

# Greedy Algorithms

## Coin Change Problem

(Class 23)

# Greedy Algorithm

- An optimization problem is one in which you want to find, not just a solution, but the best solution.
- Search techniques look at many possible solutions. E.g., dynamic programming or backtrack search.
- A “greedy algorithm” sometimes works well for optimization problems.

- A greedy algorithm works in phases.
- At each phase:
  - You take the best you can get right now, without regard for future consequences.
  - You hope that by choosing a local optimum at each step, you will end up at a global optimum.

- For some problems, greedy approach always gets optimum.
- For others, greedy finds good, but not always best.
- If so, it is called a greedy heuristic, or approximation.
- For still others, greedy approach can do very poorly.

# Example: Counting Money

- Suppose you want to count out a certain amount of money, using the fewest possible bills (notes) and coins.
- A greedy algorithm to do this would be:
- At each step, take the largest possible note or coin that does not overshoot.

```
while (N > 0)
{
    give largest denomination coin  $\leq$  N    // N is the total money we want to give
    reduce N by value of that coin
}
```

- Consider the currency in U.S.A.
- There are paper notes for one dollar, five dollars, ten dollars, twenty dollars, fifty dollars and hundred dollars.
- The notes are also called “bills”.

- The coins are one cent, five cents (called a “nickel”), ten cents (called a “dime”) and twenty-five cents (a “quarter”).
- In Pakistan, the currency notes are ten rupees, fifty rupees, hundred rupees, five hundred rupees and thousand rupees.
- The coins are one rupee and five rupees.

- Suppose you are asked to give change of \$6.39 (six dollars and thirty-nine cents), you can choose:
  - a \$5 note
  - a \$1 note to make \$6
  - a 25 cents coin (quarter), to make \$6.25
  - a 10 cents coin (dime), to make \$6.35
  - four 1 cent coins, to make \$6.39



- Notice how we started with the highest note, \$5, before moving to the next lower denomination.
- Formally, the Coin Change problem is stated as:
  - Given  $k$  denominations  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_k$  and given  $N$ , find a way of writing:

$$N = i_1 d_1 + i_2 d_2 + \dots + i_k d_k$$

- such that

$$i_1 + i_2 + \dots + i_k \text{ is minimized}$$

- The “size” of problem is  $k$  (we have total  $k$  types of coins).
- The greedy strategy works for the coin change problem but not always.

- Here is an example where it fails.
- Suppose we have 1 rupee, 7 rupees, and 10 rupees coins.
- Using a greedy algorithm to count out 15 rupees, you would get:
  - A 10 rupees piece
  - Five 1-rupee coins, for a total of 15 rupees.
- This requires total six coins.

- A better solution, however, would be to use two 7 rupees coins and one 1-rupee coin.
- This only requires three coins.
- In this case, greedy algorithm results in a solution, but not in an optimal solution.

# When Greedy Strategy works for Coin Change Problem?

- The greedy approach gives us an optimal solution when the coins are all powers of a fixed denomination.

$$N = i_0D^0 + i_1D^1 + i_2D^2 + \dots + i_kD^k$$

- Note that this is  $N$  represented in based  $D$ .

- U.S.A coins are multiples of 5:
  - 5 cents – nickel – ( $5^1$ )
  - 10 cents – dime – (multiple of 5;  $5 \times 2$ )
  - 25 cents – quarter – ( $5^2$ )
- Coins should be multiple or power of a fixed base then the greedy algorithm will work optimally.
- If denominations not multiple or power of a fixed base then we have to use dynamic programming approach.

# Making Change: Dynamic Programming Solution

- The general coin change problem can also be solved using Dynamic Programming.
- Set up a Table,  $C[1..k, 0..N]$ .
- $k$  are the denominations.
- $N$  is the total amount we have to return in the form of coins.

- Where the rows denote available denominations,  $d_i$  where  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .
- And columns denote the amount from 0 ...  $N$  units where  $0 \leq j \leq N$ .
- $C[i, j]$  denotes the minimum number of coins, required to pay an amount  $j$  using only coins of denominations 1 to  $i$ .
- $C[k, N]$  is the solution required.

- To pay an amount  $j$  units, using coins of denominations 1 to  $i$ , we have two choices:
  1. either chose NOT to use any coins of denomination  $i$ ,
  2. or chose at least one coin of denomination  $i$ , and also pay the remaining amount  $(j - d_i)$ .



- To pay  $(j - d_i)$  units it takes  $C[i, j - d_i]$  coins. Thus,

$$C[i, j] = 1 + C[i, j - d_i]$$

- Since we want to minimize the number of coins used,

$$C[i, j] = \min(C[i - 1, j], 1 + C[i, j - d_i])$$

- This approach is exactly like knapsack problem.

- Here is the dynamic programming-based algorithm for the coin change problem.

COINS(N)

```
1  d[1..k] ← {1, 4, 6}    // (coinage, for example)
2  for i ← 1 to k
3      do c[i, 0] ← 0      // if return amount is 0 then no coin will be returned
4  for i ← 1 to k
5      for j ← 1 to N
6          if (i < 1 & j < d[i])
7              then c[i, j] ← ∞
8          else if (i < 1)
9              then c[i, j] ← 1 + c[1, j - d[1]]
10         else if (j < d[i])
11             then c[i, j] ← c[i - 1, j]
12         else c[i, j] ← min (c[i - 1, j], 1 + c[i, j - d[i]])
13 return c[k, N]
```

# Complexity of Coin Change Algorithm

- Greedy algorithm (non-optimal) takes  $O(k)$  time.
- While dynamic programming approach takes  $O(k \cdot N)$  time.

# Greedy Algorithm: Huffman Encoding

(From Book's Page Number 431)

- The Huffman codes provide a method of encoding data efficiently.
- Normally, when characters are coded using standard codes like ASCII.
- Each character is represented by a fixed-length codeword of bits, e.g., 8 bits per character.

- Fixed-length codes are popular because it is very easy to break up a string into its individual characters,
- And to access individual characters and substrings by direct indexing.
- However, fixed-length codes may not be the most efficient from the perspective of minimizing the total quantity of data.

- Consider the string “ abacdaacac”.
- If the string is coded with ASCII codes, the message length would be:

$$10 \times 8 = 80 \text{ bits}$$

- We will see that the same string encoded with a variable length Huffman encoding scheme will produce a shorter message.