

GREEDY ALGORITHMS

Change-Making Problem

- Assume that you have the coins below.

States are $d_1 = 25$ (quarter), $d_2 = 10$ (dime), $d_3 = 5$ (nickel), and $d_4 = 1$ (penny).

- How would you give change with coins of these denominations of, say, 48 cents?

Change-Making Problem

- If you came up with the answer 1 quarter, 2 dimes, and 3 pennies, you followed—consciously or not—a logical strategy of making a sequence of best choices among the currently available alternatives. Indeed, in the first step, you could have given one coin of any of the four denominations.
- “Greedy” thinking leads to giving one quarter because it reduces the remaining amount the most, namely, to 23 cents.
- In the second step, you had the same coins at your disposal, but you could not give a quarter, because it would have violated the problem’s constraints.
- So your best selection in this step was one dime, reducing the remaining amount to 13 cents. Giving one more dime left you with 3 cents to be given with three pennies.

What is greedy?

- The approach applied in the opening paragraph to the change-making problem is called greedy.
- Computer scientists consider it a general design technique despite the fact that it is applicable to optimization problems only.
- The greedy approach suggests constructing a solution through a sequence of steps, each expanding a partially constructed solution obtained so far, until a complete solution to the problem is reached. On each step—and this is the central point of this technique—the choice made must be:

What is greedy?

- feasible, i.e., it has to satisfy the problem's constraints
- locally optimal, i.e., it has to be the best local choice among all feasible choices available on that step
- irrevocable, i.e., once made, it cannot be changed on subsequent steps of the algorithm

What is greedy?

- These requirements explain the technique's name: on each step, it suggests a “greedy” grab of the best alternative available in the hope that a sequence of locally optimal choices will yield a (globally) optimal solution to the entire problem.
- We refrain from a philosophical discussion of whether greed is good or bad. (If you have not seen the movie from which the chapter's epigraph is taken, its hero did not end up well.)
- From our algorithmic perspective, the question is whether such a greedy strategy works or not.
- As we shall see, there are problems for which a sequence of locally optimal choices does yield an optimal solution for every instance of the problem in question.
- However, there are others for which this is not the case; for such problems, a greedy algorithm can still be of value if we are interested in or have to be satisfied with an approximate solution.

Change-Making Problem

- If you have 20, 19, 5, 1 coins and you try to have 24 how can you do that?
- Greedy algorithms always try to approach the answer mostly so it firstly will choose 20 coin.
- After that 4 remaining and the algorithms complete these 4 with 4 pennies.
- So it becomes totally 5 coins.
- $20 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1$

Change-Making Problem

- But there is a better colution such as $19 + 5$
- It becomes only two coins.

Change-Making Problem

- If you have 10, 9 and 1 coins and you want to pay 37 cents, what are the solutions?
- Greedy solutions choose the most valuable coin first of all. It is 10 cent.
- We pay 1 10 cent and $37 - 10 = 27$ is remaining
- Greedy algorithm choose again 10 for paying 27
- So we pay 2 10 cent and $37 - 10 - 10 = 17$ is remaining
- Greedy algorithm choose again 10 for paying 17

Change-Making Problem

- So we pay 3 10 cent and $37 - 10 - 10 - 10 = 7$ is remaining
 - Greedy algorithm choose 1 cent for paying 7
 - We pay 7 1 cents for remaining 7.
-
- So the greedy algorithm solution is such as:
 - $10 + 10 + 10 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 37$
 - There are 10 coins.

Change-Making Problem

- Is there a more efficient solution?
- Yes there is.
- $10 + 9 + 9 + 9 = 37$
- You can pay 37 cents with only 4 coins.

