

DECREASE AND CONQUER APPROACHES, SPACE-TIME TRADEOFFS.

TOPICS

- 1.) Introduction
 - 2.) Insertion Sort
 - 3.) Depth first search
 - 4.) Breadth first search
 - 5.) Topological Sorting
- Space time tradeoff
- 1.) Introduction
 - 2.) Sorting by Counting
 - 3.) Input Enhancement by String Matching.

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INTRODUCTION

The principle idea of decrease & conquer is to solve the given problem by reducing its instance to a smaller one & then extending the obtained solution to get a solution to the original instance.

Difference B/w Divide & Conquer AND Decrease & Conquer

There ~~are~~ may be several sub problems that need to be solved for Divide & Conquer algorithms.

There may be one sub problem that needs to be solved for Decrease & Conquer algorithms.

Decrease & Conquer

Is a approach for solving a problem by:

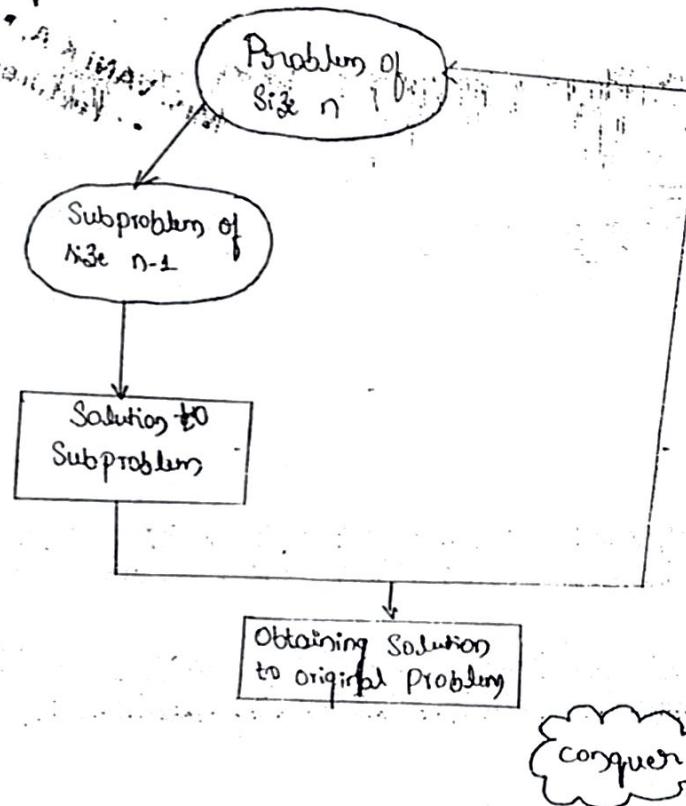
- * Change an instance into one smaller instance of the problem.
- * Solve the smaller instance.
- * Convert the solution of the smaller instance into a solution for the larger instance.

In this method the problem can be solved using top-down solution (or) using bottom up solution.

There are 3 major variations:-

- a) Decrease by constant
- b) Decrease by constant factor
- c) Variable size decrease.

(a)* Decrease by constant In this method the size of the instance is reduced by same constant on each iteration of the algorithm. Generally this constant is equal to one.



Ex:- To compute a^{10} we can write,

$$a^{10} = a^9 \cdot a$$

If we formulate this eq. then we can write it as,

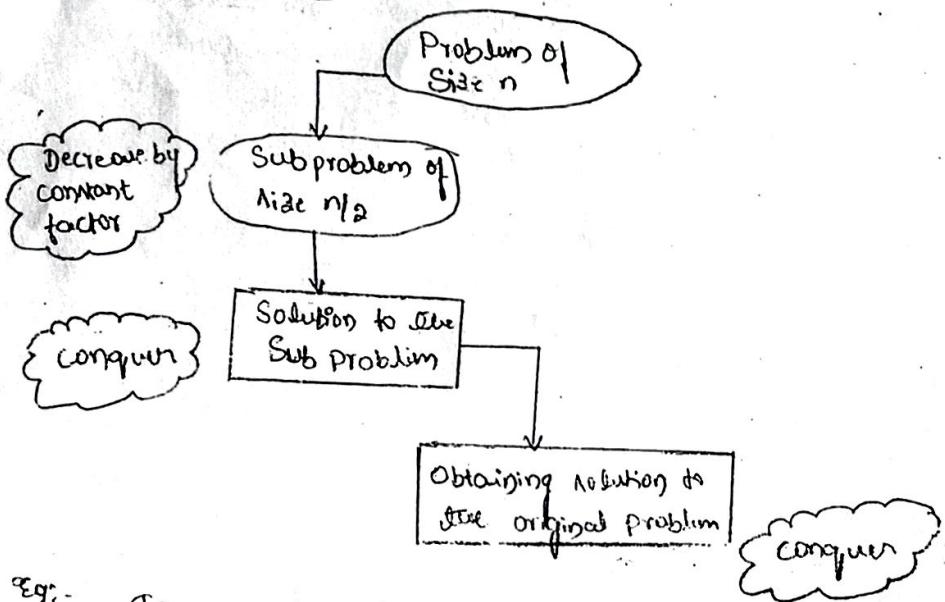
$$a^n = a^{n-1} \cdot a$$

Applications of Decrease & Conquer

This method is used to solve the following problems:-

- * Insertion sort
- * Graph Searching algorithms
 - Depth First Search
 - Breadth First search
 - Topological Sorting.

Decrease by a Constant Factor In this method the size of the problem is reduced by half (or) by some other fraction.



Eg:- To compute a^{10} we can write.

$$a^{10} = a^5 \cdot a^5$$

Applications of Decrease by Constant

*) Binary Search

b) Variable Size Decrease In this method the size reduction pattern varies from one iteration of an algorithm to another.

