

# Principles and Practice of Problem Solving: Lecture 14-Greedy Algorithm

Lecturer: Haiming Jin

# Outline

- Counting Money Problem
- Greedy Algorithm and Activity Selection Problem
- More Examples

# Example: Counting money

- Suppose you want to count out a certain amount of money, using the fewest possible bills and coins.
- A greedy algorithm that would do this would be:  
**At each step, take the largest possible bill or coin that does not overshoot**
  - Example: To make \$6.39, you can choose:
    - a \$5 bill
    - a \$1 bill, to make \$6
    - a 25¢ coin, to make \$6.25
    - A 10¢ coin, to make \$6.35
    - four 1¢ coins, to make \$6.39
- For US money, the greedy algorithm always gives the optimum solution.

# A failure of the greedy algorithm

- In some (fictional) monetary system, “krons” come in **1** kron, **7** kron, and **10** kron coins.
- Using a greedy algorithm to count out 15 krons, you would get
  - A 10 kron piece
  - Five 1 kron pieces, for a total of 15 krons
  - This requires six coins
- A better solution would be to use two 7 kron pieces and one 1 kron piece
  - This only requires three coins.
- The greedy algorithm results in a solution, but not in an optimal solution.

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# Overview

- Like dynamic programming, used to solve optimization problems.
- Problems exhibit optimal substructure (like DP).
- Problems also exhibit the **greedy-choice** property.
  - When we have a choice to make, make the one that looks best *right now*.
  - Make a **locally optimal choice** in hope of getting a **globally optimal solution**.

# Greedy Strategy

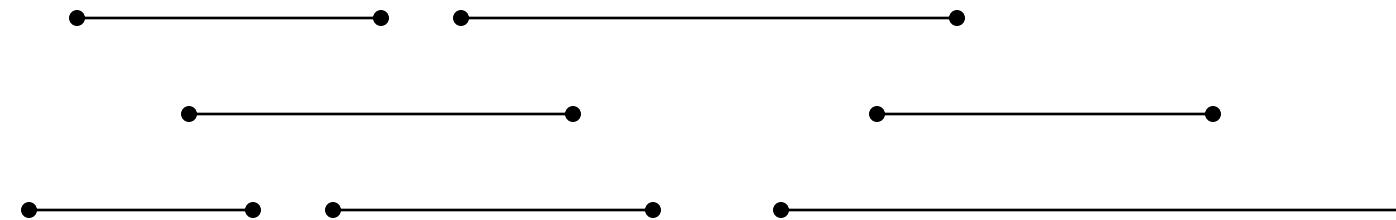
- The choice that seems best at the moment is the one we go with.
  - Prove that when there is a choice to make, one of the optimal choices is the greedy choice. Therefore, it's always safe to make the greedy choice.
  - Show that all but one of the subproblems resulting from the greedy choice are empty.

# Activity-selection Problem

- Input: Set  $S$  of  $n$  activities,  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ .
  - $s_i$  = start time of activity  $i$ .
  - $f_i$  = finish time of activity  $i$ .
- Output: Subset  $A$  of maximum number of compatible activities.
  - Two activities are compatible, if their intervals don't overlap.

**Example:**

Activities in each line  
are compatible.



# Optimal Substructure

- Assume activities are sorted by finishing times.
  - $f_1 \leq f_2 \leq \dots \leq f_n$ .
- Suppose an optimal solution includes activity  $a_k$ .
  - This generates two subproblems.
  - Selecting from  $a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}$ , activities compatible with one another, and that finish before  $a_k$  starts (compatible with  $a_k$ ).
  - Selecting from  $a_{k+1}, \dots, a_n$ , activities compatible with one another, and that start after  $a_k$  finishes.
  - The solutions to the two subproblems must be optimal.

