### Lecture 14

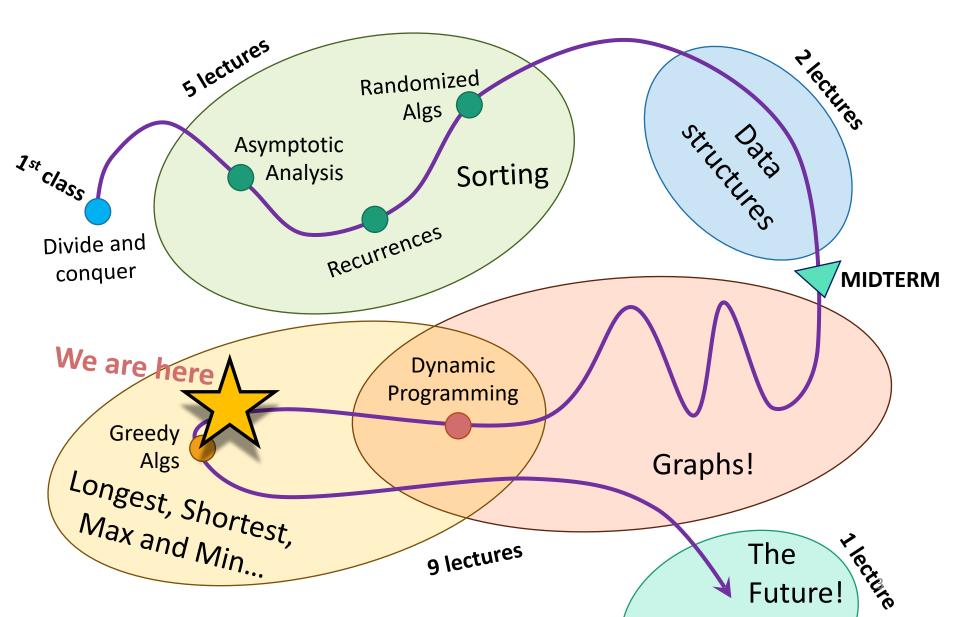
Greedy algorithms!

### Announcements

- Homework 6 due today
- Homework 7 out later today
- New EthiCS videos out (Part I 2 and Part I 3)

#### More detailed schedule on the website!

### Roadmap



### This week

• Greedy algorithms!



- Make choices one-at-a-time.
- Never look back.
- Hope for the best.

### Today

- One example of a greedy algorithm that does not work:
  - Knapsack again 🔨
- Three examples of greedy algorithms that **do work**:
  - Activity Selection -
  - Job Scheduling
  - Huffman Coding (if time)

You saw these on your pre-lecture exercise!

### Non-example

• Unbounded Knapsack.

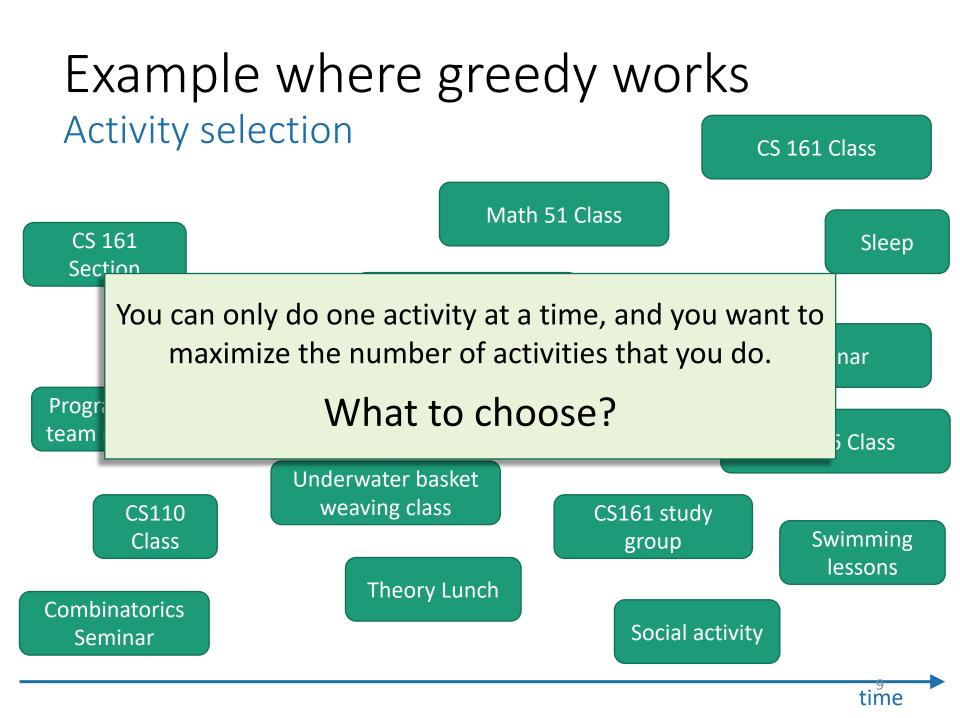


- Unbounded Knapsack:
  - Suppose I have infinite copies of all items.
  - What's the most valuable way to fill the knapsack?

Total weight: 10 Total value: 42

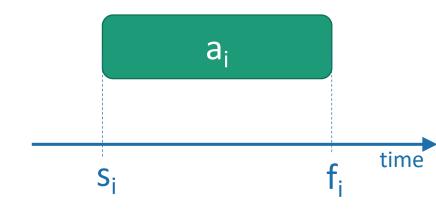
- "Greedy" algorithm for unbounded knapsack:
  - Tacos have the best Value/Weight ratio!
  - Keep grabbing tacos!





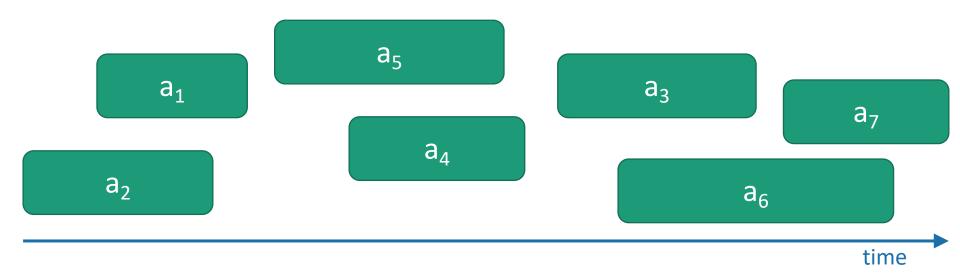
### Activity selection

- Input:
  - Activities a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>, ..., a<sub>n</sub>
  - Start times s<sub>1</sub>, s<sub>2</sub>, ..., s<sub>n</sub>
  - Finish times f<sub>1</sub>, f<sub>2</sub>, ..., f<sub>n</sub>

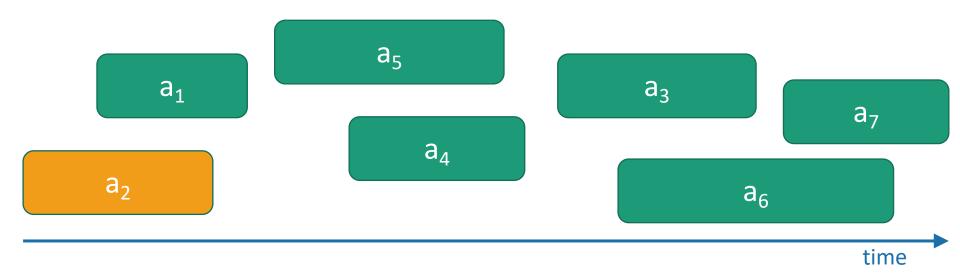


- Output:
  - A way to maximize the number of activities you can do today.

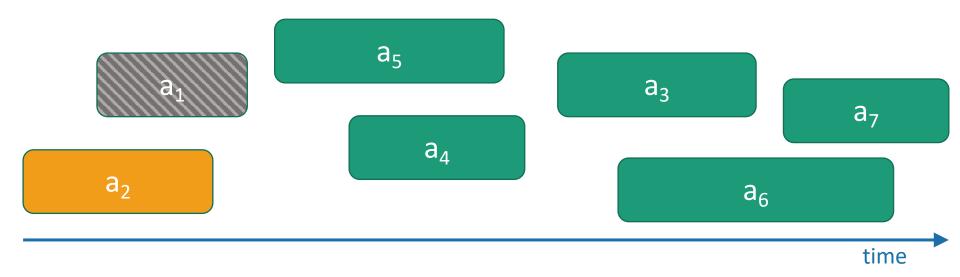
In what order should you greedily add activities?



