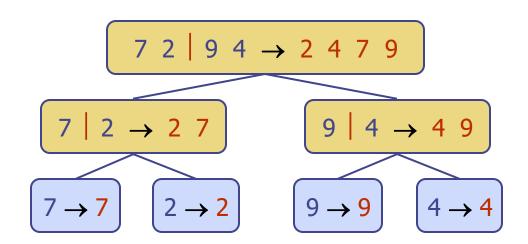
Divide-and-Conquer

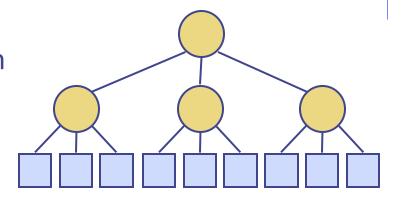


Outline and Reading

- Divide-and-conquer paradigm (§5.2)
- Review Merge-sort (§4.1.1)
- Recurrence Equations (§5.2.1)
 - Iterative substitution
 - Recursion trees
 - Guess-and-test
 - The master method
- Integer Multiplication (§5.2.2)

Divide-and-Conquer

- Divide-and conquer is a general algorithm design paradigm:
 - Divide: divide the input data S in two or more disjoint subsets S₁, S₂, ...
 - Recur: solve the subproblems recursively
 - Conquer: combine the solutions for S_1 , S_2 , ..., into a solution for S
- The base case for the recursion are subproblems of constant size
- Analysis can be done using recurrence equations



Merge-Sort Review

- Merge-sort on an input sequence S with n elements consists of three steps:
 - Divide: partition S into two sequences S_1 and S_2 of about n/2 elements each
 - Recur: recursively sort S₁ and S₂
 - Conquer: merge S_1 and S_2 into a unique sorted sequence

```
Algorithm mergeSort(S, C)
Input sequence S with n
elements, comparator C
Output sequence S sorted
according to C
if S.size() > 1
(S_1, S_2) \leftarrow partition(S, n/2)
mergeSort(S_1, C)
mergeSort(S_2, C)
S \leftarrow merge(S_1, S_2)
```

Recurrence Equation Analysis



- The conquer step of merge-sort consists of merging two sorted sequences, each with n/2 elements and implemented by means of a doubly linked list, takes at most bn steps, for some constant b.
- \bullet Likewise, the basis case (n < 2) will take at b most steps.
- \bullet Therefore, if we let T(n) denote the running time of merge-sort:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

- We can therefore analyze the running time of merge-sort by finding a closed form solution to the above equation.
 - That is, a solution that has T(n) only on the left-hand side.



X

Iterative Substitution

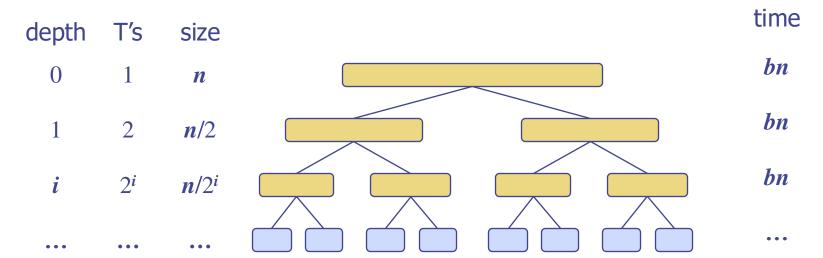
- In the iterative substitution, or "plug-and-chug," technique, we iteratively apply the recurrence equation to itself and see if we can find a pattern: T(n) = 2T(n/2) + bn
 - $= 2(2T(n/2^2)) + b(n/2) + bn$
 - $= 2^2 T(n/2^2) + 2bn$
 - $= 2^3 T(n/2^3) + 3bn$
 - $= 2^4 T(n/2^4) + 4bn$
 - = ...
 - $=2^{i}T(n/2^{i})+ibn$
- Note that base, T(1)=b, case occurs when $2^i=n$. That is, $i=\log n$.
- \bullet So, $T(n) = bn + bn \log n$
- ◆ Thus, T(n) is O(n log n).

The Recursion Tree



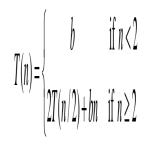
Draw the recursion tree for the recurrence relation and look for a pattern:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$



Total time = $bn + bn \log n$ (last level plus all previous levels)

Guess-and-Test Method



In the guess-and-test method, we guess a closed form solution and then try to prove it is true by induction:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn \log n & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

♦ Guess: T(n) < cn log n.
</p>

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + bn\log n$$

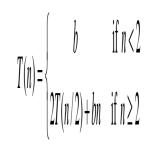
$$= 2(c(n/2)\log(n/2)) + bn\log n$$

$$= cn(\log n - \log 2) + bn\log n$$

$$= cn\log n - cn + bn\log n$$

Wrong: we cannot make this last line be less than cn log n

Guess-and-Test Method, Part 2



Recall the recurrence equation:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n < 2\\ 2T(n/2) + bn\log n & \text{if } n \ge 2 \end{cases}$$

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + bn\log n$$

$$= 2(c(n/2)\log^2(n/2)) + bn\log n$$

$$= cn(\log n - \log 2)^2 + bn\log n$$

$$= cn\log^2 n - 2cn\log n + cn + bn\log n$$

$$\leq c n \log^2 n$$

- if c > b.
- ◆ So, T(n) is O(n log² n).
- In general, to use this method, you need to have a good guess and you need to be good at induction proofs.