# Greedy-choice Property

- The problem also exhibits the **greedy-choice property**.
  - There is an optimal solution to the subproblem  $S_{ij}$ , that includes the activity with the smallest finish time in set  $S_{ij}$ .
  - Can be proved easily.
- Hence, **there is an optimal solution to S that includes  $a_1$** .
- Therefore, **make this greedy choice** without solving subproblems first and evaluating them.
- Solve the subproblem that ensues as a result of making this greedy choice.
- Combine the greedy choice and the solution to the subproblem.

# An Iterative Algorithm for Activity Selection

- So actual algorithm is simple:
  - Sort the activities by finish time
  - Schedule the first activity
  - Then schedule the next activity in sorted list which starts after previous activity finishes
  - Repeat until no more activities

# A Recursive Algorithm for Activity Selection

## Recursive-Activity-Selector ( $s, f, i, j$ )

1.  $m \leftarrow i+1$
2. **while**  $m < j$  and  $s_m < f_i$
3.     **do**  $m \leftarrow m+1$
4.     **if**  $m < j$
5.         **then return**  $\{a_m\} \cup$   
                    Recursive-Activity-Selector( $s, f, m, j$ )
6.     **else return**  $\emptyset$

Initial Call: Recursive-Activity-Selector ( $s, f, 0, n+1$ )

Complexity:  $\Theta(n)$

# Typical Steps

- Cast the optimization problem as one in which we make a choice and are left with one subproblem to solve.
- Prove that there's always an optimal solution that makes the greedy choice, so that the greedy choice is always safe.
- Show that greedy choice and optimal solution to subproblem  $\Rightarrow$  optimal solution to the problem.
- Make the greedy choice and **solve top-down**.
- May have to preprocess input to put it into greedy order.
  - Example: Sorting activities by finish time.

# Elements of Greedy Algorithms

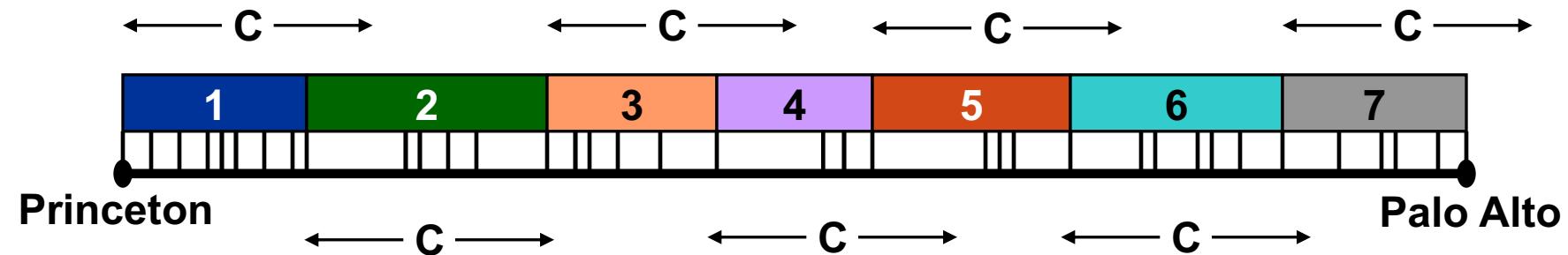
- Greedy-choice Property.
  - A globally optimal solution can be arrived at by making a locally optimal (greedy) choice.
- Optimal Substructure.

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# Example #1 Selecting Breakpoints

- Minimizing breakpoints.
  - Truck driver going from Princeton to Palo Alto along predetermined route.
  - Refueling stations at certain points along the way.
  - Truck fuel capacity =  $C$ .
- Greedy algorithm.
  - Go as far as you can before refueling.