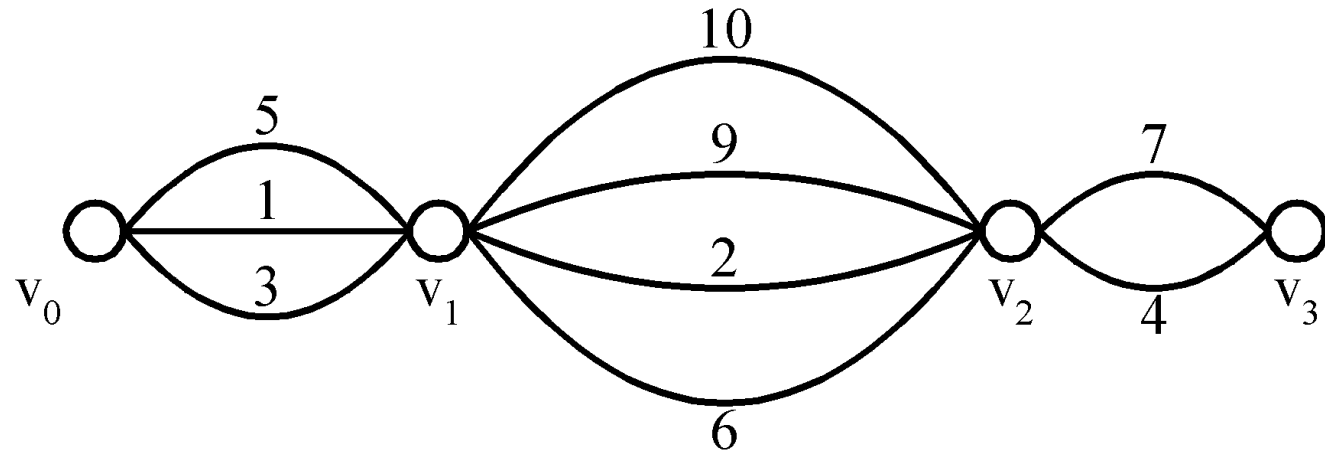
Change-Making Problem

- Another question?
- If you have coins for 1, 4, 5 and 10 cent coins and you need to pay 8 cents, how can you pay?
- First of all, Greedy algorithm chooses the most valuable coin which is less than 8.
- It is 5.
- So $8 - 5 = 3$ remaining.
- The algorithm makes 3 1 cents for 3 cents.

Change-Making Problem

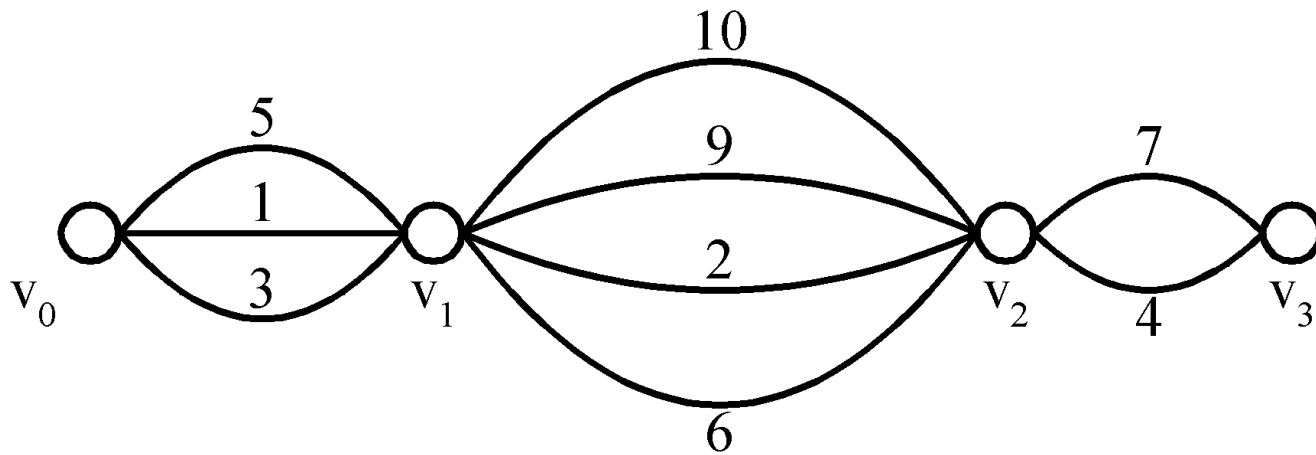
- So the solution is
- $5 + 1 + 1 + 1 = 8$
- The solution has 4 coins.
- But if we write $4 + 4 = 8$ cents, the problem is solved with only 2 coins.