Eg:- Finding GCD

$$\text{gcd}(m, n) = \text{gcd}(m, m \bmod n)$$

In finding GCD the 2 no's go on varying until we get the GCD value.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gcd}(60, 24) &= \text{gcd}(24, 12) \\ &\quad \downarrow \\ &= \text{gcd}(12, 0) \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{12 \times 4}{48}$$

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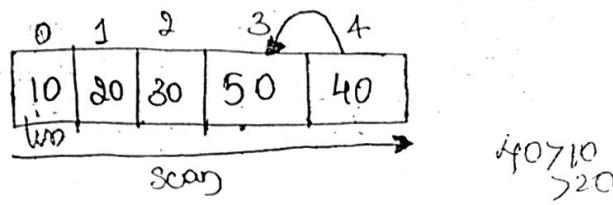
$$\begin{array}{r} (24, 12) \\ \overline{) 24 \quad 12} \\ 12 \quad 12 \\ \hline 0 \quad 0 \end{array}$$

In this method the element is inserted at its appropriate position.
 Generally the insertion sort maintains a zone of sorted elements. If any unsorted element is obtained then it is compared with the elements in the sorted zone & then it is inserted at the proper position in the sorted zone. This process is continued until we get the complete sorted list. Hence the name of this method is insertion sort.

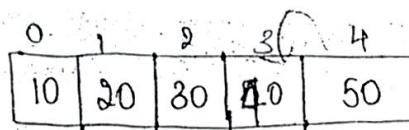
There are 2 ways by which insertion sort is implemented.

- M1) In this method of implementation the sorted sub array is scanned from left to right until the 1st element greater than (or) equal to $A[n-1]$ is encountered & then insert $A[n-1]$ right before that element.

Eg:-

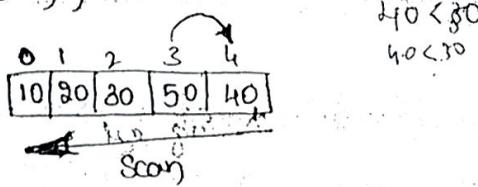


In the above eg we get element 40 which is lesser than 50 so we insert 40 before 50. Hence the list will be sorted.

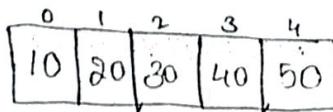


- M2) In this method of implementation the sorted sub array is scanned from right to left until the 1st smaller than (or) equal to $A[n-1]$ is encountered & then insert $A[n-1]$ right after that element.

Eg:-



In the above eg we get element 40 which is lesser than 50 so we insert 40 after 50. Hence the list will be.



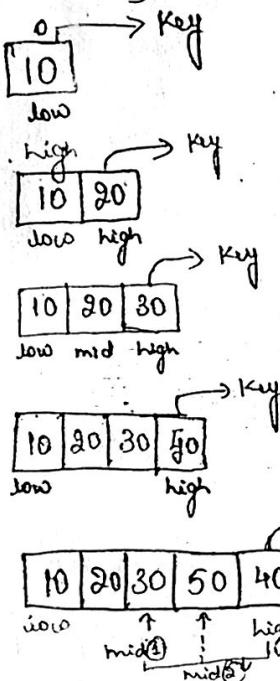
This method is also called as Straight insertion sort (or) Simply as Insertion sort.

The 3rd method is called as "Binary Insertion Sort" because in (3) this method smaller element is searched using Binary search method.

Eg:- Consider the list of elements to be:-

0	1	2	3	4	5
10	20	30	50	40	60

Now we will sort the list.



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10	20	30
low	mid	high

The list becomes:

1	2	3	4	5
10	20	30	40	50

In the further scan we consider.

10	20	30	40	50	60
low					high

By Binary search we will check whether a smaller element is lying after any larger element.

10	20	30	40	50	60
		↑	↑	↑	

mid(1) mid(2) mid(3)

An key is at its proper place. We won't ignore it anywhere else.

Thus after binary insertion sort method we get a sorted list as.

10	20	30	40	50	60
----	----	----	----	----	----

Algorithm :- Insert-Sort ($A[0 \dots n-1]$)

// Input : An array of n elements

// Output : Sorted array $A[0 \dots n-1]$ in ascending order

{ for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n-1$ do

 temp $\leftarrow A[i]$ // mark $A[i]^{th}$ element

$j \leftarrow i-1$ // set 'j' at previous element of $A[i]$

 while ($j \geq 0$) AND ($A[j] > temp$) do

$A[j+1] \leftarrow A[j]$ /* comparing all the previous elements of $A[i]$ with $A[i]$. If any greater element is found then insert it at the proper position */

$j \leftarrow j-1$

 }

$A[j+1] \leftarrow temp$

89 45 68 90 29 34 4

Analysis

Time efficiency

Best case:- It happens for almost sorted array. The no of key comparisons can be

$$\begin{aligned} C_{\text{best}}(n) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1 \\ &= (n-1) - 1 + 1 \\ &= (n-1) \end{aligned}$$

25 75 40 10 20

$$C_{\text{best}}(n) = \Theta(n)$$

Thus the best case time complexity of inserting sort is $\Theta(n)$.

Average case:- When an array contains randomly distributed elements then it results in average case time complexity. As compared to worst case at least half no. of comparisons are needed to obtain average case complexity.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore C_{\text{avg}}(n) &= \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{n^2-n}{4} \\ &= \frac{n^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Worst Case: - When we sort a list in increasing order it results in worst case behavior of algorithm.