# Example #1 Selecting Breakpoints

## Greedy Breakpoint Selection Algorithm

Sort breakpoints by increasing value:

$0 = b_0 < b_1 < b_2 < \dots < b_n.$

$S \leftarrow \{0\}$

$x = 0$

**while** ( $x \neq b_n$ )

    let  $p$  be largest integer such that  $b_p \leq x + c$

**if** ( $b_p = x$ )

**return** "no solution"

$x \leftarrow b_p$

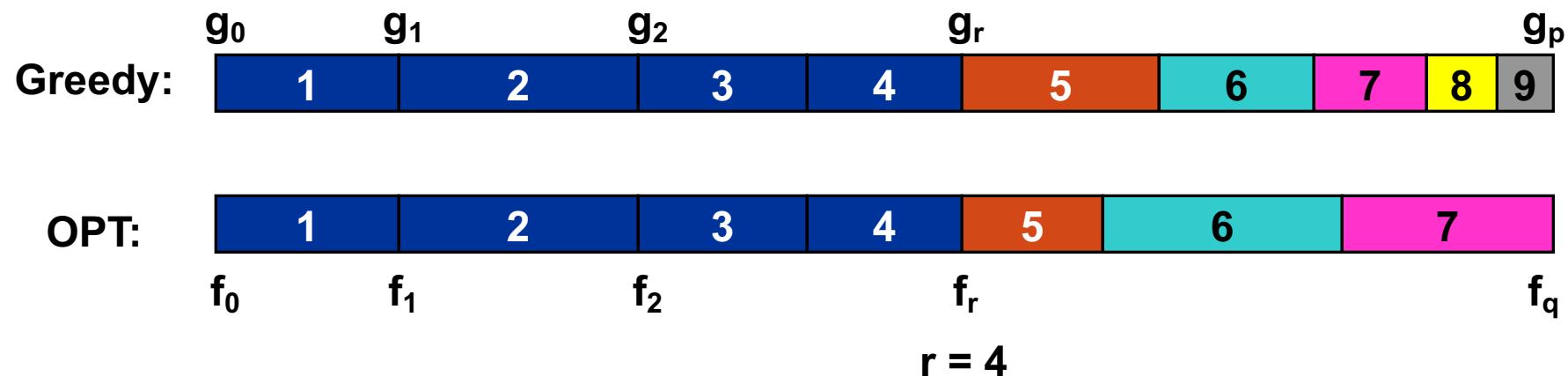
$S \leftarrow S \cup \{p\}$

**return**  $S$

**S = breakpoints selected.**

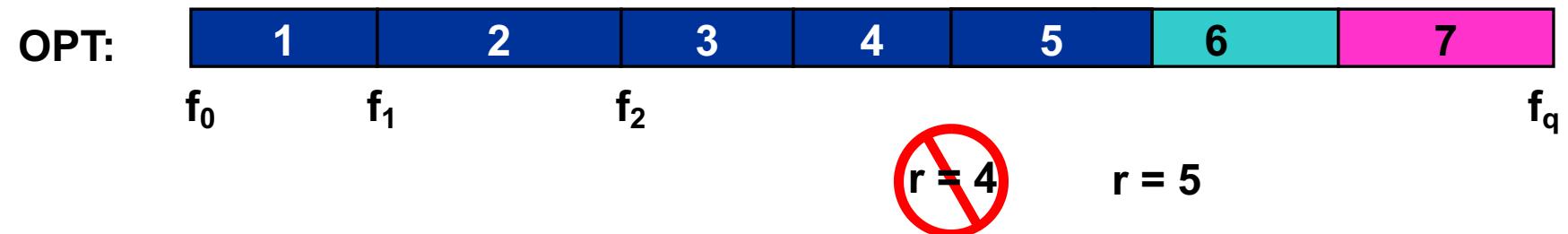
# Example #1 Selecting Breakpoints

- **Theorem:** greedy algorithm is optimal.
- Proof (by contradiction):
  - Let  $0 = g_0 < g_1 < \dots < g_p = L$  denote set of breakpoints chosen by greedy and assume it is not optimal.
  - Let  $0 = f_0 < f_1 < \dots < f_q = L$  denote set of breakpoints in optimal solution with  $f_0 = g_0$ ,  $f_1 = g_1, \dots, f_r = g_r$  for largest possible value of  $r$ .
  - Note:  $q < p$ .



