

# Algorithms and Data Structures 2010 - 2011

Lesson 8: *greedy technique*

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## Outline of the lesson

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- **Greedy technique:**
  - definition
  - knapsack problem: continue and discrete cases
- **Sorting algorithms:**
  - counting sort
  - radix sort
- **Exercise:**
  - efficiently sorting strings with duplicates
- **Huffman codes**

## Greedy technique

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- The **greedy technique** is another strategy for designing algorithms, such as the “divide-et-impera” technique seen in the previous lesson
- A greedy algorithm always makes **the choice that looks best at the moment**
- **The hope: a locally optimal choice will lead to a globally optimal solution**
- For some problems, it works
- Dynamic programming can be overkill; greedy algorithms tend to be easier to code



## Greedy technique

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- **Basic steps:**
  - define the problem and corresponding greedy strategy
  - show that greedy approach leads to **optimal solution**
- A problem is said to have **optimal substructure** if an optimal solution can be constructed efficiently from optimal solutions to its sub-problems



## Knapsack problem

- The famous **knapsack problem**:

*A thief breaks into a museum. Fabulous paintings, sculptures, and jewels are everywhere. The thief has a good eye for the value of these objects, and knows that each will fetch hundreds or thousands of dollars on the clandestine art collector's market. But, the thief has only brought a single knapsack to the scene of the robbery, and can take away only what he can carry. What items should the thief take to **maximize** the haul?*



## Knapsack problem: 0-1 knapsack

- More formally, the **0-1 knapsack problem**:
  - the thief must choose among  $n$  items, where the  $i$ -th item worth  $v_i$  euro and weighs  $w_i$  kilograms
- **GOAL**: carrying at most  $W$  kilograms and **maximize value**
  - note: assume  $v_i$ ,  $w_i$ , and  $W$  are all integers
  - "0-1", means that each item must be taken or left in entirety



## Knapsack problem: fractional knapsack

- A variation, the **fractional knapsack problem**:
  - it is a variation of the knapsack problem
  - thief can take **fractions of items**
  - think of items in 0-1 problem as gold lingots, in fractional problem as buckets of gold dust



## Solving the knapsack problems

- The optimal solution to the **fractional knapsack problem** can be found with a greedy algorithm. **How?**
- The same greedy approach can be applied to the **knapsack 0-1 problem**?
- The optimal solution to the **0-1 problem** cannot be found using the same greedy strategy



## Solving the knapsack problems

- The optimal solution to the 0-1 problem cannot be found using the same greedy strategy
  - Greedy strategy: take in order of dollars/pound
  - **Example:** 3 items weighing 10, 20, and 30 pounds, knapsack can hold 50 pounds
    - *Suppose item 2 is worth \$100. Assign values to the other items so that the greedy strategy will fail*
    - *E.g.  $10(\$190)=19\$/p$ ,  $20(\$200)=10\$/p$ ,  $30(\$300)=10\$/p$  ->  
i) greedy =  $10+30=\$490$ , non greedy ii)  $20+30(\$500)$*



## Solving the knapsack problems

- The fractional problem **can** be solved greedily
- The 0-1 problem **cannot** be solved with a greedy approach
  - however, it can be solved with dynamic programming



## Sorting algorithms: counting sort

- The **counting sort** is a sorting algorithm that is NOT based on comparisons
- It takes advantage of knowing the **range** of the numbers in the array to be sorted
- **Basic idea:** given that the numbers are in a range, the algorithm can then determine, for each input element, the amount of elements less than it



## Counting sort: pseudo-code

**CountingSort**(A[], B[], k)

**for** i = 1 **to** k **do**

C[i] = 0

**for** j = 1 **to** length(A) **do**

C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] + 1

**for** i = 2 **to** k **do**

C[i] = C[i] + C[i-1]

**for** j = length(A) **downto** 1 **do**

B[C[A[j]]] = A[j]

C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] - 1

**data structures:**

- **A[]**: initial data to be sorted
- **B[]**: used to store the sorted output
- **C[]**: used to count the occurrences of the data values
- *initializes C[]*
- *increments the values in C[], according to their frequencies*
- *adds all previous values, making C[] contain a cumulative total*
- *writes out the sorted data into array B[]*