- 1) The basic operation of algorithm is $A[i] > \text{temp}$.
- 2) The basic operation depends upon the size of list i.e. $n-1$
- 3) The no. of key comparisons for such I/P is

$$C_{\text{worst}}(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} 1$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)n}{2}$$

$$C_{\text{worst}}(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

$$\therefore \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} 1 = i - 1 + 1$$

$$\therefore \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} 1 = (i-1) - 0 + 1$$

$$= 1$$

The worst case time complexity of Insertion Sort is $\Theta(n^2)$

Advantages of Insertion Sort

- 1) Simple to implement.
- 2) This method is efficient when we want to sort small no. of elements. And this method has excellent performance on almost sorted list of elements.
- 3) More efficient than most other simple $\Theta(n^2)$ algorithms such as Selection Sort or bubble sort.
- 4) This is a stable algorithm in maintaining relative order.
- 5) It is called in-place sorting algorithm. [in-place \rightarrow The I/P is overwritten by O/P is to execute the sorting method]

Ex:-

Sorted part unsorted part

89 | 45 62 90 29 34 17

45 89 | 68 90 29 34 17

45 68 89 | 90 29 34 17

45 68 89 | 90 | 29 34 17

29 45 68 89 | 90 | 17

29 34 45 68 89 | 90 | 17

17 29 34 45 68 89 | 90

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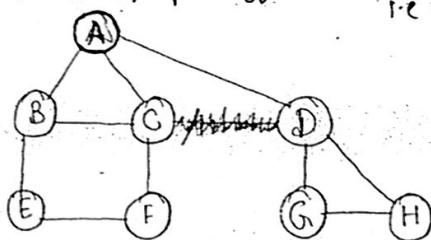
The systematic follow up of the edges of the graph in some specific order to visit the vertices of the graph is called "graph Searching".

There are 2 searching algorithms:-

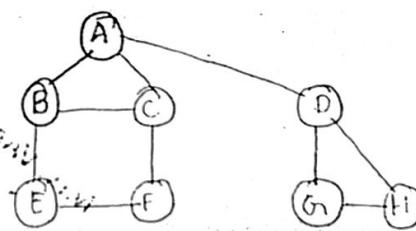
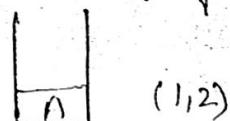
- (1) Depth First Search (DFS)
- (2) Breadth First Search (BFS)

Rules of DFS ! -

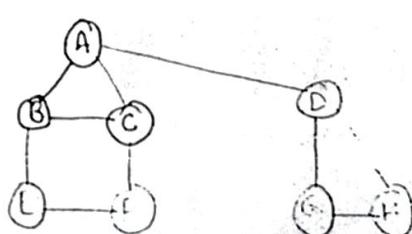
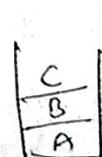
- 1.) Select an unvisited node 'V', visit it, & treat it as the current node.
- 2.) Find an unvisited neighbour of the current node, visit it, & make it the new current node. If there are more than one unvisited neighbours then resolve the tie by following the alphabetical order.
- 3.) If the current node has no unvisited neighbours, backtrack to its parent & make it new current node. → Process continues
- 4.) Repeat the steps 2 & 3 until no more nodes can be visited.
- 5.) Repeat from step 1 for the remaining nodes.
- 6.) Vertex is pushed onto the stack when vertex is reached for first time.
- 7.) Vertex is popped off the stack when it becomes a dead end i.e. no adjacent vertices.



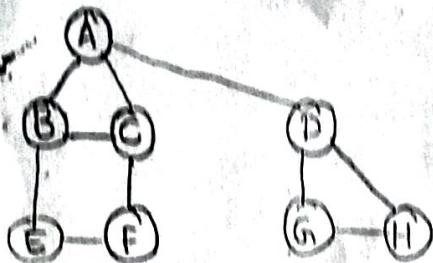
We will start searching in DFS manner from vertex 'A'.



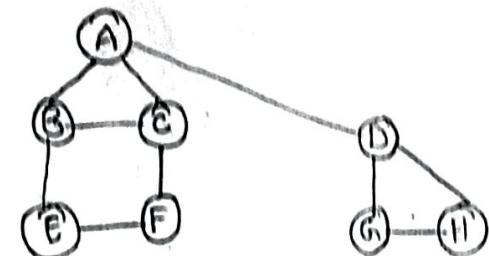
Then visit the neighbouring node 'B'.



Then visit neighbouring node 'C'.

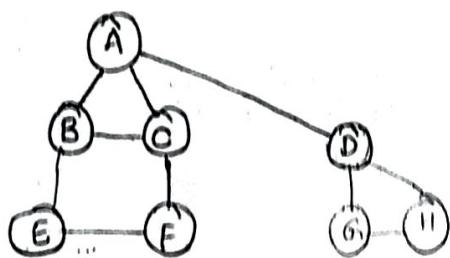


Visit 'F'

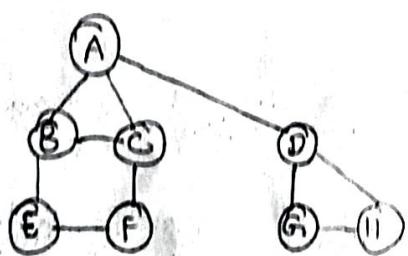


Visit 'G'.

Now from 'E' there is an edge for 'B', but we've already visited B. So we do not visit it.

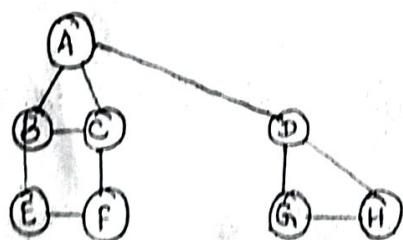
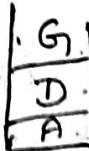


Hence we pop the visited nodes & check if any alternative path exists. From node 'A' we get a path to 'D'. Hence 'D' is visited.