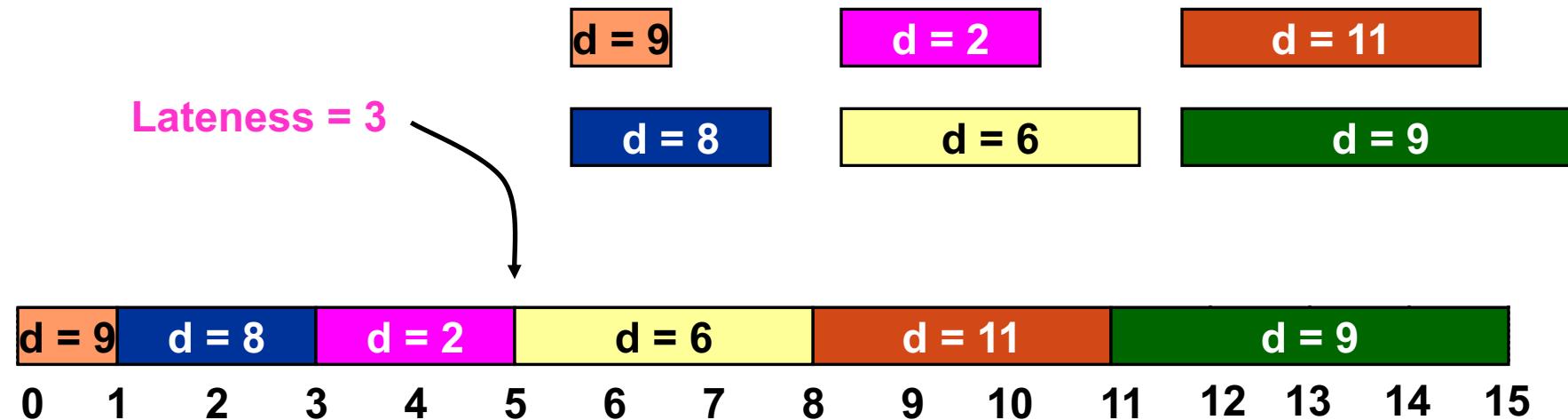
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# Example #2: Minimizing Lateness

- Minimizing lateness problem.
  - Single resource can process one job at a time.
  - $n$  jobs to be processed.
    - job  $j$  requires  $p_j$  units of processing time.
    - job  $j$  has due date  $d_j$ .
  - If we assign job  $j$  to start at time  $s_j$ , it finishes at time  $f_j = s_j + p_j$ .
  - Lateness:  $\ell_j = \max \{ 0, f_j - d_j \}$ .
  - Goal: schedule all jobs to minimize maximum lateness  $L = \max \ell_j$ .



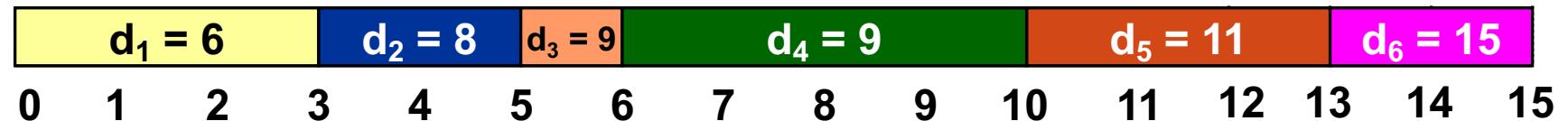
# Example #2: Minimizing Lateness

## Greedy Job Scheduling Algorithm

Sort jobs by increasing deadline so that  
 $d_1 \leq d_2 \leq \dots \leq d_n$ .