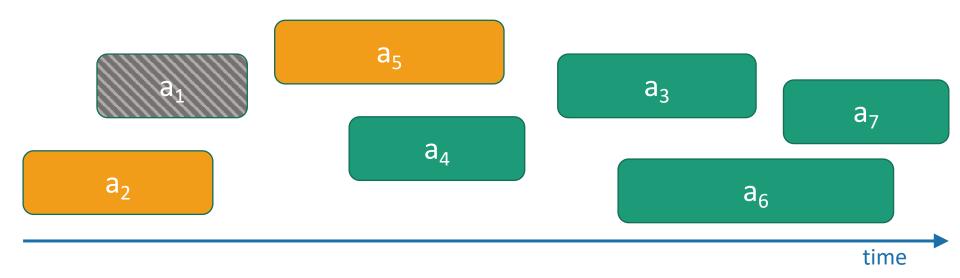
- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



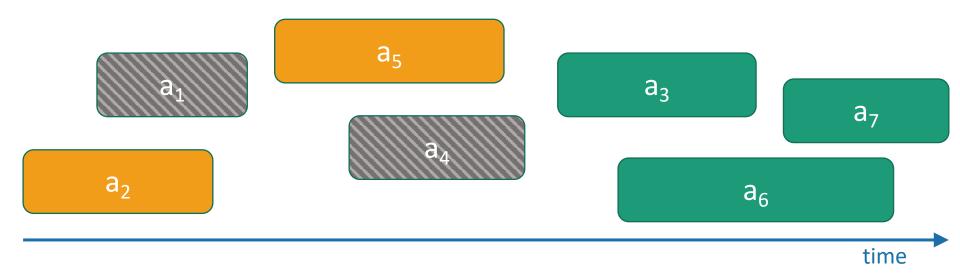
- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



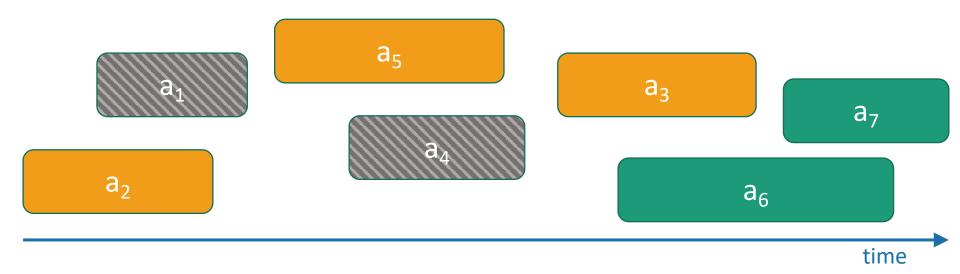
- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



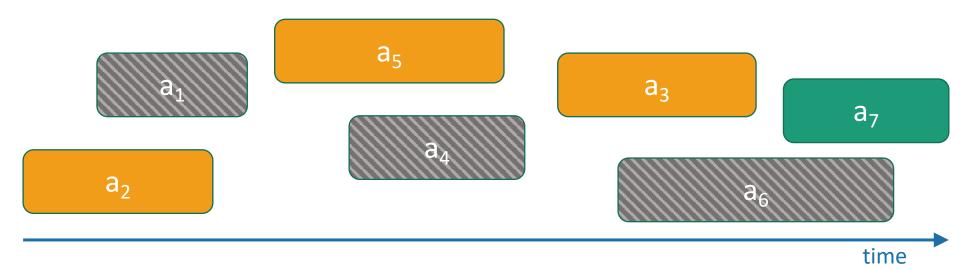
- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



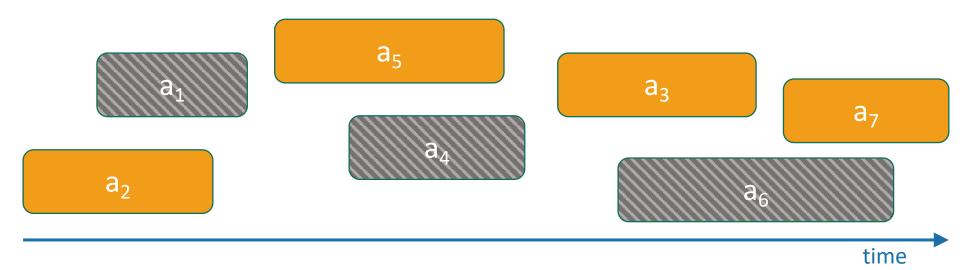
- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.



- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.

### At least it's fast

- Running time:
  - O(n) if the activities are already sorted by finish time.
  - Otherwise, O(n log(n)) if you have to sort them first.

### What makes it greedy?

- At each step in the algorithm, make a choice.
  - Hey, I can increase my activity set by one,
  - And leave lots of room for future choices,
  - Let's do that and hope for the best!!!
- Hope that at the end of the day, this results in a globally optimal solution.



### Three Questions

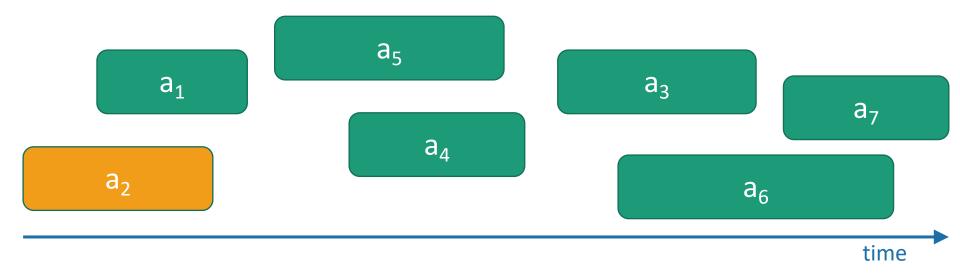
### 1. Does this greedy algorithm for activity selection work?

• Yes. (We will see why in a moment...)

#### 2. In general, when are greedy algorithms a good idea?

- When the problem exhibits especially nice optimal substructure.
- 3. The "greedy" approach is often the first you'd think of...
  - Why are we getting to it now, in Week 8?
    - Proving that greedy algorithms work is often not so easy...

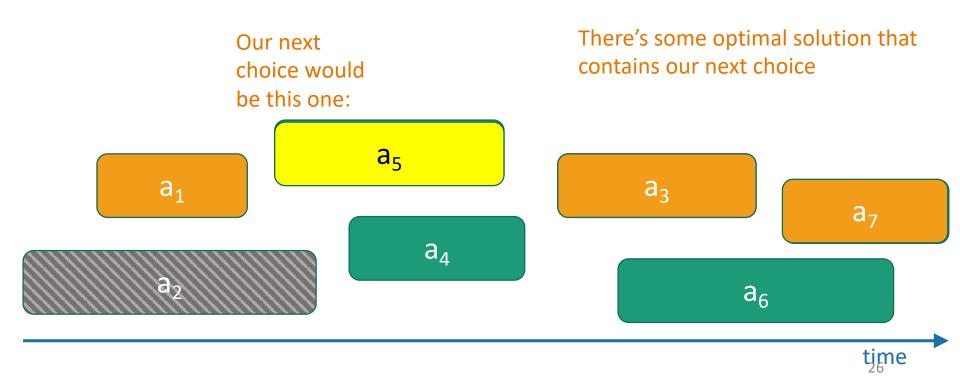
### Back to Activity Selection



- Pick activity you can add with the smallest finish time.
- Repeat.

### Why does it work?

• Whenever we make a choice, we don't rule out an optimal solution.



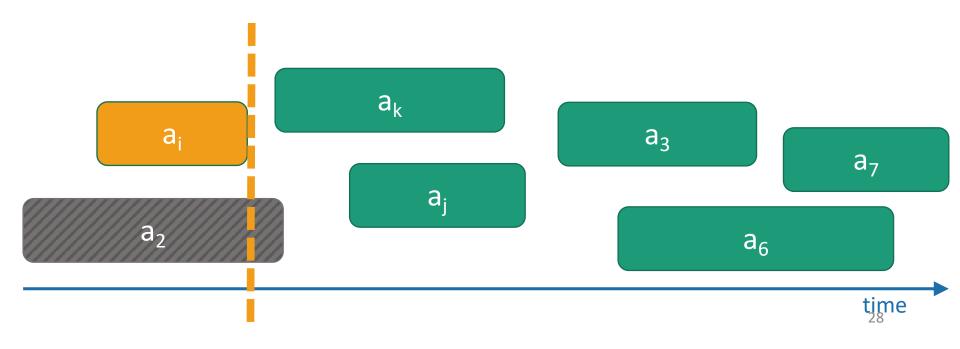
### Assuming that statement...

- We never rule out an optimal solution
- At the end of the algorithm, we've got some solution.
- So it must be optimal.

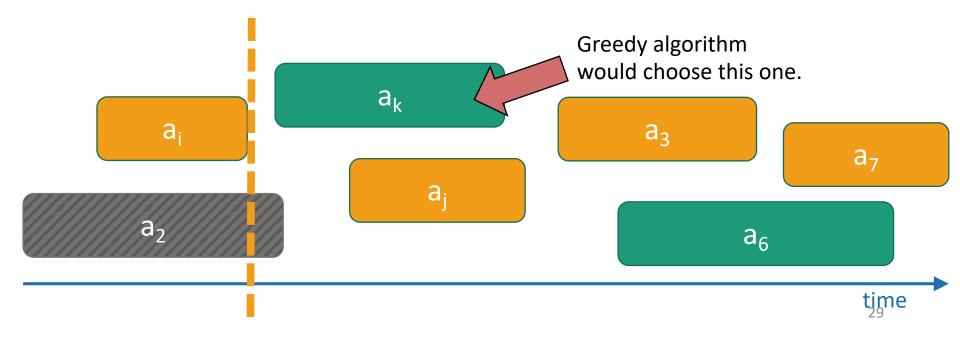


Lucky the Lackadaisical Lemur

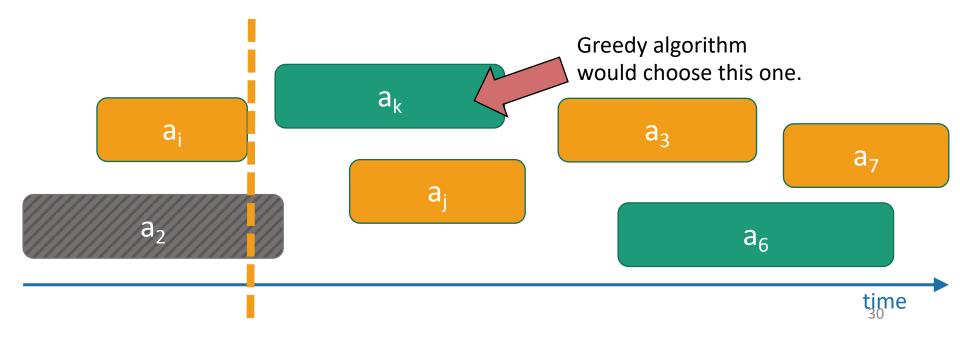
 Suppose we've already chosen a<sub>i</sub>, and there is still an optimal solution T\* that extends our choices.



