

## 23. Greedy Algorithms

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Fractional Knapsack Problem, Huffman Coding [Cormen et al, Kap. 16.1, 16.3]

# The Fractional Knapsack Problem

set of  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  items  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  Each item  $i$  has value  $v_i \in \mathbb{N}$  and weight  $w_i \in \mathbb{N}$ . The maximum weight is given as  $W \in \mathbb{N}$ . Input is denoted as  $E = (v_i, w_i)_{i=1, \dots, n}$ .

**Wanted:** Fractions  $0 \leq q_i \leq 1$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ ) that maximise the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^n q_i \cdot v_i$  under  $\sum_{i=1}^n q_i \cdot w_i \leq W$ .

# Greedy heuristics

Sort the items decreasingly by value per weight  $v_i/w_i$ .

Assumption  $v_i/w_i \geq v_{i+1}/w_{i+1}$

Let  $j = \max\{0 \leq k \leq n : \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \leq W\}$ . Set

■  $q_i = 1$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq j$ .

■  $q_{j+1} = \frac{W - \sum_{i=1}^j w_i}{w_{j+1}}$ .

■  $q_i = 0$  for all  $i > j + 1$ .

That is fast:  $\Theta(n \log n)$  for sorting and  $\Theta(n)$  for the computation of the  $q_i$ .

# Correctness

Assumption: optimal solution  $(r_i)$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ ).

The knapsack is full:  $\sum_i r_i \cdot w_i = \sum_i q_i \cdot w_i = W$ .

Consider  $k$ : smallest  $i$  with  $r_i \neq q_i$  Definition of greedy:  $q_k > r_k$ . Let  $x = q_k - r_k > 0$ .

Construct a new solution  $(r'_i)$ :  $r'_i = r_i \forall i < k$ .  $r'_k = q_k$ . Remove weight  $\sum_{i=k+1}^n \delta_i = x \cdot w_k$  from items  $k+1$  to  $n$ . This works because  $\sum_{i=k}^n r_i \cdot w_i = \sum_{i=k}^n q_i \cdot w_i$ .

# Correctness

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=k}^n r'_i v_i &= r_k v_k + x w_k \frac{v_k}{w_k} + \sum_{i=k+1}^n (r_i w_i - \delta_i) \frac{v_i}{w_i} \\ &\geq r_k v_k + x w_k \frac{v_k}{w_k} + \sum_{i=k+1}^n r_i w_i \frac{v_i}{w_i} - \delta_i \frac{v_k}{w_k} \\ &= r_k v_k + x w_k \frac{v_k}{w_k} - x w_k \frac{v_k}{w_k} + \sum_{i=k+1}^n r_i w_i \frac{v_i}{w_i} = \sum_{i=k}^n r_i v_i.\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $(r'_i)$  is also optimal. Iterative application of this idea generates the solution  $(q_i)$ .

# Huffman-Codes

Goal: memory-efficient saving of a sequence of characters using a binary code with code words..

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## Example

File consisting of 100.000 characters from the alphabet  $\{a, \dots, f\}$ .

	a	b	c	d	e	f
Frequency (Thousands)	45	13	12	16	9	5
Code word with fix length	000	001	010	011	100	101
Code word variable length	0	101	100	111	1101	1100

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File size (code with fix length): 300.000 bits.

File size (code with variable length): 224.000 bits.



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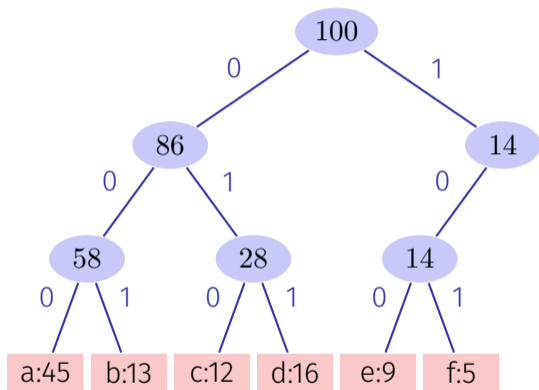
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- Encoding: concatenation of the code words without stop character (difference to morsing).  
 $af fe \rightarrow 0 \cdot 1100 \cdot 1100 \cdot 1101 \rightarrow 0110011001101$