Visit node 'G'.

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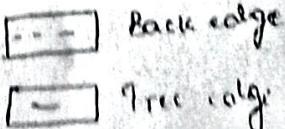
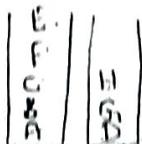
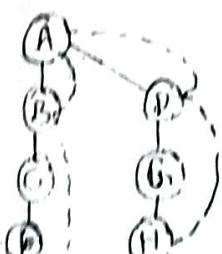
Visit node H: From node 'H' we can visit node 'D' but it is already visited.



As all the nodes are visited in Depth first manner we get the DFS sequence as

A, B, C, F, I, D, G, H.

The DFS Forest can be written as below.



Back edge

Tree edge

Block: Marks all the visited nodes to find the alternate edge after

DFS: [Extra]

DFS is a method of traversing the graph by visiting each node of the graph in a systematic order. A name implies DFS means "to search deeper in the graph".

e.g.: ① In DFS, a vertex u is picked as source vertex and its visited.

Vertex v adjacent to u is picked and is visited.

Now search begins at vertex v .

There may be still some nodes which are adjacent to u but not visited.

When the vertex v is completely examined, then only v is examined. The search will terminate when all the vertices have been examined.

Search continues deeper and deeper in the graph until no vertex is adjacent or all the vertices are visited.

Design: [Extra]

1) Select mode u as start vertex, push u onto stack & mark visited

2) While stack not empty
for vertex u on top of stack, find next immediate adjacent vertex

If v is adjacent

If v is not visited Then

Push onto stack

mark as visited

Else

Ignore the vertex

Endif

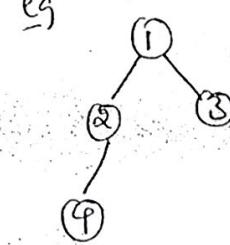
Else

pop vertex from stack

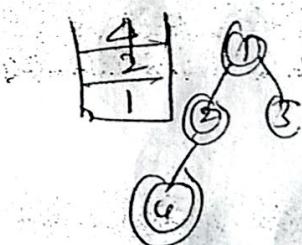
Endif

End while

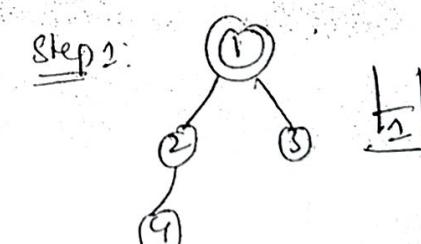
Eg



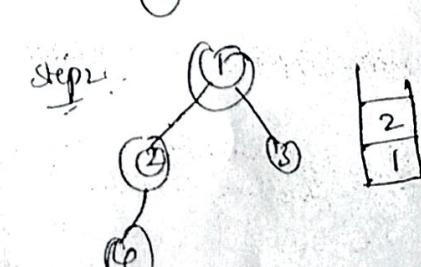
Step 3



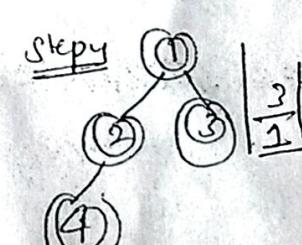
Step 2:



Step 1:



Stepy



Steps

Stack
Empty

edge If a graph 'G' containing an edge (u, v) if a new unvisited vertex 'v' is reached from the current vertex then edge (u, v) is called tree edge.

Back Edge: In a graph 'G' if a previously visited vertex 'v' is reached from the current vertex 'u' then edge (u, v) is called back edge.

Algorithm

Algorithm DFS(v)

// I/p : The graph 'G' which is a collection of vertices (V) & edges (E)

// O/p : from which vertex 'v' is selected as starting vertex.

The sequence of depth first traversal. Initially the vertex 'v' is visited array is marked 1, that means currently we are visiting vertex v.

$\text{visit}[v] = 1$

for (each vertex u adjacent from v) do

{ If ($\text{visit}[u] = 0$) then

DFS(u) //recursive call from next selected vertex u.

{ $\text{visit}[v] = 1$

for ($v=1, v \leq n, v++$)

{ If ($\text{cost}[v][v] = 1 \& \&$ $\text{visit}[v] == 0$)

dfs(v);

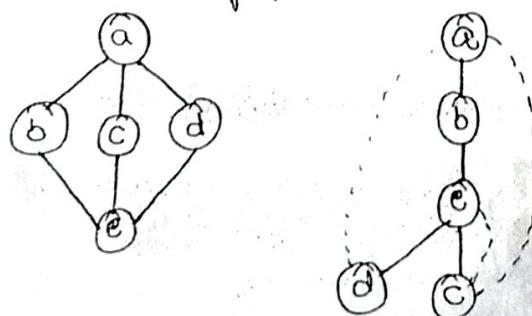
Analysis

Every node is visited once hence the time complexity of DFS is $O(|V| + |E|)$ if the graph is created using adjacency list & it is $O(|V|^2)$ if the graph is created using adjacency matrix.

Applications of Depth First Traversal

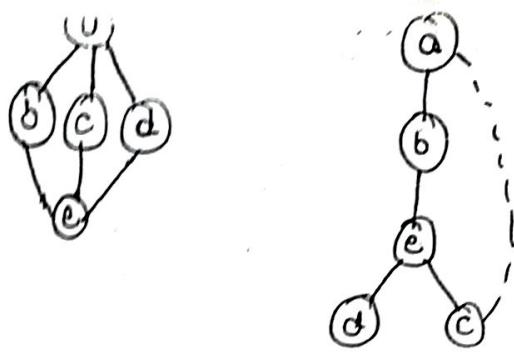
1) DFS is used for checking connectivity of a graph.