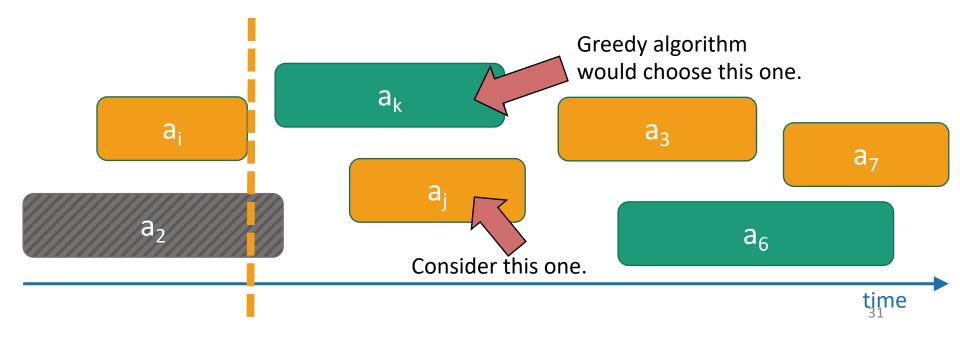
- Suppose we've already chosen a<sub>i</sub>, and there is still an optimal solution T\* that extends our choices.
- Now consider the next choice we make, say it's  $a_k$ .
- If a<sub>k</sub> is in T\*, we're still on track.



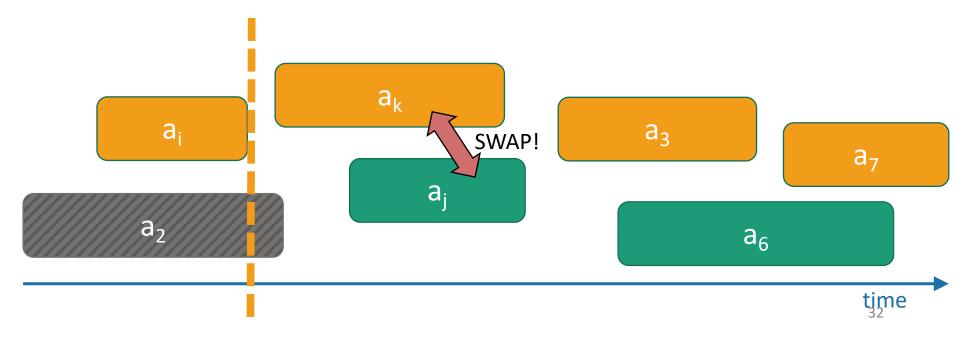
- Suppose we've already chosen a<sub>i</sub>, and there is still an optimal solution T\* that extends our choices.
- Now consider the next choice we make, say it's  $a_k$ .
- If a<sub>k</sub> is **not** in T\*...



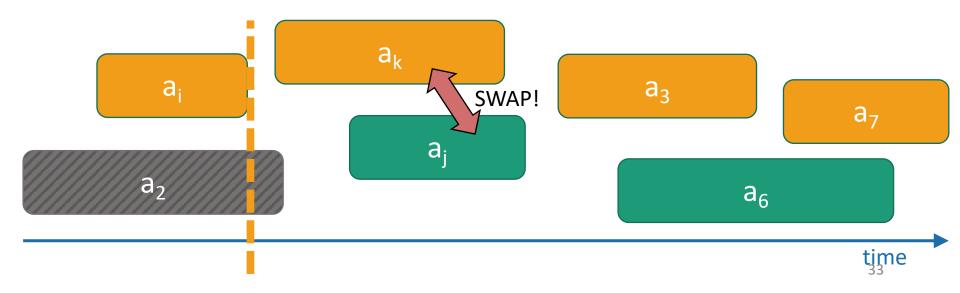
- If  $a_k$  is **not** in T\*...
- Let  $a_j$  be the activity in T\* with the smallest end time.
- Now consider schedule T you get by swapping a<sub>i</sub> for a<sub>k</sub>



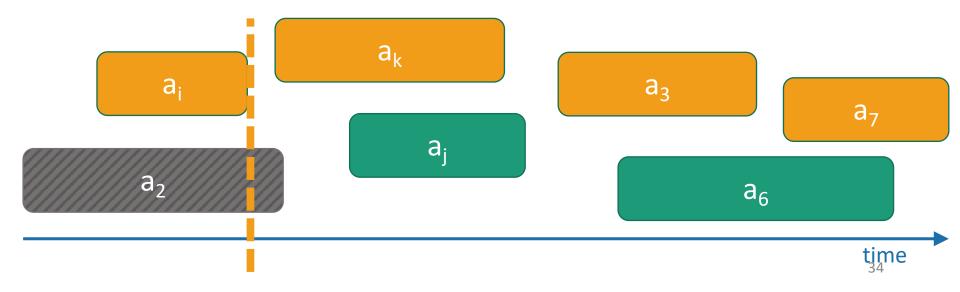
- If a<sub>k</sub> is **not** in T\*...
- Let a<sub>j</sub> be the activity in T\* (after a<sub>i</sub> ends) with the smallest end time.
- Now consider schedule T you get by swapping a<sub>i</sub> for a<sub>k</sub>



- This schedule T is still allowed.
  - Since a<sub>k</sub> has the smallest ending time, it ends before a<sub>i</sub>.
  - Thus, a<sub>k</sub> doesn't conflict with anything chosen after a<sub>j</sub>.
- And T is still optimal.
  - It has the same number of activities as T\*.



- We've just shown:
  - If there was an optimal solution that extends the choices we made so far...
  - ...then there is an optimal schedule that also contains our next greedy choice a<sub>k</sub>.



### So the algorithm is correct

- We never rule out an optimal solution
- At the end of the algorithm, we've got some solution.
- So it must be optimal.



Lucky the Lackadaisical Lemur

### So the algorithm is correct



Plucky the Pedantic Penguin

- Inductive Hypothesis:
  - After adding the t-th thing, there is an optimal solution that extends the current solution.
- Base case:
  - After adding zero activities, there is an optimal solution extending that.
- Inductive step:
  - We just did that!
- Conclusion:
  - After adding the last activity, there is an optimal solution that extends the current solution.
  - The current solution is the only solution that extends the current solution.
  - So the current solution is optimal.

### Three Questions

- Does this greedy algorithm for activity selection work?
   Yes.
- 2. In general, when are greedy algorithms a good idea?
  - When the problem exhibits especially nice optimal substructure.
- 3. The "greedy" approach is often the first you'd think of...
  - Why are we getting to it now, in Week 8?
    - Proving that greedy algorithms work is often not so easy...

### One Common strategy for greedy algorithms

- Make a series of choices.
- Show that, at each step, our choice won't rule out an optimal solution at the end of the day.
- After we've made all our choices, we haven't ruled out an optimal solution, so we must have found one.



# One Common strategy (formally) for greedy algorithms

• Inductive Hypothesis:

"Success" here means "finding an optimal solution."

- After greedy choice t, you haven't ruled out success.
- Base case:
  - Success is possible before you make any choices.
- Inductive step:
  - If you haven't ruled out success after choice t, then you won't rule out success after choice t+1.
- Conclusion:
  - If you reach the end of the algorithm and haven't ruled out success then you must have succeeded.

# One Common strategy

for showing we don't rule out success

- Suppose that you're on track to make an optimal solution T\*.
  - E.g., after you've picked activity i, you're still on track.
- Suppose that T\* *disagrees* with your next greedy choice.
  - E.g., it *doesn't* involve activity k.
- Manipulate T\* in order to make a solution T that's not worse but that *agrees* with your greedy choice.
  - E.g., swap whatever activity T\* did pick next with activity k.

# Note on "Common Strategy"

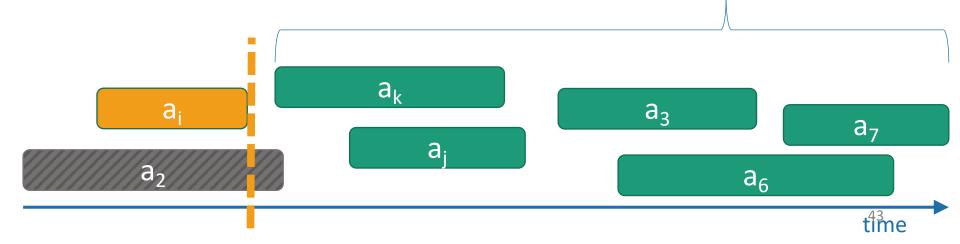
- This common strategy is not the only way to prove that greedy algorithms are correct!
- I'm emphasizing it in lecture because it often works, and it gives you a framework to get started.

