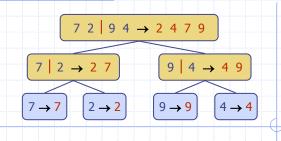
Divide-and-Conquer



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Divide-and-Conquer

 $\mathbf{1}$

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

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Merge-Sort Review

- Merge-sort on an input sequence S with n elements consists of three steps:
 - Divide: partition S into two sequences S₁ and S₂ of about n/2 elements each
 - Recur: recursively sort S₁ and S₂
 - Conquer: merge S₁ and S₂ 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.
- Likewise, the basis case (n < 2) will take at b most steps.
- lacktriangle 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.

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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

$$= 2(2T(n/2^2)) + b(n/2)) + bn$$

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

$$=2^3T(n/2^3)+3bn$$

$$=2^{4}T(n/2^{4})+4bn$$

$$=2^{i}T(n/2^{i})+ibn$$

- Note that base, T(n)=b, case occurs when 2ⁱ=n. That is, i = log n.
- So, $T(n) = bn + bn \log n$
- ◆ Thus, T(n) is O(n log n).

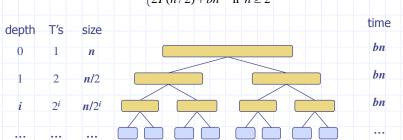
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The Recursion Tree



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)

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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 on log n

Guess-and-Test Method, (cont.)



Recall the recurrence equation:

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

♦ Guess #2: T(n) < cn log² n.
</p>

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

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

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

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

$$\leq cn\log^2 n$$

So, T(n) is O(n log² n).

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In general, to use this method, you need to have a good guess and you need to be good at induction proofs.

Master Method (Appendix)



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 $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.

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Master Method, Example 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 $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for some $\delta < 1$.
- Example:

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

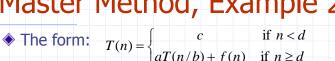
Solution: $log_h a=2$, so case 1 says T(n) is $O(n^2)$.

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Master Method, Example 2

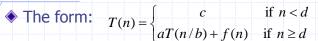


- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b)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

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

Solution: $log_h a=1$, so case 2 says T(n) is $O(n log^2 n)$.

Master Method, Example 3

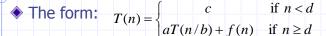


- The Master Theorem:
 - 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
 - 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
 - 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b)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

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

Solution: $log_h a = 0$, so case 3 says T(n) is O(n log n).

Master Method, Example 4



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:

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

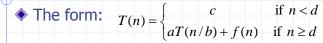
Solution: $log_h a=3$, so case 1 says T(n) is $O(n^3)$.

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Master Method, Example 5



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:

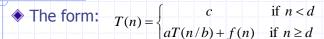
$$T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n^3$$

Solution: $log_h a=2$, so case 3 says T(n) is $O(n^3)$.

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Master Method, Example 6



The Master Theorem:

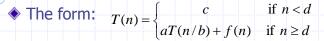
- 1. if f(n) is $O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- 2. if f(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$, then T(n) is $\Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
- 3. if f(n) is $\Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, then T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$, provided $af(n/b) \le \delta f(n)$ for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

Example:

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

Solution: $\log_{h} a = 0$, so case 2 says T(n) is O(log n).

Master Method, Example 7



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:

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

Solution: $log_h a=1$, so case 1 says T(n) is O(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)

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

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

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

$$= ...$$

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

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

- 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

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An Improved Integer Multiplication Algorithm

9 <u>x 1</u>

- 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:

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

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

$$= I_h J_h 2^n + (I_h J_l + I_l J_h) 2^{n/2} + I_l J_l$$

- 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}).

Integer Multiplication

9 <u>x 1</u>

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

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

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

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

- So, T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n, which implies T(n) is $O(n^2)$.
- But that is no better than the algorithm we learned in grade school.

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