edge between $v_i$ and $v_j$ if $i$ and $j$ overlap.
(B) Claim: max weight independent set in $G(I)$ has weight equal to max weight set of intervals in $I$ that do not overlap

5.5.6 Reduction to...

5.5.6.1 Max Weight Independent Set Problem

(A) There is a reduction from Weighted Interval Scheduling to Independent Set.
(B) Can use structure of original problem for efficient algorithm?
(C) Independent Set in general is NP-Complete.
   We do not know an efficient (polynomial time) algorithm for independent set! Can we take advantage of the interval structure to find an efficient algorithm?

5.5.7 Recursive Solution

5.5.7.1 Conventions

Definition 5.5.1. (A) Let the requests be sorted according to finish time, i.e., $i < j$ implies $f_i \leq f_j$
(B) Define $p(j)$ to be the largest $i$ (less than $j$) such that job $i$ and job $j$ are not in conflict

5.5.7.2 Towards a Recursive Solution

Observation 5.5.3. Consider an optimal schedule $\mathcal{O}$

$[i+\delta]$ 

Case $n \in \mathcal{O}$ : None of the jobs between $n$ and $p(n)$ can be scheduled. Moreover $\mathcal{O}$ must contain an optimal schedule for the first $p(n)$ jobs.

Case $n \notin \mathcal{O}$ : $\mathcal{O}$ is an optimal schedule for the first $n-1$ jobs.
5.5.7.3 A Recursive Algorithm

Let $O_i$ be value of an optimal schedule for the first $i$ jobs.

```
Schedule(n):
    if n = 0 then return 0
    if n = 1 then return $w(v_1)$
    $O_p(n) \leftarrow Schedule(p(n))$
    $O_{n-1} \leftarrow Schedule(n-1)$
    if ($O_p(n) + w(v_n) < O_{n-1}$) then
        $O_n = O_{n-1}$
    else
        $O_n = O_p(n) + w(v_n)$
    return $O_n$
```

Time Analysis Running time is $T(n) = T(p(n)) + T(n - 1) + O(1)$ which is . . .

5.5.7.4 Bad Example

Running time on this instance is

$$T(n) = T(n - 1) + T(n - 2) + O(1) = \Theta(\phi^n)$$

where $\phi \approx 1.618$ is the golden ratio.

(Because... $T(n)$ is the $n$ Fibonacci number.)

5.5.7.5 Analysis of the Problem

5.5.8 Dynamic Programming

5.5.8.1 Memo(r)ization

Observation 5.5.4. (A) Number of different sub-problems in recursive algorithm is $O(n)$; they are $O_1, O_2, \ldots, O_{n-1}$
Exponential time is due to recomputation of solutions to sub-problems

Solution: Store optimal solution to different sub-problems, and perform recursive call only if not already computed.

### 5.5.8.2 Recursive Solution with Memoization

```plaintext
schdIMem(j)
    if j = 0 then return 0
    if M[j] is defined then (* sub-problem already solved *)
        return M[j]
    if M[j] is not defined then
        M[j] = max(w(v_j) + schdIMem(p(j)), schdIMem(j - 1))
    return M[j]
```

Time Analysis

i++ 
Each invocation, \(O(1)\) time plus: either return a computed value, or generate 2 recursive calls and fill one \(M[]\)

i+1 
Initially no entry of \(M[]\) is filled; at the end all entries of \(M[]\) are filled

i++ 
So total time is \(O(n)\) (Assuming input is presorted...)

### 5.5.8.3 Automatic Memoization

Fact: Many functional languages (like LISP) automatically do memoization for recursive function calls!

### 5.5.8.4 Back to Weighted Interval Scheduling

Iterative Solution

\[
M[0] = 0 \\
\text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } n \text{ do} \\
M[i] = \max(w(v_i) + M[p(i)], M[i - 1])
\]

\(M\): table of subproblems

(A) Implicitly dynamic programming fills the values of \(M\).
(B) Recursion determines order in which table is filled up.
(C) Think of decomposing problem first (recursion) and then worry about setting up table — this comes naturally from recursion.

### 5.5.8.5 Example

\[p(5) = 2, p(4) = 1, p(3) = 1, p(2) = 0, p(1) = 0\]
5.5.9 Computing Solutions

5.5.9.1 Computing Solutions + First Attempt

(A) Memoization + Recursion/Iteration allows one to compute the optimal value. What about the actual schedule?

```
M[0] = 0
S[0] is empty schedule
for i = 1 to n do
    M[i] = max \{ w(v_i) + M[p(i)], M[i - 1] \}
    if w(v_i) + M[p(i)] < M[i - 1] then
        S[i] = S[i - 1]
    else
        S[i] = S[p(i)] \cup \{i\}
```

(B) Naïvely updating \( S[] \) takes \( O(n) \) time
(C) Total running time is \( O(n^2) \)
(D) Using pointers and linked lists running time can be improved to \( O(n) \).

5.5.9.2 Computing Implicit Solutions

Observation 5.5.5. Solution can be obtained from \( M[] \) in \( O(n) \) time, without any additional information

```
findSolution(j)
if (j = 0) then return empty schedule
if (v_j + M[p(j)] > M[j - 1]) then
    return findSolution(p(j)) \cup \{j\}
else
    return findSolution(j - 1)
```

Makes \( O(n) \) recursive calls, so \( \text{findSolution} \) runs in \( O(n) \) time.

5.5.9.3 Computing Implicit Solutions

A generic strategy for computing solutions in dynamic programming:

(A) Keep track of the decision in computing the optimum value of a sub-problem. decision space depends on recursion
(B) Once the optimum values are computed, go back and use the decision values to compute an optimum solution.

Question: What is the decision in computing \( M[i] \)?

A: Whether to include \( i \) or not.
### 5.5.9.4 Computing Implicit Solutions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code Block</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| $M[0] = 0$
| **for** $i = 1$ **to** $n$ **do**
| $M[i] = \max(v_i + M[p(i)], M[i - 1])$
| **if** $(v_i + M[p(i)] > M[i - 1])$ **then**
| $Decision[i] = 1$ (* 1: $i$ included in solution $M[i]$ *)
| **else**
| $Decision[i] = 0$ (* 0: $i$ not included in solution $M[i]$ *)
| $S = \emptyset$, $i = n$
| **while** $(i > 0)$ **do**
| **if** $(Decision[i] = 1)$ **then**
| $S = S \cup \{i\}$
| $i = p(i)$
| **else**
| $i = i - 1$
| **return** $S$ |