

Greedy Technique

CS3230: Design and Analysis of Algorithms

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Chapter 9: Greedy Technique

- “ ‘Greed,’ for lack of a better word, is good!”
 - Michael Douglas, US actor in the role of Gordon Gecko, in the film *Wall Street*, 1987.



Change Making Problem

- How to make 48 cents of change using coins of denominations of 25 cents (quarter), 10 cents (dime), 5 cents (nickel), and 1 cent (penny) so that the total number of coins is the smallest?
- The idea:
 - Make the locally best choice at each step
- A: 1 quarter, 2 dimes, and 3 pennies
- Q: Is the solution optimal?

Greedy Strategy (1)

- A greedy algorithm makes a **locally optimal** choice in the hope that this choice will lead to a **globally optimal** solution.
- The choice made at each step must be:
 - **Feasible**
 - Satisfy the problem's constraints
 - **Locally optimal**
 - Be the best local choice among all feasible choices
 - **Irrevocable**
 - Once made, the choice cannot be changed on subsequent steps

Greedy Strategy (2)

- Q: Do greedy algorithms always yield optimal solutions?
 - Example of 46 cents: change making problem with a denomination set of 7, 5, and 1?
- Additional reference: MIT Textbook.

Example: Coin Denominations [Dr. Ecco; Dennis Shasha]

- How would you design the coin denominations for a country, assuming that the average number of coins needed for a purchase should be as small as possible?
- Notation: $NC(v)$ represents the number of coins for a specific value v .
- Need to be able to represent from 1 cent to 99 cents.
- Example 1: 2 coins \Rightarrow 1 cent and 10 cents.
 - E.g.: $NC(71) = 8$, $NC(99) = 18$.
 - The average number of coins would be:
 - $NC_{avg} = (\sum_{v=1}^{99} NC(v))/99 = 9.1$.

Example: Coin Denominations [Dr. Ecco; Dennis Shasha]

- Q1: What would be the best set of denominations that consist of:
 - 3 coin values, including a 1 cent coin?
 - 4 coin values, including a 1 cent coin?
 - 5 coin values, including a 1 cent coin?
 - 6 coin values, including a 1 cent coin?
- Q2: With the optimal coin denominations (i.e., the average number of coins needed for a purchase is minimal), does a greedy strategy to count out money work?
- Assumption: The number of cents of all purchase prices is uniformly distributed between $1, \dots, 99$.

Example: Coin Denominations [Dr. Ecco; Dennis Shasha]

- 3 coin values: 1, 5, 22 or 1, 5, 23, $NC_{avg} = 5.3131\dots$
Greedy strategy **works**.
- 3 coin values: 1, 12, 19, $NC_{avg} = 5.2020\dots$
Greedy strategy **does not work**.
- 4 coin values: 1, 3, 11, 37 or 1, 3, 11, 38, $NC_{avg} = 4.1414\dots$
Greedy strategy **works**.
- 4 coin values: 1, 5, 18, 25, $NC_{avg} = 3.9292\dots$
Greedy strategy **does not work**.
- 5 coin values: 1, 3, 7, 16, 40, $NC_{avg} = 3.4949\dots$
Greedy strategy **works**.
- 5 coin values: 1, 5, 16, 23, 33, $NC_{avg} = 3.3232\dots$
Greedy strategy **does not work**.

Applications of Greedy Strategy

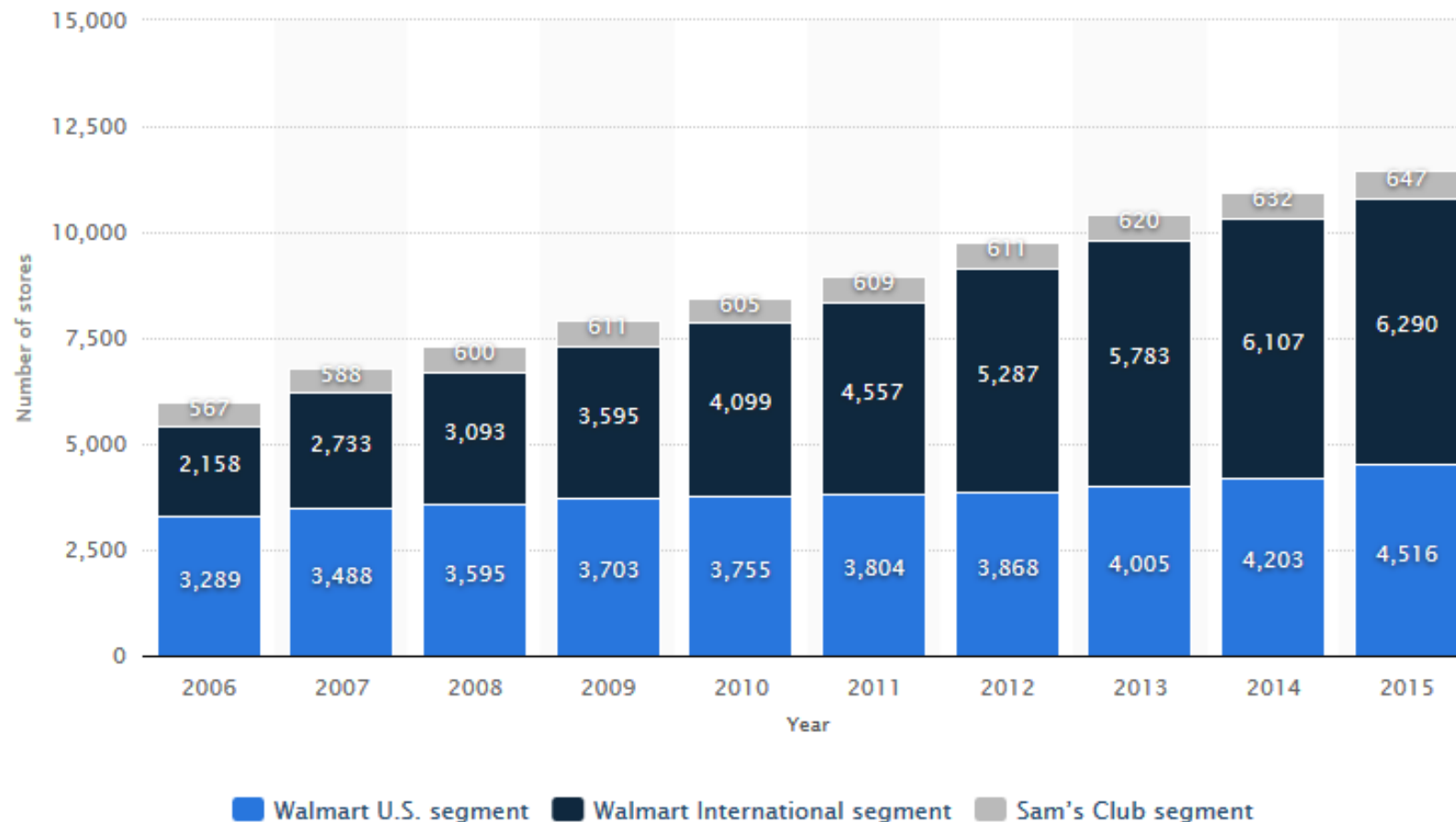
- Optimal solutions:
 - Change making, but **only** with some denominations
 - Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)
 - Single-source shortest paths
 - Huffman codes
- Approximations:
 - Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)
 - Knapsack problem
 - Other optimization problems

Approximations

- Q: Why may it be interesting to have a slightly “incorrect” (*i.e.*, approximate) solution?
- Tradeoff: **time** versus **accuracy**.
- Some problems are difficult to solve within acceptable time for any practical input size.
- Examples:
 - Class of \mathcal{NP} -hard problems
 - Weather forecast
 - Computations on very large data sets: e.g., data warehousing

Approximations

- Ex.: Walmart data warehousing. Chart shows no. of stores.



Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)

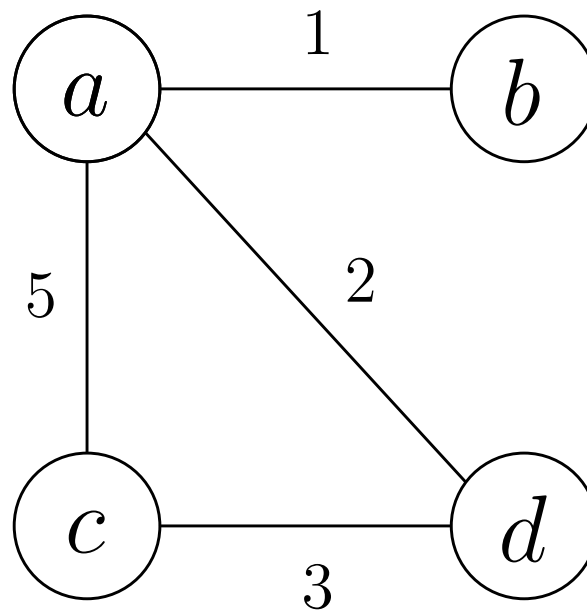
- **Spanning Tree** of a connected graph G : a connected, acyclic subgraph (tree) of G that includes all of G 's vertices.
- **Minimum Spanning Tree** of a weighted, connected graph G : a spanning tree of G of minimum total weight.