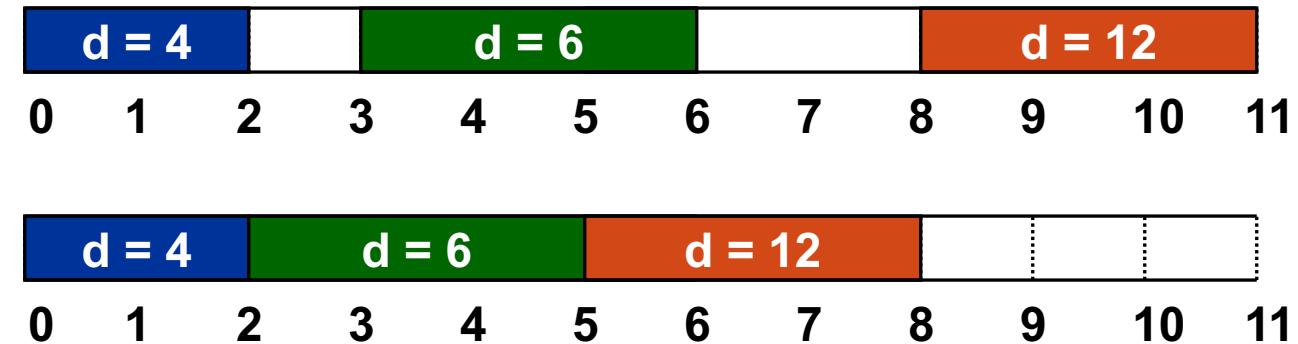
```
t = 0
for j = 1 to n
    Assign job j to interval [t, t + pj]
    sj ← t, fj ← t + pj
    t ← t + pj
output intervals [sj, fj]
```

max lateness = 2



# Example #2: Minimizing Lateness

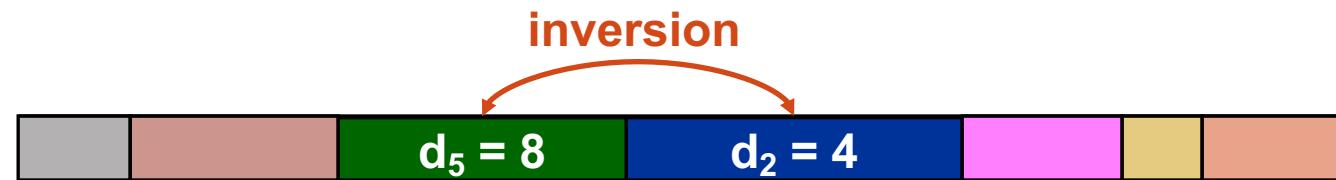
- Fact 1: there exists an optimal schedule with no **idle time**.



- Fact 2: the greedy schedule has no idle time.

## Example #2: Minimizing Lateness

- An **inversion** in schedule S is a pair of jobs i and j such that:
  - $d_i < d_j$
  - j scheduled before i

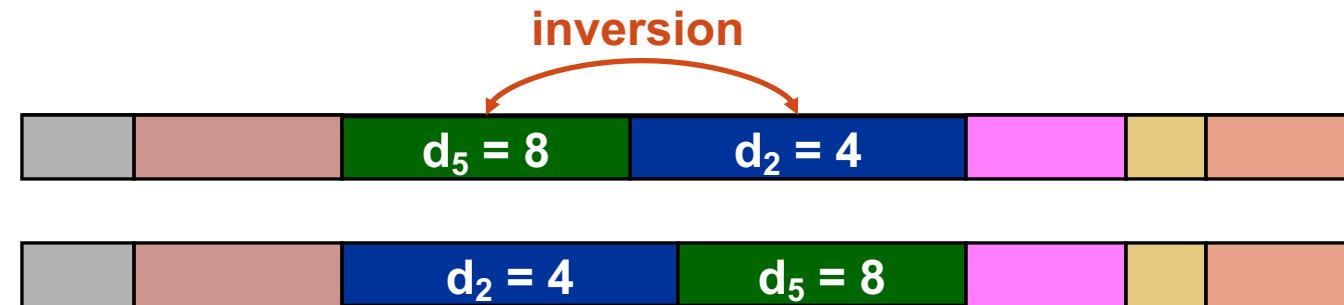


- Fact 3: greedy schedule  $\Leftrightarrow$  no inversions.
- Fact 4: if a schedule (with no idle time) has an inversion, it has one whose with a pair of inverted jobs scheduled consecutively.