Master Method



Many divide-and-conquer recurrence equations have the form:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$$

The Master Theorem:

- 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
- 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $daf(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $daf(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

Solution: $\log_b a = 2$, so case 1 says T(n) is $\Theta(n^2)$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
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 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $daf(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n\log n$$

Solution: $\log_b a = 1$, so case 2 says T(n) is $\Theta(n \log^2 n)$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
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 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $daf(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = T(n/3) + n \log n$$

Solution: $\log_b a = 0$, so case 3 says T(n) is $\Theta(n \log n)$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = 8T(n/2) + n^2$$

Solution: $log_b a = 3$, so case 1 says T(n) is $\Theta(n^3)$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n^3$$

Solution: $\log_b a = 2$, so case 3 says T(n) is $\Theta(n^3)$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = T(n/2) + 1$$
 (binary search)

Solution: $\log_b a = 0$, so case 2 says T(n) is $\Theta(\log n)$.



- The form: $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n < d \\ aT(n/b) + f(n) & \text{if } n \ge d \end{cases}$
- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \log n$$
 (heap construction)

Solution: $\log_b a = 1$, so case 1 says T(n) is $\Theta(n)$.

Iterative "Proof" of the Master Theorem



Using iterative substitution, let us see if we can find a pattern:

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

$$= a(aT(n/b^{2})) + f(n/b)) + f(n)$$

$$= a^{2}T(n/b^{2}) + af(n/b) + f(n)$$

$$= a^{3}T(n/b^{3}) + a^{2}f(n/b^{2}) + af(n/b) + f(n)$$

$$M$$

$$= a^{k}T(n/b^{k}) + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} a^{i}f(n/b^{i})$$

$$M$$

Iterative "Proof" of the Master Theorem



$$= a^{\log_b n} T(1) + \sum_{i=0}^{(\log_b n) - 1} a^i f(n/b^i)$$

$$= n^{\log_b a} T(1) + \sum_{i=0}^{(\log_b n) - 1} a^i f(n/b^i)$$

- We then distinguish the three cases as
 - The first term is dominant
 - Each part of the summation is equally dominant
 - The summation is a geometric series

Integer Multiplication



- Algorithm: Multiply two n-bit integers I and J.
 - Divide step: Split I and J into high-order and low-order bits

$$I = I_h 2^{n/2} + I_l$$
$$J = J_h 2^{n/2} + J_l$$

We can then define I*J by multiplying the parts and adding:

$$I * J = (I_h 2^{n/2} + I_I) * (J_h 2^{n/2} + J_I)$$
$$= I_h J_h 2^n + I_h J_I 2^{n/2} + I_I J_h 2^{n/2} + I_I J_I$$

- So, T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n, which implies T(n) is $\Theta(n^2)$.
- But that is no better than the algorithm we learned in grade school.
 where did this come from?

An Improved Integer Multiplication Algorithm



- Algorithm: Multiply two n-bit integers I and J.
 - Divide step: Split I and J into high-order and low-order bits $I = I_h 2^{n/2} + I_I$

$$J = J_h 2^{n/2} + J_l$$

Observe that there is a different way to multiply parts:

$$I * J = I_h J_h 2^n + [(I_h - I_I)(J_I - J_h) + I_h J_h + I_I J_I] 2^{n/2} + I_I J_I$$

$$= I_h J_h 2^n + [(I_h J_I - I_I J_I - I_h J_h + I_I J_h) + I_h J_h + I_I J_I] 2^{n/2} + I_I J_I$$

$$= I_h J_h 2^n + (I_h J_I + I_I J_h) 2^{n/2} + I_I J_I$$
requires only 3 mults!

- So, T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n, which implies T(n) is $O(n^{\log_2 3})$, by the Master Theorem.
- Thus, T(n) is O(n^{1.585}).

Matrix Multiplication

- Given $n \times n$ matrices X and Y, wish to compute the product Z=XY.
- Formula for doing this is

$$Z_{ij} = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X_{ik} Y_{kj}$$

- This runs in $O(n^3)$ time
 - In fact, multiplying an n x m by an m x q takes nmq operations

Matrix Multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} I & J \\ K & L \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} E & F \\ G & H \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I = AE + BG$$

 $J = AF + BH$
 $K = CE + DG$
 $L = CF + DH$

Matrix Multiplication

- ♦ Using the decomposition on previous slide, we can computer Z using 8 recursively computed (n/2)x(n/2) matrices plus four additions that can be done in $O(n^2)$ time
- $Thus T(n) = 8T(n/2) + bn^2$
- Still gives T(n) is $\Theta(n^3)$

Strassen's Algorithm

• If we define the matrices S_1 through S_7 as follows

$$S_1 = A(F - H)$$

 $S_2 = (A + B)H$
 $S_3 = (C + D)E$
 $S_4 = D(G - E)$
 $S_5 = (A + D)(E + H)$
 $S_6 = (B - D)(G + H)$
 $S_7 = (A - C)(E + F)$

Strassen's Algorithm

Then we get the following:

$$I = S_5 + S_6 + S_4 - S_2$$

$$J = S_1 + S_2$$

$$K = S_3 + S_4$$

$$L = S_1 - S_7 - S_3 + S_5$$

So now we can compute Z=XY using only seven recursive multiplications

Strassen's Algorithm

- This gives the relation $T(n)=7T(n/2)+bn^2$ for some b>0.
- **♦** By the Master Theorem, we can thus multiply two $n \times n$ matrices in $\Theta(n^{log7})$ time, which is approximately $\Theta(n^{2.808})$.
 - May not seem like much, but if you're multiplying two 100 x 100 matrices:
 - n³ is 1,000,000
 - n^{2.808} is 413,048
- With added complexity, there are algorithms to multiply matrices in as little as $\Theta(n^{2.376})$ time
 - Reduces figures above to 56,494