Other Spanning Trees (MST)

- **k -Minimum Spanning Tree** (k -MST) is a tree that spans some subset of k vertices in the graph with minimum weight.
- **Euclidean Minimum Spanning Tree** is a spanning tree of a graph with edge weights corresponding to the Euclidean distance between vertices.
- **Degree-constrained Minimum Spanning Tree** (d-MST) is minimum spanning tree whose degree at every vertex is limited by some constraint. The d-MST problem is \mathcal{NP} -complete.

Example Spanning Tree

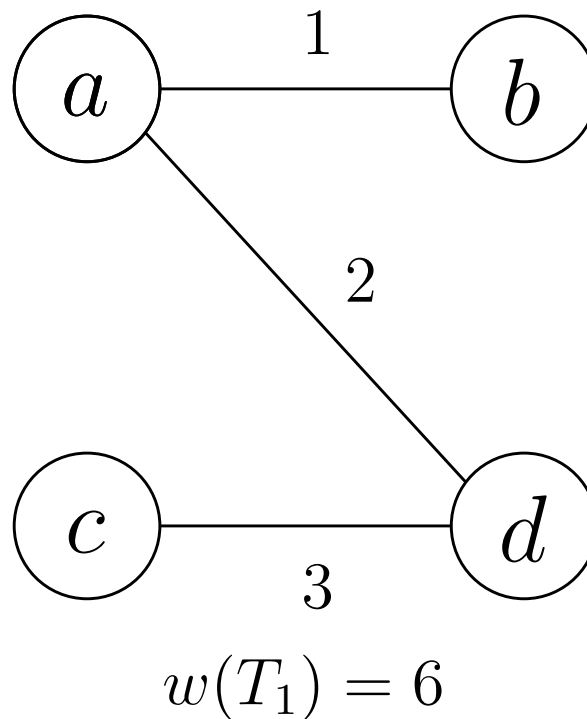
- Graph and its spanning trees; T_1 is the minimum spanning tree.



Graph

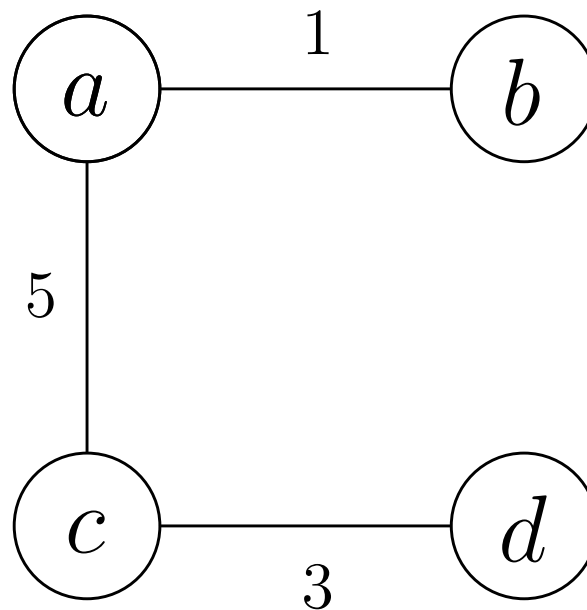
Example Spanning Tree

- Graph and its spanning trees; T_1 is the minimum spanning tree.



Example Spanning Tree

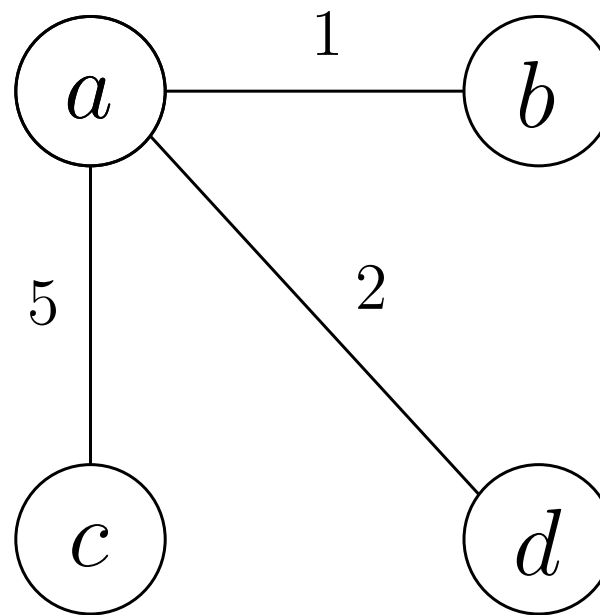
- Graph and its spanning trees; T_1 is the minimum spanning tree.



$$w(T_2) = 9$$

Example Spanning Tree

- Graph and its spanning trees; T_1 is the minimum spanning tree.



$$w(T_3) = 8$$

Prim's MST Algorithm

- Start with a tree, T_0 , consisting of one vertex.
- “Grow” the tree one vertex/edge at a time.
 - Construct a series of expanding subtrees T_1, T_2, \dots, T_{n-1} .
 - At each stage: **construct T_{i+1} from T_i** in a greedy manner by attaching to it the **nearest vertex** not in that tree.
 - Definition of *nearest vertex*: a vertex not in the tree connected to a vertex in the tree by an edge of the **smallest weight**.
- Algorithm stops when all vertices are included.

Prim's MST Algorithm

PRIM (G)

// Input: a weighted connected graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$

// Output: E_T , the set of edges composing the MST of G

$V_T \leftarrow \{v_0\}$

$E_T \leftarrow \emptyset$

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

 find a minimum-weight edge $e^* = (v^*, u^*)$ among all
 edges (v, u) such that v is in V_T and u is in $V - V_T$

