

Heap Trees (Priority Queues) – Min and Max Heaps, Operations and Applications

Graphs – Terminology, Representations, Basic Search and Traversals, Connected Components and Biconnected Components, applications

Divide and Conquer: The General Method, Quick Sort, Merge Sort, Strassen's matrix multiplication, Convex Hull

DIVIDE AND CONQUER

General Method:

- Given a function to compute on 'n' inputs, the divide and conquer strategy
 - Splits the input into k subsets, $1 < k \leq n$, it yields k subproblems.
 - These subproblems must be solved.
 - A method must be found to combine subsolutions into a solution of the whole.
- The Divide and Conquer strategy is reapplied, if the subproblems are large.
- Often these subproblems are of the same type of the original problem. For this reason the divide-and-conquer principle is expressed by a *recursive algorithm*.
- Splitting the problem into subproblems is continued until the subproblems become small enough to be solved without splitting.

Control Abstraction:

- Control abstraction is a procedure whose flow of control is clear but whose primary operations are specified by other procedures whose precise meanings are left undefined.
- Control abstraction that mirrors the way an algorithm is based on divide-and-conquer is shown below.

```

1  Algorithm DAndC(P)
2  {
3      if Small(P) then return S(P);
4      else
5          {
6              divide P into smaller instances  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k$   $k > 1$ 
7              Apply DAndC to each of these problems;
8              return combine(DAndC( $P_1$ ), DAndC( $P_2$ )  $\dots$  DAndC( $P_k$ ));
9          }
10 }
```

- Initially algorithm is invoked as $DAndC(P)$, where P is the problem to be solved.
- $Small(P)$ is a boolean-valued function, it determines whether the input size is small enough that the answer can be computed without splitting.
- $S(P)$ is invoked if $Small(P)$ returns *true*.
- If $Small(P)$ returns false, then the problem P is divided into subproblems P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k . These subproblems are solved by recursive application of $DAndC$.
- Combine function combines the solutions of the k subproblems to determine the solution to problem P .
- If the size of P is n , and the sizes of k subproblems are n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k , then computing time of the $DAndC$ is described by the recurrence relation.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} g(n) & n \text{ small} \\ T(n_1) + T(n_2) + \dots + T(n_k) + f(n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad \text{---(1)}$$

Where

$T(n)$ – time for DAndC on any input of size n .

$g(n)$ – time to compute answer directly for small inputs.

$f(n)$ – time for dividing P into subproblems and combining solutions of subproblems.

DAndC strategy produces subproblems of type original problem, Therefore it is convenient to write these algorithms using recursion.

The complexity of many *divide-and-conquer* algorithms is given by recurrences of the form

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(1) & n = 1 \\ a.T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) & n > 1 \end{cases} \quad \text{---(2)}$$

Where a and b are known as constants.

To solve this recurrence relation, we assume that $T(1)$ is known, n is a power of b (i.e., $n = b^k$, $\log_b n = k$) Substitution method of solving Recurrence Relation repeatedly makes substitution for each occurrence of the function in right hand side until all such occurrences disappear.

Example: consider the case in which $a=2$ and $b=2$, $T(1)=2$ and $f(n)=n$.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(1) & n = 1 \\ a.T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 2.T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n \\ &= 2\left[2.T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + \frac{n}{2}\right] + n \\ &= 4.T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + 2.n \\ &= 4\left[2.T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + \frac{n}{4}\right] + 2n \\ &= 8.T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + 3.n \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{In general} \quad = 2^i.T\left(\frac{n}{2^i}\right) + i.n \quad \text{for any } \log_2 n \geq i \geq 1$$

$$\text{In particular } T(n) = 2^{\log_2 n}.T\left(\frac{n}{2^{\log_2 n}}\right) + n.\log_2 n$$

$$T(n) = n.T(1) + n.\log_2 n$$

$$T(n) = n.\log_2 n + 2n$$

Solving recurrence Relation (2) using substitution method, we get

$$T(n) = a^{\log_b n}.T(1) + \log_b n.f(n)$$

$$= n^{\log_b a}.T(1) + \log_b n.f(n)$$

$$= n^{\log_b a}[T(1) + u(n)]$$

$$\text{where } u(n) = \sum_{j=1}^k h(b^j) \quad \text{and } h(n) = \frac{f(n)}{n^{\log_b a}}$$

Merge Sort:

- Merge Sort is a sorting algorithm with the nice property that its worst case complexity is $O(n \log n)$.
- Given a sequence of 'n' elements $a[1], \dots, a[n]$ the general idea is to imagine them split into two sets $a[1], \dots, a[\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor]$ and $a[\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1], \dots, a[n]$.
- Each set is individually sorted, and the resulting sorted sequences are merged to produce a single sorted sequence of 'n' elements.
- It is an ideal example of divide-and-conquer strategy, in which
 - Splitting is into two equal sized sets
 - Combining operation is merging of two sorted sets into one.
- *MergeSort* algorithm describes this process using recursion and *Merge* algorithm merges two sorted sets.
- 'n' elements should be placed in $a[1:n]$ before executing *MergeSort*. Then *MergeSort*(1,n) causes the keys to be rearranged into nondecreasing order in a .

Algorithm for MergeSort:

```

1  Algorithm MergeSort(low, high)
2  //a[low:high] is a global array to be sorted. Small(P) is true if there is only one element
3  {
4    if (low < high) then //if there are more than one element
5    {
6      mid :=  $\lfloor (\text{low} + \text{high}) / 2 \rfloor$ ; //Divide P into sub problems
7      //Solve sub problems
8      MergeSort(low, mid);
9      MergeSort(mid+1, high);
10     Merge(low, mid, high);
11   }
12 }
```

Algorithm for merging two sorted subarrays.

```

1  Algorithm Merge(low, mid, high)
2  //a[low:high] is a global array containing two sorted subsets. The goal is to merge these two
3  //sets into a single set. b[] is an auxiliary array.
4  {
5    h := low; i := low; j := mid+1;
6    while ((h ≤ mid) and (j ≤ high)) do
7    {
8      if (a[h] ≤ a[j]) then
9      {
10         b[i] := a[h]; h := h+1;
11      }
12     else
13     {
14         b[i] := a[j]; j := j+1;
15     }
16     i := i+1;
```

```

17     }
18     if (h > mid) then
19         for k := j to high do
20             {
21                 b[i] := a[k]; i := i + 1;
22             }
23     else
24         for k := h to mid do
25             {
26                 b[i] := a[k]; i := i + 1;
27             }
28     for k := low to high do
29         a[k] := b[k];
    }

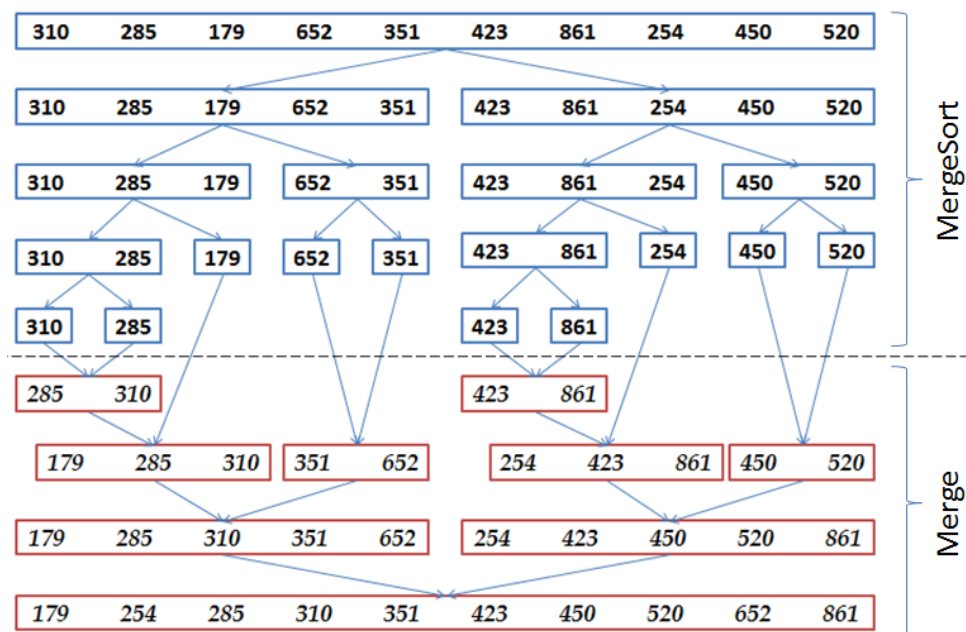
```

Example :

Consider an array of 10 elements.

$a[1:10] = (310, 285, 179, 652, 351, 423, 861, 254, 450, 520)$

Algorithm MergeSort begins by splitting $a[]$ until they become one-element subarrays. Now merging begins. This division and merging is shown in the below figure.