# Example #2: Minimizing Lateness

- An **inversion** in schedule S is a pair of jobs i and j such that:

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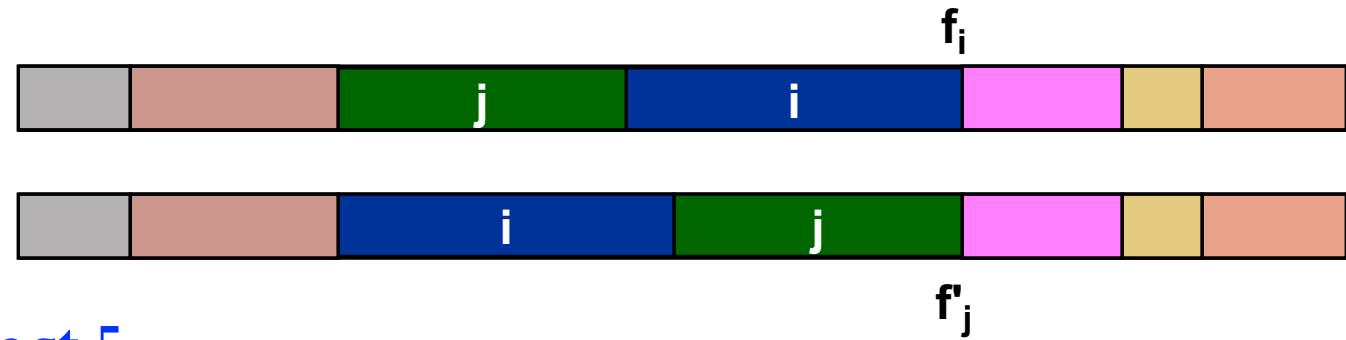


- Fact 3: greedy schedule  $\Leftrightarrow$  no inversions.
- Fact 4: if a schedule (with no idle time) has an inversion, it has one whose with a pair of inverted jobs scheduled consecutively.
- Fact 5: swapping two adjacent, inverted jobs:
  - Reduces the number of inversions by one.
  - Does not increase the maximum lateness.
- **Theorem: greedy schedule is optimal.**

**How to prove fact 5?**

# Example #2: Minimizing Lateness

- An **inversion** in schedule  $S$  is a pair of jobs  $i$  and  $j$  such that:
  - $d_i < d_j$
  - $j$  scheduled before  $i$