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

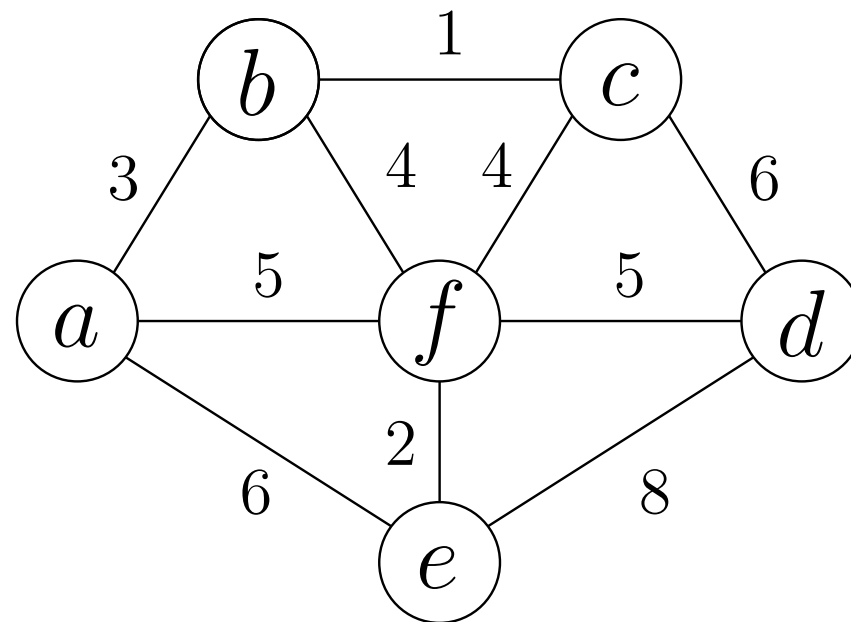
$E_T \leftarrow E_T \cup \{e^*\}$

od

return E_T

Example Prim

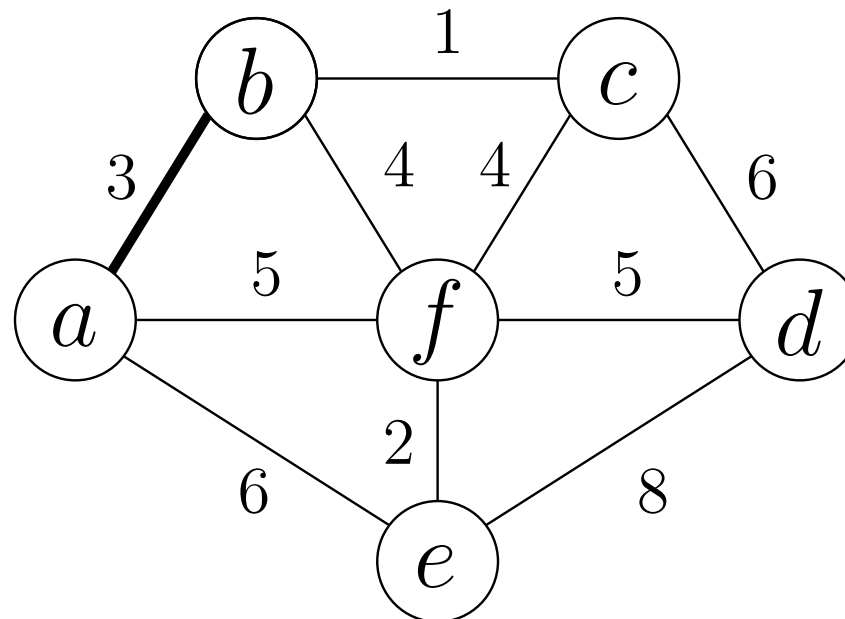
- Starting vertex: a



Graph

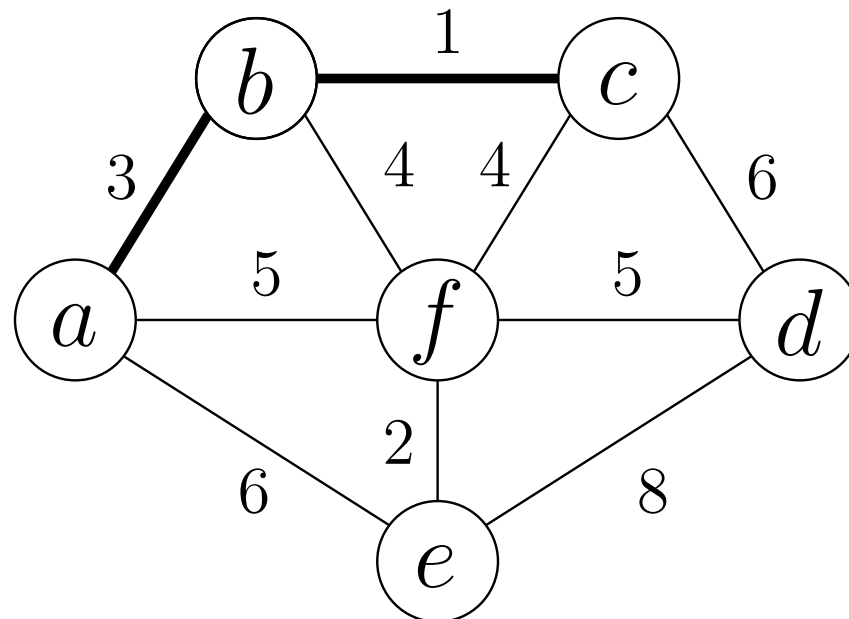
Example Prim

- Tree vertices: $a(-,-)$
- Remaining vertices: $b(a,3)$, $c(-,\infty)$, $d(-,\infty)$, $e(a,6)$, $f(a,5)$



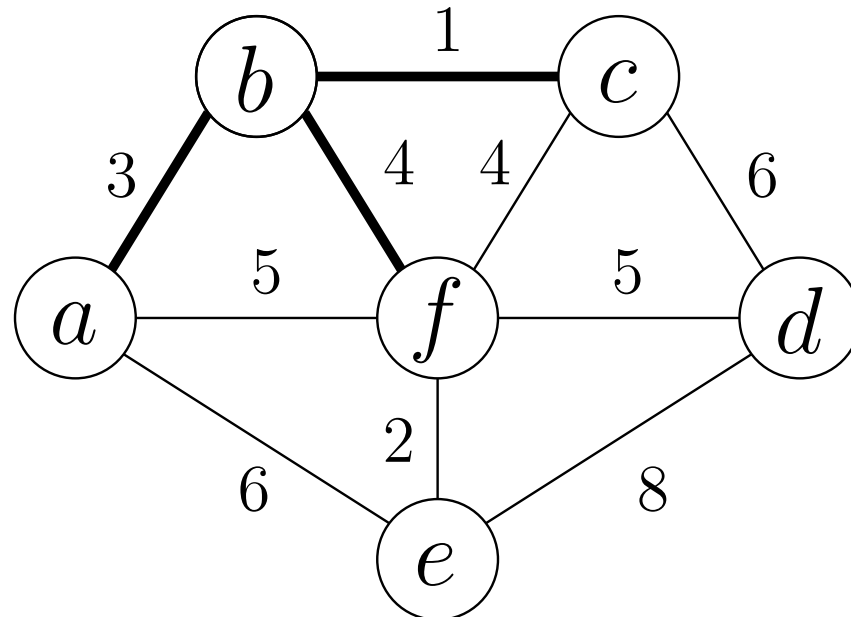
Example Prim

- Tree vertices: $b(a,3)$
- Remaining vertices: $c(b,1)$, $d(-,\infty)$, $e(a,6)$, $f(b,4)$