## Three Questions

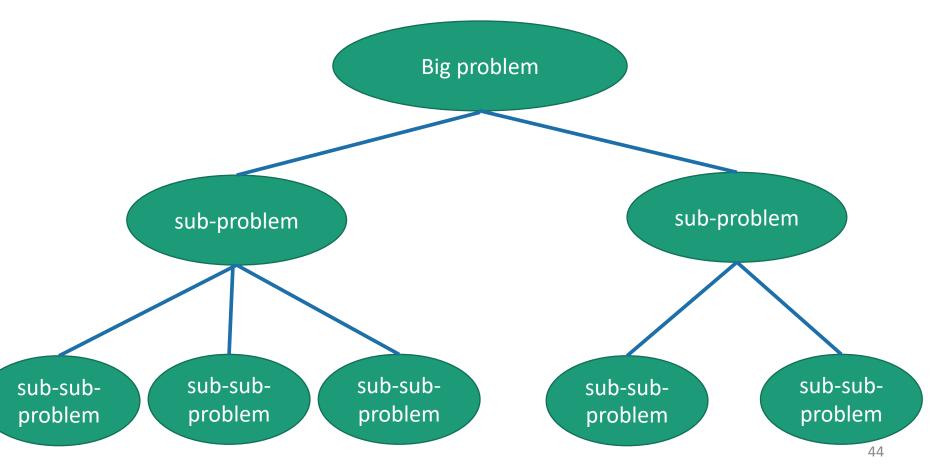
- Does this greedy algorithm for activity selection work?
   Yes.
- 2. In general, when are greedy algorithms a good idea?
  - When the problem exhibits especially nice optimal substructure.
- 3. The "greedy" approach is often the first you'd think of...
  - Why are we getting to it now, in Week 8?
    - Proving that greedy algorithms work is often not so easy...

#### Optimal sub-structure in greedy algorithms

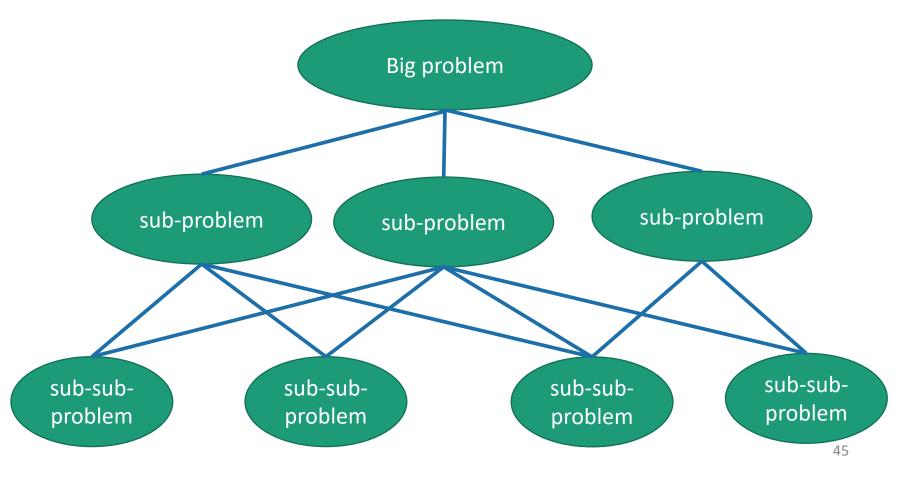
- Our greedy activity selection algorithm exploited a natural sub-problem structure:
   A[i] = number of activities you can do after the end of activity i
- How does this substructure relate to that of divide-andconquer or DP?
   A[i] = solution to this sub-problem



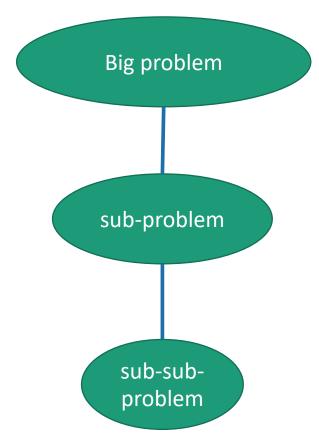
• Divide-and-conquer:



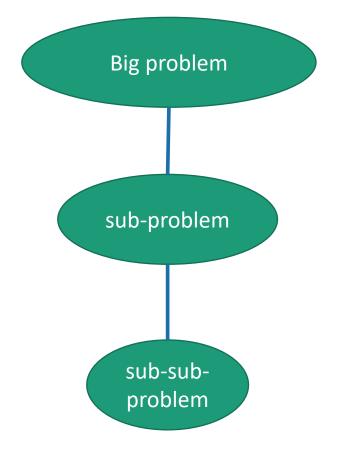
• Dynamic Programming:



• Greedy algorithms:



#### • Greedy algorithms:



- Not only is there **optimal sub-structure**:
  - optimal solutions to a problem are made up from optimal solutions of sub-problems
- but each problem depends on only one sub-problem.

Write a DP version of activity selection (where you fill in a table)! [See hidden slides in the .pptx file for one way]

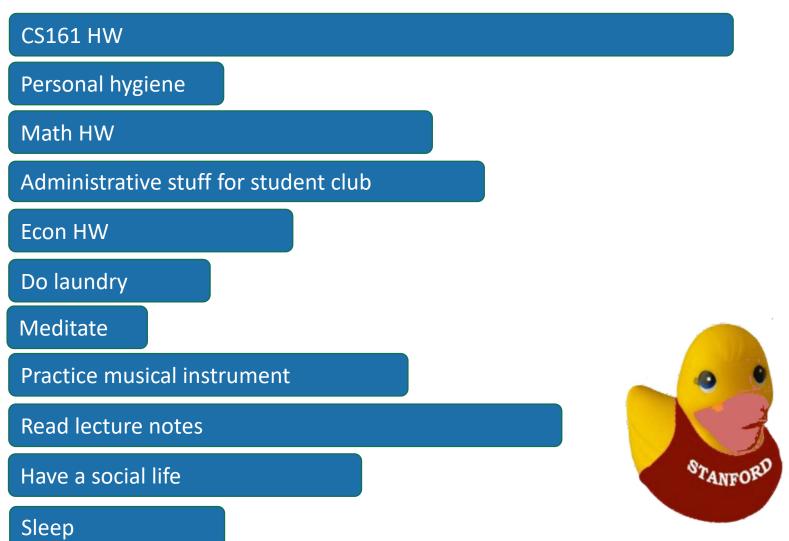


## Three Questions

- Does this greedy algorithm for activity selection work?
   Yes.
- 2. In general, when are greedy algorithms a good idea?
  - When they exhibit especially nice optimal substructure.
- 3. The "greedy" approach is often the first you'd think of...
  - Why are we getting to it now, in Week 8?
    - Proving that greedy algorithms work is often not so easy.

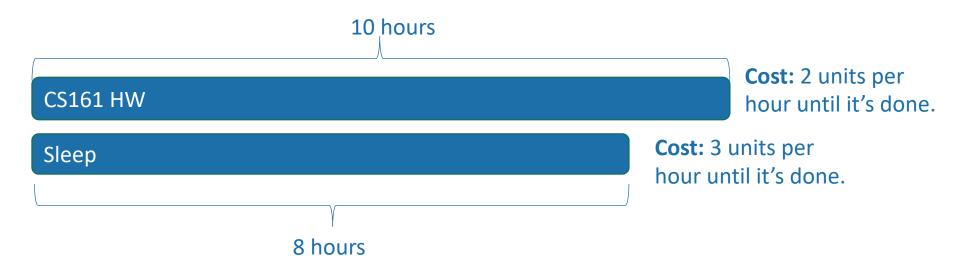
#### Let's see a few more examples

### Another example: Scheduling



# Scheduling

- n tasks
- Task i takes t<sub>i</sub> hours
- For every hour that passes until task i is done, pay c<sub>i</sub>

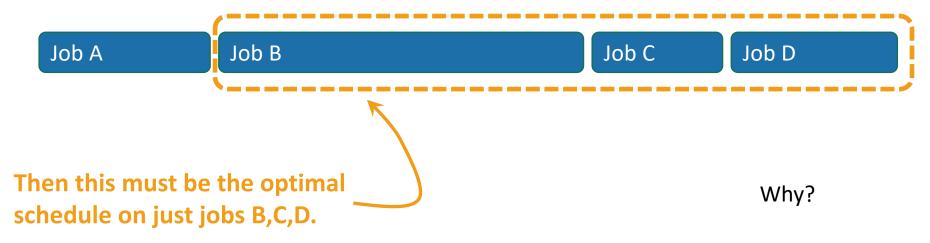


- CS161 HW, then Sleep: costs 10 · 2 + (10 + 8) · 3 = 74 units
- Sleep, then CS161 HW: costs 8 · 3 + (10 + 8) · 2 = 60 units

### Optimal substructure

• This problem breaks up nicely into sub-problems:

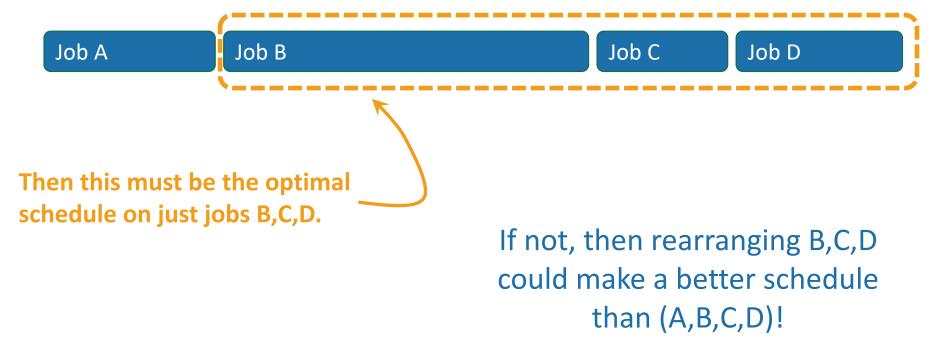
#### Suppose this is the optimal schedule:



#### Optimal substructure

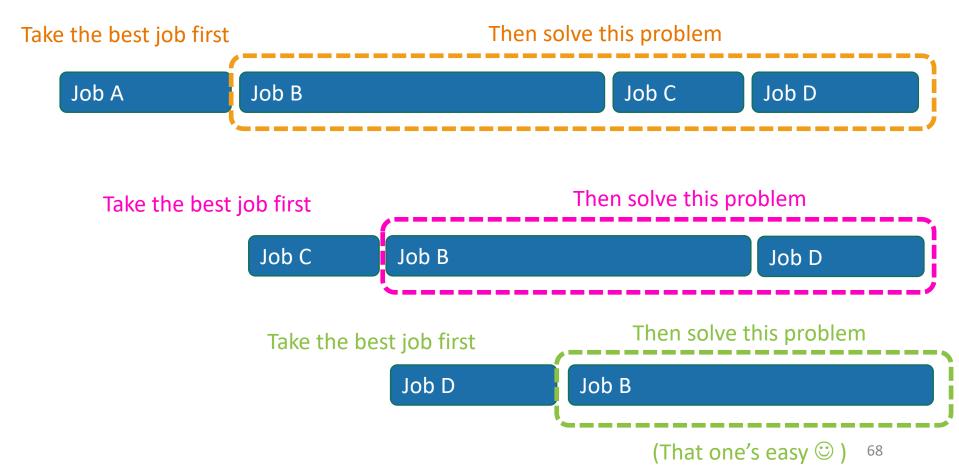
• This problem breaks up nicely into sub-problems:

#### Suppose this is the optimal schedule:



### Optimal substructure

• Seems amenable to a greedy algorithm:

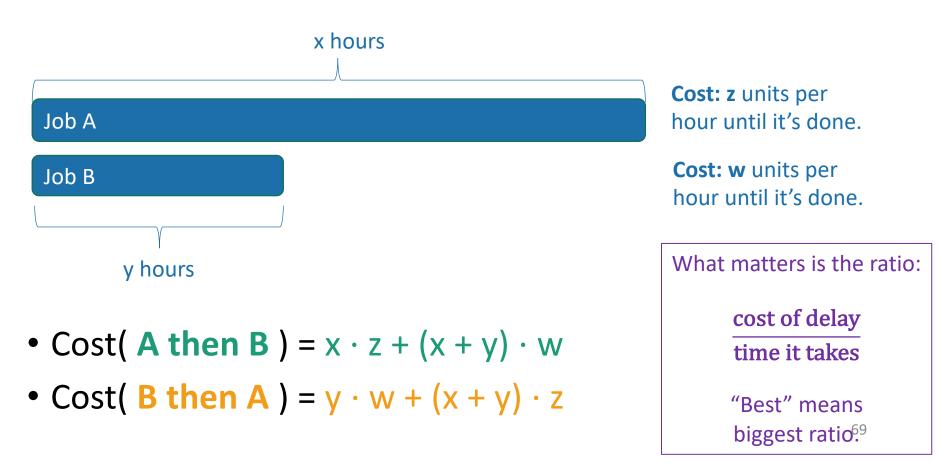


# What does "best" mean?

Note: here we are defining x, y, z, and w. (We use  $c_i$  and  $t_i$  for these in the general problem, but we are changing notation for just this thought experiment to save on subscripts.)

AB is better than BA when:  $xz + (x + y)w \le yw + (x + y)z$   $xz + xw + yw \le yw + xz + yz$   $wx \le yz$   $\frac{w}{v} \le \frac{z}{x}$ 

• Of these two jobs, which should we do first?



# Idea for greedy algorithm

• Choose the job with the biggest  $\frac{\text{cost of delay}}{\text{time it takes}}$  ratio.

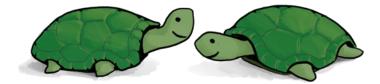
#### Lemma This greedy choice doesn't rule out success

- Suppose you have already chosen some jobs, and haven't yet ruled out success:
   There's some way to order A, B,C, D that's optimal...
- Already chosen E



- Then if you choose the next job to be the one left that maximizes the ratio cost/time, you still won't rule out success.
- Proof sketch:
  - Say Job B maximizes this ratio, but it's not the next job in the opt. soln.

How can we manipulate the optimal solution above to make an optimal solution where B is the next job we choose after E? 1 minute think; (wait) 1 minute share



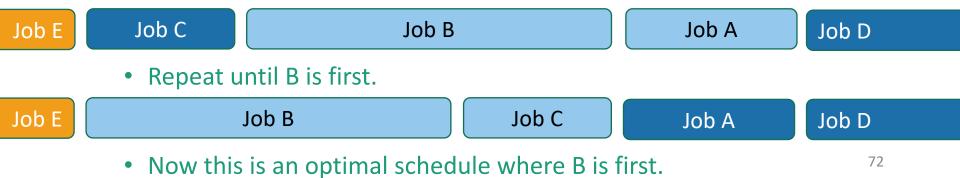
#### Lemma This greedy choice doesn't rule out success

 Suppose you have already chosen some jobs, and haven't yet ruled out success: There's some way to order





- Then if you choose the next job to be the one left that maximizes the ratio **cost/time**, you still won't rule out success.
- Proof sketch:
  - Say Job B maximizes this ratio, but it's not the next job in the opt. soln.
  - Switch A and B! Nothing else will change, and we just showed that the cost of the solution won't increase.



Back to our framework for proving correctness of greedy algorithms

- Inductive Hypothesis:
  - After greedy choice t, you haven't ruled out success.
- Base case:
  - Success is possible before you make any choices.
- Inductive step:
  - If you haven't ruled out success after choice t, then you won't rule out success after choice t+1.
- Conclusion:
  - If you reach the end of the algorithm and haven't ruled out success then you must have succeeded.

inductive step!

lust did the

Fill in the details!



# **Greedy Scheduling Solution**

- scheduleJobs( JOBS ):
  - Sort JOBS in decreasing order by the ratio:
    - $r_i = \frac{c_i}{t_i} = \frac{\text{cost of delaying job i}}{\text{time job i takes to complete}}$
  - Return JOBS

Running time: O(n log(n))



Now you can go about your schedule peacefully, in the optimal way.

# What have we learned?

- A greedy algorithm works for scheduling
- This followed the same outline as the previous example:
  - Identify optimal substructure:



- Find a way to make choices that **won't rule out an optimal solution.** 
  - largest cost/time ratios first.

#### One more example Huffman coding

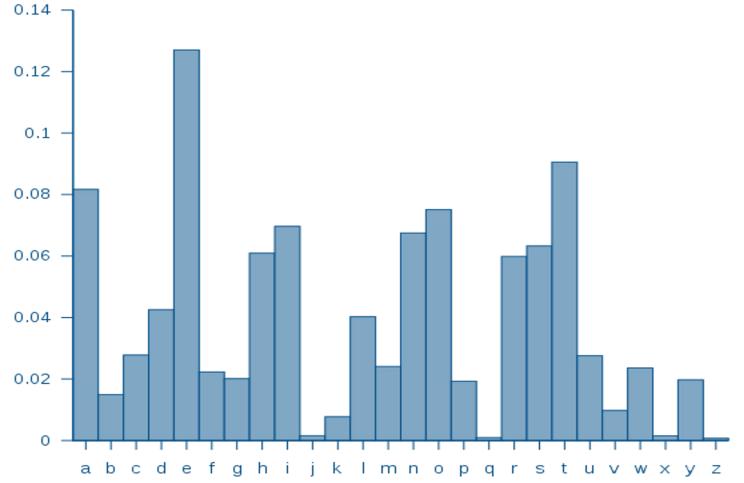
- everyday english sentence
- qwertyui\_opasdfg+hjklzxcv

#### One more example Huffman coding

ASCII is pretty wasteful for English sentences. If **e** shows up so often, we should have a shorter way of representing it!