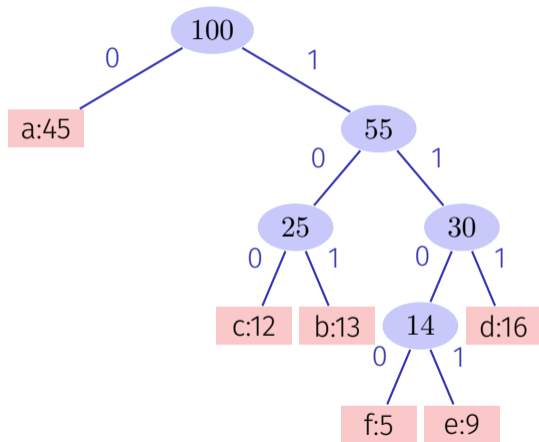
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 $af fe \rightarrow 0 \cdot 1100 \cdot 1100 \cdot 1101 \rightarrow 0110011001101$
- Decoding simple because prefixcode  
 $0110011001101 \rightarrow 0 \cdot 1100 \cdot 1100 \cdot 1101 \rightarrow af fe$

# Code trees



Code words with fixed length



Code words with variable length

# Properties of the Code Trees

- An optimal coding of a file is always represented by a complete binary tree: every inner node has two children.

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$$B(T) = \sum_{c \in C} f(c) \cdot d_T(c).$$

(cost = number bits of the encoded file)

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In the following a code tree is called optimal when it minimizes the costs.



# Algorithm Idea

Tree construction bottom up

- Start with the set  $C$  of code words
- Replace iteratively the two nodes with smallest frequency by a new parent node.

a:45

b:13

c:12

d:16

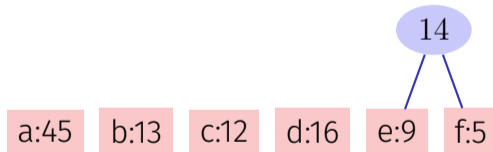
e:9

f:5

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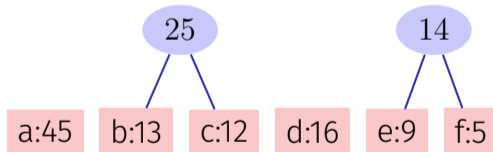
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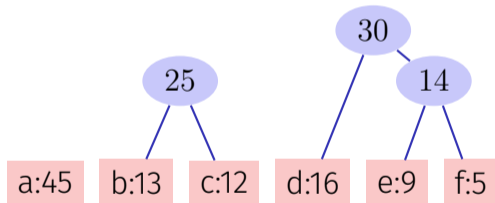
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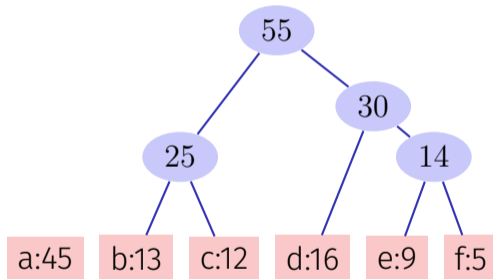
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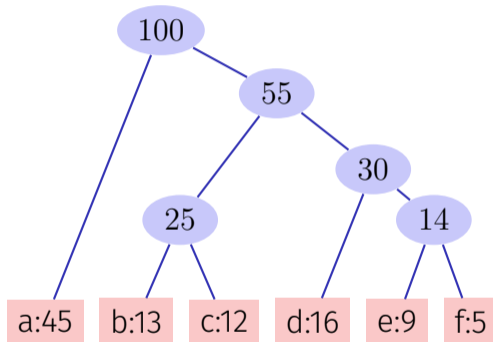
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# Algorithm Idea

Tree construction bottom up

- Start with the set  $C$  of code words
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# Algorithm Huffman( $C$ )

**Input:** code words  $c \in C$

**Output:** Root of an optimal code tree

$n \leftarrow |C|$

$Q \leftarrow C$

**for**  $i = 1$  **to**  $n - 1$  **do**

    allocate a new node  $z$

$z.\text{left} \leftarrow \text{ExtractMin}(Q)$

// extract word with minimal frequency.