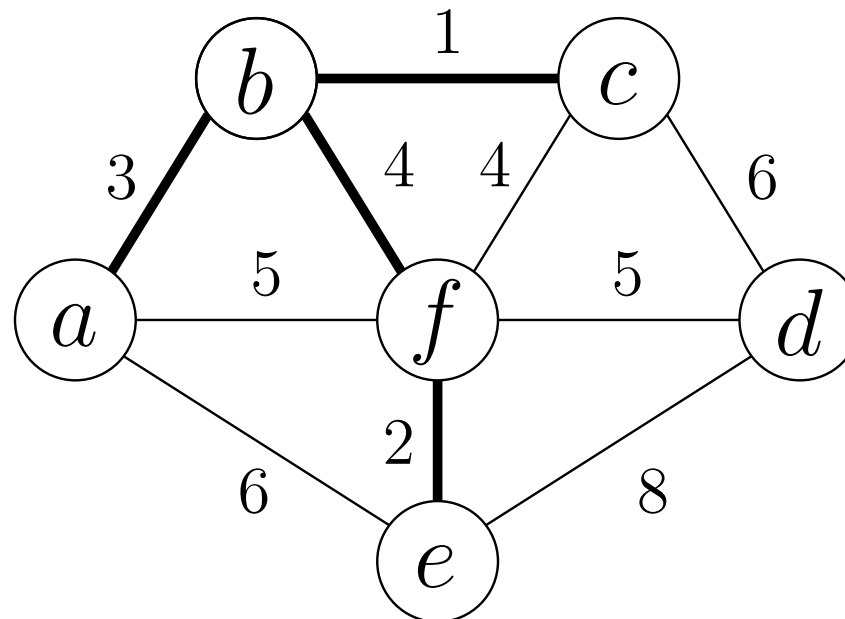
Example Prim

- Tree vertices: $c(b,1)$
- Remaining vertices: $d(c,6)$, $e(a,6)$, $f(b,4)$



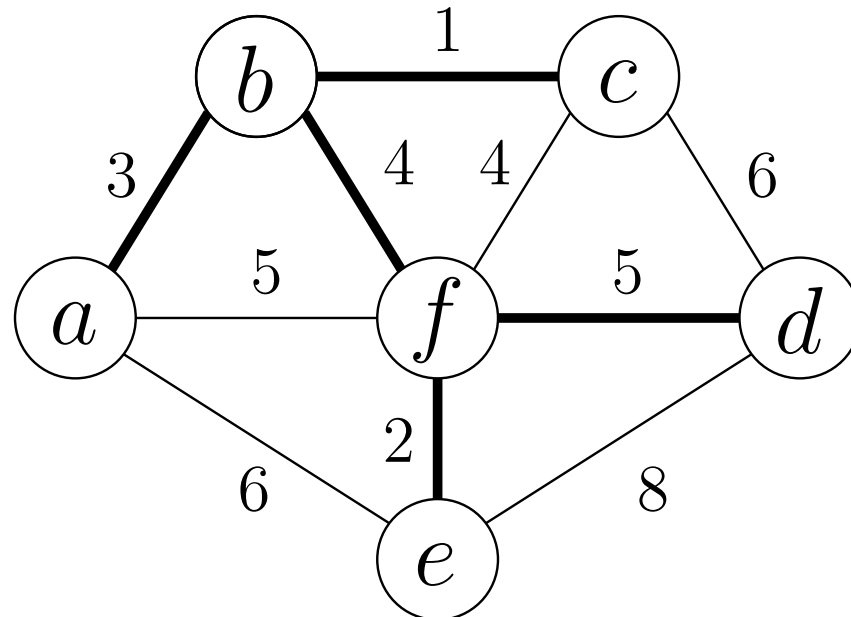
Example Prim

- Tree vertices: $f(b,4)$
- Remaining vertices: $d(f,5)$, $e(f,2)$



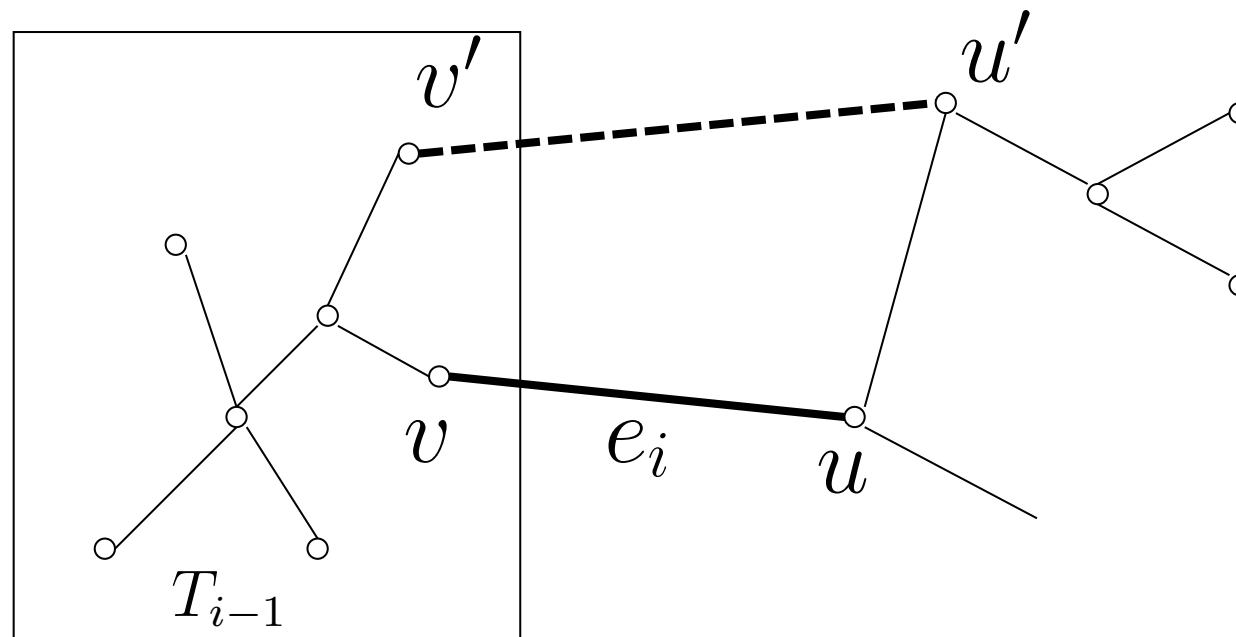
Example Prim

- Tree vertices: $e(f, 2)$
- Remaining vertices: $d(f, 5)$



Correctness

- Proved by induction and contradiction, page 312 of textbook.



Proof Sketch (1)

- Prove by induction that each of the subtrees $T_i, i = 0, \dots, n - 1$, generated by Prim's algorithm is a part (i.e., a subgraph) of some minimum spanning tree.
- Assume T_{i-1} is part of some minimum spanning tree T .
- Need to prove that T_i (generated with Prim's) is also part of a minimum spanning tree.
- Proof by contradiction: assume no spanning tree contains T_i .
- Let $e_i = (v, u)$ be the minimum weight edge from a vertex in T_{i-1} to a vertex not in T_{i-1} , used by Prim's.
- By our assumption e_i cannot belong to the minimum spanning tree T .

Proof Sketch (2)

- Therefore, if we add e_i to T , a cycle must be formed.
- This cycle must contain another edge (v', u') connecting a vertex $v' \in T_{i-1}$ to a vertex u' that is not in T_{i-1} .
- If we now delete edge (v', u') from this cycle, we obtain another spanning tree whose weight is less than or equal to the weight of T since the weight of e_i is less than or equal to the weight of (v', u') .
- Hence this spanning tree is a minimum spanning tree, which contradicts our assumption that no minimum spanning tree contains T_i .

Efficiency

- Locating the nearest vertex:
 - Use unordered array to store the **priority queue**: $\Theta(|V|^2)$
 - Use **min-heap** to store the priority queue:
 $(|V| - 1 + |E|)O(\log |V|) = O(|E| \log |V|)$

Another Greedy Algorithm for MST: Kruskal

- Edges are initially sorted by increasing weight.
- Start with a forest of $|V|$ isolated vertices.
- “Grow” MST one edge at a time
 - Intermediate stages have forest of trees (not connected).
- At each stage add **minimum weight edge** among those not yet used that does not create a cycle.
 - At each stage the edge may:
 - Expand an existing tree.
 - Combine two existing trees into a single tree.
 - Create a new tree.
- Algorithms stops when all vertices are included.

Kruskal's Algorithm

KRUSKAL (G)

// Input: a weighted connected graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$

// Output: E_T , the set of edges composing the MST of G

Sort E in non-decreasing order of the edge weights

$$w(e_{i_1}) \leq \dots \leq w(e_{i_{|E|}})$$

$E_T \leftarrow \emptyset$, $ecounter \leftarrow 0$, $k \leftarrow 0$

while $ecounter < |V| - 1$ **do**

$k \leftarrow k + 1$

if $E_T \cup \{e_{i_k}\}$ **is acyclic**

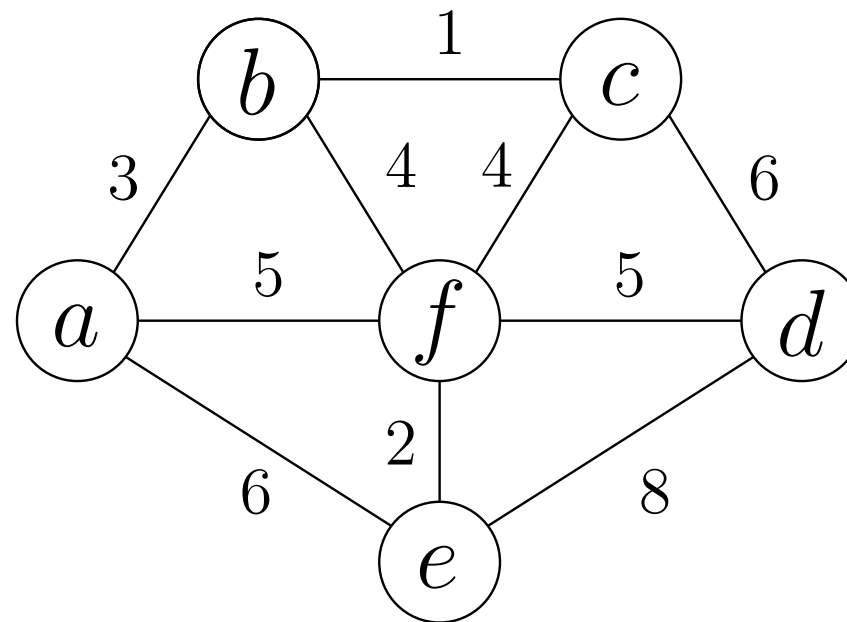
$E_T \leftarrow E_T \cup \{e_{i_k}\}$; $ecounter \leftarrow ecounter + 1$

od

return E_T

Example Kruskal

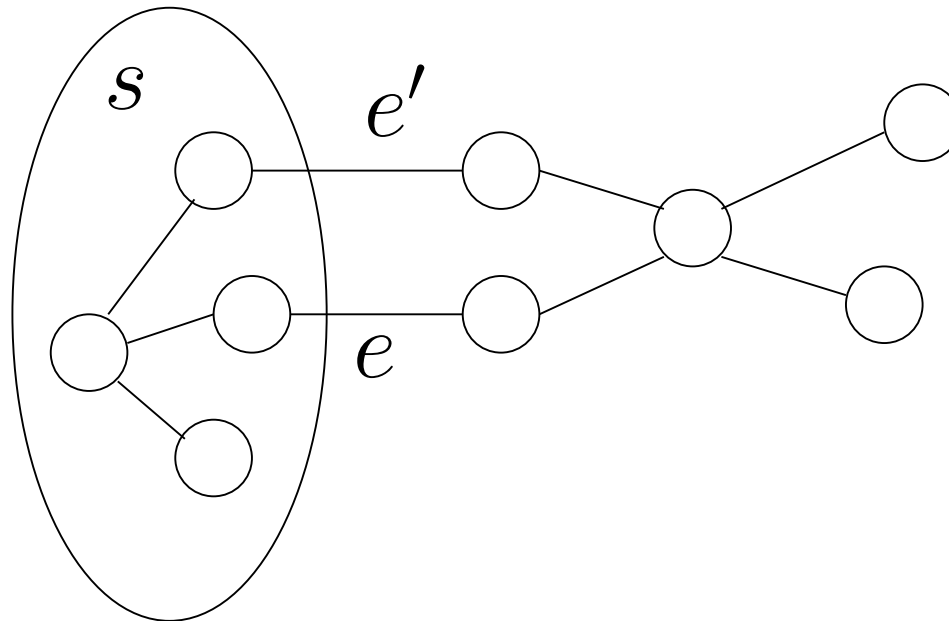
- Sorted edges: bc 1, ef 2, ab 3, bf 4, cf 4, af 5, df 5, ae 6, cd 6, de 8