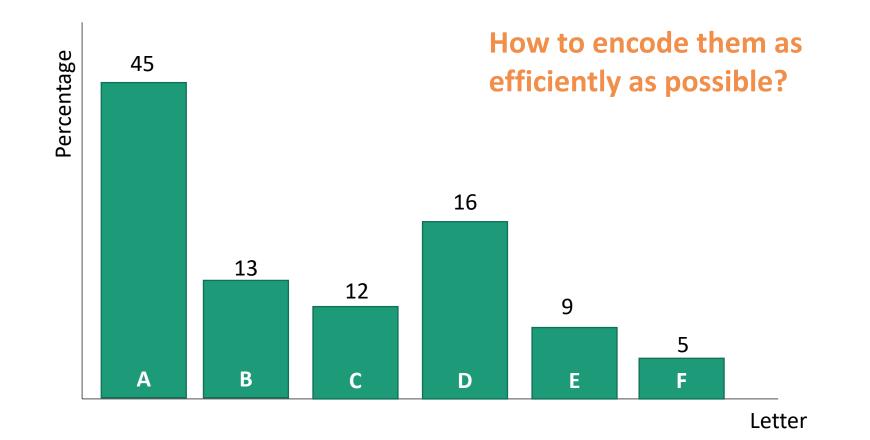
- everyday english sentence
- qwertyui\_opasdfg+hjklzxcv

# Suppose we have some distribution on characters



# Suppose we have some distribution on characters

For simplicity, let's go with this made-up example

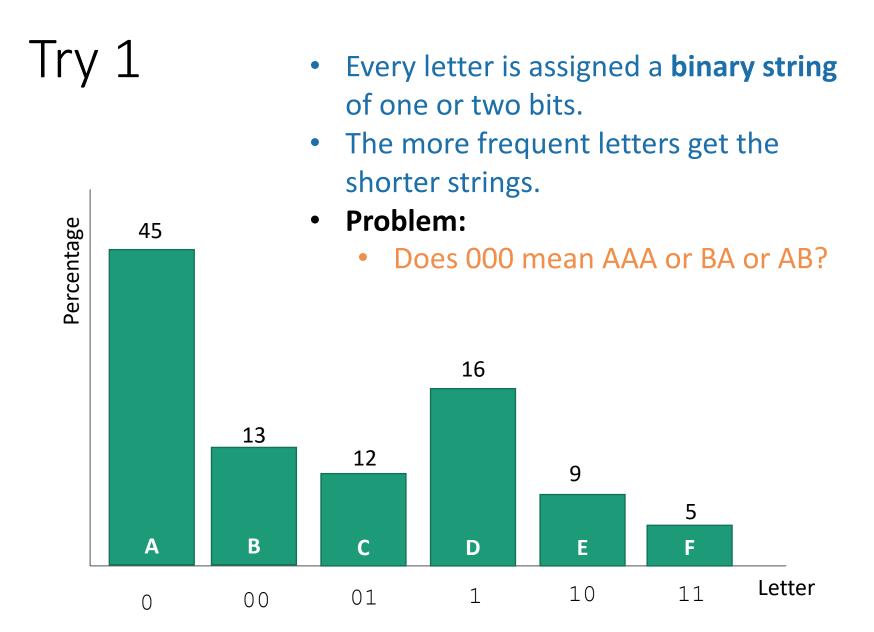


#### Try 0 (like ASCII)

- 110 and 111 are never used. Percentage 45 • representing A. 16 13 12 9 5 Α В F Ε C D Letter 100 101 010 000 011 001
- Every letter is assigned a **binary string** of three bits.

#### Wasteful!

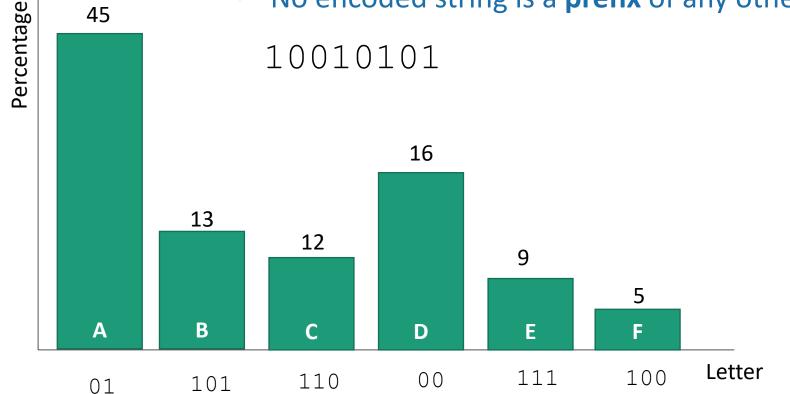
We should have a shorter way of



Confusingly, "prefix-free codes" are also sometimes called "prefix codes" (e.g. in CLRS).

# Try 2: prefix-free coding

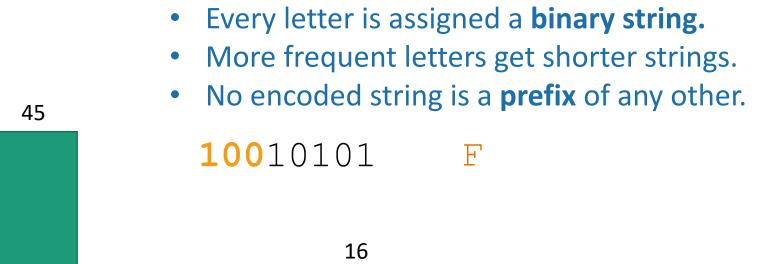
- Every letter is assigned a **binary string**.
- More frequent letters get shorter strings.
- No encoded string is a **prefix** of any other.

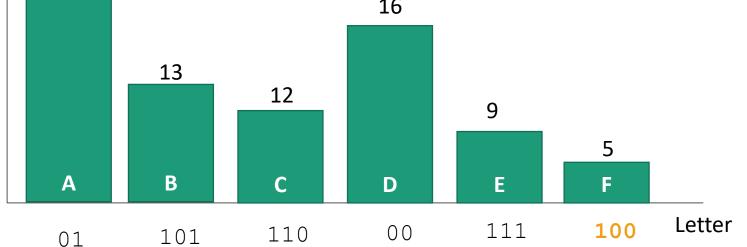


Confusingly, "prefix-free codes" are also sometimes called "prefix codes" (including in CLRS).

# Try 2: prefix-free coding

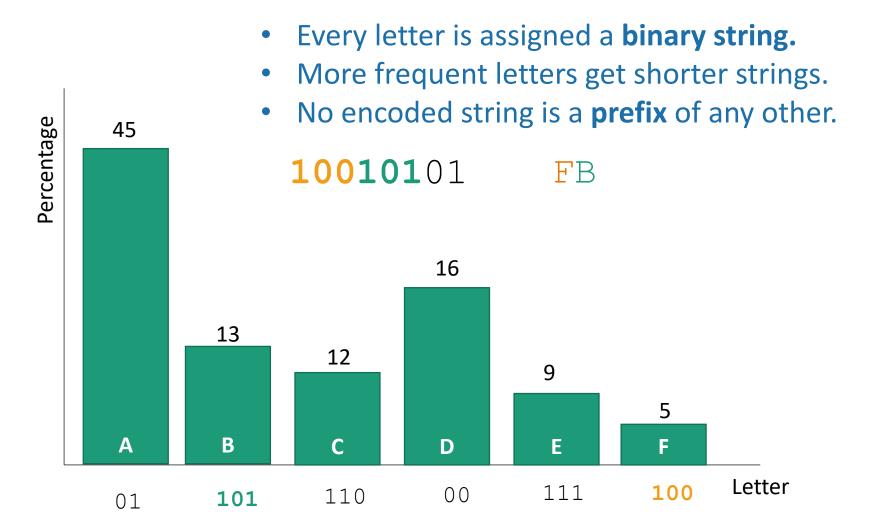
Percentage





Confusingly, "prefix-free codes" are also sometimes called "prefix codes" (including in CLRS).

# Try 2: prefix-free coding

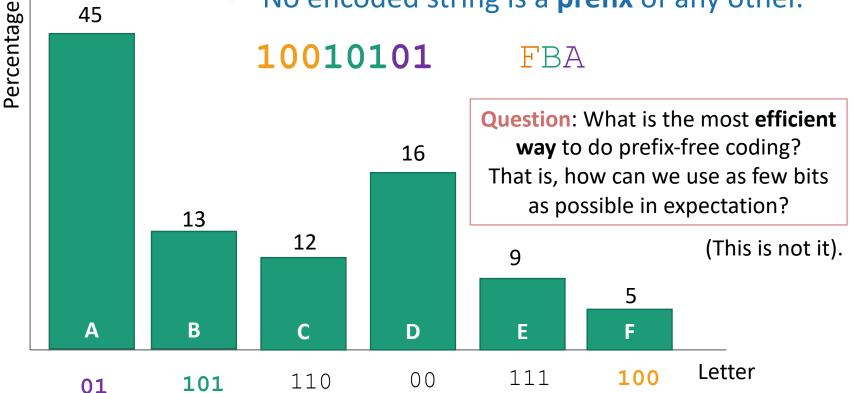


Confusingly, "prefix-free codes" are also sometimes called "prefix codes" (including in CLRS).

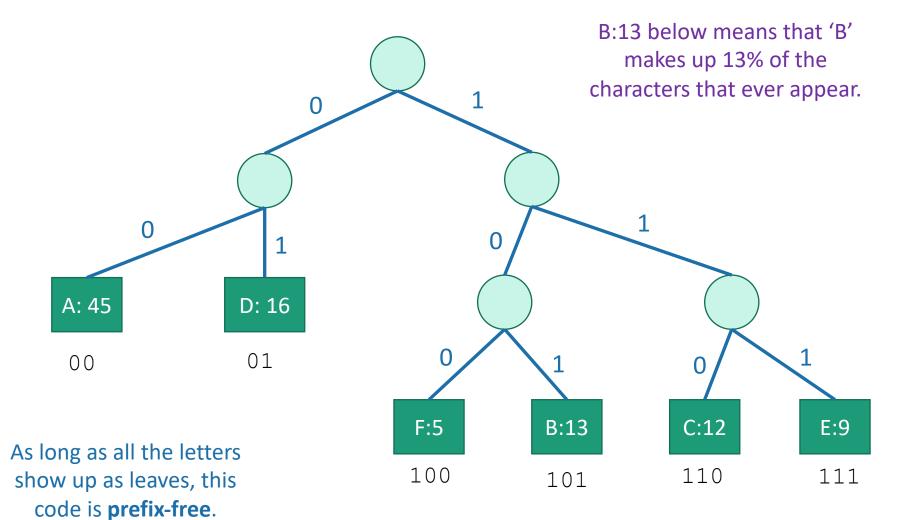
# Try 2: prefix-free coding



- More frequent letters get shorter strings.
- No encoded string is a **prefix** of any other.