$z.\text{right} \leftarrow \text{ExtractMin}(Q)$

$z.\text{freq} \leftarrow z.\text{left}.\text{freq} + z.\text{right}.\text{freq}$

$\text{Insert}(Q, z)$

**return**  $\text{ExtractMin}(Q)$

# Analyse

Use a heap: build Heap in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ . Extract-Min in  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  for  $n$  Elements.  
Yields a runtime of  $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ .



# The greedy approach is correct

## Theorem 21

Let  $x, y$  be two symbols with smallest frequencies in  $C$  and let  $T'(C')$  be an optimal code tree to the alphabet  $C' = C - \{x, y\} + \{z\}$  with a new symbol  $z$  with  $f(z) = f(x) + f(y)$ . Then the tree  $T(C)$  that is constructed from  $T'(C')$  by replacing the node  $z$  by an inner node with children  $x$  and  $y$  is an optimal code tree for the alphabet  $C$ .

# Proof

It holds that

$$f(x) \cdot d_T(x) + f(y) \cdot d_T(y) = (f(x) + f(y)) \cdot (d_{T'}(z) + 1) = f(z) \cdot d_{T'}(x) + f(x) + f(y).$$

Thus  $B(T') = B(T) - f(x) - f(y)$ .

Assumption:  $T$  is not optimal. Then there is an optimal tree  $T''$  with  $B(T'') < B(T)$ . We assume that  $x$  and  $y$  are brothers in  $T''$ . Let  $T'''$  be the tree where the inner node with children  $x$  and  $y$  is replaced by  $z$ . Then it holds that  $B(T''') = B(T'') - f(x) - f(y) < B(T) - f(x) - f(y) = B(T')$ . Contradiction to the optimality of  $T'$ .

The assumption that  $x$  and  $y$  are brothers in  $T''$  can be justified because a swap of elements with smallest frequency to the lowest level of the tree can at most decrease the value of  $B$ .

## 24. C++ advanced (IV): Exceptions

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# Some operations that can fail

- Opening files for reading and writing

```
std::ifstream input("myfile.txt");
```

- Parsing

```
int value = std::stoi("12-8");
```

- Memory allocation

```
std::vector<double> data(ManyMillions);
```

- Invalid data

```
int a = b/x; // what if x is zero?
```

# Possibilities of Error Handling

- None (inacceptable)
- Global error variable (flags)
- Functions returning Error Codes
- Objects that keep error status
- Exceptions

# Global error variables

- Common in older C-Code
- Concurrency is a problem.
- Error handling at good will. Requires extreme discipline, documentation and litters the code with seemingly unrelated checks.

# Functions Returning Error Codes

- Every call to a function yields a result.
- Typical for large APIs (e.g. OS level). Often combined with global error code.<sup>40</sup>
- Caller can check the return value of a function in order to check the correct execution.

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<sup>40</sup>Global error code thread-safety provided via thread-local storage.

# Functions Returning Error Codes

## Example

```
#include <errno.h>
...

pf = fopen ("notexisting.txt", "r+");
if (pf == NULL) {
    fprintf(stderr, "Error opening file: %s\n", strerror( errno ));
}
else { // ...
    fclose (pf);
}
```



# Error state Stored in Object

- Error state of an object stored internally in the object.

## Example

```
int i;  
std::cin >> i;  
if (std::cin.good()){// success, continue  
    ...  
}
```

# Exceptions

- Exceptions break the normal control flow
- Exceptions can be thrown (throw) and caught (catch)
- Exceptions can become effective accross function boundaries.