- Start traversing the graph using Depth first method & after an algorithm halts if all the vertices of graph are visited then the graph is said to be a connected graph.



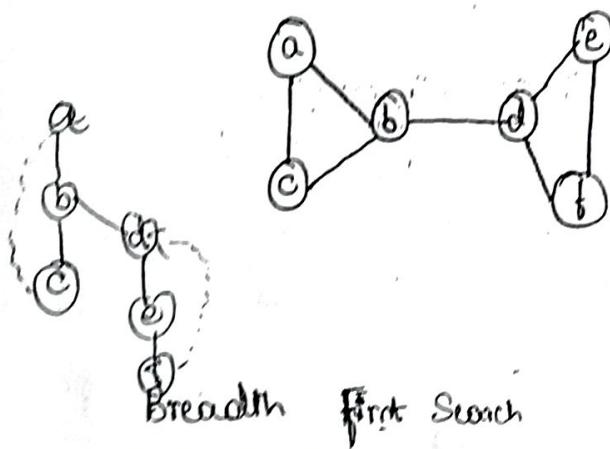
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2) DFS is used for checking acyclicity of graph. If the DFS forest does not have back edge then the graph is said to be



This graph contains cycle, \therefore it contains back edge.

Q) DFS is used to find articulation point.



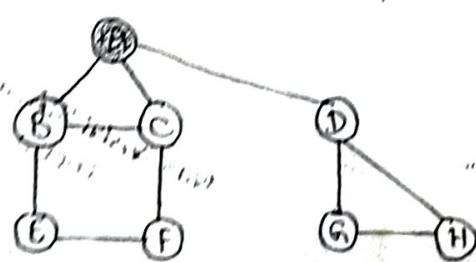
A vertex of connected graph is said to be its articulation point if its removal with all its incident edges breaks the graph into disjoint pieces.
The vertex 'd' is an articulation point.

BFS follows the following rules:-

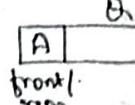
- 1) Select an unvisited node v , visit it. Its level is called the current level.
- 2) From each node ' x ' in the current level, in the order in which the level nodes were visited, visit all the unvisited neighbours of x . The newly visited nodes from this level form a new level. This new level becomes the next current level.
- 3) Repeat step 2 for all the unvisited vertices.
- 4) Repeat from step 1 until no more vertices are remaining.

Eg:- Consider the following graph.

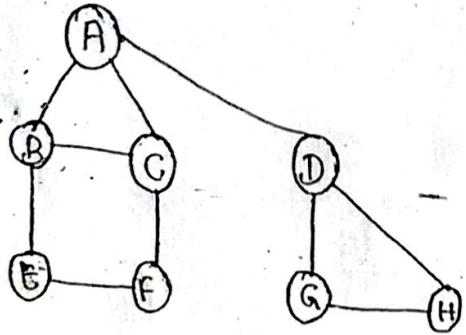
S1:-



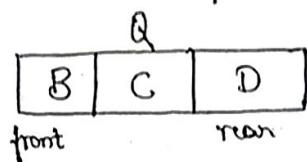
We will start BFS from node A. Hence insert 'A' in the queue Q.



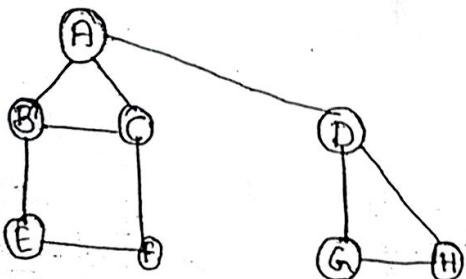
S2:- Delete 'A' & print it as traversed node.



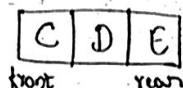
adjacent to 'A' are nodes B, C, & D. (7)
So we'll insert all the adjacent nodes of 'A' to the queue.



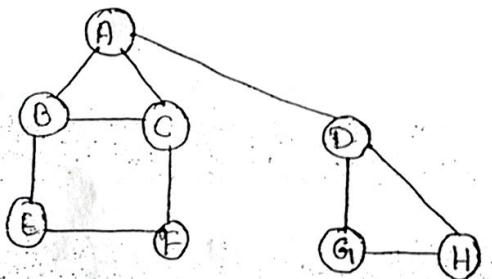
S3:- Delete 'B' & print it as traversed node.



Now find adjacent node of node 'B'
i.e. E. & insert it in queue
[Although 'C' is an adjacent node to 'B'
but it is already inserted in queue
∴ insert E]

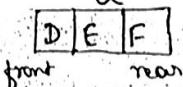


S4:- Delete 'C' & print it as traversed node.

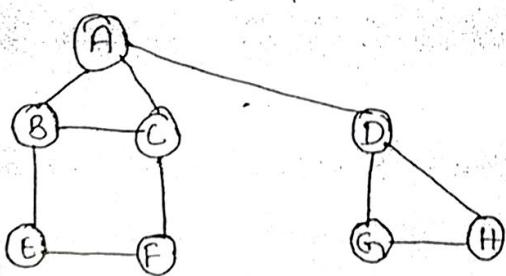


Output
A | B | C

Now insert adjacent unvisited node of 'C' i.e. F.



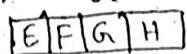
S5:- Delete 'D' & print it as traversed node.