- Following figure is a tree that represents the sequence of recursive calls that are produced by **MergeSort** when it is applied to 10 elements.
- The pair of values in each node is the values of the parameters *low* and *high*.

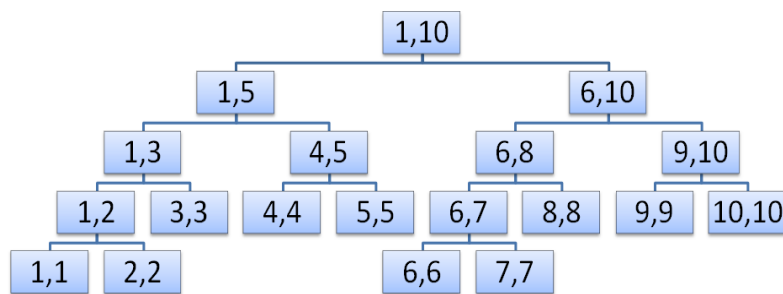


Figure: Tree of calls of MergeSort(1,10)

- Following figure is a tree representing the calls to procedure Merge. For example, the node containing 1, 2, and 3 represents the merging of a[1:2] with a[3].

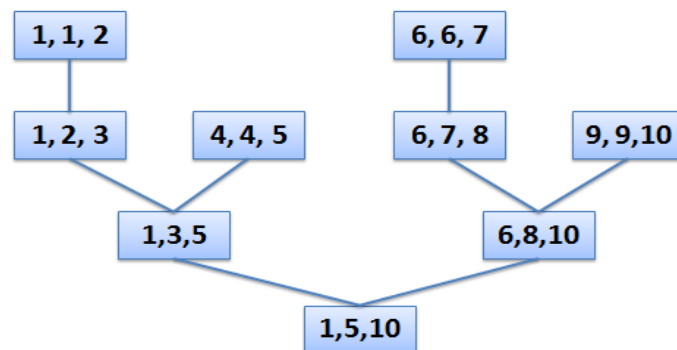


Figure: Tree of calls of Merge

If the time for the merging operation is proportional to n ,

If the time for the merging operation is proportional to n , then computing time for merge sort is described by the recurrence relation.

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} a & n = 1 \\ a.T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + c.n & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Where a and c are constants.

We can solve this equation by successive substitutions.

Assume n is a power of 2, $n=2^k$, i.e., $\log n = k$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 T(n) &= 2.T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + c.n \\
 &= 2\left[2.T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + c.\frac{n}{2}\right] + cn. \\
 &= 2^2.T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + 2cn \\
 &= 2^2\left[2.T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + c.\frac{n}{4}\right] + 2cn \\
 &= 2^3.T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + 3cn \\
 &\text{after } k \text{ substitutions} \\
 &= 2^k.T(1) + kcn \\
 &= an + cn.\log n
 \end{aligned}$$

It is easy to see that if $2^k < n \leq 2^{k+1}$, then $T(n) \leq T(2^{k+1})$
 $\therefore T(n) = O(n \log n)$

Quick Sort:

- In Quick sort, the division into two subarrays is made in such a way that, the sorted subarrays do not need to be merged later.
- This is achieved by rearranging the elements in $a[l:n]$ such that $a[i] \leq a[j]$ for all i between l and m and all j between $m+1$ and n for some m , $l \leq m \leq n$.
- Thus, the elements in $a[l:m]$ and $a[m+1:n]$ can be independently sorted. No merge is needed.
- The rearrangement of the elements is accomplished
 - By picking some element of $a[l]$, say $t = a[s]$.
 - And then reordering the elements so that all elements appearing before t in $a[l:n]$ are less than or equal to t and all elements appearing after t are greater than or equal to t .
 - The rearranging is referred to partitioning.

Following algorithm accomplishes partitioning of elements of $a[m:p]$. It is assumed that $a[m]$ is the partitioning element.

```

1  Algorithm Partition(a, low, high)
2  {
3      pivot := a[low], i := low + 1, j := high;
4      while (i < j) do
5          {
6              while (a[i] ≤ pivot and i ≤ j) do
7                  i := i + 1;
8              while (a[j] ≥ pivot and j ≥ i) do
9                  j := j - 1;
10             if (i < j) then
11                 interchange(a, i, j);
12         }

```

```

13     interchange(a, low, j);
14     return j;
15 }

```

The function interchange(a,i,j) exchanges a[i] with a[j].

```

1  Algorithm interchange(a, i, j)
2  {
3      temp:=a[i];
4      a[i]:=a[j];
5      a[j]:=temp;
6  }

```

Example: working of partition.