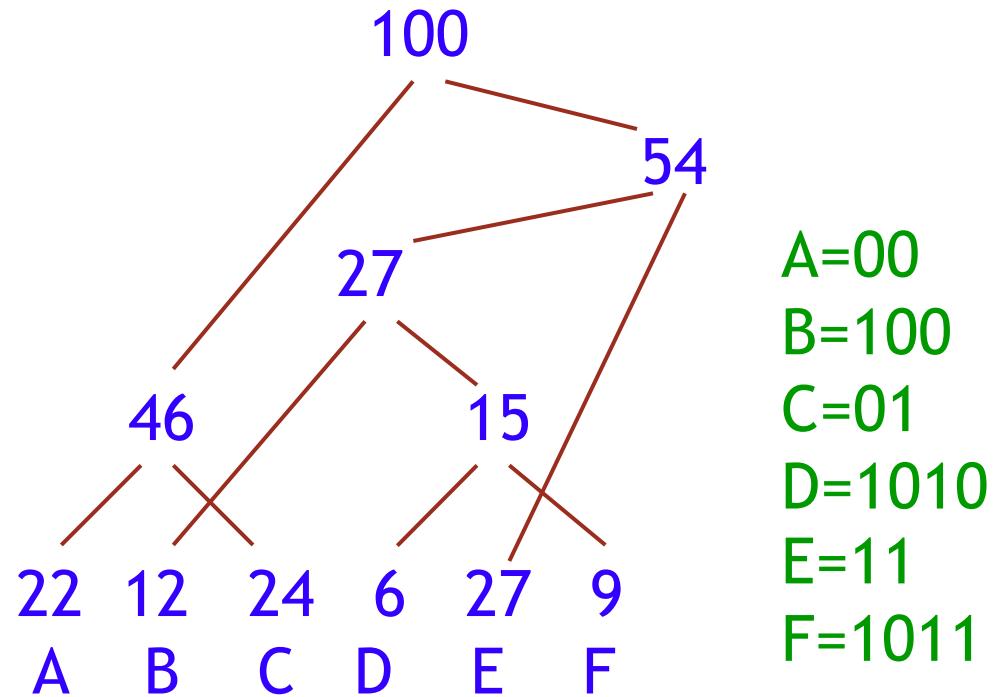


- **Proof of Fact 5**
  - Swapping two adjacent, inverted jobs does not increase max lateness.
    - $\ell'_{k'} = \ell_k$  for all  $k \neq i, j$
    - $\ell'_i \leq \ell_i$
    - If job  $j$  is late:

$$\begin{aligned}\ell'_j &= f'_j - d_j && \text{(definition)} \\ &= f_i - d_j && (j \text{ finishes at time } f_i) \\ &\leq f_i - d_i && (i < j) \\ &\leq \ell_i && \text{(definition)}\end{aligned}$$

# Example #3: Huffman encoding

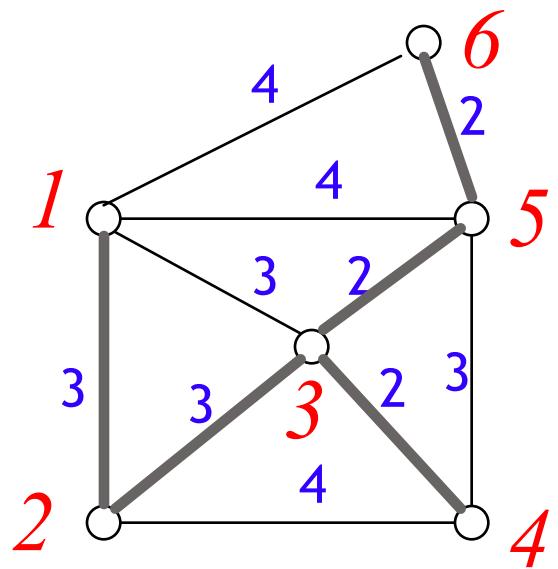
- The Huffman encoding algorithm is a greedy algorithm
- You always pick the two smallest numbers to combine



- Average bits/char:  
 $0.22*2 + 0.12*3 +$   
 $0.24*2 + 0.06*4 +$   
 $0.27*2 + 0.09*4$   
 $= 2.42$
- The Huffman algorithm finds an optimal solution