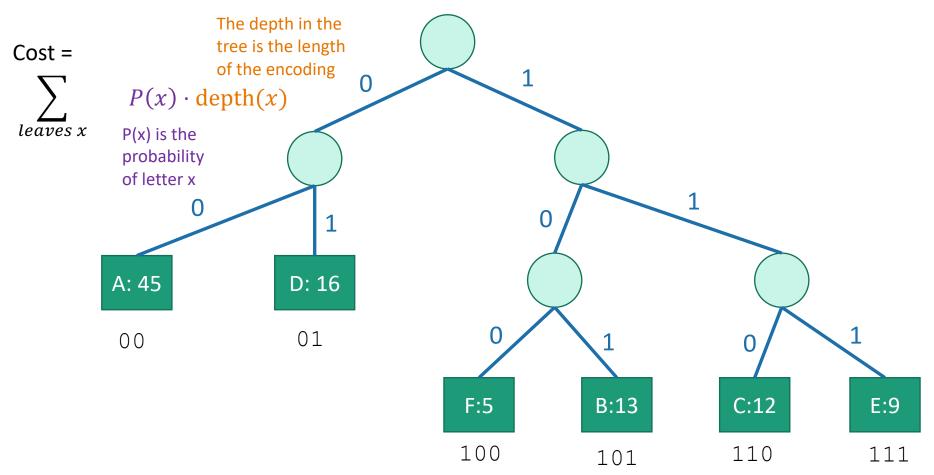


#### A prefix-free code is a tree



### How good is a tree?

- Imagine choosing a letter at random from the language.
  - Not uniformly random, but according to our histogram!
- The **cost of a tree** is the expected length of the encoding of a random letter.



Expected cost of encoding a letter with this tree:

2(0.45 + 0.16) + 3(0.05 + 0.13 + 0.12 + 0.09) = 2.39

#### Question

• Given a distribution *P* on letters, find the lowest-cost tree, where

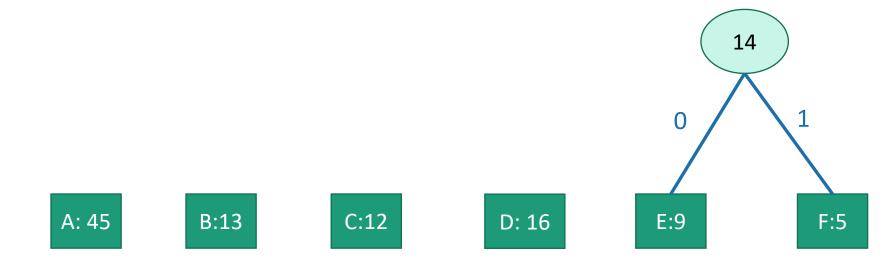
$$cost(tree) = \sum_{leaves x} P(x) \cdot \frac{depth(x)}{depth(x)}$$

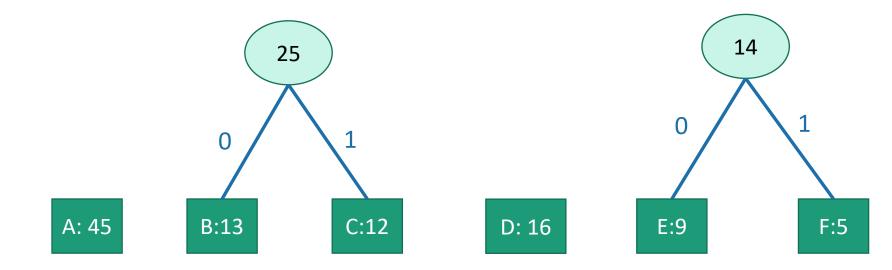
$$P(x) = \sum_{leaves x} P(x) \cdot \frac{depth(x)}{depth(x)}$$

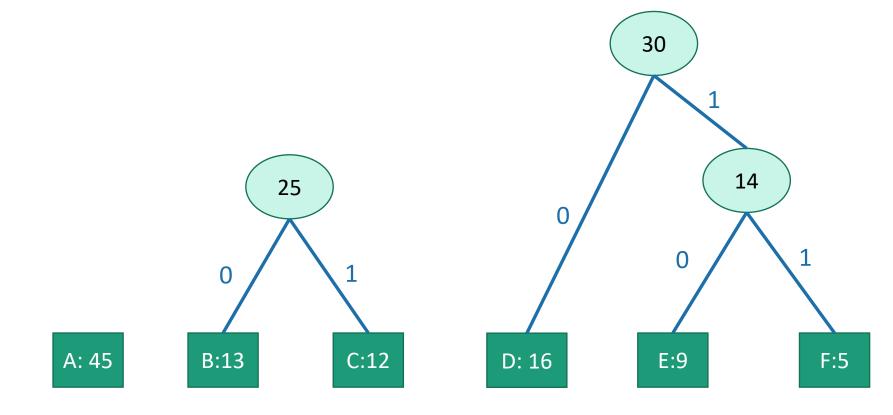
$$P(x) = \sum_{leaves x} P(x) \cdot \frac{depth(x)}{depth(x)}$$

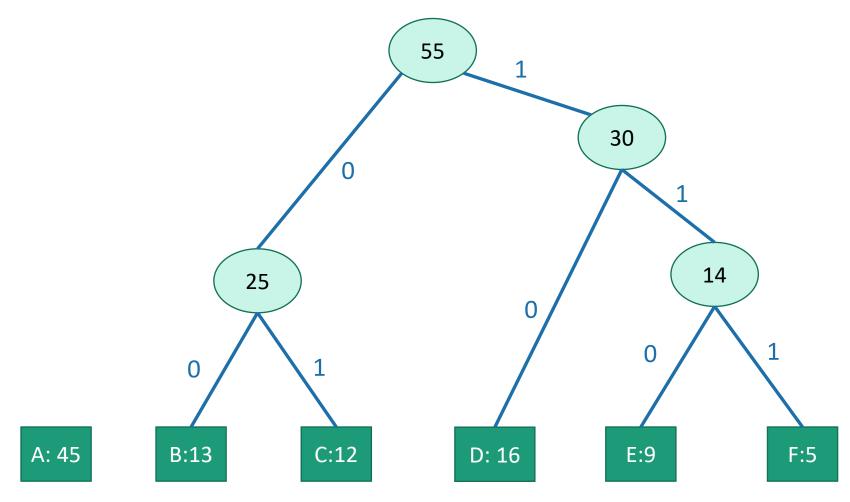
# Greedy algorithm

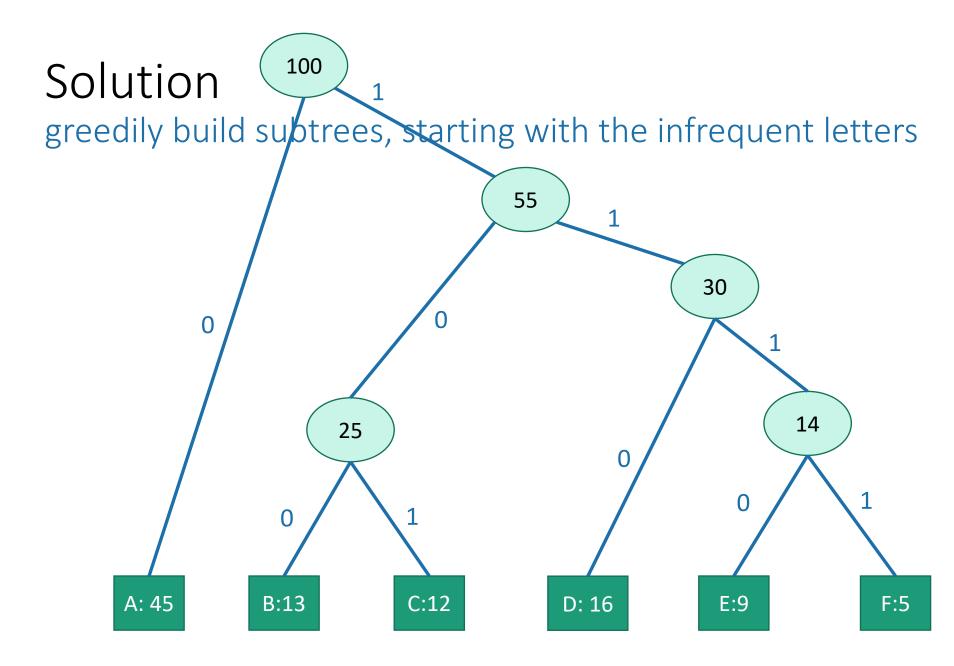
- Greedily build sub-trees from the bottom up.
- Greedy goal: less frequent letters should be further down the tree.