Consider the following array of 9 elements.

The partition function is initially invoked as **Partition(a, 1, 9)**.

The element a[1] i.e., 65 is the partitioning element

a[1]	a[2]	a[3]	a[4]	a[5]	a[6]	a[7]	a[8]	a[9]	i	j	
65	70	75	80	85	60	55	50	45	2	9	i<j, swap a[i],a[j]
65	45	75	80	85	60	55	50	70	3	8	i<j, swap a[i],a[j]
65	45	50	80	85	60	55	75	70	4	7	
65	45	50	55	85	60	80	75	70	5	6	
65	45	50	55	60	85	80	75	70	6	5	i>j, swap pivot with a[j]
60	45	50	55	65	85	80	75	70			Now elements are partitioned about pivot i.e., 65

Now the elements are partitioned about pivot element and the remaining elements are unsorted.

- Using this method of partitioning, we can directly devise a divide and conquer method for completely sorting n elements.
- Two sets S1 and S2 are produced after calling partition. Each set can be sorted independently by reusing the function partition.

Following algorithm describes the complete process.

```

1  Algorithm QuickSort(low, high)
2  {
3      if (low<high) then           //if there are more than one element.
4      {
5          j:=partition(a,low,high); //Partitioning into subproblems
6          // Solve the subproblems
7          QuickSort(a, low, j-1);
8          QuickSort(a, j+1,high);
9      }
10 }

```

Analysis:

- In quicksort, the pivot element we chose divides the array into 2 parts.
 - One of size k .
 - Other of size $n-k$.
- Both these parts still need to be sorted.
- This gives us the following relation.

$$T(n) = T(k) + T(n-k) + c.n$$

Where $T(n)$ refers to the time taken by the algorithm to sort n elements.

Worst-case Analysis:

Worst case happens when pivot is the least element in the array.

Then we have $k=1$ and $n-k=n-1$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow T(n) &= T(1) + T(n-1) + c.n \\ &= T(1) + [T(1) + T(n-2) + c.(n-1)] + c.n \\ &= T(n-2) + 2.T(1) + c.(n-1+n) \\ &= [T(1) + T(n-3) + c.(n-2)] + 2.T(1) + c.(n-1+n) \\ &= T(n-3) + 3.T(1) + c.(n-2+n-1+n) \end{aligned}$$

:

Continuing likewise till i th step

$$\begin{aligned} &= T(n-i) + i.T(1) + c.(n-i-1 + \dots + n-2 + n-1 + n) \\ &= T(n-i) + i.T(1) + c.\sum_{j=0}^{i-1} (n-j) \end{aligned}$$

This recurrence can go until $i=n-1$. Substitute $i=n-1$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= T(1) + (n-1).T(1) + c.\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} (n-j) \\ &= n.T(1) + c.\sum_{j=0}^{n-2} (n-j) \\ &= O(n^2) \end{aligned}$$

Best-case Analysis:

Best case of Quick Sort occurs when pivot we pick divide the array into two equal parts, in every step.

$$\therefore k = \frac{n}{2}, \quad n-k = \frac{n}{2}, \quad \text{for array of size } n$$

$$\text{We have } T(n) = T(k) + T(n-k) + c.n$$

$$= 2.T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + c.n$$

Solving this gives **$O(n \log n)$** .

Randomized Quick Sort:

- Algorithm Quick Sort has an average time of $O(n \log n)$ and worst case of $O(n^2)$ on ' n ' elements.
- It does not make use of any additional memory like Merge Sort.
- Quick Sort can be modified by using randomizer, so that its performance will be improved.
- While sorting the array $a[p:q]$, pick a random element (from $a[p] \dots a[q]$) as the partition element.
- The randomized algorithm works on any input and runs in an expected $O(n \log n)$ time, where the expectation is over the space of all possible outcomes of the randomizer.

- The code of randomized quick sort is given below. It is a *Las Vegas algorithm* since it always outputs the correct answer.

```

1  Algorithm RQuickSort(p, q)
2  {
3      if (p < q) then
4      {
5          if ((q - p) > 5) then
6              interchange(a, Random() mod (q - p + 1) + p, p);
7          j := partition(a, p, q + 1);
8          RQuickSort(p, j - 1);
9          RQuickSort(j + 1, q);
10     }
11 }
```

- Reason for invoking randomizer only if $(q - p) > 5$ is
 - Every call to randomizer Random takes a certain amount of time.
 - If there are only a few elements to sort, the time taken by the randomizer may be comparable to the rest of the computation.

