

## Greedy Algorithms: An Introduction

- Optimization algorithms often involve choices at each step.
- Greedy algorithms make locally optimal decisions, aiming for a globally optimal solution.
- Effective for various optimization problems.
- Chapter explores greedy algorithms, comparing them to dynamic programming.

### Activity-Selection Problem

- Introduction to a nontrivial problem solved by a greedy algorithm.
- Initial dynamic programming approach, followed by the derivation of a greedy solution.

### Fundamentals of Greedy Approach

- Section highlights the basics of greedy algorithms.
- Direct method for proving the correctness of greedy algorithms.

### Applications

- Data-compression through Huffman codes as a practical use case.
- Optimality of the `furthest-in-future` strategy for cache block replacement.

### Versatility of Greedy Method

- Greedy method proves powerful in various algorithms.
- Examples include minimum-spanning-tree algorithms, Dijkstra's algorithm, and set-covering heuristic.

### Example: Activity-Selection Problem

Our first example is the activity-selection problem, where we aim to schedule competing activities that require exclusive use of a common resource. Consider a set  $S$  of proposed activities, each denoted by  $a_i$  with start time  $s_i$  and finish time  $f_i$ .

To solve this problem, we define a dynamic programming approach. Let  $c[i, j]$  represent the size of an optimal solution for the set  $S_{ij}$ , i.e., activities starting after  $a_i$  finishes and finishing before  $a_j$  starts.

| Activity | Start Time | Finish Time |
|----------|------------|-------------|
| $a_1$    | 1          | 4           |
| $a_2$    | 3          | 5           |
| $a_3$    | 0          | 6           |
| $a_4$    | 5          | 7           |
| $a_5$    | 3          | 9           |
| $a_6$    | 5          | 9           |
| $a_7$    | 6          | 10          |
| $a_8$    | 7          | 11          |
| $a_9$    | 8          | 12          |
| $a_{10}$ | 2          | 14          |
| $a_{11}$ | 12         | 16          |

Figure 1: Set of activities

$$c[i, j] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } S_{ij} = \emptyset \\ c[i, k] + c[k, j] + 1 & \text{otherwise, where } k \text{ is the first activity in } S_{ij} \end{cases}$$

This recurrence relation captures the optimal substructure of the activity-selection problem.

## Greedy Method for Activity-Selection

- **Greedy Choice:** Choose the activity that finishes first.
- **Reasoning:** Selecting the activity with the earliest finish time maximizes the availability of the resource for subsequent activities.
- **Top-Down Approach:** The algorithm works top-down, making a choice and then solving a subproblem, instead of a bottom-up technique.

## Recursive Greedy Algorithm

The following algorithm, **RECURSIVE-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR**, provides a top-down, recursive approach to solving the activity-selection problem.

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**Algorithm 1** RECURSIVE-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR

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1: function RECURSIVE-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR( $s, f, k, n$ )
2:    $m \leftarrow k + 1$ 
3:   while  $m \leq n$  and  $s[m] < f[k]$  do                                 $\triangleright$  Find the first activity in  $S_k$  to finish
4:      $m \leftarrow m + 1$ 
5:   end while
6:    $m \leftarrow m + 1$ 
7:   if  $m \leq n$  then
8:     return  $\{a_m\} \cup \text{RECURSIVE-ACTIVITY-SELECTOR}(s, f, m, n)$ 
9:   else
10:    return  $\emptyset$ 
11:  end if
12: end function
```

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## Huffman Codes

Huffman codes compress data well: savings of 20% to 90% are typical, depending on the characteristics of the data being compressed. The data arrive as a sequence of characters. Huffman's greedy algorithm uses a table giving how often each character occurs (its frequency) to build up an optimal way of representing each character as a binary string.

Suppose that you have a 100,000-character data file that you wish to store compactly and you know that the 6 distinct characters in the file occur with the frequencies given by Figure 15.4. The character  $a$  occurs 45,000 times, the character  $b$  occurs 13,000 times, and so on.

You have many options for how to represent such a file of information. Here, we consider the problem of designing a binary character code (or code for short) in which each character is represented by a unique binary string, which we call a codeword. If you use a fixed-length code, you need  $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil$  bits to represent  $n$  characters. For 6 characters, therefore, you need 3 bits:  $a = 000$ ,  $b = 001$ ,  $c = 010$ ,  $d = 011$ ,  $e = 100$ , and  $f = 101$ . This method requires 300,000 bits to encode the entire file. Can you do better?

A variable-length code can do considerably better than a fixed-length code. The idea is simple: give frequent characters short codewords and infrequent characters long codewords. Figure 15.4 shows such a code. Here, the 1-bit string 0 represents  $a$ , and the 4-bit string 1100 represents  $f$ . This code requires  $.45 \times 1 + 13 \times 3 + 12 \times 3 + 16 \times 3 + 9 \times 4 + 5 \times 4 = 224,000$  bits to represent the file, a savings of approximately 25%. In fact, this is an optimal character code for this file, as we shall see.

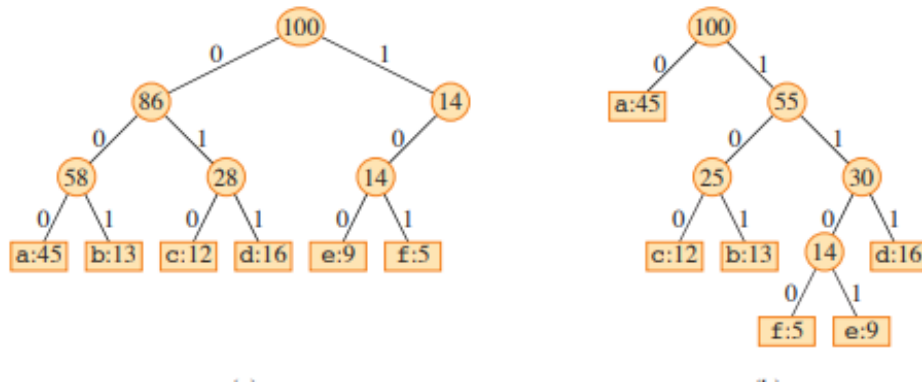


Figure 2: Huffman Tree

## Huffman Tree Construction

### Codewords

$a : 0$   
 $b : 100$   
 $c : 101$   
 $d : 110$   
 $e : 1110$   
 $f : 1111$

## Huffman Encoding

Original Text: aaabbbcccddeeeff

Huffman Encoded: 000000000111111111101010101011111111100000

### Representation of Prefix-Free Code:

1. A binary tree is used to represent the prefix-free code.
2. Leaves of the tree correspond to characters.
3. Codewords are formed by the path from the root to the leaves:
  - 0 means "go to the left child."
  - 1 means "go to the right child."

### Optimal Code and Full Binary Trees:

1. Optimal code is represented by a full binary tree.

2. In a full binary tree:
  - Every non-leaf node has two children.
  - The tree has exactly  $|C|$  leaves (characters) and  $|C| - 1$  internal nodes.

## Number of Bits Required:

1. For each character  $c$  in the alphabet  $C$ , let  $c : \text{freq}$  denote its frequency.
2. Let  $dT(c)$  be the depth of  $c$ 's leaf in the tree.
3. The number of bits required to encode a file is given by:

$$B(T) = \sum_{c \in C} c : \text{freq} \cdot dT(c)$$

## Huffman Code Construction Algorithm:

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### Algorithm 2 Huffman Code Construction

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```

1: procedure HUFFMAN( $C$ )
2:    $n \leftarrow |C|$ 
3:    $Q \leftarrow C$ 
4:   for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - 1$  do
5:      $\leftarrow$  Allocate a new node
6:      $x \leftarrow \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$ 
7:      $y \leftarrow \text{EXTRACT-MIN}(Q)$ 
8:     : left  $\leftarrow x$ 
9:     : right  $\leftarrow y$ 
10:    : freq  $\leftarrow x : \text{freq} + y : \text{freq}$ 
11:    INSERT( $Q$ , )
12:  end for
13:  return EXTRACT-MIN( $Q$ ) ▷ Root of the tree is the only node left
14: end procedure

```

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