Graph Problems

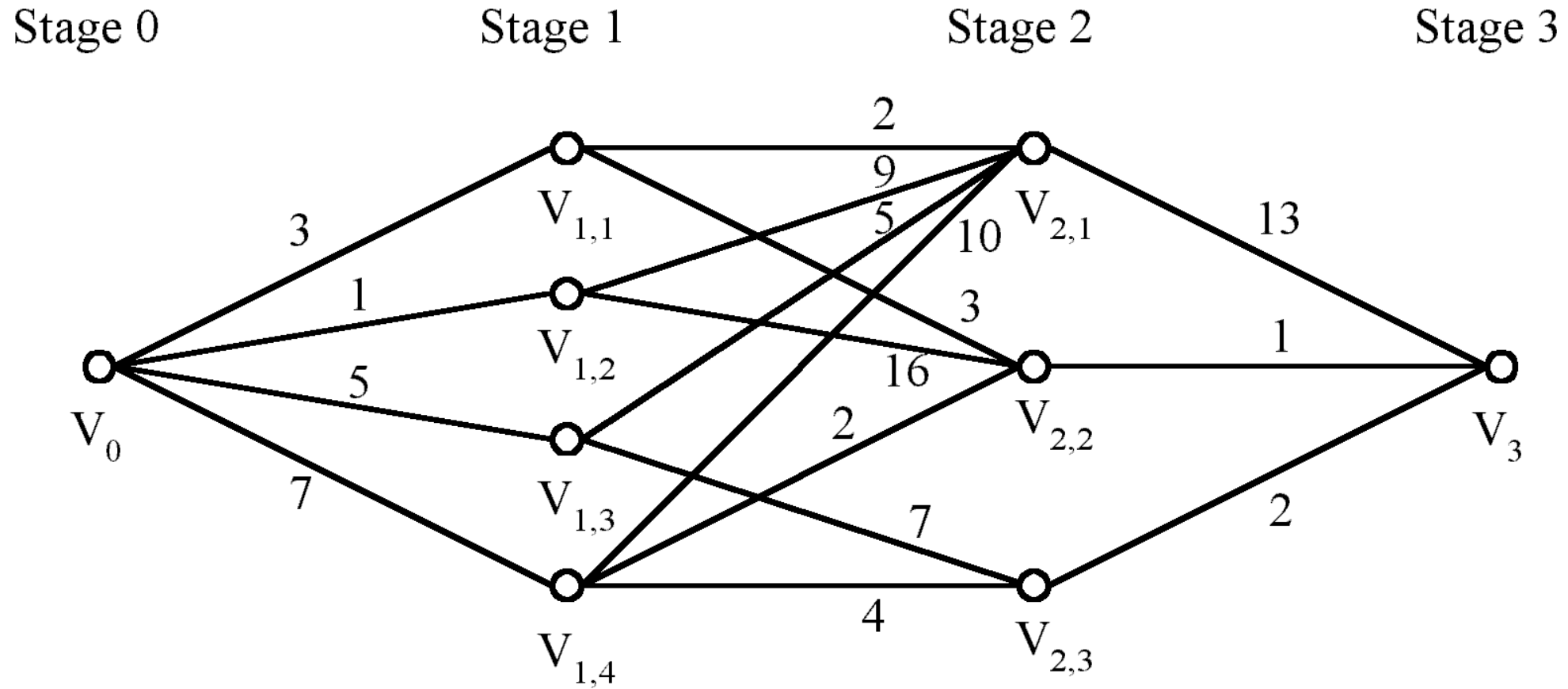


Graph Problems

- What is the shortest path between v_0 and v_3 in this graph?
- Can you find it with greedy algorithms?