Graph

Correctness

- $w(e)$: the smallest

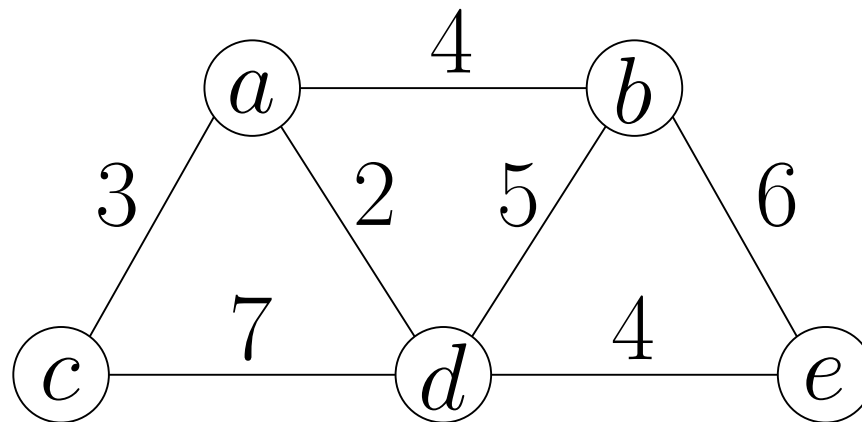


Efficiency

- Start from a forest with $|V|$ isolated vertices, find next edge (u, v) from the sorted edge list, if u and v belong to 2 different trees, add edge.
- Union find algorithm (page 317)
 $O(n + m \log n)$, n unions, m found.
- Kruskal's algorithm is dominated by the time sorting the edges by their weight:
 $O(|E| \log |E|)$

Shortest Paths – Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Shortest Path Problems:
 - All pair shortest paths (Floyd's algorithm).
 - Single source shortest path problem (Dijkstra's algorithm):
Given a weighted graph G , find the shortest paths from a source vertex s to each of the other vertices.



Prim's and Dijkstra's Algorithms

- Generate different kinds of spanning trees.
 - Prim's: a minimum spanning tree.
 - Dijkstra's: a spanning tree rooted at a given source s , such that the distance from s to every other vertex is the shortest.
- Different greedy strategies:
 - Prim's: always choose the closest (to the tree) vertex in the priority Q to add to the expanding tree V_T .
 - Dijkstra's: always choose the closest (to the source) vertex in the priority queue Q to add to the expanding tree V_T .

Prim's and Dijkstra's Algorithms

- Different labels for each vertex:
 - Prim's: parent vertex and the distance from the tree to the vertex.
 - Dijkstra's: parent vertex and the distance from the source to the vertex.

Shortest Paths – Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Dijkstra's algorithm: Similar to Prim's MST algorithm, with the following difference:
 - Start with a tree, T_0 , consisting of one vertex.
 - “Grow” the tree one vertex/edge at a time.
 - Construct a series of expanding subtrees T_1, T_2, \dots
 - Keep track of shortest path from source to each of the vertices in T_i .
 - At each stage: construct T_{i+1} from T_i : add edge (u^*, u) with the lowest $d_{u^*} + w(u^*, u)$ connecting a vertex in tree (T_i) to one not yet in the tree.
 - Choose from “fringe” edges (\Rightarrow “greedy” step!).
- Algorithm stops when all vertices are included.

Dijkstra's Algorithm (1)

DIJKSTRA (G, s)

// Input: a weighted connected graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ and a
// source vertex s .

// Output: The length d_v of the shortest path from s to v
// and its penultimate vertex p_v for every vertex v in V .

INITIALIZE(Q) // Initialize vertex priority queue to empty.

for every vertex v in V do

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

 INSERT(Q, v, d_v) // Init. vertex priority in the priority queue.

od

$d_s \leftarrow 0$; DECREASE(Q, s, d_s) // Update priority of s with d_s .

$V_T \leftarrow \emptyset$

Dijkstra's Algorithm (2)

```
// DIJKSTRA (  $G, s$  ) (cont.)
for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $|V| - 1$  do
     $u^* \leftarrow \text{DELETEMIN}(Q)$     // Delete the min. priority element.
     $V_T \leftarrow V_T \cup \{u^*\}$ 
    for every vertex  $u$  in  $V - V_T$  that is adjacent to  $u^*$  do
        if  $d_{u^*} + w(u^*, u) < d_u$ 
             $d_u \leftarrow d_{u^*} + w(u^*, u); p_u \leftarrow u^*$ 
             $\text{DECREASE}(Q, u, d_u)$     // Update priority of  $u$  with  $d_u$ .
        fi
    od
od
```


Dijkstra's Algorithm (3)

- Pseudo-code algorithm:

color all vertices **yellow**

for each vertex w do

$distance(w) \leftarrow \infty$

$distance(s) \leftarrow 0$

while there are **yellow** vertices do

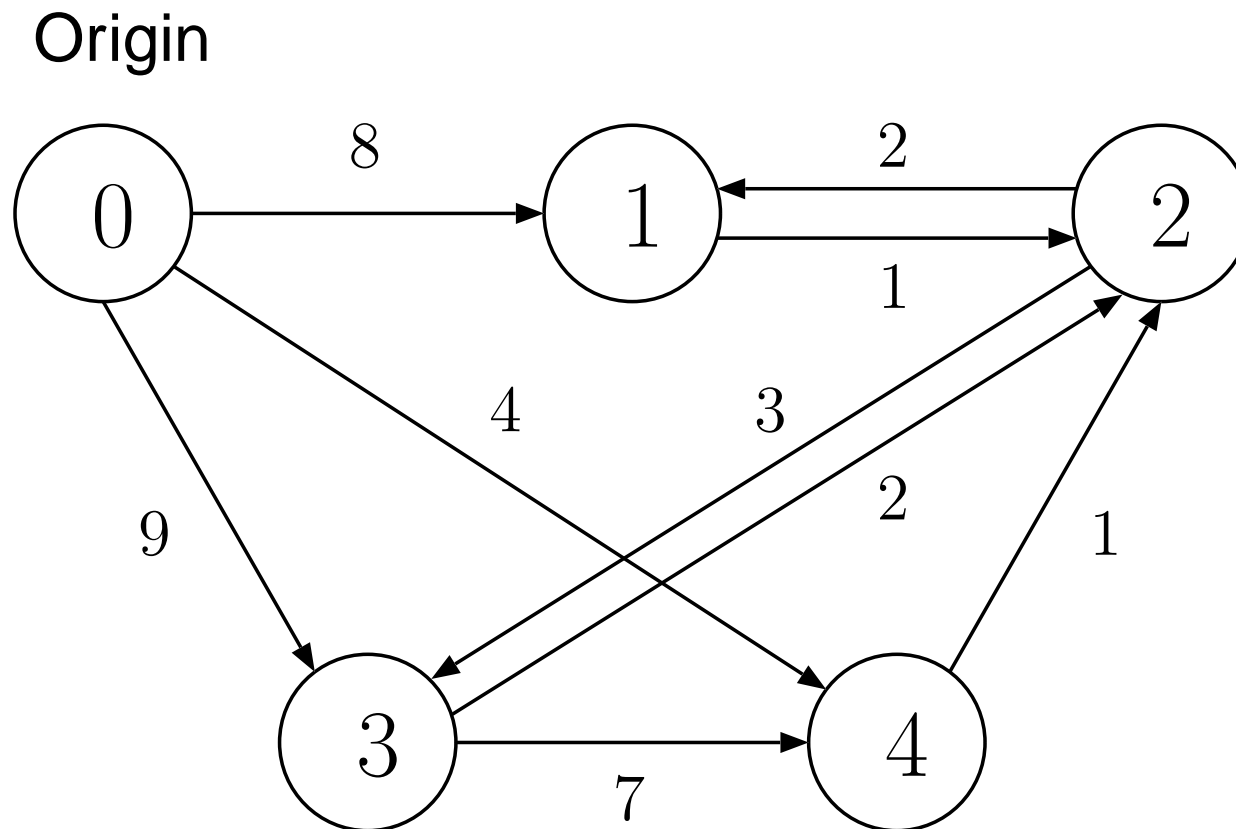
$v \leftarrow$ **yellow** vertex with min $distance(v)$