## Example #4: Minimum Spanning Tree

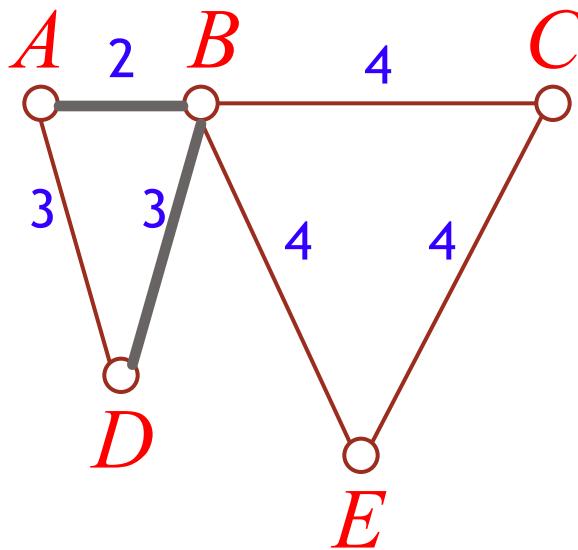
- A minimum spanning tree is a least-cost subset of the edges of a graph that connects all the nodes
  - Start by picking any node and adding it to the tree
  - Repeatedly: Pick any *least-cost* edge from a node in the tree to a node not in the tree, and add the edge and new node to the tree
  - Stop when all nodes have been added to the tree



- The result is a least-cost ( $3+3+2+2+2=12$ ) spanning tree
- If you think some other edge should be in the spanning tree:
  - Try adding that edge
  - Note that the edge is part of a cycle
  - To break the cycle, you must remove the edge with the greatest cost
  - This will be the edge you just added

# Example #5: Traveling salesman

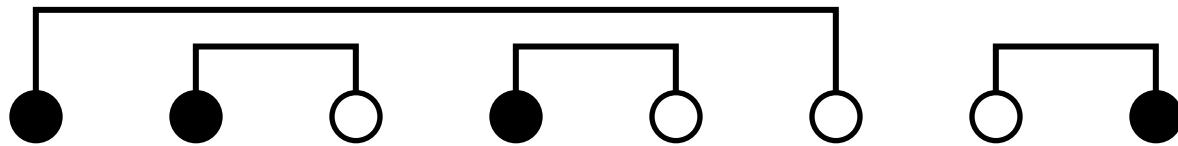
- A salesman must visit every city (starting from city  $A$ ), and wants to cover the least possible distance
  - He can revisit a city (and reuse a road) if necessary
- He does this by using a greedy algorithm: He goes to the next nearest city from wherever he is



- From  $A$  he goes to  $B$
- From  $B$  he goes to  $D$
- This is *not* going to result in a shortest path!
- The best result he can get now will be  $ABDBCE$ , at a cost of **16**
- An actual least-cost path from  $A$  is  $ADBCE$ , at a cost of **14**

# Example #6: Connecting Wires

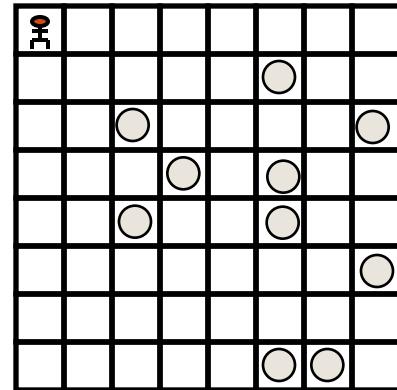
- There are  $n$  white dots and  $n$  black dots, equally spaced, in a line
- You want to connect each white dot with some one black dot, with a minimum total length of “wire”
- Example:



- Total wire length above is  $1 + 1 + 1 + 5 = 8$
- Do you see a greedy algorithm for doing this?
- Does the algorithm guarantee an optimal solution?
  - Can you prove it?
  - Can you find a counterexample?

# Example #7: Collecting Coins

- A checkerboard has a certain number of coins on it
- A robot starts in the upper-left corner, and walks to the bottom left-hand corner
  - The robot can only move in two directions: right and down
  - The robot collects coins as it goes
- You want to collect *all* the coins using the *minimum* number of robots
- Example:



- Do you see a greedy algorithm for doing this?
- Does the algorithm guarantee an optimal solution?
  - Can you prove it?
  - Can you find a counterexample?

# References and Readings

- Thomas L. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ronald L. Rivest, Clifford Stein, “Introduction to Algorithms” (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition)
  - Chapter 16 Greedy Algorithms