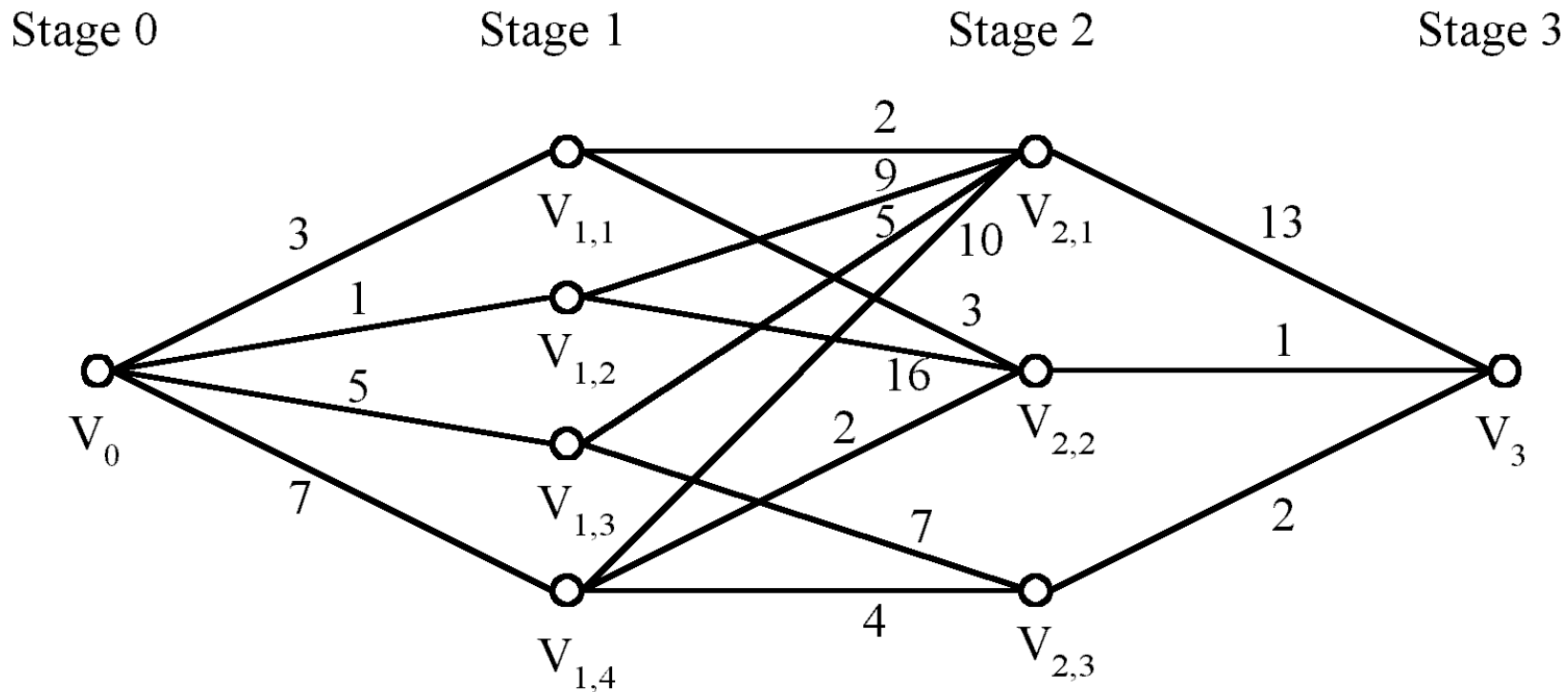


Graph Problems



Graph Problems

- What is the shortest path between v_0 and v_3 in this graph?
- Can you find it with greedy algorithms?



Change-Making Problem - GENERAL

- Given a value N , if we want to make change for N cents, and we have infinite supply of each of $S = \{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m\}$ valued coins, how many ways can we make the change? The order of coins doesn't matter.
- For example, for $N = 4$ and $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$, there are four solutions: $\{1, 1, 1, 1\}, \{1, 1, 2\}, \{2, 2\}, \{1, 3\}$. So output should be 4. For $N = 10$ and $S = \{2, 5, 3, 6\}$, there are five solutions: $\{2, 2, 2, 2, 2\}, \{2, 2, 3, 3\}, \{2, 2, 6\}, \{2, 3, 5\}$ and $\{5, 5\}$. So the output should be 5.

Change-Making Problem - GENERAL

- To count total number solutions, we can divide all set solutions in two sets.
 - 1) Solutions that do not contain m th coin (or S_m).
 - 2) Solutions that contain at least one S_m .

Let $\text{count}(S[], m, n)$ be the function to count the number of solutions, then it can be written as sum of $\text{count}(S[], m-1, n)$ and $\text{count}(S[], m, n-S_m)$.
- Therefore, the problem has optimal substructure property as the problem can be solved using solutions to subproblems.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

ALGORITHM *Dijkstra*(G, s)

//Dijkstra's algorithm for single-source shortest paths

//Input: A weighted connected graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ with nonnegative weights