color v **red**

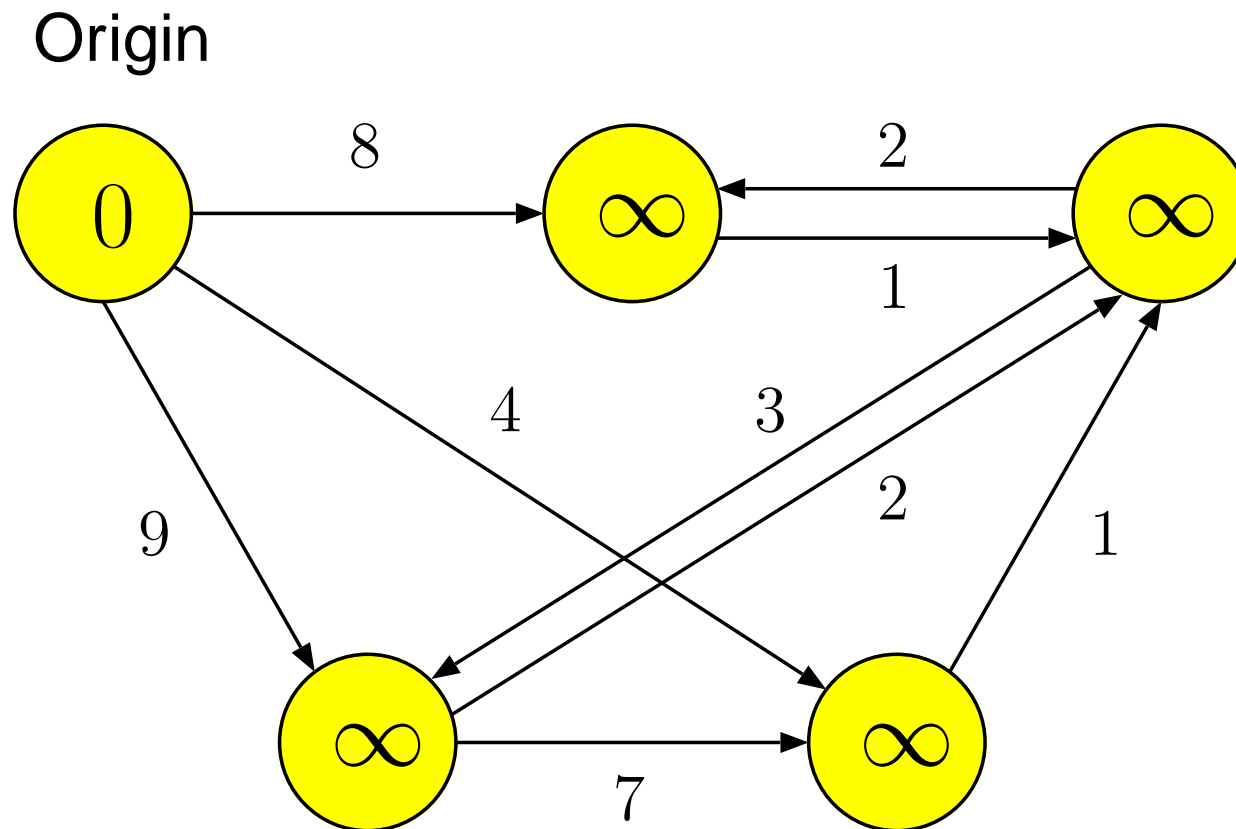
for each neighbor w of v

$relax(v, w)$

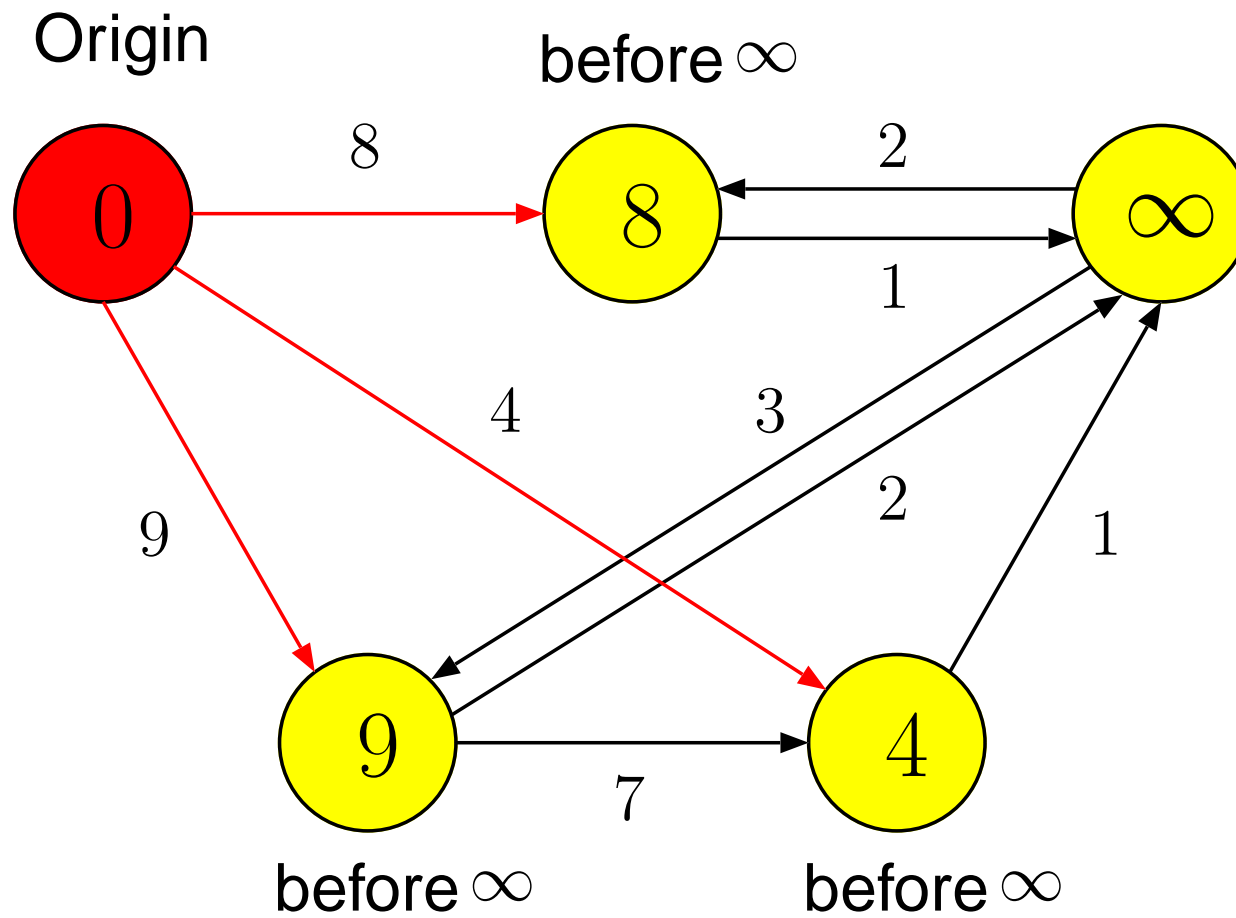
Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm



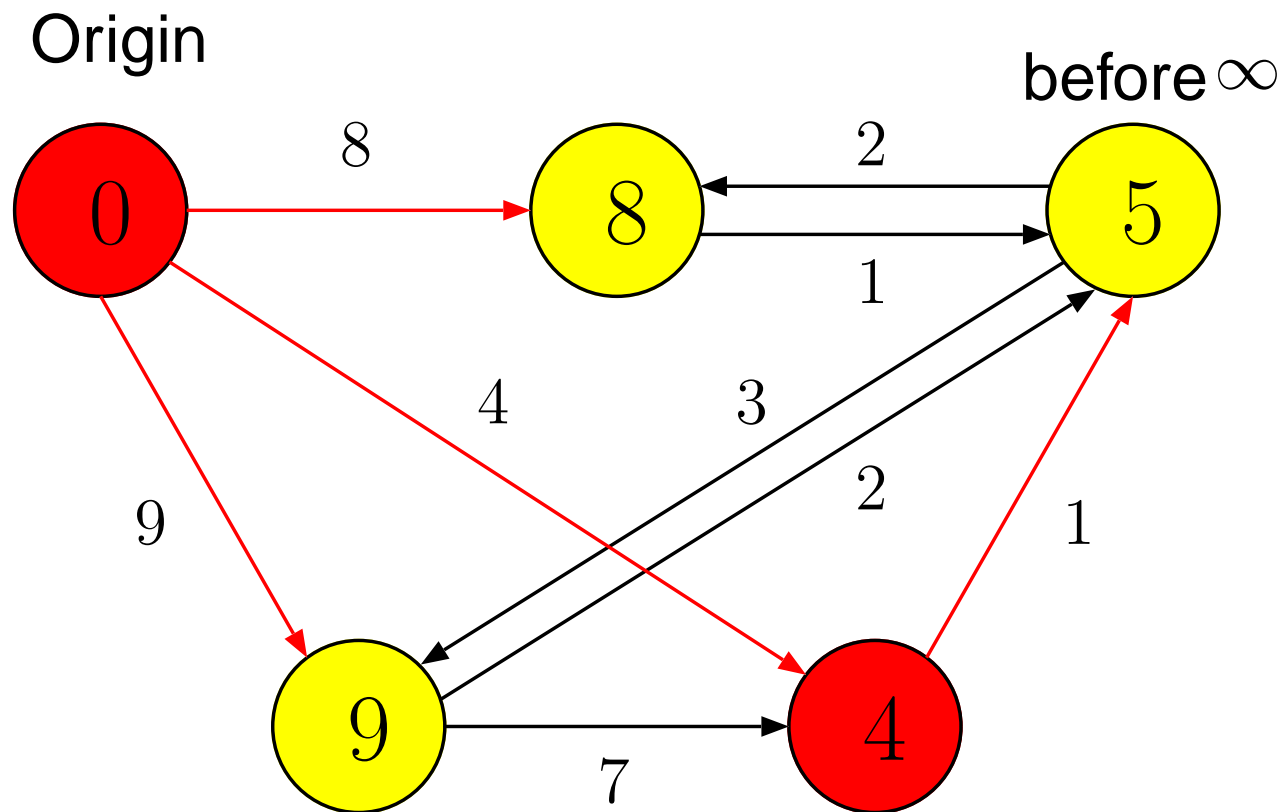
Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm



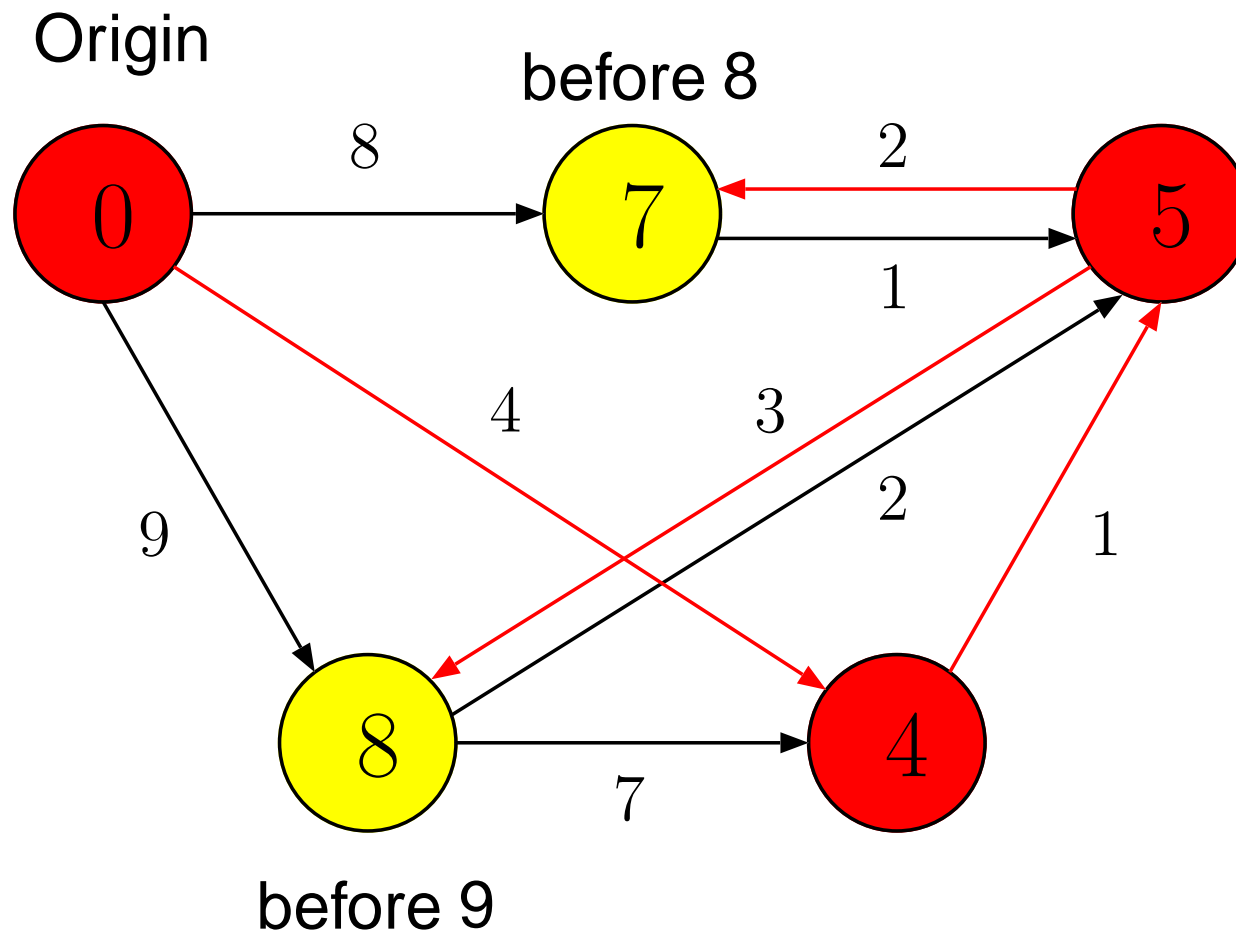
Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm



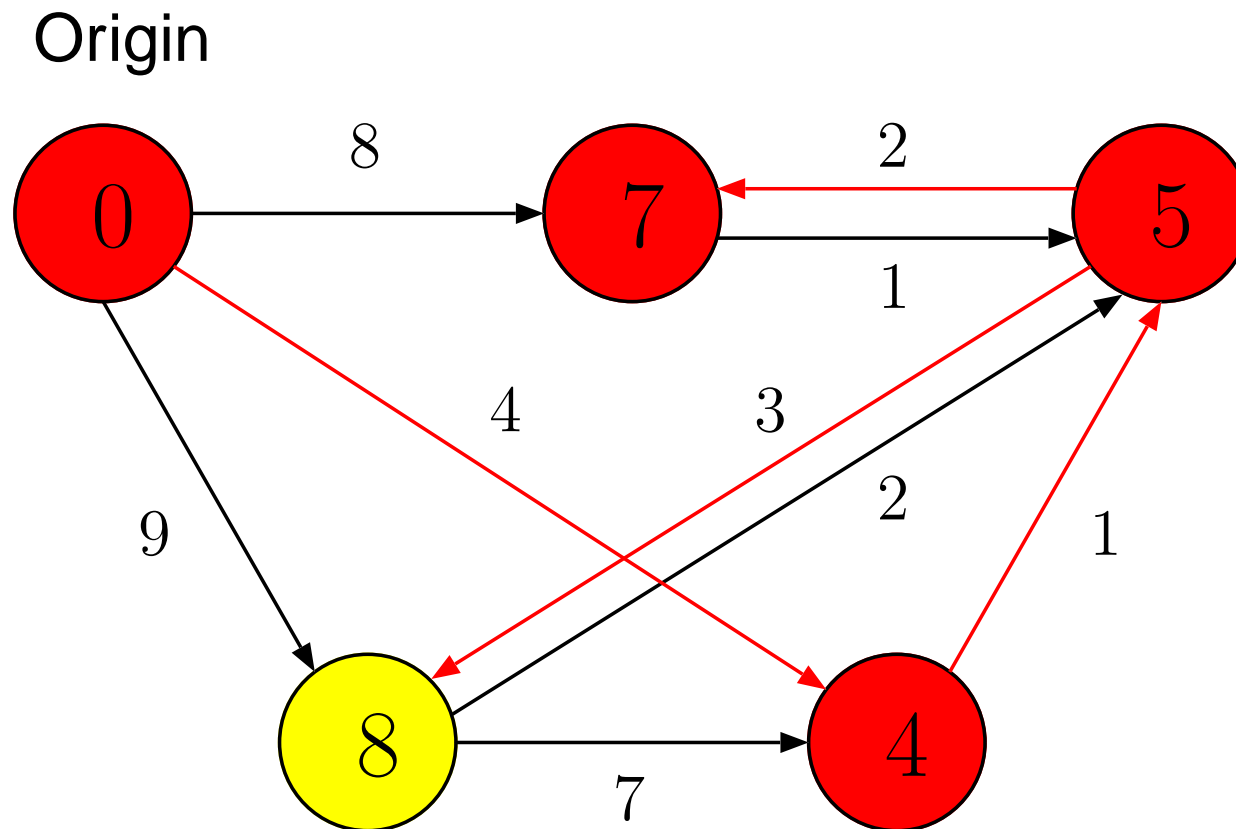
Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm



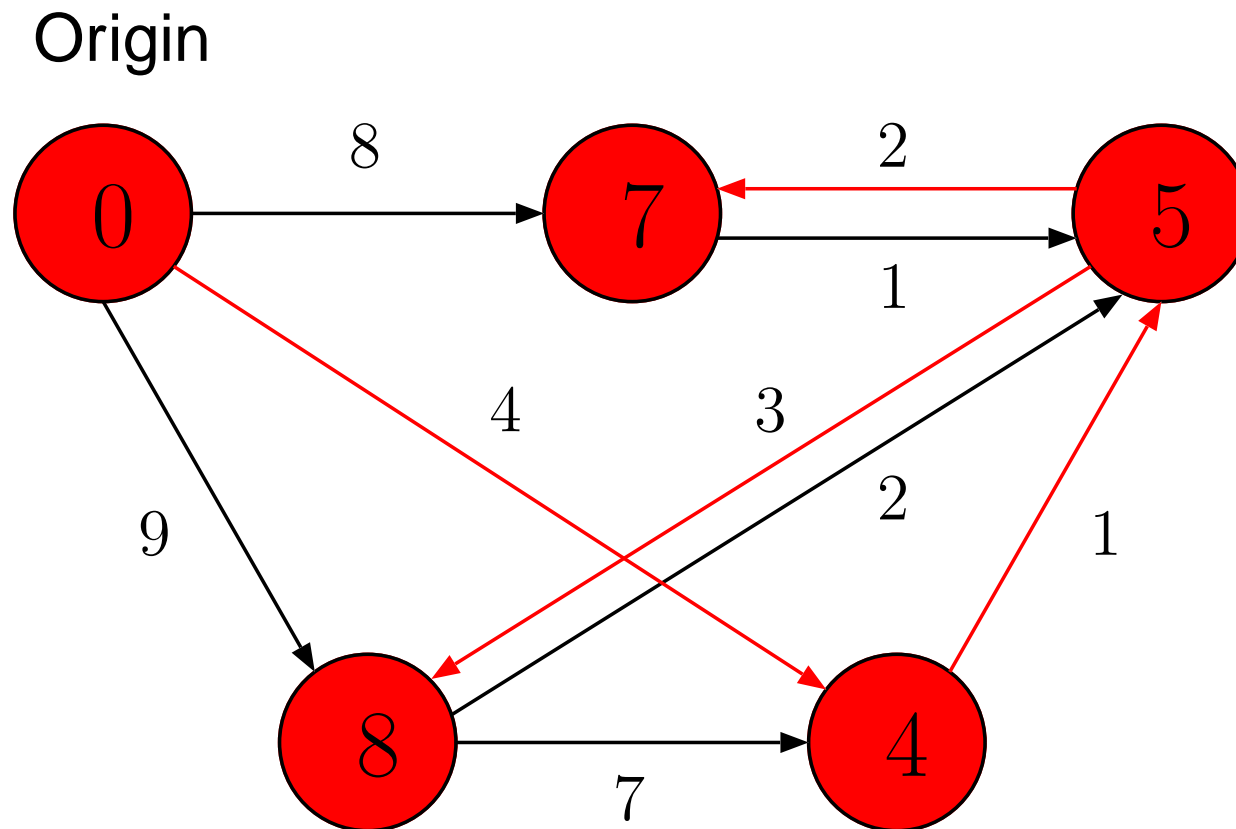
Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm



Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm

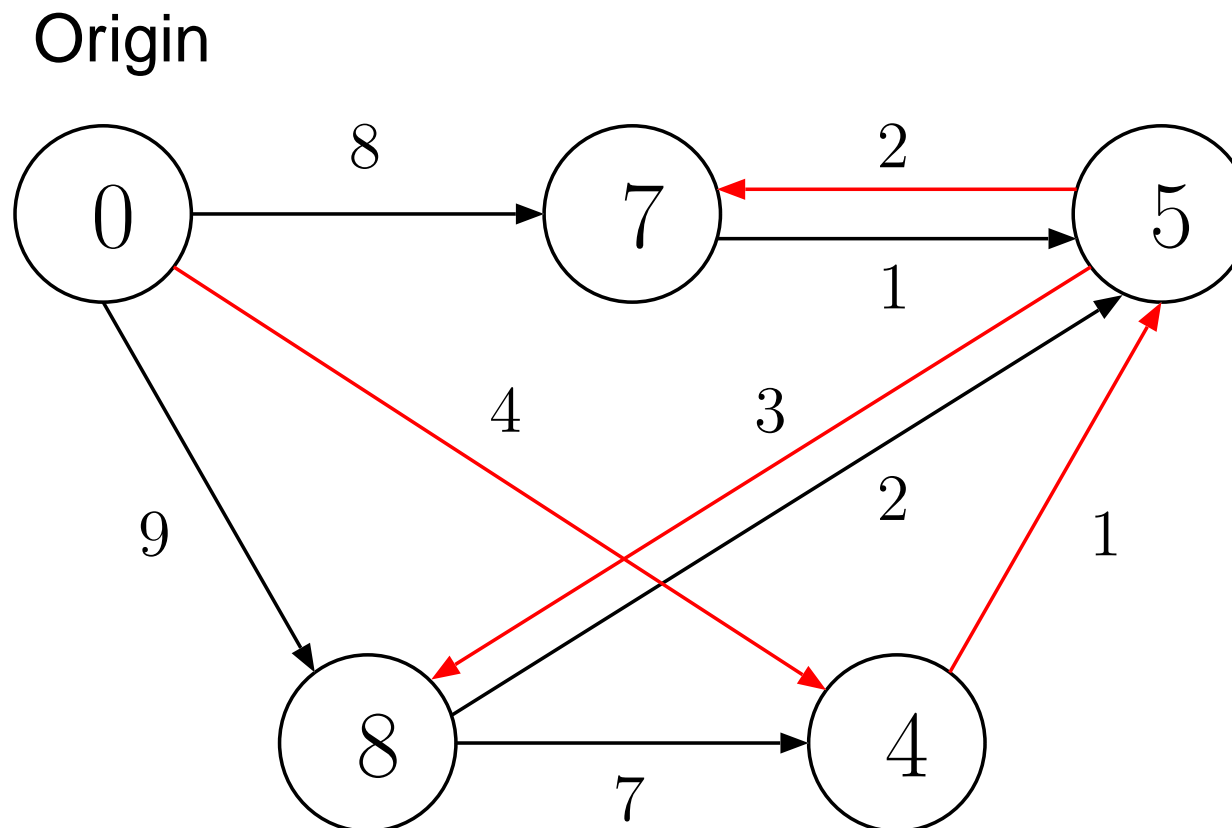


Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm



Example – Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Final solution:



Efficiency

- Using weight matrix: $\Theta(|V|^2)$.
- Using adjacency list and min-heap: $O(|E| \log |V|)$.

Some Notes on Dijkstra's Algorithm

- Used in Internet routing protocols, such as OSPF (Open Shortest Path First).
- OSPF is used in interior gateway protocols (e.g., within an enterprise).
- OSPF detects changes in topology (e.g., link failures) and creates a loop-free routing topology very quickly.

Take Away Message on Greedy Techniques

- A greedy algorithm makes a **locally optimal** choice in the hope that this choice will lead to a **globally optimal** solution.
- The choice made at each step must be:
 - **Feasible**
 - Satisfy the problem's constraints
 - **Locally optimal**
 - Be the best local choice among all feasible choices
 - **Irrevocable**
 - Once made, the choice cannot be changed on subsequent steps