## Counting sort: pseudo-code

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C[i] = C[i] + C[i-1]

**for** j = length(A) **downto** 1 **do**

B[C[A[j]]] = A[j]

C[A[j]] = C[A[j]] - 1

**cost of the counting sort:**

■ given n = length(A)

■ loop 1 = O(k)

■ loop 2 = O(n)

■ loop 3 = O(k)

■ loop 4 = (n)

■ = **O(k+n)**

■ if k = O(n) then the counting sort is **O(n)**



## Counting sort: pseudo-code 2<sup>nd</sup> implementation

**CountingSort**(A[]) //Calcolo degli elementi max e min

max ← A[0]

min ← A[0]

**for** i ← 1 **to** length[A] **do**

if (A[i] > max) then

max ← A[i]

else

if(A[i] < min) then

min ← A[i]

//Costruzione dell'array C: crea array C di dimensione max - min + 1

**for** i ← 0 **to** length[C] **do**

C[i] ← 0

//inizializza a zero gli elementi di C

**for** i ← 0 **to** length[A] **do**

//aumenta il numero di volte che si è incontrato il valore

C[A[i] - min] = C[A[i] - min] + 1

//Ordinamento in base al contenuto dell'array delle frequenze C

k ← 0

//indice per l'array A

**for** i ← 0 **to** length[C] **do**

**while** C[i] > 0 **do** //scrive C[i] volte il valore (i + min) nell'array A

A[k] ← i + min

k ← k + 1

C[i] ← C[i] - 1



## Sorting algorithms: radix sort

- The **radix sort** is a sorting algorithm that sorts integers by **processing individual digits**
- Radix sort dates back as far as 1887 to the work of Herman Hollerith on tabulating machines
- It functions by sorting the input numbers **on each digit**, for each of the digits in the numbers
- The numbers are sorted on the **least-significant digit first**, followed by the second-least significant digit and so, up to the most significant digit



## Radix sort: pseudo-code and example

**RadixSort** (A, d)      A = array, d = number of digits

**for** i ← 1 **to** d **do**

*// use a stable sort to sort A on digit i*

INPUT	1° pass	2° pass	3° pass
329			
457			
657			
839			
436			
720			
355			





## Radix sort: pseudo-code and example

**RadixSort** (A, d)      A = array, d = number of digits

**for** i ← 1 **to** d **do**

*// use a stable sort to sort A on digit i*

INPUT	1° pass	2° pass	3° pass
329	720		
457	355		
657	436		
839	457		
436	657		
720	329		
355	839		



## Radix sort: pseudo-code and example

**RadixSort** (A, d)      A = array, d = number of digits

**for** i ← 1 **to** d **do**

*// use a stable sort to sort A on digit i*

INPUT	1° pass	2° pass	3° pass
329	720	720	
457	355	329	
657	436	436	
839	457	839	
436	657	355	
720	329	457	
355	839	657	



## Radix sort: pseudo-code and example

**RadixSort** ( $A, d$ )       $A$  = array,  $d$  = number of digits

**for**  $i \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $d$  **do**

*// use a stable sort to sort  $A$  on digit  $i$*

INPUT	1° pass	2° pass	3° pass
329	720	720	329
457	355	329	355
657	436	436	436
839	457	839	457
436	657	355	657
720	329	457	720
355	839	657	839



## Radix sort

- What is the cost of radix sort?
- It depends on the intermediate sorting algorithm that is used
- The *counting sort* can be a good choice
- In this case, each pass over  $n$   $d$ -digit numbers takes  $O(n + k)$  time
- There are  $d$  passes so the total time for *radix sort* is  $O(dn + kd)$
- When  $d$  is constant and  $k = O(n)$ , the *radix sort* runs in **linear time**



## Exercise: strings with duplicates

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- **EXERCISE:** given a set of  $n$  strings with duplicates, eliminate all duplicates. The comparison of strings requires **constant time** but the length of strings is  $n^2$ . Write an efficient algorithm in pseudo-code



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