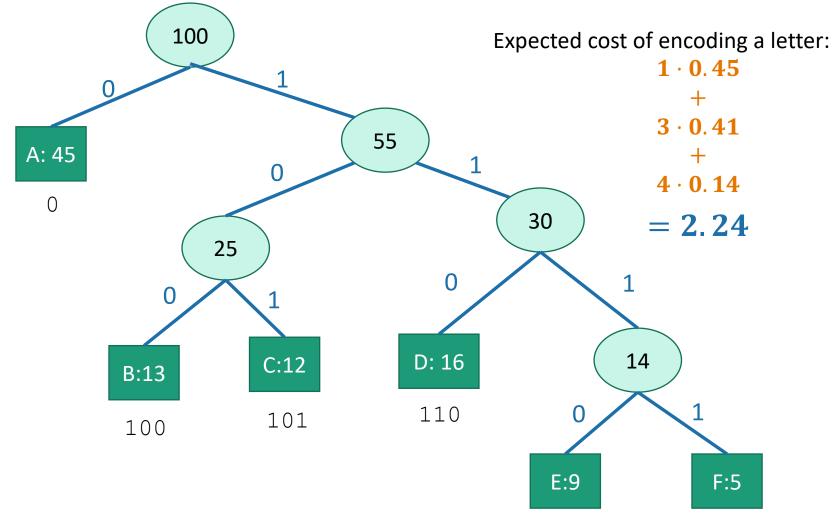






#### Solution

greedily build subtrees, starting with the infrequent letters



1110 111196

## What exactly was the algorithm?

- Create a node like <sup>D: 16</sup> for each letter/frequency
  The key is the frequency (16 in this case)
- Let **CURRENT** be the list of all these nodes.
- while len(CURRENT) > 1:
  - X and Y ← the nodes in CURRENT with the smallest keys.

D: 16

• Create a new node Z with Z.key = X.key + Y.key

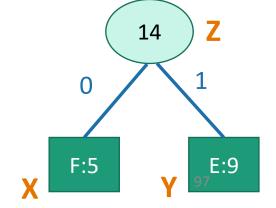
C:12

• Set Z.left = X, Z.right = Y

**B:13** 

- Add Z to CURRENT and remove X and Y
- return CURRENT[0]

A: 45



#### This is called Huffman Coding:

- Create a node like <sup>D: 16</sup> for each letter/frequency
  The key is the frequency (16 in this case)
- Let **CURRENT** be the list of all these nodes.
- while len(CURRENT) > 1:
  - X and Y ← the nodes in CURRENT with the smallest keys.

D: 16

• Create a new node Z with Z.key = X.key + Y.key

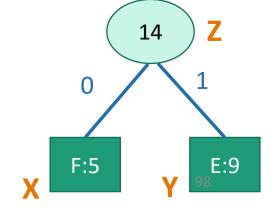
C:12

• Set Z.left = X, Z.right = Y

**B:13** 

- Add Z to CURRENT and remove X and Y
- return **CURRENT**[0]

A: 45



#### Does it work?

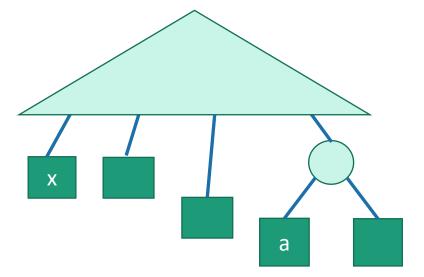
- Yes.
- We will *sketch* a proof here.
- Same strategy:
  - Show that at each step, the choices we are making won't rule out an optimal solution.
  - Lemma:
    - Suppose that x and y are the two least-frequent letters. Then there is an optimal tree where x and y are siblings.



#### Lemma proof idea

If x and y are the two least-frequent letters, there is an optimal tree where x and y are siblings.

• Say that an optimal tree looks like this:



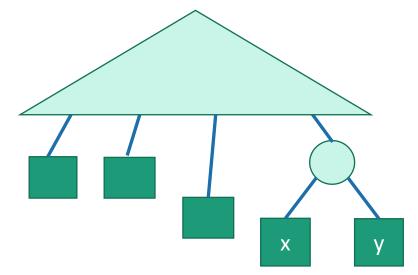
Lowest-level sibling nodes: at least one of them is neither x nor y

- What happens to the cost if we swap x for a?
  - the cost can't increase; a was more frequent than x, and we just made a's encoding shorter and x's longer.
- Repeat this logic until we get an optimal tree with x and y as siblings.
  - The cost never increased so this tree is still optimal.

#### Lemma proof idea

If x and y are the two least-frequent letters, there is an optimal tree where x and y are siblings.

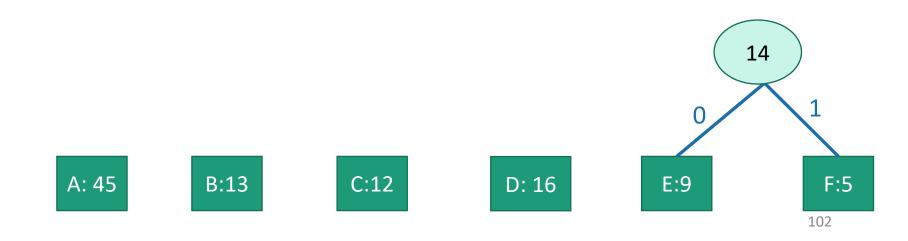
• Say that an optimal tree looks like this:



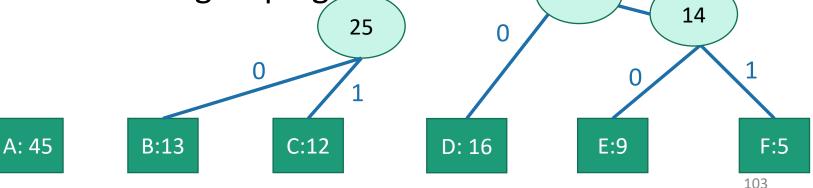
Lowest-level sibling nodes: at least one of them is neither x nor y

- What happens to the cost if we swap x for a?
  - the cost can't increase; a was more frequent than x, and we just made a's encoding shorter and x's longer.
- Repeat this logic until we get an optimal tree with x and y as siblings.
  - The cost never increased so this tree is still optimal.

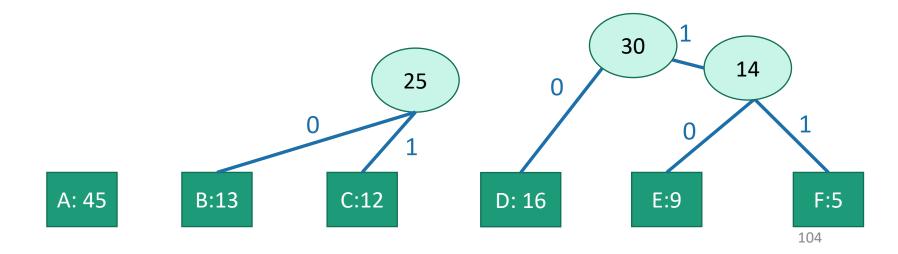
- Show that at each step, the choices we are making won't rule out an optimal solution.
- Lemma:
  - Suppose that x and y are the two least-frequent letters. Then there is an optimal tree where x and y are siblings.
- That's enough to show that we don't rule out optimality on the first step.



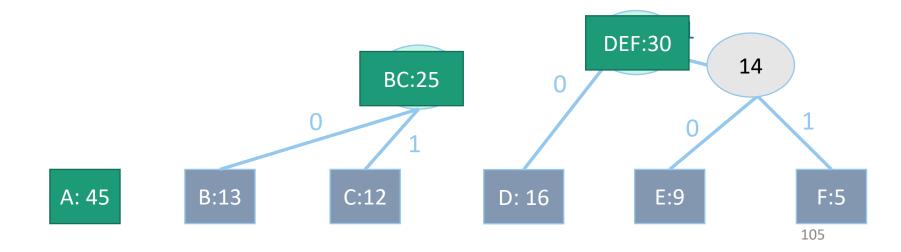
- Show that at each step, the choices we are making won't rule out an optimal solution.
- Lemma:
  - Suppose that x and y are the two least-frequent letters. Then there is an optimal tree where x and y are siblings.
- That's enough to show that we don't rule out optimality on the first step.
- To show that continue to not rule out optimality once we start grouping stuff...



- To show that continue to not rule out optimality once we start grouping stuff...
- The basic idea is that we can treat the "groups" as leaves in a new alphabet.



- To show that continue to not rule out optimality once we start grouping stuff...
- The basic idea is that we can treat the "groups" as leaves in a new alphabet.
- Then we can use the lemma from before.

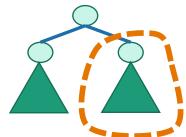


#### For a full proof

• See lecture notes or CLRS!

# What have we learned?

- ASCII isn't an optimal way\* to encode English, since the distribution on letters isn't uniform.
- Huffman Coding is an optimal way!
- To come up with an optimal scheme for any language efficiently, we can use a greedy algorithm.
- To come up with a greedy algorithm:
  - Identify optimal substructure
  - Find a way to make choices that won't rule out an optimal solution.
    - Create subtrees out of the smallest two current subtrees.



### Recap I

- Greedy algorithms!
- Three examples:
  - Activity Selection
  - Scheduling Jobs
  - Huffman Coding
    - If we had time



## Recap II



- Greedy algorithms!
- Often easy to write down
  - But may be hard to come up with and hard to justify
- The natural greedy algorithm may not always be correct.
- A problem is a good candidate for a greedy algorithm if:
  - it has optimal substructure
  - that optimal substructure is REALLY NICE
    - solutions depend on just one other sub-problem.

#### Next time

• Greedy algorithms for Minimum Spanning Tree!

#### Before next time

• Pre-lecture exercise: thinking about MSTs