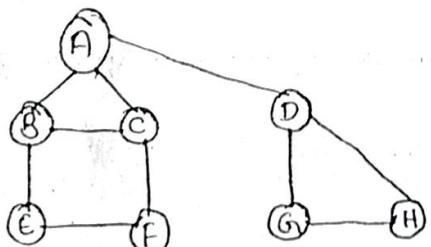
Output

A | B | C | D

Now insert adjacent nodes of 'D' in queue. i.e.



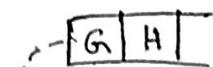
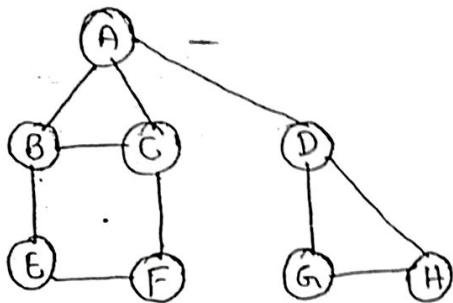
S6:- Delete 'E' & print it as traversed node.



Output
A | B | C | D | E

Now insert adjacent node of 'E'
which is unvisited. As all the
adjacent nodes 'E' are already
inserted in queue. we will not
insert any more node in queue. Hence
queue will remain. Or

The vertices from queue Q , print.



→ F being deleted, print

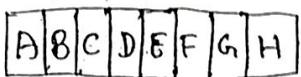


→ G being deleted, print



→ H being deleted, print.

Output

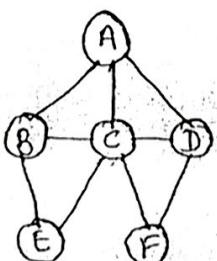


As queue is empty we get display for BFS as

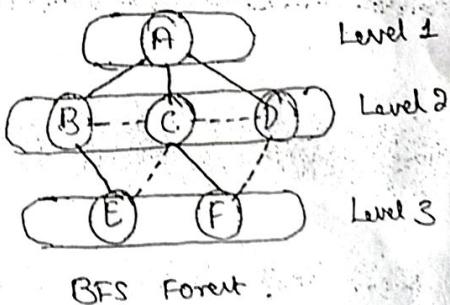
Basic Terminologies in Breadth First Traversal.

Breadth first Forest :- It is a collection of trees in which the traversal starting vertex serves as the root of the first tree in such a forest. Whenever a new unvisited vertex is visited then it is attached as a child to the vertex from which it is being reached.

Consider following graph



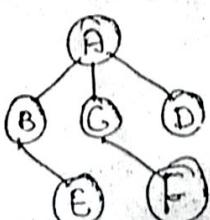
A₁ B₂ C₃ D₄ E₅ F₆



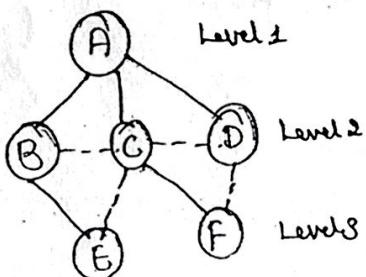
Tree edge:

In a graph 'G' containing an edge (u, v) , if a new unvisited vertex 'v' is reached from the current vertex then edge (u, v) is called tree edge.

The edges b/w tree vertices are tree edges



On edge:- If any edge leading to its previously visited vertex is its immediate predecessor is encountered then that edge is called Cross edge. It is shown by dotted line in the figure below.



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Algorithm:-

Algorithm BFS (V1) X

1) I/P:- The vertex V_1 from which the breadth first searching is done.

2) O/P:- The BFS sequence for the given graph.

```

visit [v1] ← TRUE
front ← rear ← -1
Q [++rear] ← v1
while (front <= rear) do
{
    v1 ← Q [++front];
    write (v1);
    for v2 ← 0 to v2 < n do
    {
        if (q[v1][v2] = TRUE && visit [v2] = FALSE) then
            Q [++rear] ← v2;
        visit [v2] ← TRUE;
    }
}

```

```

Algm bfs (int u)
{
    visited [u] = 1;
    q [0] = u;
    while (f <= s)
    {
        u = q [f] + +;
        for (v = 1, v <= n, v++)
        {
            if (a [u] [v] == 1 && visited [v] == 0)
                q [++s] = v;
            visited [v] = 1;
        }
    }
}

```

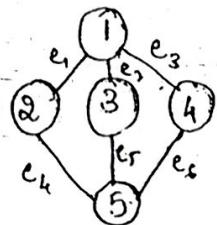
Analysis:-

Every node is visited once hence the time complexity of BFS is $O(VI + EI)$ if the graph is created using the adjacency list & it is $O(VI^2)$ if the graph is created using adjacency matrix.

- ① For finding the connected components in the graph.
- ② For checking if any cycle exists in the given graph.
- ③ To obtain shortest path between two vertices.

Topological Sorting

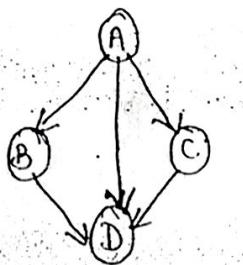
Graph - A graph is a collection of vertices (or) nodes, connected by a collection of edges.



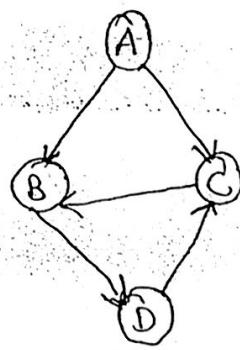
$$\begin{aligned} G_1 &= \{V, E\} \\ V &= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \\ E &= \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6\} \end{aligned}$$

DAG :- (Directed Acyclic Graph)

Is a graph with NO cycle. Also a graph is directed.



It is a DAG.



It is not DAG.

Based on DAG Specific ordering of vertices is possible.
This method of arranging the vertices in some specific manner
is called Topological sort. (or) Topological Ordering.