// and its vertex s

//Output: The length d_v of a shortest path from s to v

// and its penultimate vertex p_v for every vertex v in V

Initialize(Q) //initialize priority queue to empty

for every vertex v in V

$d_v \leftarrow \infty$; $p_v \leftarrow \text{null}$

Insert(Q, v, d_v) //initialize vertex priority in the priority queue

$d_s \leftarrow 0$; *Decrease*(Q, s, d_s) //update priority of s with d_s

$V_T \leftarrow \emptyset$

for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $|V| - 1$ **do**

$u^* \leftarrow \text{DeleteMin}(Q)$ //delete the minimum priority element

$V_T \leftarrow V_T \cup \{u^*\}$

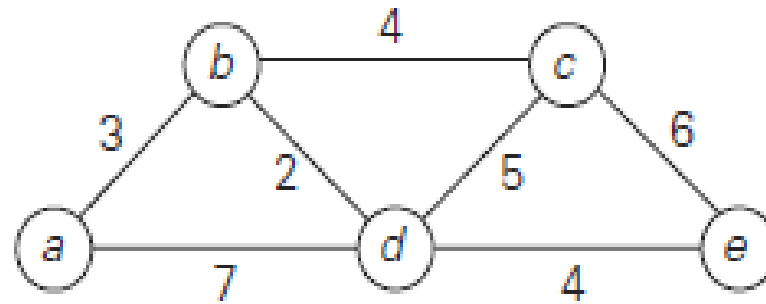
for every vertex u in $V - V_T$ that is adjacent to u^* **do**

if $d_{u^*} + w(u^*, u) < d_u$

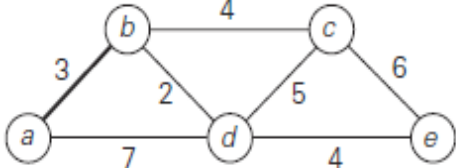
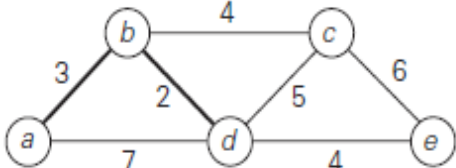
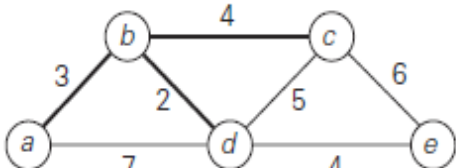
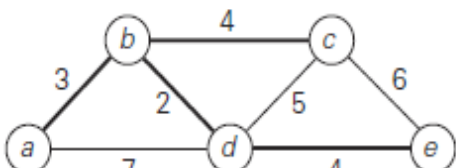
$d_u \leftarrow d_{u^*} + w(u^*, u)$; $p_u \leftarrow u^*$

Decrease(Q, u, d_u)

Dijkstra's Algorithm



Dijkstra's Algorithm

Tree vertices	Remaining vertices	Illustration
$a(-, 0)$	$b(a, 3) \ c(-, \infty) \ d(a, 7) \ e(-, \infty)$	
$b(a, 3)$	$c(b, 3 + 4) \ d(b, 3 + 2) \ e(-, \infty)$	
$d(b, 5)$	$c(b, 7) \ e(d, 5 + 4)$	
$c(b, 7)$	$e(d, 9)$	
$e(d, 9)$		

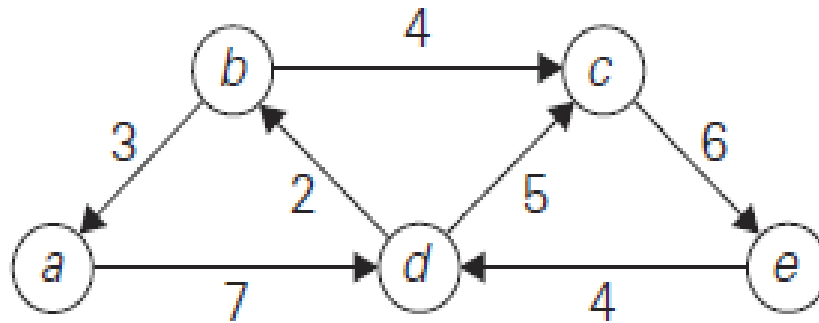
Dijkstra's Algorithm

The shortest paths (identified by following nonnumeric labels backward from a destination vertex in the left column to the source) and their lengths (given by numeric labels of the tree vertices) are as follows:

from a to b :	$a - b$	of length 3
from a to d :	$a - b - d$	of length 5
from a to c :	$a - b - c$	of length 7
from a to e :	$a - b - d - e$	of length 9

Exercises

- Find the shortest path in the figure starting from *a* and ending with another letter.



Exercises

- Find the shortest path in the figure starting from a and ending with another letter.