Strassen's Matrix Multiplication

- Let A and B two $n \times n$ matrices.
- The product $C = AB$ is also a $n \times n$ matrix, where

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^n A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

- Here we need n multiplications to compute C_{ij} .
- To compute all n^2 elements of C, we require n^3 multiplications, therefore, Time Complexity of conventional method is $\theta(n^3)$.

Divide and Conquer Strategy

- Assume that n is a power of 2, i.e., $n = 2^k$.
- In case n is not a power of 2, then enough rows and columns of zeros can be added to both A and B so that the resulting dimensions are a power of two.
- Divide A and B into four submatrices, each submatrix having dimensions $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{cc} \text{A11} & \text{A12} \\ \text{A21} & \text{A22} \end{array} \\
 A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{cc} \text{B11} & \text{B12} \\ \text{B21} & \text{B22} \end{array} \\
 B = \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & b_{23} & b_{24} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} & b_{33} & b_{34} \\ b_{41} & b_{42} & b_{43} & b_{44} \end{bmatrix} \begin{array}{cc} \text{B11} & \text{B12} \\ \text{B21} & \text{B22} \end{array} \\
 \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{4}{2} \quad \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{4}{2}
 \end{array}$$

If $n = 2$, the matrix product is computed as

$$A \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \times B \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} = C \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2}$$

Where,

$$C_{11} = a_{11} * b_{11} + a_{12} * b_{21}$$

$$C_{12} = a_{11} * b_{12} + a_{12} * b_{22}$$

$$C_{21} = a_{21} * b_{11} + a_{22} * b_{21}$$

$$C_{22} = a_{21} * b_{12} + a_{22} * b_{22}$$

- If $n > 2$, the elements of C can be computed using matrix multiplication and addition operations applied to matrices of size $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$.
- This algorithm will continue applying itself to smaller-sized submatrices until n becomes small ($n = 2$) so that the product is computed directly.
- To compute AB , we need to perform 8 multiplications of $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ matrices and 4 additions of $\frac{n}{2} \times \frac{n}{2}$ matrices.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{cc}
 \text{A11} & \text{A12} \\
 \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{23} & a_{24} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \text{A21} & \text{A22}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{cc}
 \text{B11} & \text{B12} \\
 \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} b_{13} & b_{14} \\ b_{23} & b_{24} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \text{B21} & \text{B22}
 \end{array}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \begin{bmatrix} a_{31} & a_{32} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{43} & a_{44} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{4}{2}
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \begin{bmatrix} b_{31} & b_{32} \\ b_{41} & b_{43} \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} b_{33} & b_{34} \\ b_{43} & b_{44} \end{bmatrix} \\
 \frac{4}{2} \times \frac{4}{2}
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{A} \begin{bmatrix} \text{A11} & \text{A12} \\ \text{A21} & \text{A22} \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \quad \text{B} \begin{bmatrix} \text{B11} & \text{B12} \\ \text{B21} & \text{B22} \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2}
 \end{array}$$

The overall computing time is ,

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & n \leq 2 \\ 8T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n^2 & n > 2 \end{cases}$$

- By solving this, we get $O(n^3)$. There is no improvement over the conventional method.
- Even after applying divide and conquer, the time complexity remains the same. To improve the algorithm, reformulate the equations for C_{ij} with fewer multiplications.
- Strassen discovered a way to compute C_{ij} with 7 multiplications and 18 additions or subtractions.
- The formulas given by Strassen are

$$P = (A_{11} + A_{22}) * (B_{11} + B_{22})$$

$$Q = (A_{21} + A_{22}) * B_{11}$$

$$R = A_{11} * (B_{12} - B_{22})$$

$$S = A_{22} * (B_{21} - B_{11})$$

$$T = (A_{11} + A_{12}) * B_{22}$$

$$U = (A_{21} - A_{11}) * (B_{11} + B_{12})$$

$$V = (A_{12} - A_{22}) * (B_{21} + B_{22})$$

The C matrix is computed by using the above 7 matrices

$$C_{11} = P+S-T+V$$

$$C_{12} = R+T$$

$$C_{21} = Q+S$$

$$C_{22} = P+R-Q+U$$

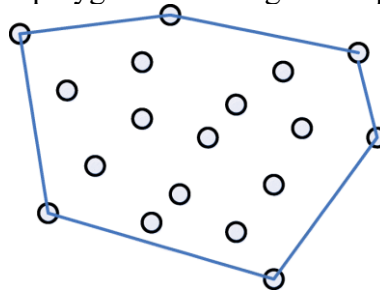
Now the time complexity is

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} b & n \leq 2 \\ 7T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n^2 & n > 2 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{i.e., } T(n) = O(n^{\log_2 7}) = O(n^{2.81})$$