Topological sorting is done in two ways:-

- ① Source Removal Method
- ② DFS Method.

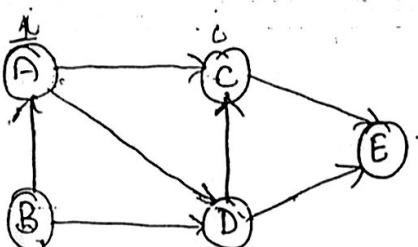
Source Removal algorithm (SRA)

(A)

This is a direct implementation of decrease & conquer method.
Following are the steps to be followed in this algorithm.

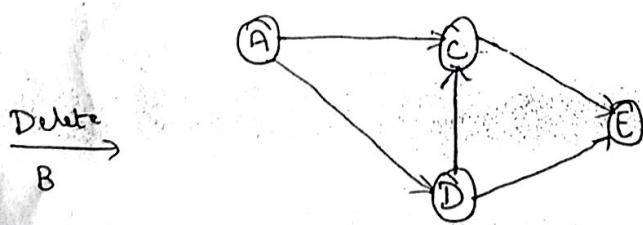
- (1) From a given graph find a vertex with no incoming edges. Delete it along with all the edges outgoing from it. If there are more than one such vertices then break the tie randomly.
- (2) Note the vertices that are deleted.
- (3) All the recorded vertices give topologically sorted list.

Ex:- Sort the digraph for Topological sort using SRA method?

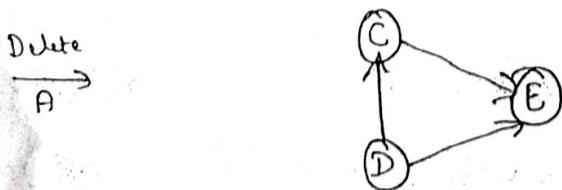


Choose vertex (B) :: it has no incoming edge, delete it along with its adjacent edge.

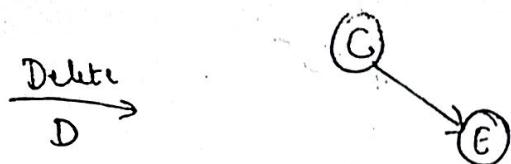
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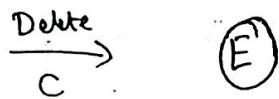
Now delete (A) :: it has no incoming edges, delete it along with its adjacent edge.



Now Delete (D) :: it's incoming edges are 0, delete it along with its adjacent edge.



Now delete (C) since it has no incoming edge. Along with its adjacent edges.

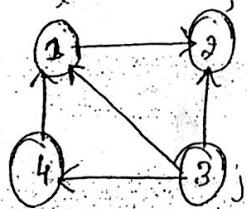


Finally Delete 'E'

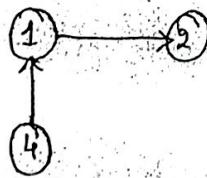
Hence the list after Topological sorting will be

B, A, D, C, E.

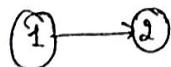
Ex.) Consider the following graph.



Delete (3) since it has no incoming vertices.



Now delete (4)



Now delete (1)



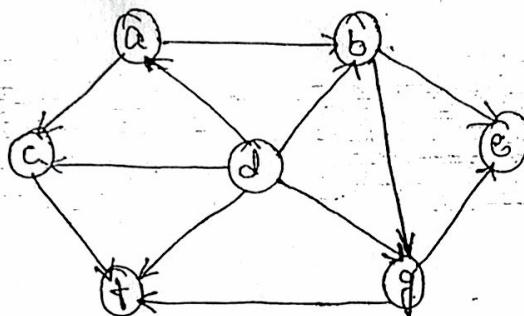
The topological order is

3, 4, 1, 2

The following steps are used to find topological order.

- 1.) Select any arbitrary vertex.
- 2.) When vertex is visited first time it is pushed on to stack.
- 3.) When vertex becomes a dead end, it is removed.
- 4.) Repeat above two steps till all nodes are over.
- 5.) Reverse the order of deleted nodes.

Consider the graph shown below:-



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d, g, c, b, j, f, e



Let source be 'a'

Stack	Nodes to be visited	Nodes deleted / Popped
[a]	b	-
[a, b]	e	-
[a, b, e]	From 'e' no nodes to visit, so delete 'e'	e
[a, b]	g	-
[a, b, g]	f	-
[a, b, g, f]	From 'f' no nodes to visit, so delete 'f'	f
[a, b, g]	g	-
[a, b]	From 'g' no nodes to visit, so delete 'g'	g
[a, b]	b	-
a	c	-
a, c	From 'c' no nodes to visit, so delete 'c'	-

vinit to delete 'a'

Now stack is empty, any node left in graph is pushed on to stack.
The left out node in d.

d

| from 'd' no nodes to vinit
| to delete 'd'
d

The node popped sequence is

e, f, g, b, c, a, d

The topological sort is reverse of popped sequence

d, a, c, b, g, f, e

Algorithm:-

Algorithm topo(S, n, a)

// S is array indicates node visited/not

// a is adjacency matrix

// n is no. of vertices

S1:- for u ← 1 to n do

if $\alpha[u] = 0$ call DFS (u, n, a)

end for

S2:- for i ← n down to 1 // print in reverse order
print result[i] of popped vertex

S3:- End.

Algorithm DFS (u, n, a)

begin
visited[u] ← 1

for v ← 1 to n do

if $(\alpha[u][v] = 1 \text{ and } \text{visited}[v] = 0)$ then

DFS (v, n, a)

End if

End for

result[j++]

= u

End.