# Example: throw exception

```
class MyException{};

void f(int i){
    if (i==0) throw MyException();
    f(i-1);
}

int main()
{
    f(4);
    return 0;
}
```

# Example: throw exception

```
class MyException{};
```

```
void f(int i){  
    if (i==0) throw MyException();  
    f(i-1);  
}
```

```
int main()  
{  
    f(4);  
    return 0;  
}
```

terminate called after throwing an instance of 'MyException'  
Aborted

# Example: catch exception

```
class MyException{};

void f(int i){
    if (i==0) throw MyException();
    f(i-1);
}

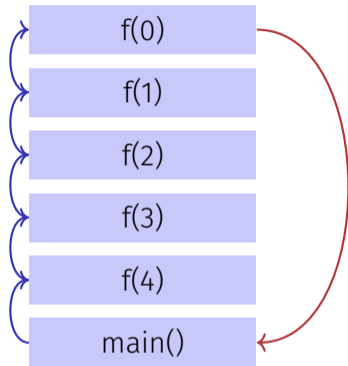
int main(){
    try{
        f(4);
    }
    catch (MyException e){
        std::cout << "exception caught\n";
    }
}
```

# Example: catch exception

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void f(int i){
    if (i==0) throw MyException();
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int main(){
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    }
}
```



exception caught

# Resources get closed

```
class MyException{};
struct SomeResource{
    ~SomeResource(){std::cout << "closed resource\n";}
};
void f(int i){
    if (i==0) throw MyException();
    SomeResource x;
    f(i-1);
}
int main(){
    try{f(5);}
    catch (MyException e){
        std::cout << "exception caught\n";
    }
}
```

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    f(i-1);
}
int main(){
    try{f(5);}
    catch (MyException e){
        std::cout << "exception caught\n";
    }
}
```

closed resource  
closed resource  
closed resource  
closed resource  
closed resource  
exception caught



# When Exceptions?

Exceptions are used for **error handling** exclusively.

- Use **throw** only in order to identify an error that violates the post-condition of a function or that makes the continued execution of the code impossible in an other way.
- Use **catch** only when it is clear how to handle the error (potentially re-throwing the exception)
- Do **not** use **throw** in order to show a programming error or a violation of invariants, use **assert** instead.
- Do **not** use exceptions in order to change the control flow. Throw is **not** a better return.

# Why Exceptions?

This:

```
int ret = f();  
if (ret == 0) {  
    // ...  
} else {  
    // ...code that handles the error...  
}
```

may look better than this on a first sight:

```
try {  
    f();  
    // ...  
} catch (std::exception& e) {  
    // ...code that handles the error...  
}
```

# Why exceptions?

Truth is that toy examples do not necessarily hit the point.

Using return-codes for error handling either pollutes the code with checks or the error handling is not done right in the first place.

# That's why

Example 1: Expression evaluation (expression parser from Introduction to programming)

Input: `1 + (3 * 6 / (/ 7 ))`

Error is deep in the recursion hierarchy. How to produce a meaningful error message (and continue execution)? Would have to pass error code over recursion steps.

## Second Example

Value type with guarantee: values in range provided.

```
template <typename T, T min, T max>
class Range{
public:
    Range(){}
    Range (const T& v) : value (v) {
        if (value < min) throw Underflow ();
        if (value > max) throw Overflow ();
    }
    operator const T& () const {return value;}
private:
    T value;
};
```

Error handling in the constructor.

# Types of Exceptions, Hierarchical

```
class RangeException {};  
class Overflow : public RangeException {};  
class Underflow : public RangeException {};  
class DivisionByZero: public RangeException {};  
class FormatError: public RangeException {};
```

# Operators

```
template <typename T, T min, T max>
Range<T, min, max> operator/ (const Range<T, min, max>& a,
                             const Range<T, min, max>& b){
    if (b == 0) throw DivisionByZero();
    return T (a) * T(b);
}
```

```
template <typename T, T min, T max>
std::istream& operator >> (std::istream& is, Range<T, min, max>& a){
    T value;
    if (!(is >> value)) throw FormatError();
    a = value;
    return is;
}
```

Error handling in the operator.

# Error handling (central)

```
Range<int,-10,10> a,b,c;
try{
    std::cin >> a;
    std::cin >> b;
    std::cin >> c;
    a = a / b + 4 * (b - c);
    std::cout << a;
}
catch(FormatError& e){ std::cout << "Format error\n"; }
catch(Underflow& e){ std::cout << "Underflow\n"; }
catch(Overflow& e){ std::cout << "Overflow\n"; }
catch(DivisionByZero& e){ std::cout << "Divison By Zero\n"; }
```