Convex Hull

- A convex hull is an important structure in geometry that can be used in the construction of many other geometric structures.
- A convex hull is a polygon that encloses all of the points. The vertices maximize the area, while minimizing the circumference. In other words, The convex hull of a set S of points in the plane is defined to be the smallest convex polygon containing all the points of S.



Geometric primitives

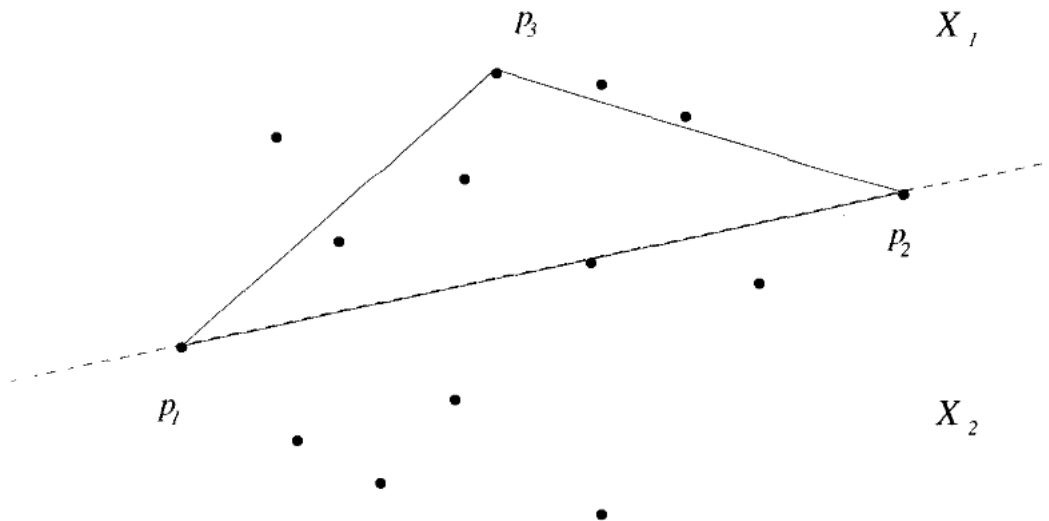
- Let (p_1, p_2) is a line segment from $p_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ and $p_2 = (x_2, y_2)$.
- $q = (x_3, y_3)$ is another point.
- If the angle $p_1 p_2 q$ is a left turn, then we say that q is to the left of (p_1, p_2) . An angle is said to be a left turn if it is less than or equal to 180° .
- To check whether q is to the left of (p_1, p_2) , evaluate the determinant of the following matrix. If the det is positive, then q is on the left side. If $q=0$, then the three points are colinear.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The QuickHull algorithm

- This algorithm is used to compute the convex hull of a set X of n inputs in the plane.
- The algorithm first identifies the two points (p_1 and p_2) of X with the smallest and largest x-coordinate values. Both p_1 and p_2 are extreme points and part of the convex hull.
- The set X is divided into X_1 and X_2 so that X_1 has all the points to the left of the line segment $\langle p_1, p_2 \rangle$ and X_2 has all the points to the right of the line segment $\langle p_1, p_2 \rangle$. Both X_1 and X_2 include the two points p_1 and p_2 .

- Then the convex hulls of X_1 and X_2 (called the upper hull and lower hull) are computed using divide and conquer algorithm.
- The union of these two hulls is the overall convex hull.
- To compute the convex hull of X_1 ,
 - Determine a point of X_1 that belongs to the convex hull of X_1 and use it to partition the problem into two independent subproblems. The point is obtained by computing the area formed by p_1, p and p_2 for each p in X_1 and picking the one with the largest area. Let p_3 be the point.



- Now X_1 is divided into two parts; the first part contains all the points of X_1 that are to the left of $< p_1, p_3 >$ (including p_1 and p_3) and the second part contains all the points of X_1 that are to the left of $< p_3, p_2 >$ (including p_3 and p_2). The remaining points are interior points and can be dropped from consideration.
- The convex hull of each part is computed recursively, and the two convex hulls are merged easily by placing one next to the other in the right order.