Efficiency Of Topological sorting for DFS

(10) (11)

Let $T(n)$ be the time taken by algorithm to sort vertices. the basic

(i) key operation is:

for $v \leftarrow 1$ to n do

{ if ($a[u][v] = 1$ and $s[v] = 0$) then
DFS(v, n, a)

for $u \leftarrow 1$ to n do

{ if ($s[u] = 0$) call
DFS(u, n, a)

$$T(n) = \sum_{u=1}^n \sum_{v=1}^n 1$$

$$= \sum_{u=1}^n n - 1 + 1$$

$$= \sum_{u=1}^n n$$

$$T(n) = \underline{\underline{n^2}}$$

No. time efficiency in $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$

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Time Efficiency of Topological sorting by Source Removal Method.

Algorithm Topology (a, n)

// a is adjacency matrix, 'n' is the no of nodes begin

begin

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n do

for $j \leftarrow 1$ to n do

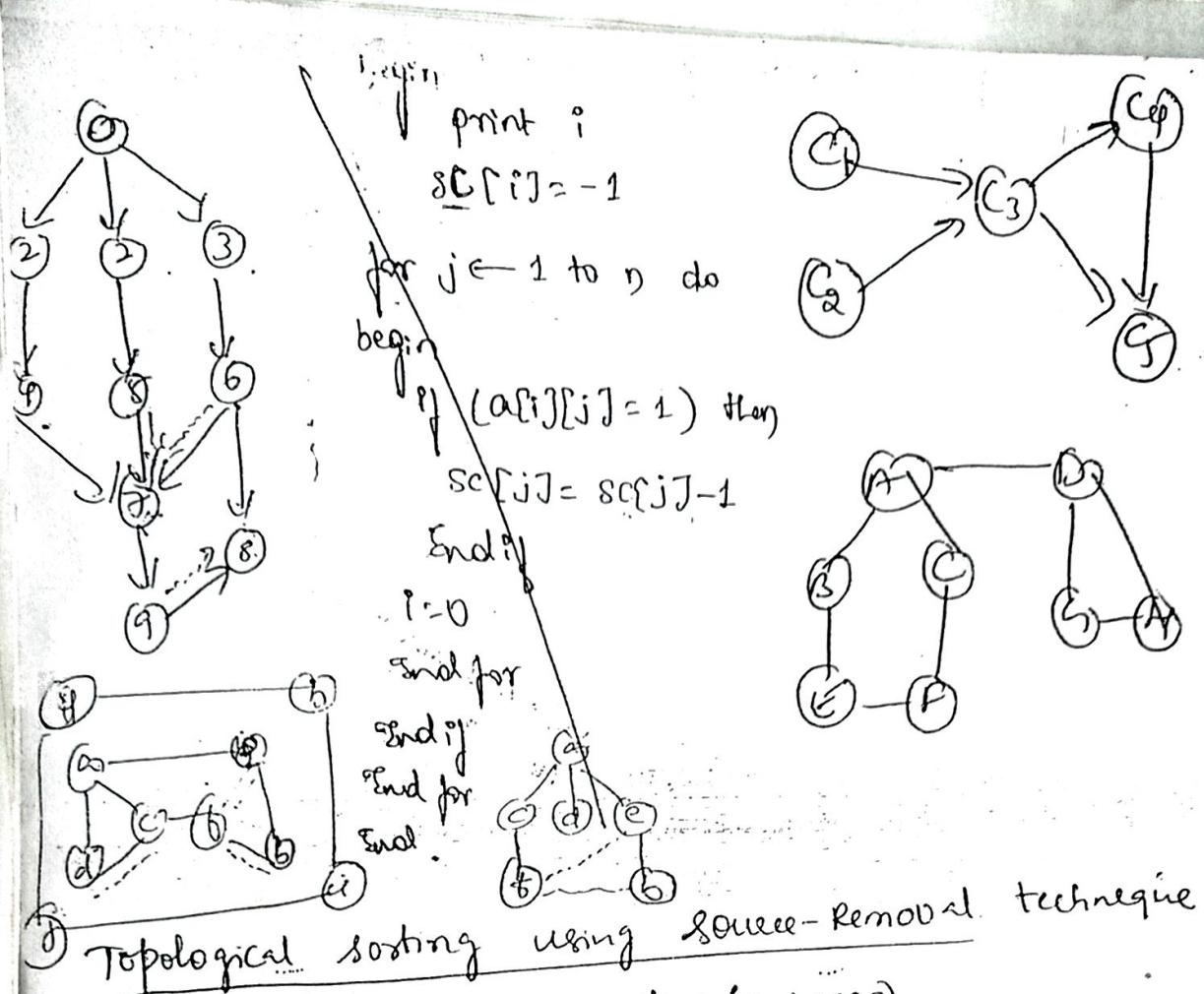
{ if ($a[i][j] = 1$) $s[i] = s[i] + 1$

end

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to n do

begin

if ($s[i] = 0$) then



403
 404 16
 406 18
 407 21
 408 22
 414 23
 416 28
 1 33
 5 32
 9 33
 10 41
 12 41
 13 41
 52 5
 5 5

Topological sorting using source-removal technique

Algmrn topological sorting (cost[])

```

for(i=0; i<n; i++)
  for(j=1; j<n; j++)
    Indegree[i] = indegree[i] + cost[j][i];
  count=0;
  while(count < n)
    {
      for(i=1; i<n; i++)
        If( indegree[i] == 0 && !visited[i])
          {
            printf("%d", i);
            visited[i]=1; //deleting
            count++;
            for(w=1; w<n; w++)
              if( cost[i][w] == 1 )
                Indegree[w]--;
                //Reducing the Indegree
                //Removing the outgoing edges
          }
    }
  }
}
  
```